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THE SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS OF PERCEPTIONS IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS: A NEW APPROACH TO THE ASSESSMENT OF MARITAL RELATIONSHIPS

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Glenn James Veenstra, Jr.

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John R Hurley

Major professor

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THE SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS OF PERCEPTIONS IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS: A NEW APPROACH TO THE ASSESSMENT OF MARITAL RELATIONSHIPS

By

Glenn James Veenstra, Jr.

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ABSTRACT

THE SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS OF PERCEPTIONS IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS: A NEW APPROACH TO THE ASSESSMENT OF MARITAL RELATIONSHIPS

By

Glenn James Veenstra, Jr.

Called SAPIR (Systematic Analysis of Perceptions in Interpersonal Relationships), a new approach to the assessment of interpersonal relationships was developed and applied to married couples. It has a richer theoretical foundation than comparable contemporary approaches of Laing, Phillipson, and Lee (1966) and Alperson (1975), and it more comprehensively samples and analyzes couples' perceptions. SAPIR's principles were used to construct the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire (MPQ) which asked husband and wife to each rate actual self and actual spouse behaviors and ideal self and ideal spouse expectations from their own and their spouse's point of view on 63 selected interpersonal issues. This resulted in 16 ratings for each issue which were analyzed at three levels: (1) viewpoints, ratings were summed yielding Loving and Dominance scale scores for each of the 16 viewpoints; (2) comparisons, direction and extent of differences between viewpoint scores yielded measures of role differentiation, dissatisfaction, disagreement, and misunderstanding; and (3) patterns,

pattern of differences between comparisons measured externalized dissatisfaction, rating favorability, and complementary need patterns.

To evaluate SAPIR's validity, the MPQ and a widely used index of marital satisfaction, the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), were administered to 80 couples, 60 randomly sampled young couples and 20 couples who had sought marital counseling. Correlations were determined between the couples' DAS scores and all MPQ measures. As hypothesized, the less adjusted the couple, the more hostile and dominating they rated their actual relationship and the less love and submissiveness they expected ideally. Role polarization increased with maladjustment, as each saw their spouse as less loving than her/himself. The more maladjusted, the greater was couples' dissatisfaction with their actual behavior, especially with the behavior of their spouses who were perceived as needing to change more than self. Both disagreement and misunderstanding correlated inversely with marital satisfaction, and more unhappy spouses expected their partners to rate them more unfavorably than they deserved.

Beyond replicating (at the .0001 for most correlations) much prior marital perception research, the MPQ provided empirical support for the clinical observation that maladjusted marriages are characterized by a destructive pattern of depreciating spouse while enhancing self. Multiple regression equations showed that optimal combinations of MPQ measures accounted for over 75% of DAS variance for husbands and more than 85% for wives. The MPQ's measures and refinements predicted DAS better than previously used measures, supporting SAPIR's utility in assessing marital relationships.

DEDICATION

To the Lord

who leads me on my journey.

To Joyce and Christi

who accompany me on my journey.

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I appreciated the cooperation of Dr. John Hurley, Dr. Donald Melcer, Mr. Wayne Parker, Ms. Marilyn Viera, Ms. Lee Olson,and the Psychological Clinic in providing couples to participate in the study. The computer resources and other assistance provided by the Department of Psychology through Mr. Roger Halley, Ms. Kris Burgess, and Ms. Carol Hoeke were also very much appreciated. The special typing done by Mrs. Jan Buis was a real blessing on so many occasions.

Finally, the understanding and support of my wife, Joyce, has meant so much to me, and I am very thankful for her companionship in this endeavor.

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INTRODUCTION

As McLeod and Chaffee (1973) have pointed out, psychology has tended to look within the individual for explanations of human behavior, and as a result most of the assessment instruments developed by psychologists have focused on the personality of the individual. These tests were of some use to therapists who worked with clients individually. However, as the importance of interpersonal phenomena has been more clearly understood, therapists have become more concerned with changing the relationship between people instead of just changing the individual. Marital and family therapists who are in the forefront of this movement have found that the personality tests are of limited usefulness in their work because relationships are more than the sum of the personalities of each participant. What is crucial in understanding a relationship is the interaction between the personalities of each participant. While it has been difficult to conceptualize individual personalities themselves, the task of conceptualizing personalities in interaction is even more complex, for as Buber (1957) has pointed out each person is influenced by not only their own personality but also by their perception of the personality of the other and by their perception of the other's perceptions. According to Alperson (1975) research efforts to understand this field of interpersonal perceptions waned in the 1960's following Cronbach's (1958) rather devastating critique of earlier methodologies,

but he reports a recent resurgence of interest in this area which he partially attributes to more systematic methods of ordering and analyzing the complex field of perceptions present in an interpersonal situation. He cites Laing, Phillipson, and Lee's (1966) interpersonal perception method (IPM), Drewery's (1969) interpersonal perception technique (IPT), and Scott, Ashworth, and Carson's (1970) family relationship test (FRT) as examples of new instruments designed to aid the marital and family therapist better understand the nature of the interpersonal relationships they work with. At first glance each of these tests seems very different in vocabulary and analytic procedures, but as Alperson shows, the same basic concepts are utilized in each. He develops a Boolean algebra to make these communalities clearer and to serve as a more logical basis upon which to expand and refine these approaches.

The purpose of this dissertation is to develop and test a new approach which both synthesizes and elaborates on the work of these earlier researchers and as a result yields more information about dyadic relationships. For convenience it will be called the SAPIR approach which stands for the systematic analysis of perceptions in interpersonal relationships. The SAPIR approach differs from the approaches discussed by Alperson in several respects. First it expands the theoretical basis upon which the approach is founded to include the work of Newcomb (1953), Scheff (1967), and McLeod and Chaffee (1973). This is done to more clearly integrate the approach with its historical roots in social psychology which are summarized by McLeod and Chaffee in their review of the field. Secondly, it more comprehensively samples the perceptual field of the participants as Foa (1966) and Murstein and Beck (1972) have done. Thirdly, it uses a rating scale which is simpler to under-

stand and yields more information than Alperson's Boolean algebra. Finally, it more comprehensively analyzes the perceptions in a way which avoids more of Cronbach's criticisms and also yields more information. The validity of these claims will be evaluated by incorporating the SAPIR approach into an assessment instrument, the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire (MPQ). If the MPQ can provide a more comprehensive picture of how a marital relationship changes as it becomes more or less adjusted, then the usefulness of the SAPIR approach will have been demonstrated. Before this can be done, it is necessary to understand the SAPIR approach, and this requires a careful and logical derivation and development from its theoretical premises.

EXPLANATION OF THE SAPIR APPROACH

Theoretical Assumptions and Basic Definitions

To minimize complexity, the SAPIR approach begins with the simplest form of interpersonal interaction, the dyad. Though the SAPIR approach is applicable to any dyad, only the marital dyad of husband and wife will be discussed since it is the present study's focus. It is possible to expand the SAPIR approach to include three or more party interactions such as a family with a mother, father, and children, but this will not be attempted here.

Whenever two people are placed together, their actions will begin to influence each other, and this interaction creates a relationship between them. Though a relationship encompases all the interaction, usually people define their relationship in terms of the behavior which they expect to occur in future interactions. Usually this involves an abstraction of certain characteristics of the behavior rather than the specification of the exact behavior. For example, a married couple does not specify in advance exactly how each will behave in every anticipated situation, rather they establish an expectation that they will act in a loving manner in all sorts of situations. The general relationship and the specific behaviors are mutually influencing. The relationship is established by how the couples perceive the specific interactions between them, and the way specific behaviors are interpreted depends on how the couple perceives their relationship.

To facilitate explication, the model will often be transformed into diagrams depicting the relationships between its elements. These elements will be denoted by coded abbreviations to save space both in the diagrams and in the tables of data. Because of the semantic complexities involved in the web of perceptions, every researcher in this field has found it necessary to develop some sort of coding system. While these codes are useful, they also often create an initial stumbling block to the reader who must spend time learning the codes before he can interpret the results. Realizing this, an effort has been made to keep the codes understandable by following three principles. First, common symbols will be used such as letters and numbers which are familiar to the reader and can be readily reproduced on typewriters and computer printers. Second, the codes will be made mnemonic if possible so that the meanings will be easier to remember. Finally coding rules will be established which give a consistency to the overall system and make it easier to decipher the codes.

So by representing the husband and wife by their respective capitol letters, "H" and "W", and by representing the act of perceiving by an arrow; then the basic elements of the SAPIR approach can be diagramed as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Basic Elements of the SAPIR Approach

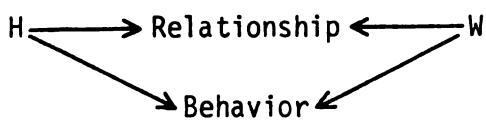

Figure 1 is essentially a relabeled version of Newcomb's (1953) coorientation or A-B-X model which has been utilized in so many social psychology experiments. By deriving the SAPIR approach from this model it is possible to utilize many of these findings to predict what results can be expected when couples perceptions are studied with the SAPIR approach. As Figure 1 shows, the model is studying the couples' perceptions of their behavior and relationship. Their real behavior may or may not be congruent with their perceptions. The model cannot determine the validity of the perceptions, but it does assume that how a person responds to a situation is determined more by their perception of it than by the objective reality of it. This assumption has long been the basic assumption of phenomenological approaches to human interaction (McLeod, 1958). In the SAPIR approach the couples' perception of their behavior will be analyzed in order to infer the characteristics of the relationship between them. But in order to do this it is necessary to differentiate more completely what the components of the perception are.

Components of a Perception

Context. One of the components of all perceptions is the context in which they take place. Events perceived always take place in a particular setting, at a particular time, and against the background of a particular history; and changes in these aspects of the context can have a profound influence on how a person perceives a particular event. Since the context is like a picture frame which encloses the event, it will be represented by parentheses "()" which will enclose the other elements of the perceptual field, and different contexts will be represented by a numerical subscript. Thus if a "1" is used to code the first years of marriage, then the husband's perceptions of

his marriage during the first year is coded: $H \rightarrow (\ )_1$. If there is no subscript, it will be assumed in this paper that the context is the present situation.

Issue. Theoretically any sort of event or object could be the focus of the couples' perceptions. In many social psychology experiments political or value judgments are the focus, but in this approach the desire is to understand the couples interaction so the focus will be on the feelings and behavior generated in the interaction itself. Following Laing's convention, the particular behavior or feeling being focused on will be called an issue which is the second component of perceptions. The issue will be represented by a lower case letter in this study. Thus feelings of trust could be represented by "t", and $H \rightarrow (t)$ would mean the husband's perception of someone's trusting in a particular context.

One of the difficult tasks for the researcher using the SAPIR approach is defining the specific issue being focused on. A vast number of behaviors occur simultaneously and rapidly in a human interaction, and an issue is always an abstraction of certain aspects of that behavior which are judged to be relevant to the interaction. The researcher endeavors to define the issues he is interested in clearly enough so that both he and the perceiver can be talking about the same thing. However, the SAPIR approach recognizes that it is highly unlikely that two people's definitions of an issue are the same, and thus many of the discrepancies in perception which are inevitably found can be attributed to differences in definitions (Katz, 1965).

The second major task for the researcher is choosing issues which are highly relevant to the relationship so that he will gain as much information as possible about the relationship. Relevance is

defined as the amount of change in the perception of the relationship which results from differences in the perception of a particular issue. Relevance is determined to a large degree by the salience and importance of the issue. Salience is how easily perceived the issue is against the background of all the events taking place. If an issue has low salience, a person is unlikely to notice it and hence will not be influenced by it. So the researcher tries to choose salient issues to study. For these salient issues, the emotional importance or value that the perceiver attaches to the issue determines its relevance. If a wife, for example, values expressions of affection more than her husband, then a decline in these expressions will cause a greater deterioration of the relationship for the wife than for the husband.

A final aspect of the issue which the researcher must be concerned about is the organization of the issues. Typically the researcher combines issues to create a scale, but this act implies a certain cognitive relationship between the issues and it is unlikely that a couple relates issues to other issues exactly as the researcher does. Thus the researcher must try to build an instrument which is sensitive to individual differences in how issues are organized.

Person's perceived--subect and object. The next component of the perception is the people who are performing the behaviors being observed by the couple. Theoretically, the person's being perceived could be anyone, e.g. the couple's children, parents, friends. However, in order to extract the most information about the couple, they will be perceiving themselves in this study. In keeping with English grammar, the person who is experiencing the feeling or performing the behavior which is the issue will be called the subject, and the other person upon whom the behavior is performed or toward whom the feeling is dir-

ected will be called the object. Since subject precedes object in most English sentences, the same arrangement will be used to code these elements. Thus, for example, if in a particular context the husband trusts his wife this would be coded (H t W), and if the wife trusts her husband this would be coded (W t H). Because in this study the persons being perceived have been restricted to the interpersonal relationship between the husband and the wife, once the subject of an action is specified, the object is by definition the other person. This means the coding only needs to specify the subject. If the husband's trusting behavior is the issue, it can be automatically assumed that he is trusting his wife. In other studies where the couple's perceptions of their intrapersonal (Laing et al., 1966) relationships or their relationships with children (Scott et al., 1970) are studied, it becomes necessary to specify and code the object also, so one can be clear whether the husband is trusting himself, his wife, or his child.

Reference. When people perceive behaviors, they usually evaluate them by comparing them to some standard or reference which constitutes the next component in the SAPIR approach. A married couple could compare their actual behavior with a variety of different references--e.g. their parents' marriages, their friends' marriages, marriages in general--but in this study their ideal expectations of a marriage will be used as a reference since they have been shown to have an important influence on the couple's relationship (Sager, 1976). In this study, the actual behavior being performed will be coded with an "A", while the ideal expectation against which it is compared will be coded with an "I". Thus how much the husband actually trusts his wife can be written as (A-H t W), while the ideal expectation is (I-H t W).

Perspective. What really complicates interpersonal perception

is the next component--perspective. Couples not only have their own perceptions of a certain issue but they can also perceive and are influenced by their partner's perceptions of the issue. The importance of perceptions of the other partner's perceptions was recognized by Cooley in 1902 and made the basis of his famous concept of the "looking-glass self." Most of the recent models in this field (Laing et al., 1966; Drewery, 1969; Scott et al., 1970; Alperson, 1975) are designed to explore this element. Laing's system for conceptualizing it is one of the most systematic, and it is from his writings that the term perspective is borrowed since it seems to more clearly explain this component than other terms such as Foa's (1966) alias.

The simplest or first order perspective on an issue is how the person himself/herself sees the issue. For example, how the husband sees his actual trusting of his wife which would be coded as: H→(A-H t W). Laing calls this the direct perspective, but in this study it will be called one's own perspective since this term is easier to understand. In any dyad there are always two first order perspectives, e.g., the husband's and the wife's or using the coding: H→(A-H t W)←W. But each person can also perceive the other's perception which creates two second order perspectives which will be called the other's perspective (Laing calls it the meta perspective). For example, the husband perceives his wife's view of how trusting he is which is in coded terms: H→W→(A-H t W). Similarly the wife perceives her husband's view of his trusting which is W→H→(A-H t W).

It is possible to continue developing higher order perspectives which Laing (1971) seems to delight in doing, but in his research he stops at the third order, his meta-meta perspective. An example of this would be the husband's perception of his wife's perception of his per-

ception of how trusting he is which can be coded as: H→W→H→(A-H t W). In the SAPIR model this is called one's own reflection since this term seems to more aptly characterize it. Though this perspective has some useful psychological characteristics, it was not explored in this study for three reasons. First, it is hard for many people to grasp the meaning of this perspective well enough to use it in a questionnaire. Secondly, it makes a questionnaire extremely long and laborious if it is included. Thirdly, the author believes that little new information about the couple is gained from it. But it is an interesting perspective to consider in theoretical discussions such as Laing's work.

The reader has probably noticed that each succeeding perspective involved an additional arrow, so an easy way to code these perspectives is by the number of arrows involved. Thus, one's own perspective is coded "1"; the other's perspective becomes "2", and one's own reflected perspective becomes "3". Since this study has restricted the perceiver's to a husband and wife, they will always be perceiving the other spouse, and the next person in the chain of coding arrows will always be other person's symbol. This makes it possible to further simplify the coding by only using the perceiver's letter code and the number representing the order of perspective instead of a long series of letters and arrows. For example, the husband's own reflection of his trusting can be reduced from H→W→H→(A-H t W) to H 3 (A-H t W).

Level. Once a person realizes that other persons' behavior is influenced by their perceptions of his perceptions, then a person tries to influence others by influencing their perceptions of him. A person may try to appear a certain way even though he does not really feel that way if he believes this to be to his benefit. For example, a husband who suspects his wife of being unfaithful may act as if he

trusts her in order to give her a false sense of security which will make it easier to catch her being unfaithful. By publicly acting as if he trusts her, he hopes to confirm his private perception of distrust. Following Leary's (1957) convention this component of the SAPIR model will be called level. Psychoanalytic theory differentiated between conscious and unconscious levels of feelings; Goffman (1959) talks about a person's front (what he wants other people to see and think) and back (what he really feels or thinks which is inconsistent with the front), and Leary differentiates five different levels. First, the public communication or how a person acts. Second, the conscious communication or what a person says. Third, the private perception or what a person thinks or feels. Fourth, the unexpressed or what a person represses or omits, and finally the values, or ideal expectations. According to the SAPIR model, Leary's last level really belongs in a different category, the reference component, since it is possible to have different ideal expectations at each level. Clearly level is an important concept in psychological theory, one which the SAPIR model acknowledges and can explore. It will be coded in this dissertation as either "F" for front or public expression or "B" for back or private expression placed before the reference code. Thus, the husband's perception of how trusting he privately feels toward his wife is coded H→(B-A-H t W).

The SAPIR approach is based on a study of the following components of a perception: person perceiving (husband, wife), person perceived (subject,object), issue, context (first married, now), reference (actual, ideal), perspective (own, others), and level (public, private). The SAPIR approach assumes that these components vary and that it is important to specify what they are in any particular perception. In this model a particular perception will be called a viewpoint since it

is but a point in a larger perceptual field. To gain an idea of the scope of this perceptual field, consider an example in which the components are allowed to have only the two values specified in the parentheses above. For any single issue there are 2^6 possible combinations of the other components or 64 possible viewpoints. It would require a 64 item questionnaire just to sample this field of possible perceptions on a single issue. Since both researchers and people in general are interested in a large number of different issues, the obvious question becomes how do they handle the tremendous number of perceptual data points implied by the SAPIR approach? The SAPIR approach postulates a twofold answer. First, both researchers and people in general limit their viewpoints to those they feel are most relevant. Laing et al (1966), for example, are not interested in perceptions of ideal expectations and people in general may not be very concerned with the other's perspective. Secondly, people may remember the relationship between one set of viewpoints and another and use this knowledge to infer unknown viewpoints from a set of known viewpoints. This method is based on the fact that the differences between perceptions can have psychological meaning. For example, if a person perceives his wife differently at different levels, i.e. what she says publicly is not the same as the way she acts privately, then he is likely to attach the label of deceiver or nongenuine to her. This label reminds him of the relationship between his wife's levels and enables him to infer her viewpoint at the private level from her public level and vice versa. Thus by knowing the relationship between these levels, he only has to remember half as many viewpoints. The SAPIR approach assumes that people use both strategies--limiting the viewpoints and interrelating the viewpoints--to reduce the task of infor-

mation processing and storage.

At this point the SAPIR approach's basic assumptions have been outlined and its key concepts have been defined. Figure 2 is a schematic summary of the concepts presented in this section. As shown earlier in Figure 1, the basic elements of the approach--the couple, their interactions, and their relationship--are represented more elaborately on the right side of Figure 2. On the left side are the components of the husband's perceptions. There should be a similar box on the right side for the wife, but it was left off to save space since it contains the same components as the husband's perceptions.

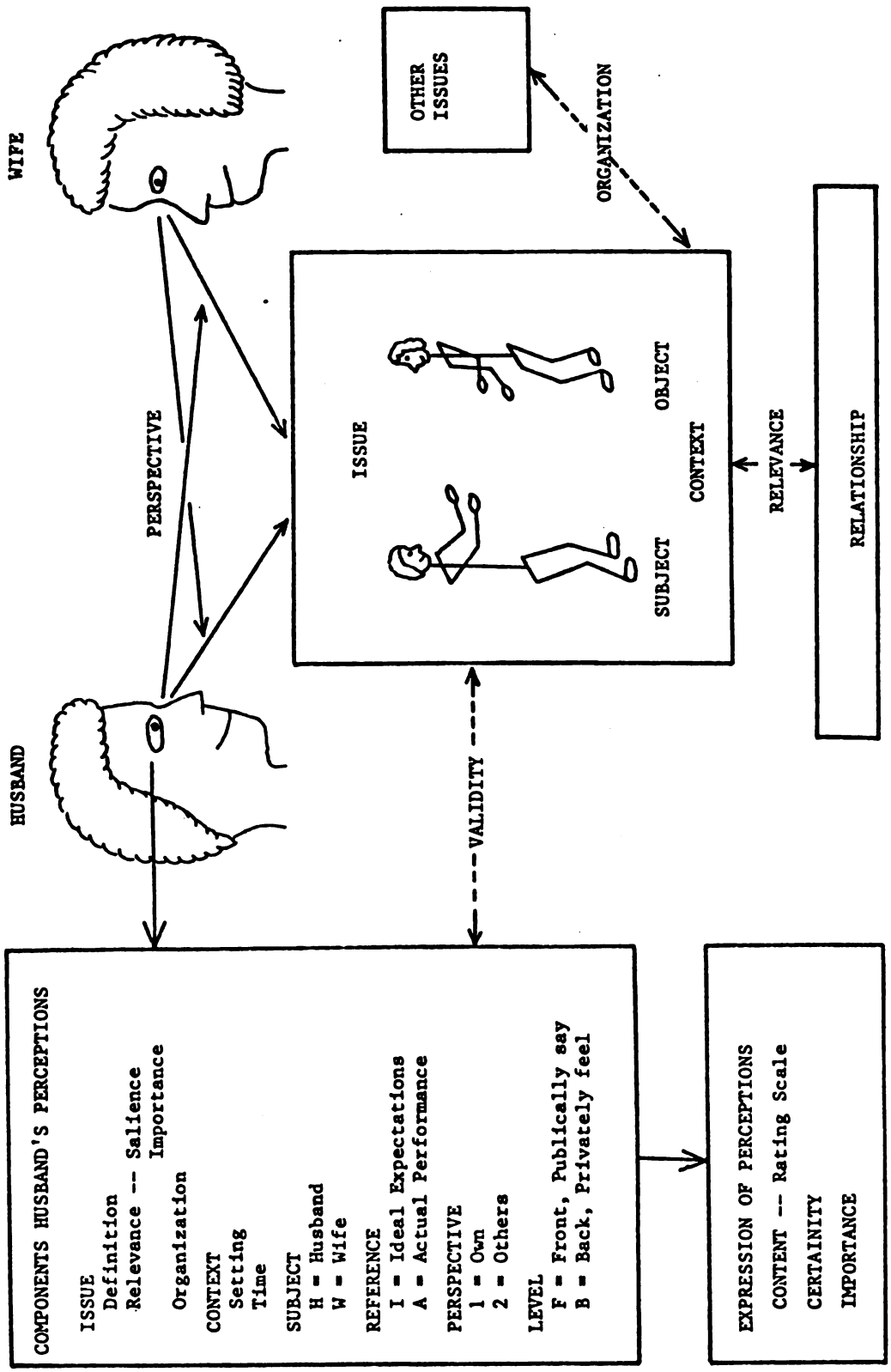

FIGURE 2. DISPLAY OF ELEMENTS IN SAPIR APPROACH

Sampling of Perceptual Viewpoints

As shown in the previous section, the field of perceptual viewpoints can become enormous, and so to create a questionnaire of feasible length always requires some selective sampling. The SAPIR approach can help a researcher decide which viewpoints he needs to sample in order to study those aspects of relationships which he deems most important. Rather than discuss this process abstractly, it will be illustrated with the concrete example of how this sampling was done on the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire (MPQ) used in this study. The SAPIR user must make two sampling decisions in composing a questionnaire. First what issues in the relationship to sample, and secondly what viewpoints to sample on each of these issues.

Issues sampled on the MPQ

The most desired characteristic of the issues to be included in a questionnaire is their relevance to the relationship. One could let each couple choose the issues which they feel are most relevant to their relationship as Ryle and Breen (1972) have done using a dyadic version of Kelly's (1955) repertory grid technique. However, this makes it difficult to compare results across couples. So following the lead of the majority of researchers in this field, the issues on the MPQ were preselected and were given to all the couples in the study.

The researcher could select issues which he felt were relevant to a marital relationship as Laing, Phillipson, and Lee (1966) did in creating their Interpersonal Perception Method (IPM). However, Drewery (1969) points out that it is easier to use the items on a standardized psychological test which have already been statistically refined and which yield normative scores. One of the problems in this

approach becomes apparent in Drewery's work using the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule as the basis of his issues. The problem is that most standardized tests are personality tests whose items have little relevance to a marital relationship. For example, the EPPS items asking whether a person likes to read books or travel are unlikely to reveal much about the interaction of a married couple. The one test which is most applicable to interpersonal relationships is LaForge and Suczek's (1955) Interpersonal Checklist List (ICL) and as a result it has been the most frequently used source of issues in this area of research. Thus it was used as the source of most of the items included in the MPQ. By using ICL items, it was possible to begin with refined and relevant issues which could be related to previous research.

Another important advantage of the ICL items is that they have a known factor structure. One of Cronbach's (1958) major criticisms of earlier research using perceptual difference scores was the practice of adding differences across items representing unknown and/or different factors to come up with a single global index. He strongly advocated first factor analyzing all items and then looking at the perceptual difference scores on each factor individually. The ICL with its Love-Hate (LOV) and Dominance-Submission (DOM) factors lends itself readily to this method of analysis. Besides having a known factor structure, the ICL factors are clearly the most important factors in interpersonal relationships as reviews by Bierman (1969), Carson (1969), Benjamin (1974), and Hurley (1976) have shown. In these reviews over twenty studies by different researchers in different areas of behavior are cited which have found that these two dimensions account for a majority of the variance in interpersonal ratings. This provides empirical support for the relevance of these issues to the marital relationship.

On the basis of the factor structure, LOV and DOM scores can be calculated on the ICL which make it possible to compare couples on the basis of these summary scores. If the factor structure of issues is not known as in Laing's IPM, then one can only compare couples on single issues or in terms of global perceptual difference scores which were criticized by Cronbach. This advantage will become even clearer in later sections.

Another advantage of using the ICL is that a behavioral coding system has been developed by Terrill and Terrill (1965) which makes it possible to compare couples' perceptions of their loving and dominance behaviors to observers' perceptions of their actual interaction.

A final advantage of the ICL is that it lends itself readily to a visual representation of its results. The ICL items cluster into 8 groups of items which are arranged in a circumplex structure around the love-hate and dominance-submission factors. By arranging the items in a circle according to the circumplex structure, and then plotting the rating of each question as a bar graph with a low rating represented by a short distance from the center and a high rating represented by a long distance, the results of all the items can be effectively presented at once and patterns of responding become readily apparent. Figure 3 illustrates this using the original ordering of MPQ items.

In summary, the ICL was used as a source of issues for the MPQ because its items were:

1. Relevant to interpersonal relationships.
2. Used more extensively in previous research.
3. Of known factor structure.
4. Most important factors in previous research.
5. Capable of being added to yield summary scale scores.

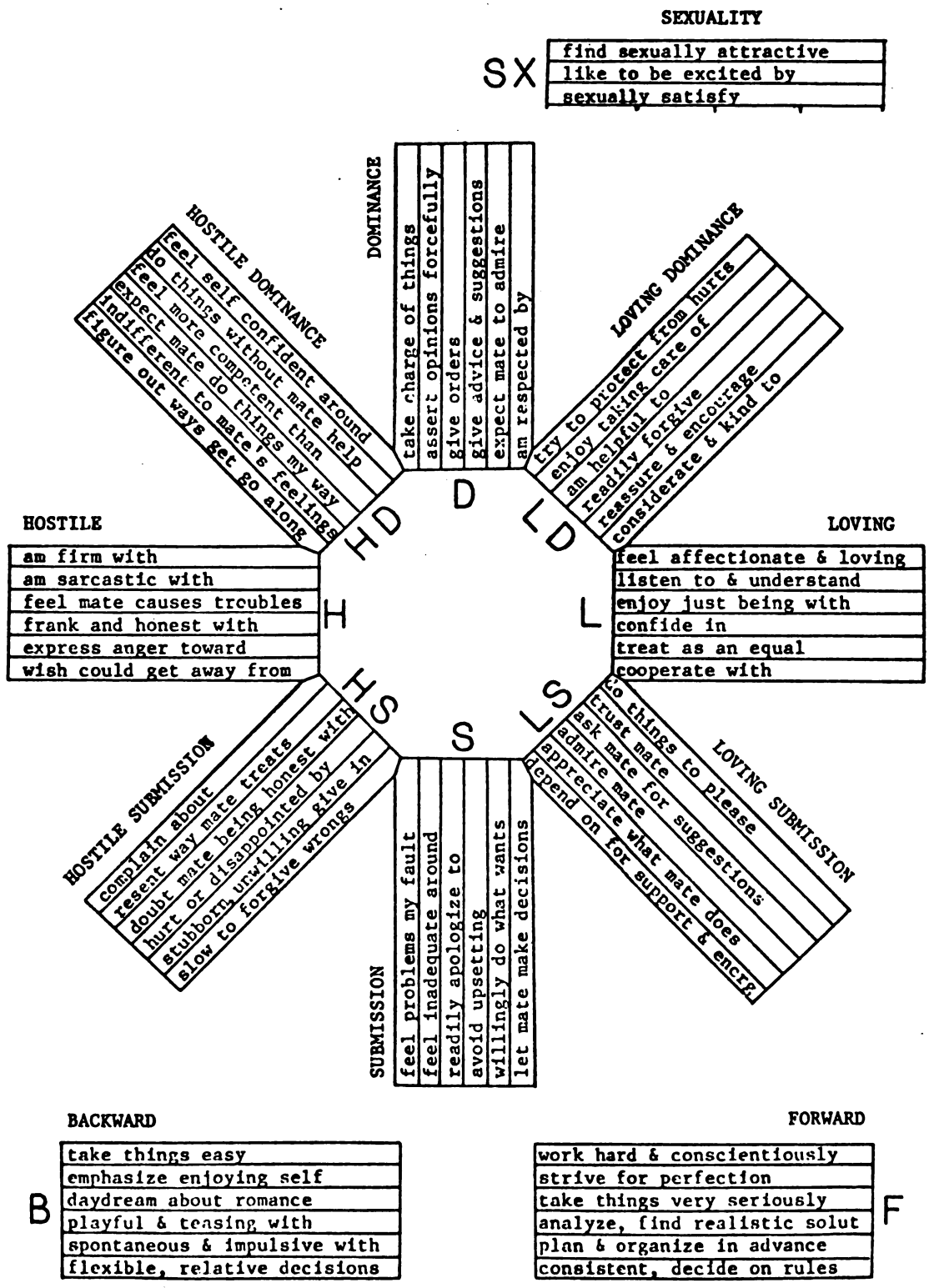

FIGURE 3. ORIGINAL ORDERING OF MPQ ISSUES

6. Capable of being behaviorally rated.

7. Suitable for visual displays.

However, there was one major problem with the ICL--it contained 128 items which is too many for the SAPIR approach. The essence of the SAPIR approach is to sample a person's perceptions of an issue from a number of different viewpoints and then use the differences between the perceptions to understand the person. As will be shown shortly, the MPQ asks each person to rate each issue from 8 different viewpoints. If the total 128 ICL items were used, this would mean that the MPQ would contain a total of 1,024 questions. This makes the questionnaire so long that couples would get fatigued taking it and might refuse to finish it. So it was necessary to reduce the number of items. The author did this by choosing items which seemed to:

1. Be most relevant to a marital relationship.

2. Summarize a number of other items.

3. Represent a different aspect of interaction than other items.

4. Have a moderate intensity.

The last criterion was included because some of the adjectives on the ICL represent extreme traits which would not be expected to occur very often in most marriages. Using these criteria, the author chose 6 ICL related items for each of the 8 sections. He also attempted to include a third, "forward-backward" dimension which was found to be important in Bale's (1970) research on interpersonal behavior. The forward pole was represented by 6 issues representing conscientious, perfectionistic, conservative, task-oriented behaviors, while the backward pole was composed of 6 items concerned with easygoing, unstructured, spontaneous, pleasure-oriented behaviors. Three items representing sexual relation-

ships were also included since this seemed like such an important area in marriage. These 63 items were reviewed by a clinical psychologist with considerable experience in marital counseling whose suggestions and revisions were incorporated. These items were then given to 5 couples who participated in a pilot study and their feedback resulted in changes in 4 of the proposed items. The 63 items which resulted from this selection process are listed in Tables 1, 2, and 3 and their original visual arrangement is shown in Figure 3.

To test the actual factor structure of these questions, the actual self responses of 60 randomly sampled community couples (more fully described in the subjects section) were factor analyzed using the SPSS principal factoring with iteration (PA2) method. The results showed two major loving factors, one related mainly to trust, honesty, and respect and the second related mainly to an emotional expression of affection. The third factor was the traditional dominance-submission factor. The forward-backward dimension from Bales model emerged as a poorly defined and less important fourth factor. Based on this initial factoring, a series of cluster analyses were run to determine how to best combine these items into scales. There were clearly problems with some of the originally conceived clusters--i.e. the hostile section had poor internal consistency indicated by a coefficient alpha of only .22. But it was possible to combine almost all the ICL based questions into two scales--a Loving scale defined by the items listed in Table 1 and a Dominance scale defined by the items listed in Table 2. Clearly the Loving factor was the most important in these marriages since 33 items loaded highly on it while only 17 items loaded on the Dominance scale. As the correlations between the item and the scales shown in columns 2 and 3 of Tables 1 and 2 reveal, there were good items on both

Table 1. Basic Characteristics of Questions on MPQ Loving Scale

Questions	Estim. Commun-ality	Correlation Loving Scale	Correlation Domin. Scale	DAS Correlation H1AH[a]	DAS Correlation W1AW[b]
Affection Cluster (Add positively to scale)					
Depend on mate for support and encouragement	16	40	-31	35	18
Appreciate what mate does for me	34	58	-25	37	40
Admire mate	42	65	-37	54	53
Cooperate with mate	33	58	-44	42	44
Treat mate as equal	24	49	-32	52	43
Confide in mate	36	60	-44	52	52
Enjoy just being with mate	51	71	-42	58	56
Listen to and understand mate's feelings	41	64	-52	38	58
Feel affectionate and loving toward mate	58	76	-49	45	65
Am considerate and kind to mate	42	65	-37	38	43
Reassure and encourage mate	29	54	-17	19	55
Am helpful to mate	23	48	-38	19	53
Enjoy taking care of mate	25	50	-26	36	43
Try to protect mate from hurts	10	32	-10	36	25
Find mate sexually attractive	53	73	-53	46	63
Like to be secually excited by mate	33	58	-32	11	58
Sexually satisfy mate	37	61	-23	51	55
Am respected by mate	32	56	- 2	25	52
Trust mate	37	61	-21	43	57
Readily forgive mate	33	58	-17	29	58
Am frank and honest with mate	35	59	-30	18	45

Table 1. (continued)

Hostility Cluster (Add negatively to scale)					
Doubt that mate is being honest with me	31	56	-12	-42	-47
Feel inadequate around mate	22	46	5	-43	-29
Am slow to forgive mate's wrongs	23	48	-18	-37	-27
Feel mate causes our troubles	24	49	-24	-50	-29
Resent the way mate treats me	40	64	-28	-40	-51
Am hurt or disappointed by mate	41	64	-22	-37	-60
Complain about mate	28	53	-47	-26	-53
Wish I could get away from mate	37	61	-40	-37	-60
Am indifferent to mate's feelings	24	49	-31	-54	-28
Feel our problems are my fault	10	31	-26	- 7	-36

Note: All correlation coefficients multiplied by 100 to eliminate decimal

[a]Correlations between husband's self rating (HlAH) on question and his DAS score

[b]Correlations between wife's self rating (WlAW) on question and her DAS score

Table 2. Basic Characteristics of Questions on MPQ Dominance Scale

Questions	Estim. Commun-ality	Correlation Loving Scale	Correlation Domin. Scale	DAS Correlation H1AH[a]	DAS Correlation W1AW[b]
Dominance Cluster (Add positively to scale)					
Take charge of things we do	38	- 5	62	5	-17
Give mate advice and suggestions	12	11	34	11	1
Am firm with mate	28	- 7	52	-34	7
Give mate orders	39	-24	62	-19	-31
Expect mate to do things my way	36	-29	60	-34	-23
Am stubborn & unwilling to give in to mate	37	-40	60	-14	-39
Assert opinions forcefully with mate	25	-29	50	-12	0
Figure out ways to get mate to go along with me	20	-29	44	-22	-27
Prefer to do things without mate's help	27	-29	52	-13	-29
Feel I am more competent than mate is	29	-29	54	-32	-16
Am sarcastic with mate	19	-35	44	- 2	-39
Submission Cluster (Add negatively to scale)					
Avoid upsetting mate	5	-15	22	- 5	11
Let mate make the decisions	15	-12	39	15	18
Ask mate for suggestions	25	-36	50	25	39
Willingly do what mate wants	14	-32	37	27	47
Readily apologize to mate for my mistakes	11	-27	33	20	19
Do things to please mate[c]	31	-57	56	37	63

Note: All correlation coefficients multiplied by 100 to eliminate decimal

[a]Correlations between husband's self rating (H1AH) on question and his DAS score

[b]Correlations between wife's self rating (W1AW) on question and her DAS score

[c]Also adds positively to Loving scale

Table 3. Basic Characteristics of Residual Questions on MPQ

Questions	Estim. Commun-ality	Correlation Loving Scale	Correlation Domin. Scale	DAS Correlation H1AH[a]	DAS Correlation W1AW[b]
Express anger toward mate	12	21	7	-14	- 7
Expect mate to admire me	2	-24	-23	0	19
Work hard & conscientiously until task done	4	25	-17	5	33
Emphasize striving for perfection in things we do	7	16	7	-18	26
Take things very seriously	15	16	-18	- 0	17
Analyze and try to find realistic solutions	5	27	-10	- 3	40
Plan and organize things in advance	28	37	-36	24	43
Consistent & try to base decisions on rules	31	30	- 3	- 6	45
Take things easy and work when feel like it	4	-17	22	2	-18
Emphasize enjoying self when we do things	25	29	-12	- 7	-23
Imagine or daydream about romance	2	- 2	3	- 7	3
Playful and teasing with mate	12	21	13	10	31
Do things spontaneously and impulsively	19	23	-22	19	34
Flexible & try to base decisions on relative merits	4	- 7	-28	-37	29

Note: All correlation coefficients multiplied by 100 to eliminate decimal

[a]Correlations between husband's self rating (H1AH) on question and his DAS score

[b]Correlations between wife's self rating (W1AW) on question and her DAS score

poles of the Loving scale and on the dominance pole of the Dominance scale. The submissive items were not as strong. Overall both scales had satisfactory coefficient alphas (.94 and .83 for the Loving and Dominance scales, respectively). These scales were not orthogonal as they were supposed to be in theory, but in fact correlated with each other - .52. This means that loving was related to a more submissive, cooperative stance while hostility was related to a more dominating, coercive attitude.

