STRIKING THE PERFECT MATCH: PREFERENCES FOR A PARTNER AS PREDICTORS OF RELATIONSHIP INITIATION AND QUALITY.

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Thesis submitted for the degree of PhD in Social Psychology,

University of Kent at Canterbury, July 1989.

For Janice, whose love and affection have constantly

illuminated all the beautiful aspects of Personal Relationships

Acknowledgements

A large number of people must share the blame for helping me with this thesis. My first thanks must go to the many hundreds of experimental participants who gave up a considerable amount of time to take part in the various studies ("this questionnaire should only take 40 minutes to complete" was sometimes just a *little* optimistic...). Many people also helped me with the collection of the data: they included Ruchira Bose, Caroline Jackson, Peter Musgrove, Louise Parkinson and Bosmat Sheffi.

A number of other 'relationship experts' also read one or more crude drafts of chapters, and here, too, I must record my gratitude. These included Michael Argyle (Oxford University); Duncan Cramer (Lancaster University); Hugh Foot (University of Wales); Barry McCarthy (Lancaster Polytechnic); Dorothy Miell (Open University); Philip Murphy (Northwick Park Hospital); Derek Rutter (University of Kent) and Don Rogers (University of Keele). The contribution of my supervisor, Professor Geoffrey Stephenson, was consistent throughout.

In this thesis I will argue that 'environmental effects' can be significant contributors to relationship quality (and thus 'psychological well-being') and a number of colleagues and friends helped to provide the 'right atmosphere' in which to work: these included my colleagues at ISAP and the inhabitants of the 'Lambs Walk Madhouse'- Danuta, George and Peter- who also drew the cartoons that feature in this thesis.

Finally, a number of insomniacs offered, as a last resort, to proof-read sections of this work. Thanks to Ben, Wendy and my mother, which

tirelessly corrected the grammar, to Janice, who was eagle-eyed on the spellling, and to Steve, "cameraman extraordinaire", proof-reader, badminton coach and friend.

Abstract

What motivates people to form heterosexual relationships, and how can the partner they will choose be predicted? Which factors are involved in determining marital quality?

This thesis describes a number of experiments designed to address these questions. In the introductory chapters (chapters 1-3) the personal relationships literature is reviewed selectively, and two frameworks for examining relationship formation and quality are developed. The fundamental theme in these frameworks is that fulfilment of interpersonal desires is a predictor of the type of partner chosen for a relationship and the subsequent quality of that relationship, and that these desires can be measured by ascertaining an individual's preferences for a partner type or his/her preferences concerning a particular behaviour within a relationship. Various other factors also interact with or depend upon this variable of 'preference fulfilment': these include social skills and attitudes towards relationships (thought to be important predictors of relationship formation), and role fulfilment and relationship alternatives (hypothesised to be crucial in determining relationship quality). These two frameworks are examined in a series of seven empirical studies. In part II of the thesis, two longitudinal studies on University students/supermarket shoppers and on dating agency members were conducted. Results indicate that preference fulfilment is a moderate predictor of the relationship partner chosen, but that other factors (e.g. self-esteem) may also be important. In part III, three cross-sectional studies are conducted using (a) couples who met through a dating agency (b) a random group of Kent couples and (c) a sample of Uruguyian partnerships. The results indicated that relationship alternatives and role interactions are important determinants of relationship quality, but that preference fulfilment plays only a small part in determining such quality.

The final chapter draws these results together and considers alternative explanations before exploring the implications of the findings.

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Chapter 1: A selective history of the personal relationships area

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"Oh, 'tis love, 'tis love that makes the world go round!" [Carroll, L: Alice In Wonderland].

"Love conquers all: and we succumb to love" [Voltaire, Ecologues X]

"Love is the wisdom of the fool and the folly of the wise" [Johnson, S: Life of Boswell]

Definitional note

This thesis is about *personal relationships* (PR). This is the term stressed by writers such as Duck (1986) in order to differentiate this field of study from more traditional areas such as 'interpersonal attraction' (which can be defined as merely the study of "attitudinal positivity": Berscheid and Walster, 1978; Huston and Levinger, 1978). The term PR is also adopted to distinguish the field from earlier research on just attraction to strangers and early dating patterns (see Duck and Perlman, 1985 and Perlman and Fehr, 1986 for a discussion), and the term 'PR' serves to underline the manner in which research has, in recent years, attempted to address a whole spectrum of issues, from work on attraction to strangers (e.g. Byrne, 1971) and pre-relationship expectancies (e.g. Sunnafrank and Miller, 1981; Zimmer, 1986) to issues in re-marriage (e.g. Price-Bonham and Balswick, 1980; Spanier and Furstenberg, 1982).

Here, 'PR' will be taken to include attraction throughout the spectrum and age of both the individual and the relationship, and includes the forces and motivations associated with both relationship development, maintenance and breakdown. Thus PR can be operationally defined as

> "the interaction between two individuals located within the context of wider society forces, and the effect on the feelings and cognitions of those individuals - and those in their wider society - of that interaction".

1.1. A brief and selective historical review of the areas of personal relationships

In order to understand the theoretical underpinnings of the notions to be considered in the next chapter, it is necessary to place them within a historical perspective. The topics chosen for consideration here are selected to reflect prevailing historical trends in research, and thus include comments upon the strengths and weaknesses of these trends.

By encompassing such a broad definition of personal relationships - one necessary to encompass the multifaceted nature of our relationships - I also naturally embrace a huge number of topics. Therefore this review is a selective one, and follows the (rather lamentable) tradition of neglecting to discuss in any detail research on homosexuality (e.g. Duberman, 1977) and friendship (Derlega and Winstead, 1986) unless these areas bear on critical issues discussed throughout this thesis (e.g. by reflecting a concern with partner priorities: Laner, 1977). Similarly, work on extra-marital activity and remarriage is also neglected for the sake of economy. This is not to deny the importance of these concerns, but is merely an attempt to reflect, reasonably parsimoniously, current research within the PR area.

1.1.1. THE EARLY WORK (up to c.1970)

Earliest Theories

The most notable aspect of many early philosophical writings is the similarity between the implicit (or explicit) notions of PR in these early works, and the conclusions reached by recent researchers.

Aristotle is cited as discussing the manner in which we come to like those we have benefited, and is said to have attributed the reasons behind this to an explanation very similar to that offered by far more recent reinforcement accounts (Berscheid and Walster, 1978). He is also claimed to have proposed an early version of the similarity-attraction relationship. A similar relationship was also noted by Spinoza (cited in Byrne, 1971)). Plato claimed that originally humanity consisted of three kinds- men and women (each consisting of two identical beings) and the androgeous (a combination of men and women). Because of a conflict, he claims, the gods divided humanity into two, and since then we have desired our 'other half' (with the homosexual male-male attachment seen by Plato as the most desirable (Walster and Walster, 1978). In the last century, O.S. Fowler's notion of complementary attraction has also been reflected in more recent writings on attraction and self-esteem

> "Wherein, and as far as you are what you ought to be, marry one *like* yourself; but wherein and as far as you have any marked excesses or *defects, marry those unlike* yourself in these objectionable particulars"
> (Fowler, 1859: 259 in Murstein, 1980: 781).

Conan (1869 cited in Murstein 1986: 18) offers a similar notion of complementarity, but stresses that there must also be *similarity* in terms of purpose, thought and living style. Weininger (1906) claimed that men and women contained both masculine and feminine characteristics, and partners were chosen to complement the degree to which they possessed these characteristics.

Despite similarities between ancient and modern attraction theories, there were significant differences in the conceptualisation of love

between these early writers and modern commentators. Early conceptions of love stressed conjugal rather than passionate aspects of love, so that even by the nineteenth century "(P)assionate love still connoted an unhealthy, maladaptive state in contrast to reason" (Murstein, 1986: 15) and Shakespearean plays, where love blossomed across class and status, "represented a kind of wish fulfilment rather than actual behaviour in Elizabethan times" (ibid). It was only during the Victorian era that passionate love became acceptable, and even then it was only sanctioned within the institution of marriage. Gradually, however, the idea of love as the basis of marriage became predominant, and with it a greater recognition of the classlessness of this phenomenon (Murstein, 1986).

The observations made by these early writers were largely armchair speculations / introspections (Woodworth and Schlosberg, 1954), and there was little systematic attempt to introduce anyone but the writer's own personal acquaintances into their analysis (which makes it all the more interesting to note the similarity between many of these past writers and modern conceptions of relationships). The first, more systematic attempts to understand personal relationships can be traced to the influence of two movements first prevalent at the turn of this century. These were a) psychoanalysis and b) early experimental psychology.

Psychoanalysis

For the psychoanalyst, "personal relationships" were obviously of prime importance. But in many ways the founder of the psychoanalytic movement, Sigmund Freud, wrote surprisingly little on what might

nowadays term "interpersonal attraction", the development and breakdown of the attraction relationship, or the maintenance of close relationships. In his three essays "Contributions to the Psychology of Love", Freud was concerned with the abnormal development of the object-choice (1910), and later the tendency to debase the loved-object (1912: arising from the unsuccessful combination of the affectionate and sensual) and the origin (and consequences) of the taboo of virginity (1917)'

Elsewhere, Freud posited two types of love, which reflect the general theme that "maternal characteristics remain stamped on the love-objects that are chosen later" (1910: 235). The first type, 'anaclitic' or 'attachment' love, is based on the early infantile prototype. The second, 'narcissistic', represents the seeking out of the individual's own ego in others, and seems to bear a close relation to a number of "pathological" abnormalities, notably perversion and homosexuality (1914, 1915: see also the work of Bergler, 1946 for a similar argument). Whilst Freud offers a brief account of the idealisation of love (1914), a more systematic and detailed contribution is offered by Theodor Reik (see especially his book "Of Love and Lust", 1941), a theory of particular note because of the recent attempts to apply modern experimental techniques to a re-examination of his hypotheses (Mathes and Moore, 1985). In this book, Reik claimed that the powerful attraction of love is the result of an increase in discontent, a discontent arising from an awareness that we fall short of our ego-ideal. Thus

> "a man falls in love to avoid a deeper pit. Everything is all right with the person who is in love, but all is not well with the person who is about to fall in love" (1941: 32f):

Love is "a displaced attempt to fulfill the demands of our ideal ego" (ibid. 86): the 'completion' provided by the loved-object is merely the idealisation of a loved-object. Similar 'completion' ideas were expressed by a number of other early psychoanalytic writers (e.g. Benedek, 1946; Flugel, 1921; Gray, 1949)

Of the early psychotherapists, Fromm is perhaps the closest to the modern social psychological view of love, with his idea that love-partners are often interchangeable. In "The Art of Loving" (1956) Fromm echoes the words of many of the equity theorists of later years

> "Two persons fall in love when they feel they have found the best object available on the market, considering the limitations of their own exchange values" (1956: 3)

Thus attraction can be considered to be based upon "a package of qualities" (ibid: 2). But what Fromm may explain better than many later social psychologists is that in erotic love the individual is seeking the love of a continual stranger, and as a couple draw closer together they also seek that new stranger in their relationship. This emphasis on *change* is, as will be argued below, a theme generally neglected by psychologists until very recent times.

It is probably fair to say, however, that the influence of the psychoanalytic movement on modern social psychological accounts of personal relationships has diminished markedly in recent years - and equally, few mainstream psychoanalytic journals now report explorations of the type generally of concern to the social psychologist of relationships. Research adopting psychoanalytic

principles has been criticised as imprecise, and psychological variables have often been confounded with sociological factors (Duck, 1977; Murstein, 1986). One possible exception was an article by Winarick (1985), who echoes an old theme: "a lover is chosen to solve a particular conflict or personality problem" (or) "to meet much more general needs ..." (384). Such an argument, based on an idea of the fulfilment of personal needs, will be considered in more detail in the next chapter.

Early research by experimental psychologists

Early experimental psychology did not see the task of analysing personal relationships as a prime one, although a few early studies compared established partners on different measures and are worthy of mention for their relevance to more complex later theories (see, for example, Pearson's comparison's of spouses anthropometrics, cited in Tharp, 1964; and the work of Galton (1870: cited in Byrne, 1971)). Gradually, evidence amassed for what became known as a "theory of homogamy" (Burgess and Wallin, 1953); like was seen as attracting like (Newcomb, 1956), "birds of a feather flocked together" and early research pointed strongly to marriage as an assortative variable (for reviews see Murstein, 1986; Thiessen and Gregg, 1972; Vandenberg, 1980). Measures were taken of personality (Hoffeditz, 1934; Terman, 1938; Uhr, 1957), education (Garrison et al, 1968; Kerckhoff, 1964); intelligence (Reed and Reed, 1965, Schooley, 1936); race (see Kerckhoff, 1974, for a review); personality inadequacy (e.g. schizophrenia - Bergler, 1948); age (reviewed in Murstein, 1986); appearance (Harris, 1912; Pearson and Lee, 1903); prior marital state

(Bowerman, 1953); socioeconomic class (Centers, 1949; Hollingshead, 1950); religion (Hollingshead, 1950; Kennedy, 1944); family background (Burgess and Wallin, 1943); opinions and attitudes (Newcomb and Suehla, 1937; Schiller, 1932; Schuster and Elderton, 1906); courtship behaviour (Burgess and Wallin, 1943); and values (Richardson, 1939). Most of this early data collection was quite atheoretical (Byrne, 1971), and variables were confounded in a confusing manner (Eckland, 1968). Indeed as late as 1963, Tharp's words provided a fair reflection of the current concerns: "the organizing issue in all mating research (is) the degree of similarity between husbands and wives. That is, do "likes marry likes" (homogamy) or do "unlikes" marry (heterogamy)?" (97)

The work of Robert Winch and other 'complementarity' theories

Research immediately after the second World War saw the first major attempt to integrate the insights of the psychoanalysts' with the development of experimental social psychological techniques. The concept of personal 'need' as a predictor of relationship formation was a dominant one in the 1950s, and this in itself drew its origin largely from Freudian theory (Winch, 1958). The next chapter offers a fuller discussion of the historical concept of need and its application to modern relationship theory - it is sufficient here to say that the work of Winch which offered the possibility that complementary needs lead to attraction in married couples (1954; 1955 a,b) produced a flurry of subsequent research which seemed to largely disconfirm Winch's hypotheses (Banta and Hetherington, 1963; Bowerman and Day, 1956; Schellenberg and Bee, 1960; Seyfried and Hendrick,

1973). With a few exceptions (e.g. Campbell, 1982; Meyer and Pepper, 1977; Wagner, 1975) the concept of needs was almost wholly abandoned as a relationship predictor after about 1965. Winch's work remained influential, however, in its definition of the "field of eligibles" i.e. those whom an individual is likely to have an opportunity to meet. This concept was to be adopted by a number of later writers in delimiting the bases for partner selection. (e.g. Kerckhoff, 1964). Alongside Winch's complementarity theory, another complementarity theory of importance was that offered by Toman (e.g. Toman 1964), which stressed the importance of an individual's sibling position in his/her subsequent choice of mate. Toman's evidence has been widely criticized (Birtchnell, 1978; Murstein 1980) and empirical exploration of his claims using substantial samples (e.g. Birtchnell, 1978, used 2000 randomly-selected couples) have failed to replicate Toman's own research.

Sullivan's work (1953), although primarily concerning friendships, is similar to that of Winch in postulating the significance of needs. He posits five basic social needs: tenderness, co-participation in playful activity, acceptance by others, interpersonal intimacy, and sexual contact. These needs emerge across the developmental span in a cumulative manner, with such needs either motivating the formation of certain 'key' relationships during particular developmental periods, or simply being incorporated into existing relationships. It is within this framework of relationships that interpersonal competencies (similar to social skills) are learned (ibid). Buhrmester and Furman (1986) summarise the available empirical evidence for Sullivan's theory to suggest that (1) by early adolescence, friends are key

sources of social provision and (2) there is reasonable data to suggest that a link exists between interpersonal competency and relationships (see Chapter 2).

One of the most notable features of Winch's research - and the one which seemed to attract most the attention - was the *misconception* that Winch was offering an 'opposites attract' re-interpretation of initial attraction (see Nias, 1978). Thus Winch seemed to be challenging all the previously amassed evidence on homogamy. This, however, *was* a misconception - Winch's theory concerned the reinforcing nature of the coupling of need-pairs: in some cases (his 'Type II' complementarity) this could mean that opposite need pairings attracted (e.g. succourance and nurturance) but the 'opposites attract' motto was *not* the foundation of his research. This misconception was unfortunate, because it distorted a decade of research on initial attraction (Duck, 1973) and posed Winch's theory in contraposition to the important early research of Donn Byrne and his co-workers.

Donn Byrne

Byrne's research was derived from a largely behaviourist orientation prevalent in the 1950s psychological research (c.f. Skinner (1953) "Love might be analysed as the mutual tendency of two individuals to reinforce each other, where the reinforcment may or may not be sexual": 310), and Byrne's contribution is similar to Lott and Lott's classical conditioning theory (1960: cited in Perlman and Fehr, 1986). Byrne's law of attraction, a reinforcement statement, proposes that

> "Attraction toward X is a positive linear function of the sum of the weighted positive reinforcement associated with X, divided by the total number of weighted positive and negative reinforcements associated with X" (Byrne, 1971: 279).

The method used by Byrne to test this theory has become a paradigmatic methodology for two decades of 'attraction to strangers' research. In this method, a variant of a method devised by Smith (1957), participants were told they were taking part in an 'interpersonal judgement study'. Participant's attitudes on certain topics were already known through the completion of an earlier attitude scale; now they were given a similar questionnaire completed by a bogus stranger and asked to form an opinion of a stranger whose attitudes were either very similar or dissimilar to their own. This 'opinion' was recorded on two 7-point attraction scales, asking 1) how much the participant believed he/she would like/dislike the person and 2) whether or not he/she would enjoy working with this person (Byrne, 1971; Chapter 3). Byrne's results indicated that the *proportion* of similar attitudes held by the imaginary other was directly proportional to the amount of attraction reported, although this may depend on the subjective valence of the similarity items (Byrne, 1961).

In their summary of the interpersonal attraction literature, Huston and Levinger (1978) offer four reasons for this attraction-similarity effect: a) another's similarity is reinforcing in itself (e.g. Byrne 1971; Byrne et al 1973; Clore, 1975) b) similar responses bolster esteem or comfort (e.g. Gormly, 1974; Lombardo et al, 1972: we achieve 'consensual validation': Byrne, 1961) c) such responses indicate future benevolence/compatability (e.g. Byrne and Blaylock, 1963; Levinger and Breedlove, 1966; Sole et al, 1975; Stapleton et al, 1973)

and likelihood of acceptance (Aronson and Worchel, 1966) d) such similarity has no independent effect, but is confounded with the affective value of the responses (the information processing approach: Ajzen 1974; 1977). Berscheid and Walster add a further explanation: e) "If we know a person's attitudes, we can usually guess how that person is likely to behave" (Berscheid and Walster, 1978: 66)

However, there are many problems with both the methodology and the theoretical assumptions made by Byrne, and these problems are now generally widely cited in even the most basic of texts (e.g. Berscheid and Walster, 1978; Duck, 1986). Perhaps the greatest problem is the inherent circularity involved in any simple reinforcement model: ("reward changes behaviour and whatever changes behaviour is rewarding": Perlman and Fehr, 1986: 30: see also Byrne's own definition of reinforcers: "any stimulus is labelled as a reinforcer if it increases or decreases the probability of the occurrence of responses with which it is paired" (1971: 269)). Among the conceptual problems listed by Duck (1986) is the important caveat that we like those with attitudes similar to our own only as far as a) we like ourselves and b) we presume the other is telling his/her true opinion. Similarly, a further caveat is that the other person must be desirable (Cooper and Jones, 1969; Novak and Lerner, 1968). Other critics of Byrne's theory have questioned the subjective importance of the relevance of the items in Byrne's judgement scales (e.g. Buunk and Bosman, 1986, found in a recent study that a highly-salient issue with married couples demonstrated little actual similarity), and others have claimed that beyond a moderate degree of similarity, we are actually motivated to seek *uniqueness* in a partner (Levinger, 1983;

Snyder and Fromkin, 1980). In analyzing Byrne's methodology, Rosenbaum (1986) has criticised Byrne's inadequate experimental control (and indeed claims that it is dissimilarity which leads to rejection rather than similarity which encourages attraction!) and many others (e.g. Duck (1986)) have noted how the 'attraction to stranger' paradigm is 'forced', so that participants can *only* judge others on their attitudes (hardly 'true to life': indeed Sunnafrank and Miller (1981) have demonstrated that once partners have had an opportunity to interact, then attitude similarity no longer has the important role assumed by Byrne's research). Huston and Levinger (1978) offer the most appropriate conclusion: "liking leads to affiliation only insofar as the potential affiliator anticipates a favorable response" (Huston and Levinger 1978: 128: see also Wetzel et al, 1979). Given this, it is perhaps unsurprising that several commentators (e.g. Seyfried, 1977) have concluded that similarity and complementarity can coexist *together*.

Byrne's reinforcement has been considered in some detail because a great number of studies conducted at about the same time that can be grouped within a similar reinforcement approach. One reinforcing factor in a relationship is *propinquity* (physical proximity of residence: see Abrams, 1943; Clarke, 1952; Katz and Hill, 1958; Kennedy, 1943; Kephart, 1961; Koller, 1948 for the importance of this). Social approval is, according to Berscheid and Walster, "a powerful "transituational reinforcer"" (1978: 39); and it is perhaps unsurprising that reciprocity of liking was seen as another relationship predictor on reinforcement grounds: we like those who like us (see Backman and Secord, 1959; Jones and Wortman, 1973).

Unfortunately, however, the situation was not always as straightforward: individuals do not like those whom they see as clearly attempting to be ingratiating in the hope of obtaining an ulterior motive (Jones and Wortman, 1973) and the power of the 'reciprocity of liking' effect may depend on the sequence of liking/disliking (Aronson and Linder, 1965). Much may also depend on self-esteem which may affect the degree to which the evaluator is perceived to be accurate in his/her judgement (evidence reviewed in Berscheid and Walster, 1978).

Cognitive consistency theories

Three early theories of cognitive consistency are worthy of note for their relevance to later work on the reconstruction of events in relationships (c.f. Burnett et al, 1987). In Heider's model (1944) two persons (referred to as P and O) may have an attitude towards an object (X). If P and O both share a similar attitude towards this object, then to balance the theoretical triangle postulated by Heider, their attitude towards one another should also be positive. If, however, they hold different attitudes towards this object, then conflict should result. If an individual has no attitude towards a particular object or person, then he/she will 'fill in' the triangle with consistent (balanced) attitudes (Perlman and Fehr, 1986: note the end result is once again likely to be that those similar in attitudes attract). Congruency theory (Backman and Secord; 1962) offers an essentially similar hypothesis: a person whom an individual likes will be perceived as having more congruent perceptions of him/her than one whom the individual dislikes. Newcomb's (1961) balance theory suggests

that attitude construction is a more sophisticated process than Heider proposes, with attitudes to people having a different role than attitudes to objects. Thus if two people dislike each other, and dislike an object, then neither balance or imbalance occur- instead this is the special case of 'nonbalance'. He was also concerned with *intensity* of attitudes, rather than just the directionality of that attitude. In his famous study of students at the University of Michigan (1961), Newcomb made an important early methodological refinement in addressing the issue of attitude-similarity causality in a longitudinal setting and found that, with the more *established* relationship, friendship was positively related to attitude similarity - as predicted by 'balance' theory.

The drive behind these theories - that of *consistency* in cognitive processes - has been heavily criticised from a number of viewpoints. What, for example, is a consistent constellation of attitudes for any one individual? Do we really live in a world where individuals are so logical (or do we not quite happily tolerate double standards)? (Duck, 1986). Are our thoughts all that important? Do we not sometimes seek a stimulating diversity? (Perlman and Fehr, 1986). Do we also do (and say) what we believe, or does much depend on self-concept and world view? (Brown, 1965). One classic dilemna for these theories has been the 'romantic triangle': if two people feel attracted towards a third, then the competitive element involved may override the "balance" of similar attitudes (Duck, 1977). One final problem is that even if the theoretical outlines are accepted, how in practice can "imbalance" be reduced? (Newcomb, 1961, offers seven possible means of alleviation:

it is often uncertain as to which is most likely to be successful in a particular circumstance).

Research on love and marriage

Research on love was extremely rare in the early days of psychological research (Berscheid and Walster, 1978) and, at least until the 1950s "love was regarded as a mystery- provocative, exciting and sometimes painful- and that was that" (Walster and Walster, 1978: 2). Berscheid and Walster list three reasons for this 1) love and marriage were regarded as sacrosanct, and unsuitable for scientific study 2) the topic of romantic love was 'taboo' in general: respondents to questionnaires simply would have refused to reply 3) there was uncertainty about *how* to study love. To this a fourth reason can perhaps be added: Finck (1902, in Berscheid and Walster, 1978) claimed that love

> "is such a tissue of paradoxes, and exists in such an endless variety of forms and shades, that you may say almost anything about it that you please, and it is likely to be correct" (147):

love seemed to be so plied full of contradictions, it was very difficult to study.

Maslow (1954) suggested two types of love: need-deficit ('D-love' or deficiency love: largely about just gaining from a relationship to bolster self-esteem etc: this is similar to Reik's notion, above) and 'B-love', 'being-love' (a relatively rare achievement, this concerns both giving *and* taking, and is reached by only a few 'self-actualized' individuals)[2]. If any particular aspect of personal relationships has been weak theoretically, it is probably that on love, which, given

love's often painful nature, offers perhaps the greatest problems for any simple reinforcement approach (see Murstein, 1986; Winarick, 1985).

Marital success

Research on marital success originated in a number of studies conducted by sociologists in the years immediately prior to and succeeding the second World War. (e.g Terman and Buttenweiser). Much of this early work lacked any coherent themes, but one important development was that of the notion of role theory (see Tharp, 1963). Much of this developed from the work of Parsons and Bales (1955), who saw roles as an *organising* motif for relatively enduring needs. As roles are important components of the frameworks to be tested in this thesis, the various problems and confusions associated with the early work on roles will be discussed in some detail in chapter 2.

Comment on the early research in PR.

In many ways by 1960 there was enough material to allow for the construction of quite sensitive theories of relationship development and decline and the concurrent ideas, fed by insights from psychoanalysis and framed within a burgeoning sociological analysis, were, as Tharp concludes (1963: 115) "largely unverified hypotheses..(but) reasonably interrelated and made worthy of research effort by an existing body of data...". What is so surprising is that many of the promising aspects of this research was neglected in the following decades.

1.1.2: PR RESEARCH IN THE 1970s

The importance of the decade

Whilst the choice of any cut-off date is essentially arbitrary, the year 1970 is of interest for two reasons. First it is the starting point for a number of the most influential reviews written on PR, which were often written around the end of this decade (e.g. Spanier and Lewis, 1980; Murstein, 1980). Secondly, around the year 1970, a number of the criticisms that had been levelled at earlier researchers were slowly being addressed by newer work. First of all, a number of researchers in the early 1970s began expressing concern about the lack of relationship process and breakdown research (e.g. Duck, 1973), and, as will be seen below, important new process theories emerged from the research of Ryder et al (1971); Levinger and Snoek (1972), and Altman and Taylor (1973), although the issue of relationship breakdown was not to be fully addressed until the following decade. A second criticism of older research concerned the social (or rather asocial) nature of much of the prior work. A number of writers in the early 1970s began to introduce aspects of the individual's social network into their theorising (e.g. Driscoll et al 1972 account for the effect of parental interference on love, Davis' sociological thesis on relationship appeared in 1973 and Ridley and Avery's overview of the effects of social network structures was published a year later). Thirdly, past research had been methodologically suspect on a number of counts. Many of the questions were misleading (c.f. Ducks and Sants, 1983; McCarthy, 1981; Wright, 1965) or open to various experimenter biases (c.f. McCarthy, 1981). Statistical testing was also often inappropriate (e.g. see Tharp (1963) on the work of Winch).

Whilst it is undoubtedly the case that such flaws continued into the 1970s and beyond (see, for example, Murstein, 1980) it appears that a greater methodological rigour accompanied the development and utilization of more sophisticated and sensitive statistical techniques (e.g. factor and cluster analysis).

Dating research

Throughout the decade, researchers were still very much concerned with the individual physical and psychological variables which attracted two individuals together. Now that concerns with 'needs' had been largely forgotten, assortativeness ("any systematic departure from random mating": Vandenberg, 1972: 128) was claimed to be strongly evident, "with no variable having been shown to be completely independent of it" (Murstein, 1980: 778). Unfortunately, the evidence was not so clear. For example, the assortative effects of physical attractiveness (which had rarely explained more than around 25% of the variance: see Murstein 1972; Shepherd and Ellis, 1972) ran into trouble when it was discovered that, in a free-choice situation, individuals chose simply the *most* attractive person (regardless of their own looks: Walster et al, 1966). Assortativeness on personality was consistently found to be low (Duck 1973; Nias' average correlation of .12 is fairly typical (1978)). To make matters worse, assortativeness seemed to lose any effect it might have had when courtship progress was examined (Levinger, 1972, found attitude similarity unrelated to courtship progress, as did Stroebe et al (1971) in their analysis of the omnipresent physical attractiveness variable).[3]

The concern with courtship progress was certainly one of the newer concerns: at the end of the decade Braiker and Kelley (1979) identified four dimensions couples use to describe their relationship progress (love, conflict, ambivalence and maintenance) and Huston et al (1981) identified four *types* of progress: accelerated arrested / accelerated / interrupted and prolonged. Whilst Huston et al used retrospective accounts the interesting feature of these classifications was a recognition that progression from the dating stage onwards was not necessarily a simple progression that generalised across all relationship types: and indeed the path of true love was rarely smooth (Stambul and Kelley 1978 found that conflict originally increased from casual to serious dating and then levelled off, and others (e.g. Blood and Blood, 1978) argued that conflict is indeed *necessary* for a successful relationship).

If a simple assortativeness theory could not explain why couples chose one another, there was even less promise in identifying the features which might focus attention on a particular individual's style of behaviour. In examining whether or not the 'hard to get' type of partner was more attractive than the less selective, Walster et al (1973), examining the phenomenon from a male perspective, concluded that it was the "selectively hard to get" that was the most preferred (i.e. women who are difficult for others to attract but relatively easy for the male studied: see also Wright and Contrada, 1986). Such a preference may, however, depend on the degree of frustation of the males concerned (Forsyth and Clark, 1975). The Walster study was interesting because it pointed to a *style* of communication (rather than a set of individual attributes) which might be important in

relationship development. Along similar lines dating success (or at least lack of such success) was found to be related to social skills (Curran, 1977; social skills are discussed in more detail in the next Chapter). Courtship techniques were discussed in a number of books and articles produced during this decade. Davis (1973) lists a number of conversational pieces to perform in starting a relationship; these involve 1) finding an appropriate *opener* topic 2) searching for a suitable *integrating* topic and finally 3) projecting a *come-on* self making the individual appear to be someone who is worth knowing.

Exchange theories

Exchange theory reaches back into the 1950s (Homans, 1961; Thibaut and Kelley, 1959), but really came of age within the interpersonal relationship field in the 1970s, influencing theories of initial attraction, relationship development and longer-term marriage (Huston and Levinger, 1978). Exchange theories are types of reinforcement theories, with a principal theme of hedonistic concern (e.g. Homan's (1967) exchange theory claims that "actions are a function of their payoffs": 31), but they go further than simple reinforcement notions by accounting for a greater number of relationship variables (e.g. alternatives available) . Essentially, exchange theory offers the proposition that a relationship will develop and continue if the rewards offered by the partners are of similar magnitude. Probably one of the best definitions of exchange theory as applied to relationships was given by Goffman in an early piece:

> "A proposal of marriage in our society tends to be a way in which a man sums up his social attributes and suggests to a woman that hers are not so much better as to preclude a merger or a partnership in these matters" (1952: 456).

Within exchange theory, 'rewards' came to mean a whole range of attributes, both material (e.g. power and prestige; Berscheid et al, 1973; Kelvin, 1977); physical (e.g. Elder, 1969) and more directly psychological (e.g. love: Foa and Foa, 1974). Exchange theory spawned the 'matching' hypothesis: individuals aim to achieve desirable goals, but this aim is moderated by their perceived likelihood of achievement (Berscheid et al, 1971). Conceptually, this was an advance on a simple and straightforward assortativeness theory: individuals can *compensate* for a deficit in one area by excelling in another (Murstein 1976a; Walster et al, 1979).

A problem with a simple exchange theory was that it seems to suggest that people just look after themselves, without any thought of the consequences for their partner (and society) of such a philosophy. Thus equity theory was developed to account for such a problem by stressing the importance of the exchange of equitable resources. Now the emphasis was more on *perceived* gains and costs: in this theory the *perceived* balance of rewards/costs in the relationship is known as the equity of that relationship (Adams, 1965; Walster et al, 1978). Those who discover they are in inequitable relationships either a) restore actual equilibrium (Berscheid and Walster, 1967) b) restore psychological equilibrium (Brock and Buss, 1962) or c) get out of the relationship (Walster and Walster, 1978; Walster et al, 1978: the choice of strategy depends on "cost-benefit" analysis and an estimate of available compensations and justification (Berscheid and Walster,

1978)). Notably, and contrary to simple reinforcement notions, equity theory claims that *overbenefiting* is likely to lead to relationship dissatisfaction (Schafer and Keith, 1980).

Another new exchange theory, interdependence theory (Kelley and Thibaut, 1978), included the traditional exchange concern that rewards must exceed costs for a relationship to form or continue. However, critical to interdependence theory was the comparison level for alternatives (see chapter 2 for more details) - if individuals fail to get more from their relationship than their available alternatives, they will leave that relationship. This could explain why people remain in a relationship even when they are seemingly gaining little: they are unwilling to confront the alternative of no relationship whatsoever.

The PR field's new-found obsession with exchange theories (Berger, 1988) - and their conceptually pleasing relation to prevalent economic models of psychology (Secord, 1982) - seemed often to blind researchers to a number of the old criticisms which had been applied to the theory's predecessors. The similarities with earlier cognitive consistency theories are obvious, and the two theories share some of the same problems. For example, a relationship in trouble can have many different forms of resolution: guessing which option someone will take is often very difficult. Similarly, making precise estimates of equity is often difficult and tautologous: Walster et al (1978), in summarising equity research, claim that the paradigmatic methodology involves asking partners how their marriage "stacks up" on various characteristics, and involves comparing this rating with marital satisfaction. It seems likely, however, that marital satisfaction will

interact with estimates of how a relationship "stacks up" (see Alessio, 1978 and Byrne and Blaylock, 1963 for an argument stressing the 'balancing up'/misperception that occurs in relationships). Finally, as with cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), the empirical validation for exchange theories is weak, notably in the area of predicting long-term satisfaction and stability (see Argyle and Henderson, 1985: Hook and Cook, 1979; Lamb and Collett, 1984: Lujanski and Mikula, 1983; Murstein, 1977), and many of the central concepts are inconsistently applied and value-laden (Brown, 1965). Some relationships seem to be special, and do not fit into the 'exchange/equity' formula, (Mills and Clark, 1982), and indeed, Murstein and MacDonald (1983) claim that 'exchange orientation' is *negatively* correlated with marital adjustment.

Developmental theories of marital choice and relationship interaction

Two types of developmental model emerged during the 1970s, and together they produced approximately 10 models of romantic relationship development (Altman and Taylor, 1973; Duck, 1977; Leik and Leik, 1976; Huesmann and Levinger 1978; Levinger and Snoek, 1972; Lewis, 1973; Murstein, 1971; Ryder et al, 1971; Scanzoni, 1978; Stambul and Kelley, 1978 - note these first two were more about friendship but have also been applied to romantic relationships). These theories were heavily influenced by exchange / reinforcement tenets (c.f. 'Incremental Exchange Theory: Huesmann and Levinger, 1978), but went further than previous exchange theories in stressing the way in which relationships *changed* over time.

The first type of developmental model, the filter model, was about the

choice of partner. These models stressed the hurdles a potential partner had to cross in forming a relationship. An early filter theory (Kerckhoff and Davis, 1962) had found that early courtship development was related to value similarity, but later relationship progress was related to need complementarity. Although Kerckhoff and Davis' findings failed to replicate (Levinger et al, 1970), the significance of similar filters is clearly evident in later theorising. Thus Murstein (1971; 1976a; 1980; 1985) stresses that, out of the selection of possible availables, individuals make their first choice on 'stimulus' variables (e.g. physical attractiveness) they then, over time, examine their partner's values (both Murstein, and Lewis, 1973, stress that individuals seek similarity here) and finally long-term relationships are determined by role attributes (how the couple function together).

The second type of model, the stage model, was about what happened in a relationship once that relationship had been initiated. These models were essentially similar to Reiss' earlier wheel of development (1960): initial and superficial contacts developed into greater self-revelation and dependency over time, and disclosure moved from the superficial to the 'core' personality (Altman and Taylor, 1973). At the end of the decade, Levinger (1980) offered a model which also included breakdown (the ABCDE model: acquaintance, buildup, continuation, deterioration and ending).

Clearly the process of relationship development was seen to closely echo the filtering process of partner choice, and the same criticisms apply to both sets of theorising. There was overall disagreement about the nature of the stages (Perlman and Fehr, 1986) and the sequencing

of stages (ibid). The only agreement seemed to be that there was some sort of exchange process at work during the early interaction, but, as argued above, such a suggestion is too vague, and is of little value in predicting relationship progress (Murstein, 1986). Longitudinal research supporting the theories is generally lacking (Berg and McQuinn, 1986; Duck, 1987), and much of the research that has been carried out is methodologically suspect (Rubin and Levinger, 1974). Indeed, the relative profusion of new models during the 1970s underlines a problem characterizing much research during the decade. This was the tendency to see each new model developed as a new, unrelated contribution which was in some way unique. This - essentially hedonistic - tendency on behalf of the theory's creators meant that attempts at systematic theoretical unification were rare, and empirical evidence was treated as providing support for just one *particular* theory, rather than a *way of thinking* that was really underlying most of this research.

One final theory of mate selection is of interest because it went against this trend of longitudinal model development and reintroduced the concept of 'needs'. Center's Instrumental Theory (1975) is of considerable relevance to the central concepts of this thesis, and will therefore be considered in more detail below. It is sufficent here to note that Centers 1) stresses certain needs as the most important 2) claims that many of these have particular sex-type relevance and 3) proposes an essentially hedonistic theory, where the reinforcement model of 'attraction on principles of maximum gratification' is made explicit. A more detailed critique of this theory is offered in Chapter 2.

Relationship dissolution

Although Davis (1973) had given a descriptive account of different forms of relationship breakup, it was not until the end of the decade that the process of relationship breakdown was examined in any detail. Thus Hill et al (1976) examined 103 breakups, finding that differences in interest and a desire to be independent were the main reasons for break-up. Conflict research adopted communications theory (e.g. Gottman et al, 1976, 1978; Raush et al, 1974) to examine the differences in communication between 'distressed' and 'nondistressed' couples, although the methodology underlying much of this work has recently been criticised (Noller, 1987). A useful development was the early applications of attribution theory to understanding a partner's distress (e.g. Harvey et al, 1978; Stambul and Kelley, 1978). Overall, however, the *consequences* of break-up were largely ignored, although some writers provided largely descriptive accounts of the possible results of relationship dissolution (Parkes, 1973; Tennov, 1973; Weiss, 1975).