The mean ratings of items on a 5-point scale (-2 to +2) revealed that the items on the Loving scale seem to have high social desirability and as a result most people rate themselves close to the favorable end of the rating scale on these items. Despite this limited response range, husbands' and wives' self ratings on the Loving scale items correlated significantly with their Dyadic Adjustment Score (columns 6 and 7) which suggests that they do discriminate between adjusted and maladjusted couples. Couples tend to use the middle of the rating scale when answering the Dominance scale items, but their answers to these items with a few exceptions are less correlated with Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores suggesting again that dominance-submission issues are less relevant than loving issues in most marriages.

The factor, cluster, and other statistical analyses reveal that the forward-backward scale was poorly conceived. These items have less internal consistency, low loadings on the other factors, and generally low correlations with Dyadic Adjustment Scale. As a result these items along with two other weak items were placed in a residual cluster listed in Table 3 and were not used in the calculation of Loving and Dominance scores, but they were included in overall difference scores.

Clearly the items sampled on the MPQ could use further psy-

chometric refinement. Some items are weak and should not be included in the questionnaire. Others are somewhat redundant. One of the author's future goals is to carry out this refinement. But the Loving and Dominance scales do seem to be measuring these desired factors with respectable internal consistency, and so they were used in the remainder of the study.

Rating Scale Used on MPQ

Having chosen the issues themselves, the next problem becomes how to rate them. The couple must express their perceptions of these issues to the researcher in a form which makes it easy to compare them. The adjectives on the ICL are checked true or false and a similar rating scheme has been used by Laing et al. (1966) and Alperson (1975b) who give their couples a seeming choice between very true or slightly untrue. It is only a seeming choice since in the data analysis the very true and slightly true categories are combined to create just a true category, and the untrue categories are similarly combined. This is done in order to perform logical analyses according to the Boolean algebra developed by Alperson (1975a).

Despite Alperson's reservations, this author decided to use a five-point rating scale instead of the dichotomous true-false scale. The points on the scale were defined as follows:

1 = Rarely characteristic = usually does not describe the person (0-20%)

2 = Occasionally characteristic = often doesn't but sometimes does describe (20-40%)

3 = Moderately characteristic = sometimes does, sometimes doesn't describe (40-60%)

4 = Frequently characteristic - often does, but sometimes doesn't describe (60-80%)

5 = Very frequently characteristic = usually does describe the person (80-100%)

There are several advantages to this rating system. First it provides more information about the perception of the issue itself. Instead of just knowing whether an adjective does or doesn't describe a person, one knows the extent to which it describes them. Secondly, it provides more information about the differences between viewpoints which are central to both Laing's and Alperson's methods and the SAPIR approach. Take for example the husband's view of his own trusting (H➔(A-H t W)) and his view of his wife's view of his trusting (H➔W➔(A-H t W)). By comparing his ratings on these viewpoints, a measure of the husband's perceived disagreement can be obtained, i.e. whether he thinks his wife rates him the same as he does. Using the true-false scale, Laing and Alperson can only determine whether the husband perceives them as agreeing or disagreeing. However, using the five-point scale, one can not only determine whether the husband perceives them as agreeing or disagreeing, but one can also determine the <u>extent</u> of the disagreement (1 or 4 scale points) and the <u>direction</u> of the disagreement (whether the wife is seen as rating him more or less trusting than he rates himself). Thirdly, it provides more information about the differences or what Alperson calls the second order determinations. Whether, for example, the husband's perception of disagreement is accurate or not.

Laing does not attempt this level of analysis, but Alperson does and can answer the question above. Because the SAPIR approach uses a numerical scale, it can not only answer the question above, but

can also determine the nature of the misunderstanding, i.e. whether the husband is minimizing or exaggerating differences.

Besides providing more information, the five-point scale makes analysis procedures simpler and more understandable. To analyze his questionnaire, Alperson uses a series of logical choice circuits, while the basic MPQ analysis procedure is simply the subtraction of two numbers, i.e. the numeric ratings on each viewpoint. This makes the computer programming much easier. To understand Alperson's scoring system one must master the concepts of Boolean algebra, while the SAPIR method requires only an understanding of difference scores which are already familiar to most psychologists. For example, in his terminology the verdicality of perceived disagreement is defined logically by the following expression:

$$VE_{hw} = (E_{hw} = A_{hw}) = (h_1 h_2 w, + h_1' h_2 w_1 + h_1 h_2' w_1' + h_1' h_2' w')$$

while in the SAPIR approach it would be more simply:

$$VE_{hw} = E_{hw} - A_{hw}$$

In summary, a five-point numerical scale yields more information, is easier to use, and easier to understand than the dichotomous true-false scale previously used in this type of research. At the present time these advantages may not seem clear to the reader, but they will become much more apparent when the MPQ scoring procedures and results are discussed.

There are two other ratings of the issues which the couples could be asked to make. One is a rating of how <u>certain</u> they were of their responses which might reveal areas of ambivalence or confusion. Laing allowed this choice on his IPM, but it was not included on the MPQ since the author felt that more information would be gained by forcing the respondents to commit themselves to a response. The other is a rating

of how important the person feels the issue is to marital relationships. This seemed like a more useful rating which would enable the respondents to communicate how relevant the issues appeared to them instead of just assuming equal relevance as the MPQ scoring procedure implicitly does. However, given the length of the questionnaire, the author decided not to obtain this rating on the MPQ.

In this section the rationale behind and the procedures used in selecting issues for the MPQ have been explained. By emphasizing the importance of the factor structure of the issues, the SAPIR approach avoids some of Cronbach's criticisms while providing a more detailed picture of the relationship. The use of a five-point rating scale is another improvement incorporated into the SAPIR approach which enables it to provide more information than Laing's or Alperson's methods. One important point needs to be emphasized. The SAPIR approach can be used with any set of interpersonal issues. There is nothing sacred about the MPQ items; they can be completely revised and the same analysis procedures will still apply. What is basic to the SAPIR is the viewpoints which are sampled for each issue as the next section will explain.

Sampling of Viewpoints

Having defined the relevant issues, the next question becomes what perceptions of the couple should be sampled on these issues. Take as an example the issue of trust. Are the husband's perceptions or the wife's perceptions desired (varying the person perceiving component)? Are the perceptions of the husband's trusting or the wife's trusting deserved (varying the person perceived component)? Does one want perceptions of their actual trusting behavior or their ideal expecta-

tions of trusting (varying the reference component)? Is one interested in each person's own perceptions or in their perceptions of their partner's perceptions (varying the perspective component)? Does one want their perceptions now or when they were first married (varying the context component)? Finally, is one interested in their perceptions of what they publicly say or privately feel (varying the level component)? If a researcher were interested in each aspect of the previous six questions, then he would have to sample 2^6 or 64 viewpoints on each issue. As mentioned before, this would require a long and laborious questionnaire which couples would probably never finish. So the researcher must decide which viewpoints are most relevant to sample. In answering this question, the researcher is guided by two different considerations. First, he may be interested in certain viewpoints because of the information they provide. For example, he may want to know the couple's expectations of an ideal marriage so he can understand what kind of relationship they desire. Secondly, he may be interested in the information derived from the difference between a set of viewpoints. He might, for example, want to know what both their ideal expectations and their actual behavior are so that he can compare these viewpoints and find out in what areas the couples actual performance is below ideal expectations since these are areas of dissatisfaction which could be worked on in therapy.

So the SAPIR approach tries to gain information both from the viewpoints and from the differences between the viewpoints. In this way it yields more information per response than the usual questionnaire. This is possible because differences in perceptions along each of the components have psychological meaning. Take context for an example. If a husband observes his wife behaving one way in one

situation and a different way in another situation, then his perceptions of her change with variations in the context and he is likely to label her as inconsistent and unstable or adaptable and flexible. Because it is hard to define different situations which are appropriate to everyone, changes in context will not be explored on the MPQ. Rather couples will be asked for their perceptions of their relationship in general, or, in other words, over all the different situations in which they find themselves. This does not mean that changes in context are not worth exploring. A therapist certainly finds it very useful to explore how behavior changes in different situations. But this exploration can more easily be on an individual basis where the therapist can choose to follow the most promising perceptions and to forget those which seem irrelevant. This kind of selectivity cannot be built into a standardized questionnaire. One must ask the couple to express their perceptions of <u>all</u> the desired situations which is a time-consuming and inefficient process. So the MPQ will not vary context per se, but it can be adapted to measure one very important aspect of context, time. The MPQ can be given before and after therapy, to obtain a measure of how perceptions changed as a result of the therapeutic process.

Another perceptual component which will not be varied on the MPQ is level. Variations in this component are important to some psychologists who call people who publicly express what they privately feel as honest, congruent, genuine, sincere, unduplicitous people. These psychologists are sensitive to discrepancies between what a person says and how they act and spend a lot of time in therapy exploring and attempting to reduce these discrepancies. However, it is very difficult to capture these discrepancies on a questionnaire which only measures what a person says verbally. Theoretically, it is possible to

ask people to express both what they would publicly say and what they would privately feel. But this presupposes that people can verbalize their feelings, can tolerate inconsistencies in themselves, and can trust the researcher enough to honestly express them. People who simultaneously meet all three of these criterion are probably rare. Psychologists have tried to circumvent this problem with "projective" tests, but they are not applicable to the SAPIR approach. However, there is one sense in which the MPQ measures level. Leary's (1957) levels differentiated between a person's rating of someone else (Level I: Level of public communication) and a person's ratings of themselves (Level II: Level of conscious communication). It seems reasonable that people are more aware of their verbalized thoughts and speech than they are of their nonverbal actions which they cannot observe. It also seems likely that they are more aware of other people's discrepancies than their own. Finally, it seems reasonable to expect people to give more credence to other's actions than their words. Thus, if a husband has a discrepancy between what he says and what he does, then it is likely that his ratings of himself on the MPQ will reflect his "front" or desired public image, while his wife's ratings of him will reflect his "back" or the part of himself he tries unsuccessfully to deny. This is only an indirect indication of differences in levels, and it is certainly not a very reliable one because both people can work together to preserve each other's fronts when presenting themselves on the questionnaire.

So far variations in two of the perceptual components--context and level--have been eliminated on the MPQ which focuses on public expressions of perceptions of the generalized context of a marriage. This collapses the perceptual field from 64 to 16 viewpoints. Though still

high this is a manageable number of viewpoints. Most research in the field has restricted the number of viewpoints sampled to 4 to 6, but Laing et al. (1966) sampled 12, and there have been two research teams--Foa (1966) and Murstein and Beck (1972)--who have sampled the full set of 16 viewpoints discussed here. All of these viewpoints were included on the MPQ because the author felt that each could be appropriately tapped in a questionnaire format and each yielded important information. Certainly it makes little sense to obtain the perceptions of one partner and not the other if one is interested in understanding the interpersonal relationship. So variations in the components of persons perceiving and person perceived must be included in the MPQ. To obtain a measure of how dissatisfied the couple is with various aspects of their relationship it is necessary to sample not only their perceptions of actual marital behavior but also their perceptions of the ideal expectations by which this behavior is evaluated. Similarly to obtain a measure of how well the couple understands each other it is necessary to sample not only their own perspective on the marriage but their perception of the other's perspective on the marriage. Thus variations in reference and perspective are also included in the MPQ.

Before going any farther, it is essential to clearly define and code these 16 viewpoints. Using the coding conventions established previously, the husband's perception of his actual trusting behavior toward his wife is written: H→(F-A-H t W). This expression can now be simplified by using a number to indicate the perspective involved, by eliminating the parentheses representing context and the "F" representing level since they are not varied in the MPQ, and by eliminating the object code ("W" here) since it can be inferred from the subject. Thus this viewpoint of the issue of trust becomes simply H1AH-t. The

other 15 viewpoints on the MPQ are defined in Table 4 and follow the same general formula. The first character of the viewpoint always codes the person perceiving and in this study will be either H for husband or W for wife. The second character codes the perspective being used which will be either one's own represented by "1" or the other's represented by "2". The third character codes the reference being used which will be either an "A" for actual performance of an "I" for ideal expectations. The fourth and final character codes the person being perceived which will be either the husband, "H", or the wife, "W". This coding arrangement has two advantages. First, its mneumonic codes translate into expressions which coincide with our usual ways of phrasing. For example, W1IW translates wife's own view of the ideal wife. Secondly, its components are arranged in the order of perceptual differentiation postulated by Foa (1966). Beginning at the right, the actor or person perceived is the first facet of the perceptual field differentiated by the child as he learns that he and his mother are different. Next, the reference is differentiated when the child learns that what is done is not the same as what ought to be done. Finally, the difficult differentiation of perspective is completed when the child realizes that his point of view is not necessarily the same as other people's point of view. Because the viewpoint codes will be used frequently in subsequent tables and figures, they have been defined in a clear, consistent way which will hopefully make it easier to remember and interpret them.

How these viewpoints are actually presented to the couple in the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire is illustrated in Figure 4. The sixteen boxes representing the sixteen viewpoints are spatially arranged in a pattern which will be useful in illustrating the inter-

Table 4. Definition of Viewpoint Codes

Code	Definition of Viewpoint
H1AH	Husband's own view of his ideal husband expectations
H1AH	Husband's own view of his actual husband performance
H1IW	Husband's own view of his ideal wife expectations
H1AW	Husband's own view of his actual wife performance
H2IH	Husband's view of wife's view of ideal husband expectations
H2AH	Husband's view of wife's view of actual husband performance
H2IW	Husband's view of wife's view of ideal wife expectations
H2AW	Husband's view of wife's view of actual wife performance
W2IH	Wife's view of husband's view of ideal husband expectations
W2AH	Wife's view of husband's view of actual husband performance
W2IW	Wife's view of husband's view of ideal wife expectations
W2AW	Wife's view of husband's view of actual wife performance
W1IH	Wife's own view of her ideal husband expectations
W1AH	Wife's own view of her actual husband performance
W1IW	Wife's own view of her ideal wife expectations
W1AW	Wife's own view of her actual wife performance

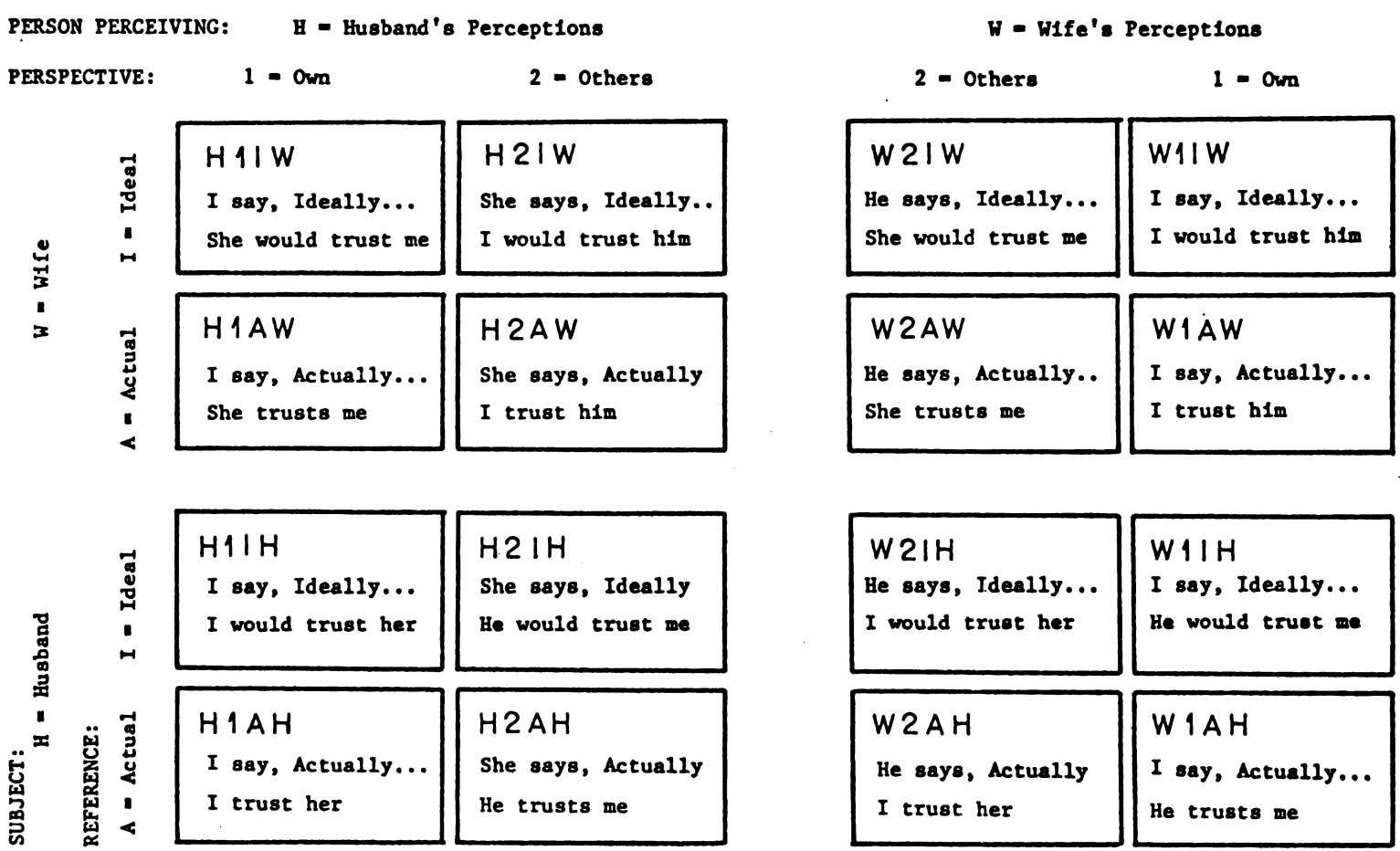

FIGURE 4. ILLUSTRATION OF MPQ VIEWPOINTS

relationships between them in the next section. Each box contains the viewpoint code, the phrase which establishes the viewpoint for the rater, and finally the issue being rated. Take for example the box labeled HlIW in Figure 4 which represents the husband's own view of the ideal wife. The phrase, "I say, Ideally..." reminds him that he is to rate the issue from his own ideal viewpoint. The statement, "She would trust me," is the particular issue he will be rating. The subject of the sentence, "she," defines the person he is to rate, i.e. his wife, and the verb is the issue, i.e. trusts. The adverb "would" is included as a further reminder that he is making an ideal rating, i.e. how he would like things to be ideally. All other issues are presented in essentially the same way.

This method makes the questionnaire longer since each question must be rewritten with a different pronoun and identifying phrase for each viewpoint, but it considerably reduces the possibility of confusing viewpoints which is easily done in this type of test. Drewery (1969) for example just uses the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule as his questionnaire and asks the couples to take it with three different viewpoints. His method requires the couple to remember the viewpoint and to mentally change the item phrasing as they go through the test. It is much easier to forget and to slip into the wrong set in this procedure, and for that reason the MPQ was written with reminder phrases and pronoun changes.

The final problem with regard to the sampling of viewpoints on the MPQ is what order to present the viewpoints in on the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire (MPQ). Laing et al. (1966) in the Interpersonal Perception Method chose to present all the viewpoints about a particular issue before presenting another issue. This author decided

to present all the issues from a particular viewpoint before presenting another viewpoint. This method has three advantages. First, it saves space since the repetition of viewpoint instructions are reduced. As Appendix H shows the viewpoint instructions are only presented at the top of each page of the MPQ which makes it possible to elaborate on them more in order to have them clearly in mind. Secondly, it minimizes the number of changes of set that the rater has to make. In Laing's procedure, one has to assume one set (own perspective), then switch to another set (other's perspective), and then finally switch to still another set (own reflected perspective) sixty different times in the course of the sixty-issue questionnaire. There are only four changes of set on the MPQ--own actual, own ideal, other's actual, other's ideal. Having assumed a set, the rater maintains it while rating both self and spouse on all 63 issues. Not only is this procedure less confusing, but it also minimizes the opportunity to compare answers which is its third advantage. In Laing's method, a person only has to look back two questions to find out how they rated the issue from a different perspective. Thus, it would be easy to be influenced by the earlier responses in deciding how to rate an issue. On the MPQ, a person would have to look back 3 to 6 pages to find his previous answer and would have trouble even then since the question order was changed for each viewpoint. This makes it less likely that a person is influenced by previous responses when rating a particular issue.

Even though the method of presenting the issues on the MPQ has been designed to minimize confusion, the sheet length of this type of questionnaire can present problems. Sixty-three issues presented eight times for each person creates a test consisting of 504 items. The easiest thing for the rater is to mark his answers in the test

booklet, but this creates a tremendous problem for the researcher who must transfer these responses to punched cards before analysis can begin. To eliminate this problem, the MPQ required the person to mark his/her answers on an answer sheet which could be optically scanned, and thus the data could be easily and accurately transferred into a form suitable for analysis by the computer instead of by the laborious and error-prone efforts of the researcher. While reducing the researcher's work, this method increases the respondent's effort since he/she must now read the question in the booklet and then find and mark the appropriate answer space on the answer sheet. Besides making a long test more tedious, this procedure makes it more error prone since the respondent can mark the wrong answer sheet or the wrong space.

To minimize these possibilities, a booklet incorporating two special procedures was designed for the MPQ. First, to insure that the person was using the right answer, each answer sheet was both color coded (printed in 4 different colors) and marked with an identifying code (viewpoint code). The questions in the MPQ booklet were printed on different colored pages which matched the color of the answer sheet, and each page was labeled at the top with the code identifying its answer sheet. Secondly, each page was cut away to expose only that portion of the answer sheet which corresponded to the questions on that page. The column of answers and questions were arranged so that when the answer sheet was inserted behind the question booklet page and properly aligned, then questions and answers matched up with each other. This made marking the answer sheet as easy as marking in the booklet itself and reduced the chance of misplaced answers.

Because of the MPQ's length, two other features were built into it to reduce fatigue effects. First, a page was inserted half way

through the test suggesting that the person take a short break at that point. This broke the test into two sections requiring about 45 minutes each to complete. Secondly, to eliminate any order effects, two counterbalanced forms of the test (A and B) were constructed containing the same items.

This section began with the problem of which perceptual viewpoints to sample since a complete sampling would be excessively time consuming. General guidelines were presented and then the rationale behind the selection of the sixteen MPQ viewpoints was explained. These viewpoints were defined, coded, and illustrated. The manner in which these viewpoints were presented on the MPQ to minimize confusion and the way in which the MPQ was designed to minimize the administrative problems resulting from its length were then explained. Therefore, this section ends with the hope that the reader now understands how the MPQ was devised, how it is administered, and what items are on it.

Method of Analysis

Sampling perceptions according to the SAPIR approach generates considerable data about a couple. The MPQ, for example, samples sixteen different viewpoints on each of 63 issues which results in 1,008 bits of data. The question now becomes how to best analyze these data. In the SAPIR approach there are three different methods of extracting information from the questionnaire results. The first method is to analyze how the person rated the issues on each viewpoint. The focus is on the person's response itself. In the second method, comparisons of responses on different viewpoints are made, and the differences discovered are interpreted. Finally, information is gained from the pattern of comparisons or how the comparisons differ from each. Thus, the SAPIR approach attempts to extract more information from a response than the usual questionnaire. To show more clearly how this is done, each method of analysis will be explained more fully.

Viewpoint Analysis

A traditional questionnaire usually has only one viewpoint, the person's own view of the actual situation, and the questionnaire is usually interpreted by examining the person's responses to particular issues or by combining the responses to generate one or more scale scores. Even though the MPQ elicits sixteen different viewpoints, it can be analyzed in the same way by treating each viewpoint as a separate test and only examining the person's responses on that viewpoint.

To illustrate this, consider the example of a husband who has rated his wife's actual behavior (H1AW) on the 63 MPQ items, and in particular he has rated her as rarely trusting (-2 on scale of -2 to +2),

rarely forgiving (-2), moderately cooperative (0), and very frequently dependent (+2). By examining these responses themselves one can gain a picture of how he views his wife. This item by item analysis is very informative for the therapist who is assessing a particular marriage, but it is a very inefficient method for the researcher who prefers to combine responses to the issues into a few scale scores. The four prior issues all add positively to the Loving scale on the MPQ and yield a score of -2 (slightly hostile on scale from -8 to +8) for these four issues. Besides simplifying the results, scale scores make it easier to develop normative data which tells how the individual's score compares with the scores of others. In this example, the raw score of -2 appears to be only a slightly hostile rating, but compared to most husbands who rate their wife's as +4 it may indicate a very hostile rating (perhaps one or more standard deviations below the mean).

The problem with scales is that they always organize or combine responses on the basis of how most people respond (as determined by factor analysis). But each individual may organize issues differently, and the way they do organize is valuable information about how they perceive the world. The hypothetical husband, for example, does not see trusting as correlated with cooperativeness as most people do. The MPQ does not mathematically analyze the organization of issues as does Ryle and Breen's (1972) double dyad grid technique, but it does print back the couples answers in a format which makes it easy to scan the issues for patterns of responding which differ from the expected ones.

Having examined the husband's rating of his wife's actual behavior, one can next examine his ratings of the ideal wife (HlIW),

and might discover that he would like her to be very frequently trusting (+2), usually forgiving (+1), moderately cooperative (0), and moderately dependent (0). By examining these responses, one can gain a picture of the kind of wife he desires, and by combining scores into a Loving scale one can determine how loving his ideal wife is in comparison to most husbands. One could continue this process, viewpoint by viewpoint, interpreting both the individual issue ratings and the scale scores (both Loving and Dominance on the MPQ) for each. In the example given, the reader may have been tempted to compare how the husband actually rated his wife with his expectations for an ideal wife, but this would be jumping ahead to the next method of analysis, the comparison analysis. In the viewpoint analysis, only the ratings themselves (either individually or combined into scales) are examined.

This method of analysis is neglected in Laing's IPM which focuses almost exclusively on the comparison analysis. It is somewhat tempting to skip over this method because it requires the psychometric refinement of the scales themselves (factor analysis, reliability coefficients, etc.). But to do so is to create the same errors that Cronbach (1958) criticized in earlier studies. It requires little additional work to create the scales necessary for viewpoint analysis, and it yields two very important benefits. First one learns how the couple really perceives each viewpoint which may be very valuable information. How loving a couple rates each other is as important to the understanding of their relationship as is the difference between their ratings. Secondly, it enables one to obtain more and better information from the comparison analyses to be discussed next.

So on the MPQ, the viewpoint analysis shows, viewpoint by viewpoint, how each of the 63 issues was rated and what the Loving and

Dominance scale scores were.

Comparison Analysis

As already alluded to, one of the most interesting aspects of the SAPIR approach is the comparison of differences between its sixteen viewpoints. In order to carry out this type of analysis, the researcher must answer two questions. First, how to measure the differences between any two viewpoints. Secondly, what viewpoints should be compared to each other. Since the first question is more basic, the discussion will begin with it.

How Differences Are Measured. How to measure the difference between the viewpoints depends first of all on what rating scale was used. If a simple true-false scale was used, the two ratings can only be compared to see if they are the same or different. If a numeric scale such as the five-point scale on the MPQ is used, the two ratings can be subtracted to obtain a numerical difference. For example, if a hypothetical husband rated his wife's actual trusting as very low (-2) and the amount of trusting an ideal wife would have as very high (+2), then by subtracting the actual rating from the ideal rating, a difference of +4 is obtained. This difference score contains three types of information. First, it tells whether a difference occurs just as the true-false scale does. If the difference score is not zero, then the ratings are different as they are in the example. Secondly, the sign indicates the direction of the difference. Given the subtraction formula, the plus in this example indicates that the ideal is higher than the actual. Thirdly, the number itself indicates the extent of the difference. The four in this example indicates that the two ratings are as far apart as possible, i.e. at opposite ends of the

scale. Because of these advantages, the MPQ used a five-point scale and subtracted the ratings of different viewpoints on each issue.

As mentioned earlier, the differences on each particular issue are most valuable to the therapist working with an individual couple. The researcher who is interested in comparing many couples prefers to have a limited number of scores to work with. There are two ways to combine individual difference scores, by scale and by global index.

Differences on individual issues can be combined to create a scale difference score only if the researcher has taken the time to build scales. If so, then three types of scale difference scores can be obtained. First the differences on individual issues can be summed over all the scale issues just as the ratings themselves were summed to create the scale itself. This yields a direction of difference score (DD) for the scale. This score indicates the direction and extent of the difference between the two viewpoints. For example, if a husband had rated his wife's actual Loving score as -10 and his ideal wife's Loving score as +40, then subtracting the actual from the ideal, a Loving scale direction of difference score of +50 is obtained. The plus sign indicates that the actual loving falls below the ideally desired loving, and the 50 indicates the extent of the difference (this would be a sizable difference on the MPQ loving scale for example). What is most unique about the scale direction of difference score is that it indicates the direction of the difference, i.e. which rating is higher than the other. Neither of the other difference scores contain this information, and no global difference score can measure it.

The extent of the difference between two ratings can also be

measured by the scale square root of the average squared difference score (SRASD in this paper). It is obtained by squaring the differences on each individual scale issue to eliminate the sign and then adding up these numbers and dividing the sum by the number of issues to obtain the average squared difference score.

As Cronbach and Gleser (1963) point out this score tends to exaggerate the extent of the difference, but that can be mitigated by taking its square root. According to Cronbach and Gleser, this difference score is generally the best statistical measure of similarity between two sets of ratings, in this case the similarity between two viewpoints. It measures the average extent of the difference per issue between viewpoints while the direction of difference score measures only the net extent of the overall difference. To illustrate this distinction consider the four difference scores +2, +2, -2, -2. Adding all of these together as the scale direction of difference score does, the result is "0" which suggests that there is no overall difference on the Loving scale between the two viewpoints. This is because the differences in direction on the individual issues cancelled each other out. If the two viewpoints being compared were the husband's rating of his actual and ideal wife (HlAW and HlIW), then these scores would mean that on half the items the husband wanted his wife to be more loving, while on the other half he wanted her to be less loving, so overall he wanted her to remain the same in terms of the loving scale. If these same four differences were squared, summed and divided bv 4, and then the square root was taken, a score of 2 would be obtained which indicates that on the average there is a 2 point difference between the viewpoint ratings on each issue in

the scale. Thus, the square root of the average squared difference score shows that there is actually a considerable difference between the two viewpoints.

Usually the extent of the direction of difference score correlates with the square root of the average squared difference score, i.e. if one is high, the other is high and vice versa. However, it is possible to have a low direction of difference score and a high square root of the average squared difference score (but not vice versa). As the example has shown this occurs when the differences between individual issues have opposite signs and thus cancel each other out. This is particularly likely when a person has conflicted or ambivalent feelings about a scale. For this reason it is useful to obtain both of these difference scores.

The third possible difference score is the number of differences (ND) on the scale score. It is obtained by simply adding up the number of issues on the scale in which the two ratings were different. It is the difference score which is used in Laing's IPM and in Alperson's work (1975a). In the previous example, there was a difference on each of the four issues so the number of difference score would be "4" on this example scale. This difference score is easier to obtain than the square root of the average squared difference score and tends to correlate highly with it since it too is insensitive to the direction of the difference. Statistically it is not as useful a measure because it does not reflect the extent of the difference per issue. For example, if the example differences were +1, +1, -1, -1, the number of difference score would remain 4 while the square root of the average squared difference score would drop to 1. However this difference score does provide some useful

information and interpreted in conjunction with the square root of the average squared difference, it indicates whether the extent of the difference between two viewpoints is due to small differences over all the issues or very large differences on a few issues.

The three scale difference scores provide the same type of information which is contained in the individual issue difference. The scale direction of difference score like the sign of an individual issue difference reflects the direction of the difference. The number of difference score on a scale is analogous to whether there is a difference on the issue, and the scale square root of the averaged squared difference score reflects the extent of the difference just as the magnitude of individual issue score does. These difference scores supplement each other and provide a clearer picture of the nature of the difference between two viewpoints on a scale.

Besides the differences on individual issues and on scales, it is also possible to obtain <u>overall</u> or global difference scores. In fact this is the type of difference scoring which is done by Laing in his IPM. It is easier to obtain overall difference scores than scale difference scores because one does not have to statistically determine which issues can be added together. Instead one simply adds up the differences over all the issues without regard to the inter-relationship between the issues. This operation is justified by assuming that people are influenced mainly by the differences between viewpoints and not as much by the nature of the issues creating the differences. To illustrate this, consider the difference between the husband's own view of an issue and the husband's other view (his view of his wife's view) of the same issue. As will be explained more

fully shortly, this difference can be interpreted as the husband's estimate of the disagreement between himself and his wife. The assumption upon which the overall scoring is based means that any perceived disagreement is likely to be disconcerting irregardless of whether it is a disagreement over how to squeeze a tube of toothpaste or over how to make love. Clearly this assumption becomes less tenable as the issues involved become more disparate in terms of relevance to the relationship. It is likely to be somewhat tenable, if the researcher has chosen issues of high relevance as Laing did. However, it was just this practice of using global indices which Cronbach (1958) most strongly attacked in his critique of social perception research. He said it led to an unjustified overgeneralizing of results and to an overlooking of the possibility of different relationships on different dimensions (e.g. loving different than dominance). Another related disadvantage of overall difference scores is the fact that no measure can be obtained which reflects the direction of the difference. One can count the number of differences over all issues and compute the square root of the average squared difference over all issues because both operations do not take into account the sign or direction of the individual difference. But one cannot calculate the overall direction of difference score unless one knows how to add in each issue. For example, it does not make much sense to add the difference in trusting in with the difference in dominating unless one knows how they both correlate with some other desired variable such as marital adjustment.

Despite their shortcomings, overall difference scores will be calculated on the MPQ. They have been used by other researchers and so the results from the present study can be compared with these

earlier studies. More importantly, by comparing them to the related difference scores on the MPQ's Loving and Dominance scales, the validity of the criticisms leveled against them can be evaluated.

So the MPQ will calculate the following types of difference scores, individual issue differences, Loving and Dominance scale difference scores (direction of difference, number of differences, and square root of average squared difference), and overall difference scores (number of differences, and square root of average squared difference). The scoring formulas for these difference scores are summarized in Table 5. The individual issue differences are of most interest to the therapist trying to understand the nature of a couple's relationship. Because they reduce the data to more manageable proportions, this study will only be evaluating the scale and overall difference scores. Still this is a major statistical undertaking since it means calculating eight difference scores for each comparison desired and the MPQ evaluates 36 different comparisons.

What Differences To Measure. Now that the differences between viewpoints can be measured, the next question becomes what viewpoints should be compared to each other. Given sixteen different viewpoints, it is statistically possible to make 120 different comparisons between these viewpoints. This is clearly an excessive number of analyses to make since eight difference scores are to be obtained for each so the SAPIR user is once again faced with a sampling problem--which comparisons to make. Fortunately there is a guideline which makes this process much easier. Since some comparisons have a clearer psychological meaning than others, it makes sense to only determine those comparisons which have the clearest psychological meaning since they would be the easiest ones to interpret. As will be shown shortly, the most clearly

Table 5. Calculation Formulas for Comparison Scores on MPQ

Individual issue difference, ID

ID= Viewpoint 1 - Viewpoint 2

Direction of difference, DD

$$DD = \sum_{i=1}^{n} IDi$$ where n = number issues on scale

Square root of average squared difference, SRASD

$$SSD = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} ID_i^2}{N}$$ where n = number of issues on scale or in total test

Number of differences, ND

$$ND = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\text{If } ID_i \neq 0, \text{ then } ND_i = ND_{i+1} + 1)$$

where n = number of issues on scale or in total test

interpreted differences occur between two viewpoints which differ only on a single perceptual component. The more components which vary between the viewpoints, the more meaningless the comparison will be. For example, if the husband's own view of his actual wife (H1AW) is compared to his own view of his ideal wife (H1IW), the only variation occurs in the reference component, i.e. one viewpoint is actual, the other ideal. The difference between these viewpoints can easily be interpreted as a measure of the husband's dissatisfaction with his wife. However, the difference between his view of his actual wife (H1AW) and his view of his wife's view of her ideal husband (H2IH) has no clear psychological meaning because it involves a variation in three different components--perspective, reference, and person perceived. Thus, there are three basic groups of comparisons on the MPQ which are derived from the three basic components--differentiation measures derived from differences in the person performing the behavior at issue, dissatisfaction measures derived from differences between references, and disagreement and misunderstanding measures derived from differences between perspectives. Each of these groups of comparisons will be defined and discussed in the order just listed which is Foa's (1966) order of perceptual differentiation.

According to Foa the first perceptual component to be differentiated is the persons performing the behavior at issue. Since this study is investigating marital relationships, the persons involved are husband and wife. If the husband and wife both perform the same behavior (e.g. both trust each other), then they are similar and they have an equal, symmetrical, or undifferentiated relationship. If they do not act the same (e.g. one is more trusting than the other), then they are different on this issue and they have an unequal, asymme-

trical or differentiated relationship. Though differences in this component have previously been called dissimilarity (Byrne & Blaylock, 1963; Corsini, 1956; Dymond, 1954; Kotlor, 1965; Stuckert, 1963; Taylor, 1967), they will be called differences in differentiation in this paper since this term connotes better the psychological process which results from recognizing differences in this component.