The fact that so many of these studies were primarily descriptive makes for an interesting reflection on the decade as a whole. The 1970s can be seen as an era of suggestion rather than rigorous testing, a time when new ideas (or old ideas dressed up as new ideas) vied with each other more for the sense of intuitive rightness and a *feeling* of explanatory power, rather than strict empirical validity. Consequent with this was the introduction of 'new' variables into the relationship equation - although these equations were still based very much around principles of exchange.

New Relationship variables

Whilst research into marital satisfaction has its origins at least as far back as the 1930s (e.g. Burgess and Cottrell, 1939) three newer emphases included the role of investment and relationship barriers in predicting relationship satisfaction (the two are usually treated as dependent variables) and the variable of relationship commitment (treated either as a dependent variable - Hinde, 1979 - or as an independent variable - Rusbult, 1983).

Rusbult (1980; 1983) offered a theory essentially similar to Interdependence theory (Kelley and Thibaut, 1978: see above) but she added the variable of *investment* (how much someone has put into a relationship, usually the same as what will be lost if the relationship dissolves). She views satisfaction as equal to the equation

rewards minus costs minus comparison level,

and thus the theory is similar also to equity theory, but does not include the partner's perceptions of the ratio of rewards to costs (Murstein, 1986), There is some evidence to favour her model above a simple equity theory (Michaels et al (1984).

'Commitment' was differentiated from simple attraction as early as Thibaut and Kelley's seminal work "The social psychology of groups" (1959). More recent work has emphasised the antecedents of commitment: commitment is advanced by public vows and rituals, the support of friends, legal bonds and irretrievable 'investments' (including time, money and children) and 'psychological adjustments' (e.g. linking partner membership to the self-concept) (Kelley et al, 1983). Commitment is also strengthened by private pledges to the partner,

feelings of shared identity and a positive costs/rewards ratio (Hinde, 1979). As a dependent variable, commitment has also been calculated using the formula

commitment = satisfaction - alternative quality + investment size
(Rusbult, 1983)

or by using modified formulae to account for the variability of commitment (Kelley, 1983). Levinger (1965) went partly outside the couple to look at factors that may make break-up unlikely: these might include religion and peer pressures.

These 'new' variables were not necessarily great conceptual breakthroughs. Both investment and commitment are open to similar charges of circularity in a manner similar to the calculation of how a relationship 'stacks up'. Levinger's "barriers to relationship break-up" can be faulted for not being subjective enough, and his model is somewhat unsubtle in describing the operation of these barriers. Perhaps most significantly of all however, the exact mechanisms by which macro-social forces make an impact were only poorly described by these theorists.

Love

The 1970s saw the beginning of a new interest in taxonomy, and love was taxonimised into passionate love ("a state of intense absorption in another" Walster and Walster, 1978: 9) and companionate love ("a lower-key emotion. It's friendly affection and deep attachment to someone" ibid: 2). The two combined formed 'romantic love' (Murstein,

1986). Love was also trichotomized into 3 forms (desirability, love permanence and commitment and sexuality: Forgas and Dubosz, 1980) and 6 "colours" (Lee, 1973, 1974: the primary "colours" are eros, ludus and storge: secondary colours are mania, agape and pragma). However, it was found to be more difficult to differentiate between love and 'infatuation' (Kephart, 1967; Murstein, 1986). Walster and Walster (1978) concluded that

> "it may be possible to tell infatuation from romantic love only in retrospect. If a relationship flowers, we continue to believe we are experiencing true love: if a relationship dies, we conclude that we are merely infatuated" (Walster and Walster, 1978: 53).

Along with taxonomising love, researchers seemed eager to measure it (Driscoll et al, 1972; Pam et al, 1975 cited in Murstein, 1980) and especially eager to differentiate it from 'liking' (Rubin, 1970). However, taxonomising and measuring love were one thing, successfully explaining love quite another. Love fits uneasily into any simple reinforcement theory (Murstein, 1986) and also fits uneasily into any simple exchange format. Instead, both partners seem to gain through a mutual sense of dependency (evidence summarised in Argyle and Henderson, 1985) and the theme is one of *joint* profit (Hewstone et al, 1982). Indeed, it seemed that the correlates of love (e.g. sex differences; Black and Angelis, 1974; Dion and Dion, 1973, 1975; Kanin et al, 1970: network structures, Driscoll et al, 1972) were far more readily explored and explained than the processes and motivations behind love: the most often-cited theory of passionate love, based on Schachter's mind-body theory of emotional labelling (Berscheid and Walster, 1978) was drawn from very inconclusive evidence (c.f. Dutton and Aron's famous 'wobbly bridge' experiment (1974), a study using

very small numbers of participants and open to a number of alternative explanations (Kenrick and Cialdini, 1977)). Love as a more companionate phenomenon (Hill et al, 1976) was more readily explored, but the lack of emotion associated with this love-form made the theorising sound more like explanations of just "good friendship". Indeed, it is difficult not to conclude that there is still a great deal which is uncertain- even mystical- about love. Winarick's conclusion:

> "It is as if the whole process of choosing a lover involves bumping into the right person and accidentally discovering the right chemistry" (1985: 180)

seems intuitively correct, and there is still insufficient evidence to dispute this contention. Perhaps something of my dissatisfaction with the state of the art results from the contrast between the power and exoticism conjured up by the poets (and even the clinicians) when describing the 'passionate' aspects of love - and the rationalist and controlled 'companionate' features of theories of interpersonal relationships, which seem remarkably 'dry' and insufficient in comparison. The synthesis of passionate feeling with scientific explanation still seems uncertain and unconvincing.

Jealousy is almost as hard to define as love itself, although Walster and Walster, 1978, claim that "most theorists agree that jealousy has two basic components: (1) a feeling of battered pride, and (2) a feeling that one's property rights have been violated" (87). Sex differences have been found in acknowledging feelings of jealousy, attributing blame for jealousy (Clanton and Smith, 1977) and coping with jealousy (Bryson, 1977). Again, however, much of the research has

been more about *describing* the reactions to antecedents of jealousy, rather than analysing 'underlying' causes.

Relationships and social behaviour

A number of studies conducted in the 1970's pointed to how social participants like those who act in a 'socially appropriate' manner, with the definition of 'appropriateness' interacting markedly with sex of interactant (see Huston and Levinger, 1978 and Mehrabian, 1972 for reviews).

Both non-verbal behaviour (e.g. Byrne et al, 1970; Mehrabian, 1972; Rubin 1970) and verbal behaviour (especially self-disclosure e.g. Ajzen 1977; Chaikin and Derlega, 1974; Davis, 1976) were studied intensively during this decade. This research was interesting for a number of reasons. First of all, it allowed for observational measures of relationship progress which went beyond traditional self-report analyses (observed behaviour could be seen as either a determinant of attraction- Rubin, 1970- or as a measure of attraction - Byrne et al, 1970). The techniques of observation became rapidly more sophisticated as time progressed, and relationship researchers were able to make use of an increasingly wide range of conversation analysis techniques derived from the work of ethnomethodologists of the decades before (e.g. Sacks, 1967-1972) and were able to measure increasingly subtle aspects of interaction (e.g. the videorecorder was instrumental in providing sensitive data for the exploration of marital communications: Noller, 1987). Secondly, the observation of behaviour meant that relationships could be studied in settings which were far more naturalistic than the unreal 'questionnaire' administration

situation (as, for example, in the traditional paradigm used in Byrne's work). Thirdly, the development of nonverbal and verbal coding schemes meant that relationships could be treated and observed as *dyadic* entities, with the interactions between partners being coded far more readily than through the use of questionnaires or self-reports.

Unfortunately, the natural advantages of these developments were not always fully realised. Often the use of very unnatural settings (for supposed 'naturalistic' observations) meant that the results obtained were very much open to suspicion (see Beattie, 1982). The use of the subtler aspects of conversational analysis was very time-consuming and researchers took short cuts which led to two related problems: 1) the degree of context-dependency was often ignored, which led to problems in trying to understand the 'meaning' behind exchanges 2) concerns over ritualisation (an important aspect of Conversational Analysis research, for example) were largely forgotten. Finally, a general philosophical question which has bugged psychology since its inception persisted (and indeed, still persists). Observation requires the imparting of *meaning* to an event. This meaning will be theory-dependent (Popper, 1963). Given the above problems with many of the theories prevalent during the decade, it is perhaps unsurprising that the inception of video techniques, and other technological breakthroughs, did not lead to the theoretical breakthroughs which were perhaps first envisaged.

1.1.3. RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN PR: 1980 UNTIL THE PRESENT DAY

In recent years, there has been something of a boom in the study of PR (see, for example, the new journal 'Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, started in 1984 and the series of 'Personal Relationship' books edited by Steve Duck and his colleagues). Any review of recent developments is therefore by necessity selective. Thus only four themes in research are mentioned here: the first reflects the increase in interest in describing what goes on in relationships (Kelley, 1981; Kelley et al, 1983 talk of the field entering a descriptive stage), and here some of the work on relationship rules is briefly mentioned. Secondly, the expansion of the field beyond the study of interpersonal attraction has meant a wider look at non-stereotypic relationships, as well as a rather more pessimistic view of close relationships is described. Finally. PR methodology, in its attempt to see PR as processes, has begun to stress chains of communication within relationships, and this is discussed in the final section below.

Relationship rules

One relatively recent approach has been the work at Oxford University examining the 'rules' underlying relationships (e.g. Arygle and Henderson, 1984; Argyle et al, 1986). By rules, Argyle claims he means "behaviour that most people i.e. most members of a group, neighbourhood, or sub-culture, think or believe should be performed, or should not be performed" (Argyle and Henderson, 1985: 37). These rules can apply to both particular situations and particular relationships, and are developed so that goals can be achieved- they

are cross-cultural, generational and sexual and have a strong overlap with social skills.

The Oxford teams' investigation into rules raises a number of interesting questions for cross-cultural research (see Chapter 10 and Chapter 11 for a critique). In particular, the rules for intimate relationships have been shown to differ quite markedly between Eastern and Western-European cultures (Argyle, 1986). If, as Argyle and Henderson (1985) have argued, rules are critical to understanding relationships, then any cross-cultural generalization has to be viewed with extreme caution.

Non-stereotypic relationships

More recent researchers deserve credit for analysing non-stereotypic relationships, ones falling outside the 'boy meets girl, asks her for a date, they get engaged and marry' scenario. In analysing relationship beginnings, research by Kelley and Rolker-Dolinsky (1987) examined female-dominated relationships, where women actually initiate the relationship. In the longer-term relationship, an increase in cohabitation has led to an increase in research into this phenomenon. A number of researchers have compared cohabitating with the noncohabitating (research summarised in Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Murstein, 1986; Newcomb, 1986) although a problem has always been in deciding whether it is the cohabitating *style of life* which has led to the observed differences or the *types of people who cohabit in the first place*. Perhaps most interesting is the finding that 'trial marriage' cohabitors offers neither the guarantee of the commitment, 'permanence' nor 'the right marriage when we finally marry' that such

trials might initially seem to promise (see Newcomb, 1986). Research on homosexuality has been spurred on by the creation of a new "Journal of Homosexuality". It is probably fair to say that much of this work still concerns replications of traditional heterosexual findings (e.g. on the role of physical attractiveness: Sergios and Cody, 1985, who replicated the findings of Walster et al, 1966). Extra-marital affairs have also come under some examination (e.g. Reiss et al, 1980). This diversification of subjects is an important step towards examining the full fabric of personal relationships, although it is necessary to move beyond the replication of past and established research (research based on more traditional and stereotypic models of 'the relationship') and towards an identification of the *unique* features of these relationship types and activities.

An increasingly pessimistic look

Recent research has extended the emerging trend of the 1970s to examine the more negative aspects of PR. Whilst psychological research in the psychology of groups can be criticised as overly negative in tone (c.f. Reicher, 1984, on the psychology of crowds), it is probably fair to conclude that the opposite has been the case in PR psychology. Recent work on the potentially overwhelmingly negative effects of relationship dissolution (Berscheid, 1983; Wegner et al, 1985; Weiss, 1976), and the (until recently) rapid increase in divorce rates (evidence in Argyle and Henderson, 1985), has begun to redress this imbalance. It is noteworthy how easily existing theoretical concepts such as reinforcement theories and exchange considerations can be

utilized in order to 'explain away' distressed and conflicting relationships, although it is probably fair to conclude that equity theory and interdependence theories, with their emphasis on investment, interindividual perception (equity theory) and relationship alternatives (interdependence theory) are the most convincing explanations for many of the research findings on relationship distress (Perlman and Fehr, 1986).

One interesting development has been the examination of *modes of response* to relationship problems (Rusbult et al 1982; 1986a; 1986c; 1987). The exit-voice-loyalty-neglect-model is discussed more fully in Chapter 9: it is sufficent to note here that such a taxonomy is beneficial in stressing the *range* of responses available to a relationship participant faced with a particular source of conflict. This allows for a more detailed investigation into the critical dynamics of relationship maintenance, and avoids the dangers of a simplistic dissatisfaction = dissolution equation.

Alongside the self-report techniques used by such as Rusbult and her co-workers, observational research has extended the communications perspective to analysing relationship problems, and new techniques (such as the continuous feedback method employed by Gottman and Levenson, 1985) have avoided many of the problems of earlier research. Thus the work of Noller (1985, 1986, 1987) has extended that of Gottman (e.g. Gottman et al, 1976, Gottman, 1979), and, in examining the cyclical nature of negative communication reciprocation (Sillars, 1985), adds a new emphasis on individual's perceptions of their own communications (Noller and Venardos, 1986).

Another burgeoning concern involves the study of chronic loneliness.

The last decade has been characterized by the development and operationalization of a number of loneliness scales (e.g. Russell et al, 1978). Whilst loneliness has been related to a number of other key variables in the study of personal relationships (e.g. social skills, sex-role orientation: Wittenberg and Reis, 1986) it is probably fair to comment that loneliness is still inadequately integrated into broader relationship theories.

In recent years, too, a number of writers have commented on the *non*beneficial effects of a close and intimate relationship. New journals such as the 'Journal of Interpersonal violence' have begun systematic investigations of these phenomena. Even the recent flood of research on child abuse (Porter, 1984; Moore, 1985) can be seen as symptomatic of this trend to take PR away from the painless jollities of the laboratory computer date and into the reality of a harsher and less enticing world.

Relationships as chains of communications

One of the most influential books in PR psychology in recent years has been Kelley et al's "Close Relationships" (1983). In its investigation of the three primary explanatory forces behind relationship behaviour (the personal, e.g. traits; the relational - the result of combined interpersonal interactions - and the environmental) this book stresses the interactional meshing of interchange sequences as a goal-directed activity, and sees the task of the researcher as the unpacking of often dense chains of activity that characterise the relationship. Alongside this has been an increasing recognition of relationships as *negotiated* entities (e.g. Knudson, 1985).

This interactionist perspective, whilst in essence a commendable advance on monolithic theorising, remains problematic in reducing the analysis of the *motivational* units underlying relationship formation and maintenance to the level of a simple reinforcement cost/benefits analysis. This *motivational* approach is central for an understanding of many aspects of close relationships (see chapter 2).

1.2: Critical Comment

Despite the increase in volume (and usually quality) of the recent research, the above review indicates that a number of the issues remain clouded. The next chapter goes on to consider some of these issues by asking some pertinent questions which have only been inadequately tackled in the past research, but in concluding this present review it is necessary to consider some of the reasons *why* many of the problems described above may persist, so that we can be aware of these problems in building new frameworks for relationship examination.

One reason for the persisting problems could simply be a lack of theory: a number of writers (e.g. Freemon, 1976; Huston and Levinger, 1978; Murstein, 1980) have drawn attention to this lack of theory, and despite many 'tokenistic' attempts to integrate a minimum recognition of societal influences (e.g. the work of Robert Milardo) the theories and attendant variables that exist are too often isolated units of study, and not components of integrated models. One reason for this seems simply to be that the theoretical and philosophical assumptions underlying research are not fully expounded in research publications.

A second reason for some of the problems that persist is a

methodological reason. In their 1978 review, Huston and Levinger noted how early interpersonal attraction studies were almost exclusively field studies, whereas the tendency had been for a move into the laboratory in the preceding decade. When there has been a major change in data collection, there has also been confusion as to why different results are sometimes attained (see Banikotes et al, 1972, cited in Wagner, 1975), as every method represents a theoretical statement of its own (Duck, 1977a). The clue to deciphering all this is to look beyond the introspective perspective of the researcher and to take a constructivist view of the *meaning* of the research to the participant (Gergen, 1985): it then seems quite probable that the man or woman with a videocamera is going to get very different responses from their experimental participant than the man or woman who relatively anonymously sends out his/her questionnaire. Thus it seems likely that the most profitable approach is to combine both field and laboratory research and to utilize a number of methods (Webb et al, 1966, in Berscheid and Walster, 1978) in investigating any particular phenomena.

A third and final reason for some of the confusion is also related to the psychology of the PR researcher. Over the years, PR psychology has probably exhibited some degree of paradigmatic shift in the sense first developed by Kuhn (1962: e.g. the current trend towards 'process-related' research: c.f. Duck, 1988a). These shifts have not been as obvious or as inevitable as in Kuhn's formulation, but they have certainly obtained the protection of whole hosts of auxiliary defences (Lakatos, 1974: here a classic case is exchange theory, with its recent myriad of complicating variables and refinements). As a

consequence of this, there has been a certain eagerness to reject past observations- which may have had considerable heuristic value - simply because the attendant theories were substandard. As a result, a great deal of valuable data and insight, much of it derived from psychoanalytically-inspired theories, has been wastefully discarded. This thesis, in redressing a similarly discarded set of constructions (that of personal needs) seeks to build an integrative theory of PR that can prospectively predict relationship formation and quality.

Footnotes for chapter 1

[1] See Bowlby (1973) for the adoption of some of Freud's early ideas in the form of 'attachment' theory

[2] This distinction between types of love has been recently criticized by Murstein (1986) as being too idealized, failing to recognize that both types are likely to be in operation at different times.

[3] Although the evidence on this point is equivocal (see Thiessen and Gregg, 1980).

Chapter 2

Salient issues in the construction of a theory of relationship development and maintenance

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2.5: Concluding remarks

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"Love, as it exists in society, is nothing but the exchange of two fantasies and the contact of two skins" [Chamfort, N: Maximes et Pensees]

In the concluding part of chapter 1, a number of problems were identified within the personal relationships field, problems which needed to be addressed if a new and satisfactory theory of relationship development and quality was to be formulated. In the conducting of this appraisal, four questions became apparent which were only poorly addressed in the existing literature: these were (1) "What determines the choice of relationship partner?"; (2) "How does dyadic interaction affect relationship satisfaction?" (3) "How might others in wider society influence relationships?" and (4) "What other psychological/societal barriers might act to restrict relationship development?". These questions are 'prototypic', in that a consideration of some of the issues they raise should help account for a variety of more 'superficial' relationship effects (Hendrick, 1988). Some cursory answers to these questions are placed within the framework of the three levels of relationship processes identified by Huston and Levinger (1978) and Raush (1977): namely the levels of the individual, the dyadic and the societal'. In this way, I hoped to produce a valid and balanced prospectus for the examination of relationship development and quality.

2.1 Question 1: What determines the choice of relationship partner?

Psychology in general and the psychology of PR in particular, has been both enlightened and confused by the concept of 'motivation' (McAdams,

1984; Tajfel, 1972), and consequently, in recent years, the motivational approach to close relationships has been neglected at the expense of a greater behavioural emphasis (Shaver and Hazan, 1985). In terms of this thesis, the central question of motivation is: why do individuals form a relationship with any one particular other? One of the most comprehensive yet contentious set of answers to this question comes from a wide range of research that takes as it central tenet the concept of 'need fulfilment'. Margulis et al (1984: 138) summarise this viewpoint with the statement

> "relationships can be described as a series of exchanges that satisfy or frustrate the needs of participants"

2.1.1. The concept of need

Defining 'needs' has been problematic almost since the inception of psychology as an academic discipline (Caplan, 1964). Murray's renowned definition of need (Murray, 1938) is probably the most widely used (Seyfried, 1977): Murray defines a need as

> "an organic potentiality or readiness to respond in a certain way under given conditions" (61)... "a construct ... which stands for a force ... in the brain region, a force which organizes perception, apperception, intellection, conation and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing, *unsatisfying* situation" (Murray, 1938: 124: my emphasis).

Murphy (1947:992) places a similar emphasis on the idea of deficiency: a need is "(t)he *lack* of something which if present would tend to give satisfaction" (my emphasis), and Maslow defines needs in terms of the deficiencies to which they are related: needs are "empty holes...which must be filled up for health's sake" (1968: 22f). Woodworth and

Schlosberg (1954) however, give a significantly different interpretation: a need is "an organic state of deficiency *or excess*" (657: my italics).

All the above authors also give a proviso stressing the specificity of the situation, and claim that needs should be clearly viewed as person-specific (Shaver and Hazan, 1985 and McAdams, 1988, in recent reviews thus prefer the term 'personal needs'). However, all these definitions are problematic in that they beg an important question: 'can an individual have a need for something (e.g. sex) resulting from no obvious deficit?' Thus Schutz's definition of need is broader and therefore probably more satisfactory, even if his concept may appear even more difficult to measure: according to Schutz a need is "a situation or condition of an individual the nonrealization of which leads to undesirable consequences" (1958: 15). Winch provides us with a similar definition, viewing a need as simply a "goal-oriented drive" (Winch et al, 1954: 242).

Whilst it is clear that there are differences in the definition of 'need', the situation is made more complex by the fact that most writers commenting on relationship-relevant needs simply neglect to specify what they mean by 'need' at all (c.f. Coetsier and DeCorte, 1988; Margulis et al, 1984; McAdams, 1988). This has been particularly evident in empirical investigations, where most researchers have been content to adopt other's scales (usually measuring personality) without considering the validity of this usage. Thus the Jackson Personality Research Form (Jackson, 1967) is used by Meyer and Pepper (1977) for 'relationship needs' research; the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (Edwards, 1959) is employed by others Becker,

1964; Bermann and Miller, 1967; Blazer, 1963; Bowerman and Day, 1956; Heiss and Gordon, 1964; Katz et al, 1960, 1963; Levinger, 1964; Murstein, 1961, 1967; Reilly et al, 1960) for a similar purpose ...yet none of these authors provide a clear rationale as to why this scale was used.

A brief history and criticism of relevant needs research

Many psychoanalytically-orientated writers saw need fulfilment as the central motif in trying to deal with the contentious issue of 'love'. Both Reik (1941) and Ohmann (cited in Centers, 1975) viewed love as relatively straight-forward need fulfilment based on the idealisation of the other, and Winch et al (1955) provided perhaps the clearest exposition of this position with their claim that

> "love is defined as the experience of deriving gratification for important psychic needs from a peer-age person of the opposite sex, or the expectation of deriving such gratification" (1955: 508) [2]

Many recent psychoanalytic writings echo this theme:

> "...one falls in love with another not by chance, but because that person and the experience of falling in love...meet strong unconscious needs and solve certain immediate unconscious conflicts...The unconscious fantasy is that the union of love will provide them with everything they feel they are lacking" (Winarick, 1985: 382)

Continuing this line of argument, Karp (1970), Mathes and Moore (1985), Murstein, 1967 and 1970 and Shaver and Hazan (1985) all found that individuals were most attracted to those embodying their own particular ideal characteristics.

Psycho-analytically orientated family therapists have also offered similar accounts of attraction based on the premise of need-

fulfilment. Lynch and Blinder consider need-*change* as a possible contributor to relationship problems:

> "People enter romantic relationships primarily out of a variety of needs...and out of more narrow and idiosyncratic ones...These mutual reciprocal need systems are set up outside of conscious awareness, but when the needs of one partner change, the relationship must shift in such a way as to accomodate them or the relationship will die" (Lynch and Blinder, 1983: 91).

The problems with this psychoanalytic form of explanation are two-fold. First of all, 'love' itself is rarely defined beyond the 'experience in which needs are fulfilled' (obviously a rather tautologous definition). Secondly, the writers concerned fail to specify whether love depends on the actual realisation of need fulfilment or just the idealisation of such fulfilment. This of course greatly complicates any empirical trial of these ideas.

Experimental research. Early experimental research on needs suffered from two types of problems which can be conceptually placed on two different poles of a continuum. At one end of this continuum, the concept of 'need' has been frequently used as a summarizing / super-ordinate concept, with only a very vague definition as to which particular need or type of need is under examination. At the other end of the extreme, needs are often divided into small subdivisional units which are then treated in a very uneven manner. An example of this latter trend in research is Murray's (1938) early work dividing needs into viscerogenic needs (needs with a biological basis) and psycho-genic needs (more socially driven needs), both forms of which could be expressed in a latent manner (e.g. in dreaming) or in a more manifest way. Murray also made similar divisions between diffuse needs (ones which could be gratified in a number of situations) and focal needs

(gratification was only within one situation) as well as proactive needs (internally driven) and reactive needs (externally motivated). However, attempts to use Murray's classifications have generally rested on only certain dimensions within these classifications: needs have usually been viewed as psychogenic, manifest (in the sense that they could be readily derived from certain personality tests), diffuse in gratification and reactive in motivational terms. The result has been that Murray's promising attempts to deal with global motivational impulses has become confused, whilst at the same time an overemphasis on externally produced need stimuli has meant that ideas of 'self growth' (actualization) within a relationship (Maslow 1968, and Rogers (1961)) have been largely ignored[3]

These problems are underlined by considering in more detail a few of the relevant studies in the area. In answer to the question 'why do individuals choose a particular individual as a relationship partner?' Winch (1958) proposed the existence of two types of possible need fulfilment which underlie such a motivation. The first type of fulfilment involves the *same* need being gratified in both partners during a relationship but at different levels of intensity: the second type involves the fulfilment of *different* needs. Winch proposed the existence of 12 general needs (adopted from Murray's 1938 list of needs), and three general traits, and claimed that

> "In mate selection each individual seeks within his or her field of eligibles for that person who gives the greatest promise of providing him or her with maximum need gratification" (Winch, 1952: 406).

Winch's definition and explanation of the motives behind these needs appears strongly Freudian, but essentially rests on principles of both

straight-forward direct gratification and vicarious fulfilment (Centers, 1975).

Perhaps because of the confusion concerning its 'conceptual parents' (Freud or Watson?) Winch's theory has been shown to be unsatisfactory on a number of counts. Probably the most damning indictment of Winch's theory is its consistent failure to prove itself on empirical grounds, despite trials of the theory in a number of different experimental settings and with the use of a variety of methdological techniques (e.g. Banta and Hetherington, 1963; Bowerman and Day, 1956; Heiss and Gordon, 1964; Levinger et al, 1970; Murstein, 1961; Meyer and Pepper, 1977; Schellenberg and Bee, 1960). Winch's theory has also been heavily criticised on conceptual grounds (see Campbell, 1982; Centers, 1975, Huston and Levinger, 1978; Murstein, 1976a; Rosow, 1957; Seyfried and Hendrick, 1973; Seyfried, 1977 for reviews). Meyer (1975 in Meyer and Pepper, 1977) and Levinger (1964) question the validity of Winch's choice of needs, and Rosow (1957) asks critical questions about the different levels at which need complementarity may operate, the centrality of certain needs, and the attendant problem of the consciousness of needs. Levinger (1964) goes on to point to two logical confusions between complementarity and similarity in Winch's work: there is no explicit theoretical basis provided for which needs are complementary[4] and the distinction between 'within marriage' and 'external sources' of satisfaction is ignored. Furthermore, Murstein (1976a; 1986) has noted that the presence of a particular need does not mean the same as behaviour in accordance with that need. Other commentators have pointed to additional factors that if incorporated into future complementarity research may explain findings that are

incongruent with Winch's theorising (e.g. the degree of intimacy between relationship participants, the degree of an individual's sensitivity to their needs and the role relationship and social context within which the analysis is conducted: Campbell, 1982; Rychlak, 1965; Seyfried, 1977; Wagner, 1975: also see below for a further discussion of these points).

Winch's work has also attracted heavy criticism on methodological and statistical grounds. Tharp (1963) points to the possibility of a strong experimenter bias in some of Winch's studies, and Murstein (1976a) criticises the inappropriate usage of the TAT test and the dubious nature of the subject sample employed. On statistical grounds, Bolton (1961) and Tharp (1963) claim Winch misinterprets his own results in his early work, and Rosow (1957) and Tharp (1963) question Winch's choice of needs as independent categories (some may overlap making Winch's statistical techniques inappropriate). Indeed, Tharp's (1963) criticism/'observation' provides a fitting summary of much of Winch's work:

> "Almost any set of data, if sufficiently badgered, can be exhausted into submission" (Tharp, 1963: 107).

It was important to consider these criticisms in depth because combinations or variations of these have been applied to most other workers investigating needs in PR. Winch's theory is renowned for its emphasis on complementary need patterns amongst dyads (essentially 'filling in' what the other lacks). Moving beyond the interactions of dyads, Schutz's compatability theory (1958) is a group-orientated version of that offered by Winch (1958), and considers three types of compatability between persons: originator compatability (about who

starts the interaction), interchange compatability (about how much interaction will occur) and reciprocal compatability (about the type of behaviour someone likes to express and how much is desired by the interactant). Schutz's contribution is often considered to be more useful than Winch's as it links the interpersonal and intergroup perspectives on attraction and provides different patterns of complementarity for different roles. Schutz's theory also seems to have a greater empirical validity when contrasted with Winch's formulations (Centers, 1971).

The most recent, and perhaps simplest needs theory relevant to the present discussion, is the theory offered by Richard Centers (1972; 1975). In a relatively straight-forward reinforcement account, Centers (1975) claims that individuals engage in association and interaction with others to gratify certain definable long-term needs: "individuals are dependent upon each other for specific gratifications of certain motives, which for that reason are referred to as interpersonal needs" (page 44). Whilst Centers is more subtle than most in recognizing that needs arise from a complex interplay of biology and normative environment, he relies heavily on rather simplistic exchange principles (all interpersonal behavior is an exchange process where individuals seek to maximise gratification of their respective needs). As with Winch's theory, there are problems which are both empirical and conceptual in nature. Empiricially, Centers fails to provide the necessary evidence for the testing of his theory (Murstein, 1980). In terms of the logical nature of the theory, Centers is open to three main criticisms. First, the gratification of certain motives is presumed to be the same as the fulfilling of 'interpersonal needs'

although the two are not necessarily synonymous, and are nowhere shown to be so. Second, certain 'needs' are claimed to be vital for all individuals (e.g. the need for sex) but there is no obvious rationale as to why these needs are *by necessity* significant for any one particular individual. Finally, little attention is given to how and why a relationship changes and the effects these changes may have on the developing or established relationship.

Further problems with needs research

Matters have hardly been helped by a number of minor disagreements which litter the 'needs' area. Some writers (e.g. Maslow, 1938; Murray, 1954) have argued that it is better to conceive of needs as a hierarchical concept, with certain needs taking precedence over others. Other conceptualizations seem to either be unsure or ignore such specification (e.g. Cattell and Nesselroade, 1967). Referring back to Murray's category of 'reactive' needs, some have argued that needs arise, at least partly, from particular situations (Argyle, 1988, personal communication), whilst others treat the relevant unfulfilled need as a more patient proclivity, just waiting, as it were, to pounce on the first available and suitable fulfiller (see Tennov's 'limerants' (1979), individuals entangled in an idealised state of love bordering on infatuation). Yet another division arises over the question of the consciousness of needs. Cattell and Nesselroade (1967) talk of a whole cluster of needs as being important in the "completion principle", some of these conscious and others unconscious (see also Ktsanes and Ktsanes, 1968, and Strauss, 1946 for a similar perspective). Centers (1975: 197) seems to doubt the very

existence of conscious needs, arguing that

> "people ... don't really know what they want".. hav(ing) only much of the time vague unlabeled feelings born of them. These vague feelings, nevertheless ...serve to direct or guide their interactions and associations with others in such a fashion as to maximize their gratifications and minimize their punifications".

Of course such a specification provides real problems for empirical verification.[5]

Furthermore, despite the research mentioned above, little is known about how need attributes combine to influence behaviours, and consequently theorists have emphasised the role of intrapsychic activities in close relationships often with very little justification for doing so (Huston and Levinger, 1978; Rubin, 1976). As a result, wider dyadic and social processes have been almost totally ignored by needs theorists, who have provided only the flimsiest rationales for their selection of 'important' and 'vital' needs, and the role of these needs in predicting relationship attributes. Consequently, the assertions of 'need' propagators have become authoritarian acts, with little hard evidence in favour of accepting the preferred delimitations. 'Need' has been equated with so many other possibly quite separate concepts (e.g. attitude) that the strict empirical examination such an idea requires has become well-nigh impossible.

2.1.2. Partner preferences

The concept of partner preference

If need theories at present are insufficient to deal with the motivation underpinning relationship choice, how else can the selection of a partner be explained?

One possible solution is to take a step away from the vagaries of unconscious need processes and to concentrate instead on an individual's conscious preferences for a partner, here defined as: "those characteristics sought in a partner by an individual seeking or already involved in a relationship". These preferences may come from a number of sources (e.g. values, attitudes) but the sheer weight of the commentaries on relationship motivation does suggest that need is probably a significant contributor.[5] This emphasis on preferences also falls in line with the symbolic interactionist perspective on the family: individuals have inclinations, wishes and situational needs, claims Burr et al (1979: 94)

> "and people are probably attracted to others partly on the basis of how they respond to them. These phenomena are not, however, conceptualized with the label 'need' as defined by Murray and used by Winch"

In many cases, formulations which rested on the use of the word 'need' can now be rewritten using the term 'preference' or even 'desire'. To take just one example, loneliness becomes the absence of the preferred partner type (after Shaver and Hazan, 1985), this other is missed because they provide

> "a sense of complementarity in which the other is seen as having capabilities missing in the self...so that association with the other in some way completes the self" (Weiss, 1975: 39).

Adopting the concept of 'preference' still makes use of a sense of fulfilment, but also provides a more readily identifiable entity, one which is operating at the more measurable (conscious) level. Previous research which assumed a link between needs (leading to) preferences (leading to) predicted relationship is now simplified, as the specification of often unknowable needs no longer poses a problem.

Evidence for the importance of partner preferences

Surprisingly, there is practically no research using the idea of preferences which directly attempts to explore why certain partner choices are made, or the influence of such preferences on the established relationship. Probably the most pertinent link for the present purposes is made in Graziano and Musser's (1982) article, where they put forward a number of (as yet untested) propositions concerning needs, among them the suggestion that, in attraction,

> "(a) when needs are activated, the perception of the size of the open field will be reduced; (b) perceptual and cognitive processes will be focussed on a small subset of persons...who are expected to be able to satisfy the need (c) attributes of persons relevant to the need will be emphasised relative to the need-irrelevant attributes" (page 85).

Graziano and Musser (1982) then collate together a number of studies to indicate that the partner is then likely to react in accordance with the need-projections of the other.

Shaver and Hazan make a similar point:

> "needs and desires (along with associated fantasies) impel interpersonal behaviour, and feelings or emotions inform the behaving person about whether the needs are being met" (1985: 167: see also Margulis et al, 1984, for a similar argument)

Alongside this, a fairly large body of work has examined general trends in partner preferences, and this material is reviewed in Chapter 4. Other research, comparing the attitudes or values or needs of ongoing partnerships, has not stopped to inquire on the impact of preferences for a partner on specific relationship choices (see Chapter 1).

Of the 'partner preference' investigations, three studies do provide some further insight into the *significance* of partner preferences, and

these studies will receive further comment in later chapters. In an early study, Strauss (1946) asked established couples to name the attributes they desired in a partner and then compared this with the characteristics they attributed to their present partner. 40 years later, Buss and Barnes (1986) and, in a similar study Howard et al (1987), correlated desired partner characteristics with the personality of obtained partners. In all three studies the results indicated that partners indeed obtained 'what they wanted', in the sense that the partner chosen for a relationship was similar to the type of individual the experimental participants said they 'preferred'. It should be noted, however, that these studies used already established couples: partners may *change* when they interact (Ktsanes and Ktsanes, 1968) so that the initial personality characteristics which so attracted them to each other are no longer present. As such, the issue of 'what determines the choice of a relationship partner?' remains open to investigation.

Question 1: What motivates the choice of relationship partner? Summary and prospectus for research. For many commentators, need fulfilment seemed to be the key to explaining choice of relationship partner and the very motivation for forming a relationship. However, as was demonstrated above, the very concept of need-fulfilment is as yet too vague and illdefined to be used in an experimental examination of close relationships. One useful and more easily applied concept is that of partner preferences, and an assortment of evidence suggests that these may play an important part in close relationships. It is these preferences that it is the aim of this thesis to explore.

2.2. Question 2. How does dyadic interaction affect relationship quality?

One consistent criticism of much of the early research in PR was that it was too concerned with the qualities that an individual brought into a relationship and thus ignored the possible transformations in thinking and behaviour that affected individuals once they became involved in an established relationship (Bolton, 1961). In Chapter 1, it was suggested that research into PR in the last decade has begun to make some amends for this deficiency, and has moved away from an individual perspective to one concentrating upon the interactions a couple may take part in during their relationship.

In order to complement an emphasis on individual preferences it is therefore necessary to extend the analysis to look at the manner in which a couple behave and think about their relationship as a joint venture, and thus to engage in an enterprise that Scanzoni calls the study of the 'microsociology of the family' (1978). According to Thompson and Walker (1982, cited in Mirowsky and Ross, 1987: 531) a successful dyadic level analysis includes the following characteristics:

(1) the research problem is at the level of the relationship

(2) one or both members report on self, other, and/or the relationship

(3) the analysis provides information on the pattern between members of the dyad or between dyadic relationships, and

(4) interpretations refer to the relationship between two people.

The study of role relationships is ideal for meeting these criteria. The research summary here relies largely on the work of sociological investigators, who have tended to treat roles both as a valuable

summating variable, as well as one which captures jointly the dyadic communications specific to a particular couple (Alessio, 1978; Burr et al, 1979; Ort, 1950; Tharp, 1963b).

The definition of roles

In many ways, the use of the term 'roles' has been as confusing as that of the 'needs' (Athay and Darley, 1982; Burr et al, 1979; Hinde, 1981; Nye and Gegas, 1976; Peplau, 1983). Probably the most frequently-used definition would reflect a structuralist tradition (c.f. Nye and Gegas, 1976) and read something like "a role is the behaviour associated with or expected from the individual's occupation of a particular social position" (Argyle, 1988, personal communication: see also Linton, 1945 and Parsons and Bales, 1955 for similar definitions). However, this category of definition has tended to be both sex and status-typed (c.f. Delora, 1963), and is culturally defined and limited (see Murstein, 1977, for a critique). Such a definition also tends to ignore aspects of role change (Secord, 1982) and is inherently circular: behavioural patterns are observed within a specific situation and are then ascribed to role constraints, behavioural deviations from the expected pattern are ascribed to different role explanations. In the words of one critic, the overtly structuralist definition is unacceptable as "people are not pawns all stamped in the same mould, and they are active in shaping and changing their physical and social environments" (Secord, 1982: 33).

More recently, some researchers have begun to accept a looser, less 'objective', and more 'subjective'/interactionist definition of roles (Dyer, 1968; Murstein, 1977; Peplau, 1983; Turner, 1970). In this

thesis roles will be broadly defined in the terms used by Peplau (1983: 222): a role is

> "a consistent pattern of individual activity within a relationship, and one which involves a degree of influence between two or more people"

However, this definition, in stressing the subjective elements of role formation, at the same time includes within the operationalisation of the role concept the recognition that "roles by definition always consist of some socially shared expectations" (Burr et al, 1979: 54), and the measures used for the analysis of roles in this dissertation will involve the examination of some of these more 'socially shared' expectations (see also Athay and Darley, 1982; Balswick and Anderson, 1969; Stuckert, 1963 and Tharp 1963, 1963b for the significance of role expectations). Thus structuralist and interactionist positions are combined in the study of a unit (the couple) whose interactions combine both the formal and informal (see also Athay and Darley, 1982; Nye and Gecas, 1976; Secord, 1982; Staines and Libby, 1986 for similar attempts to combine the structuralist and interactionist traditions).