The large group of differentiation comparisons can be subdivided into general types of differentiation comparisons which in turn can be further divided into specific comparisons. The group of differentiation comparisons includes all comparison involving a difference in a rating of the husband and a rating of the wife. But there are several different ways of rating the husband and wife. The type of differentiation comparison which is studied on the MPQ is called the perceived role differentiation comparison because it is defined by the difference between a person's view from a particular reference of the husband's behavior and the person's view from the same reference of the wife's behavior. For example, by subtracting the husband's own view of his wife's actual behavior (H1AW) from his own view of his actual behavior (H1AH), a measure of the husband's own actual perceived role differentiation is obtained (PRD-H1A). As Table 6 shows there are eight different perceived role differentiation comparisons possible on the MPQ.

Before going any farther, it is essential to explain the rationale behind the comparison codes on the MPQ since this will make it easier to understand and interpret them. First, every general type of comparison is coded by three letters, e.g. PRD stands for perceived role differentiation. Each of these letters codes a particular kind of

Table 6. Definition of Perceived Role Differentiation Comparisons

Code	Viewpoints Compared	Definition
PRD-H1I	H1IH - H1IW	Husband's own view of ideal role differentiation
PRD-H1A	H1AH - H1AW	Husband's own view of actual role differentiation
PRD-H2I	H2IH - H2IW	Husband's view of wife's view of ideal role differentiation
PRD-H2A	H2AH - H2AW	Husband's view of wife's view of actual role differentiation
PRD-W2I	W2IH - W2IW	Wife's view of husband's view of ideal role differentiation
PRD-W2A	W2AW - W2AW	Wife's view of husband's view of actual role differentiation
PRD-W1I	W1IH - W1IW	Wife's own view of ideal role differentiation
PRD-W2A	W1AH - W1IW	Wife's own view of actual role differentiation

information. The first letter is always either a "P" for perceived or an "I" for interpersonal and indicates whether the comparison is between a single person's viewpoints (intrapersonal coded P) or between two different person's viewpoints (interpersonal coded I). Thus it codes the person perceiving component. The third letter always codes the component being varied in the viewpoints or the group name. In this case the "D" stands for differentiation. The second or middle letter always codes the general type of this comparison. The "R" here stands for role differentiation. It is also possible to have three other general types of differentiation comparisons. A perceived self differentiation (PSD) is defined as the difference between a person's own rating of themselves and their view of the partner's rating of themselves (e.g. H1AH-H2AW). Similarly the perceived other differentiation (POD) is defined as the difference between a person's own rating of the other partner and their view of the other partner's rating of the other person (e.g. H2AH-H1AW). An interpersonal self difference (ISD) is defined as the difference between each person's rating of themselves (e.g. H1AH-W1AW). These three types of differentiation comparisons were not actually calculated on the MPQ because they were expected to be similar to the perceived role differentiation which seems to be the psychologically most meaningful comparison. They were only included here to illustrate the comparison coding rules just discussed.

Once the general type of comparison has been defined by the first three code letters, then the more specific comparisons which fall under that general type are coded by a second three letter group. Every comparison is defined by the two viewpoints it compares, and

every viewpoint is coded by four letters representing the four components which define it. If one component is varied in each comparison, then the other three components remain constant, and therefore the letters coding these components become the second three letter code which defines the specific comparison involved. To illustrate this, consider the example of the husband's own view of the actual perceived role differentiation (PRD-HlA). This comparison is created by comparing his view of his wife's actual behavior (HlAW) with his view of his actual behavior (HlAH) on that issue. The first three letters in each viewpoint (HlA) are identical because the same person is perceiving both viewpoints (H) from the same perspective (l) and the same reference (A). The only component which varies is the person perceived component represented by the last viewpoint code letter which is H in one viewpoint and W in the other. Thus the coding symbols in the SAPIR approach are not arbitrarily created at each step of the way, but are, in part, logically derived from previous codes. This in addition to the built-in mneumonics makes the codes more easily remembered and understood.

Besides defining the meaning and code for each comparison of two viewpoints, it is also important to define exactly how the viewpoints will be compared, i.e. which viewpoint is to be subtracted from the other. The husband's own actual perceived role differentiation (PRD-HlA) could be calculated by either subtracting his rating of his wife from his rating of himself (HlAH-HlAW) or vice versa (HlAW-HlAH). It does not matter which way it is obtained as long as the formula used is clearly understood and consistently used. In the MPQ, the wife rating will always be subtracted from the husband rating because this

formula follows the alphabetic order (H before W). Once this arbitrary decision has been made, it gives a meaning to the sign of the difference score. If it is plus, then it means that the husband is rated as showing more of the behavior at issue than the wife. If it is minus, then it means that the husband is rated as showing less of the behavior than the wife. Once this convention is learned, it becomes very easy to interpret the meaning of perceived role differentiation on the MPQ.

Though the definitions in Table 6 are adequate to define the perceived role differentiation comparisons, the author has found it very useful to represent them spatially as shown in Figure 5. The circles represent the viewpoints as defined and arranged in Figure 4. The arrows represent the perceived role differentiation comparisons with the direction of the arrow representing the direction of the subtraction (i.e. this viewpoint is subtracted from this one). All the comparison arrows are parallel to illustrate that they are all along the same axis, i.e. differences in the actor or person performing the behavior component.

The basic coding schemas developed with regard to the differentiation comparisons can now be applied to the second group of comparisons, the dissatisfaction comparisons. The dissatisfaction comparisons are defined as differences between viewpoints on the reference component, i.e. the difference between ideal expectation and actual performance. Only one type of dissatisfaction comparison will be investigated on the MPQ, the <u>perceived dissatisfaction</u> comparison which will be coded as PDS. It is an intrapersonal comparison (hence the "P") of a person's perceptions of the differences between ideal expectations and actual performance from a given perspective and for a given person. Thus the specific type of perceived dissatisfaction will be indicated

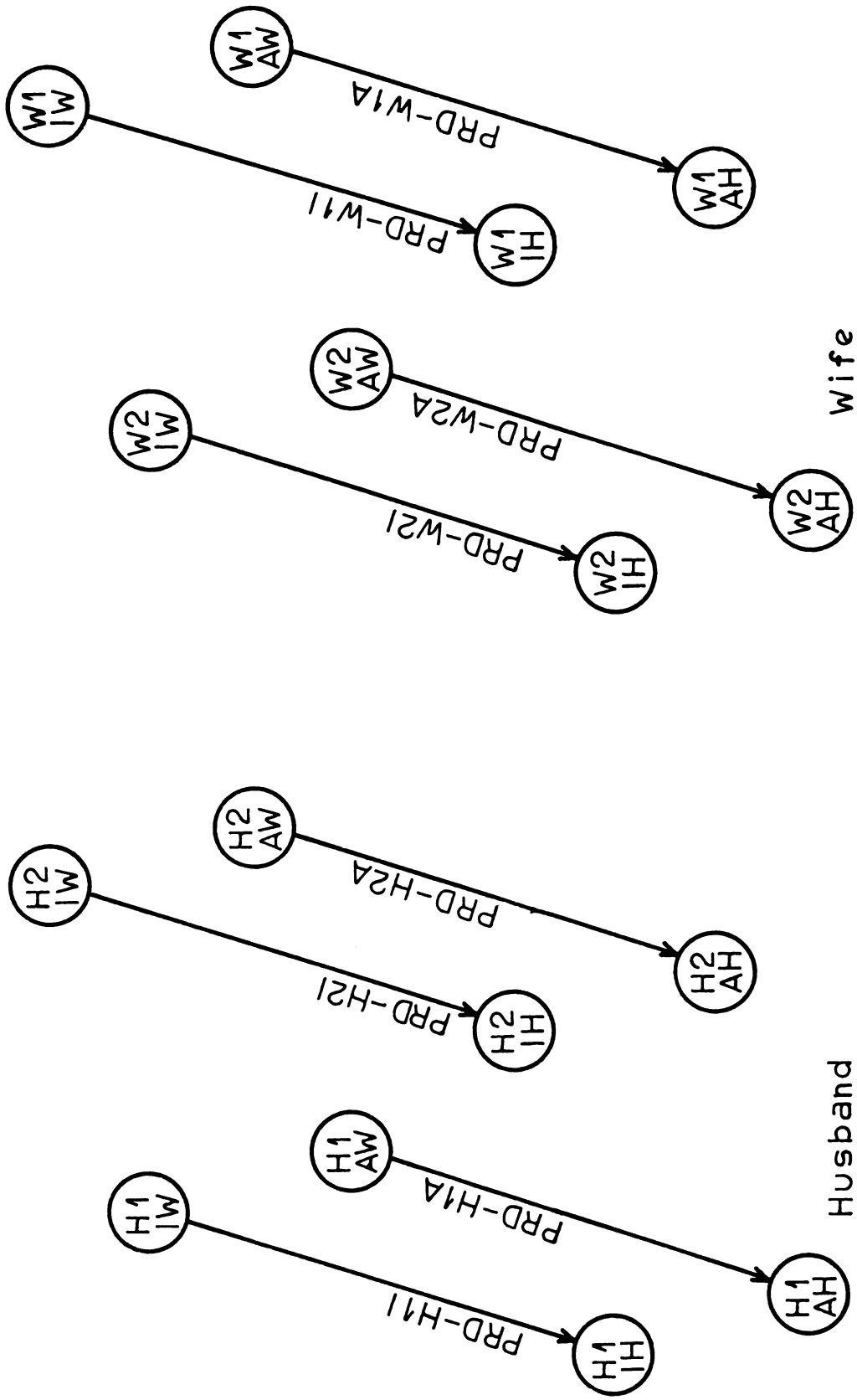

FIGURE 5. PERCEIVED ROLE DIFFERENTIATION COMPARISONS

by a three letter group coding the person perceiving, the perspective, and the person perceived. For example, the husband's own dissatisfaction with himself (PDS-HlH) is defined as the difference between his ideal expectations for himself (HlIH) and his own view of his actual performance (HlAH). All eight perceived dissatisfaction comparisons are defined in Table 7 and graphically illustrated in Figure 6. Because the actual performance rating is always subtracted from the ideal expectation, a plus sign on this comparison means that the person needs to actually perform more of this behavior in order to meet their ideal expectations. Similarly, a minus sign means that the person needs to actually perform less of this behavior in order to meet their ideal expectations.

None of the recently developed instruments such as Laing, Phillipson, and Lee's IPM, Drewery's IPT, or Scott, Ashworth, and Casson's FRT measure this comparison because none of them ask the couple to rate their ideal expectations. As emphasized previously, the viewpoints chosen for sampling determine the types of comparisons possible. All of the instruments above have neglected the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons and concentrated instead on the next group of comparisons, the agreement comparisons.

The group of agreement comparisons are defined by differences in the persons perceiving or persons perceived components. There are three general types of disagreement comparisons on the MPQ. The first is the perceived disagreement comparison (PDA) which is defined as the difference between the person's own perspective and the person's view of the other's perspective. For example, the husband's perceived disagreement over the actual husband ratings (PDA-HAH) is obtained by subtracting his own rating of his actual performance (HlAH) from his view of his wife's

Table 7. Definition of Perceived Dissatisfaction Comparisons

Code	Viewpoints Compared	Definition
PDS-H1H	H1IH - H1AH	Husband's own dissatisfaction with himself
PDS-H1W	H1IW - H1AW	Husband's own dissatisfaction with wife
PDS-H2H	H2IH - H2AH	Husband's view of wife's dissatisfaction with him
PDS-H2W	H2IW - W2AW	Husband's view of wife's dissatisfaction with herself
PDS-W2H	W2IH - W2AH	Wife's view of husband's dissatisfaction with himself
PDS-W2W	W2IW - W2AW	Wife's view of husband's dissatisfaction with her
PDS-W1H	W1IW - W1AH	Wife's own dissatisfaction with husband
PDS-W1W	W1IW - W1AW	Wife's own dissatisfaction with herself

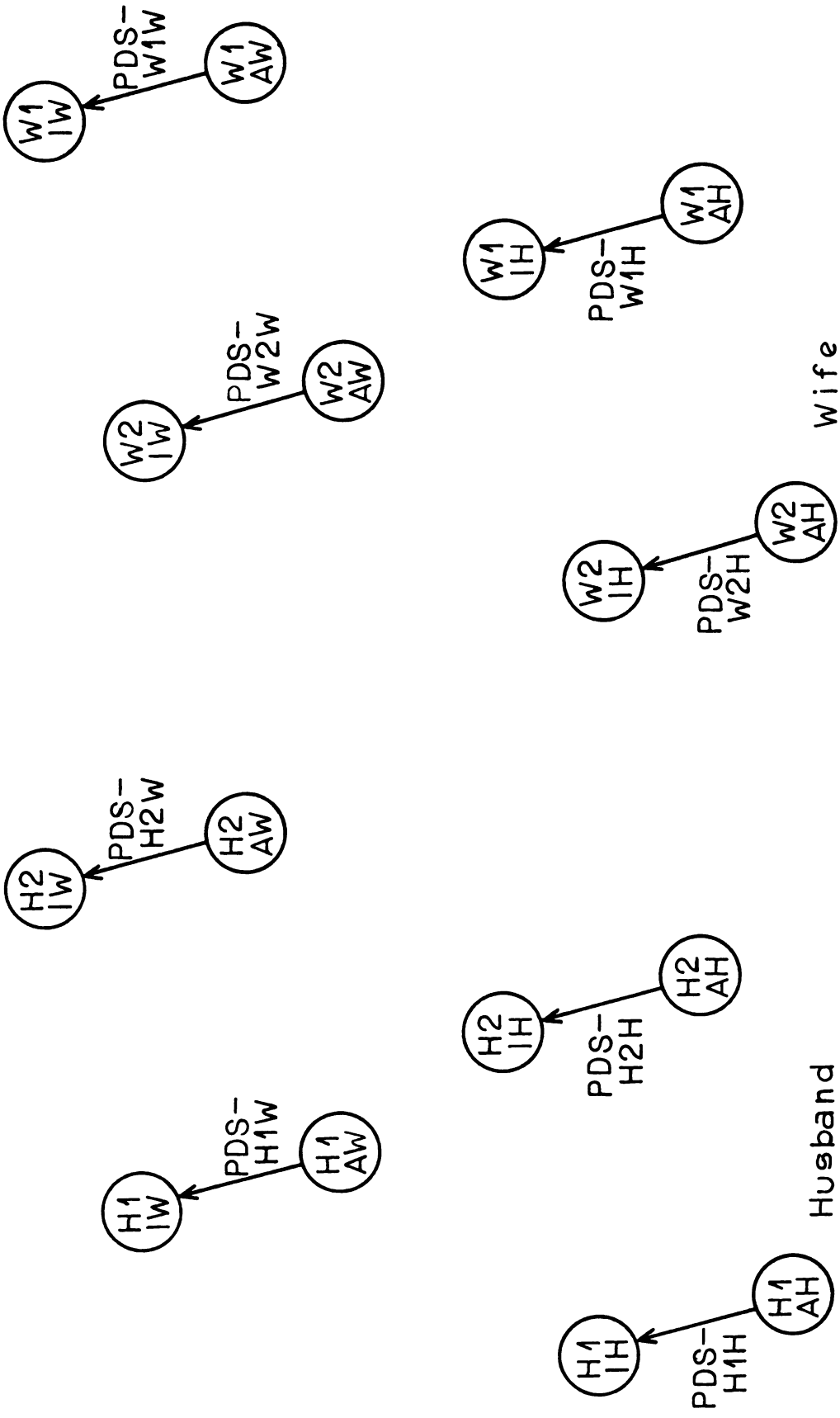

FIGURE 6. PERCEIVED DISSATISFACTION COMPARISONS

rating of his actual performance (H2AH). The eight specific perceived disagreement comparisons are defined in Table 8 and graphically illustrated in Figure 7. Since one's own rating is always subtracted from one's estimate of the other's rating, a plus sign means that the partner is expected to rate higher than the person themselves did, while minus sign means the partner is expected to rate lower. If the partner is expected to agree, then the comparison will be zero.

If the issues on the MPQ are in fact important and relevant to marital relationships, then disagreement over how to rate them indicates marital conflict. In terms of Newcomb's (1953) model, these unresolved disagreements should lead to a negative or hostile relationship. However, the perceived disagreement comparison only reveals what the person thinks the conflict is. The person may be falsely expecting disagreement where there is really agreement or vice versa be overlooking real areas of disagreement. The interpersonal disagreement comparison (IDA) provides a measure of the real agreement between the couple on the questionnaire. It is defined as the difference between the husband's rating and the wife's rating of the same person from the same reference. For example, interpersonal disagreement over the husband's actual behavior (IDA-1AH) is calculated by subtracting the wife's rating of the husband's actual behavior (W1AH) from his rating of his actual behavior (H1AH). Note that this is an interpersonal comparison between persons' perceptions instead of within a person. The component being varied is the persons perceiving. As Table 9 and Figure 7 show only four interpersonal disagreement comparisons are calculated on the MPQ. In reality eight comparisons are possible if one includes the other's perspective disagreement, e.g. IDA-2AH = H2AH-W2AH. But this is a comparison that most people rarely make, and so it was not included on the MPQ because

Table 8. Definition of Perceived Disagreement Comparisons

Code	Viewpoints Compared	Definition
PDA-HAH	H2AH - H1AH	Husband's expectation of disagreement over actual husband
PDA-WAH	W2AH - W1AH	Wife's expectation of disagreement over actual husband
PDA-HAW	H2AW - H1AW	Husband's expectation of disagreement over actual wife
PDA-WAW	W2AW - W1AW	Wife's expectation of disagreement over actual wife
PDA-HIH	H2IH - H1IH	Husband's expectation of disagreement over ideal husband
PDA-WIH	H2IH - W1IH	Wife's expectation of disagreement over ideal husband
PDA-HIW	H2IW - H1IW	Husband's expectation of disagreement over ideal wife
PDA-WIW	W2IW - W1IW	Wife's expectation of disagreement over ideal wife

Table 9. Definition of Interpersonal Disagreement Comparisons

Code	Viewpoints Compared	Definition
IDA-1AH	H1AH - H1AH	Disagreement over actual husband performance
IDA-1AH	H1AW - W1AW	Disagreement over actual wife performance
IDA-1IH	H1IH - W1IH	Disagreement over ideal husband expectations
IDA-1IW	H1IW - W1IW	Disagreement over ideal wife expectations

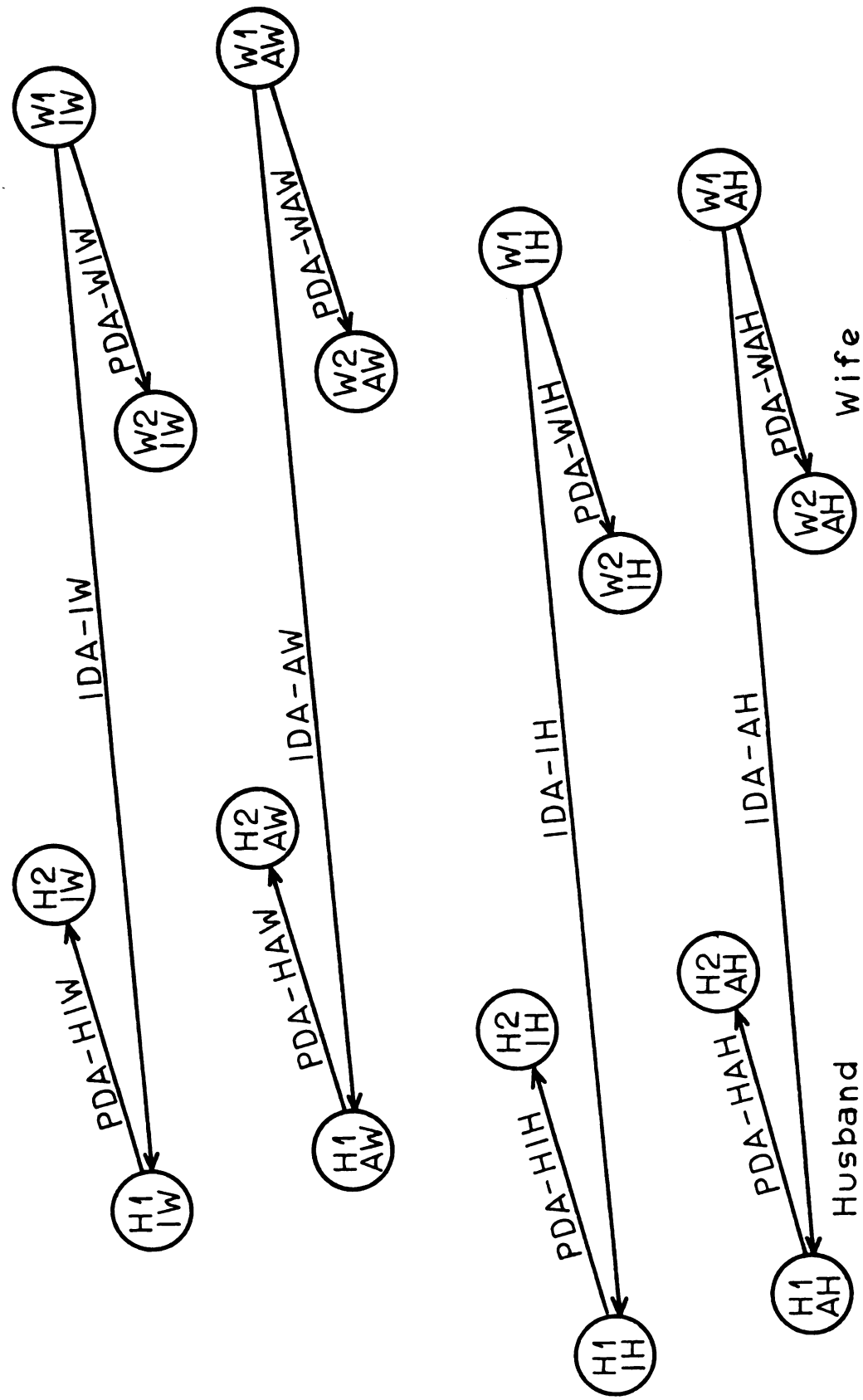

FIGURE 7. PERCEIVED AND INTERPERSONAL DISAGREEMENT COMPARISONS

only the most meaningful comparisons were desired. Besides it turns out that other perspective disagreement is highly correlated with own perspective disagreement and so does not yield enough new information to justify its calculation. It becomes theoretically interesting only in the study of spiralling perspectives which Laing presents in Knots (1971). To make the interpretation of the comparisons consistent, the wife's rating is always subtracted from the husbands so that a plus sign indicates the husband's rating is more than the wife's, while a minus sign means that his rating is less than the wife's.

Perceived disagreement (PDA) is a person's estimate of the real interpersonal disagreement (IDA), and since it is only an estimate it can and often is inaccurate. The third comparison in this disagreement group is the interpersonal misunderstanding of agreement (IMA) comparison which measures the accuracy of this estimate. It is defined as the difference between the other person's own rating and one's own estimate of the other person's rating. For example, the husband's interpersonal misunderstanding of his actual behavior (IMA-HAH) is defined by the difference between his wife's actual rating of him (W1AH) and his prediction of his wife's rating of him (H2AH). By subtracting in this manner, a plus sign always indicates an overestimation of the other's rating, while a minus sign indicates an underestimation. Accurate understanding is indicated by a zero. The eight interpersonal misunderstanding comparisons possible on the MPQ are listed and defined in Table 10 and are spatially represented in Figure 8. Unlike the previous comparisons the second three letter code indicating the specific comparison is not defined by the constant elements in the two viewpoints compared. In the example above for instance, the two viewpoints H2AH and W1AH have only two letters in common (the AH) representing actual reference and

Table 10. Definition of Interpersonal Misunderstanding of Agreement Comparisons

Code	Viewpoints Compared	Definition
IMA-HAH	H2AH - W1AH	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of actual husband
IMA-WAH	W2AH - W1AH	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of actual husband
IMA-HAW	H2AW - W1AW	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of actual wife
IMA-WAW	W2AW - H1AW	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of actual wife
IMA-HIH	H2IH - H1IH	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of ideal husband
IMA-WIH	W2IH - H1IH	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of ideal husband
IMA-HIW	H2IW - W1IW	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of ideal wife
IMA-WIW	W2IW - H1IW	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of ideal wife

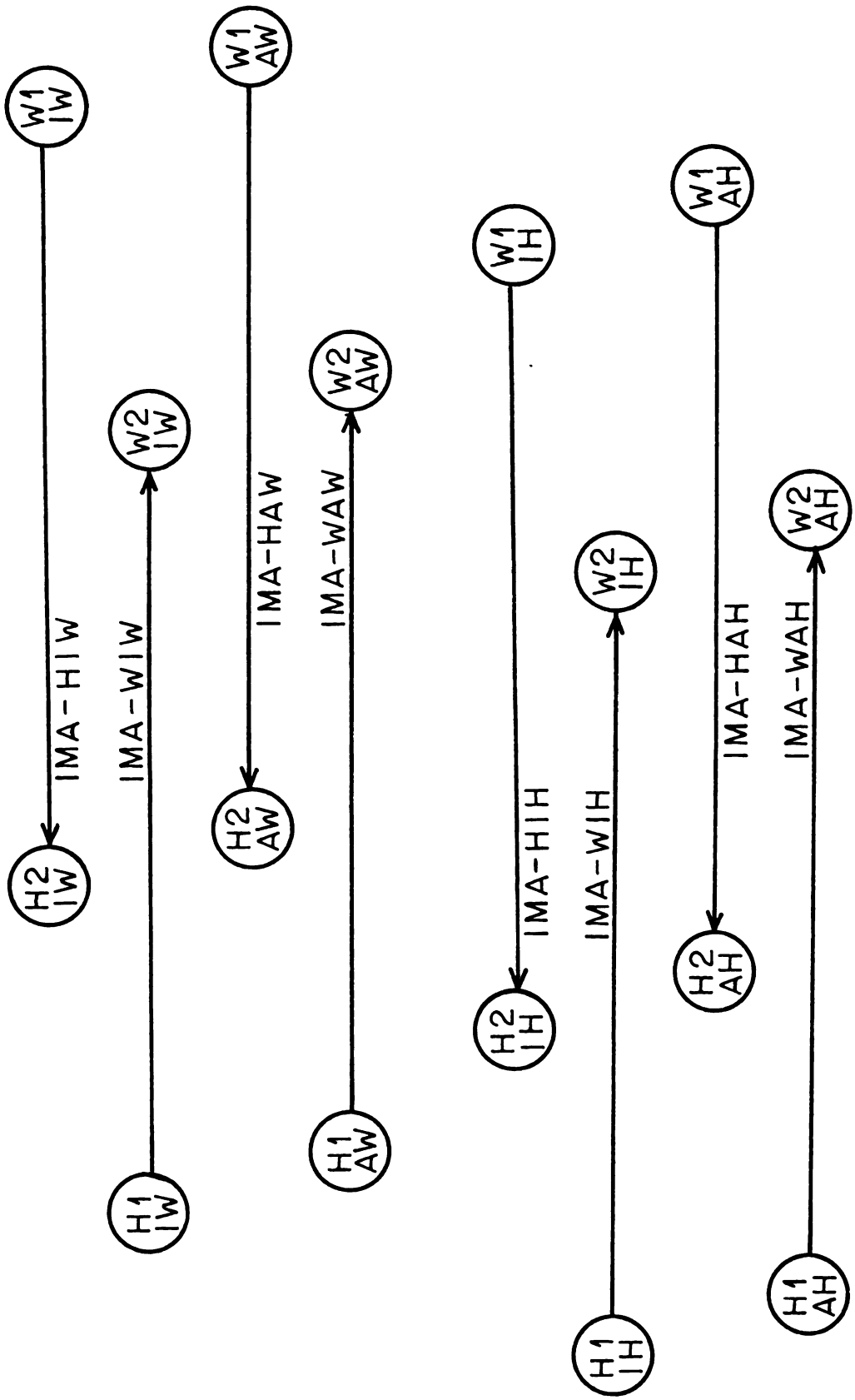

FIGURE 8. INTERPERSONAL MISUNDERSTANDING COMPARISONS

husband as subject of behavior. The other two components vary in a fixed way. If the first letter of one viewpoint is H, the other is always W and vice versa, and by definition the first order (own) perspective will always be subtracted from the second order (others') perspective. So coding one element would determine the rest. The element chosen was the code for the person who is estimating the other person's rating (H in this example) since the comparison is measuring how accurately he/she is in the estimating process. One final comment on the coding of this comparison. It was formally called the interpersonal misunderstanding of agreement to code the A in IMA even though it is just as accurate and more convenient to label it simply interpersonal understanding. The A was included because it is the letter which stands for this whole group of agreement comparisons involving variations in the person perceiving and person perceived components. This is the most complex group on the MPQ since it has three different types instead one as in the differentiation and satisfaction groups. Laing et al. (1966) and Alperson (1975a) who sample the third order or own reflection perspective define additional comparisons which belong in this group.

At this point all 36 comparisons on the MPQ have been defined and illustrated--eight perceived role differentiation (PRD), eight perceived dissatisfaction (PDS), eight perceived disagreement (PDA), four interpersonal disagreements (IDA), and eight interpersonal misunderstanding of agreement (IMA) comparisons. This type of comparison analysis is an essential aspect of the SAPIR approach and the MPQ as it is with similar instruments such as Laing, Phillipson, and Lee's IPM, Drewery's IPT, and Scott, Ashworth, and Casson's FRT. What distinguishes the MPQ from these other instruments is the clarity with which its comparisons

are defined and the comprehensiveness with which they are sampled. Laing et al. (1966) and Alperson (1975a) do a very good job of clearly and systematically defining the comparisons they investigate; however, they only are concerned with the agreement comparisons. Most other investigators have also studied only a limited number of comparisons. The most comprehensive sampling previously done was by Murstein and Beck (1972) who scored 28 different comparisons. However, some of their comparisons are poorly conceptualized. One's own perceived dissatisfaction with self (PDS-HlH, PDS-WlW) is called self acceptance, while one's own perceived dissatisfaction with spouse (PDS-HlW, PDS-WlH) is called "perceived compatibility with spouse." The last term is conceptually misleading and obscures the fact that both sets of comparisons belong to the same group--the satisfaction group. Interpersonal disagreement comparisons are called "actual role-compatibility" comparisons by Murstein and Beck which falsely groups them with the dissatisfaction comparisons discussed above. The conceptual basis for the MPQ comparisons has been much more carefully derived from the basic perceptual components.

This conceptual basis can be illustrated by combining the spatial representations of the five different types of comparisons (Figures 6 - 8) into a single spatial display shown in Figure 9. The viewpoints form the corners of two cubes, one of the husband's perceptions and one of the wife's perceptions. The perceived role differentiation (PRD), perceived dissatisfaction (PDS), and perceived disagreement (PDA) comparisons form the edges of the cubes each lying along one of the three dimensions of the cube corresponding to the differences in the person perceived, reference, and perspective components of the basic perceptual model. The interpersonal disagreement (IDA) and interpersonal mis-

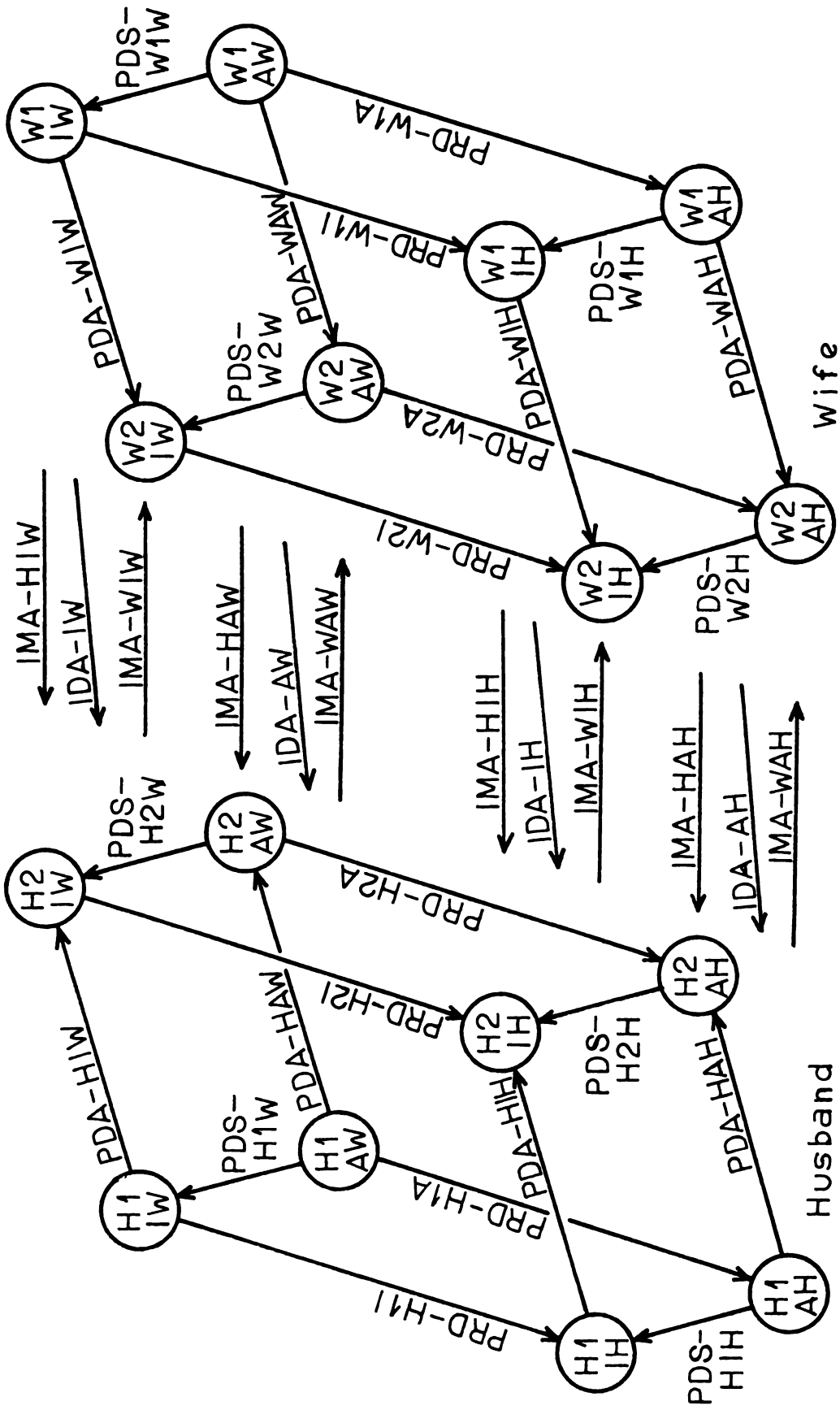

FIGURE 9. ALL MPQ COMPARISONS

understanding (IMA) comparisons connect the related viewpoints in the two cubes together along the persons perceived dimension. Thus this spatial representation makes clear the underlying orderliness of the comparisons. It also makes clear that all these comparisons are interrelated. A change in any one viewpoint results in a corresponding change in each of the five different types of comparisons which incorporate it. The SAPIR approach views the sixteen viewpoints and 36 comparisons as one large perceptual gestalt, and even though hypotheses are tested and results reported comparison by comparison, the overriding purpose of this approach is to better understand this whole perceptual gestalt and how it changes with shifts in the marital relationship. With this knowledge it should be possible to use the MPQ as an assessment instrument with married couples.

To make it easier to use in an assessment, the MPQ results are printed out by the computer in two different forms--as individual issues and as summary scale scores. For the therapist interested in a detailed understanding of a couple, it is most appropriate to examine their responses to each issue. Appendix K shows one of the four pages of the MPQ printout which lists all sixteen viewpoint ratings and the 36 comparisons for each issue. The questions are grouped according to the cluster analyses; the dominance and submission clusters for example are shown on the first page illustrated in Appendix K. The mass of numbers is somewhat staggering (52 data points for each of the 63 issues), and the layout is initially somewhat confusing, but there is an underlying rationale to it. The viewpoint and comparison scores are arranged according to the spatial relationships shown in Figure 9 because once a person has mastered the codes it facilitates the understanding of the couple's responses.

However, the therapist may not be as interested in the couple's unique concerns as he/she is in how they are functioning in a global way as compared to other couples. For this the summary scores on the Loving and Dominance scales for each viewpoint and each comparison (direction of difference, number of differences, etc.) are most useful. As Appendix I shows the MPQ scoring programs not only print out the raw score on each of these measures but also the $\underline{Z}$ score which gives a better idea of how the couple compares to others. At the present time the $\underline{Z}$ scores are based on a limited sample of sixty randomly sampled community couples who will be described more fully in the Subjects section.

Pattern Analysis

There is one more method of analyzing the perceptual data in the SAPIR approach which will be called pattern analysis. In essence it is analyzing the differences between comparisons just as the comparisons analyzed the differences in viewpoints. This type of analysis is implicit in the writings of Laing et al. (1966) and somewhat developed in Alperson's (1975a) work. However, the dichotomous true-false scales they use do not facilitate this type of analysis because they lose track of the direction and extent of the differences. So here another advantage of the five-point rating scale becomes apparent.

To analyze the differences between comparisons, the researcher must answer two questions. First, what comparisons to analyze, and secondly how to measure the differences between these comparisons. The first question is a difficult one because there are 630 possible combinations of the 36 comparisons, so sampling is again necessitated. The same guideline which was used to select viewpoints for comparison will be used to select comparisons for

pattern analysis. It is that only the most psychologically meaningful patterns need to be analyzed; and usually the more the comparisons analyzed have in common, the more meaningful their pattern will be. Following this guideline, the author found that analyzing comparisons within the same general group and analyzing comparisons containing a common viewpoint yielded meaningful patterns. Six general groups of patterns subsuming a total of 41 specific types patterns were found to be psychologically meaningful on the MPQ (see example of summary of these pattern analyses in Appendix J). However, because of space and time considerations only four of the general groups will be discussed in this paper--dissatisfaction patterns, consensus patterns, complementarity patterns, and favorability patterns.