Roles as subjective entities

Given the above, it is important to recognise that roles are likely to be *negotiated* entities, rather than mere behavioural reflections or societal artifacts (Scanzoni, 1978; Schlenker, 1980; Spencer, 1987), and role-behaviour is not limited to sex-typed role assumptions, but is located on a more subjective and individual plane. Adopting this phenomenological perspective it is clear that

> "a role relation follows from each individual's understanding of it (Kelly, 1955), the behavioural process occurring between two people represents as many different relationships as there are viewers

of it" (Neimeyer and Neimeyer, 1985: 339)

Thus whilst the variables brought to any hypothetical role 'negotiating table' may be - at least in part - wider social derivatives, the importance of any distinct role is directly related to the significance attached by the relationship participants. As will be seen below (chapter 8) this has important implications for the measurement of role relations.

Roles and needs/preferences

A number of researchers have developed a theoretical link between concepts of roles and the familiar notion of 'needs', often claiming attraction to be a function of both needs and roles (Barton and Dreger 1986; Centers, 1975; Murstein, 1976a; Rychlak, 1965; Schutz 1958; Seyfried, 1977; Wagner, 1975; Winch 1963, 1967, 1971). One slightly more sophisticated version of this (needs and roles) interactive approach is to view need gratification as a force determining initial attraction, and role fulfilment as a second-stage variable, significant in predicting marital satisfaction. This argument was first espoused by Parson and Bales in 1955 who claimed that need achievement may be important in the early stages of date selection and courtship, but that it has a lesser effect on marriage roles. This contention is stronger than a monolithic needs or roles dominated model in that it allows for the influence of both the interpersonal and intrapersonal processes operating in the attraction process.

To bring this in line with the commentary provided for Question 1 (on needs theories) the word 'preferences' can be substituted for the word 'need'. This two-stage approach can then be used as a predictor of

relationship development and change[7]. In many ways this is illustrated by the familiar scenario- "you may love me, but we can't live together, we just wouldn't get on". Here it is the expectations about (largely behavioural?) interactions that serve to frustate the relationship.

Roles and relationship quality

If roles are to be defined with a subjective definition, then it is *perceived* role consensus rather than objective consensus that is most clearly related to marital satisfaction (Chassin et al, 1985; Levinger and Moles, 1976). Indeed, this is the major conclusion of much of the most important empirical work on roles (work which originated in the early 1950s (e.g. Ort, 1950)), as well as the consensus of a number of influencial reviews which have stressed the positive and largely linear relationship between role satisfaction and various measures of relationship quality (c.f. Bahr et al, 1983; Burr et al, 1979; Hicks and Platt, 1970; Nye and McLaughlin, 1976). However, one consistently reported proviso has been that the exact nature of this role satisfaction-relationship quality correlation is likely to be affected by sex differences in role expectations (Langhorne and Secord, 1955; Nye, 1976; Staines and Libby, 1986; Tharp, 1963).

Question 2: How does dyadic interaction affect relationship quality?
Summary
The concept of roles has been used in a number of differing ways. However, roles (when considered as *subjective* entities) seem to be important elements in close relationships once initial desires have been met within that relationship.

2.3: Question 3. How might others in wider society influence relationships?

The first question posed in this Chapter asked 'what determines the choice of relationship partner?, and it was suggested that it was better to consider the question in terms of preference attainment. Such an area as personal preferences is best seen as conceptually framed within notions of the individual as the significant unit of analysis for relationship processes. A second question went beyond this individual level and drew attention to the unique dyadic interactions which develop within a partnership. It is now necessary to complete the triangle of relationship influences (Huston and Levinger, 1978; Raush, 1977) and consider how others in wider society might influence our relationships. In the words of Milardo (1986: 63)

> "Individuals and their relationships...are embedded within a social system, a system that profoundly influences people, their availability to one another, the choices they make with regard to one another, and the character of their relationship" (see also Andreyeva and Gozman, 1981; LaGaipa, 1981 Parks et al, 1983 and Ridley and Avery, 1981, for similar arguments).

Social support and relationship alternatives are widely recognized relationship variables which fall within such a 'wider' brief.[8]

Defining social support

Defining social support has proven to be no easier than defining 'needs' or 'roles'. Whilst some have been content with the broadest of

definitions (de Jong-Gierveld (1989: 211) claims the term social support has been used frequently simply to refer to "all the positive aspects of relationships") one of two themes can be found in most of the definitions. One set of definitions read rather like 'operational' definitions, stressing the components of support. Thus social support is seen by Hobfoll and Stokes (1988: 499) as a mixture of tangible assistance and esteem maintenance, and represents

> "those interactions or relationships that provide individuals with actual assistance or with a feeling of attachment to a person or group that is perceived as caring or loving"

This type of definition is echoed in the idea that social support is about providing resources:

> "the term social support refers to the various resources provided by one's interpersonal ties" (Cohen and Hoberman, 1983: 100)

The second kind of definition embraces the idea of deficiency, and in particular sees social support as a form of need fulfilment. Thus Syrotuik and D'Arcy (1982: 230) define social support as "the satisfaction of a variety of social needs" and in a very similar conceptualisation, Jacobson (1986: 252) claims support is simply the presence of "resources that meet needs". A similar emphasis can be found in LaGaipa's concept of personal goals - social support is:

> "any action or behaviour that functions to assist the person in meeting his personal goals or in dealing with the demands of any particular situation" (1981: page 81)

Any distinction between these types of definition may appear pedantic, but in fact given the uncertainty in operationalising the measurement of support (see below) these differences are very important. One problem with concentrating on *either* the provision of aid/resources *or*

the fulfilment of deficiencies is that the exact link between the two is often unclear.

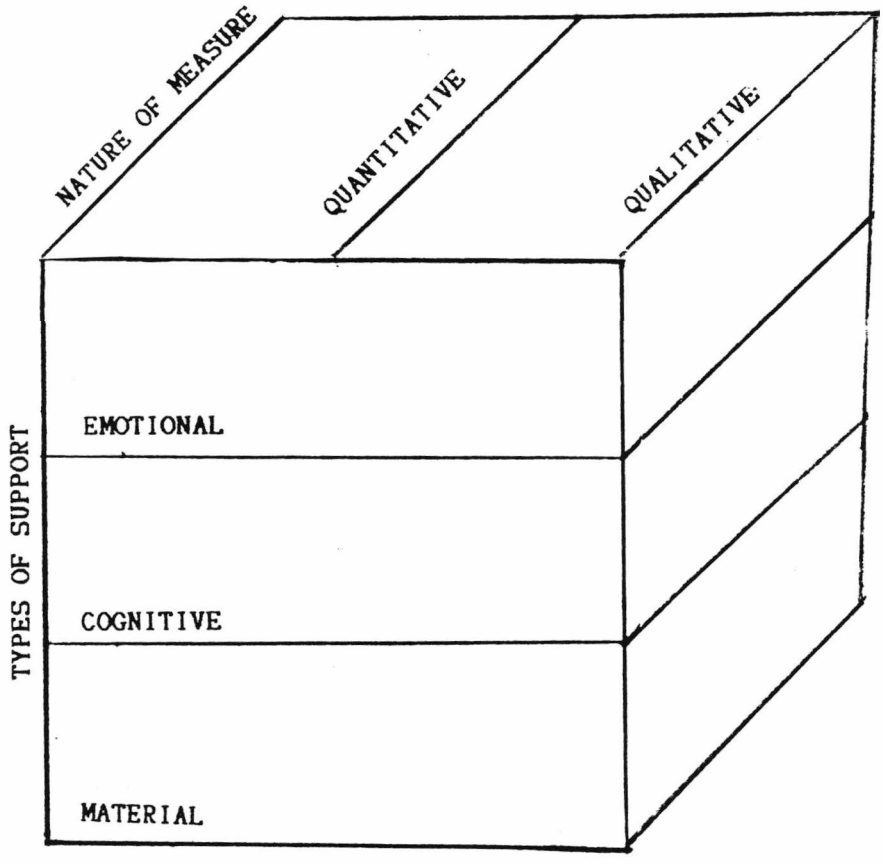
A brief history and taxonomy of social support.

Work on social support grew out of the community health movement (Heller et al, 1986; Hobfoll, 1988). A number of different types of support have been examined from a variety of perspectives (Jacobson, 1986), and thus a large number of divisions can be made between different trends in the literature. A taxonomy summarising some of these divisions is outlined in figure 2.1.

The most frequent division that exists in the literature is between quantitative and qualitative aspects of support (Antonucci and Akiyama, 1987; Bruhn and Philips, 1984; Cobb and Jones, 1984; Fleming and Baum, 1986; Kelley, 1983; LaGaipa, 1982; Reis, 1984; Rook, 1987; Vinokur et al, 1987) and few studies have attempted to combine these approaches (see Bruhn and Philips, 1984; Cobb and Jones, 1984 and Vinokur et al, 1987 for the consequences of this). Early research took an 'objective' stance, examining support within a quantitative framework and stressing how number of contacts (etc) was related to psychological (and physical) well-being (e.g. Henderson and Byrne, 1977). Quantitative support, however, seemed to be a relatively poor predictor of some of these outcome measures of well-being, and more recent investigators have tended to concentrate on social support as a *perceived* quality: i.e. as it exists in the eye of the beholder (e.g. Cohen and Hoberman, 1983; de-Jong Gierveld, 1986; Fleming and Baum, 1986; Jones et al, 1985; O'Connor and Brown, 1981; Sarason et al, 1987; Shaver et al, 1985; Wetherington and Kessler, 1986) Upholders of

the 'qualitative' viewpoint have been quick to demonstrate how perceived support may correlate relatively weakly with supports actually available (see Hobfoll and Stokes, 1988; LaGaipa, 1981; Sarason et al, 1985).

Figure 2.1: A taxonomy outlining some of the divisions typical in the social support literature



Perceived social support has generally been seen as "A Good Thing", and has been positively related to physical and psychological health (Antonucci and Akivana, 1987; Brown and Harris, 1978; Burda et al, 1984; de Jong-Gierveld, 1986; Dunkel-Schetter et al, 1987; Fleming and Baum, 1986; Norbeck et al, 1981; Reis, 1984; Syrotuik and D'Arcy, 1982; Wetherington and Kessler, 1986), although the percentage of variance actually explained by either quantitative *or* qualititive social support is still usually quite small (Rook and Darley, 1985). The front-facing perspective of the taxonomy reflects the three most commonly cited *types* of support that others may provide (Antonucci and Akiyama, 1987; Baum, 1986; Fleming and Baum, 1986; Jacobson, 1986; Kelley, 1983; Rook, 1987; Solano, 1986). In terms of 'beneficial' effects, 'material' resources (e.g. the provision of money) have generally been found to have the least influence in bolstering individuals against depressing life events (Cohen et al, 1986; Cohen and Hoberman, 1983) with the provision of intimacy/emotional support being probably the most potent form of support in dealing with life problems and promoting mental health (Hobfoll and Stokes, 1988).

Some problems in assessing social support

If social support is to be successfully assessed, then it is important to recognize some of the limitations of the existing means of measuring such support. Unfortunately, the social support area is beset by both methodological and conceptual problems. In terms of measuring support, researchers have been restricted by their very definitions of the phenomenon, as defining support in terms of differing 'resources' or 'deficits' has produced an attendant range of

methodologies which have been significantly different for each investigation (see Cutrona and Russell, 1987; Sarason et al, 1987b; van Tilburg, 1986 for critical accounts of the methods used in the field). Probably as a result of these different methodologies, the support literature has produced a series of diverse and often confusing findings (Starker, 1986). Symptomatic of the problems is the rival argument which exists concerning whether of not social support benefits everyone *regardless of their mental state*, or just those under stress (the 'buffering hypothesis': cf. Cohen and Hoberman, 1983). Unfortunately, the evidence is sufficiently inconsistent to suggest support for either of these arguments (Rook and Darley, 1985). On conceptual grounds, the lack of a unifying theoretical framework has meant that researchers are presented with a rag-bag of social support antecedents (e.g. various personality factors: cf. Vinokur et al, 1987; age effects cf. Bruhn and Philips, 1985) - but at the same time are left with little idea as to the directionality of many of the most important and 'significant' correlations (e.g. the stress-support equation: does stress lead to support seeking or does lack of support lead to stress? see Mitchell and Moos, 1984; Rook and Darley, 1985; Syrotuik and D'Arcy, 1982: a similar case can be made for the loneliness-support equation: Hobfoll and Stokes, 1988). Other critical questions also remain unanswered: how is support provided? (Bruhn and Philips, 1985; Hobfall and Stokes, 1988); who does the helping? (Burda et al, 1984; Lieberman, 1986); how do wider social/cultural determinants influence support? (Gottlieb, 1985; Jacobson, 1986) and - most significantly of all - how does the support mechanism *work*? (Gottlieb, 1985; Heller et al, 1986; Hobfoll and Stokes, 1988;

Jacobson, 1986; Kelley, 1983; Reis, 1984; Sarason et al, 1987b; Wetherington and Kessler, 1986).

There are problems, too, with the suggestion that social support is by necessity 'A Good Thing': close relationships can be very stressful (Heller et al, 1986; Lieberman, 1986) and most types of relationship produce their own form of stress (Hobfoll and Stokes, 1988; Margulis et al, 1984; Moston, 1989; Rook and Darley, 1985; Rook and Pietromonaco, 1987; Solano, 1986; Starker, 1986). The very provision of support may threaten self-esteem (Dunkel-Schetter et al, 1987) and thus the effectiveness of any support is likely to be contingent on a variety of contextual/timing factors (Jacobson, 1986; Rook, 1987) and personal characteristics (Lieberman, 1986).

Social support and Personal Relationships

Until recently few have applied the morass of research on social support to the study of close relationships (Gottlieb, 1983, 1985; Morgan, 1986) - despite the call by a number of observers to match the study of personal needs with the investigation of environmental conditions (c.f. Cobb and Jones, 1984 and more recently Hobfoll, 1988).

The link between desires or preferences for a partner and social support has been most clearly made by Gottlieb (1985). Gottlieb (1985) argued that

> "information about the potential for establishing a supportive relationship will be particularly salient and influential in determining levels of initial attraction when one or both partners have recently experienced interpersonal events that signal or engender supportive deficiencies" (353).

Such interpersonal events are "likely to potentiate increased needs for support" (ibid) (see also Caplan, 1964; Graziano and Musser, 1982 and LaGaipa, 1981 for a similar argument). Cobb and Jones, 1984, suggest a similar hypothesis:

> "social support should contribute to an enduring relationship and should aid in the solution of problems in troubled relationships" (page 57)

although these authors admit that there are no studies empirically investigating the relationship between quality and quantity of social support to individuals in a relationship and the duration and quality of that relationship.

Drawing from the insights of these authors, however, a new framework for the influence of social support can be offered (see below). Once again substituting the word 'preferences' for the problematic notion of 'need' helps clarify the interrelationship between the variables discussed.

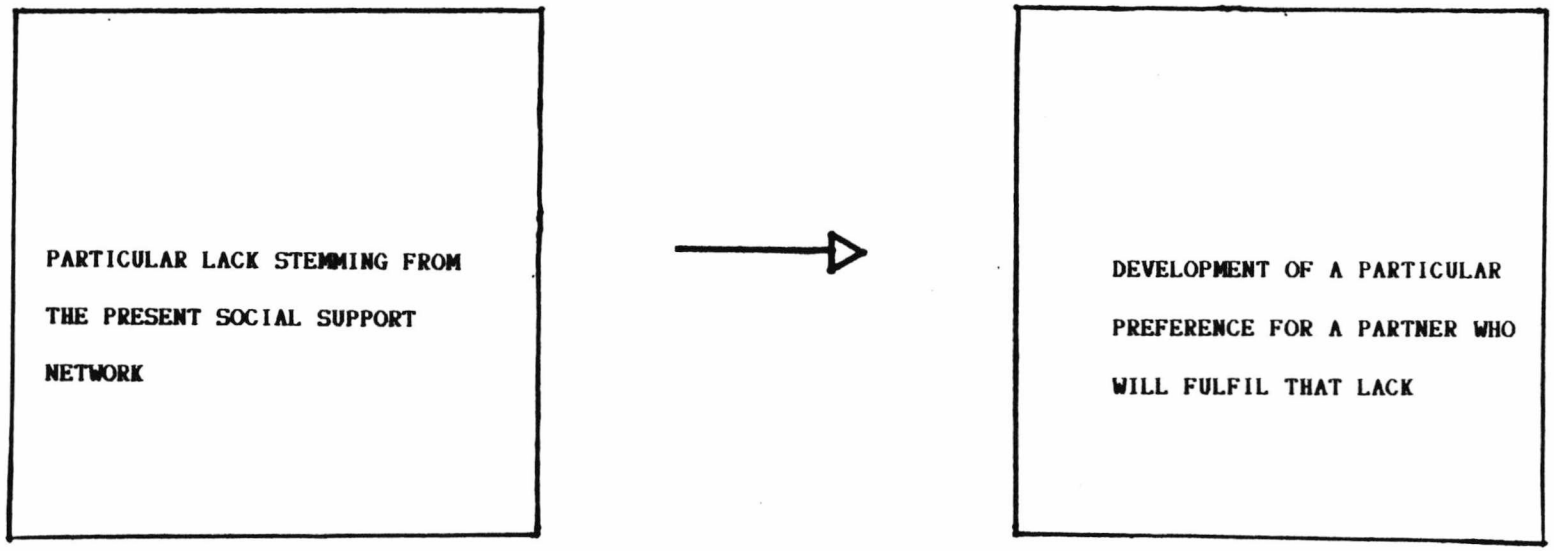
2.3.2. Social support and the mechanism of psychological compensation

The approach adopted here forms an extension to the argument proposed as an answer to the first question (section 2.1), and following on from this makes the assumption that individuals 'prefer' a particular characteristic (or characteristics) in a relationship partner, and that they seek a relationship with an individual who demonstrates that characteristic(s). This now leads on to two further suggestions.

The first suggestion is that for any new relationship, a person's preferences for a partner are likely to be influenced by those things that individual misses from his/her life at the time of the first meeting with a potential partner. This can be represented

diagramatically as in (figure 2.2). In this scenario, an individual's social support is just one part of the 'total environment' in which they live (Bott, 1957: 97 uses the term 'total social environment' to make a similar point). For example, if an individual desires affection, and affection is lacking within that individual's present world of contacts, then that person will be likely to seek a partner who can provide that affection. If the individual's environment already provides this affection, then that individual is less likely to search for this in a new partner. Thus preferences are satisfied in the social context (cf, Caplan, 1964). Whether the original desire for affection springs from within that individual, or is in fact precipitated by a lack in the present support network, is not a question of concern here, and is not one that will be tested within the confines of this thesis. A large discrepancy between 'what you want' and 'what you get' is likely to produce loneliness (de Jong-Gierveld, 1989; Margulis et al, 1984; Weiss, 1973).

Figure 2.2: Social support and relationship initiation



The second suggestion is that, when examining the established relationship, the success of that relationship is likely to depend at least partly on the ability of *either* the relationship partner, *or* others in the immediate environment, to offer the individual those things he/she most desires. As the relationship is already formed, the established partner might be seen as one 'force' in the environment, but this force exists alongside a second, the concurrent social support from outside the relationship. In the words of Hinde:

> "in real life there are considerable opportunities for the partner to accommodate to each other's needs, or to satisfy some of their needs *outside* the relationship" (Hinde, 1981: 12. My emphasis).

The two forces of partner and social network (and their potential for providing fulfilment) can be treated *additively* in examining the likelihood of dealing with any problem or lack: they thus operate in a compensatory manner. Further support for this argument can be gleaned from the work of Syrotuik and D'Arcy, 1982, who also talk of 'compensatory social support' but unfortunately fail to provide any details about the mechanisms of this compensation, and the (as yet untested) 'model of conservation' (Hobfoll and Stokes, 1988: 500) which states that

> "when individuals are confronted with a potential lack of resources they invest other resources to offset this loss"[19]

Some indirect evidence for this second proposition can also be gleaned from the 'buffering' hypothesis - a mass of research which suggests that social support has positive mitigating effects in dealing with life-event crises i.e. support is a psycho-social asset (e.g. Cohen et al, 1986; Cohen and Hoberman, 1983; Fleming and Baum, 1986). The

buffering hypothesis can be interpreted as suggesting a filter mechanism, through which individuals low on support from one source (e.g. the spouse) turn to a second source (the wider social environment). Figure 2.3. illustrates this operation of compensatory support. Here a particular desire felt by an individual within an existing relationship can either be met by that individual's partner or by that individual's wider social network.

Figure 2.4. serves to diffentiate the role played by social support at beginning of a relationship from the role played by such support in the established relationship. In the left-hand side of the diagram (illustrating relationship initiation) an individual is seen to have a desire which is at that time unmet by his/her social network. This leads this individual to prefer someone who promises to fulfil that desire. Thus in the case of relationship initiation the properties and functions of the individuals 'total environment' can be treated as *separate* from those of the preferred partner.

Turning to the established relationship (the right-hand side of the diagram) the individual's 'total environment' now consists of *both* the partner *and* his/her wider social network. These serve to 'compensate' one another so that a lack in one will, in the successful relationship, be compensated for by the presence of a desired quality/attribute in the other.

Figure 2.3: The operation of compensatory social support

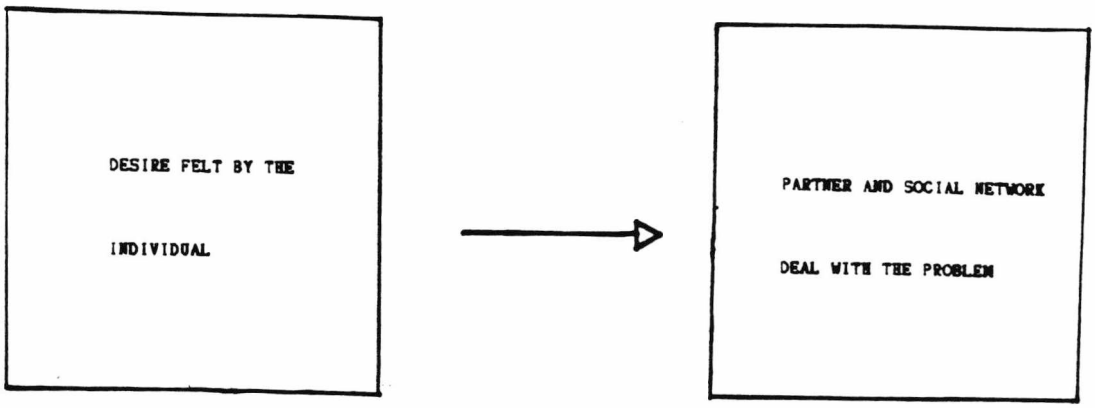
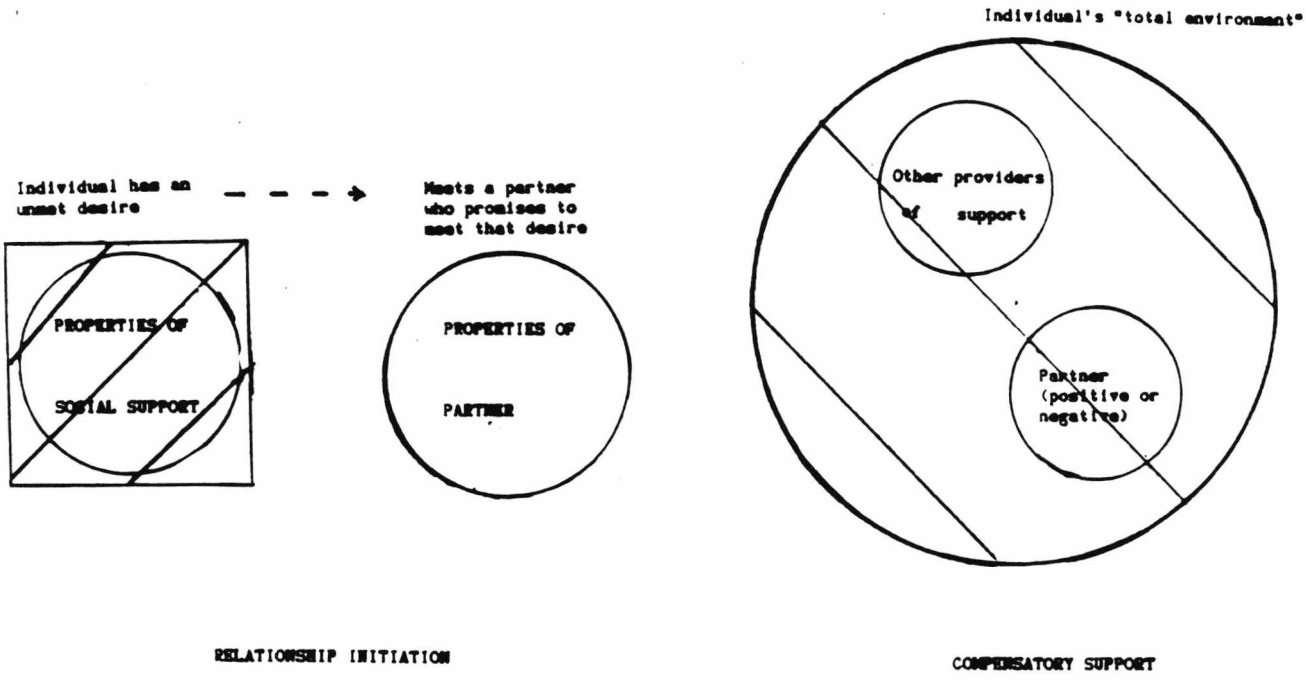


Figure 2.4: Differentiating the role played by social support in relationship initiation and in the developed relationship



2.3.3. The concept of relationship alternatives

In his account of social roles, Secord (1982) claims that

> "(T)he concept of alternatives is crucial: human satisfactions are always relative" (page 39)

This recognition of "the power of alternatives" stems from the seminal work of Thibaut and Kelley (1959), who claim that an individual's evaluation of his/her own relationship (and hence his/her perception of the success of that relationship) is heavily influenced by what they call the 'comparison level for alternatives', defined as

> "the lowest level of outcomes a member" [of a relationship] "will accept in the light of alternative opportunities" (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959: 21)

If an individual feels that he/she can obtain more satisfaction from leaving the present relationship (either to form a new partnership or to remain single) then he/she will in fact do so, provided that the interpersonal costs involved in leaving the old relationship (and perhaps initiating a new one) are not prohibitive, and that the perceived *future* relationship outcomes are sufficiently attractive (Nye, 1979).[11] These 'prohibitive costs' and 'expectations of outcome' can be seen as part of the relationship barriers - relationship bonds equation (Levinger, 1965). Other, rather more mundane factors besides these primarily psychological estimates are also likely to increase an individual's attention towards the *possibility* of relationship alternatives, and thus play an important part in the 'relationship bonds' equation. These factors include religious pressures, kin pressures, and the opportunities for independent income (ibid).

Relationship alternatives and relationship satisfaction and stability

According to some commentators, one important implication of the theory of alternatives is that the presence or absence of alternatives will influence marital satisfaction and marital stability in different ways. Thus Nye (1979), employing Thibaut and Kelley's concept of the 'comparison level' ("a standard by which the person evaluates the rewards and costs of a given relationship in terms of what he feels he deserves": Thibaut and Kelley, 1959: 21) envisages a four-fold classification of marriage which is reproduced below

Figure 2.5: The prediction of marital happiness and stability from relationship alternatives (derived from Nye, 1979: 25f)

Key predictor is outcome level

key predictor is alternative level	HAPPY marriage	UNHAPPY marriage
STABLE	Marriage at or above the comparison level: good outcomes from the marriage	There are no better alternatives: stuck in a marriage with poor outcomes
UNSTABLE	Promise of a better relationship elsewhere: but still good outcomes from the present marriage	There are better alternatives than the present marriage (which has poor outcomes)

A number of other writers have also made similar distinctions between marital satisfaction and stability using the concept of relationship alternatives. Lenthall (1977) saw relationship satisfaction as the result of expectations minus outcomes, and stability as the result of the equation (outcomes minus relationship alternatives). Lewis and Spanier (1979) conceptualised satisfaction as the result of intradyadic forces (attractions minus tensions), and stability as the

result of extradyadic forces (external pressures keeping the couple together minus alternative attractions). Recently Rusbult (e.g. Rusbult et al, 1986) has argued that availability of alternatives is negatively correlated with the degree of commitment to a relationship, and the presence of good alternatives may even affect responses to relationship disagreements (those with good relationship alternatives are the most likely to actively 'walk out' ('exit') rather than remain in the partnership (show 'loyalty')). Similarly, Kelley and Thibaut (1978) claim that the strength of an individual's relationship alternatives should be positively correlated with his/her bargaining power within that relationship.

Reconceptualising relationship alternatives

This thesis takes a slightly more complex view than that of the above investigators by considering relationship outcomes and alternatives as operating at two different levels, with relationship outcomes (here defined as 'preference fulfilment') operating as a first filter. Here it is proposed that (a) differential preference fulfilment is likely to lead to differential relationship commitment and satisfaction (see above), and that (b) relationship alternatives are likely to be of importance only when commitment and satisfaction with a relationship is poor (see Graziano and Musser, 1982; Johnson, 1985; Levinger, 1983; Margulis et al, 1984 for *hints* of such a filter effect). Therefore relationship alternatives are only of significance when preference fulfilment is minimal.

Question 3: How might others in our wider society influence our relationships?

Summary and prospectus for research

'Social support' is generally considered to be 'A Good Thing', but the exact manner in which such support operates to influence PR is at present unclear. In this section a mechanism was proposed by which the *inadequacies* of an individual's support network may affect partner formation and the *adequacies* of this network may help bolster an otherwise failing relationship. A further social dimension was also introduced when it was suggested that in the continuing relationship the presence of attractive alternatives may increase an individual's dissatisfaction with their present relationship when the present relationship no longer satisfies his/her desires.

Question 4: What other psychological/societal barriers may act to restrict relationship development?

The three sets of reviews above give some indications as to the kind of direction that an integrative framework for relationships formation and development might take. However for some people the picture is not so rosy: in the words of de Jong-Gierveld

> "People are not always able to achieve consistency between the relationships they desire and the relationship they have. They have different opportunities for forming and maintaining relationships, and they differ in their ability to take advantage of available opportunities" (de Jong-Gierveld, 1989: 213).

Although over 90% of people within Britain marry (Argyle and Henderson, 1985) there are, at any particular time, a large number of single people of marriagable age who have not formed relationships,

and who claim to be 'lonely' (Margulis et al, 1984; Solano, 1986; *Sunday Times Magazine*, December 1983). The reasons for this are probably manifold, but some possible explanations are briefly examined below. Once again the framework of the three levels of analysis above (namely the individual, the dyadic and the wider societal) is adopted.

2.4.1. An Individual restriction: The desire to form a relationship

A number of writers have stressed the importance of *wanting* a relationship.

> "Motivation is an essential aspect to consider when attempting to understand the occurrence of any behaviour..."

claims Newcomb et al (1986: 432), and they continue...

> "(I)mportance of Dating becomes the central concept in understanding dating and sexual behaviour and emphasizes the crucial role of cognitive appraisal and desire on filtering the influences of personality, social skills, and external events on subsequent behavior." (ibid: 436).

Some factors that might motivate an individual to form an affiliation include a need for affiliation, (low) satisfaction with alternative relationships and appraisal of the other's accessibility (Levinger and Snoek, 1972).

In the longer-term relationship, Sindberg et al (1972) found that the 'motive to marry' was of key significance in predicting marriage. Similarly McAdams, in his work on friendship (McAdams and Losoff, 1984), and most recently Rook (1988) in her work on loneliness, describe the 'intimacy motive' as crucial for relationship development right across the life-span. Despite this, however, an individual's desire to form a relationship is still viewed by most researchers as a

natural, unilateral variable, and one which serves a number of useful functions for the individual (cf. Winch, 1963). As a result the degree of motivation an individual has for forming a relationship is rarely examined in studies of personal relationships. Such a neglect may be at the cost of severely compromising the accuracy of any relationship predictions.

2.4.2 Dyadic determinants: social skills and self-esteem

In any interaction the individual must have sufficient communication skills to be able to communicate his/her interest and positive affect for the other (Arygle, 1983; Argyle et al, 1985; Cappella, 1984; Riggio and Woll, 1984; Shaver et al, 1984). Cook (1977) sums this up well:

> "social skill ... could be viewed as a first filter (Duck, 1973) in that people who lack it would not get much further. Once a relationship is established, social skills factors do not seem to lead to relationships breaking up; relationships break up because the people find they have incompatible attitudes, personalities, or role expectations, or because they get bored with each other"[12]

Further empirical evidence for the importance of social skills in initial attraction comes from Riggio (1986)

> "Possession of social skills...seem to predict the favorability of initial impressions. These results hint at the importance of social skills in affecting social outcomes..." (page 658)

and Newcomb et al (1986: 432)

> "Social skills and competency are ... important ingredients necessary for a particular behaviour to emerge..."

As might be expected from these commentaries, the lonely have been shown to be deficient in a whole range of social skills (Rook, 1988;

Solano, 1986; Wittenberg and Reis, 1986). In the wider context, social skills seem to have a further role in the development of social networks (Cohen et al, 1986; Heller, 1979; Sarason et al, 1985). An allied variable is that of self-esteem, considered here as a dyadic variable because of its strong links with social skills (de Jong-Gierveld, 1987; Margolis et al, 1984; Murstein, 1970). Like good social skills, positive self-esteem has been linked to success in the initiation of the relationship (Murstein, 1977: see also Jones et al, 1985; Reiss, 1985 and Rook, 1988 on loneliness), and self-esteem may also be important in influencing interactions throughout the relationship (Dion et al, 1972)[13] Brockner (1983 in Reis 1985; Brockner and Lloyd, 1986) suggests a three level model for explaining the frequently observed self-perpetuation of self-esteem. First, those with low self-esteem *think* they will perform less ably in social interactions, and therefore will tend to shun others. Second, low self-esteem individuals become over-obsessed with their own performance during interaction, which tends to interfere with their ability in the interaction. Thirdly, those with low self-esteem believe, following the interaction, that they have tended to perform poorly, and tend to attribute this failure to dispositional causes. The self is also likely to be important in controlling opportunities to meet, by determining the environments in which such meeting is possible (Reis, 1985).

2.4.3. The opportunity for relationship formation and power differentials

The above discussion assumes that individuals make reasonably rational

decisions in establishing how their prospective mate will help fulfil their desires. The discussion assumes an *equitable* relationship, and one in which there are few restrictions on the opportunities for relationship development. However, theorising using such an 'open-field' situation (where "either the man or woman is free to start the relationship or abstain from initiating it, as they wish": Murstein, 1970: 466) is not always appropriate, and often potential relationships are thwarted by a lack of opportunity to meet or strong social pressures not to develop the relationship (see Scott, 1965, for an early, but accurate, description of North American mating practices). Winch (1958) clearly recognized the potency of such restrictions, stating that:

> "In mate selection each individual seeks *within his or her field of eligibles* for that person who gives the greatest promise of providing him or her with maximum need gratification" (page 88f italics added)

Winch's "field of eligibles" has led to the recognition of a number of relationship limitations, and subsequent commentators have recognized demographic and socioeconomic factors, previous marital status and residential propinquity as some of the many possible restricting relationship variables (Centers, 1975).

Keeping in mind the distinction between different levels of analysis, it is worth noting that 'power' differentials can operate in different ways. At the 'individual' level, McAdams (e.g. McAdams, 1984) describes the varying effects of the 'power motive' an excess of which may be associated with relationship problems in men [14]. The more direct effects of 'Power' differentials upon relationship preferences are at present, however, rather unclear, although Buss and Barnes

(1986) interpreting power differential in terms of partner preferences, hypothesise that

> "because of their restricted paths for individual advancement, women seek in males those characteristics associated with power such as earning capacity and higher education" (page 569).

At the 'dyadic power level' (Secord, 1982) power relations have been found to affect role relationships (Peplau, 1983; Scanzoni, 1978) although the relationship satisfaction - power division correlation is of ambiguous directionality. At the 'structural' (societal) level of power (Secord, 1982), the biophysical differences between the sexes have interacted with economic and political forces to ensure women are restrained to particular domestic roles, although sex-role ratios (and consequently the availability of alternatives) have occasionally weakened the reigns of repression (Secord, 1982, 1983). Perhaps as a result of sex-role prescriptions, men and women have had access to / made use of different negotiating tactics in obtaining control within the relationship (Hendrick, 1988), although it must be recognised that it is generally men who have enjoyed the most power in a variety of relationship settings (Murstein and Williamson, 1985; Staines and Libby, 1986).

Question 4: What other psychological/societal barriers may act to restrict relationship development?

Summary

In this section, three possible 'barriers' to relationship development were identified which may act to restrict the development of a relationship. *Individual motivation* is one obvious factor with

implications across the life-span of a relationship, whilst social skills and self-esteem are related dyadic determinants of relationship progress. One final, and often neglected set of determinants, is the existence of suitable opportunities for a relationship to develop and wider societal dictates concerning the distribution of power within that relationship.

2.5. Concluding remarks

In this chapter answers to four problematic questions were considered by conducting reviews of various need and role theories, and by examining the influence of social support and relationship alternatives on close relationships. Some tentative links were made between a number of theoretical propositions, and in the next chapter these links are formalised within two frameworks for relationship investigation, and a prospectus for empirical research is developed.

Footnotes for chapter 2

[1] See LaGaipa (1977) for a provocative discussion of the concept of 'levels' of analysis.

[2] It is interesting to speculate on the implications of this for the love affair between partners who are of vastly different ages!

[3] Although, to be fair, where attention has been paid to a sense of 'inner development' the results have not proved particularly fruitful (cf. Marsh, 1978 on Maslow's hierarchical ordering of needs).

[4] Seyfried, 1977, asks 'why can't similar behaviours be complementary?': see also similar critiques from Udry, 1963 and Karp et al, 1970

[5] Interestingly, however, Freemon (1976) claims that his informants were able to predict their partners' FIRO-B responses after only 15 minutes acquaintance. His results led him to the conclusion that there is "a rapid, almost, immediate experiencing of the relative potential of opposite sex strangers to satisfy one's basic interpersonal needs" (128). A similar debate about consciousness exists in the areas of loneliness and support resources (Gottlieb, 1985).

[6] Here the definition of preference is similar to Kluckhorn and Murray's (1949) definition of 'conation'; McClelland's concept of "the springs of action" (cited in McAdams, 1984) and Foa and Foa (1974) and Hobfall and Stoke's notion of 'resources' (1988)

[7] It should be noted, however, that the two stages are unlikely to be totally independent of one another. The attainment of a preference not only initiates primary attraction, but is likely to be instrumental in the formation of a number of different expectations concerning future interactions. These expectations are likely to be of some considerable importance in informing the individual's conceptions of his/her likely roles within the relationship (Chassin et al, 1985; Murstein, 1980; Stuckert, 1963).

[8] Bott (1957) argues that social support and role performance are closely related, and could thus be considered as suitable for the same level of analysis. However Bott's hypothesis has generally failed to gather empirical support (see Rogler and Prociadano, 1986 for a critical review), and will not be considered here.