Dissatisfaction Patterns. Since they are the most representative, the group of dissatisfaction patterns which analyze the difference between two perceived dissatisfaction (PDS) comparisons will be discussed first. Marriage therapists often observe an externalization of dissatisfaction in maladjusted marriages. Each partner believes that their spouse is the one who needs to change most in order to make the marriage work. Since the perceived dissatisfaction (PDS) comparisons are a measure of the direction and extent of change needed in a relationship, it makes sense to compare the relevant ones to test this theory. Table 11 lists nine sets of perceived dissatisfaction comparisons which reflect the externalization of dissatisfaction within a marriage. Each set is classified as a specific type of the general group of dissatisfaction patterns and is coded and defined as shown in Table 11. The first one, for example, compares the husband's dissatisfaction with himself (PDS-H1H) with his perception of his wife's dissatisfaction with him (PDS-H2H) to determine

Table 11. Definition of Dissatisfaction Pattern Indices

Definition of Types of Dissatisfaction Pattern Indices

Type Code	PDS Comparisons		Definition
	Rater	Other	
HPH	H1H	H2H	Husband's perception of source of greatest dissatisfaction with his performance
IPH	H1H	W1H	Interpersonal source of greatest dissatisfaction with husband
WPH	W2H	W1H	Wife's perception of source of greatest dissatisfaction with husband
HPW	H2W	H1W	Husband's perception of source of greatest dissatisfaction with wife
IPW	W1W	H1W	Interpersonal source of greatest dissatisfaction with wife
WPW	W1W	W2W	Wife's perception of source of greatest dissatisfaction with her performance
HPR	H1H	H1W	Husband's perception of who should change most in relationship
IPR	H1H	W1W	Interpersonal self perceptions of who should change most in relationship
WPR	W1H	W1H	Wife's perception of who should change most in relationship

Meaning of Categories of Comparison Patterns Used to Determine Index

Comparisons Sign & Extent		Pattern Category	
Rater	Other	Code	Meaning of Pattern
0	0	BS	Both satisfied
+	0	RD	Rater dissatisfied, other satisfied -- Internalized
++	+	RM	Rater more dissatisfied than other -- Internalized
+	+	BD	Both dissatisfied
+	++	OM	Other more dissatisfied than rater -- Externalized
0	+	OD	Other dissatisfied, rater satisfied -- Externalized
+	-	CD	Conflicted dissatisfaction

Definition of Dissatisfaction Pattern Index

Dissatisfaction Internalized/Externalized Pattern Index = DSIEP

DSIEP = 100 (RD + RM - OM - OD) / (RD + RM + BD + OM + OD)

Where + = internalized source for PH, PW types
husband should change more for PR types

\- = externalized source for PH, PW types
wife should change more for PR types

his view of the source of the greatest dissatisfaction with his behavior (DSIEP-HPH). If his own dissatisfaction is greater than his estimate of his wife's, then he is the one who feels he needs to change most and his dissatisfaction is internalized. However, if he feels his wife is more dissatisfied with him than he himself is, then he feels she is the one who is saying he needs to change so the dissatisfaction is externalized. All the types of dissatisfaction patterns in Table 11 have a similar meaning. The first three types of patterns measure the externalization of dissatisfaction with the husband's behavior as perceived by husband (DSIEP-HPH) and by wife (DSIEP-WPH), and as rated interpersonally (DSIEP-IPH). The next three types of patterns measure the externalization of dissatisfaction with the wife's behavior in a similar manner. The final three types of patterns determine who needs to change most in the relationship (e.g. the husband or the wife) according to interpersonal self-ratings (DSIEP-IPR) and according to the husband's view (DSIEP-HPR) and the wife's view (DSIEP-WPR).

Figure 10 is a spatial representation of six of the perceived types of dissatisfaction patterns which illustrates the basic process of pattern analysis. As shown the basic data are the viewpoints indicated by circles which can be analyzed by themselves. Comparisons indicated by squares are calculated by taking the differences between the viewpoints. The types of patterns indicated by the double arrows are derived from the differences between the comparisons.

Now it is time to answer the second question--how to measure these differences between comparisons. At first glance it would seem

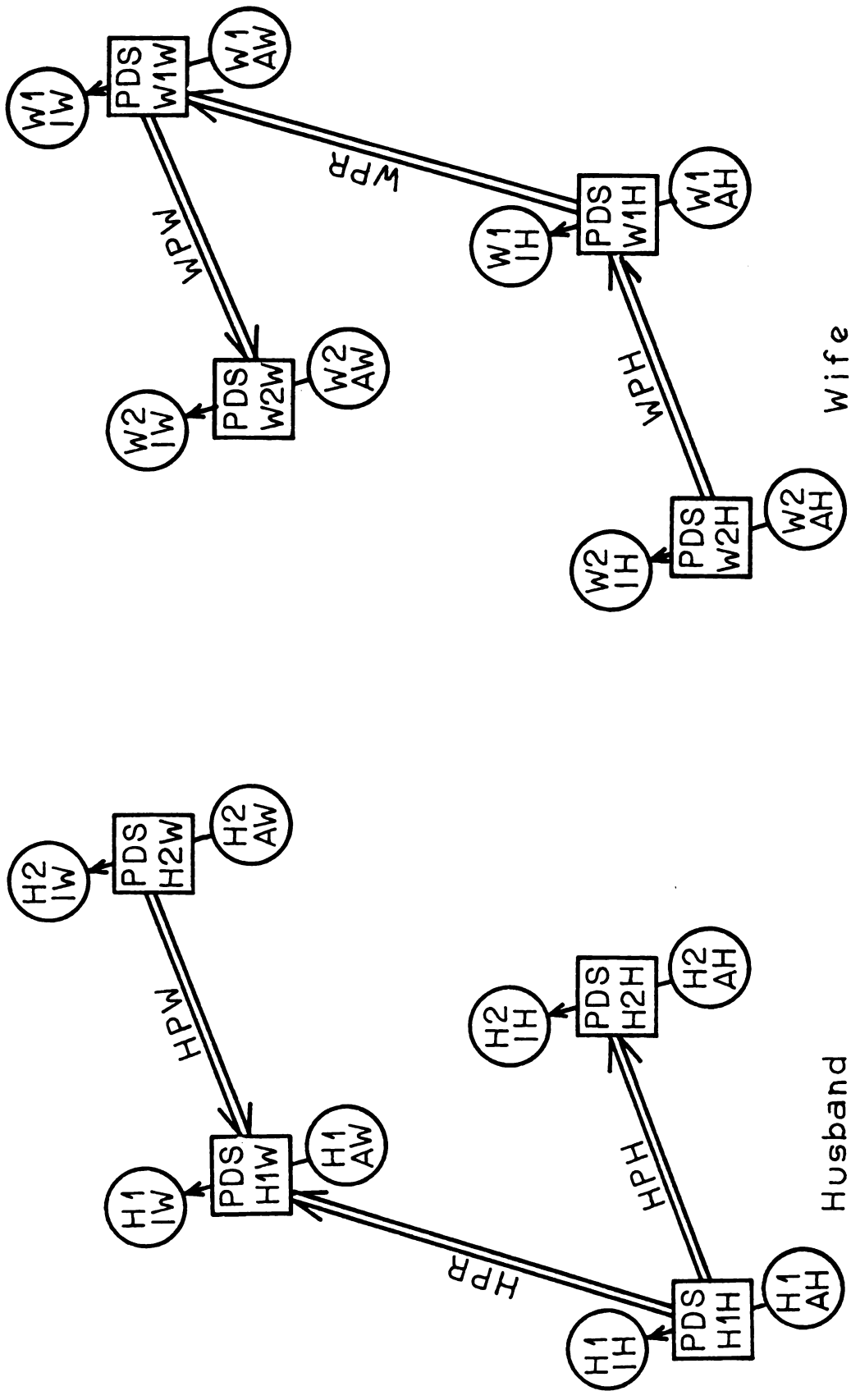

FIGURE 10. DISSATISFACTION PATTERNS

that the two comparisons could just be subtracted to determine which is the larger one as was done with the viewpoints. However, unlike the difference between viewpoints, the sign of the difference between comparisons has no consistent meaning. For example, if the husband's own dissatisfaction with himself (PDS-H1H) is -2 and his view of his wife's dissatisfaction with him (PDS-H2H) is -1, then the need to change is internalized and the difference between these comparisons is -1. However, if PDS-H1H were +1 and PDS-H2H were +2, then the need to change would be externalized but the difference would again be -1. The difference score cannot be used to distinguish between internal and external need to change.

One solution to this dilemma is to perform what will be called a pattern analysis. The computer first checks the two comparison scores (the rater's dissatisfaction and the other's dissatisfaction) to determine the pattern of their signs (i.e. both plus, one minus, both minus, etc.) and then it determines which of the comparisons is absolutely larger. The seven meaningful pattern categories which result from this analysis are listed in the bottom of Table 11. The computer determines the pattern category between the two comparisons for each issue scored and keeps a count of how many times each pattern category was discovered. The researcher must now interpret the meaning of each of these pattern categories. The first pattern category in Table 11 has been coded BS since it counts the number of issues on which both persons are satisfied. The second pattern category has been coded RD to indicate that the rater is dissatisfied but not the other person so the dissatisfaction is internalized on these issues. The coding and interpretation of the other pattern categories is shown in Table 11. Having interpreted each of these patterns categories, the next question for the SAPIR user is

how to combine them to create indices which measure the desired characteristics of the relationship. Many different indices are possible. The count of category BS, both satisfied, for example, is an index in itself of how much mutual satisfaction there is in the relationship. Similarly, the conflicted dissatisfaction category (CD) provides an index of contradictory direction for change--i.e. one person wants more of the behavior but the partner wants less of it. A third possible index would measure the degree of agreement between the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons according to the following formula:

DSAGR = 2 (BS+BD) + (RM+OM) -2 (RD+OD) - 3 (CD)

where BS,BD = both agree completely

RM,OM = both agree on direction but not extent

RD,OD = disagree on whether need to change

CD = grossly disagree even on direction of change

Though potentially useful, none of these three indices measures the externalization of dissatisfaction and none of them will be discussed in this dissertation. They were included simply to show how a number of different indices can be derived from the pattern category scores.

The dissatisfaction internalized/externalized pattern index (DSIEP) which was used in this study was defined as:

DSIEP = 100 (RD+RM-OM-OD) / (RD+RM+BD+OM+OD)

where RD, RM, BD, OM, OD are the pattern categories listed in Table 11 in which there is agreement on the direction but not necessarily the extent of change needed. This index subtracts the counts of externalized dissatisfaction (OM, OD) from the counts of internalized dissatisfaction (RM,RD) and then divides the difference by the total number of dissatisfied issues in which there was agreement on the direction but not the extent of change desired. This number is multiplied by 100 to make the

index range from +100 for completely internalized dissatisfaction to -100 for completely externalized dissatisfaction. An index score of zero indicates they are either both equally dissatisfied (BD) or the number of internalized issues is equivalent to the number of externalized issues.

This dissatisfaction internalized/externalized pattern index (DSIEP) provides a measure of whether the need to change is internalized or externalized for each of the nine pattern types listed in Table 11. The comparisons used as the rater comparison were chosen so that the plus value of the index would indicate that the husband wants to change his behavior more than the wife on the first three pattern types (HPH, IPH, WPH), that the wife wants to change her behavior more than the husband on the next three pattern types (HPW, IPW, WPW), and that the husband wants to change more than the wife on the last three pattern types (HPR, IPR, WPR). This DSIEP index, like all other pattern indices, can be calculated for both the Loving and Dominance scales and for the total number of issues rated.

The other three groups of pattern analyses will be developed in a similar manner. First a group of psychologically meaningful patterns will be identified, and then the specific types of patterns which make up the group will be defined by the comparisons involved and given a name and coded abbreviation. Next the pattern categories which result from an analysis of the sign and absolute value of each comparison will be established and interpreted. These categories will then be combined to yield an index which measures the desired characteristic of the pattern.

Consensus Patterns. The next group of patterns analyzes the differences between perceived disagreement (PDA) and interpersonal mis-

understanding (IMA) comparisons in order to determine the type of consensus in the marital relationship. The inspiration for these patterns comes from Scheff (1967) who pointed out that the nature of consensus in a group was determined not just by the members agreement on norms but also by their perceptions of each other's perceptions of agreement. He uses the first three orders of perspective--i.e. own, others, own reflection--to distinguish eight different patterns of consensus. Since the MPQ only measures one's own and the other's perspective, it can only distinguish four different types of consensus. If a couple really interpersonally agree on an issue and both understand that they agree, then they have a true consensus in their relationship, and they are likely to have a satisfying and adjusted relationship. However, if they really agree but they do not understand that they do (i.e. they expect the other to disagree), then they have a false dissensus in their relationship. Their relationship is likely to be conflicted even though it need not be. On the other hand, if the couple interpersonally disagree and both understand that they do, then they have a true dissensus. Their relationship is marked by disagreement and both are aware of this conflict. However, if the couple really disagree but neither realizes it (i.e. they expect the other to agree), then they have a false consensus. Until they are confronted with the reality of their disagreement, each is contentedly living in their own world which they think their mate shares. These types of consensus suggest very different types of marital relationships, and therefore are valuable information which can be obtained by a pattern analysis of the differences between perceived disagreement (PDA) and interpersonal misunderstanding (IMA) comparisons.

The eight specific types of consensus patterns are defined,

coded, and explained in Table 12. Each compares a person's perceived disagreement (PDA) with their own interpersonal misunderstanding (IMA) to obtain a measure of their understanding of the consensus patterns. For example, the first one is the husband's understanding of the consensus about his actual behavior which compares his view of his wife's disagreement with his ratings of himself (PDA-HAH) with how accurately he understood or predicted her responses (IMA-HAH). For each of these specific pattern types a set of seven pattern categories are possible as shown on the bottom of Table 12. The first, for example, is understanding of agreement, coded UA, which is defined by the husband expecting his wife to agree (PDA-HAH = 0) and by his being accurate in his understanding (IMA-HAH = 0). These pattern categories are determined by an analysis of the difference in direction and absolute extent between the two comparisons.

From these pattern categories it is possible to derive two different pattern indices. The first is the understanding of disagreement pattern index which is defined as:

UNDAP = 100 (UD+PD+ED) / (UD+PD+ED+MD+GD)

It is obtained by dividing the number of issues in which the person accurately understands (UD) or partially understands (PD if underestimates magnitude and ED if overestimates magnitude but correctly understands the direction) the interpersonal disagreement in the relationship by the total number of issues upon which they disagree. The total includes not only the issues in which they understand the disagreement (UD, PD, GD) but also the issues in which they misunderstand the disagreement by either failing to see it (MD) or by grossly distorting it (GD) so that they predict the opposite of what the other person really says (e.g. predicts mate will rate higher on issue when mate really rates

Table 12. Definition of Consensus Pattern Indices

Definition of Types of Consensus Pattern Indices

Type Code	Comparisons PDA	Comparisons IMA	Definition of Type
HAH	HAH	HAH	Husband's understanding of actual husband ratings
WAH	WAH	WAH	Wife's understanding of actual husband ratings
HAW	HAW	HAW	Husband's understanding of actual wife ratings
WAW	WAW	WAW	Wife's understanding of actual wife ratings
HIH	HIH	HIH	Husband's understanding of ideal husband ratings
WIH	WIH	WIH	Wife's understanding of ideal husband ratings
HIW	HIW	HIW	Husband's understanding of ideal wife ratings
WIW	WIW	WIW	Wife's understanding of ideal wife ratings

Meaning of Categories of Comparison Patterns Used to Determine Indices

Comparisons Sign & Extent PDA	Comparisons Sign & Extent IDA	Pattern Category Code	Meaning of Pattern
0	0	UA	Accurately understand that they agree
+	0	UD	Accurately understand that they disagree
++	+	ED	Exaggerate extent of disagreement
+	+	MA	Expect disagreement when really agree
+	++	GD	Misunderstand direction of disagreement
0	+	MD	Expect agreement when really disagree
+	-	PD	Underestimate extent of disagreement

Definition of Pattern Indices

Understanding of Disagreement Pattern Index = UNDAP = % disagreement understood

$$UNDAP = 100\ (UD + PD + ED) \ /\ (UD + PD + ED + MD + GD)$$

Where: + = aware of disagreement or true dissensus
- = unaware of disagreement or false consensus

Understanding of Agreement Pattern Index = UNAGP = % agreements understood

$$UNAGP = 100\ (UA) \ /\ (UA + MA)$$

Where: + = aware of agreement or true consensus
- = unaware of agreement or false dissensus

lower). Multiplying by 100 converts this number into an index of the percentage of disagreements understood. The high value of +100 means that the person understands how their partner stands on every issue of disagreement, while the low value of 0 indicates that the person never understands their partner's view on issues of disagreement. In essense a high value indicates true dissensus or an awareness of conflict while a low value indicates false consensus or a masking of conflict.

The other two patterns of consensus are measured by the second index called the understanding of agreement pattern index which is defined as:

UNAGP = 100 (UA) / (UA+MA)

It is obtained by dividing the number of issues in which agreement is understood (UA) by the total number of issues on which interpersonal agreement occured, and then multiplying the result by 100. The result is the percentage of agreed upon issues which were correctly understood by the person. A high score of +100 indicates perfect understanding of all agreement or true consensus, while a low score of 0 indicates perfect misunderstanding of all agreement or false dissensus. In this last case the person is expecting conflict which really doesn't exist. Used together, the understanding of disagreement (UNDAP) and the understanding of agreement (UNAGP) pattern indices enable the researcher to determine the type of consensus pattern characterizing a couple's relationship.

Favorability Patterns. The next general group of pattern analyses is called the favorability patterns since they measure how favorably a person expects their partner rates in comparison to them. There are four specific types defined in Table 13--the husband's per-

Table 13. Definition of Favorability Pattern Indices

Definition of Types of Favorability Pattern Indices

Type Code	Comparisons PDS	PDA	Definition of Type
HPH	H1H	HAH	Husband's perception of how favorably wife rates him
WPH	W1H	WAH	Wife's perception of how favorably husband rates himself
HPW	H1W	HAW	Husband's perception of how favorably wife rates herself
WPW	W1W	WAW	Wife's perception of how favorably husband rates her

Meaning of Categories of Comparison Patterns Used to Determine Indices

Comparison Sign PDS	PDA	Pattern Category Code	Meaning of Pattern
0	0	SA	Satisfied and expect mate to agree, rate same
+	0	DA	Dissatisfied and expect mate to agree, rate same
+	+	DF	Dissatisfied but expect mate to rate more favorably
0	+	SD	Satisfied and expect mate to disagree, rate different
+	-	DU	Dissatisfied and expect mate to rate more unfavorably

Definition of Favorability Pattern Index

Favorably Satisfied Pattern Index = FASTP

$$FASTP = 100 (SA - SD) / (SA + SD)$$

Where: + = expect mate to agree in areas of satisfaction
- = expect mate to disagree in areas of satisfaction

Favorably Dissatisfied Pattern Index = FADSP

$$FADSP = 100 (DF - DU) / (DF + DA + DU)$$

Where: + = expect mate to rate favorably
- = expect mate to rate unfavorably

ception of how favorably his wife rates himself (HPH) and herself (HPW) and the wife's perception of how favorably her husband rates himself (WPH) and herself (WPW). Each involves a comparison of one's own perceived dissatisfaction (PDS) with one's perceived disagreement (PDA). For example, the husband's perception of how favorably his wife rates him (FAVP-HPH) is obtained by comparing his own dissatisfaction with himself (PDS-HlH) with his view of his wife's disagreement over his actual performance ratings (PDA-HAH). For this group, only the pattern of comparison signs are analyzed, so only the five pattern categories listed in Table 13 are determined. Two different favorability indices can be derived from these pattern categories.

The first is called the favorably satisfied pattern index (FASTP) and is calculated according to the following formula:

FASTP = 100 (SA-SD) / (SA+SD)

The SA stands for satisfied agreement which means the person is satisfied with their performance on the issue and expects their mate to agree with their performance rating. While this is a favorable state of affairs, the other category, satisfied disagreement or SD, is an unfavorable one. Here the person is satisfied with their performance but expects the mate to disagree and rate their performance differently. Added together these categories equal the total number of issues on which the person is satisfied. So by subtracting the number of satisfied disagreement issues from the number of satisfied agreement issues and dividing by the total number of satisfied issues, a measure is obtained which indicates whether the mate is perceived as rating favorably or unfavorably in areas of satisfaction. Multiplying this number by 100 makes the scale range from +100 (indicates very favorable ratings--mate agrees with all of one's satisfied performance) to -100 (indicates

very unfavorable ratings--mate disagrees with one's satisfied performance ratings on every issue).

A favorably dissatisfied pattern index (FADSP) measures the favorability of the mate's ratings on issues where there is dissatisfaction. If a person is dissatisfied, the sign of the perceived dissatisfaction (PDS) comparison indicates the direction they need to go in order to reach their ideal expectation. Now if they expect their mate to rate their performance the same, then the perceived disagreement (PDA) comparison will be zero. This is pattern category DA in Table 13 which stands for dissatisfied agreement which is neither favorable or unfavorable. However, if the person expects disagreement in the performance ratings and the sign of this disagreement is the same as the sign of the perceived dissatisfaction comparison, then the partner has rated the performance more favorably (i.e. closer to ideal expectations) than the person themselves did. This pattern category will be called dissatisfied favorability and coded DF. If the sign of the perceived disagreement (PDA) is the opposite of the sign of the perceived dissatisfaction (PDS), then the person expects the mate to rate more unfavorably, and hence this category is called dissatisfied unfavorability and coded DU. The favorably dissatisfied pattern index, FADSP, takes the difference between the dissatisfied favorability and dissatisfied unfavorability categories and divides them by the total number of dissatisfied issues and then multiplies this number by 100 to give the index a more convenient range. The formula for this procedure is:

$$FADSP = 100\ (DF-DU) \ /\ (DF+DA+DU)$$

Like the satisfied favorability index, this index ranges from +100 (which

means that all ratings by the mate are perceived as more favorable than one's own) to -100 (which means that all ratings by the mate are more unfavorable than one's own). A score of zero means that the partner is expected to rate just the same as oneself, neither more nor less favorably.

Both favorability indices (FASTP, FADSP) measure the same thing, but they do it in different areas. The favorably satisfied index (FASTP) does it on issues where the person is satisfied, while the favorably dissatisfied index does it on issues where there is dissatisfaction.

Complementary Need Patterns. The fourth and final group of pattern analyses to be discussed in this paper is the complementary need patterns. Ever since Winch (1958) formulated his complementary need hypothesis, it has generated controversy. One aspect of this hypothesis can be tested using the SAPIR approach to see if in areas of dissatisfaction, a person chooses a partner who is more like one's ideal than oneself. This is one of the simplest patterns to test for on the MPQ because it only involves three pattern categories as Table 14 shows. The basic comparison for this pattern is the perceived dissatisfaction (PDS) comparison again, but this time it will be compared to the perceived role differentiation (PRD) comparison on those issues in which dissatisfaction exists. If these two comparisons have the same sign, this means that the partner is rated closer to one's own ideal than one's self. This category will be called dissatisfied complementarity and coded DC since it supports the complementary need hypothesis. However, if the perceived role differentiation comparison has the opposite sign, this means the mate is less like one's ideal than oneself which is contrary to the complementary need hypothesis, so this pattern

Table 14. Definition of Complementary Need Pattern Indices

Definition of Types of Complementary Need Patterns

Type Code	Comparisons PDS	Comparisons PRD	Definition of Type
HWM	H1H	H1A	How husband sees wife as model for him
WWM	W1H	W1A	How wife sees herself as model for husband
HHM	H1W	H1A	How husband sees himself as model for wife
WHM	W1W	W1A	How wife sees husband as model for her

Meaning of Categories of Comparison Patterns Used to Determine Index

Comparison Sign PDS	Comparison Sign PRD	Pattern Category Code	Meaning of Pattern
0	0	SS	Satisfied and see mate as similar
+	0	DS	Dissatisfied and see mate as similar
+	+	DC	Dissatisfied and see mate as more like ideal than self (complementary need)
0	+	SD	Satisfied and see mate as different
+	-	DN	Dissatisfied and see mate as less like ideal than self (non-complementary need)

Definition of Complementary Need Pattern Index

$$COMNP = 100 \ (DC - DN) \ / \ (DC + DS + DN)$$

\+ = complementary need, want to be more like mate who models ideal qualities

\- = noncomplementary need, want to be less like mate who does not model ideal qualities

category will be coded DN which stands for dissatisfied noncomplementarity. If one's mate is perceived as similar to oneself (i.e. PRD = 0), then the mate is neither complementary or noncomplementary so this pattern category will be coded DS which stands for dissatisfied similarity.

The complementary need pattern index (COMNP) takes the difference between the number of complementary issues and the number of noncomplementary issues and divides it by the total number of dissatisfied issues and then multiplies the result by 100 as the following formula shows:

$$COMNP = 100\ (DC-DN) / (DC+DS+DN)$$

The high score of +100 would indicate that the mate is closer to ideal than self on all the issues analyzed, while the low score of -100 indicates that oneself is perceived closer to ideal than one's mate on every issue analyzed. Thus positive scores indicate support for the complementary need hypothesis while negative scores contradict it.

Traditionally, complementarity is only analyzed with respect to self. Two of the specific types of complementary patterns listed in Table 14 measure these patterns--how the husband sees the wife as a model for oneself (HWM) and how the wife sees the husband as a model for herself (WHM). Two other specific patterns are possible as shown in Table 14--how the husband sees himself as a model for his wife (HHM) and how the wife sees herself as a model for her husband (WWM). Though it was originally included in the MPQ analyses routines only because it is a simple way of checking on an old and controversial hypothesis, the specific complementary need pattern indices yield useful information about a couple's relationship, specifically how much they see themselves

and each other as models of the ideal mate.

This concludes the definition and explanation of the four general groups of patterns on the MPQ--the dissatisfaction patterns, the consensus patterns, the favorability patterns, and now the complementary need patterns. These four general groups subsume 25 different types of specific patterns which are listed and explained in Tables 11-14. By analyzing the pattern of differences between comparisons the SAPIR approach extracts additional information about the couple which is not included in the viewpoint and comparison analyses. To do this it has been necessary to develop a new method of analysis--a pattern analysis of the differences in signs and absolute values of two comparisons. This procedure is more difficult to explain and too tedious to calculate without the help of a large computer, but given access to a computer this type of scoring becomes feasible and worthwhile as the results of this study will show.

Summary of the Approach

Now that the SAPIR approach has been fully described, it seems important to summarize its major aspects before moving into the evaluation of it. The SAPIR approach seeks to understand the nature of a couple's relationship by systematically analyzing their perceptions of each other. It builds on Newcomb's (1953) basic co-orientation model by more finely differentiating the components of their perceptions. These components include the persons perceiving, the persons perceived, the issues they are focused on, the context of these issues, the reference standards, the perspective, and the level of observation. By allowing these components to vary, an increasingly complex perceptual field is created consisting of many viewpoints each one of which represents a combination of particular component values. Based on an interest in particular viewpoints or in the variations between certain viewpoints, the SAPIR user selectively samples a limited number of viewpoints on each issue in a series of issues chosen for their relevance to the couples relationship. The Marital Perceptions Questionnaire (MPQ) used in this study to evaluate the SAPIR approach asks each partner to rate on a five-point scale eight different viewpoints of 63 issues chosen to represent a circumplex structure around Loving and Dominance factors. By this procedure, a rather comprehensive sampling of the couple's perceptions of their relationship is obtained (1,008 data points on the MPQ).

The SAPIR approach next analyzes the data in this perceptual field by three different methods in order to extract as much information as possible about the couple. The first method focuses on the couple's perceptions themselves and summarizes them viewpoint by viewpoint on

both the Loving and Dominance scales. From this information, one can learn how loving and dominating they perceive themselves both actually and ideally. The second method compares the differences between the viewpoints in order to derive measures of the role differentiation, dissatisfaction, agreement, and understanding in the relationship. By using a five-point scale, the MPQ is able to not only count the number of issues upon which differences occur but also to measure the direction and extent of those differences. Finally the third method analyzes the pattern of differences between the comparisons in order to measure the externalization of dissatisfaction, the type of consensus, the perceived favorability of one's mates ratings, and the existence of complementary need fulfillment. Though a systematic coding schema and spatial representations make it easier to conceptualize this scoring process, it remains a complex undertaking. The MPQ, for example, begins with 1,008 individual viewpoint ratings and then calculates an additional 2,268 individual comparison scores. From these issue scores, 32 viewpoint summary scores, 288 comparison summary scores, and 123 pattern summary scores are calculated. Clearly this type of scoring was not feasible before the advent of modern high speed computers but with one the complete MPQ scoring can be accomplished with a short program (less than 200 cards) that takes only seconds to perform.

The SAPIR approach which has just been presented was designed to be a more systematic, comprehensive, and sophisticated assessment procedure than others which have been developed so far. It is a flexible approach which can be adapted to a researcher's particular interests. Though it has been incorporated in a Marital Perceptions Questionnaire (MPQ) for evaluation purposes, it is not dependent on this particular instrument. Rather it is the underlying philosophy and theory upon

which a large number of different tests could be built. If it proves as useful as it seems it could be, then a wide variety of applications seem feasible.

EVALUATION OF THE SAPIR APPROACH

Hypotheses

In the first half of this paper the theoretical basis of the SAPIR approach was developed and incorporated into the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire (MPQ). Now in the last half of this paper the validity of this approach will be experimentally evaluated. The SAPIR approach was designed to assess the nature of a couple's relationship by analyzing their patterns of interpersonal perceptions. To evaluate this approach a measure of the couple's relationship will be correlated with the MPQ's measures to see if they change in the hypothesized way as the relationship changes. There are many different aspects of a couple's relationship which could be measured as Burr (1973) has pointed out--stability, satisfaction, functionality, adjustment, integration, personal development, etc. In this early phase of the SAPIR approach's evaluation, it seemed desirable to use a conveniently obtained but empirically validated measure. If the MPQ measures correlated significantly and as expected against this measure then there would be justification for investing more effort into more demanding tests. The most easily obtained measures of a couple's relationship are their self reports elicited by questionnaires.

After reviewing several questionnaires which have been used to investigate marital relationships, the Dyadic Adjustment Scale developed by Spanier (1976) was chosen as the independent

variable for the following reasons. It has been carefully constructed following basic psychometric principles. Its internal consistency was high. Its items have been factor analyzed so that what it is measuring is known to be the couple's perceptions of their consensus, cohesion, satisfaction, and affective expression. Thus it is providing a global measure of the quality of a couple's relationship. This measure has been shown to have both construct validity as evidenced by its correlation with the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test and criterion-related validity established by its ability to distinguish between intact and divorced couples. Normative data is provided for the scale. Since it is closely related to the Locke-Wallace which has been the most frequently used instrument in studies of this sort, it would be easier to compare the results from the study to previous research. Finally it is a short test which was desirable given the length of the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire.

The question now becomes how will the couple's perceptions of each other as measured by the MPQ vary with changes in their marital adjustment. At the most general level it can be safely assumed that as the couple becomes more maladjusted and unhappy, they will tend to perceive both themselves and their spouse more negatively or unfavorably. The problem is that the MPQ provides 443 measures of the couple's perceptions. To hypothesize what would be unfavorable for each of these measures individually would be tedious. Fortunately the measures are interrelated and can be combined into groups of variables which should vary in a similar way. So the specific hypotheses of this study will be set forth according to the order which was used in the theoretical develop-

ment--first viewpoint hypotheses, then comparison hypotheses, and finally pattern hypotheses.

Viewpoint Hypotheses

At the viewpoint level, the MPQ measures how the couple actually rated themselves on the Loving and Dominance scales on each of 16 viewpoints. These viewpoints can be treated as two groups in the data analyses--the actual viewpoints of their present relationship and the ideal viewpoints of their desired relationship. Thus the 32 viewpoint measures can be discussed as four groups--the actual loving ratings, the ideal loving ratings, the actual dominance ratings, and the ideal dominance ratings.

Actual Loving Viewpoints. Given the importance of love in marriage, it can easily be assumed that couples who are well-adjusted are likely to perceive themselves as more loving than couples who report they are maladjusted. Previous research studies have consistently verified this. Lucky (1964), Katz (1965), Kottar (1965), Bean and Kerckhoff (1971), Ineichen (1975), and Fineberg and Lowman (1975) have all found that as marital maladjustment or dissatisfaction increases, the couples perceive themselves as more hostile to each other. Thus, the first hypothesis of this study is:

Hypothesis 1. Loving scale scores on the actual performance viewpoints will be positively correlated with Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Ideal Loving Viewpoints. Though it makes sense that couples are more hostile in maladjusted marriages, it does not necessarily follow that they ideally want hostile relationships. It seems more likely that they desire a loving relationship just as much as the

adjusted couples do. If this is the case, then ratings of ideal loving should not vary with marital adjustment. Murstein (1971) found that the ideal self-concepts of high and low acceptance married couples were not significantly different from each other. However, self-acceptance is not equivalent to marital adjustment, and the author was unable to find experimental evidence on the correlations with marital adjustment because ideal perceptions have not been studied very often, and the few researchers who elicited them (Ort, 1950; Eastman, 1968; Luckey, 1960b; VanDerVeen, Huebner, Jorgens & Neja, 1964; Kotlar, 1965; Foa, 1966; Hawkins & Johnson, 1969; and Murstein & Beck, 1972) were not interested in them per se and so did not report them. Like Laing, they skipped over this level of analysis and instead analyzed their data at the comparison level. There is evidence of general cultural expectations of loving, socially desirable behavior in marriage (Edmonds, 1967 and Murstein & Beck, 1972); and so on the basis of these findings, it will be hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2. Loving scale scores on the ideal expectations viewpoints will not be correlated with Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Actual Dominance Viewpoints. Hypotheses about Dominance scale scores are more difficult to make because the previous research findings are contradictory. Fineberg and Lowman (1975) found that adjusted couples were more submissive than maladjusted couples, but Kotlar (1965) and Katz (1965) found the opposite, i.e. adjusted couples were more dominant and potent. Ineichen (1975) found no differences on a dominance scale. Part of this inconsistency may be because dominance is a more difficult concept to define than love. Theoretically it should be independent of the Loving dimension, but in reality it is hard to write dominance items which do not have either a positive or a

negative connotation. The Dominance scale on the MPQ, for example, tends to measure a hostile, coercive type of dominance as evidenced by scale items such as give orders, expect my way, unwilling to give in, assert forcefully, and feel more competent. On this type of scale, one would expect ratings of actual dominance to increase as marital maladjustment increases. However, it is possible to construct a more loving, facilitative type of dominance scale using items like provides for, protects, constructively corrects, gives guidance, watches out for which would probably produce the opposite result, i.e. as marital maladjustment increases, this type of dominance would decrease. Thus the contradictory research findings can be attributed to differences in how positively or negatively weighted the dominance scales were. Given the coercive, uncooperative quality of the MPQ's Dominance scale, it seems reasonable to expect:

Hypothesis 3. Dominance scale scores on the actual performance viewpoints will be negatively correlated with Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Ideal Dominance Viewpoints. Though a hostile coercive type of dominance is likely to replace a friendly cooperative type of submissiveness as marital maladjustment increases, there is no reason to expect that this is the type of relationship that the couple ideally desires. It seems more likely that both adjusted and maladjusted couples would prefer a more cooperative submissiveness. Just as with the Loving scale, there is no experimental support for this hypothesis since ideal expectations on this dimension have not been investigated or reported on in previous research. So using the same reasoning as in the ideal Loving section, it will be hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4. Dominance scale scores on the ideal expectation

viewpoints will not be correlated with Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

In summary, couples are expected to actually rate themselves less loving and more dominating as their marital maladjustment increases, but no change in their ideal expectations for loving or dominance is expected.

Comparison Hypotheses

The MPQ comparison scores are derived from the differences between the viewpoints. The basic assumption made at the beginning of this section, that as marital maladjustment increases the couples will perceive each other more negatively, becomes at this level an assumption that as maladjustment increases, the differences between viewpoints will become greater. Why this is so will be discussed within each of the comparison groups--perceived role differentiation (PRD), perceived dissatisfaction (PDS), perceived disagreement (PDA), interpersonal disagreement (IDA), and interpersonal misunderstanding (IMA). Fortunately, much more research has been done at this level which makes it easier to support the hypotheses developed. At least it will be easier at the actual level; the neglect of ideal expectations still remains a problem even at this level of analysis.

The major difficulty in discussing the comparisons is that there are more of them than there were viewpoints (36 to 16) and more scores on each (8 to 2). Besides a direction difference score (DD) for both the Loving and Dominance scales, there is a number of differences (ND) and a square root of the average squared difference score (SRASD) for the Loving scale, Dominance scale, and overall questionnaire. These last scores mainly measure the extent of the difference irrespective of the direction of the difference, and this distinction will be used to

group the comparison scores in the following sections.

Perceived Role Differentiation (PRD). The perceived role differentiation comparisons measure a person's perception of how similar or dissimilar they are from their spouse. The MPQ calculates both the extent of the difference and the direction of the difference and thus provides answers to two different questions. How much different are the husband and wife? Who is the one who is more loving or more dominant? A separate set of hypotheses is needed for each of these questions. The discussion will start with the first question--how different are the husband and the wife.

The MPQ provides two different measures of the extent of the dissimilarity in a marriage. The first is the number of differences score (ND) obtained by counting the number of issues on which a person perceives a difference between themselves and their spouse. As discussed in the theoretical section, this is an easy measure to calculate and hence has been the one most used in previous research. The second measure, the square root of the average squared difference score, (SRASD) is more difficult to calculate but more mathematically meaningful since it measures not only the number of issues on which differences exist but also the size of those differences (Cronbach & Gleser, 1953). One of the interesting side questions which this study will begin to answer is whether there are any differences in how these measures change with marital maladjustment. At the present time the author knows of no research on this question, and since they both measure roughly the same characteristic, both will be grouped together in terms of the hypotheses now to be developed.

The question is do couples perceive each other as more or less similar as their marital adjustment improves. All the research

so far indicates rather convincingly that the answer is that well-adjusted couples perceive each other as similar in contrast to poorly-adjusted couples who perceive each other as different (Byrne & Blaylock, 1963; Corsini, 1956; Dymond, 1954; Hurley & Silvert, 1966; Karp, Jackson, & Lester, 1970; Kelly, 1941; Kotlar, 1965; Murstein & Beck, 1972; Pickford, Signori & Rempel, 1966a & 1966b; Preston, Peltz, Mudd & Froscher, 1952; Stuckert, 1963; and Wallin & Clark, 1968). These findings are consistent with clinical experience (e.g. divorcing couples often cite their "differences" as the reason for their decision) and clinical theory. Satir (1967) assumes that the inability to deal with differences is a major source of marital and family dysfunctioning, and Bowen (1960) observes that disturbed families are often characterized by rigidly maintained role polarization with one spouse being "overadequate" and the other one being "inadequate."

This positive correlation between perceived similarity and marital adjustment has been found not only on measures of loving and dominance (Kotlar, 1965) but also on measures of temperament (Pickford et al., 1966a), political attitudes (Byrne & Blaylock, 1963), and preferred frequency of coitus (Wallin & Clark, 1958). So it is reasonable to assume that this relationship would be found on all MPQ scales--Loving, Dominance, and Overall. Since all but a few of the studies cited have only dealt with perceptions of how couples actually differ, this relationship will only be postulated for the actual perceived role differentiation comparisons. There is some evidence in Wallin and Clark's (1958) and Murstein and Beck's (1972) studies that well adjusted couples also perceive each other as more similar in ideals than do less adjusted couples, and this is also expected from clinical experience (Sager, 1976). However, Murstein and Beck only found

this effect in the wives' perceptions. So in order to be conservative and consistent with other hypotheses in the study, the null hypothesis that ideal perceived role differentiations are not correlated with Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores will be assumed. Stated formally, the two hypotheses developed in this paragraph are:

Hypothesis 5. The extent of the couple's actual perceived role differentiation scores on all scales will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Hypothesis 6. The extent of the couple's ideal perceived role differentiation scores on all scales will not be correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Having hypothesized that role differences between the husband and wife will increase with marital maladjustment, the next question becomes which partner is becoming the more loving or more dominating one. This question can only be answered by the direction of difference scores (DD) on the Loving and Dominance scales. Previous research in the area of marital perceptions reveals that males tend to be perceived as the more dominant partner while the females tend to be seen as the more loving partner in the typical marriage (Bean & Kerckhoff, 1961 and Pickford, Signori, & Rempel, 1966b). However, there is very little research on how this role relationship changes with changes in marital adjustment. Fineberg and Lowman (1975) report that the wives tended to become more dominating in the maladjusted relationships they studied which suggested a reversal of the traditional role relationship. However, Pickford et al. (1966b) found that in their troubled couples the traditional pattern became exaggerated with males becoming more ascendant and females more passive and submissive. The easiest way to

resolve this apparent contradiction is to assume that both patterns--husband becoming increasingly dominating and wife becoming increasingly dominating--are possible and the relative proportion of each varies depending on the population sampled. This assumption seems plausible since almost everyone has seen both types of relationships among their families and friends. This makes changes in the direction of role differentiation a function of the population sampled rather than an inherent characteristic of marital maladjustment. Not knowing which pattern is likely to predominate in this study, it is safest to assume that both types will occur. If they are in approximately the same proportion, the direction of differences should cancel out (i.e. a dominant husband in one disturbed marriage is balanced by a dominant wife in another). As a result the most conservative hypothesis for this set of MPQ comparison measures is the null hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7. The direction of the couple's perceived role differentiation on both the Loving and Dominance scales will not be correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Perceived Dissatisfaction (PDS). In contrast to perceived role differentiation, hypotheses about the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons are relatively easy to develop. Dissatisfaction is defined on the MPQ as the difference between a person's actual performance rating of themselves or their partner and their ideal expectations for this person. Troubled couples characteristically complain about how their marriage is failing to live up to their expectations for it, and research findings consistently substantiate their reports. Dyadic dissatisfaction is one of the major factors of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale itself (Spanier, 1976). Studies by Ort (1950), Eastman (1958), Luckey (1960b), VanDerVeen, Huebner, Jorgens, and Neja (1964), Kotlar (1965),

Hawkins and Johnsen (1969) and Murstein and Beck (1972) have all found that the extent perceived dissatisfaction is significantly negatively correlated with marital adjustment. In fact the correlations between these measures are some of the highest reported in all the studies reviewed for this dissertation. Ort reports a correlation coefficient of $\underline{r}$ - =.83 and Hawkins and Johnsen report one of $\underline{r}$ = -.84. Half of these studies only investigated dissatisfaction with oneself in a manner analogous to Roger's studies of self acceptance. The others also investigated dissatisfaction with the spouse and consistently found it to correlate even more highly with marital adjustment than dissatisfaction with self (Eastman, 1958; Kotlar, 1965; Hawkins and Johnsen, 1969; and Murstein and Beck, 1972). Though none of the studies investigated all 8 of the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons calculated on the MPQ, the strength and direction of the results in these earlier studies makes it reasonable to assume the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8. The extent of the couples perceived dissatisfaction scores on all scales will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Just as it was in the perceived role differentiation comparison, the extent of perceived dissatisfaction is measured by number of differences and square root of the averaged squared difference scores. It is also possible to develop a hypothesis about the direction of difference scores for the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons. Since it has already been assumed that all couples tend to ideally desire a loving and mutually submissive relationship and that maladjusted couples will fall farther below this ideal than adjusted couples, then it follows that as marital maladjustment increases, the couple would want to be-

come more loving and less dominating. So the direction of perceived dissatisfaction scores would reflect this trend, and it can be hypothesized:

Hypothesis 9. The couples direction of perceived dissatisfaction scores on the Loving scale will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Hypothesis 10. The couples direction of perceived dissatisfaction scores on the Dominance scale will be positively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Perceived and Interpersonal Disagreement (PDA + IDA). Disagreement like dissatisfaction is another commonly assumed characteristic of troubled marriages. The MPQ measures two related types of disagreement--perceived disagreement (PDA) which is the person's prediction of how much their spouse will disagree with them and interpersonal disagreement (IDA) which is the real difference between their ratings. Since both groups of comparisons are measuring disagreement they will be discussed together. These comparisons along with the interpersonal misunderstanding comparisons to be discussed in the next section are the major focus of the recent investigators in this field (Alperson, 1975a; Laing, Phillipson, and Lee, 1966; Drewery, 1969), so more research findings are available on them. Again however, almost all of the studies have only explored the extent of actual disagreements so the discussion will begin with them.

Both common sense and clinical experience suggest that maladjusted marriages will be characterized by more severe disagreements than well adjusted marriages. The research findings substantiate this assumption. Support for the proposition that interpersonal disagreements increase with maladjustment can be found in studies done by Kelly (1941), Kirkpatrick and Hobart (1954), Luckey (1960a and 1960b), VanDerVeen,

Huebner, Jorgens and Neja (1964), Kotlar (1965), Laing, Phillipson, and Lee (1966), Levinger and Breedlove (1966), Taylor (1967), Rae and Drewery (1972), Murstein and Beck (1972), and Ferreira and Winters (1974). Only one study by Hobart and Klausner (1959) has not found a significant relationship between interpersonal disagreement and marital adjustment, but several (Kotlar, 1965; Luckey 1960a) found significant correlations on only part of their measures, and overall the correlations are much lower than the correlations were for the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons (usually only about .2 or .3). Interestingly, the correlations have usually been more significant for disagreements over the husband's behavior than over the wife's (Kelly, 1941; Luckey, 1960a; Kotlar, 1965; Taylor, 1967; Rae and Drewery, 1972; and Murstein & Beck, 1972). So despite the fact that the strength of the findings are weak in some studies, the large number of studies finding that interpersonal disagreements increase in troubled marriages provides good support for the next hypothesis:

Hypothesis 11. The extent of the couple's actual interpersonal disagreements on all MPQ scales will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

There have been fewer studies investigating the relationship between perceived disagreement and marital adjustment probably because it requires a more extensive sampling of viewpoints, but these studies (Taylor, 1967; Kirkpatrick and Hobart, 1954; Ferreira, 1963; Hawkins and Johnsen, 1969; Levinger and Breedlove, 1966; and Rae and Drewery, 1972) have found as expected that perceptions of disagreement increase as marital maladjustment increases. Further substantiation of this hypothesis can be found in the Dyadic Adjustment Scale itself which

uses the person's perceptions of the extent of disagreement with their spouse on 15 different issues to calculate the adjustment score. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 12. The extent of the couple's actual perceived disagreements on all MPQ scales will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

The only study to investigate ideal disagreements so far has been Murstein and Beck's (1972) investigation which did find that ideal interpersonal disagreements were moderately correlated with marital adjustment. But having already assumed that generalized cultural expectations make variations in ideal expectations less than variations in actual performance, the null hypothesis will again be postulated to maintain a consistency in the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 13. The extent and direction of the couple's ideal perceived and interpersonal disagreement scores on all MPQ scales will not be correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

The author found no previous research concerning the relationship between the direction of actual disagreements and marital adjustment. However, a simple and plausible assumption about these relationships can be derived from the basic assumption underlying all the hypotheses in this study, i.e. that as marital maladjustment increases the couples will perceive each other more negatively or unfavorably. To perceive a person more unfavorably on the MPQ means to rate them less loving and more dominating than they rate themselves. It follows from this assumption that if the husband expects his wife to disagree with his ratings, then he is likely to expect her to disagree by rating him less favorably than he himself does

while rating herself more favorably than he does. This pattern of "depreciating spouse, enhancing self" is also likely to characterize the wife's predictions of disagreement. A simple relationship between the direction of disagreement and marital adjustment can be based upon the assumption that as marital maladjustment increases the destructive pattern of depreciating spouse while enhancing oneself increases. It is not difficult to convince marriage counselors who work first hand with troubled marriages of the plausibility of this assumption. It captures much of the vicious destructiveness and externalization of blame which characterizes marital strife. Though this pattern is discussed as an accepted fact in books on marital theory (Burr, 1973), there is no direct experimental verification of it that the author could find in his literature search. However, there is indirect support for it in the studies which have found that dissatisfaction with one's spouse is usually greater than dissatisfaction with oneself (Eastman, 1958; Kotlar, 1965; Hawkins and Johnsen, 1969; and Murstein and Beck, 1972). So by assuming that attacking the spouse and defending oneself becomes more intense as the marital adjustment decreases, the following hypotheses about the direction of disagreements can be made:

Hypothesis 14. The tendency for a person to actually rate themselves more loving and less dominating on the direction of interpersonal disagreement (IDA) scores will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Hypothesis 15. The tendency for a couple to actually rate their spouse less loving and more dominating while rating themselves as more loving and less dominating on the direction of perceived disagreement (PDA) scores will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic

Adjustment Scale scores.

Interpersonal Misunderstanding (IMA). The last group of comparisons to be discussed is the interpersonal misunderstanding comparisons which measure how accurately a person is able to predict his/her spouse's ratings. In a period which emphasizes the importance of communicating and understanding each other, it is understandable that this comparison is receiving considerable attention (Alperson, 1975a; Laing, Phillipson, and Lee, 1966). Laing considers it a key concept in working with married couples and hypothesizes that troubled marriages are characterized by a greater extent of misunderstanding. This hypothesis has been fairly extensively investigated (Dymond, 1954; Kirkpatrick and Hobart, 1954; Corsini, 1956; Hobart and Klausner, 1959; Stuckert, 1963; Ferreira, 1964; Laing, Phillipson and Lee, 1966; Taylor, 1967; Rae and Drewery, 1972; Murstein and Beck, 1972; Calonico and Thomas, 1973), but in contrast to previous comparisons the results have been very mixed. The studies by Dymond, Kirkpatrick and Hobart, and Laing et al. are the only ones to report significant support for the hypothesis on almost all measures. More often the studies have only found significance when the husband is the target of the predictions (Corsini, 1956; Stuckert, 1963; Taylor, 1967; and Murstein and Beck, 1972) or on some of the issues (Hobart and Klausner, 1959). The only study which found no significant relationship was Rae and Drewery's, but it differed from the rest because it was not calculating differences between the viewpoints themselves but rather the difference between correlation coefficients. As Cronbach and Gleser (1953) have pointed out correlating two viewpoints eliminates differences in means and variances which are important contributors to the difference between profiles and therefore minimizes the dif-

ferences between profiles. So Rae and Drewery's findings might have been significant if they used a difference scoring procedure as the MPQ and most other studies in this field have done. Though the research findings have not been overwhelmingly positive, they have still tended to support the following hypothesis which corresponds well to clinical conceptions of marital maladjustment.

Hypothesis 16. The extent of the couple's actual interpersonal misunderstandings on all MPQ scales will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

As was the case with the previous comparisons, there has been little investigation of the misunderstanding of ideal expectations. Murstein and Beck's (1972) study is the only one found so far which reports any results in this area and their findings are mixed. Misunderstandings of the expectations for an ideal wife are not correlated with marital adjustment, but misunderstandings of the expectations for an ideal husband correlated with marital adjustment at the .05 level of significance. Theoretically, it makes sense that misunderstandings of ideal expectations should contribute to increased marital maladjustment as much as misunderstandings of actual performance. If however, there are widely held cultural expectations or stereotypes of the ideal marriage as Corsini (1956) and Ferreira and Winters (1974) research seems to indicate, then the variation in ideals on the common characteristics of loving and dominance is likely to be so reduced that correlation coefficients will be attenuated. To be consistent with previous hypotheses, the latter possibility will be assumed which leads to the following null hypothesis:

Hypothesis 17. The extent of the couple's ideal interpersonal misunderstandings on all MPQ scales will not be correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale score.

The final group of MPQ comparison measures to be discussed are the direction of difference scores for the interpersonal misunderstanding comparisons. What these measures reveal is the direction of the misunderstanding--i.e. is the person overestimating or underestimating his/her partner's loving or dominance rating. As with other comparisons there is no previous research to guide hypothesis formation in this area. The "depreciating spouse, enhancing self" hypothesis formulated in the previous section does not provide a basis for predicting the direction of misunderstanding. Assume, for example, that a husband does expect his wife to attack his actual loving performance. His problem then becomes how much attack to predict. If he is interested in preserving the marriage, he is likely to underestimate her attack in order to maintain his position that the situation is not that bad. If on the other hand he is trying to end the relationship, he is likely to overestimate her attack in order to justify his position that the relationship is destructive and should be ended. Both of these options are possible given the "depreciating spouse, enhancing self" assumption, and it is reasonable to assume that both types are found in the couples sampled in the study. If this is the case, then the overestimation in some cases should be canceled by the underestimation in others, and the direction of misunderstanding score is unlikely to show any consistent correlation with marital adjustment. Until further research is conducted, it seems most reasonable and conservative to assume the null hypothesis for this measure.

Hypothesis 18. The direction of the couple's interpersonal misunderstanding scores on all MPQ scales will not be correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

This concludes the discussion of the comparison hypotheses. Though 14 specific hypotheses were postulated, there are several common themes running through these hypotheses which serve to summarize them. First the extent of all actual differences--role differentiation, dissatisfaction, disagreement, and misunderstanding--are assumed to increase with decreasing marital adjustment. The extent of all ideal differences, however, are not expected to vary with marital adjustment due to pervasive and stereotyped expectations of the ideal marriage. The direction of the difference scores on the Loving and Dominance scales were more difficult to predict because they have not been explored in previous research. The null hypothesis that there would be no consistent direction of difference was assumed for the role differentiation and misunderstanding comparisons since it seemed equally possible to move in either direction on these measures. On the perceived dissatisfaction measure, however, it only seemed likely that couples would want to move in the direction that would reduce the dissatisfactions by becoming more loving and less dominating. On the actual disagreement comparisons, it seemed most likely that the direction of disagreement could be defined by the "depreciate spouse, enhance self" assumption. This assumption was derived from the general assumption underlying all the hypotheses, that couples will perceive themselves more unfavorably as their marital adjustment decreases. As the next section on the pattern hypotheses will reveal, the "depreciate spouse, enhance self" assumption is a very useful one.

Pattern Hypotheses

One of the features which differentiates the MPQ from previous

assessment instruments is this third method of pattern analysis. Since this method has not been used before in the field, there is no research evidence available to directly support the hypotheses to be developed in this section, though some studies provide indirect support. So the hypotheses about the pattern indices will be derived mainly from clinical experience and from the assumptions already postulated in the previous section.

Dissatisfaction Pattern Indices. The dissatisfaction internalized/externalized pattern index (DSIEP) is designed to measure whether need to change a certain behavior in order to live up to ideals is more internalized or externalized. Though it is a fairly well accepted tenet in marital theory that more maladjusted couples tend to externalize blame for their problems more (Burr, 1973), the experimental verification of this tenet has only been the observation in some studies of marital perceptions that dissatisfaction with spouse is usually more strongly correlated with marital adjustment than dissatisfaction with self (Eastman, 1958; Kotlar, 1965; Hawkins and Johnsen, 1969; and Murstein and Beck, 1972). Instead of just comparing correlation coefficients, the dissatisfaction pattern indices listed in Table 10 quantitatively analyze dissatisfaction comparisons to see which one is greater. The first three indices (DSIEP-HPH, -IPH, -WPH) measure who is more dissatisfied with the husband's behavior, the husband (internalized) or the wife (externalized). The next three indices (DSIEP-HPW, -IPW, -WPW) measure who is more dissatisfied with the wife's behavior, and the final indices (DSIEP-HPR, -IPR, -WPR) measure who should change more in the relationship, the husband or the wife. Changes in these measures with changes in marital adjustment can be predicted by a single hypothesis which postulates that as marital adjustment decreases, each person will become

more dissatisfied with their partner than themselves and will perceive their partner doing the same thing to them. In essence this is the "depreciate spouse, enhance self" hypothesis stated in a somewhat different way.

When the target of the indices is either the husband (DSIEP-HPH, -IPH, -WPH) or the wife (DSIEP-HPW, -IPW, -WPW), the indices have been defined so that its sign has the same meaning for all indices. If it is positive it means internalized, but if it is negative it means externalized. Thus the hypothesis for these indices can be stated as:

Hypothesis 19. The couple's scores on the dissatisfaction internalized/externalized pattern indices for husband and wife (DSIEP-HPH, -IPH, -WPH, -HPW, -IPW, -WPW) will be positively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

When the target of the indices is the relationship (DSIEP-HPR, -IPR, -WPR), the sign of the indices has a different meaning than above. Here the positive sign indicates that the dissatisfaction is greater for the husband than the wife while the negative sign means the reverse, i.e. greater dissatisfaction for wife than husband. So the externalization hypothesis for these indices can be stated as follows:

Hypothesis 20. The couple's scores on the dissatisfaction internalized/externalized pattern indices for the relationship (DSIEP-HPR, -IPR, -WPR) will be positively correlated with the husband's Dyadic Adjustment Scale score but negatively correlated with the wife's Dyadic Adjustment Scale score.

Consensus Pattern Indices. The consensus pattern indices (UNDAP, UNAGP) measure whether a person's prediction of agreement is accurate or not in order to ascertain the type of consensus in the relationship. Though this type of measure has not been quantitatively re-

searched before, previous studies on understanding in marriage have often discussed it. Newcombe (1953), Kirkpatrick and Hobart (1954), Hobart and Klausner (1959), Laing et al, (1966), Levinger and Breedlove (1966), and Murstein and Beck (1972) have all found that couples tend to expect more agreement than there really is in their relationships. They overestimate agreement and underestimate disagreement. In terms of Scheff's (1967) types of consensus, they move toward false consensus. This trend seems especially prominent in happily married couples which suggests that they overlook differences and perceive their relationship as rosier than it is. Assuming that the opposite trend takes place in maladjusted couples, i.e. they lose the positive halo and become overly sensitive to the disagreements, leads to the following assumptions about the consensus pattern indices:

Hypothesis 21. The couple's scores on the understanding of disagreement pattern indices (UNDAP) will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Hypothesis 22. The couple's scores on the understanding of agreement pattern indices (UNAGP) will be positively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores.

Since positive scores on both indices indicate accuracy in understanding, the hypotheses above imply that well adjusted couples will be more accurate in predicting agreement while less adjusted couples will be more accurate in predicting disagreement.

Favorability Pattern Indices. The favorability pattern indices (FASTP, FADSP) measure a person's perception of how favorably the spouse rates in comparison to one's own ratings. The favorably satisfied pattern index (FASTP) assumes that if a person rates actual performance as up to ideal expectations, then the person will consider the

partner's agreement on the actual performance rating a favorable rating while disagreeing would be unfavorable. Similarly, the favorably dissatisfied pattern index (FADSP) assumes that if the partner rates a person closer to an unattained ideal than the person themselves does that this is a favorable rating while rating farther away from the ideal would be unfavorable. Both of these indices were defined so that the more positive the score obtained the more favorable the rating. Though they are calculated very differently, these indices are similar to the direction of perceived disagreement comparisons discussed earlier, and the same assumption should apply to both. Better adjusted couples would be expected to rate their spouses more favorably and expect the spouses to be doing the same thing in return. As the marriage becomes less adjusted, one would expect the couples to begin rating each other less favorably and to expect the spouse to do likewise. This is the "depreciate spouse, enhance self" assumption again which generates the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 23. The couples scores on both the favorably satisfied (FASTP) and favorably dissatisfied (FADSP) pattern indices will be negatively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) scores when the person being rated is the spouse and positively correlated with their DAS scores when the person being rated is themselves.

Complementary Need Pattern Indices. The final group of MPQ patterns being analyzed is the complementary need pattern indices (COMNP) which measure how much the mate is perceived as a model of what one would ideally desire to be himself/herself and vice versa how much a person perceives himself/herself as a model for the mate. Again there is no research on these particular measures to guide hypothesis

formation, but Karp, Jackson, and Lester (1970) and Murstein (1971) have researched in this area. Murstein hypothesized and found that high self acceptance people tend to marry similar mates while low self acceptance people try to marry someone different and more like their ideal. The problem with these studies is that self acceptance is a personality characteristic which is not necessarily related to marital adjustment (a relationship characteristic). Furthermore, both studies investigated engaged couples perceptions of future partners which are likely to be very rosy and very different from married couples who have lived together and grown disenchanted with their relationship. In the latter case which is being investigated in this study, it seems likely that the "depreciate spouse, enhancing self" assumption is more viable. The more maladjusted the marriage becomes, the less likely it is that a person perceives their spouse as a good model for themselves. This is the "depreciate spouse" aspect of the hypothesis, the related "enhance self" aspect would lead to the inverse of the previous hypothesis. The more maladjusted, the more likely it is that the person will perceive themselves as a good model for their wayward spouse. At this point in time this hypothesis is merely a speculation but one which is consistent with the underlying assumptions used throughout this paper. Formally stated it is:

Hypothesis 24. The couple's scores on the complementary need pattern indices will be positively correlated with their Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) scores when their spouse is the model (COMNP-HWM, -WHM) and negatively correlated with their DAS scores when they themselves are the model (COMNP-HHM, -WWM).

This concludes the specification of the hypotheses which will be used to evaluate the validity of SAPIR approach. If the MPQ measures

correlate with the couple's Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores as hypothesized, this will not only validate the approach but will also replicate many of the studies which have previously been conducted in this area. In addition the MPQ will provide information on many variables which have not been researched heretofore. Finally because of its comprehensiveness it will help to make clearer the interrelationships between these different measures of marital functioning.

Method

Subjects

To test the hypotheses just advanced, the MPQ and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale were given to three different groups--two "Community" groups of 30 couples each and one "Therapy" group of 20 couples. To obtain a relatively homogeneous group of young married couples, random samplings were made in two housing projects whose admission procedures insured that the residents would be of similar and known backgrounds. The first or "Univ" group was selected from the University Village married housing project administered by Michigan State University. It was included because it represents a population often used in studies of this nature. To obtain a population more broadly representative of young midwestern couples, a second or "Co-op" group was drawn from the Highland Cooperative (Housing) Association. The co-op's entrance requirements made it particularly attractive to young couples who were just starting their vocations and their families. Though the co-op townhouses were more spacious than the university apartments, both projects involved the same type of high density, shared grounds living situations.

The same random sampling procedure was used to select housing units for participation in each group. First a list of random numbers between 1 and 5 was created for each project. Then beginning at end of the street or court upon which the dwellings were built the researcher went down the street contacting units in the order which was specified on the list of random numbers. For example, if the next number on the list was 3, the researcher would contact the third unit down from his present location. If that unit

was vacant or the couple refused to participate, he would use the next random number to choose the next unit for contact. If there was no response but the unit looked occupied, the researcher would recontact it on three additional occasions before dropping it from the study.

Although the projects' entrance procedures insured a high probability of young married couples in each situation, there were still a number of units which were administratively eliminated because the occupants were inappropriate for the study. Many of the co-op units (33 of 95) contained single parent households as Table 15 shows. These were excluded as irrelevant to the study. Because of their difference from the other couples in the study, foreign students and retired couples were also excluded. Couples in the process of moving who would not be available long enough to complete the measures were also dropped. Finally, the researcher was unable to find the occupants at home in some units despite four visits (probably because of vacations), and these were also eliminated. These several exclusions resulted in eliminating 25% of the Univ units and 53% of the Co-op units, as documented in Table 15.

All remaining units contained a young couple eligible for participation in the study. However as shown in Table 15, 23% of the Univ couples and 33% of the Co-op couples refused to participate. The stated reasons for refusal included not interested, too busy, or too personal. More often it was the husband who declined to participate (14 husbands: 9 wives). The 77% and 68% participation rates for the Univ and Co-op groups are in accordance with the usual rates in random samplings of this nature (Spanier, Lewis & Cole, 1975; Kirby & Davis, 1972).

To obtain couples for the Therapy group, the researcher con-

Table 15. Percentage of Community Couples Participating in the Study

	Sample	
	University	Cooperative
Total number units contacted	52	95
Number units administratively eliminated	13	50
Percentage units administratively eliminated	25%	53%
Reason for administrative elimination		
No couple in unit (divorcees, etc.)	2	33
Foreign, retired couples	4	6
In process of moving	5	4
Unable to contact	2	7
Number eligible couples contacted	39	45
Number couples refused to participate	9	15
Percentage of eligible couples refusing participation	23%	33%
Reason for refusal		
Not interested	4	2
Too busy	2	10
Too personal	1	1
No explanation	2	2
Number couples participating	30	30
Percentage of eligible couples participating	77%	68%

tacted university professors and local agencies who provided marital counseling services and explained his study to them. Three agencies (MSU Psychological Clinic, Catholic Social Services, and Family and Child Services) and two professors (Dr. Hurley and Dr. Melcer) were interested in the program and agreed to approach their marital therapy cases to explain the study to them, and to ask them to participate. Almost all the couples approached agreed to participate. There was no way of determining how representative these 20 couples were of the population of couples who seek marital counseling, and they were certainly a more heterogeneous group than the Univ and Co-op groups.

The demographic data on these three groups is summarized in Table 16. As expected, the Univ group consists of young couples who have been married about 3 years and few have children. Though one partner is likely to be working full-time, their income averages only $8000.00 per year. This is the best educated group with the majority of the husband's having a college degree, but the educational level of all groups is higher than the national average because the couples are largely being drawn from a university community. In contrast the Co-op group is slightly but significantly older. These couples have been married almost 6 years on the average and slightly over half of them have young children. Almost all households have at least one full-time worker, and their mean annual income is almost $13,000.00. While the Univ group consists largely of relatively newlywed couples who are just beginning the family life cycle, the Co-op group is largely composed of couples who have just entered the next phase of the cycle--beginning to establish themselves occupationally and beginning child raising. Both groups are "normal" with respect to their mean

Table 16. Demographic Data for Groups

Demographic Variable	Group				
	University	Cooperative	Community	Therapy	Total
Number couples in group	30	30	60	20	80
Dyadic Adjustment Scores					
Husband mean	116.0(11.0)	109.7(15.6)	112.9(13.8)	90.3(22.8)	108.8(23.2)
Wife mean	119.4(12.5)	113.1(15.2)	116.3(14.1)	86.5(30.3)	107.8(19.9)
Education, years completed					
Husband mean	16.0 (2.0)	15.0 (2.4)	15.6 (2.2)	15.8 (2.2)	15.6 (2.2)
Wife mean	15.1 (1.7)	14.3 (2.2)	14.7 (2.0)	14.2 (3.7)	14.6 (2.5)
Age in years					
Husband mean	24.9 (4.9)	28.9 (3.8)	26.9 (4.7)	32.2 (6.6)	28.2 (5.7)
Wife mean	23.5 (4.8)	27.8 (4.0)	25.6 (4.9)	30.6 (5.8)	26.9 (5.6)
Years married	2.8 (4.0)	5.6 (3.0)	4.2 (3.3)	6.2 (5.6)	4.9 (4.9)
Annual Income, thousands of dollars	7.9 (3.9)	12.8 (5.4)	10.3 (5.3)	16.3 (10.0)	11.8 (7.2)
Religious preference, percentage					
Protestant	41.7	55.0	48.3	55.0	50.0
Catholic	20.0	25.0	22.5	12.5	20.0
Jewish, other	10.0	3.3	6.7	7.5	6.8
None	28.3	16.7	22.5	25.0	23.1
Couples with children, percentage	6.7	53.3	30.0	70.0	40.0
Mean number of children in families with children	2.5	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.3
% Households with full time worker	70.0	86.6	78.3	85.0	80.0
% Households with student	90.0	40.0	65.0	40.0	58.8

Note: Standard deviations are in parenthesis

Dyadic Adjustment Scores (Spanier, 1976), although the scores of the Univ group are slightly higher which is consistent with their newly-wed status (Spanier et al, 1975). Because of their similarities, these groups were combined to create the Community group of 60 couples used in the data analyses.

In contrast to these Community groups, the Therapy group is much more diverse and harder to characterize. In terms of the demographic statistics (Table 16), they are older, have been married longer, make more money, and have more families with children. However, there is wider variation about these means with, for example, 5 couples who have been married over 14 years and 5 couples who are just contemplating marriage. The characteristic which most differentiates this group from the others is the mean Dyadic Adjustment Score (husband's 90.3, wives' 86.5) which is clearly in the maladjusted range.

To determine whether the differences in demographic characteristics could be influencing the results, correlations between these characteristics and the DAS scores were calculated for the Community and Total groups, and the results are shown in Table 17. Within the Community group only one of 14 correlations attained statistical significance, but when the total sample is analyzed, significant correlations with DAS are found for age, length of marriage, income, and number of children. These results are consistent with the findings reviewed by Rollins and Feldman (1970), Burr (1970), Rollins and Cannon (1974), and Spanier, Lewis and Cole (1975) which show a decline in marital satisfaction as a couple moves from the honeymoon into the child rearing phases of marriage. To determine whether these demographic variables were confounding the relationships between DAS

Table 17. Correlation of Demographic Variables with Dyadic Adjustment Scores

	Group			
	Community		Total	
Demographic Variable	Husband DAS	Wife DAS	Husband DAS	Wife DAS
Age of husband	-.09	-.04	-.29**	-.30**
Age of wife	-.05	.00	-.29**	-.30*
Education of husband	.05	.07	.17	.15
Education of wife	-.01	.02	.06	.10
Annual income	-.22*	-.19	-.28*	-.23*
Years married	-.09	-.04	-.25*	-.28*
Number children	.01	.05	-.19	-.22*

Two-tailed level of significance ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

and MPQ measures, correlations were first calculated between 17 basic MPQ measures and the person's DAS score and then these same correlations were recalculated with the effects of income, years married, and number of children partialled-out. The largest difference between the first order and partialled correlation was only -.05 (-.51 to -.46) and most differences were only -.02, so the demographic variables had no appreciable effect on the correlations between MPQ measures and DAS scores.

Materials

All participants in the study were given a large envelope containing the following materials:

1. General instructions for the marital perceptions study.
   A handout explaining the purpose of the study and the materials and procedures involved. (Appendix A for Community couples; Appendix B for Therapy couples).
2. Departmental research consent form.
   This form was used to explain to the participants their rights as a subject in the study (Appendix C for Community couples; Appendix D for Therapy couples).
3. Participant information form.
   This form was used to collect basic background information on the participants such as age, education, occupation, religion, income, length of marriage, number of children, etc. (Appendix E).
4. Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS).
   The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) is a refined and improved version of the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (Locke & Wallace, 1959). The DAS was chosen as the independent measure

in this study because it is a carefully constructed instrument of established reliability, validity, factor structure, and normative data. It can be filled out quickly and correlates highly (.86) with the most frequently used instrument in marital research, the Locke-Wallace Scale. (Appendix F).

5. Marital Perceptions Questionnaire and answer sheets.

   This questionnaire is the dependent measure which has been more fully described in the previous section.

6. A soft lead pencil.

   A soft lead pencil was included so the person's marks on the answer sheets could be optically scanned.

Procedures

For the Community groups, the researcher selected a dwelling unit according to the predetermined list of random numbers, rang the doorbell, and then introduced himself as a graduate student in psychology at Michigan State University who was doing research on marital perceptions. He said that he would be willing to pay the couple $4.00 to fill out some questionnaires. At this point most couples asked him to more fully explain what was involved. He then showed them the packet of materials, explained the general instructions listed in the first handout, showed them how to fill out the questionnaires (especially the MPQ), and then asked for questions. If the couple was willing to participate, he left one packet and arranged a later time to pick it up and leave the second packet for the other partner. Although quite time consuming, this procedure helped insure that the partners did not compare answers when filling out the questionnaire. The packets were precoded and arranged so that the A and B forms alternated and

who filled out the packet first (husband or wife) was alternated. The address of every dwelling unit in the sampling was entered on a sampling record sheet along with the couples decision to participate or not, their reasons for refusal if they did not participate, and the code number of the packet and date it was given if they did participate. On the arranged date, the researcher returned, checked the first packet for completeness, left the second packet for the other spouse, and arranged a date for its pickup. Returning on this date, the researcher picked up and checked out the second packet. If it was complete, he would then pay the $4.00 fee and answer any questions they had about the study. Often the researcher had to return several extra times because the participants were not at home or had not completed the questionnaire by the predetermined time.

The procedures used for the Therapy group were essentially the same except for three differences:

1. The couple's therapist did the explaining of the study and the collection of the data packets.

2. The couple was informed that their therapist would be getting a copy of the results which they could learn about through their therapist.

3. Both packets were given out at the same time with instructions to work independently and seal their answers in the envelope provided when finished.

Results

The MPQ was evaluated by correlating each one of its 443 variables against both the husband's and wife's Dyadic Adjustment Scale scores separately for the randomly sampled Community group (N = 60) and the Total group (N = 80). The Community group was a fairly well adjusted group according to the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) norms. Only 8 of the 60 Community couples had an average DAS score more than one standard deviation below the mean, as Table 18 shows. Because of the restricted DAS score range, this group's correlation coefficients were somewhat attenuated. Adding the 20 Therapy cases, which included a high proportion of maladjusted couples (13 out of 20 were one standard deviation below the DAS mean) to the Community group, produced a wider range of DAS scores which should give a better estimate of the general population correlation between the MPQ variables and DAS. The results for both the Community and the Total groups will be reported, since together they give an idea of how much each group contributed to the correlations.

To simplify the tables, the correlation coefficients for both the husband and the wife will only be presented on the interpersonal MPQ measures such as the interpersonal disagreement comparisons. Most MPQ measures are intrapersonal since they are based solely on one person's perceptions, and so only the correlation with that person's DAS score will be presented in the tables. For example, only the correlation between the wife's perceived disagreement over the ideal wife (PDA-WIW) and the wife's DAS score will be presented. The corresponding correlations between husband's DAS and PDA-WIW and other wife MPQ measures were calculated but will not be presented because they

Table 18. Dyadic Adjustment Statistics for Groups

Dyadic Adjustment Statistic	Group		
	Community	Therapy	Total
Mean (Norm = 114.8)[a]			
Husband	112.9	90.4	107.2
Wife	116.3	86.5	108.8
Couple Average	114.3	88.3	107.8
Standard Deviation (Norm = 17.8)[a]			
Husband	13.8	22.8	19.1
Wife	14.1	30.3	23.2
Couple Average	12.8	24.5	19.9
Distribution of Scores			
Above 134	1	0	1
133 - 116	34	3	37
115 - 98	17	4	21
97 - 80	8	6	14
Below 79	0	7	7
Correlation Coefficient			
Husband DAS with Wife DAS	.680	.724	.784

[a]Note: Normative data from Spanier's study (1976).

are usually very similar to the wife's correlations.

Viewpoint Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 that the couples actual loving ratings would be positively correlated with their DAS scores was strongly confirmed ($p < .0001$) for all eight viewpoints and for both the Total and Community groups as Table 19 shows. Clearly maladjusted couples perceive themselves as less loving than the well adjusted couples. These correlation coefficients are the highest of any in the study. For both husband and wife the best single predictor of their DAS scores is their prediction of how loving they are rated by their spouse (H2AH and W2AW), and the second best predictor is how loving they actually rate their spouse (H1AW and W1AH).

How dominating the couple actually rate themselves is negatively correlated with their DAS scores as predicted by Hypothesis 3. However, the correlation coefficients are not as large, only 7 or 8 viewpoints are significant at greater than the .01 level for both groups as Table 19 shows. Loving scale correlation coefficients will be consistently higher than Dominance scale correlation coefficients throughout the rest of the results also which substantiates what has been reported previously that loving is more important than dominance in marital relationships (Luckey, 1964; Kotlar, 1965; Fineberg & Lowman, 1975). So the more dominating and coercive and the less submissive and cooperative the couples perceive themselves, the more maladjusted they rate their marriages. As Table 19 shows, the wife's dominance influences the relationship more than the husband's dominance.