[9] See also Bott (1957) who indirectly supports this case by arguing that the absence of emotional relationships with close kin leads to an emphasis on the emotional ties with the partner.

[10] it is worth noting here that this argument seems to contradict Weiss' (1974) argument that the support received from the spouse can be conceptually and empirically distinguished from that provided by the other members of an individual's network (see also Cutrona and Russell, 1987). However, as yet Weiss' argument lacks conviction (a) because the applicability of 'social provisions' to the meeting of specific needs is uncertain (this lies at the centre of Weiss'

argument), and (b) the empirical research needed to test both the notions of Weiss and those arguing for more direct 'compensatory' support has not been conducted.

[11] A number of factors may of course make the decision to leave even the most painful of relationships a very difficult one, in particular the sheer size of past investments (see Lund, 1985; Murstein, 1976)

[12] It is worth noting (Foot, 1987: personal communication) that the 'boredom' factor Cook mentions might arise because people stop 'trying' in an established relationship (therefore they stop using particular types of skilled communications). Evidence for this role of interpersonal skills in maintaining relationships comes from Rook, 1988 and Zimmer, 1986.

[13] There may, of course, be a degree of reciprocity here, with effective marital relations leading to a greater degree of self-esteem for the individuals involved (deTurck and Miller, 1986)

[14] This can be associated with the 'need for control' measured in Part III of this thesis.

CHAPTER 3.

The Development Of Two Frameworks For Relationship Prediction

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"Where both deliberate, the love is slight
Whoever loved that loved not at first sight?" [Christopher Marlowe, Hero and Leander I]

3.1. The aims of the new frameworks for relationship prediction

In Chapter 2, it was suggested that a wide variety of research findings might be fruitfully considered together in an attempt to relate different levels of relationship analysis. This chapter goes one step further, and combines findings from these different areas of study to produce frameworks for the analysis of relationship development and quality. Such frameworks attempts to do the following

1. Explain *why* a particular partner is chosen for a particular close relationship: what are the desires of any individual prior to the formation of a relationship, and how do they relate to the particular characteristics of the partner chosen?

2. Explain *how* the relationship develops, and account for any forces that might operate against such a development.

3. Explain how an examination of the established relationship might usefully go beyond personal attributes to involve 'the couple' as a unit of analysis in their own right, and produce new and empirically relevant data by adopting such a perspective.

4. Explain how the support network in which any individual participates affects that individuals' selection of potential relationship partners.

5. Consider the way in which an individual's alternative relationships may influence his/her commitment to a relationship, and thus the very stability of that relationship.

In this chapter, such a framework is built upon three key postulates which are outlined below. The approach taken here is a 'structuralist'

one, in that it attempts to explore a number of different phenomena within a framework of theoretical levels (LaGaipa, 1981). It should be noted in passing, however, that this framework does *not* attempt to do the following:-

1. Explain non-heterosexual relationships, or attraction relationships which are based upon biological ties (e.g. the love of one sibling for another). The relationship between partners who are 'presented' with unfamiliar partners in an arranged marriage will be considered briefly (Chapter 10), as will any singularities which might arise from cross-national differences.

2. Provide estimates of the likely duration of any particular relationship, or even predict the likelihood of any nascent relationship developing into marriage. Such probabilities are too easily influenced by a host of other factors not considered in this thesis (cf. Duck, 1983).

3. Provide the diagnostic materials for the formation of a programme for marital intervention. Whilst such a programme is of obvious value, only the barest outlines of any such scheme can be surmised from the frameworks below.

3.2. Three basic postulates for the formation of frameworks of relationship processes

Postulate 1. The process of initial attraction

The first postulate is that in heterosexual mate selection each individual seeks within his or her perceived field of availables that person who holds the greatest promise of fulfilling his/her prevalent

desires. Finding such a partner will lead to initial attraction towards this individual.

Postulate 1a: The field of availables

The 'field of availables' is simply defined as all those members of the opposite sex that the individual views as likely to be present in his/her environment at any one time.

Postulate 1b: The origin and significance of preferences

The current preferences any individual holds are likely to be informed by his/her prevalent needs, although a number of other influences are also likely to be of significance. An individual's particular desires are likely to be of greatest importance in the selection of a mate when they are not otherwise fulfilled by an existing social support network.

Postulate 2: The probability of initial attraction leading to relationship formation

However exact the match between one individual's desires and another's personal characteristics, and however powerful the resulting initial attraction, the formation of a close relationship between the two individuals will depend on three provisos: a) the individual's *opportunity* to form a relationship; b) the individual's *motivation* to form a relationship and c) the individual's *ability* to form a relationship

Postulate 2a: The significance of opportunity

As reviewed in Chapter 2 (above) an opportunity for frequent exposure to the other is of obvious importance in forming a relationship (Zajonc, 1968). Infrequency of the opportunites for meeting (Hill et al, 1976) or the imposition of restrictions by outsiders (Murstein, 1986) has jeopardized many a potential relationship. Restriction of opportunity for contact can influence both the possibility of meeting a suitable partner and the chance of that meeting bearing fruition through future contacts.

Postulate 2b: The significance of motivation

The lack of motivation of one or both of the partners is an obvious restriction on relationship formation: this may originate from an individual's past experiences with other partnerships (cf. Berger and Bradac, 1982).

Postulate 2c: The significance of communication ability and poor self-esteem.

The negative effects of poor social skills and a low self-esteem for relationship development are reviewed in chapter 2. For initial attraction to develop into a close relationship necessitates the successful negotiation of a 'filter' stage (Duck, 1977) and to pass through this stage the individuals involved must be able to communicate their positive intentions to one another, and must also believe in their own potential for forming a relationship with the new partner. It is likely that many potential relationships fail at this

stage.

Postulates 1 and 2 are illustrated in the framework below (figure 3.1)

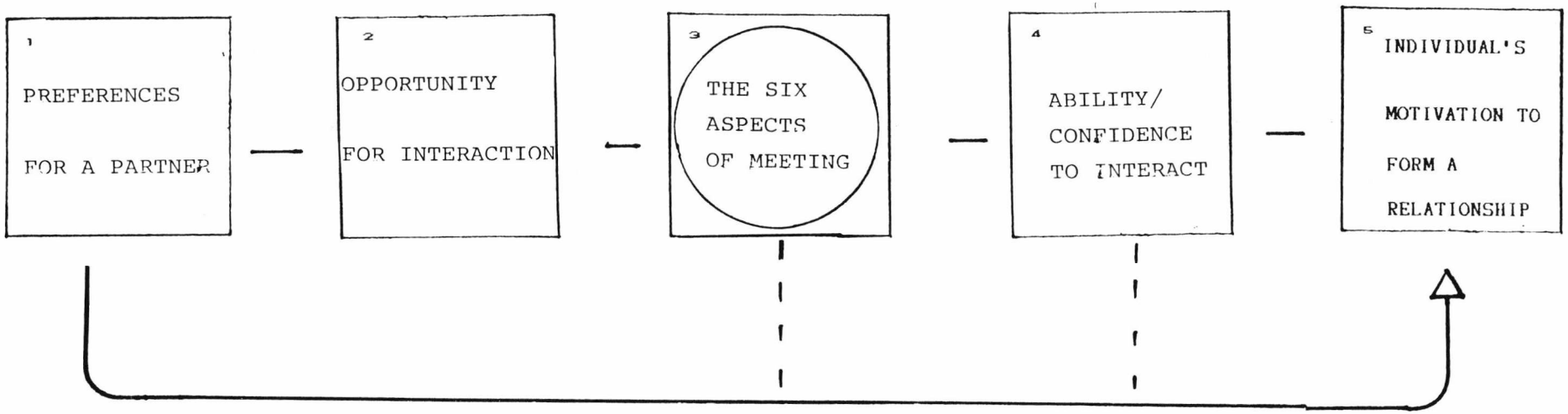
Postulate 3: The established relationship

Once a relationship is established, four variables are of importance in determining relationship adjustment, commitment and stability. *Preferences* for the desired behaviour or characteristics of a partner are still likely to be significant, and these act alongside *social support*, which represents a means of fulfilling the desires not met by the relationship partner. Two other factors, those of *role fulfilment* and *relationship alternatives*, now also become important. An individual's role fulfilment is secondary to that of preference obtainment but once preference desires are met this is likely to be of importance in predicting the overall quality of the longer-term relationship. Similarly, "relationship alternatives" is a second factor likely to be of importance in predicting relationship quality, but this is of significance only when the individual's desires were *unfulfilled* by the partner or social network.

Postulate 3a: The continuing importance of desires

Preferences for the performance of a desired behaviour by the partner, or the presence of a specific and desired characteristic in that partner, are still important in the established relationship. Indeed, these preferences may not have changed since relationship initiation (Graziano and Musser, 1982) and, to the extent that they reflect needs, may become even more important as the relationship develops (Kerckhoff and Davis, 1962: see also Kelley, 1981).

Figure 3.1: Schematic representation of events leading to an individual's motivation to form a relationship with another



Postulate 3b: Social support

In the established relationship social support consists of friends, family etc. as well, of course, as the relationship partner. Important desires not being fulfilled by the partner can be supplemented by the remaining social support network so that the relationship is not threatened by this lack of fulfilment.

Postulate 3c: Distinguishing role fulfilment and preference fulfilment

In the proposed framework, role fulfilment is first dependent upon the individual being satisfied insofar as his/her prevalent desires (either receiving satisfaction from within the present relationship or from compatible outside sources: see chapter 2). Once desires are thus satisfied, then any further estimate of their relationship quality will depend on the role fulfilment offered by the partner. Role fulfilment differs from preference fulfilment in two respects. 1) It is, temporarily speaking, a second stage: an individual is unlikely to consider future role relationships if some attraction has not already occurred. 2) It is more concerned with the partners relationship as a developed *interaction.* Therefore it is probably more behaviour orientated.

Postulate 3d: Relationship alternatives

In the proposed framework, relationship alternatives come into play when the individual's desires remain *unfulfilled.* Relationship alternatives can include not only an alternative partner but also a prospective alternative life style (which may, or may not, involve a third person). The nature of the alternative chosen will reflect

characteristics of the individual's prevalent desire (Berscheid, 1983; Levinger, 1983).

Postulate three is represented diagrammatically in figure 3.2 (the second relationship framework, below).

3.3: Three annotated examples to illustrate the two frameworks

To further illustrate these frameworks, three examples follow which deal with the initiation and maintenance of a heterosexual relationship. They are hypothetical examples, designed to clarify the three postulates, and are therefore considerably simpler than 'real-life' relationship scenarios. The examples below also aim to demonstrate how different aspects of the frameworks might operate in practice, and thus provide an extended analysis of the manner in which relationship preferences might be communicated. The various segments of the frameworks are described successively, and attempts are made to illustrate both the cognitive and behavioural operations that characterize each of the phases.

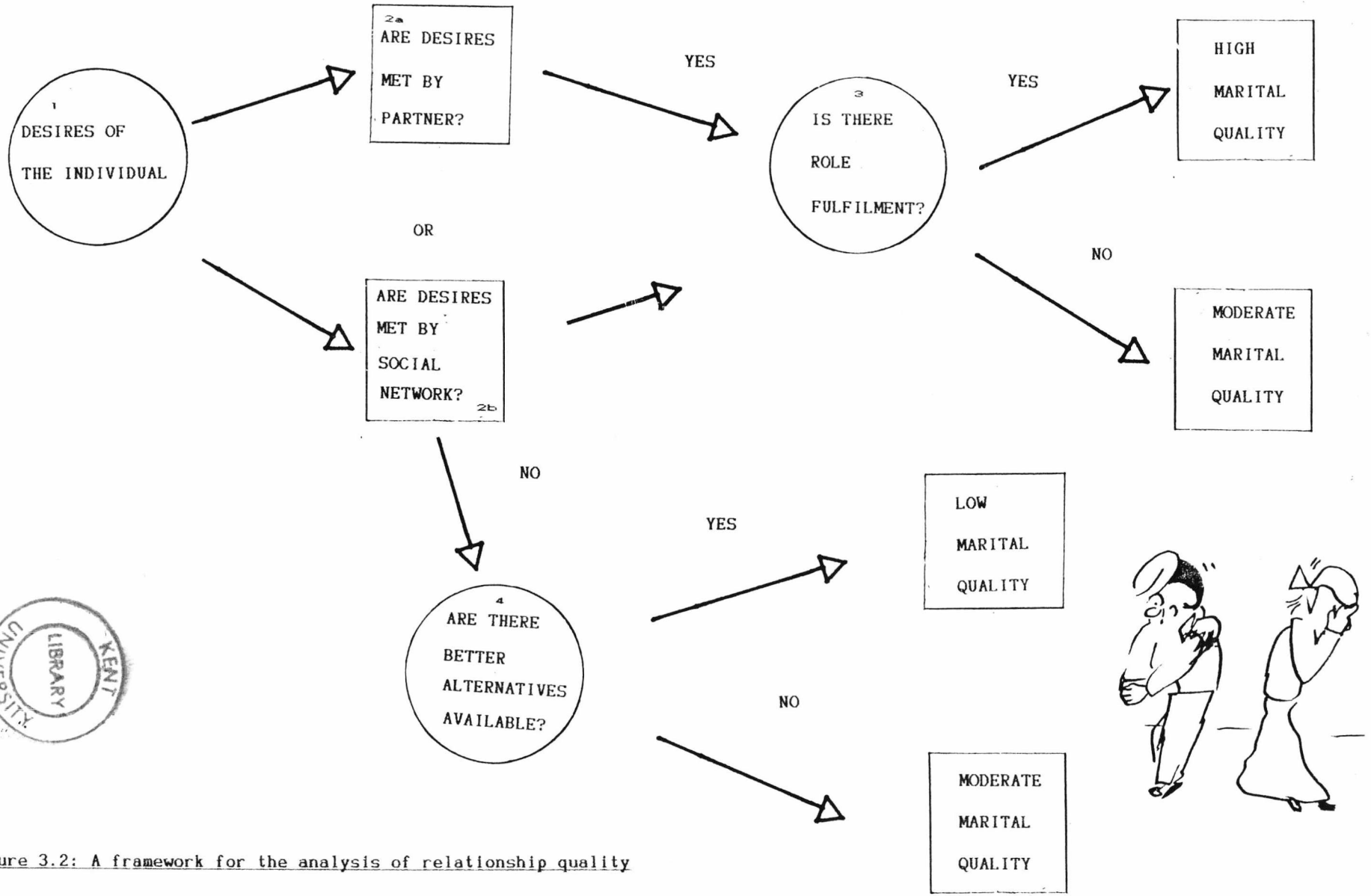


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Figure 3.2: A framework for the analysis of relationship quality

3.3.1: Example 1: Jack and Jill meet at a party

The formation of partner preferences (see postulate 1 and cell 1 of fig 3.1)

To understand Jack and Jill, it is necessary to go back to before they first met, and to consider which particular characteristics in a partner are most likely to attract each of them *as individuals*.

Jack is an individual who, largely as the result of previous family conflicts, finds himself with a great desire for affection. Unfortunately his present 'social circle' consists largely of work-mates unable to provide the affection he seeks. He finds himself increasingly drawn towards women who might provide the affection he craves.

Jill has lived a very sheltered life, and having been brought up in a strict religious school she feels her early life has been very restricted. On finishing school, she views her old friends and family as as unexciting as her schooling, and therefore, on entering college, feels keen to 'break free'. She seeks a man who can provide her with the excitement she desires.

The opportunity to form a relationship (see postulate 2 and cell 2 of fig 3.1)

Jack and Jill both enter the same college, a liberal and relaxed institution with ample opportunity for the free intermingling of the sexes. Neither of their sets of parents seek to alter the behaviour of their children. At the time at which this interaction is being analysed Jack and Jill are both about to meet, for the first time, at a party organised by the Student Law society. Thus they are just

approaching what Berger and Calabrese (1975) term the 'entry' phase of their relationship.

The first meeting (see postulates 1 and 2 and cell 3 of fig 3.1)

The first few seconds of interaction are probably the most important of all (Centers, 1975; Hinde, 1979; Huston and Levinger, 1978; Levinger, 1983; Murstein, 1976a; Thibaut and Kelley, 1959). Murstein claims, quite simply, that

> "if the other person does not possess sufficient stimulus impact to attract the individual, further contact is not sought" (Murstein, 1976a: 117).

The young couple each 'resonate' their desires (Freemon, 1976) and initial attraction will rely on "the perceived, subceived, imagined or unconsciously anticipated gratifyingness of interaction with the other" (Centers, 1975: 49).

Berger (1987) claims "it is not enough to want or to desire to accomplish a particular social goal. One must know how to do it" (172). So how is the first impression made? To follow the development of the initiation of the relationship of Jack and Jill, the format of modern information processing models is adopted, with each stage of the initiation process acquiring an influence which also helps determine the interpretation of later stages [1].

Specifically, Ajzen's 'constructive' model is adopted:

> "a person actively processes the information which he receives; he makes use of some informational items but rejects others, and he may make inferences that go beyond the information given" (Ajzen, 1977: 53).

The stages of initiation are mapped out in a 'game' format in figure 3.3 (cf. Berger and Bradac, 1982 and McClintock, 1983 for the use of

the 'game' image), with each main contributor to the player's fortune represented as 'decision cards'. The stages of the game are constructed so as reflect both proximal (psychological) and distal (external) factors (cf. Kelley, 1983), and represent the actor's 'first moves' from the "superficial to the deeper" levels of the self (Altman and Taylor, 1973: 6).

Figure 3.3: "The First Impressions Game"

Decision Card 1
Do I like this sort of event?

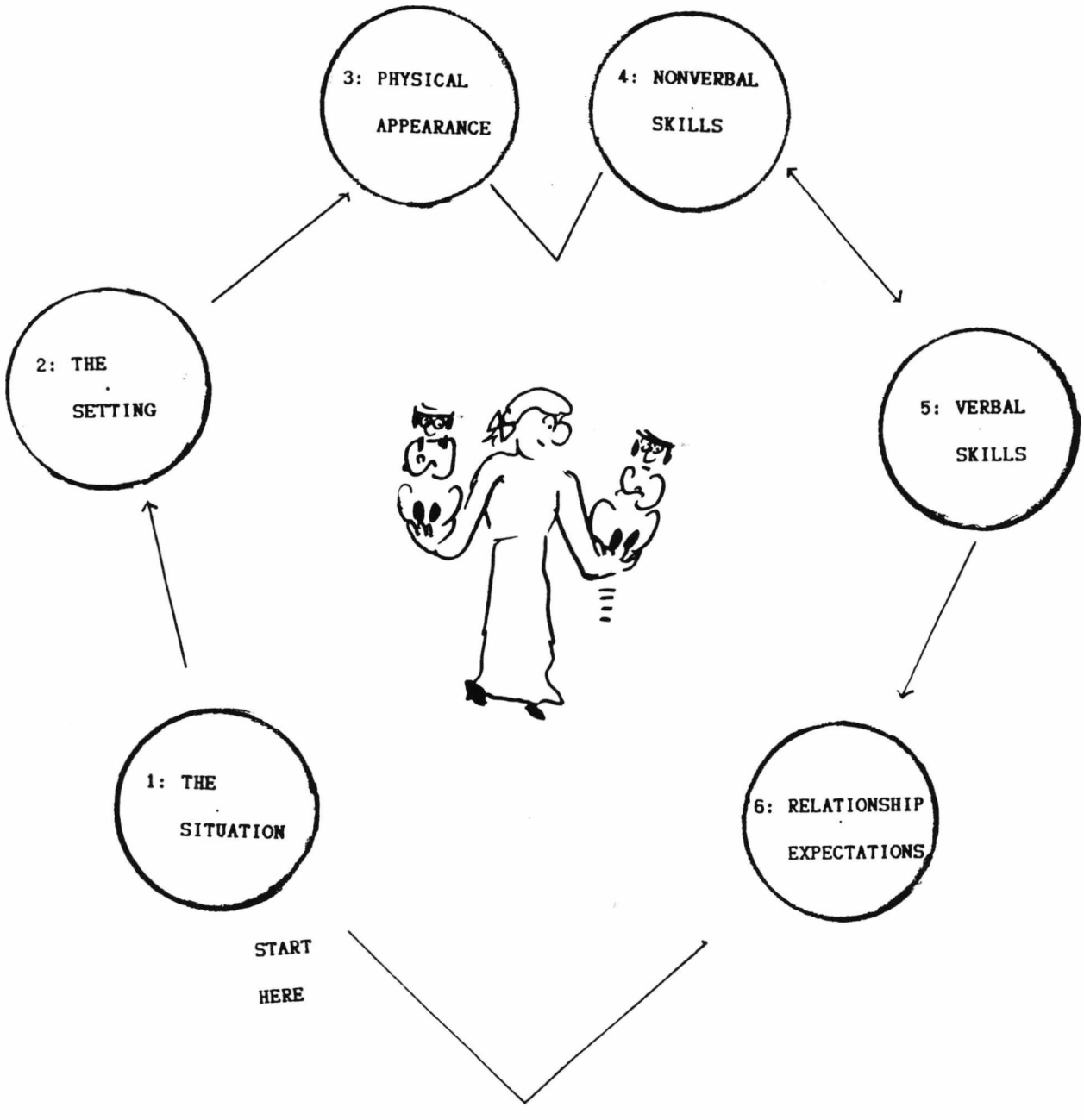
Decision Card 2
Is this a suitable place for a meeting?

Decision Card 3
Is my partner physically appealing?

Decision Card 4
How are we communicating nonverbally?

Decision Card 5
How are we communicating verbally?

Decision Card 6
Has the relationship any chance...?



Decision card 1: The general situation

There is, of course, clear pre-selection in any culture of who will meet whom (Woll and Cozby, 1987), and the factors that bring together a couple are rarely random (Reis, 1985). Duck (1977: 75) claims:

> "A person does not start an acquaintance as if he were an animated blank tablet: he imports certain things to interaction".

Pre-meeting attitudes are often inferred from vague demographic information about another, perhaps passed on through a third party (Sunnafrank and Miller, 1981), and a specific individual will often possess a reputation which literally 'precedes' them (Murstein, 1986). To return to the example, Jack may be wary of girls who go to Toga parties, Jill uncomfortable about anyone at the forthcoming function because she knows that this an evening organized by the 'Law Society' - and that any new acquaintance is likely to be studying law (surely the most uninspiring of partners!). By the time they attend the function, both Jack and Jill may have developed 'plans of action' relevant to their outing (Schlenker, 1984), plans which nevertheless are subject to change as various opportunistic forces come into play (Berger, 1987). Thus Jack may be only interested in forming new non-romantic friendships...until he meets Jill!

Decision card 2: The setting

The effects of external contingencies on behaviour are well known but often ignored in constructing scenarios of behaviour (Holland, 1978). In any setting there are a number of such contingencies: these may include *who* is there, *where* it is and *what is happening* (Chelune et al, 1984). Perhaps unsurprisingly, previous researchers have found that the degree of environmental distraction is important in the

initial attraction process (the quiet restaurant is preferable to the noisy airport! Cramer et al, 1985; Griffitt, 1970). The surroundings will almost certainly influence the nature of the interaction that ensues: Altman and Taylor (1973) suggest three hypotheses for the influence of setting variables: (1) 'the more formal the situation the less rapid the social penetration process' (the process through which the couple 'get to know one another') (2) 'the more psychologically confining the situation the slower the social penetration process' and (3) 'the more a situation involves interdependency between group members, the more extensive will be social penetration processes' (pages 162ff). To the extent that schematic representations are relevant to a situation, they should also influence the nature of communication within that interaction (Berger and Calabrese, 1975; Davis, 1982).

Also important is knowing 'what to do' in the encountered situation (Schlenker, 1980): Athay and Darley (1982) refer to the 'interactional competencies' of the individual, which involve the dual abilities to routinize aspects of a situation (and thus provide a valuable 'cognitive shorthand' for the rapid processing of information) and the ability to contextualise and thus deal with 'situational specificities' (see also Chelune, 1984). Evidence suggests that such dispositional tendencies may mean that individuals deliberately seek or avoid situations in a selective manner (Buss, 1984b; 1987). Thus it might be expected that the more comfortable Jack and Jill feel in their surroundings the greater the likelihood of a relationship forming.

Cappella (1984) claims

> "people do not see the internal states and traits of other people; they infer them from the observable, superficial actions that people engage in." (241).

Vital components of this inference process are physical appearance, nonverbal and verbal behaviours.

Decision card 3: Physical appearance.

> "Beauty is a greater recommendation than any letter of introduction" (Aristotle cited in Berscheid and Walster, 1974: 207).

Previous research has indicated that physical appearance (both facial and bodily: Alicke et al, 1986; Brown et al, 1986) is very important in the initial attraction stage (c.f. the 'computer dating' studies of Curran 1975 and Riggio and Woll, 1984; the first stage of Murstein's Stimulus-Value-Response model, etc), and the influence of physical attractiveness may indeed pervade throughout the relationship (Margolin and White, 1987; Murstein, 1976a). Although attractiveness is one of the most heavily researched areas of impression formation (see, for example, the extensive reviews by Berscheid and Walster, 1974 and Patzer, 1985) researchers have rarely linked attractiveness to the type of psychological characteristics of the partner preferred (although there is evidence to suggest that attractive people are thought to possess socially desirable attributes: Dion 1981; Moore et al, 1987; Sigelman et al, 1987...especially if they are blond! (Clayson and Maugham, 1986)). Extrapolating from the argument so far, it is possible to hypothesise that if Jack or Jill fail to have the 'right' appearance for the expected (and desired) characteristics sought by their partner there may be problems for the process of

relationship development (e.g. Jack's 'quiet' appearance may run contrary to Jill's desire for an 'exciting' companion).

Decision card 4: Nonverbal behaviour

Nonverbal and paralinguistic cues have been widely recognised as important for communicating intent accurately (e.g. Duck, 1986; Perlmutter et al, 1985; Schlenker, 1984) and may also be perceived by a seeker of a relationship as indicating 'deeper' personality characteristics (Duck, 1983). Nonverbal behaviours include interpersonal distance (e.g. Hall, 1966); facial expression (e.g. Argyle, 1981); gaze (e.g. Argyle and Dean, 1965) gesture (e.g. Bull, 1986) touch, body orientation and angle of body lean (Patterson, 1982). From a functional perspective, nonverbal behaviours serve a number of causes (providing information, regulating interactions, expressing intimacy etc) and have been shown to correlate with personality type (Patterson, 1982, 1988).

Effective communication is important for both Jack and Jill not only because this will allow the other to see if his/her desires are likely to be met, but also because effective communication *in itself* is important for the instigation of a relationship (see chapter 2). Work on sex-differences suggests it is Jill who will probably be the most sensitive of the two to nonverbal cues (e.g. Henley, 1973).

Decision card 5: Verbal behaviour.

Alongside physical and nonverbal presentation, verbal behaviour is also likely to be significant in any first impression, and intimacy is particularly likely to develop when a couple have a chance to speak

together alone (Solano and Dunnam, 1985), although here again much may depend on the individual characteristics of the conversants (Derlega and Grzelak, 1979). In general (and despite layperson conceptions to the contrary), formulaic 'opening lines' are often inappropriate (Kleinke et al, 1986) probably because such lines suggest a rather simplified view of the close relationship. Instead, when meeting someone for the first time, Berger (1988; and Bradac, 1982; and Calabrese, 1975) suggests that individuals are faced with the 'prediction problem': interaction is very much an informed guessing game operating at a number of different 'communication levels' (cultural, sociological and psychological). Whilst intimacy in topics of conversation is likely to increase as encounters progress over time (Altman and Taylor, 1973; Davis, 1976) successful interaction means the sensitive employment of a level of communication which is cognizant of the specific situation (Berger and Bradac, 1982). Initial interactions are likely to be most successful if they are a) reciprocous in terms of intimacy (Gouldner, 1960; Miell and Duck, 1983) and amount of time spoken (Kleinke et al, 1979) b) pitched at the appropriate depth of intimacy (Gasch, 1988; I. Lee, 1988) and c) at least moderately assertive (Pendleton, 1982; Reis et al, 1982). Overall, self-disclosure ("the process by which one person lets herself or himself be known to another": Derlega, 1984: 2) has been viewed as A Good Thing (Hendrick, 1988), and may be central to the development of an intimate relationship (Archer and Cook, 1986; Falk and Wagner, 1985; Prager, 1986). However, too much intimacy early on in a relationship may be threatening (Derlega, 1984) and to avoid such a threat, particularly sensitive topics may be 'floated' early on in a

discussion before serious disclosure (Duck, 1988).

It is therefore important that Jack and Jill share early exchanges which show attention to and understanding of the other, and that they possess a repertoire of verbal behaviour suitable for the occasion (Davis, 1982; Morgan, 1986). They must be able to comprehend not only *what* is said but *why* it is being said (Chelune, 1984) - as well as why some things have *not* been said (Garfinkel, 1967). Research on sex differences generally suggests that it is Jill who is likely to disclose the most intimately (cf. Derlega, 1984; Hatfield, 1984; Rubin, 1986), but this may depend on Jack's desire to maintain control over the development of the relationship (Derlega et al, 1985).

Decision card 6: Expectations about future relationship interaction.

> "Like a germinating seed, the beginning of a relationship is not only rich in promise and hope, but is also pregnant with a whole range of detailed, programmed expectation about the shape and form of the relationship that will eventually be created -if everything goes according to plan" (Duck, 1983: 89, see also Murstein, 1971; 1976a).

Duck goes on to claim that in his own studies

> "one of the most frequent reasons for breaking up was that the two partners had different expectations about the relationship" (ibid: 85f).

The expectations that Jack and Jill have for their relationship, although not fully developed into beliefs about future roles at this early stage, are nevertheless important indicators of how things may develop later on, However, it must be remembered that so far only brief interactions have been considered (the couple are still likely to be at the 'surface contact' level: Levinger and Snoek, 1972) and

that there is still much more intimate 'affective' information to be gathered (Altman and Taylor, 1973).

Ability to form a relationship (see postulate 2 and cell 4 of fig 3.1).

Many of the abilities necessary to form a relationship were listed above. If Jack is really going to interest Jill (or vice versa) then it is necessary for him not only to portray himself as a skilled relationship partner, but also to have sufficient confidence (or self-esteem) in his ability to relate to Jill (so that he feels comfortable in moving the relationship towards a greater intimacy). This means that he will have to be able to successfully relate to Jill both verbally and nonverbally, and also perform the difficult task of ensuring that Jill is aware that he can meet her desires.

Motivation to form a relationship (see postulate 2 and cell 5 of fig 3.1).

However positive the first impression may be, Jack and Jill must still feel motivated to form a relationship. Their decision to do this is likely to be based upon an adapted form of cost-benefit functionalism, with relationship expectations providing the matrices for these cost and reward estimates (Altman and Taylor, 1973; Levinger and Snoek, 1972; Kayser et al, 1984; Kelley, 1978, Walster et al, 1978: see also fig 3.4 (below) for a hypothetical example). As a result of this calculation, some individuals may feel motivated *not* to continue to impress their partner (Schlenker, 1984).

Motivation to form a relationship may also of course be influenced by

more stable and even dispositional aspects of the actors involved which may result from the presence (absence) of previous rewarding (unrewarding) experiences with the opposite sex (Berger and Bradac, 1982). Unfortunately at present there is little data available concerning how *particular* patterns of past experiences may affect present relationship considerations.

The forming of the relationship

The attainment of this final stage in the relationship initiation framework should signal the successful formation of a relationship. However, one problem with such an interpersonal framework is that it ignores the other member of the dyad, who, although also likely to be involved in a similar series of stages, may in fact be viewing the progress of the relationship quite differently.

Figure 3.4: Some possible costs and rewards likely to be significant in making the decision as to whether or not to continue a relationship

From Jack's viewpoint

	Within individuals own eyes	In the eyes of the outside world.
Cost	Loss of freedom Restriction of Availables	Withdrawal from friends
Reward	Desires Fulfilled	Social value of being attached

From Jill's viewpoint

	Within individual's own eyes	In the eyes of the outside world.
Cost	Some problems with the family. Restriction of Availables	Loss of old friends
Reward	Desires Fulfilled	Social value of being attached

Note. Of course, the distinction between costs / rewards in the individual's 'own eyes' and relationship events 'in the eyes of the outside world' is a rather artificial one, but this division is included here to give some idea of the kind of forces which contribute to the motivational decision.

Thus to complete the picture of the formation process it is necessary to recognise some of the less 'sophisticated' relational forces which may help cement the relationship. One such force is reflected in the common research finding that *we like those who like us* (Aronson and Linder, 1965; Berscheid and Walster. 1978). If Jack is clearly signalling his attraction to Jill then she may (because of the rewards associated with being involved in a relationship) feel obliged to 'reinterpret' the desires she has for a partner (so that they more exactly reflect her image of Jack). In a similar manner, Jack's commitment towards Jill may be reinforced by sacrifices he has made for his new relationship - even if the sacrifices were made purely by accident (perhaps an ex-flame saw him with Jill, and this 'extinguished' any chances of a re-alliance). The vital point in all this is that *all* the formation processes are open to a great deal of re-evaluation and mis-interpretation (Levinger, 1983; Weiss, 1975) as well as the complex attribution processes which serve to ask 'why?' (is she doing this...does she just feel sorry for me?: cf. Miller and Berg, 1984). The mechanism behind all this, however, is not so much one of 'invention', but 're-emphasis' (Tennov, 1979) and overall the central motif for all this is still the fulfilment (or nonfulfilment) of interpersonally-relevant desires.

For the second and third examples, the present analysis moves from the first framework, designed to capture the relationship formation process (figure 3.1) to the second framework examining the forces underlying relationship adjustment, commitment and stability. (figure 3.2).

3.3.2: Example 2: Mark and Ruth, the 'Radio 2 Anniversary' couple

Mark and Ruth are the traditional 'Radio 2 Anniversary' couple - their 30th wedding anniversary is promoted with pride by their young grandchildren over the national network. Although relations between the two have not always been easy, they now declare themselves as participants in the 'near perfect' marriage.

The significance of partner preferences (cells 1 and 2a/b of the framework)

Mark is someone who always likes to feel 'included' when amongst friends and colleagues. For him, Ruth is therefore the perfect mate - she and Mark do many things together and Ruth likes having people 'around'. This fulfilment of a central preference for a partner means Mark is very satisfied with his relationship (see cell 2a of the framework)

Ruth is someone who generally demands control not only of her own life, but also the life of others. This stems from past work-situations where she was continually treated as a subordinate. Whilst Mark is not always eager for her to control every aspect of his life, others in Ruth's social network, and notably her children and immediate relatives, are less resistant to her organising drive. This compensates for any lack Ruth may feel in her relationship with her husband, by allowing others to fulfil her desire to control (see cell 2b of the framework).

The influence of role interactions on the fulfilled couple (cell 3 of the framework)

Ruth and Mark are a preference 'fulfilled' couple, therefore the next stage is to examine how they interact in their role relationship. Luckily, as they approach that landmark of 30 years of marriage, they generally agree on the roles each should play in the relationship: Mark generally deals with the children and is the agreed initiator of their sexual relations, Ruth is the couple's economic provider as well as the housekeeper. Both members of the couple share the duty of keeping in touch with the relatives, and are attentive providers of emotional support for one another. This means that a relationship already secure (thanks to the meeting of fundamental desires) is one that is also truly adjusted, committed and stable. This compares favourably with an earlier stage in their marriage. Whilst their relationship even during this earlier troubled phase was still a secure affair (again, the fulfilment of fundamental desires was never under threat) the relationship then was only moderately satisfactory, and less stable and committed, largely because of some significant role disagreements.

The third example is less optimistic. This examines what happens when the very existence of the relationship is under threat.

3.3.3: Example 3: Paul and Miranda - where things go wrong

Paul and Miranda are a second, hypothetical couple who fall within the category of the 'established partnership'. They are in their mid-

forties and so far have shared a reasonably happy marriage. But in recent months problems have begun to arise...

The significance of partner preferences (cell 1 of the model)

Paul was bullied as a child and even in his early 20's felt timid and unable to impress others. Miranda provided him with a relationship in which he at last felt he had some control, and she in her turn was prepared to play the 'submissive' part in the relationship. In recent years, however, she had grown to resent this, and no longer accepted Paul controlling the relationship. Paul still desired control but found that neither Miranda nor his associates allowed him this. Miranda's new desire for affection sprang from the recent loss of a close friend, but she has found little solace in her rather disgruntled husband. At first she interpreted his unwillingness to be affectionate as only a temporary state but his continued lack of responsiveness eventually led to her turning away from her husband. According to Roseman (1979: cited in Shaver and Hazan, 1985) the mismatch between what she wants and the (disappointing) outcomes obtained from her relationship should lead to her dissatisfaction with that relationship.

The availability of relationship alternatives (cell 4 of the model)

Paul's alternatives for another relationship - one which offers the rewards that Miranda gave but also allows greater control - were poor, therefore Paul felt compelled to remain in the relationship. At best, however, Paul would only experience moderate 'marital quality'. Miranda, however, is more fortunate. She found that her alternatives

were good, and that the affection she demanded could be provided by another man, with whom she secretly developed a close relationship. Adopting Centers' (1975) criteria, the strength of love (or attraction) for her new man is dependent upon three factors: 1) the strengths of the desires met 2) the magnitudes of gratifications received and 3) the frequency with which the gratifications were delivered by the supplier. A fourth additional variable to take into account is Miranda's expectations concerning the likely nature of future interactions with her new lover.

The existence of her relationship alternative means that Miranda will probably rate her relationship with Paul as poor, and feel uncommitted and unstable in the marriage.

How things may change in a close relationship

The major source of relationship dissatisfaction, noncommitment and instability is change in relational conditions. According to Duck (1979)

> "(A)n essential aspect of relationships is that they are unfolding, developing, moving, dynamic and variable" (cited by Neimeyer and Neimeyer, 1985: 349: for others stressing the essential 'changing' nature of PR see Berger and Bradac, 1982; Blood and Wolfe, 1965; Davis, 1973; Hoghughi, 1987; Levinger, 1983; Murstein, 1971; Pineo, 1961; Schlenker, 1984; Whitehouse, 1977).

Such change may affect the relationship partners at different rates and at different times in their relationship (Hoghughi, 1987). Rosow (1957) identifies at least 4 different areas where pressures may significantly change the relationship:

1. internal growth in the individual

2. interactional pressure from the spouses' mutual impact

3. significant new roles and group membership

4. other major life experiences.

Centers (1975) suggests that each person has a "limit of tolerance for punifications" (119) - an individual level of tolerance beyond which he/she is likely to activate the search for alternatives. Relationship changes can obviously upset the fine balance of desire fulfilment upon which a relationship might be constructed, and can lead an individual to the conclusion that their 'limit for tolerance' has been exceeded. Fate, however, is weighted in favour of the established couple (Kelley, 1983; Rusbult, 1983). Frequently a relationship under threat may be saved by new desires which arise from outside the relationship, and the fulfilment of these may provide sufficient rewards for the relationship to continue. A relationship may also be strengthened by recognition from third parties, or be maintained because its continuance ensures rewards from outside the relationship (Hinde, 1979; Murstein, 1977: see also figure 3.4). A relationship may also not break down because of external barriers (Bermann and Miller, 1967; Lee, 1981; Levinger, 1965, 1983: also see chapter 2).

The encouragement of relationship maintenance by external forces may increase the opportunity for further fulfilment of interpersonal desires. For this reason, the frameworks constructed in this chapter cannot attempt to predict the survival or dissolution of any particular relationship, but seek instead to concentrate on the prediction of variables such as relational adjustment, commitment and stability.

3.4. The design of the thesis

This chapter began with a series of propositions which, combined, have produced two stage frameworks for the analysis of relationship formation and maintenance. An attempt to clarify these frameworks has been made with the assistance of three hypothetical couples. The remaining section of this chapter looks forward to the rest of the thesis, and provides a brief description of the format that this will adopt.

3.4.1. A summary of thesis design

Figure 3.5 (below) offers a brief outline of the means by which the 3 propositions outlined at the beginning of this chapter will be tested.

Figure 3.5: An outline of the central questions, the subjects, the measures and the temporal design of the seven empirical studies in this thesis.

Study No./chapter	Central Questions	Participants	Instrument of study	Principal measures	Design
1 (4)	What do we look for in a partner?	Students Supermarket shoppers	Question-naire	P.P.	Long (I)
2 (5)	How do desires for a partner relate to the partner chosen?	The partners of Study 1.	Question-naire	P.P. P.Q.	Long (II)
3 (6)	What do we look in a partner? How do other factors affect relationship development?	Dateline members (single)	Question-naire and video-tape	P.P. S.S S.Sk F.I. L.S S.E. I.S. D.I.	Long (I)
4 (7)	How do desires for a partner relate to the partner chosen? What part do social support, setting, social skills and self-esteem play?	The partners of Study 2.	Question-naire and video-tape	P.P. S.S S.E. F.I. S.SK L.S. I.S.	Long (II)
5 (8)	How might partner desires, role fulfilment, social support and alternatives combine to predict marital adjustment, commitment and stability.	Ex-Dateline couples	Question-naire	P.P. S.S. R.A. R.F.	Cross

Study No./chapter	Central Questions	Participants	Instrument of study	Principal measures	Design
6 (9)	How might partner desires, role fulfilment, social support and relationship alternatives combine to predict marital adjustment, commitment and stability and response to marital problems	General population of Kent	Question-naire	P.P. S.S R.A. R.D. R.F.	Cross
7 (10)	Can the results of studies 5/6 be replicated in another country?	Uruguayan couples	Question-naire	P.P. S.S R.A. R.F	Cross

Notes on Figure 3.5

Principle measures

P.P. Personal Preference measures	(3 different measures)
P.Q. Personality Questionnaire	(6 different measures)
S.S. Social Support	(1 measure)
F.I. First impression measures	(2 different measures)
S.E. Self esteem measures	(1 measure)
R.A. Relationship alternatives	(1 measure)
R.D. Response to Dissatisfaction scale	(1 measure)
S.Sk Social Skills	(3 measures)
L.S. Love scales	(2 measures)
I.S. Investment scores	(1 measure)
D.I. Dating agency information	(27 measures)
R.F. Role fulfilment	(2 measures)

Temporal design

Long (I)	Longitudinal study (phase 1)
Long (II)	Longitudinal study (phase 2)
Cross	Cross-sectional design.

3.4.2. The central questions

This thesis is built around two central sets of questions. The first is ... how, (and why) do individuals form close relationships with a member of the opposite sex? Possible answers to this question are developed in Part II of this thesis (chapters 4 - 7: empirical studies 1-4). The second question is ... how might it be possible to predict how satisfied (and committed and stable) a relationship will be? Answers to this question should be provided in Part III of the thesis (chapters 8 - 10: empirical studies 5-7). The concluding chapter of the thesis (Part IV: i.e. chapter 11) considers some implications of the answers to these questions.

3,4.3. The participants

Overall, 6 groups of participants were used for the experimental trials described in this thesis. Such a spread of participants was desirable in order to allow for maximum generalization from the results obtained (membership of diverse groupings should provide a more comprehensive understanding of underlying principles: see Andreyeva and Gozman, 1981). These six cohorts are outlined below.

(i). *University students*. The traditional fodder for all 'good' psychology (Huston et al, 1981) students were used partially for theoretical reasons and, more importantly, out of considerations of sheer practicality. New University students ('Freshers') provided an ideal sample for longitudinal studies where participants needed to be unknown to one another at the time of initial sampling (Time1) and (hopefully) will become romantically engaged at a later sampling (Time

2). Students were also probably more motivated than other potential participants to take part in the studies, and certainly formed the most economically viable cohort from the researcher's viewpoint. The students used for this study were also mainly resident on campus, and initiation oppportunity is a good predictor of relationship formation (Lipton and Nelson, 1980).

(ii). *Supermarket shoppers.* The first two studies supplemented the data from the student respondents with a sample drawn from two local supermarkets. The supermarkets were chosen as centres likely to be visited by a wide spectrum of the population, and formed a convenient distribution point for questionnaires.

(iii). *Dating agency (singles): members of Dateline International.* As an attempt at a partial replication of study 2, single members of the world's largest dating agency were selected for studies 3 and 4. Dating agencies, according to Woll and Cozby (1987) "offer a wonderful natural laboratory to study interpersonal relationships" (page 106). Members of the agency were contacted with the help of that agency. Like the students, these respondents were deemed to be highly motivated towards seeking relationships, and were thus suitable for a short-term longitudinal analysis of relationship formation. Because of the difficulty many dating agency members may confront when making dates (Duck, 1983), such members were also likely to be eager to participate in a social setting where many prospective dates could be met at any one time. Informants were matched with the University students for age and sex to allow for easy comparisons.

(iv). *Dating agency (married): ex-members of Dateline International*

A second 'dating agency' sample consisted of individuals who had already been (successfully) introduced by a dating agency and who now lived together as man and wife. These participants were delighted at their matching by the agency, and as a result had all recently agreed to be featured by this agency for advertising purposes. Such a sample therefore seemed an ideal group for the analysis of the 'happy/successful' marriage, and for piloting explorations into the determinants of marital quality.

(v). *A general population sample.*

A further 'married couples' sample was taken as an attempt to gain a reasonable representation of English married couples. As this aimed at being the largest study of the thesis, random stratification methods were used to gain as representative a sample as possible.

(vi). *A Uruguayan married couples sample.*

The final sample became available as the result of the visit of a colleague to Uruguay. This sample formed only a small probability-based selection of Uruguayan couples, and does not claim to be representative of the diverse populations that make up this nation. This data was collected as a heuristic enterprise, and although the sample was far from ideal, the thesis was felt to benefit from this rare opportunity for a cross-cultural comparison of results.

It should be noted here that 3 further samples were sought, but these unfortunately proved impossible to obtain. In the case of the first of

these, an attempt was made to strengthen the generalizability of the 'supermarket shoppers' responses by gathering data with the co-operation of a local radio station. Questions were read out 'over the air', and respondents were asked to send their answers to Kent's psychology department. Unfortunately, only six listeners replied to this request.

Attempts were also made to extend the external validity of the results obtained for experiments 5-7 by collecting two further samples. One study attempted to analyse the influence of arranged marriages upon relationship satisfaction, role agreement etc. To this end, questionnaires were deposited with a Bengali organisation based in a large council estate in North London (see chapter 10). Unfortunately, however, the organization failed to distribute the questionnaires as requested. A second attempt to extend external validity was made by attempting to question distressed couples approaching the Marriage Guidance Council about their relationship (and thus balance up the 'very happy' group of ex-dating agency couples: see sample (iv), above). Unfortunately (but probably quite correctly) access was denied to such a sample.

3.4.4: The instruments of study

Ideally, an embracing measure of various personal relationships should include designs examining the behavioural, cognitive and affective aspects of such relationships (Hinde, 1981; Morton and Douglas, 1981), and to do this may require a "plurality of complementary theoretical and methodological strategies" (Good, 1980: 7). Unfortunately, practical considerations limited the use of as wide a variety of

techniques as would have been desired in this thesis, but self-report and observational techniques were used in study 3 (chapter 6) to try to gain both 'objective' and 'subjective' measures of social skills (see Olson, 1977 for the desirability of such a combination). The 'traditional' experimental (laboratory) setting was avoided, as this contains "cue cards everywhere" (Ickes, 1982: 307) - and thus leads to various biases (Ickes, 1982, Ickes and Tooke, 1988; Tajfel, 1972). With the exception of the self-reports in study 3 (chapter 6), experimenter effects were also hopefully minimised by allowing the respondents to complete their questionnaires privately i.e. not in the presence of the investigator.

Questionnaires where respondents completed self-reports were the principle method of investigation in this thesis. In terms of sheer practicality, questionnaires can be administered to a large population rapidly and relatively economically, and do not require the involvement of trained interviewers or observers. Questionnaires also require less financial inducement to encourage respondents to participate than other techniques of data collection (e.g. having respondents keep diaries, attend interviews etc). This is an important consideration given that over 3000 individuals were contacted and asked to participate in the various studies described in this thesis. All questionnaires concluded with hand-signed signatures to maximise response rate (Dodd and Markwiese, 1987).

Where observational methods were used, the advice of McCarthy (1981) was followed in measuring the *same* variable with different types of measures. Social skills are particularly amenable to an observational analysis (Filsinger et al, 1981) and in the third study both verbal

and nonverbal communications were analysed. Although such examinations are open to observer biases (Beattie, 1982) by concentrating on relatively minute segments of interaction (which are less likely to be under conscious control: see Wiemann, 1981) 'contamination' was hopefully minimised.

3.4.5 The measures taken

An examination of the first framework developed in this chapter (figure 3.1) points to six independent variables, all of which are required if a relationship is to form. These are: (i) social support (related to partner desires, cell 1), (ii) partner preferences (cell 1), (iii) various aspects of the interaction (cell 3) (iv) ability and confidence to form a relationship (cell 4) For framework one there was one simple dependent variable: the existence of the motivation to form a relationship with another (cell 5).

The first framework

i. Social support

A measure of social support was obtained for all the empirical studies with the exception of studies 1 and 2. Two slightly different measures of social support are used, although both of these are derived primarily from the same scale, Procidano and Heller's (1983) PSS questionnaire, which measures perceived social support[2]. For the first measure of social support (used in studies 3 and 4 and reported in chapters 6 and 7) just the 'friendship support' part of Procidano and Heller's (1983) scale is used as this had been shown to be positively related to Levenson and Gottman's DAQ (below: 1978). The narrow use of

just this one scale was later realised to be problematic in two respects. First of all, friends and family are probably both significant in forming social support (see chapter 2). Secondly, if social support is to be linked to the provision of some form of 'desire fulfilment' then the measures taken must be *directly* related to these desires (Gottlieb, 1988). A second more comprehensive form of measuring social support was thus devised. This involved both family and friend support segments of the PSS, which were added to other questions devised to produce a scale directly related to measures of partner preferences. This new, improved measure was included in the questionnaires used in studies 5, 6 and 7.

ii. Personal Preferences

The efficacy of measures of preference (or 'desire') fulfilment is obviously a key issue in the testing of this theory. These preferences were analysed in two ways. In the first half of the thesis, a new measure was devised comprising two 'fixed response' questions (requiring the ranking or rating of scale items) and a third 'free-response' measure, where participants were allowed more choice in answering a question 'in their own words' (see Chapter 4 for a fuller description of this). In the second half of the thesis, respondent's preferences were measured by using established needs scales (Schutz's "Firo-B" measure (1958)), which were modified to tap specific marital needs (cf. Levinger 1964 and Lipetz et al 1970 for the requirement to measure needs within a specific interactional context). The FIRO-B is a well-replicated measure the use of which has a range of advantages for this thesis (see Chapter 8 for more details).

iii. The first meeting, and prerequisites for interaction

Referring back to figure 3.3 ('the first impressions game') at least 6 factors were claimed to be of importance in the initial meeting: the situation (Do I like this type of event?); the setting (Is this the right place for romance?); physical appearance; nonverbal skills; verbal skills and relationship expectations.

An analysis concerning the suitability of the occasion for relationship formation, and the informant's attitudes concerning likely interactions, was conducted as part of studies 3 and 4. The situation was analysed by asking respondents to rate their impression of Dateline members on 8 Likert-type scales (after VanLear and Trujillo, 1986). The setting was examined by drawing up a list of situations and asking participants to rate their suitability for interaction with the opposite sex on similar scales, as well as providing respondents with an opportunity to freely list settings in which they felt both 'very comfortable' and 'very uncomfortable'. Physical appearance was not rated as this would require an unacceptable number of judges having access to video-taped interactions, and this was clearly contrary to the experimental participant's wishes. Nonverbal and verbal skills were assessed, however, and were used for the analysis of social skills (see below). 'Expectations concerning future interactions' were dependent upon new close relationships forming as a result of initial interaction. Unfortunately, only one new relationship materialised within the 'controlled' settings of study 3, therefore this variable of future relationship expectations was not included in the data analysis.

iv. Social communication skills and self-esteem

There is some debate as to whether different measures of nonverbal skills will actually measure the 'same' things (Douglas, 1987), therefore social communication skills were measured through the use of an appropriate paper and pencil test (an adapted version of Levenson and Gottman, 1978), *and* also by monitoring the individual's behaviour in a mixed-sex group to allow for comparison of results. For this behavioural analysis, participants were video-taped and audio recorded, and examined using a mixture of an established nonverbal communication analysis (after Trower et al, 1978) and a new code book, CSA- Combined Systems Analysis- a detailed verbal and para-linguisitic coding scheme devised by the author and geared towards measurements of interpersonal interactions. Further details of this analysis is provided in Chapter 6.

Self-esteem was measured by using a well-established self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965), as this was one of the few self-esteem tests with a good record of validation.

The dependent measure: motivation to form a relationship with the other

The existence of a relationship is one way of analysing the outcome variable of the initiation process described in figure 3.1 (this is referred to by Duck (1977) as the 'nominal issue' - the simple investigation of which individual (among many) is chosen as the likely partner). However, Duck (ibid.) recognizes that a further measure is required here: one analysing the degree to which that chosen partner is appreciated (in some cases, the simple fact of attraction may be

quite unrelated to strength of feeling or future relationship potential). Therefore many of the relevant dependent measures in this thesis rate not only *who* is chosen as the partner but *how* an individual feels towards that mate.

The second framework (figure 3.2)

The second framework developed in this chapter (figure 3.2) suggests that 4 independent variables are likely to predict relationship outcomes for married couples. These 4 independent variables are (i) the individual's desires for a partner (analogous to 'partner preferences', for a description of these see above) (cell 1); (ii) social support (cell 2a and b: see above); (iii) role fulfilment (cell 3) and (iv) relationship alternatives (cell 4). The relationship outcome measures were of (i) marital adjustment, (ii) marital commitment and (iii) marital stability and (iv) response to relationship dissatisfaction. Those measures not described in the section above are outlined briefly below.

Role fulfilment

Data on role fulfilment is collected for studies 5, 6 and 7. 'Role fulfilment' in these studies is treated as an amalgamation of two different measures: these measures are: (1) a 'role preference' scale, which asks respondents to rate the importance of Nye's (1976) role categories and to define both their own and their partner's acumen in performing these tasks and (2) a 'role consensus' scale, which

examines the level of reported disagreement between the partners on these role categories (Bahr et al, 1983).

Relationship alternatives

Relationship alternatives were measured using Udry's (1981) Marital Alternatives Scale, one of the most comprehensive measures of alternatives available.

Marital adjustment

Scales adjudging marital quality differ widely, and use a number of different terms for that which they claim to be judging (see chapter 8). For these studies, one of the most popular and psychometrically valid scales was used: Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale (1976: see Chapter 8 for a further discussion of the appropriateness of this measure).

Relationship commitment

Commitment was measured by using a simple 5-item scale devised by Michaels et al, 1986, which allows for the measurement of both personal and structural commitment[3].

Relationship stability

Stability was analysed with the use of an even shorter scale, questionning respondents about the probability of relationship continuation (Booth et al, 1983), a scale which stresses both cognitive and behavioural aspects of relationship stability.

Response to dissatisfaction

'Responses to relationship dissatisfaction' were measured following the methodology described by Rusbult (e.g. Rusbult et al, 1987), and the instrument involved asked informants to indicate their reaction to a pre-specified disagreement on a number of Likert-type scales.

3.4.6 Temporal design

In recent years, a number of commentators have pointed to the value of longitudinal studies (e.g. Levinger, 1976, 1977; Lund, 1985; Winstead and Derlega, 1986) - and have often waxed lyrically about how they wish their own study(ies) had been of this longitudinal nature. The main reasons for the lack of longitudinal analysis have been that such studies are difficult to arrange, very demanding projects on which to recruit (Kelly and Conley (1987) lost 83% of their participants in their (very) longitudinal study), and extremely time-consuming (by very definition!). In the words of one cynic

> "Anyone who has to wait 20 years for the outcome of his work is likely to be out of a job before his task is complete" (Williams, 1977: 241)

However, some of the best PR research involves longitudinal designs (e.g. Milardo, 1982 on friendship networks). Therefore in this thesis the longitudinal perspective (loosely interpreted: see McCarthy, 1981) was adopted for the first four studies (which comprise two longitudinal designs). This allowed an empirical investigation of the development of relationships to unpack the manner in which the variables of concern might influence relationships, and avoided the possible charge of 'correlation without causation' (McCall, 1980). For

the remaining studies in the thesis (Chapters 8 - 10) the desire to obtain a 'snap-shot' of an ongoing relationship more readily permitted the use of the traditional cross-sectional design.

Footnotes for chapter 3

[1] See also Kelley and Thibaut (1978: 234) the relationship process is characterised as "an exchange of actions or messages that reduce uncertainty or increase the mutual assurance". Duck (1988) has, however recently questioned whether a straight-forward 'information-processing' model is really appropriate, as new information can sometimes heighten uncertainty (see also Baxter and Wilmot, 1985 and Levinger, 1983 for similar arguments). For the sake of the present framework, information is seen as to be of value insofar as it is perceived by the individual(s) involved as consistent.

[2] This scale is one of the few social support scales to demonstrate adequate reliability coefficients and validation documentation: Sarason et al, 1987a.

[3] This was measured in a general manner.

Chapter 4

Issues in the assessment of preferences for a partner: a descriptive study of two samples

The findings of this and the subsequent study were discussed in a paper entitled "Emotional fulfilment as a predictor of relationship formation", presented at the British Psychological Society's Annual Conference, Brighton, 1987.

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"On the whole, women tend to love men for their character, whilst men tend to love women for their appearance" [Russell, B cited in Byrne et al, 1977: 297]

4.1. Introduction

This chapter describes the formation of an instrument for measuring the preferences individuals have for a close relationship partner. The manner in which this instrument was applied to gather information about partner preferences is also discussed and the extent to which the preferences reported mirror those recorded by previous researchers is discussed. The next chapter goes one step further, using the data collected in this study to make predictions about the type of people with whom the experimental informants will form intimate relationships.

4.2. Some considerations for the closer examination of partner preferences

Gaining accurate information about someone's preferences for a future partner is not an easy task. There are numerous considerations which must be taken into account in order to get even an approximate measure of an individual's desires for a mate. Among these considerations are:

What types of partner preferences are there?

Overall, previous research on partner preferences can be divided into two trends. One trend has analysed "somatic preferences" (those *physical* characteristics sought by an individual in a partner (e.g. buttock sizes, body type: Alicke et al, 1986). Although somatic

preferences clearly exist for both sexes (e.g. Franzoi and Herzog, 1987), such physical aspects have been shown to be primarily of interest to males rather than females (Berscheid and Walster, 1974; Dion, 1981; Kephart, 1967; Mazur, 1986; Vandenberg, 1972).

A second trend of research has examined the more *'psychological'* characteristics preferable in a partner. Whilst such traits have generally been less clearly defined than physical characteristics (c.f. Centers, 1975), some relatively constant preference patterns have been obtained across a number of samples (Buss, 1985; Kelly, 1979; Powers, 1971). Just as physical (somatic) preferences have been found to be of greater importance to men (Smith and Monane, 1953), women have been found to be more interested in these psychological characteristics, and were prepared to consider marriage if their partner displayed these traits - even if they did not consider themselves to be 'in love' (Kephart, 1967)

For the present purposes, it is this latter trend of research which will be of prime concern. In particular, one finding is of particular note - the finding that there are specific desired traits which are consistent across time and different populations (Hudson and Henze, 1969; Murstein, 1986; Powers, 1971). This finding validates the use in this thesis of lists of preferences previously employed by earlier researchers.

How many aspects of partner preferences need to be measured?

Triangulation theory suggests that in order to obtain a valid measure of a complex phenomenon researchers should use as wide a range of measuring instruments as possible (Denzin, 1970 cited in de Jong-

Gierveld, 1989). In this study, three different preference indicators were used drawn from the prior research in this area.

By far the most prevalent tradition in the past work is for researchers to produce an intuitive list of partner preferences and to then ask their informants to rank these or to score them on some pre-set scale (see Powers, 1971). In the studies to be described in the following four chapters, participants were also asked to rank and score different measures. However, in a few cases, investigators have asked their respondents to freely list their desires for a future mate (e.g. Smith and Monane, 1953). In the following studies described in this dissertation, participants were also requested to undertake such a free listing.

How can prompting respondents (into producing 'socially desirable' answers) be avoided?

Wright (1968) has referred to the 'popular man' effect, whereby a *self-reported* similarity between couples may occur simply because the characteristics they are describing are universally approved. Obviously, in asking individuals to rate preferences, those preferences chosen may relate not so much to the real desires of an individual but may instead be a mere reflection of social desirability.

To counter this, this thesis makes use of a complex of procedures which provide informants with choices between responses of equal social 'weight', thus ensuring that there are no 'obviously' more desirable preferences on offer. It is also possible to cancel out some of the 'popular man' effect through the methods used to test

predictions. In these studies, if *all* respondents rate their preferences for a partner in precisely the same way then, as will be seen, the value of these preferences in predicting partner choice will be minimal.

Given such considerations, however, it is necessary to recognize that the very fact that some traits are more generally popular than others does not mean that these traits are not highly valued by an individual (see Murstein, 1967), and certainly does not imply that these 'popular' traits are unimportant as desirability criteria. In some case, there may be little difference between the generally socially desirable partner, and the partner chosen (Wetzel, 1978 unpub cited in Wetzel et al, 1979).

4.3. The construction of a new preference instrument

In aiming to achieve the dual aims of a) constructing an instrument consistent with past preference research and b) using preferences to reflect the actual population studied, three measures of personal preferences were constructed and incorporated into a new preference instrument (henceforth known as PI). Two of these measures are of the 'fixed choice' variety: i.e. they give respondents only a certain number of possible preference choices, and ask them to rank or rate these choices (see 4.3.1 and 4.3.2 below). These measures will be known throughout this thesis by the method by which they require the respondents to choose specific preferences. The first measure to be described will be known as the 'ranking preference' measure, the second as the 'bi-polar preference' measure.

4.3.1 The ranking preference measure

Asking participants to rank preferences is the most frequently used method for investigating an individual's desires for a partner. Questioning in this ways has a number of advantages. First of all, it can allow the researcher to lump together several highly-desired options in one single list to be ranked, and such a method can thus tease out the subtlest of qualitative differences. Secondly, the researcher can provide 'grouped' series of preferences (associations between preferences previously discovered in factor analytic studies) and, by splitting these preferences up amongst independent lists requiring ranking, test the analytic structure of these preferences. This can give the researcher both an idea of a particular individual's mental 'scheme' of association (see Chelune, 1984) and also, by generalising results across a number of participants, can provide an outline of such schematic representations in the population as a whole. A third reason for using a ranking format is that the ranking task is relatively complex, and from this it can be assumed that respondents are less likely to remember their exact rankings when asked four months later about their new partners. This will be seen to be important in the next chapter, which asks already examined participants to estimate newly-found partners: using the complex ranking task minimises a potential bias which can arise from these informants simply remembering their previously listed preferences for a partner and (in a desire to appear 'correct' in their partner choice?) repeating the list at the later date.

The derivation of a ranking measure

A study by Buss and Barnes (1986) provides an appropriate data base for the derivation of the ranking measure used in this thesis. Although the theoretical leaning in the Buss and Barnes study was towards providing a "genetic" interpretation of relationship processes, their study was chosen for two particular reasons. First of all, it provided a *recent* listing of partner preferences from which to work. Secondly, and more significantly, Buss and Barnes provide the most comprehensive attempt at analysing the relationship between estimations of what a partner 'wants' *and* 'what they get' from their partner. Such an empirical link between 'wanting' and 'getting' is of obvious importance to the theory developed in this thesis.

Buss and Barnes (1986) used the Marital Preference scale developed by Gough (1973) to identify 9 factor groupings of personal preferences for a partner. These authors examined married couples sampled from the general population, and tried to assess couple's preferences for a partner type. In a similar but unpublished study (Goodwin, 1985), students were asked to report the three things they most looked for in an opposite sex partnership. The results from this exercise indicated a marked similarity in terms of the preferences ranked highly by Buss' married couples and those highly rated by students, but, perhaps unsurprisingly, there were *some* important differences between the desires of the two groups. Therefore, in order to provide an appropriate list of partner preferences which could then be used for ranking purposes, Buss' nine factor categories were reduced to five factors with the factor groupings 'likes children', 'domestic' 'professional status' and 'domestic' omitted from the present study

(these were adjudged to be of more concern to the married couple than young single University students). The remaining five factor groupings were also congruent with other research on partner preference patterns (see for example Laner, 1977).

Buss and Barnes (1986) also provided useful data indicating the highest loading items on each of their factors. These highest-loading items formed the items to be ranked in the present study, with the exception of two items ('loyal' and 'charming') which were omitted as they were only rarely mentioned in the earlier student investigation.

Scoring procedure

In their 1986 work, Buss and Barnes asked their participants to place scores ranging from -2 to +2 alongside each of the items in Gough's Marital Preference scale. In the present study this was felt to be inappropriate as most of the items used in Gough's questionnaire were so desirable that they were unlikely to provide the subtle differences required for later prospective predictions. Therefore the absolute scoring system used by Buss and Barnes was replaced by a series of rankings. Preferences were divided into four five-item lists, each containing one of the items relating to each of the preference factors described by Buss and Barnes (see table 4a). These lists were presented to participants in a randomly assorted manner.

Table 4a: The preference items used in the ranking items section of the PI (tabled by factor). Items are adopted from Gough (1973) and Buss and Barnes, (1986)

Kind-Considerate factor

[ ] Understanding
[ ] Considerate
[ ] Kind
[ ] Honest

Socially-exciting factor

[ ] Sociable
[ ] Socially skilled
[ ] Exciting personality
[ ] Stylish appearance

Artistic-Intelligent factor

[ ] Creative
[ ] Idealistic
[ ] Artistic
[ ] Intellectually stimulating

The Easygoing-adaptable

[ ] Open-minded
[ ] Easy-going
[ ] Able to plan ahead
[ ] Well-liked by others

Politically-conservative factor

[ ] Wealthy
[ ] Politically conservative
[ ] Politically liberal
[ ] Tall

Note

Participants were asked to form a ranking "of the desirability of each characteristic in someone with whom you would like to have a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship" The words "boyfriend-girlfriend relationship " were selected carefully after consultation with a number of colleagues. It was decided that these words clearly defined the anticipated relationship to be a) heterosexual b) involving attraction between the partners and c) not limited to anticipated marriages

4.3.2. The bi-polar preference measure

Why are further measures needed?

Using ranking measures has a number of advantages (see above), but such a measure also has at least one limitation if used alone. Items ranked 'first' in a list may be very close in an individual's personal evaluation to those ranked 'second' in the list - or they may reflect the 'psychological distance' between the first and fifth rankings on a separate list of characteristics. Personal constructs presented in bi-polar form and using a Likert-type scale measure can provide a numerical (quantitative) indication of the 'distance' between items. Using personal construct theory and methodology to also *produce* the items to be measured in this way is a powerful (but underused) means of producing suitable constructions (Duck, 1973; Kelly, 1955; Neimeyer and Neimeyer, 1985).

In this study a repertory grid was used to reflect relational dimensions relevant to both the generators of the dimensions and the main study participants (see Duck and Sants, 1983, on the insider-outsider dimensions of the close relationship). De Jong Gierveld (1989) recommends a step-wise procedure for the generation of new measures, and the procedural steps for forming the bipolar measure were as follows:-

1. Sixteen 60-90 minute interviews were conducted with a pilot group compatible with the target student group chosen for the main study (i.e. both pilot and target group consisted of young adults between the ages of 18 and 25: 9 of these pilot participants were male, 7 female). In these interviews, participants were asked to fit names, selected from their personal social circle, to 12 pre-specified role

figures all of whom were likely to be influential in the informant's 'romantic world' (see Appendix C for the questionnaire in full: the choice of predominantly 'intimate' figures follows the advice offered by Bonarius (1970: in Adams-Webber, 1981). Participants unable to name a particular pre-specified figure (e.g. those without a present girlfriend) were instructed to omit this figure. All respondents revealed a minimum of 11 out of the 12 figures.

Participants were then asked to compare random pairings of these figures and to testify the manner in which the pairs differed (in terms of psychological characteristics: after Ryle, 1975). Taking this difference characteristic respondents then listed the quality they considered to be the 'opposite' of this characteristic. In total informants completed 24 pairings.

2. By using this method a total of more than 300 bi-polar comparisons (here defined as constructs) were created. These were then listed in accordance with their frequency and the most frequently occuring 25 equated for social desirability through a forced-choice procedure where a further pilot sample (again representing a similarly compatable population to the target group: N=11, 5 female and 6 male) were compelled to choose between pairs of descriptors (after Edwards, 1970 cited in Kline, 1983). Out of the possible 25 bi-polar constructs 11 were rejected as having one strongly desirable pole. A further 3 constructs, whilst not the most frequently listed, were added to the sample because of their pivotal role in previous research: these were the constructs of (1) introvert/extrovert, (2) motivated by emotion/motivated by thinking and (3) likes to be with others/ likes to be alone (e.g. Gray 1949; Wagner, 1975).

3. 21 further individuals then used Likert-type scales to rate each of the 12 pre-specified role figures (see 1, above) on the remaining 17 bi-polar constructs. The members of this final pilot group were second and third year undergraduate students studying psychology, who were sent the constructs to be rated in the form of a booklet (after Ryle, 1975) and were 'encouraged' to participate by covering letters from both the author and the Professor of the Social Psychology department (see Appendix B). Informant's responses were then subjected to a construct analysis using the SPSSX 'vicicle' format. This analysis produced 10 clearly independent constructs - crudely interpretable as representing different psychological 'space' - which were those used in the questionnaire. In the questionnaires, these were once again presented in the format of seven-point Likert scales.

Steve Duck, one of the most notable employers of the personal constructs method in relationship psychology argues that

> "a test of the validity of a construct is provided by the extent to which it is shared by others" (1977: 305)

However, despite this preparation process, it cannot be *assumed* that the ten chosen constructs necessarily relate to any one individual's perceptions of a likely partner. Therefore a second, 1-5 rating scale was placed *alongside* the Likert scale used to indicate preferences for a partner. On this second, five-point scale, participants were instructed to assess how *relevant* each construct was "for the way in which you might view a future partner". This additional 5-point scale served three functions. First of all, if *all* the participants rated a particular construct as 'totally irrelevant' to their ideas about a future relationship partner then this construct could be discarded.

Secondly, those constructs rated as 'totally irrelevant' by a *particular* respondent could be ignored for a particular analysis of that respondent, thus providing a more accurate basis for partner prediction. Thirdly, the relative strength of a particular construct is interesting in itself as it adds to the general knowledge about desires for a partner.

The full, bi-polar item (incorporating the two types of scales) is listed in table 4b (below).

Table 4b: Preference items used in the bi-polar items section of the PI.

Instructions

Please indicate on the scales below the point at which you think your likely partner would fall (if, for example, you think that they are very domineering, place a cross at the 'domineering' end of the scale, like so: domineering |_X_|__|__|__|__|__|__| submissive).
Alongside each scale, could you also please indicate how relevant you think these opposites are for the way in which you might view a future partner: please use the following numbers to indicate their relevance: (1) very relevant; (2) relevant (3) unsure (4) irrelevant (5) totally irrelevant. For example, if you think that you tend to think of a potential partner in terms of whether or not they are domineering or submissive, put a (1) or (2), if you never think of people in these terms, put a (4) or (5), and so on.

		Such opposites are- (a number 1-5)
domineering	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	submissive
honest	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	subtle
independent minded	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	flexible
serious	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	happy-go-lucky
humorous	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	serious
aggressive	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	timid
conservative	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	radical
introvert	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	extrovert
motivated by thinking	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	motivated by emotion
likes to affiliate with others	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	likes to be autonomous

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4.3.3: The free-choice preference measure

So far, two 'fixed choice' measures of preferences have been described (the rankings measure and the bi-polar measure). A third preference measure requested respondents to *freely* list, in their own words, the characteristics they most desired in a relationship partner.

The inclusion of such a measure had a number of advantages for this study. First of all, such a measure does not restrict respondents to a limited number of pre-set items (as, of course, do the two 'fixed preference' measures described above: see Murstein, 1976a, and Powers, 1971, for the disadvantages of such a 'fixed' choice). Secondly, such a free-response item may encourage the introduction of *new* preferences previously regarded by researchers as having low desirability - but nevertheless being of significance for a particular respondent. Finally, the 'free-response' item may sound a useful warning note to the author of these studies, as it may indicate the spirit of seriousness in which the questionnaire as a whole has been tackled, and the relevance of the items included for scoring in earlier sections of the questionnaire.

4.4: Some general expectations concerning the likely patterns in the data

As has already been indicated, previous research has produced a reasonably high degree of agreement about what is desirable in a prospective mate (Hoyt and Hudson, 1981; Powers, 1971). This past work provides a number of expectations about the type of patterns to expect in the data. These expectations may play a useful role in indicating the appropriateness of the preference measures used in the present

research - they can at least indicate the degree to which the findings can be said to be commensurate with the work of other students of this field. These expectations may be listed as follows:-

1. The preference patterns obtained in the present data will be similar to those reported by Buss and Barnes (1986) and other previous research on partner preferences.

2. Sex differences will be evident amongst the preferences of the participants (Buss and Barnes, 1986; Centers, 1972; Langhorne and Secord, 1955; Murstein, 1976a; Smith and Monane, 1953; Tharp, 1963) with females stressing the 'psychological' characteristics of a potential mate (the 'expressive' concern: Murstein, 1976a) and males more highly evaluating physical attractiveness, liberal sexual standards and other 'object' qualities of the intended spouse, as well as preferring a partner who is more passive/submisive (Buss, 1985; Buss, 1988; Buss and Barnes, 1986; Coombs. 1966; Hinde, 1984; Howard et al, 1987; Hoyt and Hudson, 1981; McGinnis, 1958; Murstein, 1976a).

3. Age effects will be found, with older individuals stressing intelligence and attractiveness in a partner more than their younger counterparts (Smith and Monane, 1953).

4.5 Method of data collection

The choice of sample

This and the following chapter will be examining how an individual's preferences for a partner when they are single are reflected in the very partner they choose. In order to do this, the study to be described had to be of a longitudinal nature, and also had to involve a reasonable number of participants who could be readily contacted. Participants had to be single at the beginning of the study (Time1) but likely to be 'romantically involved' by the follow-up stage just a few months later (Time2). Finally, respondents had to be willing to participate in a study asking intimate questions yet offering participants only the most minimal of financial incentives.
Almost inevitably, therefore, the major proportion of the participants in the first longitudinal study (described in this chapter and the next) were University students. Participants were students of the University of Kent, a moderate sized campus-based university where just over 50% of the undergraduate students are resident on campus. As the intention was to examine individuals prior to their contact with any future partner (prior contact might influence partner preferences) first year students resident on campus were studied on their initial arrival at the university, and questionnaires investigating 'preferences for a partner' were distributed at the 'Freshers Bazaar' (an annual event occuring two days into the first term: N=400) and underneath the doors of college rooms during the first few days of term (N=300). As the aim was to question as wide a range of students as possible the questionnaires were distributed widely throughout the Freshers Bazaar with the generous co-operation of the Christian Union,

the Jewish Society, the Catholic Society, the Radio Station, the Social Psychology Society and the Students Union. Those sent questionnaires under their doors were randomly selected from the Registry's lists of first-year students living in college, with an even number of each sex chosen. Participants were asked to fill in the various questions (see below) and to return the questionnaire either in a special box on display at the Freshers Bazaar, or through the University's internal mail system. In order to facilitate response, a prize draw with a cash prize of £25 was awarded.

A further sample

Some weeks later, an attempt was made to broaden the sample with the co-operation of two local branches of the 'Safeway' supermarket chain (located in Canterbury and Herne Bay). It was expected that shoppers in these supermarkets would at least represent a more general population than the student sample. In gathering this cohort, a large notice was displayed near the exit of the supermarkets inviting individuals to fill in a questionnaire investigating 'the mysteries of love'. Potential participants were offered the enticement of a prize draw for Professor Steve Duck's book 'Intimate Relations' (1986), and were asked to return their replies using the postage-paid envelope provided.

A final sample

One further attempt was made to gather a 'wider' representation of the Kent population by making use of an interview which was requested by the local radio station, Radio Kent. During this interview, a modified

version of the questionnaire given to the other two samples was read live 'over the air' in an attempt to generate further response (once again Professor Duck's book was used as an enticement). Unfortunately, only six individuals sent in responses, therefore this final replication attempt had to be abandoned.

Can the student and supermarket samples be usefully combined?

Two usable samples resulted from the above proceedings, one student group and one supermarket sample. The next question was to see to what extent these samples could be usefully combined for the purposes of later analysis. In order to test the desirability of combining the two samples for analysis, various measures were taken to compare the supermarket group with the University students group. Comparisons were made on 4 criteria of interest (age, sex and the two 'fixed response' measures of partner preferences).

A comparison of sex and age distribution.

For the student sample, 52% were male (48% female) which reflected the even distribution of the sexes at Kent University. However, rather more males than females participated in the supermarket sample (72% were male). To avoid embarrasment, participants were not asked to state their precise age but were instead requested to indicate to which of the following categories they belonged: age 17-19; age 20-25; age 26-35 or age 36 and over. Age differentiation was narrower for the younger ages as those students targeted were first year undergraduates: a similar categorisation of age groups has been used in a number of other well-known attitude investigations (e.g. Harding

et al, 1986). The mean age group for the student group fell half way between the 17-19 and 20-25 year age bands, but the supermarket group was notably older, with most participants in the latter of these two age bands.

A comparison between groups on their preferences for a partner

Scores on the two fixed-preference measures (the ranking and bipolar measures) were also compared between the two samples (see figures 4.1 and 4.2). The graphs clearly illustrate the remarkable agreement between the groups on desires for a partner. In figure 4.1, participant's average rankings, per factor item for each of the five factors of the ranked partner preferences, are compared by origin of sample. A t-test for differences between the samples stresses the marked similarity in ranked preferences (two-tail t-test $p < .96$). Figure 4.2. compares ratings for the ten bi-polar constructs by origin of sample (see table 4b in this chapter for a list of the ten constructs corresponding to the 10 numbers on this graph). Once again a two-tail t-test stresses the remarkable similarity between groups (two-tail t-test $p < 1.00$).

FIGURE 4.1.