Hypothesis 2 that ideal loving expectations would not be correlated with marital adjustment is not supported as evidenced by the

Table 19. Correlations between Dyadic Adjustment Scale and MPQ Viewpoint Ratings

		Loving Scale		Dominance Scale	
Actual Viewpoints		Total	Community	Total	Community
H1AH	Husband's own view of actual husband	75 [a]	66 [a]	-27 [c]	-36 [c]
H2AH	Husband's view of wife's view of actual husband	79 [a]	59 [a]	-40 [a]	-40 [b]
W2AH	Wife's view of husband's view of actual husband	79 [a]	70 [a]	-23	-38 [c]
W1AH	Wife's own view of actual husband	89 [a]	76 [a]	-41 [a]	-41 [a]
H1AW	Husband's own view of actual wife	79 [a]	66 [a]	-64 [a]	-35 [c]
H2AW	Husband's view of wife's view of actual wife	72 [a]	58 [a]	-55 [a]	-27
W2AW	Wife's view of husband's view of actual wife	91 [a]	81 [a]	-67 [a]	-51 [a]
W1AW	Wife's own view of actual wife	88 [a]	80 [a]	-55 [a]	-42 [b]
Ideal Viewpoints					
H1IH	Husband's own view of ideal husband	16	18	-26 [c]	-21
H2IH	Husband's view of wife's view of ideal husband	29 [c]	18	-24	- 7
W2IH	Wife's view of husband's view of ideal husband	56 [a]	56 [a]	-51 [a]	-41 [b]
W1IH	Wife's own view of ideal husband	42 [a]	36 [c]	-26 [c]	-13
H1IW	Husband's own view of ideal wife	22	17	- 7	- 2
H2IW	Husband's view of wife's view of ideal wife	41 [a]	41 [a]	-15	-28
W2IW	Wife's view of husband's view of ideal wife	30 [c]	38 [c]	15	-11
W1IW	Wife's own view of ideal wife	39 [b]	40 [b]	-10	-19

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100.

One-tailed significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

fact that 6 of the 8 ideal viewpoint correlation coefficients in Table 19 are significant at better than the .01 level for the Total group. The correlation coefficients are only slightly less for the Community group so this effect is not due to the therapy cases. This means that well-adjusted and maladjusted couples differed ideal expectations for loving in marriage with the maladjusted couples expecting less loving. In particular, the maladjusted wives expected their husbands to ideally want to be less loving (W2IH) than the well adjusted wives did. For the husbands there was less variation in their ideal expectations than there was for the wives (i.e. H1IH and H1IW versus W1IH and W1IW).

In contrast, there were few significant correlations between the ideal viewpoints and DAS on the Dominance scale. This supports Hypothesis 4. The only substantial correlation in Table 19 was W2IH, the wife's view of her husband's "ideal husband." The more the wife rated her marriage as troubled, the more likely she was to see her husband as ideally desiring to be less loving and submissive than the husbands in well adjusted marriages.

Comparison Hypotheses

Perceived Role Differentiation. Dyadic adjustment consistently correlated substantially and inversely with the extent of actual perceived role differentiation as shown by data in Table 20's upper left quadrant. Hypothesis 5 was strongly confirmed on the Loving scale for both the number of differences and square root of the average squared difference measures. All of these correlation coefficients are significant beyond the .0001 level for both the Total and Community groups. Though the comparable Dominance Scale

Table 20. Correlation Between Extent of Perceived Role Differentiation and Dyadic Adjustment

			Number of differences			Sq Root Avg Sqd Difference		
Actual PRD Comparisons		Sample	Loving	Domin	Overall	Loving	Domin	Overall
H1A	Husband's own view	Total	-63 [a]	-48 [a]	-61 [a]	-65 [a]	-39 [b]	-59 [a]
	of actual differentiation	Comm	-48 [a]	-35 [c]	-46 [a]	-47 [a]	-19	-41 [b]
H2A	Husband's view of wife's view	Total	-61 [a]	-40 [a]	-58 [a]	-61 [a]	-21	-47 [a]
	of actual differentiation	Comm	-54 [a]	-25	-45 [a]	-51 [a]	- 5	-28
W2A	Wife's view of husband's view	Total	-73 [a]	-52 [a]	-70 [a]	-74 [a]	-61 [a]	-72 [a]
	of actual differentiation	Comm	-73 [a]	-50 [a]	-70 [a]	-61 [a]	-36 [c]	-58 [a]
W1A	Wife'w own view	Total	-76 [a]	-49 [a]	-73 [a]	-71 [a]	-48 [a]	-68 [a]
	of actual differentiation	Comm	-73 [a]	-50 [a]	-71 [a]	-60 [a]	-29	-52 [a]
Ideal PRD Comparisons								
H1I	Husband's own view	Total	-13	- 7	-11	-11	- 7	-10
	of ideal differentiation	Comm	-14	- 7	-11	-15	- 6	1
H2I	Husband's view of wife's view	Total	-32 [c]	-23	-30 [c]	-40 [a]	-25	-33 [c]
	of ideal differentiation	Comm	-21	-15	-18	-35 [c]	4	-11
W2I	Wife's view of husband's view	Total	-60 [a]	-59 [a]	-59 [a]	-49 [a]	-43 [a]	-51 [a]
	of ideal differentiation	Comm	-57 [a]	-54 [a]	-56 [a]	-45 [b]	-28	-51 [b]
W1I	Wife's own view	Total	-45 [a]	-35 [a]	-42 [a]	-22	-28 [c]	-28 [c]
	of ideal differentiation	Comm	-37 [c]	-20	-31 [c]	-18	- 2	- 8

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100.

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

and Overall correlations were somewhat smaller, the same relationship was observed. On these and all other comparisons reported the DAS correlations with Loving almost always exceeded those for Dominance and Overall suggesting that differences on the Loving scale are most relevant to dyadic adjustment and that the consideration of other issues adds little if anything to the prediction of dyadic adjustment.

These results mean that well adjusted couples see themselves as strikingly similar, i.e. almost equally loving and almost equally dominating. In contrast, maladjusted couples see themselves as very differentiated or polarized. One partner is seen as much more loving and submissive than the other.

It was hypothesized that, regardless of how much their actual relationship was polarized, all couples would desire egalitarian relationships. As the correlation coefficients for the ideal perceived role differentiations on the bottom of Table 20 show, this hypothesis received only partial and selective confirmation. It was consistently supported only for the husband's (PRD-HlI); in both the adjusted and the maladjusted marriages the husbands said they wanted to be equal to their wives. This is not how they were perceived by their wives. The more maladjusted the marriage became, the more the wives perceived their husbands as desiring (PRD-W2I) unequal or differentiated relationships, and the more the wives themselves (PRD-WlI) saw an ideal marriage in terms of differentiated roles.

The question of which role spouses occupied was addressed by Table 21 data, which shows the direction of perceived role differentiation scores on Loving and Dominance scales. It had been hypothesized (Hypothesis 7) that there would be no significant

Table 21. Correlations Between Direction of Perceived Disagreement and Dyadic Adjustment

Actual PRD Comparisons		Loving Scale		Dominance Scale	
		Total	Community	Total	Community
H1A	Husband's own view of actual differentiation	-50 [a]	-21	40 [a]	0
H2A	Husband's view of wife's view of actual differentiation	20	20	11	-16
W2A	Wife's view of husband's view of actual differentiation	-63 [a]	-47 [a]	44 [a]	18
W1A	Wife's own view of actual differentiation	20	3	14	2
Ideal PRD Comparisons					
H1I	Husband's own view of ideal differentiation	-14	1	-17	-17
H2I	Husband's view of wife's view of ideal differentiation	-20	-38 [c]	-11	-19
W2I	Wife's view of husband's view of ideal differentiation	57 [a]	45 [b]	-51 [a]	-30 [c]
W1I	Wife's own view of ideal differentiation	15	3	-12	6

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

correlations for these measures, and on 5 out of the 8 comparisons the null hypothesis was confirmed. The exceptions, however, were revealing. As DAS changed the wives did not perceive either partner as overall more loving or dominating than the other in terms of actual performance (PRD-W1A) or ideal expectations (PRD-W1I). Though they perceived more differences as their relationships deteriorated, the wives viewed themselves as slightly but not significantly more loving than their husbands. In contrast, husband's DAS correlated substantially with self portrayals (PRD-H1A) as being the more loving and submissive spouse--a view which the wives correctly predicted (PRD-W2A). The substantial differences between these correlations of the Community and Total groups for the husbands (PRD-H1A) suggests that this effect is largely attributable to husbands in the therapy group. Thus, these correlations suggest that as marital adjustment decreases, both husbands and wives see themselves as the more loving partner in accordance with the "depreciate spouse, enhance self" hypothesis. From the wives' viewpoint, however, the overall difference was small (i.e. both are hostile), while for the husbands, it was large (i.e. the wife was the <u>really</u> hostile one).

The bottom half of Table 21 showed little evidence for either husband (PRD-H1I) or wife (PRD-W1I) to say that <u>ideally</u> they want one or the other to be the more loving one as their adjustment changes. As maladjustment increases, however, there is a very significant tendency for the wives to report that their husbands ideally desire to be hostile and dominant while wanting their wives to be loving and submissive.

A summary of these results on the perceived role differentiation measures is: (1) The more maladjusted the marriage, the more actual differences and role polarizations were perceived. (2) The

husbands said it is the wives who were becoming hostile and dominating, but the wives said that the reverse was true. Ideally, both said they wanted egalitarian relationships, like adjusted couples had, but the wives believed that their husbands desired to hostilely dominate a lovingly submissive wife.

Perceived Dissatisfaction. In support of Hypothesis 8, the extent of perceived dissatisfaction correlated strongly with DAS as illustrated in Table 22. The more troubled the marriage, the more couples perceived their actual performance as falling below their ideals. The correlations were highly significant ($p < .0001$) on the Loving scale for all comparisons on all measures (number of differences and square root of averaged squared difference) for both the Total and Community groups. Again, the correlations were less on the Dominance scale, but 7 of 8 Total group comparisons achieved the .001 level. The exception was that maladjusted husband's did not see themselves (PDS-H1H) as needing to change more with respect to dominance than did well-adjusted husbands. They depicted themselves as already sufficiently submissive.

To reach their "ideal," couples need to move in the directions shown in Table 23. Hypothesis 9 predicted that DAS would correlate negatively with the couples viewing themselves as needing to be more loving. It was strongly supported ($p < .0001$) for Total group on all eight PDS comparisons. Wives' perceptions (PDS-W1W, PDS-W1H) of how much more loving they and their husbands need to become were the second highest set of correlations found on the MPQ. Clearly a lack of loving is a major characteristic of marital maladjustment. However, Hypothesis 10 was only partially supported. While dissatisfaction with the wife's dominance was confirmed as correlating significantly and positively

Table 22. Correlations Between Extent of Perceived Dissatisfaction and Dyadic Adjustment

			Number of Differences			Sq Root Avg Sqd Difference		
		Sample	Loving	Domin	Overall	Loving	Domin	Overall
PDS with Husband								
H1H	Husband's own dissatisfaction with himself	Total	-66 [a]	-12	-57 [a]	-75 [a]	0	-59 [a]
		Comm	-60 [a]	-14	-51 [a]	-61 [a]	5	-40 [b]
H2H	Husband's view of wife's dissatisfaction with him	Total	-66 [a]	-41 [a]	-63 [a]	-76 [a]	-42 [a]	-67 [a]
		Comm	-58 [a]	-36 [c]	-55 [a]	-59 [a]	-24	-44 [b]
W2H	Wife's view of husband's dissatisfaction with himself	Total	-63 [a]	-45 [a]	-64 [a]	-77 [a]	-46 [a]	-72 [a]
		Comm	-61 [a]	-49 [a]	-63 [a]	-59 [a]	-27	-52 [a]
W1H	Wife's own dissatisfaction with husband	Total	-76 [a]	-64 [a]	-78 [a]	-86 [a]	-54 [a]	-82 [a]
		Comm	-68 [a]	-56 [a]	-69 [a]	-65 [a]	-28	-56 [a]
PDS with Wife								
H1W	Husband's own dissatisfaction with wife	Total	-65 [a]	-50 [a]	-64 [a]	-72 [a]	-62 [a]	-72 [a]
		Comm	-57 [a]	-39 [b]	-56 [a]	-54 [a]	-43 [b]	-54 [a]
H2W	Husband's view of wife's dissatisfaction with herself	Total	-63 [a]	-38 [b]	-58 [a]	-71 [a]	-41 [a]	-66 [a]
		Comm	-49 [a]	-24	-44 [b]	-56 [a]	-12	-45 [b]
W2W	Wife's view of husband's dissatisfaction with her	Total	-77 [a]	-59 [a]	-76 [a]	-86 [a]	-72 [a]	-83 [a]
		Comm	-72 [a]	-52 [a]	-70 [a]	-68 [a]	-46 [a]	-65 [a]
W1W	Wife's own dissatisfaction with herself	Total	-79 [a]	-49 [a]	-77 [a]	-83 [a]	-52 [a]	-79 [a]
		Comm	-75 [a]	-35 [c]	-69 [a]	-65 [a]	-30	-63 [a]

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

Table 23. Correlation Between Direction of Perceived Dissatisfaction and Dyadic Adjustment

PDS with Husband		Loving Scale		Dominance Scale	
		Total	Community	Total	Community
H1H	Husband's own dissatisfaction with himself	-73 [a]	-60 [a]	3	18
H2H	Husband's view of wife's dissatisfaction with him	-70 [a]	-55 [a]	30	32
W2H	Wife's view of husband's dissatisfaction with himself	-65 [a]	-47 [a]	-31 [c]	- 7
W1H	Wife's own dissatisfaction with her husband	-85 [a]	-72 [a]	22	34
PDS with Wife					
H1W	Husband's own dissatisfaction with his wife	-70 [a]	-56 [a]	60 [a]	38 [c]
H2W	Husband's view of wife's dissatisfaction with herself	-58 [a]	-36 [c]	50 [a]	6
W2W	Wife's view of husband's dissatisfaction with her	-86 [a]	-70 [a]	66 [a]	43 [b]
W1W	Wife's own dissatisfaction with herself	-86 [a]	-73 [a]	51 [a]	31 [c]

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

with dyadic adjustment, the correlations of the dissatisfaction with the husband's dominance infrequently (one of eight) reached significance. This suggests that wives in the maladjusted marriages are consistently expected to become less dominating but there is no consistent trend for the husbands. Thus, as with the perceived role differentiation comparisons, most of the hypotheses about the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons have been significantly confirmed. The exceptions reveal a more intense struggle between spouses in the maladjusted marriages than had been expected.

Disagreement Comparisons. Hypothesis 11 suggested that the extent of interpersonal disagreements over actual Loving ratings of husband and wife (IDA-AH and IDA-AW) would increase with decreasing marital adjustment. The relevant data in Table 24 supported this view, and the correlations were more significant for the number of differences measure than for the square root of averaged squared difference measure. This suggests that the number of issues disagreed upon related more to marital adjustment than the amount of disagreement on the issues. However, the extent of actual interpersonal disagreements on the Dominance Scale infrequently correlated significantly with adjustment which means that the Dominance data did not strongly confirm this hypothesis although all correlation were in the expected direction. Interpersonally, only disagreements over Loving related strongly to dyadic adjustment.

The same pattern was obtained in the perceived disagreement comparisons (PDA) which concerned estimated instead of real disagreement. Hypothesis 12, which predicted that the extent of actual perceived disagreements would increase as adjustment decreases was strongly confirmed ($p < .0001$ for all 8 number of difference comparisons for both groups) for the Loving scale but only partially confirmed on the

Table 24. Correlation Between Extent of Interpersonal Disagreement and Dyadic Adjustment

Actual IDA Comparisons	Person's DAS	Number of Differences: Loving	Number of Differences: Domin	Number of Differences: Overall	Sq Root Avg Sqd Difference: Loving	Sq Root Avg Sqd Difference: Domin	Sq Root Avg Sqd Difference: Overall
Correlations for Total Group							
AH Disagreement over actual husband performance	Husb	-63 [a]	-34 [c]	-66 [a]	-66 [a]	- 9	-58 [a]
	Wife	-64 [a]	-15	-63 [a]	-66 [a]	-14	-56 [a]
AW Disagreement over actual wife performance	Husb	-51 [a]	-18	-44 [a]	-60 [a]	-26 [c]	-45 [a]
	Wife	-52 [a]	-13	-42 [a]	-44 [a]	-21	-30 [c]
Correlations for Community Group							
AH Disagreement over actual husband performance	Husb	-46 [a]	-13	-45 [b]	-34 [c]	-17	-19
	Wife	-49 [a]	- 6	-45 [b]	-33 [c]	-15	-15
AW Disagreement over actual wife performance	Husb	-40 [b]	-13	-35 [c]	-42 [b]	-10	-24
	Wife	-43 [b]	-13	-35 [c]	-27	-15	-11
Ideal IDA Comparisons							
Correlations for Total Group							
IH Disagreement over ideal husband performance	Husb	-32 [c]	-17	-29 [c]	-30 [c]	12	-14
	Wife	-27 [c]	-12	-23	-18	12	- 1
IW Disagreement over ideal wife performance	Husb	-36 [b]	-13	-31 [c]	-33 [c]	1	-19
	Wife	-33 [c]	-15	-29 [c]	-20	2	- 7
Correlations for Community Group							
IH Disagreement over ideal husband performance	Husb	-27	- 6	-22	-18	29	7
	Wife	-30	0	-24	-11	26	13
IW Disagreement over ideal wife performance	Husb	-34 [c]	-11	-28	-25	15	- 7
	Wife	-34 [c]	- 6	-29	16	16	- 1

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100
One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

Dominance scale, as shown in Table 25. Clearly disagreements over issues of loving were related more strongly to dyadic adjustment than were disagreements over issues of dominance.

Hypothesis 13 postulated that the extent of interpersonal disagreements over ideal expectations would not correlate with DAS. However, the findings showed a significant tendency ($p < .01$) for disagreements over issues of ideal loving, especially the husband's loving, to increase as marital adjustment decreases. No correlations on the dominance scale even approached significance. So couples generally share common expectations of marriage. However, the couples themselves do not always perceive things that way, as revealed by the extent of perceived disagreement correlations at the bottom of Table 25. With one exception, none of the husband's ideal perceived disagreement measures are significantly correlated with their adjustment scores. In accordance with Hypothesis 13, husbands tend to expect their wives to agree with them on ideals regardless of DAS. Though happily married wives did agree, the unhappily married wives disagreed. They expected significant disagreement, especially with regard to ideal husband expectations, on both the Loving and Dominance scales.

Inspection of the direction of ideal perceived disagreement results listed in Table 27 reveals that as the wives report decreased marital adjustment, they perceived their husbands wanting to be ideally less loving and more dominant than desired by the wives. The unhappy wives clearly saw conflict between their expectations and their husbands not only on these comparisons but also on the ideal perceived role differentiation comparisons discussed earlier. Otherwise Hypothesis 13, which basically states that all couples share similar ideal expectations, could not be significantly rejected as shown by data in

Table 25. Correlation Between Extent of Perceived Disagreement and Dyadic Adjustment

			Number of Differences			Sq Root Avg Sqd Difference		
Actual PDA Comparisons		Sample	Loving	Domin	Overall	Loving	Domin	Overall
HAH	Husband's expected disagreement	Total	-57 [a]	-37 [b]	-57 [a]	-61 [a]	-19	-56 [a]
	over actual husband performance	Comm	-44 [b]	-22	-39 [b]	-41 [b]	-11	-22
WAH	Wife's expected disagreement	Total	-79 [a]	-46 [a]	-77 [a]	-74 [a]	-43 [a]	-68 [a]
	over actual husband performance	Comm	-74 [a]	-29	-65 [a]	-53 [a]	-19	-42 [b]
HAW	Husband's expected disagreement	Total	-48 [a]	-16	-41 [a]	-36 [b]	-20	-31 [c]
	over actual wife performance	Comm	-50 [a]	-23	-43 [a]	-35 [c]	-22	-29
WAW	Wife's expected disagreement	Total	-72 [a]	-47 [a]	-68 [a]	-57 [a]	-41 [a]	-55 [a]
	over actual wife performance	Comm	-66 [a]	-36 [c]	-60 [a]	-39 [b]	-17	-33
Ideal PDA Comparisons								
HIH	Husband's expected disagreement	Total	-21	- 4	-16	-24	6	- 8
	over ideal husband expectations	Comm	-26	-21	-26	-22	- 2	- 8
WIH	Wife's expected disagreement	Total	-64 [a]	-59 [a]	-65 [a]	-48 [a]	-46 [a]	-53 [a]
	over ideal husband expectations	Comm	-58 [a]	-53 [a]	-60 [a]	-43 [b]	-46 [a]	-46 [a]
HIW	Husband's expected disagreement	Total	-22	-16	-21	-17	- 2	-15
	over ideal wife expectations	Comm	-25	-22	-26	-33 [c]	0	-23
WIW	Wife's expected disagreement	Total	-42 [a]	-20	-39 [b]	-33 [c]	-17	-29 [c]
	over ideal wife expectations	Comm	-46 [a]	-38 [c]	-48 [a]	-26	-28	-30 [c]

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

Tables 24 to 27 show.

Just as for the ideal disagreements, actual disagreements over the husbands' behavior related more to adjustment difficulties than did disagreements over wives' behavior. As Table 24 showed, actual interpersonal disagreement correlation coefficients were larger for the husband's role (IDA-AH) than for the wife's role (IDA-AW). The direction of difference measure for these same comparisons was only significant for the husband's role (IDA-AH) (Table 26) and especially when correlated against the wive's adjustment scores. The direction of the correlations confirm Hypothesis 15 for the husband's role only, since the less-adjusted the relationship, the more loving the husband rates himself relative to his wife. The wife is depreciating his loving ratings while he is enhancing them.

The same pattern appeared in the direction of perceived disagreement over actual behavior comparisons shown in Table 27. The less-adjusted the marriage, the more the husband sees his wife underrating his own loving and submissiveness (PDA-HAH). Similarly, the less-adjusted the marriage, the more the wife sees her husband underrating her own loving and submissiveness (PDA-WAW), while the husband sees her overrating her own loving and submissiveness. Thus the "depreciate spouse, enhance self" assumption of Hypothesis 14 is confirmed for the Total group. As usual the correlations are more significant on the Loving than the Dominance scale and for the wife than for the husband. The correlations were not significant for the Community group which suggests that this destructive pattern is exaggerated within the therapy cases.

The results on the disagreement comparisons are basically as hypothesized. As DAS declined, disagreements increased over actual

Table 26. Correlation Between Direction of Interpersonal Disagreement and Dyadic Adjustment

Actual IDA Comparisons		Person's DAS	Loving Scale Total	Loving Scale Community	Dominance Scale Total	Dominance Scale Community
AH	Disagreement over actual	Husb	-37 [b]	-18	21	6
	husband performance	Wife	-61 [a]	-39 [b]	35 [b]	22
AW	Disagreement over actual	Husb	13	2	-22	4
	wife performance	Wife	10	-27	-11	13
Ideal IDA Comparisons						
IH	Disagreement over ideal	Husb	-26	-12	2	- 7
	husband expectations	Wife	-19	-16	8	7
IW	Disagreement over ideal	Husb	- 9	- 9	5	13
	wife expectations	Wife	- 7	-12	4	16

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

Table 27. Correlation Between Direction of Perceived Disagreement and Dyadic Adjustment

Actual PDA Comparisons		Loving Scale		Dominance Scale	
		Total	Community	Total	Community
HAH	Husband's expected disagreement over actual husband performance	48 [a]	14	-29 [c]	-18
WAH	Wife's expected disagreement over actual husband performance	-65 [a]	-43 [b]	36 [b]	10
HAW	Husband's expected disagreement over actual wife performance	-33 [c]	-26	25	13
WAW	Wife's expected disagreement over actual wife performance	42 [a]	24	-38 [b]	-23
Ideal PDA Comparisons					
HIH	Husband's expected disagreement over ideal husband expectations	22	- 2	2	17
WIH	Wife's expected disagreement over ideal husband expectations	34 [b]	41 [b]	-36 [b]	-36 [c]
HIW	Husband's expected disagreement over ideal wife expectations	25	25	- 9	-32 [c]
WIW	Wife's expected disagreement over ideal wife expectations	-10	- 5	23	9

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

behavior but somewhat less over ideal expectations. Each partner tended to rate self higher and spouse lower than did the spouse. Disagreement about the husband's behavior seem to be more significantly related to marital difficulties than did disagreements about the wife's behavior.

Interpersonal Misunderstanding. Hypothesis 16 stated that the extent of interpersonal misunderstandings of actual ratings will increase as DAS decreases. It was confirmed on the Loving scale but not on the Dominance scale, as shown by Table 28. All actual misunderstanding comparisons were confirmed at the .001 level for the number of differences in the Total group on the Loving scale, but none of the corresponding comparisons reaches significance at the .01 level on the Dominance scale. So there was more misunderstanding in maladjusted couples on the Loving issues, and, in support of Hypothesis 18, there was no consistent direction to the husband's misunderstanding as shown in Table 29. There was, however, a consistent direction to the wives' misunderstandings. The lower their DAS, the more wives underestimated their husband's loving ratings of himself and especially of herself. This suggests that wives consistently perceived more hostility in their husbands than the husbands report. Unfortunately, the MPQ measures cannot determine whose ratings are most valid, but these results suggest that wives fake bad and/or husbands fake good, at the lower end of the adjustment scale. Hypothesis 17 suggested that ideal expectations would not be correlated with DAS on either the extent or the direction of misunderstanding. This hypothesis was confirmed for the extent of difference scale on the Dominance scale where only 1 of 8 measures reached significance, but it was disconfirmed on the Loving scale where all number of difference measures were significant for the Total group. So the less adjusted the marriage,

Table 28. Correlation Between Extent of Interpersonal Misunderstanding and Dyadic Adjustment

Actual IMA Comparisons		Sample	Number of Differences: Loving	Domin	Overall	Sq Root Avg Sqd Difference: Loving	Domin	Overall
HAH	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of him actually	Total	-61 [a]	-18	-57 [a]	-58 [a]	11	-34 [b]
		Comm	-50 [a]	- 7	-45 [b]	-44 [b]	15	-18
WAH	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of himself act.	Total	-41 [a]	14	-28 [c]	-46 [a]	26 [c]	-16
		Comm	-48 [a]	- 9	-39 [b]	-28	24	4
HAW	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of herself actually	Total	-53 [a]	-23	-49 [a]	-54 [a]	-23	-44 [a]
		Comm	-38 [c]	- 9	-29	-34 [c]	- 7	-19
WAW	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of her actually	Total	-39 [b]	3	-23	-33 [c]	- 1	-11
		Comm	-41 [b]	-11	-31 [c]	-24	-13	- 9
Ideal IMA Comparisons								
HIH	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of ideal husband	Total	-40 [a]	-15	-36 [b]	-40 [a]	2	-24
		Comm	-24	- 1	-17	-21	16	1
WIH	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of ideal husband	Total	-39 [b]	-21	-35 [b]	-44 [a]	- 1	-23
		Comm	-42 [b]	- 2	-33 [c]	-40 [b]	13	-13
HIW	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of ideal wife	Total	-43 [a]	-22	-38 [b]	-47 [a]	- 4	-27 [c]
		Comm	-33 [c]	- 1	-23	-39 [b]	22	- 8
WIW	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of ideal wife	Total	-29 [c]	-12	-26 [c]	-20	15	- 1
		Comm	-35 [c]	-12	-30 [c]	-21	13	- 1

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

Table 29. Correlation Between Direction of Interpersonal Misunderstanding and Dyadic Adjustment

Actual IMA Comparisons		Loving Scale		Dominance Scale	
		Total	Community	Total	Community
HAH	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of him actually	- 7	-10	3	- 5
WAH	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of himself actually	26 [c]	19	-16	-18
HAW	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of herself actually	- 7	-15	- 8	13
WAW	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of her actually	37 [b]	38 [b]	-20	-27
Ideal IMA Comparisons					
HIH	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of ideal husband	-11	-13	3	7
WIH	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of ideal husband	37 [b]	38 [c]	-36 [b]	-33 [c]
HIW	Husband's misunderstanding of wife's rating of ideal wife	7	10	0	-10
WIW	Wife's misunderstanding of husband's rating of ideal wife	3	15	15	- 8

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

the more the couple tended to misunderstand each other's loving ideals. Again the direction of this misunderstanding was significant only for the wive's misunderstanding of her husband's ideals. As marital adjustment decreased, the more wives underestimated their husband's ideal loving and the more they overestimated his ideal dominance. It has been previously shown that these wives expected their husbands to disagree over ideals by wanting to be more hostile and dominating. The results in this section reveal that this is the wife's projection and not an accurate understanding of their husbands real ratings. But since the MPQ does not determine which set of perceptions is valid, it could well be that the wives are correctly predicting their husband's true feelings at a private level, but their husbands are answering at a public level with what they think the socially desirable role of the husband would be.

To summarize all comparisons, it is safe to say that the extent of all actual differences--dissatisfaction, role differentiation, disagreement, and misunderstanding--increase significantly on the Loving scale with decreasing adjustment. The same pattern holds on the Dominance scale, but is less significant. The number of differences measure generally correlated slightly more with adjustment than did the square root of the averaged squared difference measure. With notable exceptions usually involving the wife's perception of the husband, ideal differences did not correlate substantially with adjustment, tending to confirm the assumption that people tend to share similar expectations about the ideal marriage regardless of their present DAS. The direction of differences scores almost always correspond to the "depreciate spouse, enhance self" pattern. To more fully examine the relationships between comparisons, the pattern indices will be discussed next.

Pattern Hypotheses.

Dissatisfaction Patterns. The dissatisfaction internalized/externalized pattern index (DSIEP) was designed to measure another aspect of the "attack spouse, defend self" hypothesis, whether a person was more dissatisfied than their spouse over a certain behavior. Hypothesis 19 which stated that a person's dissatisfaction with themselves would be more internalized in more adjusted marriages was only confirmed for the husband's behavior as Table 30 shows. The more externalized dissatisfaction the husband perceives (DSIEP-HPH) on both his loving and dominance behaviors, the more likely he is to rate his marriage as maladjusted. The wife also is more likely to rate her marriage as maladjusted if her husband is perceived as more dissatisfied with her than she herself is (DSIEP-WPW). As Table 30 shows externalized pressure on oneself (DSIEP-HPH and DSIEP-WPH) is more correlated with poor adjustment than externalized pressure on the spouse (DSIEP-HPW and DSIEP-WPH). Also more externalized pressure on the husband (DSIEP-IPH) is more correlated with poor adjustment than externalized pressure on the wife (DSIEP-IPW) which fits with earlier findings on the importance of the husband's role to marital adjustment. As usual the correlations are more significant for the Total than the Community group which suggests that the patterns are most pronounced in the therapy cases. What is unusual is that the correlations on these indices are more significant on the Dominance scale than on the Loving scale.

The last three indices (DSIEP-HPR, -IPR, -WPR) measure who should change most in the relationship. In the husband's eyes (DSIEP-HPR), the more unhappy the marriage, the more he is dissatisfied with his wife than himself which provides support for Hypothesis 20. The wives see things just the reverse (DSIEP-WPR), but the correlations for

Table 30. Correlations Between Dissatisfaction Internalized/Externalized Pattern Indices and Dyadic Adjustment

		Loving Scale		Dominance Scale		Overall Scale	
		Total	Comm.	Total	Domin.	Total	Comm.
Source of greatest dissatisfaction with husb							
HPH	Husband's perception of source	39 [b]	29	41 [a]	28	47 [a]	33 [c]
IPH	Interpersonal source Correl. H DAS	26 [c]	9	54 [a]	37 [c]	41 [a]	21
	Correl. W DAS	48 [a]	32 [c]	58 [a]	35 [c]	58 [a]	36 [c]
WPH	Wife's perception of source	31	10	21	12	40 [a]	16
Source of greatest dissatisfaction with wife							
HPW	Husband's perception of source	10	6	16	17	15	16
IPW	Interpersonal source Correl. H. DAS	1	4	8	10	10	17
	Correl. W DAS	-22	-27	- 9	-14	-14	-19
WPW	Wife's perception of source	22	7	34 [b]	26	37 [b]	23
Source of greatest dissatisfaction in relationship							
HPR	Husband's perception of source	27 [c]	13	45 [a]	28	45 [a]	32 [c]
IPR	Interpersonal source Correl. H DAS	17	2	34 [b]	20	26 [c]	7
	Correl. W DAS	45 [a]	33 [c]	40 [a]	21	49 [a]	33

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

them do not reach significance. Interpersonally (DSIEP-IPR), the less the husband wants to change relative to the wife, then the less adjusted the marriage which again emphasizes the importance of the husband's role.

Overall, Hypotheses 19 and 20 are only partially supported which suggests that the externalization of dissatisfaction is not as important as expected in marital adjustment. Inspection of the scatterplots suggests that one of the reasons the correlations were low for these pattern indices is because even normal couples engaged in substantial externalization.

Consensus Patterns. Hypothesis 21 which states that as marital adjustment increases, couples will be less aware of disagreements as measured by the understanding of disagreements pattern index (UNDAP) is significantly confirmed only for the wife's understanding of disagreements about actual behavior on both scales and for her understanding of disagreements about ideal dominance expectations for the husband. Only 1 of the husband's 16 measures reaches significance (UNDAP-HAH on Dominance) as Table 31 shows. This suggests that husbands in poorly-adjusted marriages were no more aware of disagreements in their relationship than were their well-adjusted counterparts. In contrast, wives in poorly-adjusted marriages were much more sensitive to and accurate in predicting disagreements than the wives in well-adjusted marriages. However, the reverse of this is also true, i.e. wives in maladjusted marriages were worse in predicting agreement than their well-adjusted counterparts.

On the understanding of agreement pattern index (UNAGP), it was the better adjusted couples who were the more accurate predictors. However this was only true for the Loving scale so Hypothesis 22 is only partially supported, and the correlations were more significant

Table 31. Correlations Between Consensus Pattern Indices and Dyadic Adjustment

			UNDAP Understand Disagreement			UNAGP Understand Agreement		
Understanding Actual Performance		Group	Loving	Domin	Overall	Loving	Domin	Overall
HAH	Husband's understanding of wife's actual ratings of him	Total	-20	-27 [c]	-34 [b]	44 [a]	14	46 [a]
		Comm.	- 3	-11	-11	44 [b]	14	44 [b]
WAH	Wife's understanding of husb's actual ratings of himself	Total	-69 [a]	-51 [a]	-74 [a]	44 [a]	9	46 [a]
		Comm.	-50 [a]	-35 [c]	-54 [a]	59 [a]	6	54 [a]
HAW	Husband's understanding of wife's actual ratings of herself	Total	-20	-13	-20	45 [a]	14	39 [b]
		Cinn	-28	-21	-28	35 [c]	17	32 [c]
WAW	Wife's understanding of husband's actual ratings of her	Total	-52 [a]	-39 [b]	-61 [a]	58 [a]	27 [c]	52 [a]
		Comm.	-46 [a]	-19	-49 [a]	55 [a]	20	51 [a]
Understanding Ideal Expectations								
HIH	Husband's understanding of wife's ideal husband	Total	8	4	11	27 [c]	6	27 [c]
		Comm	- 4	-15	7	19	2	22
WIH	Wife's understanding of husband's ideal husband	Total	-24	-44 [a]	-44 [a]	64 [a]	34 [b]	60 [a]
		Comm	-12	-48 [a]	-46 [a]	65 [a]	24	56 [a]
HIW	Husband's understanding of wife's ideal wife	Total	11	- 3	2	31 [c]	16	29 [c]
		Comm	- 3	-21	-16	23	0	20
WIW	Wife's understanding of husband's ideal wife	Total	-17	-19	-26 [c]	30 [c]	15	38 [b]
		Comm	- 7	-28	-27	37 [c]	28	52 [a]

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .0001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

for actual rather than ideal understandings. All couples predicted that they would agree more than they did. Since well-adjusted couples predicted more agreement, they had better chances of correctly predicting agreement. The reverse was true for the less-adjusted couples who had a better chance of identifying disagreement. In Scheff's (1967) terms, well-adjusted couples expected consensus which was often more of a false than true consensus, i.e. they expected their partner to agree when the partner did not. Poorly-adjusted couples expected dissensus but since they were so set to see it they often create a false dissensus, i.e. a disagreement in an area where the couple really agreed.

Favorability Patterns. Hypothesis 23 predicted that the "depreciate spouse, enhance self pattern" would be found on the favorably satisfied (FASTP) and favorably dissatisfied (FADSP) pattern indices. However, as Table 32 shows, only the depreciate part was confirmed. As expected the more adjusted the marriage, the more both the husbands (HPH) and the wives (WPW) perceived themselves being favorably rated by their spouses. So in the less-adjusted marriages, the partners each felt that they were unfavorably rated by their partners confirming the feeling of being depreciated by spouse.

However, the enhance self part of the hypothesis which predicted that the less-adjusted the marriage, the more the person was likely to see his/her partner inflating or rating himself/herself more favorably than they deserved was not confirmed. On the favorably dissatisfied (FADSP) pattern indices, none of the spouse ratings reached significance though the signs of the majority of the correlation coefficients were in the direction hypothesized. Inspection of the scattergrams for these variables revealed a general expectancy that spouses would rate themselves more favorably than the person themselves did,

Table 32. Correlations Between Favorability Pattern Indices and Dyadic Adjustment

Favorability Pattern Type		Group	FASTP Favorably Satisfied Pattern			FADSP Favorably Dissatisfied Pattern		
			Loving	Domin	Overall	Loving	Domin	Overall
HPH	Husband's view of how favorably wife rates him	Total	56 [a]	45 [a]	60 [a]	59 [a]	31 [c]	51 [a]
		Comm.	45 [b]	30 [c]	45 [b]	43 [b]	12	29
WPH	Wife's view of how favorably husb. rates himself	Total	44 [a]	36 [b]	61 [a]	-21	- 4	-19
		Comm.	36 [c]	17	45 [b]	- 7	2	- 3
HPW	Husband's view of how favorably wife rates herself	Total	41 [a]	1	33 [c]	10	-14	2
		Comm.	50 [a]	16	39 [b]	5	-18	- 8
WPW	Wife's view of how favorably husband rates her	Total	61 [a]	42 [a]	60 [a]	44 [a]	52 [a]	52 [a]
		Comm.	63 [a]	42 [b]	61 [a]	26	28	33

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

and as a result the significance of the correlations were reduced.

On the favorably satisfied (FASTP) pattern indices, adjusted couples--rather than maladjusted couples--tended to perceive their spouses rating themselves (-WPH, -HPW) more favorably which was contrary to Hypothesis 23. A problem here was the author's failure to understand the meaning of his indices. The positive correlations for these measures (FASTP-WPH, -HPW) simply mean that in issues where the person is satisfied with their partner, the well-adjusted couples expected partners to agree, while the less-adjusted couples expected partners to disagree. This finding is consistent with the basic hypothesis of this study that the more adjusted couples will perceive their relationship more favorably. Perceiving agreement is more favorable than perceiving disagreement. So the problem here was grouping together two pattern indices (FASTP and FADSP) which appeared similar but were not.