Mean item rating

by origin of sample

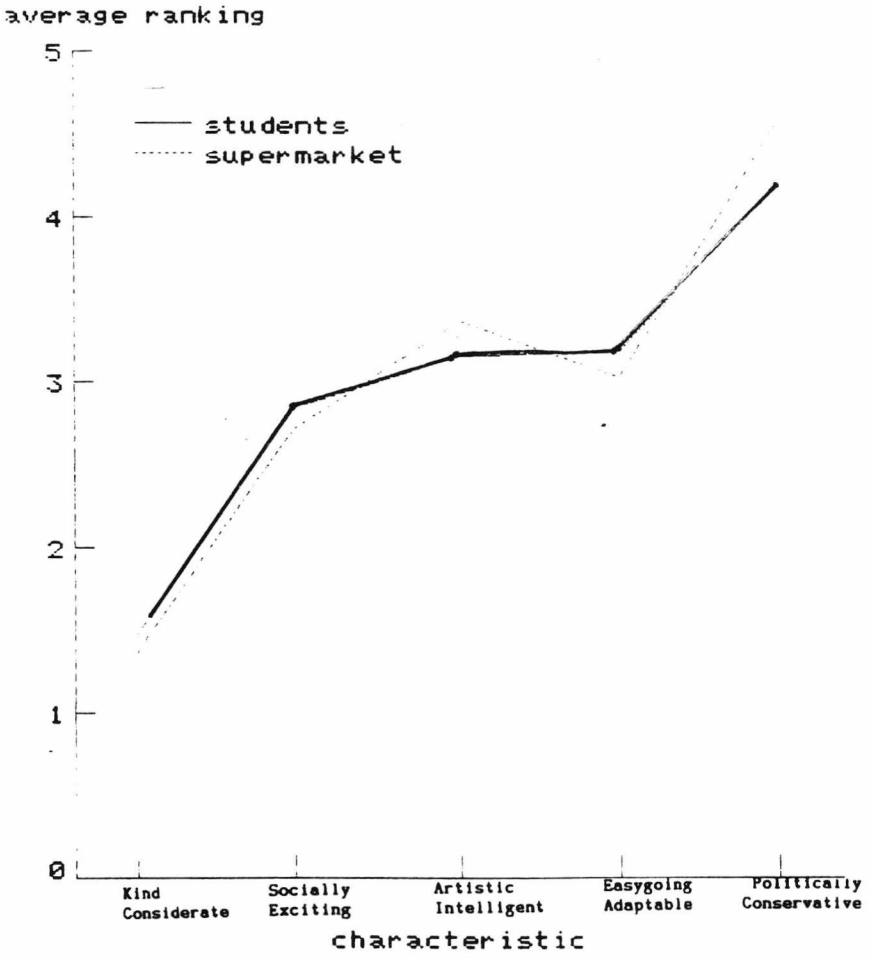
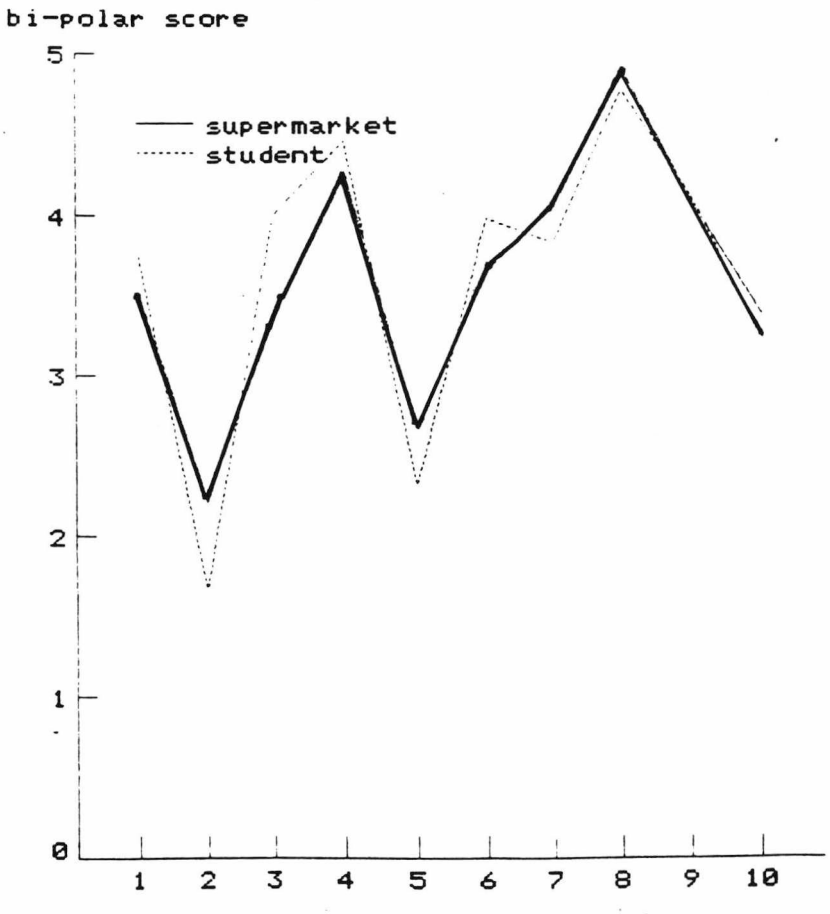


Fig 4.2. Bi-polar scores

by origin of sample



Results of the comparison

Overall, the only significant difference between the student and supermarket samples was in terms of the mean age of participants. Therefore the two groups were combined for the purpose of analysis, although the significant age difference between the samples is given some consideration in later discussions.

The Response rate

216 questionnaires were returned in total, 161 from the sampled University student population of approximately 750, a further 55 from the supermarket sample. Essentially, this represents a poor response rate (22%). A number of factors probably contributed towards this. For those completing the questionnaire at the Freshers Bazaar, where approximately 60% of the University questionnaires were distributed, no record could be kept of those who took a questionnaire at the Bazaar but were yet to return the completed document. Therefore it was not possible to predict who would already have a questionnaire when the questionnaires were redistributed to college rooms a few days later. A probability estimate suggests that between 100 and 150 potential participants were given two questionnaires (thereby reducing the number of potential responses).

Further problems persisted thoughout the collection of the supermarket sample. First of all, the notice attached to the box of questionnaires in Canterbury was removed (this notice asked only those who were 'single' to reply, and therefore meant wasting some responses). Secondly, in both stores, a box containing questionnaires was left (with the permission of the store manager) beside some free

advertising space provided by the store. Problems occurred when a local company decided that it preferred its own brand of marketing, and 'removed' the box of questionnaires. It is worth noting here that poor response rates are only too common in the PR field (e.g. see Harvey et al, 1978 and Dickson-Markman, 1986 on the difficulty of using 'probing' questions). Rubin and Mitchell (1976) reported that their close relationships study recruited a suitable sample of 231 couples ... out of a total of 5,000 individuals contacted.

Procedure.

The questionnaire used for this study was divided into three major segments, each of which is described in the Introduction to this chapter (see section 4.3), and the first and third parts of the questionnaires were reversed for approximately 50% of the sample to allow for order effects and the possibility that presenting lists of preference options may pre-emportorily "suggest" items for the later 'free-response' lists. An introductory instruction section asked participants, in listing their preferences for a partner, to allow for their own expectations as "to the type of partner with whom you feel you are likely to form a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship". This proviso was included to encourage respondents to avoid, as far as possible, simple societal stereotypes and such requests are reasonably common in this field (e.g. Murstein, 1976c). Also requested was a) sex of the participant b) age of the participant and c) the respondent's year of study. "Year of study" was used as a manipulation check to ensure that participants had had no previous opportunity to meet their potential new partners *before* the questionnaire distribution.

The original intention of this questionnaire was to enlist a sufficient number of newly arriving students to be able to expect around 20 couples to form from independent responses to this questionnaire. These couples could then be extensively examined at a later date, and the results of this examination tied to their original questionnaire responses. As the Freshers Bazaar participants (part of the University student sample) were not obviously identifiable at the Bazaar, the final paragraph of their questionnaire asked for respondent's name and contact addresses and telephone numbers, as the author "would like to follow up a few of the questionnaires".

4.6. How does the data derived from the preference instrument mirror the results reported by previous researchers?

In this study, data was collected on 216 members of two population samples (161 students and 55 supermarket shoppers). In expanding the research to make prospective predictions about participant's partner choices, it is helpful to see (a) to what extent the preference patterns the participants reported were similar to the preferences expressed by participants in previous research (this can provide an indication of the construct validity of the preference measurement), and (b) how differences in subgroups within the data may help in making different predictions about partner choice for different subsamples of the data.

To this end, three 'expectations' were listed in section 4.4 of this chapter. For the purposes of clarification, the following material is set out in the order of these three expectations.

Expectation 1: The preference patterns obtained will be similar to those found in past work on partner preferences.

Expectation 1: Data from section 1 of the questionnaire (the ranking measure)

Method of scoring

Scores here were calculated by summing the scores for each of the five factors across the four lists. Scoring adopts the following procedure.

1). The five factors under examination were located within the four lists of preferences to be ranked. The ranking score given to each item was added to each other item belonging to that factor. For example, 'kind' is a characteristic contained in the first list given to the participants for ranking: it is also a characteristic belonging to the 'kind-considerate' preference factor. An individual's ranking for 'kind' (a number between 1 and 5) is added to the ranking score for all other characteristics in the 'kind-considerate' factor (considerate, honest and understanding). Overall, a total of 5 summed scores result for each participant in the study (the sum of the rank scores for the five factors under consideration).

2). The summed scores for each of the five factors were then themselves ranked, so that a particular respondent could be claimed to prefer Kind-Considerate people first of all, artistic-intelligent people second and so on.

Results from an analysis of expectation 1

In the present analysis, the kind-considerate factor is rated by the informants as being by far the most desired attribute for a partner.

'Social excitement' items are also clearly desired (at second choice) and the various artistic-intelligent and easygoing-adaptable items vie closely for third place. Least preferred are those attributes labelled as being associated with the 'politically conservative'. An examination of the earlier figure for comparing the supermarket and student members of the sample (figure 4.1) emphasises the prevalence of this pattern across the respondents.

A comparison between Buss and Barnes (1986) and the present study

A comparison was made between the present pattern of partner preferences and a ranked list of preferences reported in a second Buss and Barnes' study (1986: this study reports student's preferences for a potential mate) As can be seen from table 4c, there was a strong similarity between the preferences of the respondents in the present study and those of the students questioned by Buss and Barnes.

Table 4c. Rank ordering of the factors of partner preferences by study

Characteristic	Present study	Buss and Barnes (1986)[1]
Kind considerate	1	1
Socially exciting	2	2
Artistic intelligent	3	4
Easygoing Adaptable	4	3
Politically conservative	5	5

Note

[1] Strictly speaking Buss and Barnes' data for this second study does not include a characteristic termed 'politically conservative', but does include 'good earning capacity' which is here placed alongside 'wealthy' as an indicator of the politically conservative factor grouping.

An internal comparison of the data

Using the free-response question as a means of checking on the generalizability/relevance of the preferences obtained through the fixed rank measure, the most popular *free-responses* were contrasted with the ranked preferences obtained from the 'fixed' lists. Two characteristics from the fixed lists rated consistently highly on the free responses, the characteristics of 'honesty' and 'understanding' - both members of the greatly desired 'kind-considerate' factor. A further characteristic frequent amongst the free responses was the preference for a 'fun' partner. This preference occured as the fifth most common on a list of free-responses and might best be included within the *second*-placed 'socially exciting' factor of the ranked

('fixed') measure.

Ideally, all the free-responses would correspond exactly to the fixed ranked responses. However, given the range of synonyms for any particular personality term, the first and second positioning for some of the most frequently cited 'free-response' terms does suggest a reassuring degree of validity for the rank measure (even if this validity merely concerns the relative positioning of the fixed-rank preferences). Encouragingly, when the analysis is conducted at an individual level, 70% of the respondents free-listed a desired characteristic which was identical with their first ranked fixed preference.

Expectation 1: Data from section 2 of the questionnaire (the bi-polar measure)

Method of scoring

A second indicator of partner preferences can be found in the participants replies to the 10 bi-polar constructs. As described in the first part of this chapter, two sets of scores were obtained through the use of this measure: a straight forward 7-point Likert-scale score (indicating the degree to which a respondent favoured one of the two opposite characteristics cited) and a second 5-point scale, where participants stated how relevant they felt these opposites to be to their conception of a future romantic partner.

Mean scores ([a] on the table) and "relevance ratings" of the constructs ([d] on the table) are indicated below (Table 4d). As the constructs were bipolar and scored on 7-point scales, a score of 2.53 indicates a more 'extreme' response than a possible score of 4.32, as it 'leans'

more heavily towards one end of a particular construct. Therefore for the purposes of clarity an 'extremity index' ([b] on the table) was calculated from the mean scores on the constructs to indicate the *strength* of a particular preference: this index was calculated simply by taking the deviation of the participant's scores from the scale midpoint of 4.0. Extremity Index scores were also ranked to form an extremity ranking ([c] on the table): this gives an indication of the most (least) 'strongly desired' bi-polar characteristic.

As an easy guide to the number of informants who viewed any one bipolar construct as 'irrelevant' to their views about a future partner, the percentage of respondents who saw a construct as "irrelevant" or "totally irrelevant" is included in the table ([e]). 'Relevance' scores for the constructs were also ranked ([f])

Table 4d: Bipolar construct scores indicating (a) the strength of participants' preferences for a particular characteristic and (b) the relevance of that characteristic for the participants' conceptions of a future partner

Construct	Mean score [a]	Extremity Index [b]	Extremity Ranking [c]	x relevance rating [d]	% Ss rating 'irrelevant' [e]	Ranked relevance [f]
1. *Dominant* Submissive	3.62	0.38	6	2.03	13.6	5
2. *Honest* Subtle	2.07	1.93	1	1.53	6.3	1
3. *Independ.* Flexible [3]	3.53	0.47	5	1.99	9.8	3
4. Serious *Happy go lucky*	4.32	0.32	8	1.99	7.3	3
5. *Humorous* Serious	2.53	1.47	2	1.76	6.8	2
6 *Aggress.* Timid [3]	3.76	0.34	7	2.18	13.7	7
7. *Conserv.* Radical [3]	3.97	0.03	10	2.85	39.0	10
8. Introvert *extrovert*	4.87	0.87	3	2.18	13.7	7
9. Thinking *Emotion* [4]	4.10	0.10	9	2.18	15.2	7
10 *Others* Alone [5]	3.35	0.65	4	2.19	13.2	9

Notes

(1) Italics indicate the *most* preferred pole of the construct

(2) As a speculative investigation, the relationship between the degree of the extremity of a response and the ranking of relevance of that preference was calculated. Such a relationship, however, proved of generally small magnitude (Mean Pearson r = 0.12 across all constructs: range r = 0.015-0.312).

(3) Abbreviations: conservat(ive). Aggress(ive). Independ(ent).

(4) Abbreviation: motivated by **Thinking**, motivated by **Emotion**

(5) Abbreviation: prefers to be with **others**, prefers to be **alone**

A comparison between Buss and Barnes (1986) and the present study

The results of this section of the questionnaire indicate that the most desired partner was honest, humorous and extravert. This complements the findings of the fixed preference *rankings* reported above, as participants seemed to be motivated toward finding someone who (a) was honest (honesty falls within the realm of the 'kind-considerate' personality) and (b) able to enjoy themselves (i.e. someone who was 'socially exciting').

A comparison of the results of the present study and those of other investigators

Table 4e examines the overlap between the five most strongly desired preferences on the bi-polar measure and the ranking of these preferences in other studies. It is clear from this that when these traits have been offered in prior research, they have also been seen as significant by participants in the research.

Table 4e: A comparison across studies between the top rated preferences for a partner where items to be rated are fixed by investigators

	Present study	Laner (1977)	Hewitt (1958) [1]	Christiensen (1958)	Murstein (1976)	Hoyt and Hudson (1977) [1]	Blood (1955)	McGinnis (1958) [1]	William-son (1966)	Neely (1936)	Hudson and Henze[1] (1967)
1	Honest	Honest	Well groomed	Fitness	♂Tradition ♀Extravert	♂Stable ♀Mutual attract	♂Consid erate ♀Pleas ant	Depen able	Good parent	♂Dispos -ition ♀Ambit ion	♂Depend able ♀Stable
2	Humour	Affect-ionate	Humour	Dependable	♂Nurturant ♀Patriarch	♂Mutual attract ♀Stable	♂Pleas ant ♀Neat	Stable	similar interests	♂Honest ♀Dispos -ition	♂Mutual attn ♀Depen able
3	Extra vert	Intell igent	Consid -erate	Looks	♂Even Temper ♀Extravert	♂/♀Depen -dable	♂Neat ♀Consid erate	Good Dispos ition	Enjoy home life	♂Health ♀Honest	♂Stable ♀Mutual attn
4	Like to be with others	Humour	Mature	Speech/ acts	♂Family ♀Sex	♂/♀Good Disposit ion	♂Humour ♀Depend able	Mutual attract	Desire kids	♂Mutual intel, ♀Educat ion	♂/♀Good Dispos -ition
5	Indep-endent	Looks	Ambit -ious	Humour	♂Efficient ♀Looks	♂Health ♀Educa tion	♂Good sport ♀Looks	Good health	Even Dispos -ition	♂Educat ion ♀Mutual intel,	♂/♀Want kids

Notes

Characteristics in bold type are those included for rating within this study

♂ Male preference ♀ Female preference

Abbreviations; intel(ligent), att(ractio)n or attract(ion) char(acteristics)

[1] These four studies all use the same basic characteristics to be ranked

A factor analysis of the bi-polar preferences

Murstein (1976c) argues that

> "(R)ather than focusing on single items, factor analysis offers more stable clusters of associated items or dimensions of marital expectation" (455).

Factor analysis is a set of statistical devices used to reduce a collection of hypothetical variables to a manageable number of decipherable 'factors' (Kim and Mueller, 1978). Factor analyses using the SPSSX package were conducted separately using a principal components method and Kaiser Varimax rotation. Principal components analysis suggested 3 main factors in the bi-polar data (see Table 4f) and these factors, when subjected to varimax rotation, explain 50.2% of the variance in the data. Reported below are factors with eigen values of greater than 1.00 and factor loadings >0.3. (after Buss and Barnes, 1986). The three clearest factors demonstrate a grouping of the preferences of (1) happy-go-lucky; humorous; extrovert; emotional and affiliative (2) submissive; flexible; timid and affiliative, and (3) independent and radical. These can perhaps be best named (1) social excitement (2) social acquiescence, and (3) independence. The first two of these groupings overlap the ranking measures of a) social excitement and b) easygoing-adaptable. This suggests that the bi-polar measure can successfully identify conceptually distinct preferences, yet ones which are internally consistent with other preferences expressed in the overall preference instrument. Internal consistency, distinct psychological grouping and conceptual overlap with other measures are all positive signs of the value of this bi-polar measure.

Table 4f; Factor Matrix employing varimax rotation for the examination of scores obtained using the bi-polar preference measure.

	Loadings on Factor 1 ('Social excitement')	Loadings on Factor 2 ('Social acquiesence')	Loadings on Factor3 ('Independ-ence')
Dominant-submissive		.749	
Honest-subtle			
Independent-flexible		.374	-.548
Serious-happy-go-lucky	.763		
Humorous-serious	-.659		
Aggressive-timid		.809	
Conservative-radical			.785
Introvert-Extrovert	.644		
Thinking-emotion	.580		
Others-alone	-.505	-.378	

Notes
1). Only Eigen values exceeding unity are reported
2). Only loadings greater than or equal to 0.30 are reported.
3). The negative score indicates a high score on the left hand characteristic, a positive score a high score on the right hand characteristic.

Expectation 1: Data derived from section 3 of the questionnaire (using free-responses).

A final examination of the first expectation can be made by comparing the free-response preferences obtained in this study with those apparent in prior research. Unfortunately few other studies have been conducted which do not use a fixed-response methodology (see Powers, 1971), and therefore only the studies by Buss and Barnes (1986) and Smith and Monane (1953) are cited.

Method of scoring

Respondents were asked to write "a list of the main things you are looking for in a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship". Responses were simply frequency listed, and the most popular chosen as the 'most useful' for comparative purposes.

A comparison between the present study and other research in the area

In Table 4g, the most popular free-response replies are compared with the most desired characteristic listed by other researchers who used similar questions. Because of the very different nature of the studies compared, a statistical analysis is obviously inappropriate.

Table 4g: A comparison across studies between the top rated preferences for a partner where respondents free-list their own preferences

Preference ranking	Present study	Buss and Barnes (1986)	Smith and Monane (1953)
1	Friendship	**Companionship**	**Companionship**
2	Honesty	*Considerate*	Appearance
3	Affection and	**Honesty**	Social grace
4	Understanding	**Affection**	Intelligence
5	Companionship	Dependable	Good character
6	Fun	Intelligent	Humorous

Note
Bold type indicates a perceived overlap between present investigation and prior investigator
Italics indicates a possible but less obvious overlap

General comment on the findings with regard to the first expectation

In general, the preferences recorded by the respondents in this present study are similar to those of the most recent research in this field (namely the studies by Buss and Barnes, 1986) but prior investigators have asked so many different questions concerning mate-choice, and have collected data during such different historical periods, that it would be difficult to find a complete accord with all the past findings. I believe that the results obtained in the present study are similar enough to those of previous students of the field that it is possible to assume a broad validity for the measures employed.

Expectation 2: Preferences should be more 'person' oriented for women and 'object' oriented for men.

Expectation 2: Data from section 1 of the questionnaire (the ranking measure)

Method of scoring

For this data, analysis is provided by tests of a) the frequency with which the different sexes ranked each factor group of preferences as first, second etc. (figure 4.3 a-e: measured in percentage terms) and b) the mean ranking for each sex on each preference factor (i.e. the combined item scores for each factor analysed by sex: figure 4.4). It should be noted for figure 4.4. that the *higher* the mean ranking score on each factor the *less* that factor was preferred. This was simply because the 'mean ranking score' for each factor comprises the additive score for the rankings of all the four characteristics that comprise that factor. Each of these individual characteristic scores range between one and five with '1' indicating that the characteristic concerned is the most preferred of all the characteristics in a particular list.

Fig 4.3a Kind-Considerate factor

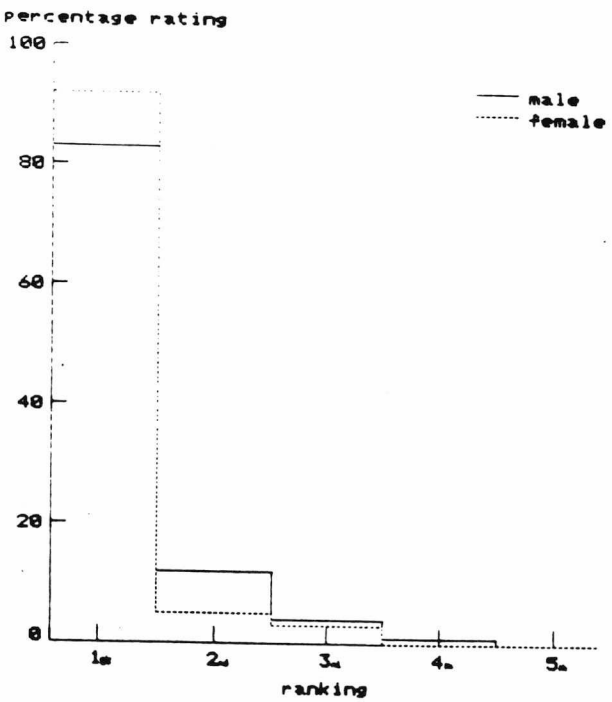


Figure 4.3b Socially-exciting factor

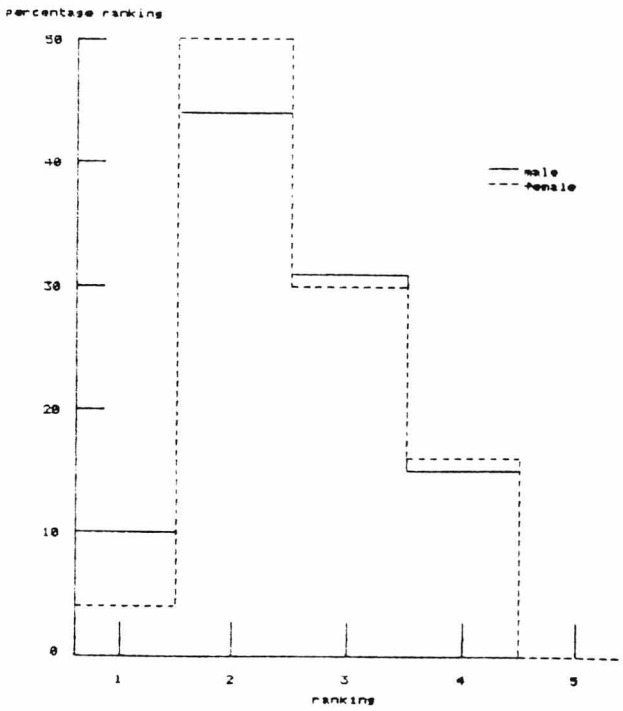


Figure 4.3c Artistic-Intelligent factor

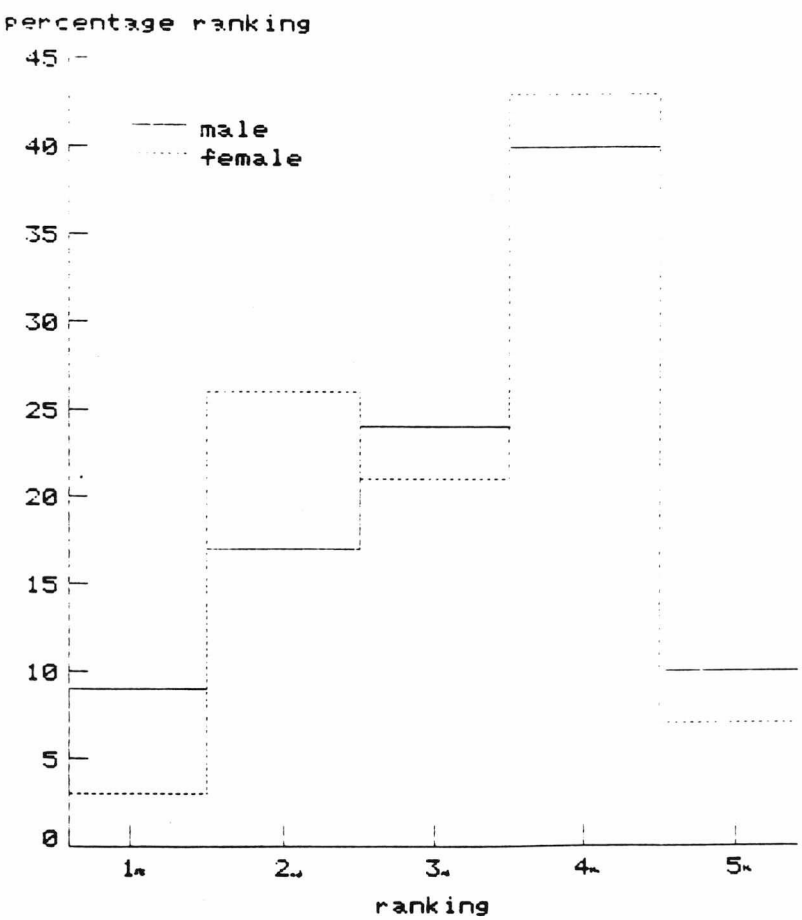


Figure 4.3d Easygoing-Adaptable factor

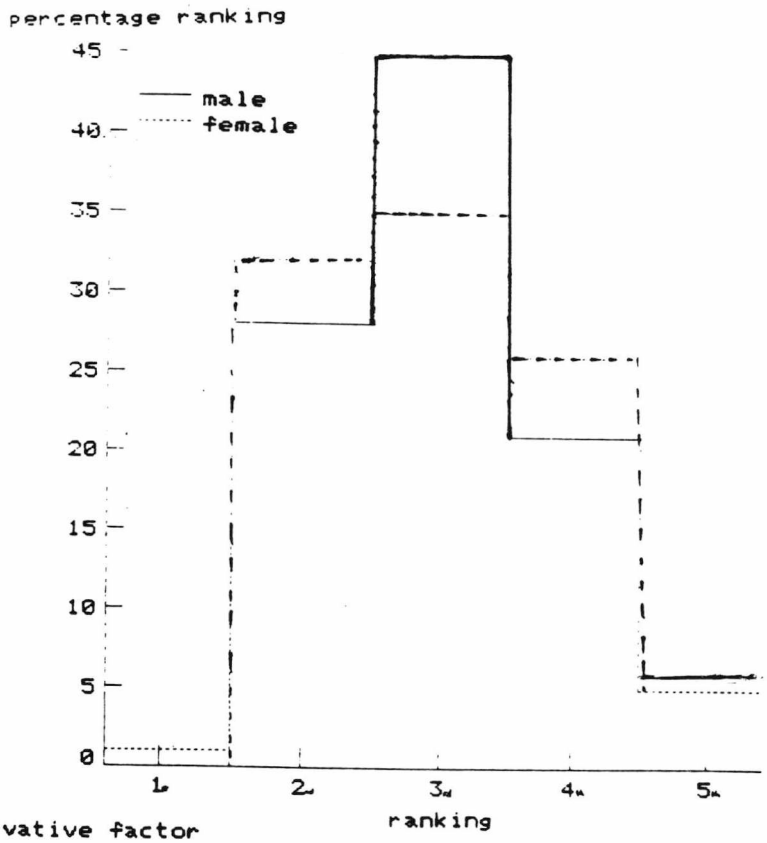


Fig 4.3e Political-conservative factor

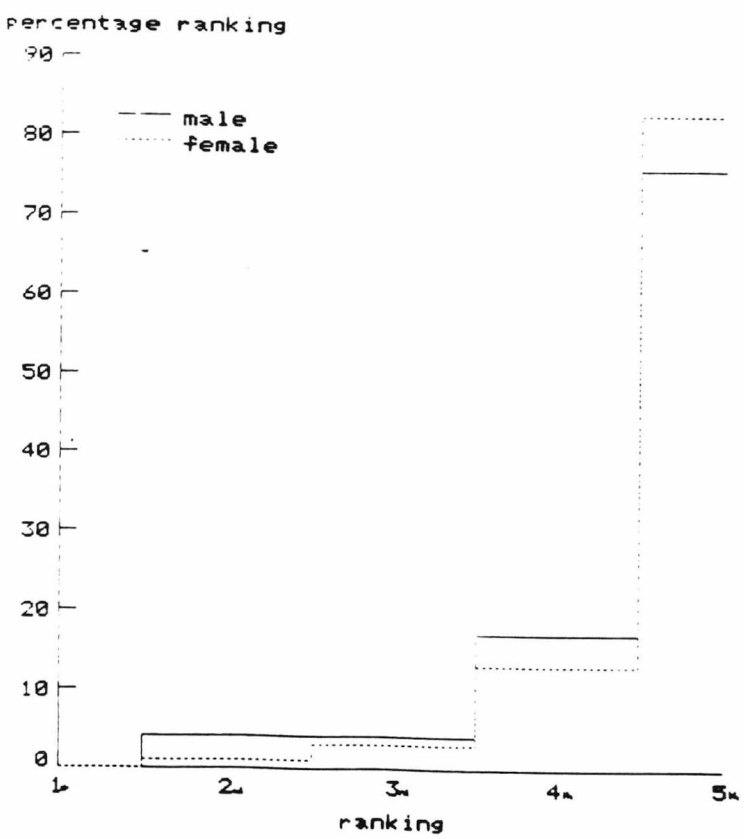
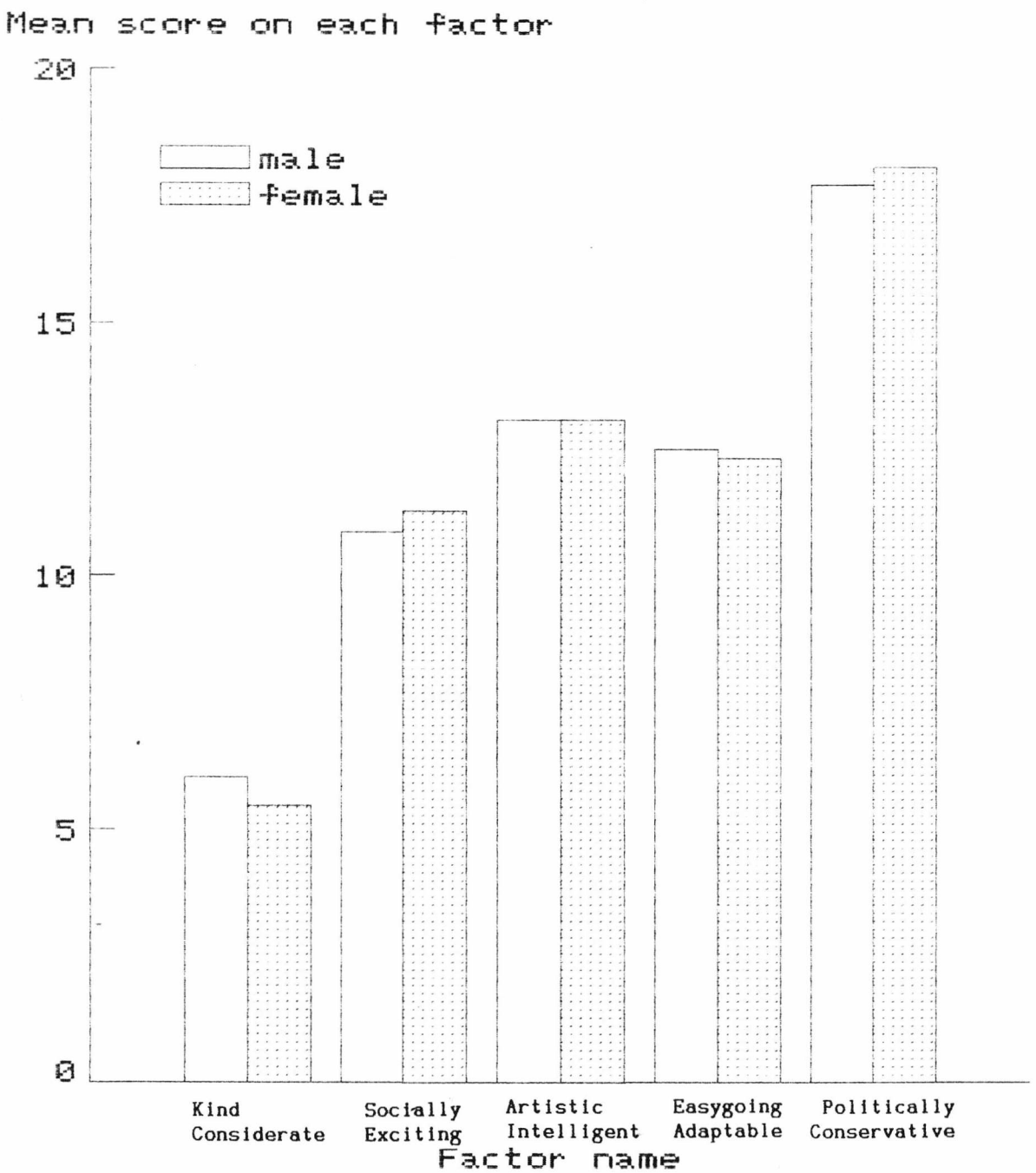


Fig 4.4 Mean ranking on each factor

By sex



Commentary on expectation 2 (section 1)

For each graph, differences between the sexes are nonsignificant.

Expectation 2: Data from section 2 of the questionnaire (the bi-polar measure)

Method of scoring

Series of t-tests were calculated to differentiate differences between the sexes. The data is represented graphically in figure 4.5, with construct numbers once again corresponding to the ten constructs listed in table 4b.

Commentary on expectation 2

Males prefer their female partner to be submissive (two-tail t-test $p < .01$), more introvert (two-tail t-test $p < .02$) and, possibly, more of a loner (two-tail t-test $p < .10$). In this sense they seem to reflect traditional sex-role values, and the findings of prior research (although the differences in actual means are not as large as might be expected). Otherwise differences between the sexes are nonsignificant.

Expectation 2: Data from section 3 of the questionnaire (the free-response measure).

The third section of the questionnaire asked participants to freely list their preferences for a future partner. The most popular free-responses for males and females are listed in table 4h.

Fig 4.5 Bi-polar scores for each item

by sex

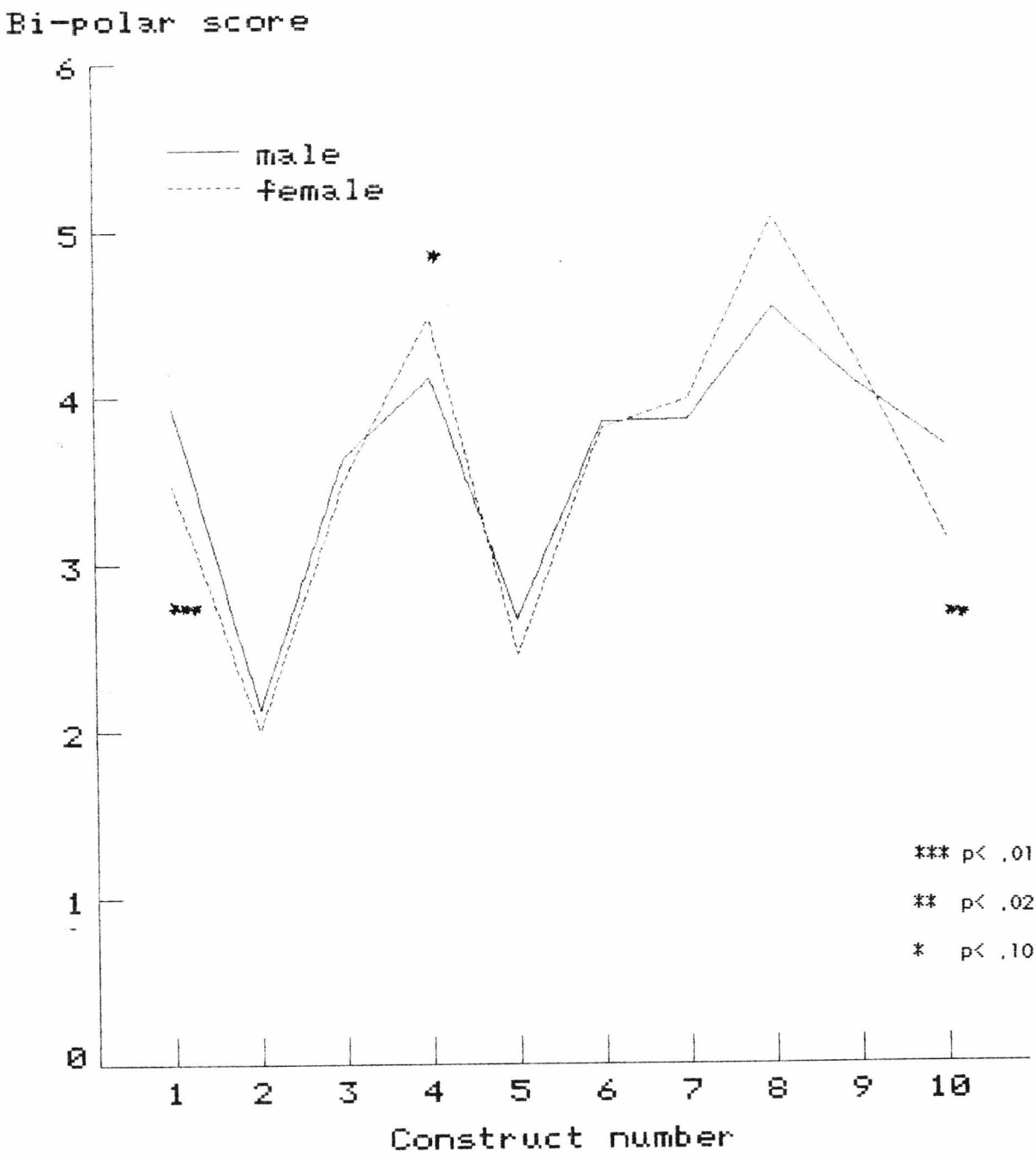


Table 4h. Free-response first choices: the percentage of each choice expressed by sex

Males	Females
1. Friendship (12%)	Friendship (13%)
2. Honesty (7%)	Honesty (11%)
3. Personality (5%)	Companionship (7%)
3. Physically Attractive (5%)	Love (7%)
3. 'Fun' (5%)	Personality (5%)
3. Understanding (5%)	
3. Kind (5%)	

Numbers in parantheses indicate the percentage of each group indicating this preference.