Complementary Need Patterns. The last of the pattern indices, the complementary need pattern indices (COMNP), reveal that as marital adjustment increased, both the husbands (-HWM) and the wives (-WHM) were more likely to see their spouses as a model of the kind of person they would like to ideally be. This result was most significant as usual on the Loving scale and for the Total group as Table 33 shows. It confirms part of Hypothesis 24 and means that the complementary need hypothesis holds more for adjusted than maladjusted couples. For the maladjusted couples the opposite is true, i.e. they see their spouses as models of what they don't want to be, further confirming the "depreciate spouse" hypothesis.

Just as with the favorability pattern (FADSP) indices, the "enhance self" part of the hypothesis was not significantly confirmed.

Table 33. Correlations Between Complementary Need Pattern Indices and Dyadic Adjustment

Complementary Need Type		Loving Scale		Dominance Scale		Overall Scale	
		Total	Comm.	Total	Comm.	Total	Comm.
HWM	Husband's view of wife as model for him	55 [a]	44 [b]	28 [c]	11	57 [a]	39 [b]
WWM	Wife's view of herself as model for husband	10	37 [b]	-18	-16	-11	- 7
HHM	Husband's view of himself as model for wife	- 3	3	-32 [c]	- 9	-27 [c]	-14
WHM	Wife's view of husband as model for herself	55 [a]	32 [c]	5	6	47 [a]	20

Note: All coefficients multiplied by 100

One-tailed level of significance [a] $p < .001$ [b] $p < .001$ [c] $p < .01$

Though the signs of the correlations for the self indices (COMLP - WWM, -HHM) were mainly in the expected direction for Hypothesis 24, they failed to reach significance, and in one case correlated significantly in the wrong direction. Inspection of the scatterplots revealed little variation in these measures with dyadic adjustment. This meant that everyone, regardless of their marital adjustment, tended to think of themself as a good model for their spouse. So what changes with marital adjustment according to these indices was not a person's impression of how good oneself was but rather how good one's spouse was. As has proven true throughout the results, the less adjusted the marriage, the more negatively one perceived their spouse.

Discussion

The findings strongly support the MPQ's validity as an instrument for assessing marital relationships. All major hypotheses were strongly confirmed usually at greater than the .0001 level of significance. As expected marital adjustment correlated positively with how loving and submissive the couple actually rated themselves and correlated negatively with how polarized their actual role relationship was, how dissatisfied they were with their actual performance in comparison to ideal expectations, and how much disagreement and misunderstanding there was between them. Marital adjustment also correlated negatively with patterns of perceiving the spouse as needing to change more than oneself, perceiving disagreements more accurately than agreements, perceiving the spouse rating oneself unfavorably, and perceiving the spouse as a poor model of one's own ideals. Three simple statements largely summarize these findings: (1) On the viewpoint level, maladjusted couples actually rated themselves less favorably than adjusted couples. (2) On the comparison level, the maladjusted couples perceived more differences of all types than did adjusted couples. (3) On the pattern level, the maladjusted couples expected more of a "depreciate spouse, enhance self" pattern of differences between comparisons than did adjusted couples.

When the hypotheses were not supported it was usually because conflicts within maladjusted couples were more intense than expected or because there was more conflict than anticipated within normal couples. An example of the first possibility is found in the results based on ideal expectations. Due to little prior research in this area, it was assumed that maladjusted couples would have "ideal" expec-

tations for marriage quite similar to those of more adjusted couples. Sometimes this was true. There were, for example, no significant correlations between husband's expectations of the ideal loving husband (H1IH) or the ideal loving wife (H1IW) and his dyadic adjustment, suggesting that the husbands generally held similar expectations of marriage regardless of their marital adjustment. The same pattern characterizes the husband on other basic measures. Neither ideal role differentiation (PRD-H1I), ideal perceived disagreements (PRD-HIH, PDA-HIW), the direction of ideal misunderstandings (IMA-HIH, IMA-HIW), nor ideal misunderstanding of disagreement patterns (UNDAP-HIH, UNDAP-HIW) were significantly correlated with husbands' dyadic adjustment score.

Maladjusted wives expected both their ideal husband (W1IH) and ideal wife (W1IW) to be less loving than did adjusted wives. They also expected a greater amount of ideal role differentiation (PRD-W1I) and ideal disagreement (PDA-WIH, PDA-WIW) than did adjusted wives. So rather than having the same high hopes for a loving, equal, and dissent-free marriage that most wives had, the maladjusted wives were more disillusioned or pessimistic and expected less from their "ideal marriage." A closer inspection of the results shows that they were even more disillusioned about their husband's "ideal" expectations. The more maladjusted the wife, the more she perceived her husband (W2IH) desiring to be less loving and more dominating than other husbands, the more she perceived him as desiring a polarized relationship (PRD-W2I) in which he hostiley dominated her, and the more she perceived him disagreeing with her ideals (PDA-WIH) by wanting to be less loving and submissive than she desired. Clearly the maladjusted wives perceived considerable conflict with their husbands over ideal expectations, especially over ideal expectations for the husband, and

these conflicts were related to their dyadic adjustment. So the null hypothesis that there were no differences in ideals was significantly rejected on many MPQ ideal measures. This provides further evidence of the MPQ's validity since its measures detected conflict that was not hypothesized.

The other major reason that the hypothesized relationships were not confirmed was because the adjusted and maladjusted couples showed the same tendencies in some sectors. The favorably dissatisfied pattern indices (FADSP) provide one example. It was found, as hypothesized, that the more maladjusted the couple, the more they perceived themselves to be rated unfavorably by their spouse (FADSP-HPH, FADSP-WPW). However, there was no significant relationship between the favorability of spouses' self ratings (FADSP-HPW, FADSP-WPH) and their adjustment. It had been hypothesized that couples would see their partner faking good more in more maladjusted relationships, and it was true that maladjusted couples viewed their mates as rating themselves more favorably than the person themselves did. But well adjusted couples perceived their mates doing the same thing and to about the same extent. A similar pattern is found in the compelmentary need pattern index where people in both the maladjusted and adjusted groups saw themselves (COMNP-WWM, COMNP-HHM) as good models for their mates. These findings suggest that the tendency for people to rate themselves somewhat more favorably than others is a rather characteristic human tendency. What changes with marital adjustment is not the tendency to enhance one's own self concept but mainly the tendency to depreciate the other person's self concept.

So the unconfirmed hypotheses did not seriously challenge

the MPQ's validity. If anything they tended to strengthen it by revealing conflicts which were not anticipated. As expected, the hypotheses were more significantly confirmed when correlations were calculated for the Total group (N = 80) than for the Community group (N = 60). However, the differences between these correlation coefficients were generally small, and almost all the results would remain essentially the same if the therapy group's data were excluded. Though the Therapy group could well be a biased and unrepresentative sample of married couples, it is unlikely that the Community group is because of the random sampling procedures used to obtain its couples. How much the results of this study will generalize to less educated couples who have been married longer remains an open question, but for the young, college educated couple the results appear valid.

There are two other trends in the data which were not hypothesized but which are consistent with previous studies of this type, providing additional and indirect support for the MPQ's validity. The first trend is that the Loving factor was related to marital adjustment more strongly than the Dominance factor on almost every MPQ measure. Three previous studies (Luckey, 1964; Kotlar, 1965; Fineberg and Lowman, 1975) have found the same pattern. This difference might be reduced if the construction of the MPQ Dominance scale were improved. It needs more items of higher reliability and better balance in terms of dominance and submission items. However, it is unlikely that deficits in the construction of the scale were solely responsible for this result since even the best items on the scale (take charge, give orders, expect way, unwilling to give in) correlate less significantly with Dyadic Adjustment than most Loving scale items, as shown in Tables 1 and 2 (pp. 22-24). Issues of loving just seem to be more

relevant to marital relationships than issues of dominance according to the findings of this and other studies.

As in earlier studies by Kirkpatrick and Hobart (1954), Levinger and Breedlove (1966), and Murstein and Beck (1972), this study found that intrapersonal differences were less than interpersonal differences. Specifically, couples at all levels of adjustment tended to perceive less disagreement on issues than really existed. As Table 34 shows, the number of interpersonal disagreements (IDA) on the Loving scale tended to be from 30% to 100% more than the couples perceived them (PDA) to be. Murstein and Beck have speculated that this is due to couple's tendency to overestimate their knowledge of their partners and to increased error variance in interpersonal perceptions. Table 34 also reveals that the best adjusted couples made the greatest overestimates of agreement. These couples seem to be idealizing their relationship, seeing it more harmonious than it really is. Though they also overestimated the number of agreements, maladjusted couples did it less than did the adjusted couples. This finding has already been revealed by the consensus pattern indices (UNDAP, UNAGP) which showed that the maladjusted couples more accurately predicted disagreements than the adjusted couples. This explains in part why misunderstanding is less correlated with Dyadic Adjustment than expected. By overestimating agreement, well-adjusted couples increase their misunderstanding scores which decreases the extent of variation on these measures which in turn tends to attenuate the correlations.

There are several other interesting trends in the data which have to do with the sex differences or the differences between husbands and wives. No hypotheses were generated about sex differences because

Table 34. Comparison of Mean Number of Perceived to Interpersonal Disagreements

		Group				
		High[a]	Comm.	Total	Therapy	Low[b]
	Number in group	28	60	80	20	28
	Average DAS	125.4	114.3	108.3	88.3	85.4
Actual Disagreement						
IDA-AH	Interpersonal	15	17	18	21	23
PDA-HAH	Husband Perceived	9	13	13	16	17
PDA-WAH	Wife Perceived	8	11	12	17	18
Ratio IDA:	Average PDA	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3
IDA-AW	Interpersonal	15	18	19	20	22
PDA-HAW	Husband Perceived	8	12	12	14	15
PDA-WAW	Wife Perceived	6	12	13	17	19
Ratio IDA:	Average PDA	2.1	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.3
Ideal Disagreement						
IDA-IH	Interpersonal	9	11	11	13	14
PDA-HIH	Husband Perceived	5	7	7	8	9
PDA-WIH	Wife Perceived	4	6	7	9	12
Ratio IDA:	Average PDA	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.3
IDA-IW	Interpersonal	9	11	12	14	16
PDA-HIW	Husband Perceived	6	8	8	9	9
PDA-WIW	Wife Perceived	4	6	6	8	10
Ratio IDA:	Average PDA	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.7

Note: All differences between IDA mean and PDA mean significant at greater than 0.10 level

[a] High group is upper 1/3 of total sample in terms of DAS

[b] Low group is lower 1/3 of total sample in terms of DAS

the results from previous studies tended to be contradictory suggesting that sample biases might account for much of these variations.

One very clear trend throughout the data is the finding that on almost all MPQ measures wives' perceptions correlated more highly with their dyadic adjustment scores than did husbands' perceptions. For example, in Table 18 (p. 131) the husbands' actual loving ratings only correlated on the average about .76 with their dyadic adjustment scores, while the wives' actual loving ratings correlated on the average .87 with their dyadic adjustment scores. Similarly, the husbands' ideal correlations averaged .27 while the wives' averaged .42 for the Total group. Though the amount of the difference varies, the direction of the difference (wife greater than husband) remains the same throughout all the MPQ measures. There are two possible explanations for this finding. The first is that the issues sampled by the MPQ were more relevant to marriage for the wives than the husbands. Since the MPQ is mainly measuring perceptions of loving, this line of reasoning leads to the conclusion that love is probably more important to wives than to husbands which seems plausible. Women have traditionally been more dependent on the marriage as a source of reward and fulfillment than men, who tended to depend on their jobs more for these needs. Since love is one of the major rewards of marriage, it is probably valued more by wives than husbands and as a result becomes more relevant for the wives. Other more impersonal factors such as finances and social standing which were not measured by the MPQ may share importance with love in the eyes of the husbands.

A second explanation is that wives are more sensitive to changes in the marital relationship, and as a result their ratings vary more which tends to increase the correlations for their perceptions.

Foa (1966) found that the wives had more differentiated pictures of their marriages than the husbands. The present findings also yield some support for this assumption. Inspection of the Dyadic Adjustment scores for husbands and wives reveals that at the well-adjusted end of the scale, wives tended to rate their marriages better than did their husbands. However, the reverse holds at the poorly-adjusted end, where wives rated their marriages worse than did their husbands. Furthermore differences between DAS scores of husbands and wives correlated -.31 ($p < .003$) with their average adjustment score. So wives are differentiating more on the Dyadic Adjustment scale than their husband's are.

If marital issues such as loving are more important to wives than husbands, then it is likely that the wives will be more sensitive to changes in these issues, making both explanations plausible and related. A corollary of this line of reasoning developed by Murstein (1970) is that the husband's role is likely to be more important in determining the development of a couple's relationship than is the wife's. His study with Beck (1972) provided support for this view since correlations with marital adjustment were higher when the husband was the person perceived. The same result has been found by Kelly (1941), Luckey (1960a), Kotlar (1965), Taylor (1967), and Rae and Drewery (1972). It is replicated on the actual disagreement comparisons in this study. As Tables 24-27 (pp. 143-148) show, correlations between Dyadic Adjustment and both the direction and extent of both the perceived (PDA) and interpersonal (IDA) disagreement comparisons were greater for the husband's role than for the wife's role on both loving and dominance scales. This suggests that disagreements over how the husband behaves contribute more to marital maladjustment

than do disagreements over how the wife behaves. Correlations between dyadic adjustment and the dissatisfaction internalized/externalized pattern indices (DSIEP) were also highest when the husband was the target of the perception, as shown in Table 30. These indices show that the husband was the one being pressured to change in less adjusted marriages and that the less he wanted to change himself (i.e. the more the external pressure from his wife), the less adjusted the marriage was.

Thus, this study replicated most of the major findings of previous research in the field of marital perceptions. The purpose of this dissertation was not to replicate previous studies but rather to evaluate a new approach to the assessment of marital relationships. The replication only provides evidence of the validity of the SAPIR approach. The real aim of the research was to see if this approach could provide more information about a couples relationship than previous methods. The answer clearly seems to be that it does.

The major characteristic distinguishing the SAPIR approach from other methods such as Laing et al. (1966) and Alperson's (1975a) is comprehensiveness. Because of comprehensiveness, the results from this study can be used to **discover which perceptual variables seem most promising as predictors of marital adjustment.**

The best predictors in this study were actual viewpoint ratings on the loving scale, and the best single predictor for both husbands and wives was the person's estimate of how loving their spouse actually rated them (H2AH and W2AW). However, this method of analysis has been completely neglected in the research of Laing et al. (1966), Alperson (1975a), and Murstein and Beck (1972) who focus exclusively on the comparison method of analysis. Cronbach (1958) warned that

before analyzing the differences between ratings it was best to analyze the ratings themselves to see if they did not yield the same results much more simply. The MPQ results substantiate his contention that simpler measures predict better. The average viewpoint correlation for actual loving ratings is about .82, while similar correlations for the comparisons range from .74 to .48, and from .51 to .25 for the pattern indices. So by neglecting to analyze their data at the viewpoint level, researchers may ignore the most relevant information about a couple's relationship.

One of the possible reasons why Laing and other researchers neglect viewpoint analysis is that it requires more psychometric effort. Ratings of issues must be factor analyzed and reliable scales constructed. It is much easier to just select a series of interesting issues and add up the extent of difference scores for each to obtain an overall or global difference score. However, this practice was also criticized by Cronbach for overlooking the possibility that different factors might behave differently on comparisons. The MPQ results again support Cronbach and call into question Laing's methodology. The MPQ calculated the extent of differences for all comparisons on both the Loving and Dominance scales separately and then on an overall scale which added up differences on all 63 issues. A comparison of these three measures in Tables 20, 22, 24, 25, and 28 reveals that the correlations are almost always higher on Loving than on Dominance and that the Loving correlations tended to equal or exceed those for the overall or global scale (these measures correlated,on the average, about .9). This suggests, first of all, that Loving differences do not have the same significance as Dominance differences as suggested by Cronbach. Secondly, it suggests that the

difference score on a modest number of related issues (33 on Loving scale) of high relevance predicts better than the difference scores derived from more unrelated issues (63 for overall index) of varying relevance. This finding and the previous one strongly suggest the worthiness of devising scales composed of relevant issues.

Another apparent shortcoming of Laing's and Alperson's approaches is their focus on only agreement comparisons as the key to understanding marital relationships. While the MPQ results show that disagreements (PDA and IDA) and misunderstandings (IMA) are significantly related to marital adjustment, they also show that dissatisfaction (PSD) and role differentiation (PRD) are even more strongly related to marital adjustment. These comparisons correlated on the average about .69 with dyadic adjustment while the interpersonal disagreement and misunderstanding comparisons correlated on the average only about .57 and .48 respectively. This means that Laing is neglecting to investigate some highly relevant comparisons, one of which (the perceived role differentiation) is easily obtained from the data which he typically gathers. It also suggests that the effort expended in obtaining the reflected ("meta-meta") perspective in his instrument could be more productively expended in obtaining couple's expectations of their ideal marriage.

Another difference between Laing's methodology and the present SAPIR approach is the difference between scales which are true-false versus five or more points. As mentioned in the theoretical development section, Alperson (1975b) has expressed a reluctance to abandon the true-false rating scale because of possible scoring difficulties. No such problems were encountered in this study. If anything, the numerical rating scale simplified computer scoring programs and yielded more information about the extent and direction

of differences. One of the criticisms Cronbach made of earlier methods of difference analysis was that the direction of the difference was lost in the scoring procedures, just as in Laing and Alperson's methodologies. This can be a significant loss as the results of this study demonstrate. For example, the direction of perceived dissatisfaction links more significantly to dyadic adjustment than does the extent of dissatisfaction. In fact, these measures were the second best set of adjustment predictors on the MPQ. Furthermore, the important finding that people in maladjusted marriages expect their self-ratings to be depreciated by their spouse would not have been discovered without the numerical rating scale. Also, the pattern indices results would have been precluded. Clearly the five-point rating scale is a worthwhile methodological improvement in this field of research.

One way in which Laing and Alperson's procedures proved adequate as the refinement introduced in the SAPIR approach was in measuring the extent of differences. Laing and Alperson use a very simple procedure of counting the number of issues on which differences occured. Because differences have a numerical value in the SAPIR approach, the MPQ also calculated the square root of the average squared difference for every comparison, the procedure recommended most highly by Cronbach and Gleser (1953). However, as an inspection of the extent of difference results in Tables 20, 22, 24, 25, and 28 reveals that both measures consistently correlate almost the same with Dyadic Adjustment. In fact these measures correlate with each other on the average about .8. The only area in which there are noticeable disparities in the correlations for these two measures is on the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons (Table 2) where the number of difference correlations averaged .69 in comparison to an

average of .78 for the square root of the averaged squared difference. Since the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons had larger differences than any other comparison, it is possible that the squared difference procedure may be more discriminating than the number of difference procedure when the extent of the difference per issue becomes large.

The comparison of the SAPIR approach procedures with those used by Laing and Alperson was only possible because of the MPQ's comprehensive scoring procedures. Overall, the claims made about the SAPIR approach have been substantiated. It provides more information about the couple than the approaches used by Laing and Alperson. The information it obtains is more relevant to the couple's marital adjustment, and its scoring procedures avoid more of the pitfalls of which Cronbach warned.

Another major advantage of the MPQ's comprehensiveness is that it makes it possible to investigate relationships among various perceptual measures. Previous studies have only explored a couple of relationships at a time. Hawkins and Johnsen (1969), for example, explored the relationship between perceived dissatisfaction and perceived disagreement, and Corsini (1956) investigated the relationship between misunderstanding and similarity. On the MPQ it is possible to explore both of these interrelationships plus many more all at once.

It has been clear from the outset that all the MPQ's myriad measures are highly interdependent since they are all derived from the same 16 viewpoint ratings. A change in one measure will cause corresponding changes in other measures, producing what Cronbach calls "artificial linkages" between variables. In the SAPIR approach these linkages are not viewed as statistical problems which must be

controlled for, as researchers were trying to do when Cronbach wrote his critique. Then, researchers were trying to partial the effect of similarity out of misunderstanding measures to obtain "true" measures of misunderstanding. As Cronbach pointed out, the resulting statistics tended to be meaningless. The SAPIR approach begins with the tenet that these linkages should be explored rather than eliminated. It is attempting to understand how all these perceptual measures function together to create the perceptual gestalt symbolized in Figure 9 (p. 65).

One way of exploring these relationships is to intercorrelate the resulting scores. The matrix generated by the husband's 20 basic perceptual measures--actual viewpoint ratings, role differentiation, dissatisfaction, disagreement, and misunderstanding comparisons--on the Loving scale is shown in Table 35. Table 36 is the corresponding correlation matrix of the wives' basic perceptual measures. Table 35 shows that the more loving a husband rated his wife (HlAW), the more loving he rated himself (HlAH), the more satisfied he was with both himself (PDS-HlH) and his wife (PDS-HlW), the more he perceived himself to be similar to his wife (PRD-HlA), and the more he expected his wife to actually agree with him (PDA-HAH and PDA-HAW). This illustrates how all the basic measures tend to change together. An improvement on one tends to bring an improvement on all.

An even better way to illustrate how all the measures tend to change together is with multiple regression techniques. The SPSS stepwise-multiple regression program was used to analyze 20 different combinations of MPQ variables to determine which ones best predicted the person's Dyadic Adjustment Score. The variables listed in Tables 35 and 36 were the best overall predictors. As the summary statistics

Table 35. Correlation Matrix of Husband's Basic MPQ Measures on Loving Scale

	H2AH	H1AW	H2AW	PRD H1A	PRD H2A	PRD H1I	PRD H2I	PDS H1H	PDS H2H	PDS H1W	PDS H2W	PDA HAH	PDA HIH	IMA HAH	IMA HIH	PDA HAW	PDA HIW	IMA HAW	IMA HIW	Husb DAS
H1AH	90	89	84	-35	19	- 8	-21	-84	-75	-71	-63	32	7	17	9	-31	17	15	28	75
H2AH		89	88	-50	33	-14	-10	-77	-88	-73	-74	71	11	27	7	-21	7	18	20	79
H1AW			93	-74	0	- 8	-24	-82	-78	-89	-77	49	16	9	1	-39	27	14	19	79
H2AW				-66	-16	- 8	-23	-73	-79	-80	-87	54	4	15	2	- 2	15	29	19	72
PRD-H1A					28	4	17	44	51	78	65	-52	-22	6	11	33	-31	- 7	1	-50
PRD-H2A						-13	26	-16	-26	7	20	39	15	26	10	-40	-15	-21	5	20
PRD-H1I							- 7	13	2	-16	- 3	-17	-46	-11	-26	0	37	3	-23	-14
PRD-H2I								29	26	30	11	13	32	7	35	6	-51	- 4	-16	-20
PDS-H1H									82	85	71	-32	-20	- 8	22	39	-31	2	5	-73
PDS-H2H										79	85	-69	15	-23	32	15	- 4	-14	14	-70
PDS-H1W											80	-43	-12	0	27	43	-46	- 3	10	-70
PDS-H2W												-57	15	-12	29	- 8	3	-25	22	-58
PDA-HAH													12	30	1	4	-11	14	- 1	48
PDA-HIH														- 3	45	-33	36	-21	27	22
IMA-HAH															23	13	-17	68	22	- 7
IMA-HIH																2	- 4	26	82	-11
PDA-HAW																	-35	35	- 5	-33
PDA-HIW																		-15	20	25
IMA-HAW																			33	- 7
IMA-HIW																				7

Note: Correlation coefficients all multiplied by 100 to eliminate decimal

Table 36. Correlation Matrix of Wife's Basic Measures on Loving Scale

	W1AH	W2AW	W1AW	PRD W2A	PRD W1A	PRD W2I	PRD W1I	PDS W2H	PDS W1H	PDS W2W	PDS W1W	PDA WAH	PDA WIH	IMA WAH	IMA WIH	PDA WAW	PDA WIW	IMA WAW	IMA WIW	Wife DAS
W2AH	92	86	82	-26	38	57	25	-83	-83	-75	-76	-32	42	52	41	45	8	42	10	79
W1AH		94	89	-52	40	63	22	-74	-94	-86	-86	-67	41	37	39	47	- 4	44	6	89
W2AW			93	-72	19	56	18	-74	-88	-95	-91	-63	31	26	32	56	-12	46	2	91
W1AW				-64	- 5	52	8	-66	-81	-86	-94	-60	28	24	40	21	-18	36	11	88
PRD-W2A					15	-29	0	27	54	78	68	75	- 2	23	- 6	-44	33	-29	11	- 63
PRD-W1A						34	33	-32	-44	-18	1	-26	33	34	5	62	29	26	- 8	20
PRD-W2I							20	-25	-61	-56	-52	-46	67	29	55	31	-14	29	18	57
PRD-W1I								-15	- 8	-14	-11	- 7	-16	9	14	28	28	. 3	7	15
PDS-W2H									78	76	72	24	- 8	-44	2	-48	8	-35	27	-65
PDS-W1H										89	88	70	-49	-32	-23	-52	0	-44	12	-85
PDS-W2W											91	67	-23	-19	-17	-59	26	-43	16	-86
PDS-W1H												64	-32	-18	-25	-28	11	-35	7	-86
PDA-WAH													-19	9	-18	-30	23	-27	3	-65
PDA-WIH														24	43	20	45	25	20	. 34
IMA-WAH															42	15	4	65	29	26
IMA-WIH																- 4	3	29	82	37
PDA-WAW																	10	42	-20	42
PDA-WIW																		2	11	-10
IMA-WAW																			15	37
IMA-WIW																				3

Note: Correlation coefficients all multiplied by 100 to eliminate decimal

from these regressions listed in Table 37 show, it is possible to predict most of the variance in Dyadic Adjustment scores (84% of wives', 77% of husbands') with just three variables for the wife and with six variables for the husband.

Even though they are redundant to a considerable degree, it is worthwhile to calculate all the MPQ measures because taken together they provide a much more complete picture of a couple's unique relationship. This became clear to the author in his efforts to interpret the interaction of the Therapy couples for their therapists. It is even apparent in the regression results just presented. While it is true that most of the variance in a person's Dyadic Adjustment score can be simply predicted from his/her actual loving ratings without even calculating any comparison or pattern indices, it is also true that the addition of these other indices both improves the predictions and more clearly reveals what is happening in the relationship. The results in Table 37 suggest that husbands' and wives' dyadic adjustment may be determined differently. How loving her marital relationship is seems to be most important to the wives. The more unloving they felt they were rated (W2AW), the more unloving they rated their husbands (W1AH) and the more dissatisfied they were with their own lack of loving (PDS-W1W), then the more maladjusted the wives felt their marriages were. Though how loving they were rated by their wives (H2AH) was also most important to husbands, the rest of their predictors of marital adjustment were very different. The more husbands minimize or discount their wives' criticisms of husbands' lovingness (IMA-HAH), then the more maladjusted the husbands' marriages are. This suggests a defensiveness in these men. These maladjusted husbands also expected their wives to want to be less loving than the husbands

Table 37. Prediction of Dyadic Adjustment by Multiple Regression with MPQ Measures

Husband Basis MPQ Measures on Loving Scale

Step	Variable Entered	F to Enter	F Signif.	Multiple R	R Square	R Sqr Change
1	H2AH	126.53	0	.787	.619	.619
2	IMA-HAH	22.29	.000	.839	.704	.087
3	PDA-HIW	5.53	.021	.851	.724	.020
4	PRD-H1I	3.94	.051	.859	.738	.013
5	IMA-HIH	6.16	.015	.871	.758	.020
6	PDS-H2H	5.43	.023	.880	.775	.017
7	IMA-HAW	.67	.415	.881	.777	.002
8	PDA-HAW	.87	.354	.883	.780	.003
9	PRD-H2I	.57	.453	.884	.782	.002
10	PRD-H1A	.52	.474	.885	.783	.002

Wife Basic MPQ Measures on Loving Scale

Step	Variable Entered	F to Enter	F Signif.	Multiple R	R Square	R Sqr Change
1	W2AW	356.68	0	.906	.821	.821
2	W1AH	7.58	.007	.915	.837	.016
3	PDS-W1W	3.23	.076	.918	.843	.007
4	PDS-W2H	2.33	.131	.920	.848	.005
5	IMA-WAW	.68	.411	.922	.849	.001
6	IMA-WAH	1.56	.216	.923	.853	.003
7	PDA-WAH	1.28	.262	.925	.855	.003
8	IMA-WIW	.59	.446	.925	.846	.001
9	IMA-WIH	2.02	.160	.928	.860	.004
10	PDS-W2W	1.70	.197	.929	.864	.003
11	PDA-WIH	.29	.593	.930	.864	.000

ideally desire (PDA-H1W), felt that they had to be the more loving partner in an ideal relationship (PRD-H1I), overestimated how loving their wives expected them to be ideally (IMA-H1H), and sensed that their wives were quite dissatisfied with them (PDS-H2H). These findings suggest that these men are trying to appease what they perceived to be a rather cold and critical wife.

Taken together, the results suggest that the maladjusted marriages in this study could be described as ones in which the wives are dissatisfied with the lack of loving and are drawing attention to it. The husbands are upset by these criticisms, which they tend to minimize or ignore, but they also perceive themselves trying to appease hostile wives. Other MPQ indices provide additional support for this "critical wife, appeasing husband" interpretation. The therapy wives were most sensitive to disagreements according to the understanding disagreement pattern indices (UNDAP in Table 31) and most likely to overestimate hostility according to the misunderstanding comparisons in Table 28. The husbands in these maladjusted relationships clearly perceive themselves as the more loving and submissive partner (PRD-H1A in Table 21) who was being pressured to change by his wife (DSIEP in Table 30).

Besides illuminating some of the strife in maladjusted marriages, this pattern suggests that there may be a sample bias especially in the Therapy group. All but three husbands in this group portrayed themselves as more loving and submissive than their wives on the direction of perceived role differentiation comparisons (PRD-H1A in Table 21), and in over half of these husbands the extent of the difference was much greater than it was for the more normally adjusted Community husbands. Though their wives dis-

agree with this perception, the other indicators of appeasing behavior previously discussed make it likely that there is a disproportionately large number of lovingly submissive husbands in the Therapy group. Since the traditional marital relationship is a more hostile, dominant husband, and since a study by Pickford, Signori, and Rempel (1966b) found this pattern was even more pronounced in divorcing couples, it is strange that there were not more hostile, dominating husbands in this study.

The simplest explanation of this finding is that the hostile, dominate males refuse more often than loving, submissive males to go into therapy or to participate in studies of their marriages. Therapists have observed that males are more reluctant to seek counseling and more difficult to engage in couple therapy. The researcher also found that males were more likely than females to refuse participation in this study. A hostile, dominant male is in a stronger position to refuse participation than a more passive, appeasing male, so this is one plausible explanation of why the study found the pattern of critical wife and appeasing husband running through the maladjusted couples results.

An alternative explanation is that the reversal of the traditional husband dominant role relationship creates more role strain which leads to more maladjusted marriages. The finding that both husbands and wives in the Therapy group were very dissatisfied with the wives' dominance provides some support for this alternative (Table 23). The data in this study cannot determine which explanation (or both) is correct. What the MPQ does is reveal a pattern which may be a problem in other studies of marriage.

This capacity to illuminate marital patterns is the strength

of the SAPIR approach. Most of the findings in this study are not that new. As the references cited in the hypothesis section demonstrate, it has already been fairly well established that less-adjusted marriages are characterized by more hostility, more role differentiation, more dissatisfaction, more disagreement, and more misunderstanding. The MPQ has shown that all these characteristics are highly interrelated, which has long been assumed but has never been empirically substantiated as clearly as it has been in this study. The MPQ also yielded some important new findings. As mentioned in the hypotheses section, marriage counselors have observed and written about the destructive pattern of depreciating the spouse while defending oneself from the spouse's depreciation which seems so pervasive in disintegrating relationships, but there is almost no empirical verification of this observation in the marriage literature.

Because the MPQ analyzes the direction of difference scores and the patterns of differences, it was able to provide strong support for the "depreciate spouse, enhance self" hypothesis. The direction of perceived role differentiation comparisons (Table 21) show that in maladjusted marriages both the husbands and wives perceived themselves as the more loving spouse, but they expected their spouse to see it just the reverse. Each depreciated the other's loving and expecting depreciation in return. This conflict spilled over into the ideal expectations where each expect the spouse to want to be the less loving partner in the relationship which is equivalent to expecting an unfair demand by the spouse.

The same pattern was observed in the actual perceived disagreement comparisons (Table 27). In the less adjusted marriages, the husband expected his wife to underrate his loving (depreciated

by spouse) while the wife expected her husband to underrate her loving (depreciated by spouse), while the husband expected her to overrate her loving (enhance self). The favorability pattern indices (Table 32) provide a slightly different measurement of the same phenomena but end up with the same basic result. The more maladjusted the marriage, the more unfavorably the person felt they were rated by their spouse (depreciated by spouse). The same pattern emerges in the complementary need pattern indices (Table 33) where the more maladjusted the marriage, the less one saw the spouse as a model of one's ideal expectations (depreciate spouse).

The dissatisfaction internalized/externalized pattern indices (DSIEP is Table 30) are a final area in which this pattern becomes evident. In the more maladjusted marriages, each person was more dissatisfied with their partner than they were with themselves. Each person felt forced to change by their spouse (spouse > self dissatisfaction) and felt like they are having to force their spouse to change (self > spouse dissatisfaction). So the "depreciate spouse, enhance self" hypothesis was consistently supported throughout the MPQ. Now that the MPQ procedures have shown how to measure patterns of perceptual differences, the way has been marked out for future replication of this important finding.

Before any replications are attempted it is obvious that the MPQ needs some psychometric refinements. Since the validity and usefulness of the SAPIR approach have been established in this study, the effort expended in improving the MPQ should be profitable. The revised MPQ should have fewer issues so that the administration time will not be as long. Some of the participants in this study complained about the tests length and some therapists were reluctant to use it for the same

reason.

A second needed revision is issues with a more balanced factor structure. The Dominance scale needs to be made more equivalent in length to the Loving scale. In particular it needs some better submissive issues as Table 2 makes clear. It should also be more orthogonal to the Loving scale. One possible way to proceed is to basis the next revision on Benjamin's (1974) model of social behavior which has been designed to elicit interpersonal perceptions on issues which are relevant to marital and family interaction. Because of the effort she has already expended in refining her items they seem to have the type of circumplex structure which was originally envisioned for the MPQ. Another advantage of Benjamin's model is that it contains a third dimension, interdependence, which this author tried unsuccessfully to measure using the residual items of the MPQ. Benjamin has conceptualized this third dimension in a way that is more relevant to marital and family interaction than this author's conceptualization which was based on Bales (1970) group interaction model. Addition of this third dimension should make it possible to explore conflicts in individuation which are important in marital dynamics according to Benjamin, Bowen (1960), and Satir (1967).

The scoring procedures used on the MPQ presented no major problems. In retrospect, the author would like to include a few more comparisons such as the interpersonal self differentiation (ISD) comparisons which have been studied in a number of other studies (Pickford, Signori, and Rempel, 1966a; Preston, Peltz, Mudd, and Froscher, 1952; Byrne and Blaylock, 1963; Corsini, 1956; Dymond, 1954; Hurley and Silvert, 1966; and Stuckert, 1963).

Once a better set of issues has been developed for the MPQ,

then normative data needs to be collected on it. At the present time the Community group results are used to provide a norm of comparison when interpreting the printout of a therapy case for the counselor, but this is clearly an inadequate reference group. Data on the MPQ measures needs to be collected over the whole family life cycle rather than just in its first phases, and the normative couples need to represent a wider socioeconomic range than the college educated sample which was studied here.

The validity of this SAPIR approach should also be checked against more behavioral criterion. By choosing issues which can be coded by observers, it should be possible and interesting to compare the couple's perceptions of each other with therapist ratings of their interaction or with observers' ratings of their behavior in experimental situations. The author was originally trying to do this in the present study but found it to be too large a task. Now that the MPQ scoring procedures have been worked out and once the items on the MPQ are refined, this type of study would be more feasible.

If future studies show the same kind of highly significant results found in this study, then there are a large number of potential applications for this type of questionnaire. The most obvious one and the one that this instrument was designed for is to assess the nature of a couple's relationship. It could be used by therapists either as a screening or an outcome instrument. Since its measures point out issues where there is interpersonal conflict, the couple's responses on these issues could be presented to them and used as a base from which to begin exploring in therapy how they perceive and understand their relationship. Much of the present research on couple communication and interaction uses a revealed difference procedure to

trigger discussions. The MPQ data could easily be used in this way to introduce more personally relevant topics than those which are usually used such as differences in color matchings, etc.

Besides clinical applications, the SAPIR approach could be used to experimentally study the perceptions of different types of married couples. Because its measures provide a more differentiated and comprehensive picture of how the couples perceive each other, it should be able to detect more subtle patterns than other instruments presently being used. It would be interesting, for example, to find out how the pattern of sex differences in a group of older and more traditional couples compared to the pattern in a group of young couples advocating a more egolitarian relationship.

A final application of the SAPIR approach would be in studying the processes of perception themselves. Since it so comprehensively measures a person's perceptual field it might be used to study how that field changes as new and discrepant information is introduced. For example, what would be the effect on perceptions of similarity and dissatisfaction if a person was told that their partner disagreed with them on an issue where agreement had been presumed.

Conclusion

The results of this study lead to six major conclusions about the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire and its SAPIR foundation.

First, the SAPIR approach appears valid, for almost all of the MPQ measures derived from it behave just as expected. As marital adjustment decreased, the couple perceived themselves as more hostile and dominating and expected less love in their ideal marriage than did adjusted couples. They saw each other as more different or dissimilar, and each tended to think that it was their spouse who was the less loving partner. Their dissatisfaction grew as they fell farther and farther below their ideal expectations, especially their dissatisfaction with their spouse. They became more sensitive to and perceived more disagreements arising between them and expected that the partner would rate them more unfavorably than they deserved. Finally, they misunderstood each other more than did adjusted couples. Most of these findings are not new, but what is new is having them all so significantly confirmed in a single study.