Commentary on expectation 2

Obviously the comparison of free responses does not allow for any direct statistical analysis. However, it is worth noting that there is again a remarkable overlap between the sexes, with 'friendship' highly rated by both sexes and honesty scoring a high second (especially amongst females). 'Personality', 'Kind(ness)' and 'Understanding' all rate highly amongst the male population, but may perhaps be incorporated within the female preference for 'Companionship'. More sex-typed behaviour is evident amongst the less prevalent preference patterns: 'physically attractive' is rated by 5% of male respondents but does not rate as a primary concern for more than 1.5% females. 'Love' (a typically 'female' pre-occupation- see Walster and Rapson, in press) is rated as first preference by 7% of the female population studied, but is only primary for 3% of the males. These, however, are

very small percentages for comparison, and do not justify support for the larger differences predicted.

General commentary on expectation 2

Expectation 2 seems to be disconfirmed, with the sex differences which do occur in partner preferences rarely reaching statistical significance. This finding, however, is not completely surprising: although Powers (1971) recognizes that sex differences do exist in the studies he reviews, he conceeds that it is the increasing degree of similarity between the sexes which is the most notable development in partner preferences over the years.

Expectation 3: older individuals will stress intelligence and attractiveness in a partner more than their younger colleagues.

Expectation 3: Data from section 1 of the questionnaire (the ranking measure)

Method of scoring

The analysis here is very similar to that undertaken for expectation 2 (above), accounting for a) the frequency with which the different age groups ranked each factor group of preferences as first, second etc. (figure 4.6 a-e: measured in percentage terms) and b) the mean ranking for each age grouping on each factor (i.e. the combined item scores for each factor analysed by age: figure 4.7).

Fig 4.6a: Kind-Considerate factor

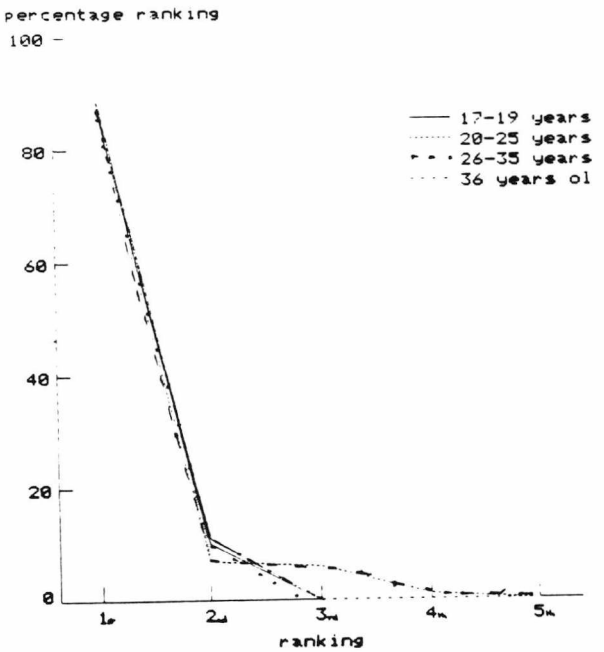


Fig 4.6b: Socially-exciting factor

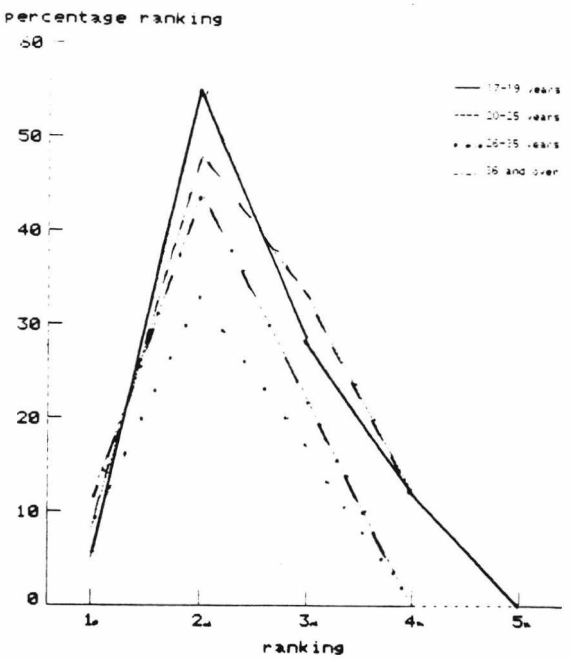


Fig 4.6c: Artistic-Intelligent factor

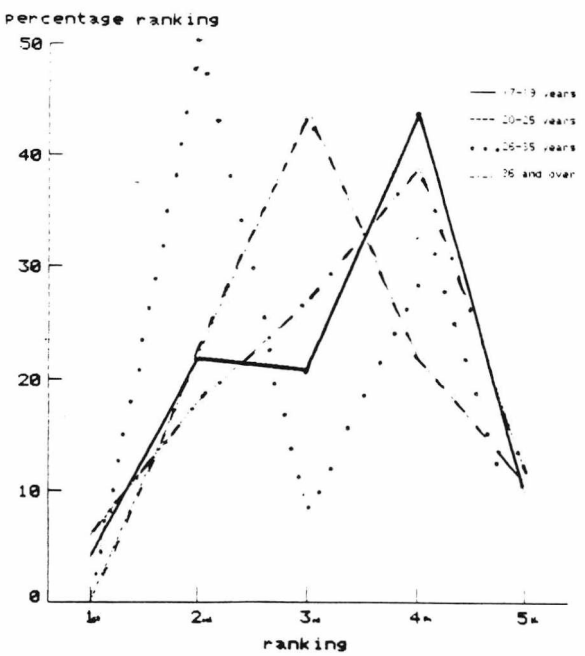


Fig 4.6d: Easygoing-Adaptable factor

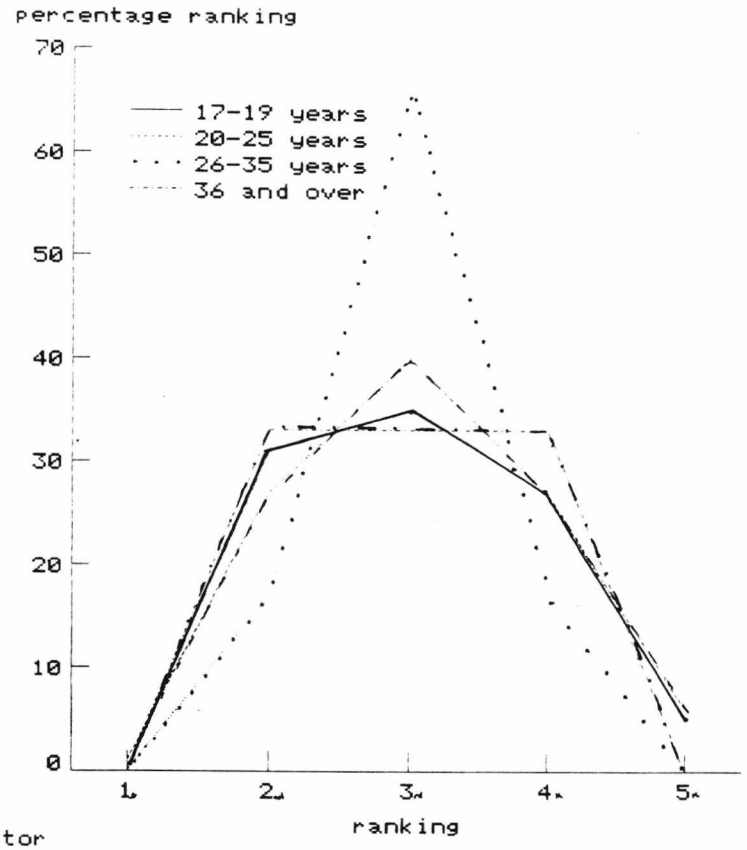


Fig 4.6e: Political factor

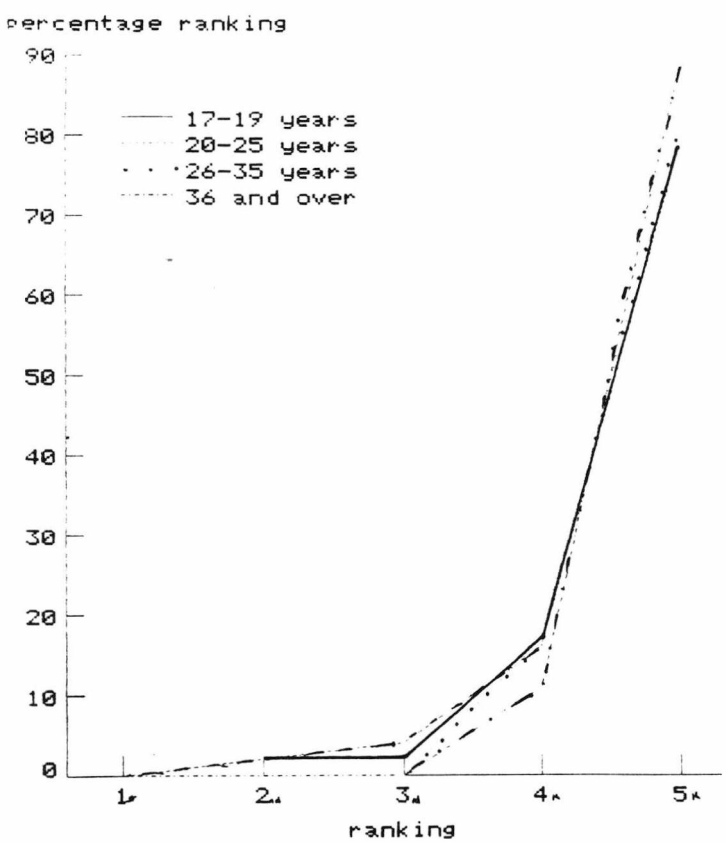
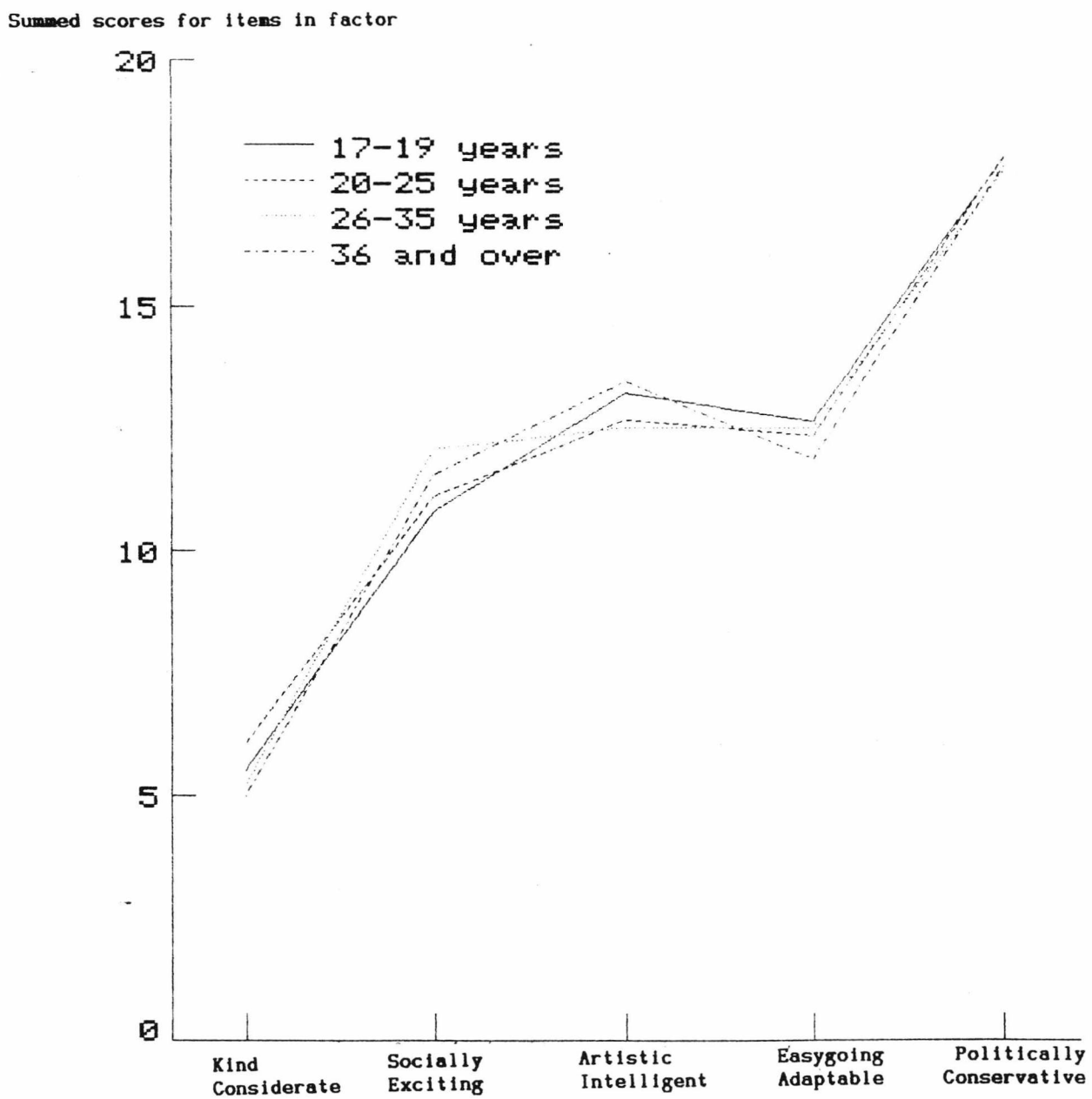


Fig 4.7: Mean ranking on each factor

by age group



Commentary on expectation 3 (section 1 of the questionnaire)

Both the frequency data and ranked data suggest that the differences between the age groups are generally minimal, and are statistically nonsignificant throughout.

Expectation 3: Data from section 2 of the questionnaire (the bi-polar measure)

Method of scoring

Method of analysis was almost identical to that undertaken in expectation 2 (above), with statistical comparison between the age groups now involving the use of an extended t-test (the one-way ANOVA).

Commentary on expectation 3 (section 2 of the questionnaire)

As can be seen from figure 4.8, differences between age groups were again minimal for the bi-polar data, and the construct by construct one-way ANOVAs conducted across age groups all proved statistically nonsignificant.

Expectation 3: Data from section 3 of the questionnaire (the free-response measure).

Method of scoring

The means of analysis again simply involved the inspection of the free-choice listings for a partner, with the comparison now conducted between age groups. These free-choice listings are listed by age in table 4i. Numbers of participants in each age group are also included in this table.

Fig 4.8: Mean bi-polar scores per item

by age group

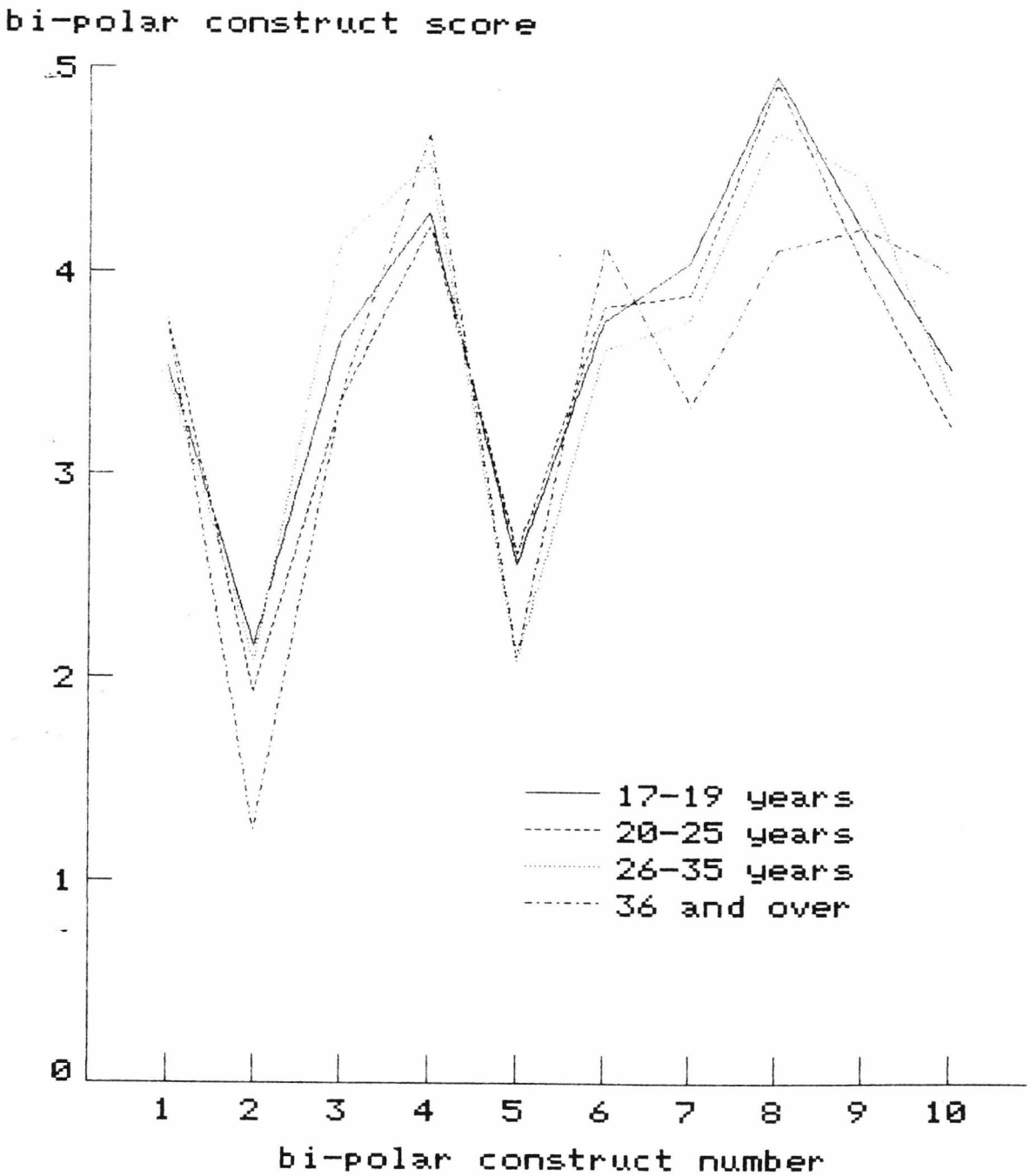


Table 4i. Free-response first choices: the percentage of each choice expressed by age group

17-19 (*N*=94)[1]	20-25 (*N*=86)	26-35 (*N*=12)	36+ (*N*=9)
1. Friendship (14%)	Friendship (13%)	Honesty (25%)	No clear preference
2. Companionship (9%)	Honesty (11%)	Love (17%)	
3. Honesty (7%)	Love (7%)		
4. Understanding (6%)	Personality (6%)		
4. Kind (6%)	Christian (4%) Fun (4%) Intelligence (4%)		

[1] There was incomplete data for 15 of the participants in this stage of the study. Numbers in parantheses indicate the percentage of each group indicating this preference.

Commentary on expectation 3

Because of the low number of participants in the older two age categories (aged 26-35: N=12: aged 36 and over: N=9) it is difficult to extract meaningful patterns across all the available age categories. Friendship scored highly amongst the younger students, and honesty seemed to obtain increasing importance across the first three age categories. 'Love' came into the reckoning with the older age groups, although, contrary to hypothesis, there was little evidence of a marked increase in concern with attractiveness (2% for both ages 17-19 and 20-25) or for intelligence. 'Christian' was in the top rankings amongst the 20-25 year old age group simply because 3 keen members of the Christian Union completed the questionnaire at the Freshers Bazaar, and all fell within this age category

General commentary on expectation 3

The third expectation, like the second expectation, again seemed to disconfirmed by the findings, although the small numbers involved with the older age categories meant that it was difficult to do full justice to the hypothesis. Taken alongside the findings for expectation 2, it is possible to point to the remarkable homogeneity in preferences amongst the members of the sample.

4.7.Discussion

4.7.1. Overall indications from the data

How does the data relate to the findings of previous researchers?

The type of preferences reported in this preliminary study have an ambiguous relationship with prior research, and even allowing for the unrepresentative nature of the sample, the results do question some previous findings.

Like the student participants who took part in the recent work of Buss and Barnes (1986), informants in the present study most clearly desired a partner who was kind and considerate, whilst expressing a secondary desire for a mate who could provide a sense of 'social excitement'. Reflecting these desires, respondents' bi-polar construct data indicated a requirement for a partner who was also honest, but at the same time of a 'happy-go-lucky' nature. This much, at least, is in accordance with the work of other observers in the field, who, like the present informants, also stress the importance of humour and companionship as relevant partner desiderata. However, there *are* differences between the present study and some of those conducted in

previous years. These can be listed as follows:

a. The preferences reported in this study challenge the primacy of the physical appearance and the materialistic interests in a relationship partner emphasised in a number of early (e.g. Waller, 1937) and more recent (e.g. Murstein, 1976c) studies.

b. Sex differences are far slighter than anticipated, and any distinction between the sexes seems to be swamped by the over-riding popularity of the kind-considerate partner for both sexes. Where differences are evident they appear in response to the bi-polar comparisons, with males preferring the more submissive and more introvert female partner (and thus reiterating existing sex roles: see Murstein, 1986).

c. Contrary to expectation, age effects are also minimal. The trend in the data which suggests that older individuals prefer the more conservative and introverted types may be merely an artifact of the small number of participants in the older cohort.

What other factors may contribute to a lack of sex and age effects?

1. *Sex effects*

The similarity between the sexes (in terms of the preferences they name) may be accounted for by at least two explanations. One explanation might be that the strong social desirability of the Kind-considerate factor skewed all participants uniformly in that direction, and therefore minimised sex differences (Powers, 1971). A second explanation rests upon the unrepresentative nature of the population studied. Whilst female volunteers for psychological research seem to be reasonably representative of women in general,

male volunteers are usually more liberal and 'open' about their relationships (Hill et al, 1979). Thus traditional sex-typed values which may have emphasised the importance of physical and material attributes may have been ironed out by a self-selectivity bias in those choosing to participate in the study.

2. Age effects

The discovery of an age effect for partner preference was at all times handicapped by the small numbers in the later age groups. One possible further factor that might explain the lack of differences between age groups is that such differentiation is lost within the participant's larger identity as a member of a 'common lot', the 'common lot' of a new University 'fresher'. Certainly the 'youthful' behaviour of a number of the more 'mature' students at Kent University (and especially those attending the Freshers Bazaar and/or living in college) would support such a proposition(!)

An alternative explanation, of course, is that there are indeed few age difference in partner preferences. Some evidence for this can be derived from Harrison and Saeed's (1977) study of 'lonely hearts' newspaper advertisements, which failed to find any significant age differences in the partners requested.

4.7.2. Where do these preferences originate?

Huston and Ashmore (1986) offer a variety of possible interpretations for the differing behaviour of men and women in close relationships. Below two of the more 'extreme' views are described. These

interpretations might be crudely categorised as resulting from an 'evolutionary perspective' and a 'sociocultural perspective'.

1. An evolutionary perspective

Buss (1984; 1987; 1988) has claimed that

> "Mate selection ... is a social and cultural process based partly on biological principles that have genetic consequences and sociocultural implications" (1984: 1144; see also Hinde, 1984, Vandenberg (1972) and Thiessen and Gregg (1980)).

Drawing on the insights of Charles Darwin (1859), Buss argued that common preferences for a partner are the result of evolutionary prioritization, with the criteria of species-adaptivity dictating partner selection. Therefore it is unsurprising to find that common preference values are held by a large proportion of the population, although because of social exchange processes it is not always the case that these individuals will 'get their (wo)man'. Sex differences, where they exist, are again linked to evolutionary priorities, although Buss does recognize that society has a certain role in defining the evolutionary values of a particular era.

Problems with the evolutionary approach

The main problem with this evolutionary approach is that it is *too* prescriptive - and therefore has difficulty in explaining such findings such as a proximity between the sexes (as found in this sample). Evolutionary claims also fall on the criteria of scientific testability (Popper, 1963) - it is often unclear *how* the evolutionary fit of any preference pattern can be defined other than by analysing

samples across a number of millenia. Unfortunately, such a temporal perspective is not as yet available.

2. A sociocultural explanation

A more 'social' explanation might attach a greater significance to the socialization processes through which the young preference-decider naturally passes. Evidence suggests that socialization occurs for both sexes (e.g. Bem and Bem, 1977) and from fairly a young age (Chodorow, 1974 cited in Huston and Ashmore, 1986), and that the majority of individuals learn sex-typed behaviours which then influence a whole host of later activities (Huston and Ashmore, 1986). According to this interpretation, an individual learns the 'right' characteristics to desire in a partner from his or her parents, peers and the media (Andreyeva and Gozman, 1981). Evidence for this contention may be drawn from the increasing proximity in values between the opposite sexes over the years (Howard et al, 1987): this may reflect on an increasingly androgynous population (Hatfield and Rapson, in press), a population which often spurns previous sex-typed preferences.

Problems with the sociocultural approach

In many ways the problems with a sociocultural explanation are similar to those confronting the evolutionary perspective: the explanations offered are again too prescriptive. It might be speculated that the processes influencing partner preferences operate at subtly shifting levels: differences between research findings over time may be less to do with relatively stable gender role patterns and more do to with small historical trends which have hitherto been only poorly

recognized within PR research. An example might be found during the time of the second world war, where the conditions may have encouraged the more 'fun-seeking' relationship amongst temporarily resident G.I.s in certain parts of the world.... Such temporal considerations (which are hinted at but never fully explored in theories of relationship alternatives) require further attention.

4.7.3. How useful is the overall preference instrument for the task of relationship prediction?

This chapter has provided an account of the construction of a new preference-measuring instrument, constructed for the examination of the potential relationship partner. This instrument comprises 3 measures, and despite overlap between the three designs the variety of inquiries seemed to complement each other, each providing additional insights into the nature of relationship desiderata. Comparisons with past research revealed a congruity between the present results and previous work, and this seems to indicate the validity of the measures chosen. Where differences in results have been obtained, these differences occur mainly within subsets in the data, and may be explained by a number of factors (see above). Where relevance measures were used (bi - polar constructs) the results were encouraging: only an average of 1 in 7 respondents rated any particular construct as 'irrelevant' or 'totally irrelevant' (14%).

The next task is to use these measures and the data resulting individual-by-individual to provide prospective predictions on the likely choice of relationship partner. This is the task of chapter 5.

Chapter 5

Predicting Relationship Formation I: the student/shoppers sample

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"People are happy when they get what they want, and they never want what they can't get" (Huxley, A. 'Brave New World', 1963: 173).

5.1: Introduction and general hypothesis

In Chapter 4, three measures for exploring preferences for a partner were outlined, and a procedure for collecting data on preferences described. These preference estimators were derived from a mixture of past measures and newly obtained indicators constructed from the results of pilot studies. In presenting evidence for the validity of these preference indicators a brief historical account was provided of the types of preferences found to be prevalent in past research: the new measures used in this thesis were seen to produce preference patterns similar to these, although the expected sex and age differences between sub-samples of the data were less marked than in previous work. This chapter goes one step further in using the preference data generated to attempt to predict relationship formation.

Predicting the nature of a specific relationship from an individual's prior-to-relationship characteristics is a task which has been attempted by few researchers in the past. Two factors have probably contributed to this lack of prior research. First of all, when trying to study the psychological attributes desirable in a partner, it is often difficult to ask questions in a hypothetical yet still meaningful manner (i.e. it is difficult to ask: "will your partner be ..."): this problem is particularly pertinent when the hypothetical questions that need to be asked involve the complex personality features or subconscious needs of a future mate. Secondly, recent

authors have argued that initial attraction forces and processes may have little to do with the later relationship developed (e.g. Levinger and Snoek, 1972). However, whilst other factors (e.g. marriage roles - see Chapters 2 and 3) are undoubtedly important in the longer relationship, many investigators have gone too far, ignoring important dynamics of initial attraction (Berg and McQuinn, 1986). This chapter concentrates on initial attraction processes by attempting to predict relationship formation from an individual's prior-to-relationship specifications.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis to be examined here is drawn from the recent research of Buss and Barnes (1986) and Howard et al (1987).

Hypothesis: Insofar as unattached individuals identify clear preferences for a romantic partner these individuals should obtain partners who demonstrate the desired trait.

This hypothesis will be tested using the three different measures of preferences whose derivation was outlined in Chapter 4. To facilitate testing, this hypothesis can be subdivided into three major parts (a-c) which correspond to these three measures.

Hypothesis part a

Those partner preferences which were ranked highly by an individual on the rank-order measure (prior to relationship formation) should be influential in motivating this individual to find a partner with a personality which reflects the attributes thus indicated.

Hypothesis part b

Those characteristics most sought by an individual on the bi-polar test (prior to relationship formation) should be influential in motivating this individual to find a partner with a personality which reflects the attributes thus desired.

Hypothesis part c

The top 'free-listed' preferences an individual has for a partner prior to relationship formation should be influential in motivating this individual to find a partner with a personality which reflects the attributes thus sought.

5.2: Measuring the relationship between desired and obtained partners.

Historically there have been two approaches to the correlational analysis of established partners, and both of these approaches are adopted here in the testing of the present hypothesis.

The first of these approaches has been to measure one individual and to compare him/her to his/her obtained partner, testing the latter on personality scales (Buss and Barnes, 1986; Udry, 1963), attractiveness ratings (Walster et al, 1966) etc. This is the approach taken in part 1 of this chapter which correlates an individual's pre-relationship preferences for a partner with the personality characteristics of the obtained partner. In this chapter the "personality characteristics" of the obtained partner are examined with the aid of a number of measures used by Buss and Barnes (1986).

A second, *intrapersonal* approach has been to concentrate instead on the desired and perceived characteristics of a relationship partner...

with both the desire and the perception being measured with respect to the same individual. This method has been adopted as a result of the frequent finding in the relationship literature that an individual's perceptions of another are often better indicators of his/her likely relationship with that person than indices of what this other is 'actually' (objectively?) like (e.g. Wetzel et al, 1979). This intrapsychic perspective is the approach taken in the second part of this chapter, which seeks to correlate an individual's preferences for a partner prior to a relationship with that *same* individuals perception of his/her obtained mate once the relationship has been formed. Diagrammatically, the two parts of this chapter can be best represented as follows (table 5.1).

Table 5a: A diagramatic representation of the studies in this chapter indicating the nature of the participants and the measures taken

Section of this chapter	Participants	Measures
1	20 student University couples	Compares an individual's preferences at time 1 (prior to relationship) with the personality of his/her obtained partner.
2	29 University student and supermarket couples	Compares an individual's preferences at time 1 with that *same* individuals perceptions of his/her obtained partner (at time 2: 4 months later).

5.3: The first part of the study: an interpersonal analysis of partner choice

5.3.1. Specific Hypothesis

For this part of the analysis, the means of measurement of the hypothesis stated above (section 5.1) call for a more precise restatement of this hypothesis. To distinguish this restatement of the hypothesis from a further restatement later in this chapter the present reinterpretation is termed the the 'personality hypothesis'.

Hypothesis - *personality hypothesis*. An individual's preferences for a partner will be similar to the personality of his/her obtained partner when using the personality measures employed by Buss and Barnes (1986) as indicators of the obtained partner's characteristics.

Testing the personality hypothesis using the ranked measure

In Table 5b (below) a series of specific expectations (or sub-hypotheses) are used to test this personality hypothesis. On the left-hand side of the table are a list of an individual's first or second ranked preferences for a partner prior to relationship formation, and on the right-hand side of the table are the hypothesised personality traits of his/her partner. For example, if an individual scored his/her first questionnaire in such a way as to indicate that he/she primarily sought someone with a 'kind-considerate' personality, then this individual would be expected to find a partner high in tolerance and warmth (sub hypotheses 1 and 2). Someone who scored their first questionnaire so as to indicate a high preference for the 'socially-exciting' partner might be expected to find a partner high on

extraversion (sub hypothesis 6) etc. In order to be deemed to be preferring any specific factor category of preferences ('kind-considerate','socially-exciting' etc) an informant at time1 (i.e. pre-relationship) had to rank the items in this factor category as first or second overall.

Linking an individual's preferences for a partner with the personality of the partner he/she obtains is an essentially subjective affair, particularly as this type of study has not been carried out before. In an attempt to achieve at least a minimal amount of validity in this task, a number of colleagues were shown a wide range of possible "expectations" and those selected and listed below reflect a consensus in their opinions.

Table 5b: Testing the personality hypothesis: 14 specific sub hypotheses concerning the association between an individual's ranked preferences and the personality scores of his/her partner.

SubHo. No.	Individual's 1st/2nd Preference is for a partner who is...	Expected personality of partner	
1	Kind-	High on CPI	Tolerant
2	Considerate	IAS	Warm
3		IAS	Agreeable
4		IAS	Unassuming
5		Low on EASI	Anger
6	Socially-	High on EPQ	Extravert
7	Exciting	IAS	Gregarious
8		IDS	Emotionally Reliant
9		Low on IAS	Aloof
10	Artistic- Intelligent	High on CPI	Intellectual Efficiency
	Politically- conservative	No obvious hypothesis	
11	Easygoing-	High on EPQ	Extravert
12	Adaptable	IAS	Gregarious
13		Low on EASI	Anger
14		IAS	Aloof

Notes

(1) 'High' indicates a score greater than the median score for all the participants in the study: 'Low' indicates a lower than median score.

(2) Abbreviations: CPI (California Personality Inventory; Gough 1964): IAS (Intepersonal Adjective Scale; Wiggins, 1979): EASI (Temperament scale: Buss and Plomin, 1975): EPQ (Eysenck Personality Questionnaire; Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975): IDS (Interpersonal Dependency Scale; Hirschfield, 1973): PAQ (Personal Attributes Questionnaire: Spence and Helmreich, 1978).

Testing the personality hypothesis using the personal construct measure

In Table 5c, another set of associations are hypothesised between the preferred and obtained partner, this time making use of the personal construct preference items. On the left-hand side of the table are the personal construct items (see Chapter 4 for their derivation) and on the right-hand are those personality scores with which they are associated (again, a subjective association informed by some helpful colleagues). As these are bipolar personal constructs the expectations concerning the partner's personality are related to one pole of the construct, and for consistency they are hypothesised to be related to the second pole mentioned in each case. Thus those scoring high on the dominance-submissiveness continuum (i.e. those with a score indicating a preference for the submissive partner) are expected to find partners whose score on personality scales indicates low masculinity and high submissiveness (sub hypotheses 15 and 16). In the case of four of the personal constructs (the 2nd, 4th, 5th and 7th) there were no obvious hypotheses for the links between the preferred and obtained partners.

No specific hypotheses were generated for the third set of preference measures as free-choice preferences varied so greatly in terminology. However, for heuristic purposes the most frequently mentioned partner desiderata were compared to the obtained partner's personality scores and any consistency in patterning tabulated.

Table 5c: Testing the personality hypothesis: 14 further sub hypotheses concerning the association between an individual's personal construct preferences and the personality scores of his/her partner.

SubHo.	Preference	Expected personality of partner
15	Domineering-	Low on PAQ Masculinity
16	submissive	High on IAS Submissive
17		High on IDS Emotional Reliance
	Honest- subtle	No obvious hypothesis
18	Independent Minded-	Low on CPI achievement
19	Flexible	Low on IDS autonomy
	Serious- happy-go-lucky	No obvious hypothesis
	Humorous- serious	No obvious hypothesis
20	Aggressive-	High on IAS Submissive
21	timid	Low on EASI Anger
	Conservative- radical	No obvious hypothesis
22	Introvert-	High on EPQ Extraversion
23	Extrovert	High on IAS Gregarious
24	Motivated by thinking-	Low on CPI Intellectual Eff.
25	Motivated by emotion	Low on EASI Decision Time
26	Likes to affiliate-	Low on EPQ Extraversion
27	Likes to be alone	Low on IAS Gregarious
28		High on IDS Autonomy

Notes

(1) 'High' indicates a score greater than the median score for all the participants in the study: 'Low' indicates a lower than median score.

(2) Abbreviations: CPI (California Personality Inventory; Gough 1964): IAS (Intepersonal Adjective Scale; Wiggins, 1979): EASI (Temperament scale: Buss and Plomin, 1975): EPQ (Eysenck Personality Questionnaire; Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975): IDS (Interpersonal Dependency Scale; Hirschfield, 1973): PAQ (Personal Attributes Questionnaire: Spence and Helmreich, 1978). Eff: Efficiency

Comparing the work of Buss and Barnes (1986) with the findings of the present study

Also of interest was the extent to which the individual's desiderata for a partner matched the obtained partner's personality in the manner described by Buss and Barnes (1986). However, Buss and Barnes were analysing already-formed couples and therefore their study is not directly comparable with the present investigation. Thus no direct hypotheses were formulated concerning the relationship between the two sets of investigations.

5.3.2. Method for part 1 of the study

Participants: Participants in this study were (a) students seeking a relationship (measured whilst they were still single), and (b) the partners these students had obtained four months later. This time period of four months is a similar time period to that used by Berg and McQuinn in their longitudinal investigations (1986), and had the advantage of allowing for the 'natural break' of Christmas to act as a test of the stability of the newly formed relationship (Hill et al, 1976, found that this type of break provided a good test of relationship strength for college relationships).

150 out of the 161 single students questioned in the first phase of the studies (chapter 4) were contacted once again and asked whether or not they had obtained a partner in the preceding four months (eleven of the students proved impossible to recontact). These students were also asked about the nature of their relationship: in order to be classified as worthy of follow-up, students had to have obtained partners who were (a) unknown to the student at the time that this

student completed his/her first questionnaire (described in chapter 4) (b) of the opinion that he/she was involved in a 'boyfriend-girlfriend' relationship with the other, or had been involved in such a relationship for a period of at least one month in the previous four with four or more meetings per week where they had been 'alone together'' (c) prepared to be questioned in some depth about the relationship. A total of 20 participants fulfilled these three conditions (11 males, 9 females: median age in the age category 20-25): this was out of a total of 26 participants who stated that they had found new partners over the 4 month period. Whilst this figure was lower than hoped it may reflect on the unwillingness of new 1st year students to commit themselves to a stable relationship in their first term of University.

Measures. The personality tests used to examine the obtained partner's personality are listed below in table 5d.

Table 5d: Personality measures used for analysing the personality of the obtained partner

Test	Author
EPQ	Eysenck and Eysenck (1975)
CPI	Gough (1964)
IAS	Wiggins (1979)
PAQ	Spence and Helmreich (1978)
IDS	Hirschfield et al (1977)
EASI	Buss and Plomin (1975)

Note
Abbrevations: EPQ- Eysenck Personality Questionnaire: CPI- California Personality Inventory: IAS- Interpersonal Adjective Scale: PAQ- Personal Attributes Questionnaire: EASI- Temperament scale IDS- Interpersonal Dependency Scale

These tests were the most readily-applied pencil and paper tests used by Buss and Barnes (1986). The EPQ is one of the most widely used of all personality measures and it has been utilized by Eysenck to examine married couples on personality tests (Eysenck and Wakefield, 1981). Using just the Extraversion and Neuroticism scales (and ignoring the newer Lie and Psychoticism items) reliability seems generally reasonable (Eighth Mental Measurements Yearbook, 1978). The CPI is also widely used and has been applied by Duck (1973) in his work on PR (in this case friendship development).