Thus, the second conclusion about the MPQ is that it provides a more comprehensive and detailed picture of marital relationships than previous instruments. It not only replicated most of the previous research findings in the field of marital perceptions but went on to measure aspects of the marital relationship which had not been researched before such as the externalization of dissatisfaction and the type of consensus.

Because of its comprehensiveness, the MPQ is able to more sensitively detect and more clearly illuminate relationship patterns. In particular it provided some of the first empirical evidence to support the observation of marital therapists that less adjusted

marriages are characterized by destructive patterns of feeling that one's self concept is being unfairly depreciated by the spouse which leads to a defending of one's self concept and a depreciating of the spouse's. This pattern was significantly revealed on several of the MPQ's indices. A pattern of sex differences was also detected which suggested that the sample being studied contained a disproportionately large number of submissive husbands in the maladjusted group who were trying to both appease and blunt the criticisms of their hostile, dominating wives who were dissatisfied with the lack of love in their marriages.

The fourth conclusion is that the MPQ is methodologically more sophisticated than the instruments used by Laing and Alperson which inspired the SAPIR approach. The viewpoint ratings, not measured in Laing's IPM, proved to be some of the best predictors of Dyadic Adjustment which confirms the wisdom of Cronbach's advice to group issues into factor analytically determined scales and then to analyze the ratings on these scales before proceeding to an analysis of difference scores. As Cronbach predicted, the MPQ's scale scores were more revealing than the global indices used by Laing. By using a 5-point rating scale instead of the true-false scale, the MPQ was able to determine not only the extent but also the direction of differences, and the direction of difference on the perceived dissatisfaction comparisons proved to be more significant predictors of adjustment than the extent of difference scores used by Laing. Finally, the perceived dissatisfaction and perceived role differentiation comparisons calculated on the MPQ proved to be better predictors than the disagreement and misunderstanding comparisons emphasized in Laing's work.

The results just mentioned plus the results of multiple regressions show that the MPQ seems to be a good predictor of marital adjustment since its measures account for over 75% of the variance on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. This leads to the final conclusion that the MPQ does have promise as an instrument for assessing marital relationships and is worth the effort which would be required to psychometrically refine it.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE MARITAL PERCEPTIONS STUDY

(For Community Couples)

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY:

Previous research has shown that certain types of behavior seem important in determining how married couples feel about each other and their marriage. In this study we are interested in determining how a wider variety of American couples view these ways of relating. By participating in this study you are helping us better understand what patterns of behavior characterize present day marriages.

PROCEDURES

In this study you will be filling out four forms. The first is a Research Consent Form which explains to you your rights as a participant in this scientific study. Secondly, there is a Participant Information Form which asks you for some basic background information needed to determine what kind of couples participated in the study. For example, whether the group of couples is younger or older than the national average. Next is the Dyadic Adjustment Scale which helps us understand in a general sort of way how you view and feel about your marriage. These forms are short and most people can fill them out in about 15 minutes. The final form is the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire which asks you more specifically how you view certain aspects of your marriage. This is a longer form which requires about two 45 minute sessions to complete. It looks longer than it is because it is spread out over a number of pages to make marking the answer sheet easier. We ask that you fill it out during a time when you will not

be interrupted and will be able to complete a full half of the test. Since the test is long we suggest you take a short break before you complete the last half of the test.

In this study it is important that each partner gives an honest and independent opinion. Therefore we will only be giving this packet to one of you at a time. After one partner has completed and returned the forms, the other partner will be given a similar packet. Until both of you have finished and returned the packets we ask that you not discuss either the materials or your answers with each other. If you have questions about the instructions, please call Glenn Veenstra. At the end of your participation in the study you are free to not only discuss the materials with each other but also to receive additional explanations of the study from the experimenter. To keep your answers independent and confidential, we ask you to seal the materials in the envelope when finished. To preserve confidentiality all materials will be analyzed only by code number. Neither you or your spouse will be able to learn of each other's answers.

PARTICIPATION PAYMENT:

Because participation in this study will require some time and effort, we feel it is only fair to compensate you. All couples participating in the study will be paid $4.00. This $4.00 will be paid at the end of the study if the following conditions are fulfilled:

1. Both partners have completely filled out and returned all their forms.

2. Both partners have answered independently and sincerely. By comparison with previous computer analyses of the response patterns we can determine whether one person has answered both sets of ques-

tionnaires or whether a person has just randomly filled in the blanks on the answer sheets. If any of these things occur it destroys the value of your results and so the participant payment will not be made.

EXPERIMENTER INFORMATION:

If you have any questions concerning the study call:

Glenn Veenstra--Project Coordinator

Office phone: 355-9564 (MSU Psychological Clinic)

Home phone: 393:5977

If you have any question concerning his actions, call the project's faculty supervisor:

Dr. John Hurley

Office phone: 355-4615 (MSU Psychological Department)

APPENDIX B

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE MARITAL PERCEPTIONS STUDY

(For Therapy Couples)

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY:

Previous research has shown that certain types of behavior seem important in determining how married couples feel about each other and their marriage. In this study we are interested in determining how a wider variety of American couples view these ways of relating. By participating in this study you are helping us better understand what patterns of behavior characterize present day marriages.

PROCEDURES:

In this study you will be filling out four forms. The first is a Research Consent Form which explains to you your rights as a participant in this scientific study. Secondly there is a Participant Information Form which asks you for some basic background information needed to determine what kind of couples participated in the study. For example, whether the group of couples is younger or older than the national average. Next is the Dyadic Adjustment Scale which helps us understand in a general sort of way how you view and feel about your marriage. These forms are short and most people can fill them out in about 15 minutes. The final form is the Marital Perceptions Questionnaire which asks you more specifically how you view certain aspects of your marriage. This is a longer form which requires about two 45 minute sessions to complete. It looks longer than it is because it is spread out over a number of pages to make marking the answer sheet

easier. We ask that you fill it out during a time when you will not be interrupted and will be able to complete a full half of the test. Since the test is long we suggest you take a short break before you complete the last half of the test.

In this study it is important that each partner gives us an honest and independent opinion. Therefore we ask that you fill out your questionnaires by yourself and not discuss your answers until you have both finished and returned your packets to Glenn Veenstra. If you have questions about the instructions, please call Glenn Veenstra. At the end of your participation in the study you are free to not only discuss the materials with each other and your therapist, but also to receive additional explanations of the study in general from the experimenter.

To preserve your confidentiality all materials will be analyzed only by code number. To further maintain your confidentiality we ask you to sign a code name agreed upon by you and your therapist instead of your real name on the Research Consent Form.

Once you have finished your questionnaires, seal all the forms in the envelope and return to your therapist. The sooner the questionnaires are received, the sooner a summary of the results will be available to your counselor who will be able to answer some of the general questions you may have about your answers.

If you decide not to fill out the questionnaires, please return them to your therapist.

PARTICIPATION PAYMENT:

Because participation in this study will require some time and effort, we feel it is only fair to compensate you. All couples participating in the study will be paid $4.00. This $4.00 will be paid

at the end of the study if the following conditions are fulfilled:

1. Both partners have completely filled out and returned all their forms.

2. Both partners have answered independently and sincerely. By comparison with previous computer analyses of the response patterns we can determine whether one person has answered both sets of questionnaires or whether one person has just randomly filled in the blanks on the answer sheets. If any of these things occur it destroys the value of your results and so the participant payment will not be made. The payment will be sent to your counselor to preserve your confidentiality.

EXPERIMENTER INFORMATION:

If you have any questions concerning the study call:

Mr. Glenn Veenstra--Project Coordinator

Office Phone: 355-9564 (MSU Psychological Clinic)

Home Phone: 393-5977

If you have any question concerning his actions, call the project's faculty supervisor:

Dr. John Hurley

Office Phone: 355-4615 (MSU Psychological Department)

APPENDIX C

Michigan State University
Department of Psychology

DEPARTMENTAL RESEARCH CONSENT FORM

(For Community Couples)

1. I have freely consented to take part in a scientific study being conducted by: Mr. Glenn Veenstra, M.A.

   under the supervision of: Dr. John Hurley, Ph.D.

   Academic Title: Study of Marital Perceptions

2. The study has been explained to me and I understand the explanation that has been given and what my participation will involve.

3. I understand that I am free to discontinue my participation in the study at any time without penalty. However I understand that the participants fee will only be paid if both me and my spouse complete the study as instructed.

4. I understand that the results of the study will be treated in strict confidence and that I will remain anonymous. Within these restrictions, results of the study will be made available to me at my request.

5. I understand that my participation in the study does not guarantee any beneficial results to me.

6. I understand that, at my request, I can receive additional explanation of the study after my participation is completed.

Signed _____

Date _____

APPENDIX D

Michigan State University
Department of Psychology

DEPARTMENTAL RESEARCH CONSENT FORM

(For Therapy Couples)

1. I have freely consented to take part in a scientific study being conducted by: Mr. Glenn Veenstra, M.A.

   under the supervision of: Dr. John Hurley, Ph.D.

   Academic Title: Study of Marital Perceptions

2. The study has been explained to me and I understand the explanation that has been given and what my participation will involve.

3. I understand that I am free to discontinue my participation in the study at any time without penalty. However I understand that the participants fee will only be paid if both me and my spouse complete the study as instructed.

4. I understand that the results of the study will be treated in strict confidence and that I will remain anonymous to those conducting the experiment. However, I understand that a summary of my questionnaire answers will be made available to my therapist and that I may learn about this summary from my therapist if I request it.

5. I understand that my participation in the study does not guarantee any beneficial results to me.

6. I understand that, at my request, I can receive additional explanation of the study in general after my participation is completed by contacting Mr. Veenstra.

Signed _____

Date _____

APPENDIX E

Code No. _____

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION FORM

PRESENT INFORMATION

Birthdate _____ Age _____

Highest Level of Education Completed _____

Present Occupational Status (Check status, then fill in corresponding blank)

Work full time _____) _____ (Job title or type of work

Work part time _____) _____ (_____

Unemployed or work) _____ (Previous type of work

at home _____) _____ (_____

Part time student _____) _____ (Major course of study

Full time student _____) _____ (_____

Religious Preference _____

Approximate Annual Family Income _____

Date of Marriage _____ Length of Marriage _____

Have you been married before? No____ Yes____ More than once before____

Number of children or dependents (other than spouse) living with you _____

List the children's or dependent's ages _____

FAMILY BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Fill in the following information about your prents or the persons who raised you during most of your childhood.

	Father	Mother
Education completed	_____	_____
Occupation	_____	_____
Religious preference	_____	_____

While you were growing up did your parents separate or divorce? No___ Yes___

While you were growing up did either one of your parents die? No___ Yes___

If yes, which parent _____

Number of older brothers in your family _____ Number of younger brothers _____

Number of older sisters in your family _____ Number of younger sisters _____

APPENDIX F

DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

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

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

	All the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
16. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation or terminating your relationship?	____	____	____	____	____	____
17. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	____	____	____	____	____	____
18. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	____	____	____	____	____	____
19. Do you confide in your mate?	____	____	____	____	____	____
20. Do you ever regret that you married? (or lived together)	____	____	____	____	____	____
21. How often do you and your partner quarrel?	____	____	____	____	____	____
22. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	____	____	____	____	____	____

	Every Day	Almost Every Day	Occa-sionally	Rarely	Never
23. Do you kiss your mate?	____	____	____	____	____
	All of them	Most of them	Some of them	Very few of them	None of them
24. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together	____	____	____	____	____

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

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

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

	Yes	No	
29.	____	____	Being too tired for sex.
30.	____	____	Not showing love.

31. The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship. Then place a checkmark ( ) beside the dot you feel your partner would circle.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

. . . .

Extremely Unhappy | Fairly Unhappy | A Little Unhappy | Happy | Very Happy | Extremely Happy | Perfect

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship? Place an "O" beside your own answer.

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

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

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

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

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

____ My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

Now place a "P" beside the answer you feel your partner would check.

APPENDIX G

MARITAL PERCEPTIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire was designed to explore how you and your spouse see the importance of certain behaviors and attitudes in your marital relationship. By systematic analysis of how you and other married couples perceive these issues, we hope to gain a clearer understanding of the patterns of behavior which characterize and are important in present day marriages.

QUESTIONNAIRE INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire consists of a series of 63 statements describing possible ways you and your partner might behave or feel toward each other. For example: "I am friendly to my spouse." "My spouse is friendly to me." You are to rate how characteristic each statement is in your marital relationship on the following 5-point scale:

5 = Very frequently characteristic = You can say that it usually describes you or mate (80 - 100% of time)

4 = Frequently characteristic = You can say that it often describes you or mate but there are sometimes when it doesn't (60 - 80% of time)

3 = Moderately characteristic = You can say sometimes it does and sometimes it doesn't describe you or mate (40 - 60% of time)

2 = Occasionally characteristic = You can say that it often does not describe you or mate but there are sometimes when it does (20 - 40% of time)

1 = Rarely characteristic = You can say that it usually does not describe you or mate (0 - 20% of time)

It is important that you give one rating for each item even if you are somewhat unsure of your choice. Sometimes you or your spouse may not be mentioned directly in the question, but always answer on the basis of how you relate to each other and not on the basis of how you act with your children, relatives or other people.

You will be asked to rate the statements from four different viewpoints. Sometimes you will answer directly how you see or feel about the item. Other times you will be asked to answer how you predict your spouse sees or feels about the item. Sometimes you will rate the statements on the basis of your actual relationship, that is how it is presently. Other times you will rate the statements on the basis of your ideal relationship, that is how it would be if everything were as you wished it to be. The viewpoint you are to take is stated at the top of each page, so read the instructions carefully before beginning to answer the questions.

ANSWER SHEET INSTRUCTIONS

Your answers will be marked on separate answer sheets designed for computerized scoring. There is a separate answer sheet for each of the four viewpoints. There are three checks built into the test to help you know which answer sheet to use. First, the answer sheets have been given to you in the order you will use them. Secondly, each viewpoint has been printed on a different color of paper. The color of paper will match the color of the writing in the section blank of the answer sheet (lower left corner). Thirdly, the numbers in the upper right hand corner of the questionnaire booklet will match the numbers in the section blank of the answer sheet.

You will not be using all the spaces on the answer sheets. Every time you come to a different viewpoint (which will be indicated by different instructions and color or paper) you must change answer sheets. Make the three checks above to be sure you have the correct answer sheet for the next section before beginning to answer.

To simplify your marking, a portion of the questionnaire booklet has been cut out to expose the proper column of answers on the answer sheet. So simply insert your answer sheet behind the page you are on and line up the numbers of the questions and answers. Then begin answering.

Mark your answers firmly and clearly with the pencil provided and be sure to completely erase any mistakes you make. Do not make any stray marks on the answer sheet or questionnaire booklet. Completely finish each page before going on to the next. Do not go back to change answers on earlier pages.

It is best to answer the questions quickly, because your first thoughts will be more useful, and because there are four sets of 126 items. An opportunity to take a break has been provided in the middle of this questionnaire. Use it to rest yourself for awhile. If you have questions at any time ask the researcher about them.

APPENDIX H

SAMPLE PAGE FROM MPQ BOOKLET

Section Code: H-A-1

Rate from your own point of view how characteristic these statements are of the way your wife relates to you; that is, how you yourself actually feel about these statements at this time in your married life.

Rating scale:
1 = Rarely characteristic = usually does not describe (o - 20%)
2 = Occasionally characteristic = often doesn't, but sometimes does (20 - 40%)
3 = Moderately characteristic = sometimes does, sometimes doesn't (40 - 60%)
4 = Frequently characteristic = often does, but sometimes doesn't (60 - 80%)
5 = Very frequently characteristic = usually does describe (80 - 100%)

I say, "Actually..."

5. She feels affectionate and loving toward me
13. She is slow to forgive my wrongs
21. She does things with me spontaneously and impulsively
29. She asserts opinions forcefully with me
37. She sexually satisfies me
45. She trusts me
53. She expresses anger toward me
61. She plans and organizes things in advance with me
69. She is helpful to me
77. She avoids upsetting me
85. She expects me to do things her way
93. She imagines or daydreams about romance in our marriage
101. She takes things very seriously with me
109. She reassures and encourages me
117. She is sarcastic with me
125. She appreciates what I do for her
133. She gives me advice and suggestions
141. She complains about me
149. She treats me as an equal
157. She feels self-confident around me
165. She feels our problems are her fault

Cut out to expose proper column of answer sheet underneath

APPENDIX I

SUMMARY OF MARITAL PERCEPTIONS QUESTIONNAIRE INDICES FOR COUPLE NO. 118

VIEWPOINT STATISTICS FOR SCALES		H1AH	H2AH	W2AH	W1AH	H1IH	H2IH	W2IH	W1IH	H1AW	H2AW	W2AW	W1AW	H1IW	H2IW	W2IW	W1IW
P-N=POSITIV(+)-NEGATIV(-)	RAW	-8.	-4.	23.	21.	63.	59.	59.	59.	-24.	2.	-4.	14.	62.	56.	62.	56.
LOVE HATE	107	-34.	-25.	-14.	-11.	9.	3.	2.	2.	-38.	-25.	-24.	-14.	4.	1.	5.	-3.
U-D=UPWARD(+)-DOWNWARD(-)	RAW	2.	8.	-7.	5.	-13.	-23.	-21.	-16.	17.	-9.	9.	-1.	-15.	-14.	-15.	-11.
DOMINANT SUBMISSIVE	107	8.	19.	3.	13.	-4.	-17.	-12.	-7.	34.	2.	17.	11.	-3.	-2.	3.	8.

RESPONSE TENDENCY INDICES	HUSBAND ACTUAL RAW	HUSBAND ACTUAL 107	HUSBAND IDEAL RAW	HUSBAND IDEAL 107	WIFE ACTUAL RAW	WIFE ACTUAL 107	WIFE IDEAL RAW	WIFE IDEAL 107
EXTREME RATINGS (1+5)	64.	-6.	152.	1.	75.	-7.	180.	3.
MODERATE RATINGS (2+4)	138.	9.	82.	2.	87.	-2.	52.	0.
MIDPOINT RATINGS (3)	50.	1.	18.	-9.	90.	19.	20.	-7.

COMPARISON STATISTICS

PRD = PERCEIVED ROLE DIFFERENTIATION

	PRD-H1A R	PRD-H1A Z	PRD-H2A R	PRD-H2A Z	PRD-H2A R	PRD-H2A Z	PRD-W1A R	PRD-W1A Z	PRD-H1I R	PRD-H1I Z	PRD-W2I R	PRD-W2I Z	PRD-H2I R	PRD-H2I Z	PRD-W1I R	PRD-W1I Z
P-N SCL DIR + = H > W	21.	19.	31.	23.	-10.	-8.	3.	4.	1.	0.	-4.	-4.	3.	2.	3.	10.
NUM + = > NORM	27.	20.	29.	18.	23.	12.	20.	6.	5.	-5.	3.	-5.	9.	5.	5.	0.
U-D SCL DIR + = H > W	-15.	-24.	-16.	-13.	17.	7.	6.	1.	2.	-1.	-6.	-12.	-9.	-16.	-5.	-14.
NUM + = > NORM	13.	11.	11.	3.	12.	5.	9.	-4.	7.	-2.	6.	-6.	10.	7.	7.	2.
NUMBER DIFF TOTAL (63)	50.	19.	48.	15.	43.	10.	37.	5.	19.	-1.	13.	-6.	25.	6.	19.	3.
SQR ROOT SUM SQD DIFF	15.4	28.	14.8	18.	12.1	12.	9.1	0.	5.7	-3.	6.0	-3.	5.7	-6.	5.7	-2.

PDS = PERCEIVED DISSATISFACTION

	PDS-H1H R	PDS-H1H Z	PDS-W2H R	PDS-W2H Z	PDS-H2H R	PDS-H2H Z	PDS-W1H R	PDS-W1H Z	PDS-H1W R	PDS-H1W Z	PDS-W2W R	PDS-W2W Z	PDS-H2W R	PDS-H2W Z	PDS-W1W R	PDS-W1W Z
P-N SCL DIR +=HE > POS	71.	45.	35.	22.	67.	28.	34.	14.	90.	43.	70.	27.	54.	24.	34.	15.
NUM + = > NORM	28.	21.	18.	7.	31.	17.	18.	6.	31.	20.	26.	13.	28.	18.	24.	14.
U-D SCL DIR +=HE > DOM	-15.	-14.	-14.	-18.	-31.	-28.	-21.	-19.	-32.	-41.	-24.	-15.	-5.	-5.	-10.	-6.
NUM + = > NORM	13.	11.	12.	11.	16.	15.	11.	4.	14.	15.	12.	5.	14.	17.	12.	10.
NUMBER DIFF TOTAL (63)	51.	21.	36.	8.	57.	17.	37.	5.	56.	20.	49.	13.	59.	17.	43.	12.
SQR ROOT SUM SQD DIFF	17.1	46.	12.6	24.	17.9	26.	13.2	15.	21.0	43.	15.7	25.	13.9	26.	11.5	16.

AGREE HUSB BEHAVIOR

	PDA-HAH R	PDA-HAH Z	IDA-AH R	IDA-AH Z	PDA-WAH R	PDA-WAH Z	PDA-HIH R	PDA-HIH Z	IDA-IH R	IDA-IH Z	PDA-WIH R	PDA-WIH Z	IMA-HAH R	IMA-HAH Z	IMA-WAH R	IMA-WAH Z	IMA-HIH R	IMA-HIH Z	IMA-WIH R	IMA-WIH Z
P-N SCL DIR + = MATE >	0	5.	-29.	-19.	2.	-1.	-4.	-10.	4.	6.	-1.	-0.	-29.	-14.	31.	19.	8	1.	-5.	-5.
NUM + = > NORM	19.	10.	23.	5.	11.	1.	6.	-2.	7.	-5.	4.	-4.	29.	18.	22.	9.	6.	-4.	6.	-7.
U-D SCL DIR + = MATE >	6.	5.	-3.	-5.	-12.	-19.	-10.	-13.	3.	1.	-5.	-8.	3.	-2.	-9.	-4.	-7.	-10.	-8.	-7.
NUM + = > NORM	8.	-4.	10.	-8.	10.	9.	7.	-2.	9.	-4.	6.	-4.	12.	1.	13.	6.	9.	-4.	9.	-4.
NUMBER DIFF TOTAL (63)	37.	16.	40.	4.	24.	0.	23.	4.	24.	-5.	15.	-4.	54.	19.	46.	12.	21.	-7.	23.	-6.
SQR ROOT SUM SQD DIFF	9.3	9.	12.1	16.	5.2	-3.	5.9	-3.	7.3	-9.	6.4	0.	12.5	16.	12.3	20.	7.2	-7.	8.3	-2.

AGREE WIFE BEHAVIOR

	PDA-HAW R	PDA-HAW Z	IDA-AW R	IDA-AW Z	PDA-WAW R	PDA-WAW Z	PDA-HIW R	PDA-HIW Z	IDA-IW R	IDA-IW Z	PDA-WIW R	PDA-WIW Z	IMA-HAW R	IMA-HAW Z	IMA-WAW R	IMA-WAW Z	IMA-HIW R	IMA-HIW Z	IMA-WIW R	IMA-WIW Z
P-N SCL DIR + = MATE >	30.	39.	-46.	-30.	-26.	-25.	-6.	-8.	6.	8.	6.	11.	-16.	-16.	20.	13.	0	3.	0	-3.
NUM + = > NORM	24.	21.	28.	18.	22.	17.	5.	-5.	6.	-7.	6.	1.	22.	8.	28.	18.	9.	-2.	4.	-9.
U-D SCL DIR + = MATE >	-26.	-43.	18.	20.	10.	13.	1.	2.	-4.	-9.	-4.	-6.	-4.	-18.	-9.	-11.	-3.	-9.	0	4.
NUM + = > NORM	15.	22.	16.	24.	11.	19.	7.	-1.	13.	13.	9.	9.	13.	11.	14.	19.	11.	6.	14.	12.
NUMBER DIFF TOTAL (63)	47.	22.	52.	21.	42.	19.	22.	2.	26.	-4.	21.	3.	46.	12.	51.	16.	28.	8.	25.	-5.
SQR ROOT SUM SQD DIFF	11.4	22.	15.7	39.	9.9	13.	5.3	-5.	9.5	-1.	7.0	4.	11.0	11.	11.3	18.	9.0	-4.	7.3	-9.

APPENDIX J

SUMMARY OF MARITAL PERCEPTIONS QUESTIONNAIRE PATTERN ANALYSES FOR COUPLE NO. 118

ROLE DIFFERENTIATION PATTERNS

	AGREEMENT ON ROLE OF ACTUAL AIA R	Z	IDEAL AIZ R	Z
RDADR=AGREE DIRECT				
+=AGREE DIF	41.		0	
-=AGREE DIF		14.		-3.
RDAGR=AGREE				
+=AGREE	-64.		15.	
-=AGREE		-18.		-2.

	UNDERSTANDING OF MATE ROLE DIFFERENTIATION HUS ACT HUA R	Z	WIF ACT WUA R	Z	HUS IDL HUI R	Z	WIF IDL WUI R	Z
RDUDR=UNDSTD DIRECT								
+=EXAG DIF	20.		-9.		18.		-38.	
-=MINIM DIF		7.		-4.		0.		-10.
RDUND=UNDSTD								
+=ACCURATE	-55.		-29.		28.		30.	
-=INACCURAT		-13.		-3.		0.		3.

	ROLE CHANGE DESIRED HUS CHG HCG R	Z	WIF CHG HCG R	Z
RDCDR=CHANGE DIRECT				
+=DESIRES DIF	73.		49.	
-=INDSRS DIF		12.		0.
RDCHG=CHANGE				
+=PRESERVE	-54.		-37.	
-=CHANGE		-12.		-8.

DISSATISFACTION PATTERNS

		HPH	IPH	WPH	HPW	IPW	WPW	HPR	IPR	WPR
DSIEP=DISSAT INT/EXT PRES	R	-17.	31.	-2.	-59.	-59.	-61.	-32.	24.	2.
+=[illegible] (W/FEL)	Z	-2.	13.	5.	-22.	-18.	-22.	-13.	9.	1.
-=[illegible] (W/FEL)										
DSAGR=DISSATIS AGREEMENT	R	42.	-6.	30.	21.	-13.	24.	15.	-29.	6.
+=HIGH AGREEMENT	Z	11.	4.	5.	3.	-3.	2.	5.	-6.	1.
-=HIGH DISAGREEMENT										

		HUH	WUH	HUW	WUW
DSDIR=DISSAT DIRECTION	R	38.	-33.	21.	-17.
+=HIGH SATISFACTIONS	Z	9.	-7.	8.	-7.
-=HIGH DISSATISFACTIONS					
DSUND=DISSAT UNDERSTAND	R	-38.	-28.	-16.	17.
+=ACCURATE UNDERSTAND	Z	-13.	-1.	-2.	11.
-=INACCURATE UNDERSTAND					

UNDERSTANDING PATTERNS

		HAH	WAH	HIH	WIH	HAW	WAW	HIW	WIW
UNDAG=UNDERSTD DISAGREE	R	35.	25.	54.	29.	73.	63.	42.	46.
+=[illegible] DISAGREE	Z	-1.	-7.	9.	-4.	23.	22.	2.	9.
-=[illegible] DISAGREE									
UNAGR=UNDERSTD AGREE	R	22.	57.	82.	87.	45.	45.	76.	86.
+=[illegible] AGREE	Z	-20.	-8.	1.	5.	-12.	-10.	-3.	4.
-=[illegible] AGREE									

HOMOGENITY/COMPLEMENTARITY

		HHH	WHH	HHW	WHW
HOMST=SATIS HOMOGENITY	R	-83.	-8.	-43.	30.
+=SATIS, MATE SIMILAR	Z	-22.	-6.	-17.	2.
-=SATIS, MATE DIFFERENT					
HOMDS=DISSATIS HOMOGEN	R	-22.	41.	48.	14.
+=DIS, ME LIKE MATE	Z	-26.	-1.	4.	-12.
-=DIS, LESS LIKE MATE					

FAVORABILITY PATTERNS

		HPH	WIH	WIH	WPH	WPW	WIW	WIW	WPW
FAVST=SATIS FAVORABILITY	R	-33.	33.	-34.	31.	-14.	-43.	-80.	0
+=SATIS, MATE ASPECTS	Z	-14.	9.	-12.	-10.	-14.	-14.	-19.	-9.
-=SATIS, MATE DISAGREES									
FAVDS=DISSAT FAVORABILITY	R	6.	43.	5.	30.	73.	73.	-28.	-42.
+=MATE RATES FAVOR	Z	-6.	4.	-17.	-4.	19.	16.	-27.	-28.
-=YR RATES UNFAVOR									

DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

	QUESTION ANSWERS 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38	DIFFERENCE SCORES HAPPY PDA	HAPPY IMA	TRYING PDA	TRYING IMA	DAS SUBSCALE SCORES CONSN	CONFES	SATIS	AFFEC	TOTAL SUM	TOTAL AVG
HUSB	3 4 4 4 2 1 2 3 3 2 4 3 4 4 3 3 3 2 2 4 2 1 2 4 3 3 2 3 2 1 0 0 1 2 4 4	-1	0	0	0	40	25	11	5	81	-11
WIFE	3 3 4 2 2 1 3 4 4 3 4 4 4 4 4 2 3 2 2 2 2 3 4 3 3 3 2 3 0 0 2 3 4 5	2	-1	-1	1	46	29	14	3	92	-6

BACKGROUND INFO	AGE	EDU	OCCUPATION STA	FUT	NOW	REL	INCOME	YRS MAR	NUM MAR	CHLD	FATHERS EDU	FATHERS VOC	FATHERS REL	MOTHERS EDU	MOTHERS VOC	MOTHERS REL	PARENTS SEP	PARENTS DIE	BROTHERS OLD	BROTHERS YNG	SISTERS OLD	SISTERS YNG
HUSB	25.	16.	1	-0	-0	-0	5700.	.2	-0	0	16	19	-0	16	99	-0	0	0	-0	-0	-0	-0
WIFE	25.	16.	7	-0	20	-0	5730.	.2	-0	0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0	-0

APPENDIX K

MPQ RATINGS ON EACH INDIVIDUAL ISSUE FOR DOMINANCE, SUBMISSION CLUSTERS COUPLE NO. 118

ISSUE RATINGS BY VIEWPOINT

	HUSBANDS VIEWPTS								WIFES VIEWPOINTS							
	H1IH	H1AH	H1IW	H1AW	H2IH	H2AH	H2IW	H2AW	W2IH	W2AH	W2IW	W2AW	W1IH	W1AH	W1IW	W1AW
1 TAKE CHARG OF THINGS WE DO	0	1	-1	-1	-1	1	-1	-2	-2	0	0	0	-2	0	-2	0
2 GIVE MATE ADVICE AND SUGGESTION	2	1	-1	0	-1	1	0	-1	2	0	0	1	0	1	1	1
3 AM FIRM WITH MATE	1	1	0	2	-1	1	0	0	-1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
4 GIVE MATE ORDERS	-1	1	-1	1	-2	1	-1	-2	-2	-2	-2	0	-2	0	-2	-1
5 EXPECT MTE DO THINGS MY WAY	-1	1	-1	1	-1	1	0	-1	-2	0	-2	2	-2	0	-1	0
6 STUBBORN + UNWILLING TO GIVE IN	-2	0	-2	2	-2	1	-2	-1	-2	0	-2	0	0	1	-2	0
7 ASSERT OPINIONS FORCEFULLY	-1	0	-1	1	-2	1	-1	1	-2	0	-2	2	-2	1	-2	0
8 FIGURE OUT WAYS TO GET TO GO ALONG	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-2	-2	-2	1	-2	1	-2	0
9 PREFER DO THINGS W/O MATE HELP	0	0	-1	2	0	1	-1	1	-1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
10 FEEL MORE COMPETENT THAN MATE	-2	-1	0	0	-2	-1	0	-2	-2	0	-2	0	-2	0	-2	-2
11 SARCASTIC WITH MATE	-2	-1	-1	1	-2	-1	-2	-1	-2	0	-2	1	-2	0	-2	1
12 AVOID UPSETTING MATE	1	-1	1	-2	2	-2	2	-1	-1	0	-2	-2	-1	-1	-1	-1
13 LET MATE MAKE THE DECISIONS	0	-1	0	-1	0	-1	-1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	-2	0
14 ASK MATE FOR SUGGESTION	1	1	0	-1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	2
15 WILLINGLY DO WHAT MATE WANTS	1	0	1	-2	1	-1	0	-1	1	1	-1	0	0	0	0	0
16 READILY APOLOGIZE F MISTAKES	1	0	1	-2	2	1	1	-1	2	0	2	-1	1	0	-2	0
17 DO THINGS TO PLEASE MATE	2	1	2	-1	2	0	2	1	2	2	2	0	2	0	2	1

	P=PERCEIVED R=ROLE D=DIFFERENTIATION								P=PERCEIVED D=DIS- S=SATISFACTION							
	-H1I	-H1A	-H2I	-H2A	-W2I	-W2A	-W1I	-W1A	-H1H	-H1W	-H2H	-H2W	-W2H	-W2W	-W1H	-W1W
1 TAKE CHARG OF THINGS WE DO	1	2	0	3	-2	0	0	0	-1	0	-2	1	-2	0	-2	-2
2 GIVE MATE ADVICE AND SUGGESTION	3	1	-1	2	2	-1	-1	0	1	-1	-2	1	2	-1	-1	0
3 AM FIRM WITH MATE	1	-1	-1	1	-2	0	1	0	0	-2	-2	0	-1	1	0	-1
4 GIVE MATE ORDERS	0	0	-1	3	0	-2	0	1	-2	-2	-3	1	0	-2	-2	-1
5 EXPECT MTE DO THINGS MY WAY	0	0	-1	2	0	-2	-1	0	-2	-2	-2	1	-2	-4	-2	-1
6 STUBBORN + UNWILLING TO GIVE IN	0	-2	0	2	0	0	2	1	-2	-4	-3	-1	-2	-2	-1	-2
7 ASSERT OPINIONS FORCEFULLY	0	-1	-1	0	0	-2	0	1	-1	-2	-3	-2	-2	-4	-3	-2
8 FIGURE OUT WAYS TO GET TO GO ALONG	0	0	0	0	0	-3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	-3	-3	-2
9 PREFER DO THINGS W/O MATE HELP	1	-2	1	0	-1	0	-1	-1	0	-3	-1	-2	-1	0	0	0
10 FEEL MORE COMPETENT THAN MATE	-2	-1	-2	1	0	0	0	2	-1	0	-1	2	-2	-2	-2	0
11 SARCASTIC WITH MATE	-1	-2	0	0	0	-1	0	-1	-1	-2	-1	-1	-2	-3	-2	-3
12 AVOID UPSETTING MATE	0	1	0	-1	1	2	0	0	2	3	4	3	-1	0	0	0
13 LET MATE MAKE THE DECISIONS	0	0	1	-2	0	0	2	0	1	1	1	-2	0	0	0	-2
14 ASK MATE FOR SUGGESTION	1	2	0	-1	0	-1	0	-1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	-1
15 WILLINGLY DO WHAT MATE WANTS	0	2	1	0	2	1	0	0	1	3	2	1	0	-1	0	0
16 READILY APOLOGIZE F MISTAKES	0	2	1	2	0	1	3	0	1	3	1	2	2	3	1	-2
17 DO THINGS TO PLEASE MATE	0	2	0	-1	0	2	0	-1	1	3	2	1	0	2	2	1

	PDA-HAH	IHA-HAH	IDA-AH	IHA-WAH	PDA-WAH	PDA-HAW	IWA-HAW	IDA-AW	IHA-WAW	PDA-WAW	PDA-HAH	IHA-HAH	IDA-AH	IWA-WAH	PDA-WAH	PDA-HAW	IHA-HAW	IDA-AW	IWA-WAW	PDA-WAW
1 TAKE CHARG OF THINGS WE DO	0	1	1	-1	0	-1	-2	-1	1	0	-1	1	2	-2	0	0	1	1	1	2
2 GIVE MATE ADVICE AND SUGGESTION	0	0	0	-1	-1	-1	-2	-1	1	0	-3	-1	2	0	2	1	-1	-2	1	-1
3 AM FIRM WITH MATE	0	0	0	-1	-1	-2	-1	1	-2	-1	-2	-2	0	-2	-2	0	0	0	1	1
4 GIVE MATE ORDERS	0	1	1	-3	-2	-3	-1	2	-1	1	-1	0	1	-1	0	0	1	1	-1	0
5 EXPECT MTE DO THINGS MY WAY	0	1	1	-1	0	-2	-1	1	1	2	0	1	1	-1	0	1	1	0	-1	-1
6 STUBBORN + UNWILLING TO GIVE IN	1	0	-1	0	-1	-3	-1	2	-2	0	0	-2	-2	0	-2	0	0	0	0	0
7 ASSERT OPINIONS FORCEFULLY	1	0	-1	0	-1	0	1	1	1	2	-1	0	1	-1	0	0	1	1	-1	0
8 FIGURE OUT WAYS TO GET TO GO ALONG	0	-2	-2	-1	-3	0	-1	-1	2	1	0	1	1	-1	0	0	1	1	-1	0
9 PREFER DO THINGS W/O MATE HELP	1	1	0	0	0	-1	0	1	-2	-1	0	0	0	-1	-1	0	-2	-2	1	-1
10 FEEL MORE COMPETENT THAN MATE	0	-1	-1	1	0	-2	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	-2	0
11 SARCASTIC WITH MATE	0	-1	-1	1	0	-2	-2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	1	-1	0
12 AVOID UPSETTING MATE	-1	-1	0	1	1	1	0	-1	0	-1	1	3	2	-2	0	1	3	2	-3	-1
13 LET MATE MAKE THE DECISIONS	0	-1	-1	1	0	2	1	-1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	1	2	0	2
14 ASK MATE FOR SUGGESTION	-1	-1	0	-1	-1	2	-1	-3	2	-1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	-1	1	0
15 WILLINGLY DO WHAT MATE WANTS	-1	-1	0	-1	1	1	-1	-2	2	0	0	1	1	0	1	-1	0	1	-2	-1
16 READILY APOLOGIZE F MISTAKES	1	1	0	0	0	1	-1	-2	1	-1	1	1	0	1	1	0	3	3	1	4
17 DO THINGS TO PLEASE MATE	-1	0	1	1	2	2	0	-2	1	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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