Various circumplex models of interpersonal domains have been developed in recent years (c.f. Kiesler, 1983; Wiggins, 1979; Wright and Contrada, 1986). Wiggins' IAS (1979) derives from his circumplex model of the interpersonal domain of personality, and is inspired by the widely recognised interpersonal relationship variables listed by Foa and Foa (1974). The IAS items chosen for analysis in this study are those that are most highly correlated with the preference patterns obtained by Buss and Barnes (1986).

The PAQ offers a sex-role analysis which has been applied to a wide range of psychological phenomenon. McAdams (1988) claims that measures of masculinity may tap into general motivational tendencies (needs, desires, wants) as well as being related to various agentic capacities (skills, competencies, abilities). Femininity is also claimed to be a separate set of capacities (termed 'communion' capacities) which may also relate to specific motivational tendencies (ibid). Thus the PAQ dimensions of femininity, masculinity and androgeny may relate to other psychological determinants of relationships.

The IDS has three subscales and the two used in this study (emotional

reliance and autonomy) represent a reliance / dependency versus autonomy dichotomy similar to Gray's 'likes to be with others - likes to be alone' dimensions (Gray, 1949). A final scale, the EASI (A.H. Buss and Plomin, 1975) was included in Buss and Barnes' (1986) study "in order to obtain a broad gauge evaluation of the psychological temperaments of activity level, emotionality, sociability and impulsivity" (561). Here the items chosen are used to reflect emotion (anger, vigour and fearfulness) and impulsivity (tempo and decision time) and are those most highly correlated with partner preferences in Buss and Barnes' (1986) study.

Summary of Procedure. 150 out of the 161 students who had filled in the first questionnaire (chapter 4) were contacted four months after filling in the initial questionnaire and asked whether or not they had formed a suitable relationship with a member of the opposite sex in the previous four months (see above for the criteria of suitability), and whether their new partner would be willing to be interviewed. 26 potential 'partners' were identified, of whom 20 agreed to complete the questionnaire. These 20 individuals were contacted via their boyfriend/girlfriend and paid £2 for completing the inventories. It is these responses (all of which were returned completed) that form the data for the analysis of the hypothesis and subhypotheses.

5.3.3: Results of the first part of the study

Specific Hypotheses. In section 5.3.1 a number of sub-hypotheses concerning the link between the preferred and obtained partner were suggested. The following section reports this association between the preferred and the obtained measure by measure.

Results using the ranked preference measure

The results for the fixed ranks measure are listed below in Table 5e (this table reports results for sub hypotheses 1-14). In the left-hand column of this table the overriding preference concerns of any one particular participant are indicated. Thus one participant may express (through his/her rankings of the various characteristics) a desire for a 'kind-considerate' partner, another may choose a 'socially exciting' mate and so on. The central column deals with the particular subhypotheses associated with these preferences: thus those who expressed a desire for the kind-considerate type of partner would be expected to find a partner who scored highly on the CPI tolerance measure, as well as high on IAS Warmth etc. The individual who expressed a primary desire for a socially-exciting mate, on the other hand, would be expected to find a partner high on EPQ extraversion, high on IAS gregariousness and so on. The median split for all of the respondents was used to determine categorization of 'high' or 'low' personality scale scores, and, because of the small size of the samples, the non-parametric chi-squared measure with Yates correction was used for hypothesis testing.

Table 5e: Pre-relationship preference rankings as predictors of the personality of the relationship partner (N=20)

Overall Preference	Hypothesised personality of obtained partner	Results (χ^2)
K-C	Partner would score high on CPI Tolerant	χ^2 0.30 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IAS Warm	χ^2 1.82 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IAS Agreeable	χ^2 0.89 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IAS Unassuming	χ^2 2.89 (1df) p<.05
	Partner would score low on EASI Anger	χ^2 0.20 (1df) nons.
S-E.	Partner would score high on EPQ Extravert	χ^2 1.48 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IAS Gregarious	χ^2 0.16 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IDS Emot. Rel	χ^2 1.65 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score low on IAS Aloof	χ^2 2.55 (1df) nons.
A-I	Partner would score high on CPI Int Eff.	χ^2 0.22 (1df) nons.
E-A	Partner would score high on EPQ Extravert	χ^2 0.25 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IAS Gregarious	χ^2 0.32 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score low on EASI Anger	χ^2 0.07 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score low on IAS Aloof	χ^2 0.00 (1df) nons.

Abbreviations
K-C: Kind-Considerate: S-E Socially Exciting: A-I Artistic Intelligent: E-A Easygoing Adaptable.
d.f.: degrees of freedom. nons(ignificant) at p<.05. Emot(ional) Rel(iance). Int(ellectual) Eff(iciency).

Results of the analysis

Only one of the expected patterns materialised at the standard 5% significance level: those seeking a 'kind and considerate' partner obtained one who was 'unassuming'. Even the most 'obvious' proposals (e.g. the suggestion that those seeking the 'exciting' will obtain 'extraverted' partners) failed to materialise.

Results using the personal construct preference measure

Table 5f adopts the same format as table 5e in order to analyse the sub hypotheses generated from the personal construct preference items. In the left-hand column there are now the six construct measures from which predictions were generated. The hypotheses take the form that

those who score 'highly' on a construct favoured the latter of the two constructs, those who scored 'lowly' favoured the former of the constructs. Thus a respondent who indicated a preference for a partner on the submissive pole of the submissive-domineering dimension would be expected to obtain a partner low on masculinity, high on submissiveness etc. If this same participant also expressed a desire for a 'thinking' partner he/she was predicted to obtain a partner who was high on intellectual efficiency, and so on. Again, the corrected chi-squared statistic was used for analysis, with median splits determining high and low personality scale scores.

Results of the analysis

Results for those subhypotheses relevant to the personal construct measures were again disappointing. Once more only one hypothesis was confirmed at the 5% level: single students desiring a highly submissive partner obtained a partner who was emotionally reliant on others.

Table 5f: Pre-relationship personal construct preferences as predictors of the personality of the obtained relationship partner (*N*=20)

Overall Preference	Hypothesised personality of obtained partner	Results (χ^2)
D-S	Partner would score low on PAQ Masculinity	χ^2 1.27(1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IAS Submissive	χ^2 2.80 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IDS Emot. Rel.	χ^2 6.34 (1df) p<.05
I-F	Partner would score low on CPI Achievement	χ^2 0.02 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score low on IDS Autonomy	χ^2 1.65 (1df) nons.
A-T	Partner would score high on IAS Submissive	χ^2 0.32 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score low on EASI Anger	χ^2 1.63 (1df) nons.
I-E	Partner would score high on EPQ Extravers.	χ^2 0.00 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IAS Gregarious	χ^2 0.76 (1df) nons.
T-E	Partner would score low on CPI Intell. Eff	χ^2 0.83 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score low on EASI Decision T	χ^2 0.15 (1df) nons.
A-L	Partner would score low on EPQ Extravers.	χ^2 0.04 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score low on IAS Gregarious	χ^2 1.27 (1df) nons.
	Partner would score high on IDS Autonomy	χ^2 1.94 (1df) nons.

Abbreviations

Constructs: D-S, Domineering-submissive: I-F, Independent Flexible: A-T, Aggressive-Timid: I-E, Intravert-Extravert: T-E, Thinking-Emotive: A-L, Affiliative-Loner.

Personality measures: Extravers(ion): Emot(ional) Rel(iance): Intell(ectual) Eff(iciency): T(ime).

Results: 1df: 1 degree of freedom
n.s: Nonsignificant at p< .05

Combining the results for the fixed preference indicators

Taking both preference indicators and all 28 hypotheses together only two confirmations significant at the convential 95% confidence level (out of a possible of 28) suggests that the occurrence of these "significant" results is best attributed to chance.

Results using the free response measure

As stated above (section 5.3.1), an exact (statistical) examination of the correlation between the free-response partner preferences of a single individual and the personality of the partner he/she obtains is difficult to conduct. However, those cases where the results indicated a consistent link between the desired and obtained mate are recorded in table 5g. In the left hand column of this table relatively consistent patterns in the data are noted. In the right hand ('comments') column the personality scores of the obtained partners are indicated in more detail (where a partner scored 'greater than the median' this indicates that the individual concerned scored higher on this trait than the average participant in this study. Scores 'lower than the median' indicate the opposite performance of the partner concerned).

Results of the analysis

These results seem to be a very mixed bag, with some of the links making a certain intuitive sense (e.g. those looking for companionship finding the non-neurotic), some being difficult to interpret (e.g. those looking for sex finding the aloof) and others being rather

counter-intuitive (e.g. those seeking fun finding the rather shy introvert).

Table 5g: Links found between desired and obtained partner using the free-response preference indicators

Pattern obtained	Comments
Those mentioning Sex amongst their top-three free choices obtained partners scoring high on IAS Aloof	all 5 partners > median on IAS Aloof
Those mentioning Companionship amongst their top-three free choices obtained partners scoring low on EPQ Neuroticism	all 3 partners < median on EPQ Neuroticism
Those mentioning Companionship amongst their top-three free choices obtained partners scoring high on EASI Decision Time	all 3 partners > median on EASI Decision Time
Those mentioning Understanding amongst their top-three free choices obtained partners scoring high on CPI Responsibility	all 3 partners > median on CPI Responsibility
Those mentioning Fun amongst their top-three free choices obtained partners scoring low on EPQ Extraversion	4/5 partners < median one equal to median on Extraversion
Those mentioning Friendship amongst their top-three free choices obtained partners scoring high on EPQ Neuroticism	4/5 partners > median one equal to median on EPQ Neuroticism
Those mentioning Friendship amongst their top-three free choices obtained partners scoring low on IAS Submissiveness.	4/5 partners < median on IAS Submissiveness.

A comparison with the Barnes and Buss study.

Because the studies conducted by Buss and Barnes (1986) and those in the present investigations were so different no direct hypotheses were derived from Buss and Barnes' work for examination in the present study. Overall a number of significant relationships between the desires of one partner and the qualities of the other were reported in Buss and Barnes' (1986) study of married couples, and 19 of these interrelationships could also be measured using the present methodology. These 19 correlations are listed in Table 5h below, alongside indicators of the magnitude of this association in both a) Buss and Barnes' study and b) the present research. Here the present hypotheses were more conducive to analysis using Yates' adjusted Chi-squared statistic (although it is notable that similar results were also obtained using the parametric 't' statistic)

Table 5h: A comparison of the partner desired-partner obtained correlation found by Buss and Barnes (1986) and in the present study.

Sex of the original respondent	Relationship between what the original respondent desired and his/her obtained partner's personality	Correlation and statistical sig of association in Buss/Barnes (1986) study	Sig in this study. (N=20) (χ^2)
Those who prefer the Kind-Considerate have partners who are...			
Female	High on CPI Psychological Minded	.24*	p<.05
Female	High on IAS Aloof	.31**	nonsig
Female	High on IAS Submissiveness	.31**	nonsig
Female	Low on PAQ masculinity-femininity	-.26*	nonsig
Male	Low on CPI Responsibility	-.22**	nonsig
Male	Low on EASI Tempo	-.28**	nonsig
Those who prefer the Socially-exciting have partners who are...			
Female	Low on CPI Responsibility	-.32**	nonsig
Female	Low on CPI Tolerance	-.35***	nonsig
Female	Low on CPI Intellectual Efficiency	-.28**	nonsig
Female	Low on CPI Psychological Mindedness	-.34***	nonsig
Female	High on PAQ Femininity	.27*	nonsig
Male	High on EPQ Extraversion	.23*	nonsig

Sex of the original respondent	Relationship between what the original respondent desired and his/her obtained partner's personality	Correlation and statistical sig of association in Buss/Barnes (1986) study	Sig in this study. (N=20) (χ^2)
Those who prefer the Artistic-Intelligent have partners who are...			
Female	High on EPQ Neuroticism	.23*	nonsig
Male	Low on EPQ Neuroticism	-.25*	nonsig
Male	High on IDS Autonomy	.26*	nonsig
Male	Low on IDS Emotional reliance	-.22*	nonsig
Male	High on PAQ Masculinity-Femininity	.25*	nonsig
Those who prefer the Easygoing-Adaptable have partners who are...			
Male	High on IAS Gregarious	.23*	nonsig
Male	High on PAQ Masculinity-Femininity	.26*	nonsig

Notes

(1) The negative correlations reported by Buss and Barnes indicated that a partner scored lowly on a particular trait (e.g. on CPI responsibility).

(2) sig.= significant at p< .05 (2-tail test) nonsig = nonsignificant at p< .05 (2-tail test)

(3) * p< .05
** p< .01
*** p< .001 (all two-tail test statistics).

Despite the relative strength of the correlations reported by Buss and Barnes (1986) only one measure, associating the rather peculiar CPI 'psychological mindedness' score of the female partner with the 'Kind-considerate' preference of the single male seeker, materialised at the standard 5% level of significance in the present study. Again, it seems more reasonable to attribute this one finding to chance factors rather than to impute it with any great meaning (c.f. Rosenthal and Rubin, 1983).

5.3.4. Discussion of the first part of the study

From the results presented above it appears that using a single student's preferences for a partner - in whatever form these preferences may be - is only a poor indicator of the type of partner he/she will actually obtain. This, at any rate, is the case when the measurement of the obtained partner involves personality scores. Such personality scores, however, may be misleading and it is pertinent here to reflect on some other possible reasons for the present results. One influential argument is that supposedly 'stable' personality measures are in themselves unreliable, and that personality is more a situational product than an abstract constant (Mischel, 1968). A more interactionist position might claim that personality indicators are poor specifiers of a couple's relationship because personality and environment conspire to produce unique behavioural interactions particular to a couple which are important determinants of their compatability (Buss et al, 1987; see also Kenny's Social Relations Model: Kenny and LaVoie, 1984).
Examining the personality measures used in this study, a second

alternative explanation for the obtained results is simply that these measures were inappropriate for the examination of mate selection *per se* (see Ickes, 1982, for a criticism of the application of many traditional personality questionnaires in PR research). Indeed, the relationship between established personality scales and needs has yet to be clearly demarked (Bentler and Newcomb (1978) - and needs are probably central to partner preferences (see chapter 2).

A final alternative explanation for the present results - and one that was hinted at in section 5.2. of this chapter - is that it is an individual's *perceptions* of another (rather than his/her 'actual' personality) which is of prime importance in determining attraction towards this other (Hinde, 1981; Karp et al, 1970; Kelley, 1979; Udry, 1963; Wetzel et al, 1979). In order to examine this possibility it is necessary to introduce an important modification into the type of study reported above. This modification involves tapping into the previously single student's perceptions of his/her obtained partner, and is achieved by giving the *same* questions to a respondent both prior to his/her relationship and once the relationship has formed. A second modification is also introduced for the purposes of the second analysis in this chapter, and this involves ascertaining the quality of the relationship formed. This new measure has two advantages: first, it illustrates the way in which partner preferences may be important in determining perceptions of relationship outcomes, and secondly it allows for an evaluation of the part played by partner preferences in relationships which have recently dissolved - but which may still be highly rated by one or both of the partners involved.

5.4. The second part of the study: an *intrapersonal* analysis of partner choice

5.4.1. Specific Hypothesis

For the purposes of the second part of this study a modified version of the main hypothesis is once again introduced, this time stressing the *intra*personal aspects of partner choice.

Hypothesis - *intrapersonal hypothesis*: For newly forming relationships, a stronger correlation should be expected between relationship preferences (expressed prior to the beginning of the relationship) and the perceived qualities of the new partner when that relationship is continuing or is still viewed by the person questioned as 'positive'. This same correlation should be weaker when the attitude towards the partner is markedly negative (expected in the case of some collapsed relationships).

5.4.2. Method

Participants in this second analysis were both the students *and* the supermarket shoppers whose partner preferences were described in chapter 4. As before, all had completed the first questionnaire (chapter 4) and had formed a relationship over the 4 month period. Of the 34 who fulfilled the criteria for follow-up (described in section 5.3.2. of this chapter) 29 returned completed questionnaires (14 women, 15 men).

Materials. This study compared informant's first questionnaire responses (measured at time1: i.e. before relationship formation) with

a similar questionnaire *completed by the same individuals* and given out four months later (at "time2"). The first questionnaire (at Time1) is described in Chapter 4. The Time2 questionnaire was a direct replica of this questionnaire - with the exception that rather than asking about a respondent's *preferences* for a partner it asked respondents about the degree to which the various items *described* their partner - in actuality. This study thus took the form of a within subjects time1-time2 comparison.

5.4.3. Results

Testing the hypothesis

Measuring the strength of the relationship between what the respondent wanted at time1 (i.e. before relationship formation) - and his/her perception of the partner obtained (measured at time2) involved subdividing the 29 participants into two groups. The *first* group consisted of all those whose relationships were still continuing *and* all those whose relationships had broken up in the previous couple of weeks, but where the respondent still saw his/her partner in a "positive" light'. The *second* group consisted of those participants whose relationships had recently dissolved *and* who had a "negative" view of the partner concerned. In order to obtain value judgments as to whether or not a dissolved relationship should be rated as "positive" or "negative", 10 independent judges (4 male, 6 female) blindly rated time2 replies to the free-listings section of the questionnaire on 7-point scales (in this section participants freely described "in their own words" the most obvious characteristics of their partner). Overall, 23 relationships were still in continuation

or were "positively" viewed (these 23 are here termed the 'positive' group). 6 relationships had ended and were judged to be negatively viewed by the respondent at time2 (these are termed the "negative" group). Interjudge reliability for the raters was satisfactorily high (Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula using split-median scores shows an agreement rate of 99%: the more conservative Cronbach's alpha gave an alpha score of .64). The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to measure the relationship between desired preferences at time1 and perceptions (by the same individual) of his/her partner at time2. As anticipated, those participants who could be said to have a 'positive' relationship with their partners produced a higher correlation between preferences for a partner at time1 and obtained partner's characteristics at time2 than those who had participated in a 'negative' relationship. This is made clear in figure 5.1, in which three histograms display the differences between the 'positive' and 'negative' groups. *Histogram 1* displays the correlations between the preferred partner and the obtained mate for positive versus negative relationships, using the rank measure of preferences as an indicator of partner preferences. *Histogram 2* once again uses the ranked preference measure but this analysis uses each of the twenty individual item scores (rather than the combined factor scores) as indicators of partner preferences. The final histogram (*Histogram 3*) shows the correlation between the preferred partner and the obtained mate, again distinguishing between positive and negative relationships but now using the personal construct measures as indicators of partner preferences. Differences between the positive and negative groups for the three histograms are illustrated on the graph through the use of a

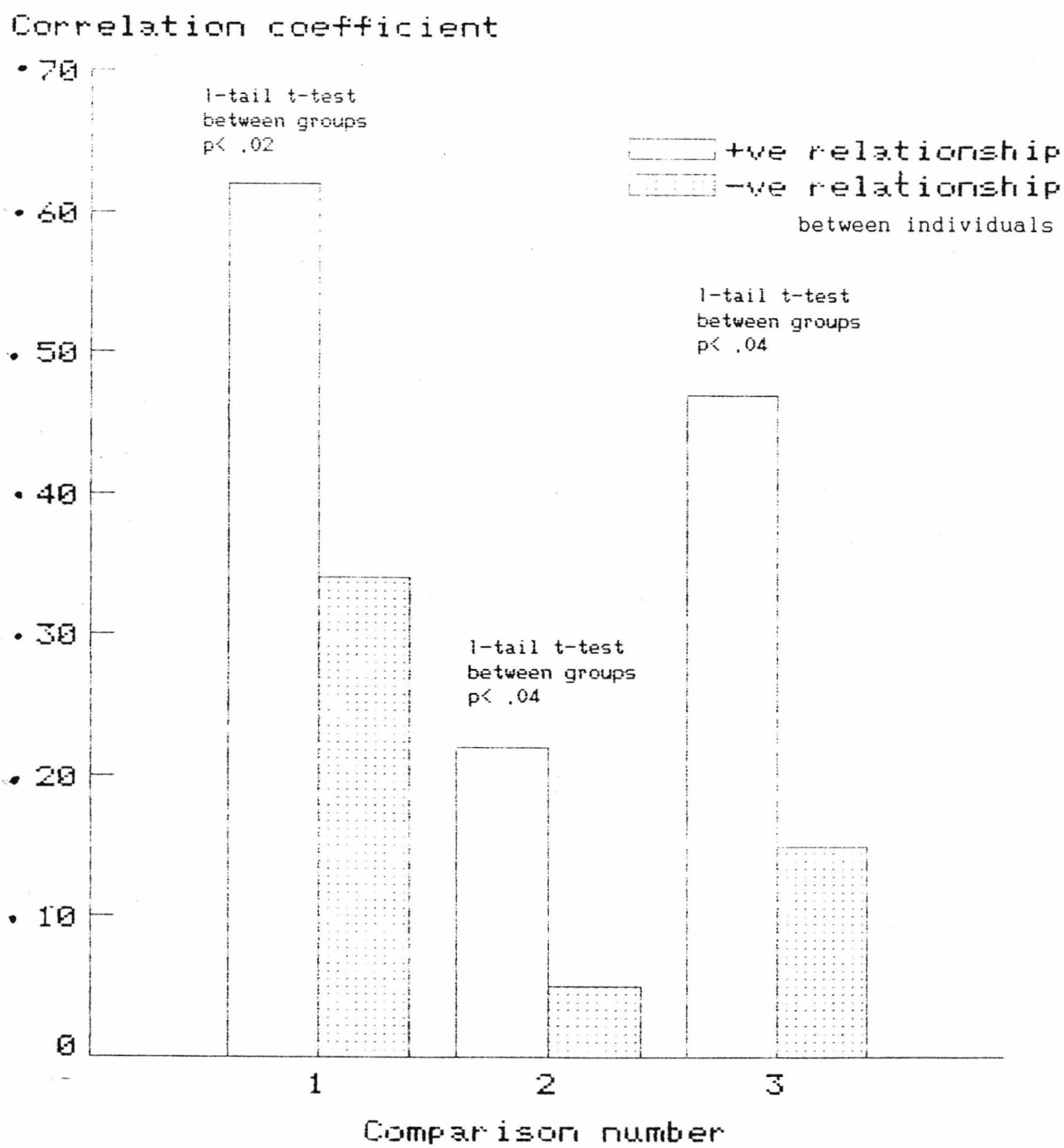
one-tail t-test. Correlation coefficients are multiplied by 100 for ease of presentation.

It was mentioned above that 10 judges were also asked to use seven-point scales to rate respondent's free descriptions of their partners as 'positive' or 'negative'. It is, of course, also possible to use these 7-point ratings directly to form a crude measure of 'relationship satisfaction', and this satisfaction measure is used to conduct a further analysis. Here, individual correlations between 'what was wanted' (at time1) and 'what is perceived to have been obtained' (at time2) were themselves correlated with 'relationship satisfaction'. This produced Pearson coefficients of .62 and .49 for the ranked preference measure (the first figure refers to the analysis when conducted item by item, the second when conducted by using overall factor scores), as well as a lower coefficient of .32 for the personal construct measures.

An overall correlational analysis can also be conducted for all 29 participants in the study. Here the correlation between desired and obtained partners was .57 (overall ranked scores) or .41 (individual items on ranked scores), and it was .40 for the personal construct preferences measure. There was no significant differences in the origin of the sample (i.e. University or Supermarket shoppers) in the predictive power of the personal preferences.

Fig 5.1: Preferred vs obtained partners

using different preference indicators



Free-responses

The free-response results are difficult to evaluate statistically, and, as they have already been used to differentiate between the 'positive' and 'negative' groups of respondents it is not valid to use these responses again for an analysis of the relationship between 'partner desired' and 'partner obtained'.

5.4.4. Discussion of Study 2

Using intrapersonal measures of the preferred and obtained partner at two different points in time, the second part of the present study drew a distinction between 'positive' and 'negative' relationships, and used this distinction to successfully predict differences in the degree of correlation between the desired and obtained partner for both of the two main preference indicators. Whilst none of the preferences predict more than 32% of the variance for the sample overall, or 38% for just the 'positive' relationships, these figures are fairly respectable given the large number of other factors also likely to be important in any relationship development (some of these are discussed in Chapter 2 and are to be introduced as further relationship predictors in Chapters 6 and 7). The mean correlations of around .5 for the different predictors is also higher than the similarity-of-personality correlation usually found between existing couples (Buss, 1984).

In general, therefore, it seems possible to predict how positive the outcome of any relationship will be using preference rating scales administered before any relationship has formed. What emerges, however, is not so much a prediction of whether or not the

relationship will continue, but a prediction of whether or not the relationship will be viewed by at least one of the participants as "positive" (through continuation or an amicable dissolution) or "negative" (likely after a painful breakup).

5.5: General Discussion and Conclusion

Chapters 4 and 5 are primarily concerned with trying to predict the nature of relationship development from prior-to-relationship indicators of partner preference. Chapter 4 identified scaling methods of preference measurement which were unique yet commensurate with the work of prior researchers in PR. This chapter applied these measures in an attempt to prospectively predict the nature of an individual's likely partner. The result could be claimed to be a partial success, but there still remained a great deal to be explained.

One advantage of the present hypothesis was that it offered a theoretical rationale for the results obtained. Whilst it is not always obvious *why* individuals necessarily seek out those of similar values to themselves (see Chapter 1) a 'we get we what want' hypothesis operates at the level of simple hedonistic reinforcement. Thus individuals form a relationship in order to gain certain rewards from that relationship and some of these rewards can be identified by examining an individual's preference patterns. This hedonistic bent is not new in this area of PR (in many ways it is simple to the needs principles of Centers, 1975; Heiss and Gordon, 1964; Wetzel et al, 1979 and Winch, 1958) but the type of measures made and the longitudinal design of this study combine to form an original approach to this area. Overall, relationship preferences are revealed to

operate at two levels. On an individual level, participants *differed* in their preference patterns, and it was not possible to say immediately and on the basis of general population trends which personality preference were to be relevant for any one particular individual. On the other hand, preference patterns were undoubtedly influenced by wider societal norms (see also Williamson, 1966). Studying preference patterns as indicators of the likely development of a particular relationship is clearly valuable in illustrating the all-important interaction between the societal and individual levels of PR analysis (see chapter 3).

The central lesson of this chapter has been the restatement of the long-established psychological truth that, to any other, we are no more than he/she judges us to be. Therefore it does not even matter if participants in this study were merely making self-attributions (rather than really assessing the other: cf the work of Bem, 1972, on self-perceptions), for it is the *perception* of what we get in a partner (rather than any supposedly 'objective' measure) that is the determinant of satisfaction. Researchers who ply their trade ignoring such perceptual processes run the risk of arriving at misleading, confusing and premature conclusions.

Even taking into account intraperceptual biases, it is still a mistake to believe that all can be explained with a couple of relatively simple predictors. The developing relationship does not germinate in a social vacuum. This chapter has been looking at the individual quite separately from his/her partner. In the next chapters variables such as social support, social skills and relationship alternatives will bring the individual back into the social world and place the seeking

of personal preferences into this world of dynamic interaction. There were a number of problems with the experiments reported here which require acknowledgement. Only a small number of respondents took part, and these were primarily from a restricted sample base (volunteer University students). Furthermore, there are a number of demand characteristics (Orne, 1962) guiding what can and cannot be entered onto a questionnaire by the informant, especially in any questionnaire dealing with intimate matters. However, the studies carried out here were essentially exploratory enterprises which should provide a useful guide to further theoretical and empirical development.

Footnote

[1] Buss (1986, personal communication) considers that those who have recently separated are suitable for such an analysis. Berg and McQuinn (1986) report that those who have recently split up see one another as often as those who are continuing in a relationship.

Chapter 6

Issues in the assessment of preferences for a partner: A descriptive study of dating agency members.

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6.1: Overview of the chapter

Chapters 4 and 5 described the formation of an instrument for measuring an individual's preferences for a romantic partner, and then described the use of that instrument in a longitudinal analysis of relationship formation. The next two chapters adopt a similar format to the two preceding, with the present chapter describing the construction of a second and larger instrument for measuring preferences for a romantic partner, social skills, social support, and attitudes towards various aspects of relationship interaction.
The next two chapters also employ as experimental participants an unusual but fascinating group of individuals - dating agency members selected from an international singles agency. One wide-spread belief held by both lay members of the public and professional PR researchers in that dating agency members are in some way 'different' from that elusive group "the general population" (cf. Duck, 1983). The primary concern of this and the succeeding chapter must be to describe a longitudinal analysis of relationship formation similar to that portrayed in chapters 4 and 5, but one additional concern will be to explore in what way(s) (if any) dating agency members can be said to be "different" from the wider populace.

6.2: The construction of a new instrument for relationship prediction

6.2.1: Major dependent variables

The present longitudinal analysis adopted a similar format and rationale to that described in chapters 4 and 5 but now made use of a more detailed questionnaire for the analysis of the various proposals

expounded in chapter 3. The new measures incorporated into this questionnaire and not already described in chapters four and five were as follows: (i) prior knowledge/prejudices concerning the type of person likely to be present in a particular interaction (ii) suitability of the situation for relationship development (iii) ability to communicate (iv) self-esteem. These variables are discussed below in this order, whilst the full relationship prediction questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix A.

1. Prior knowledge (and prejudice) concerning the type of people likely to be present (see figure 3.1 square 3 and figure 3.3 section 1)

An individual's prior views about the type of people likely to be found in any particular setting provide him/her with the first of the many 'first impressions' which delineate the contours of impression formation (see, for example, Darley and Fazio, 1980 and Reis, 1985 on the 'self-fulfilling' nature of many social interactions, and Woll and Cozby, 1987, on the significance of stereotypes in videodating). In evaluating these prior expectations, respondents in this study completed 8 bi-polar personality constructs (adapted from Vanlear and Trujillo, 1986) asking them for a) their specific impressions of their past encounters with Dateline members (4 items scale) and b) their general impressions concerning fellow Dateline members (4 items scale). These 8 items were totalled to produce a 'prior knowledge' score.

ii. Evaluation of the suitability of the present situation for relationship development (see figure 3.1. section 3 and figure 3.3 section 2)

A measure indicating the suitability of the experimental setting for relationship development was constructed from summing the scores of seven scales. These scales asked participants 'how suitable do you find the following places for meeting members of the opposite sex?': respondents were asked to rate 7 settings on 7-point scales ranging from 'very suitable' to 'not suitable at all'. Two further questions asked respondents to also write, in their own words, in which other places they felt either 'very comfortable' or 'very uncomfortable'.

iii. Ability to communicate (see figure 3.1 square 4 and figure 3.3. sections 4 and 5).

Two measures for analysing the ability to communicate were used in this study: these were a traditional pencil and paper self-report type of schedule and a coding scheme devised for the analysis of videotaped behaviour.

A pencil and paper test of dating and assertion skills.

Levenson and Gottman's Dating and Assertion Questionnaire (DAQ: 1978) was chosen as a suitable pencil and paper test of dating / assertion skills for 3 reasons. First of all, the scale has good external validity (it correlates reasonably well with actual social skills behaviour (Faulstich et al, 1985) and loneliness self-report measures (Wittenberg and Reis, 1986)). Secondly, the scale has sufficient internal validity to allow for the combination of all 18 items into one single score (Garbin et al, 1986). Finally, the measure is of

appropriate length for inclusion within a detailed (and therefore lengthy) questionnaire.

The original DAQ measured an American college student sample. In order to enable respondents to fully comprehend this measure, English synonyms were substituted for the American terminology, and in one question, a fictionary 'dean' of a University faculty was replaced in this study by the 'head of the firm' (deemed to be a more appropriate role figure for the present sample). These alterations were not expected to influence the scores obtained.

Videotaped behaviour.

A scheme for categorising nonverbal communication (NVC)

A reasonably wide number of schemes are available for categorising NVC (e.g. Bull, 1986), but unfortunately authors have, in the past, presented a very wide range of nonverbal behaviours in a confusingly diverse manner, and few successful attempts have been made to analyse nonverbal skills on the grander (molar) scale (Sarason et al, 1985). Researchers have also been inconsistent in relating the interpersonal context and tasks with which participants are presented with the attributes actually assessed (Spitzberg and Canary, 1985). In the present analysis, the assessment rating scale used by Trower et al (1978) was chosen for five reasons: (a) the scale is specifically concerned with social skills (and not just body movements, which are sometimes abstractly treated as 'meaningful' (e.g. Pease, 1984)) (b) Trower et al's coding scheme allows for an *overall* impression of an interaction (just concentrating on molecular nonverbal behaviour and measuring timed episodes of lean (etc). can distract from the

important task of judging the appropriateness of the behaviour), (c) Trower et al's coding scheme is relatively straight-forward, and does not require a particularly lengthy training for judges and (d) the items examined in Trower's scheme are widely recognized to be those of importance in nonverbal skilled behaviour (e.g. on looking: Cherulnik et al, 1978; Exline, 1972; Jones et al, 1984; Swain et al, 1982), on open - closedness of posture; McGinley et al, 1975) and the features examined by Trower generally mirror the potential 'nonverbal dating cues' listed by Muehlenhard et al 1986) and finally (e), the nonverbal behaviours selected by Trower involve the manipulation of both 'static cues' (e.g. posture tonus) and 'dynamic cues' (e.g. gaze (Ickes and Tooke, 1988).

The specific items used in the present analysis are described below (Table 6a).

Trower et al (1978) also suggest a coding scheme for the analysis of verbal behaviours (similar in structure to the nonverbal scheme). However, work on analysing conversations, which draws heavily upon the ethnomethodological research of Sacks (1967-72) and his students (e.g. Jefferson, 1974), suggests that a more micrological examination of conversations is possible, and that this should be less suspect to conscious control by experimental participants (see Wiemann, 1981). Therefore a new coding scheme for analysing verbal behaviour was devised specifically for the purposes of this investigation. The stages of construction of this scheme were as follows:-

Table 6a. Items for the nonverbal analysis of interactional/social skills

Item under investigation	Scoring range	General manifestation of skilled behaviour
Proximity	"Extremely close and intimate" to "too distant"	Personal range suitable for occasion: c.f. Hall (1966).
Looking	"Total abstinence" to "continual staring"	While listening approx 75%, while talking approx 40%
Orientation	"Face to face" to "completely turned away"	Facing speaker
Face	"Range of emotions" to "totally blank face or continual negative emotions"	Range of emotions appropriate to topic under discussion.
Posture tonus	"Average relaxed" to "abnormally slouched"	"Average relaxed"
Posture position	"Open" to "tightly" closed	Open style
Gesture	"Various and frequent" to "never gestures"	Normal amount and variety.

From Trower et al (1978). All nonverbal behaviours are rated in accordance with the instructions in this book.

A scheme for categorising conversational behaviours

I. An extensive review of the work of the conversational analysts (CA) was conducted, and a number of existing coding schemes were examined critically. None of these schemes were felt to be appropriate as (a) they were too concerned with just one level of conversational behaviour (e.g. they might concentrate on just conversational facilitators - the "um hums" etc (Heritage, 1984) - whilst ignoring the overall structure of the conversation) (b) the schemes failed to provide the rigorous systemaziation necessary for statistical

analysis', and (c) the schemes largely ignore PR skills: a new conversational behaviour analysis tailored to PR skills could hopefully offer a more precise tool for relationship analysis.

II. The coding schemes and motifs employed by some 60 writers in the conversation analysis field were collapsed to form a new four-level scheme named the 'combined systems analysis' (CSA), incorporating several hundred items for analysis. The scheme is presented in full in Appendix C and only a brief description of the different levels is offered here:

Level 1: ***Orientation, structure and form***

This is analysis at the 'meta-analytic' level and examines large sequences of behaviour 'en bloc'. The original scheme included items such as 'side sequences', 'moves' 'games' etc and totalled some 33 items at this level.

Level 2: ***Descriptive categorisation***

In terms of both importance and sheer volume this is the most notable 'level' of research in CA as a whole. The second level incorporates all those categories which do not form an overall picture of the conversation (as in level 1, above) but which go beyond a mere listing of 'important' words and phrases. Some examples include questions (Schegloff, 1972); listings (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) and "arching and embedding" (Mishler, 1975). In the original scheme some 230 categories were presented for analysis at this level.

Level 3: ***Lexical analysis***

Lexical analysis refers to 'what is said' in terms of the specific words and phrases used in a specific conversational exchange. A number of conversation analysts have stressed the importance of particular

formulaic greetings, partings etc (e.g. Schegloff and Sacks, 1973) and transactional analysts have claimed that phrases can be indicative of particular psychological approaches (or 'voices': c.f. Harris, 1974). In the original scheme, 111 key words and phrases were presented for a computer assisted search, but it was felt that as these lexical units were under conscious control they would be inappropriate for the purposes for which this scheme was devised (Wiemann, 1981).

*Level 4: **Conversational facilitators***

These are the 'um hums' and 'uh huhs' (Heritage, 1984) and all the minor signals within conversation that serve to perpetuate 'flow' yet which cannot be classified as specific words or phrases. In the original scheme 17 of these were deemed suitable for analysis at this level.

As is clearly evident from the above, the original CA scheme was far too ambitious for the present analysis of conversation (which forms just one variable in a series of variables under analysis in this study). The full scheme was therefore greatly reduced and only a few items subject to examination (as described below). It is hoped, however, to employ this full scheme at some time in the future, and thus provide a more detailed analysis of conversational exchange in close relationships.

III. Unfortunately, social skills research has yet to produce the detailed coding schemes for the analysis of conversational exchange that have been produced for the analysis of nonverbal behaviours. However, research in social skills does imply that those able to act in a 'friendly' manner in a new conversational encounter are more likely to create a good impression than those who appear as

'strangers' in this encounter (see, for example, the standard PR texts of Argyle (1981) and Duck (1988)). From this, it may be assumed that those who can present themselves as friendly through *their use of conversational techniques* are those who are most likely to succeed in new encounters, and a tradition of research suggests that differences between friends and strangers in conversational routines can be identified. (Atkinson, 1982; Berger and Bradac, 1982; Kendon, 1967; Miell, 1984; Morton, 1978; Summerfield and Lake, 1977). From this past research, 13 items for analysis were drawn together, and these are presented in the table below (Table 6b).

Table 6b: 13 ways in which friends and strangers differ in conversational techniques

Item under investigation	Level of item in CSA	Previous finding	Derivation
Intimacy of words spoken	1	Friends are more intimate than strangers	Miell (1984)
Clarifications	2	Friends use more than strangers	Morton (1984)
Ambiguities	2	Strangers use more than friends	Miell (1984)
Jokes	2	Strangers use more than friends	Miell (1984)
Metacommunication	2	Friends use more than friends	Wilmot (1980)
References to own feelings	2	Friends use more than friends	Miell (1984)
Questions	2	Strangers use more than friends	Fischer and Sollie (1986)
Evaluations	2	Friends use more than friends	Altman and Taylor (1973)
'Oh' (use of)	4	Friends use more than friends	Atkinson (1982)

These differences between friends and strangers were used for a behavioural analysis of the conversational skills of the experimental participants.

iv. Self-esteem: (see figure 3.1 square 5).

The Rosenberg self-esteem scale (1965), a scale with a long history of validation (Silber and Tippett, 1965 cited in Katzman and Wolchik, 1984) was chosen as one of the most frequently used tests of self-esteem. The test also provides participants with a straight-forward,

easy-to-answer questionnaire schedule. The original scale consisted of 10 questions divided into six subscales: in this administration, one item was randomly selected from each subscale so that only six questions were asked. Questions were presented in Guttmann scale form and were given alternatively in order to reduce the danger of response sets.

v. Social support (part of figure 3.1 square 1).

As outlined in chapter 3, different measures of social support were utilized for different sections of this thesis. Procidano and Heller's (1983) 'Perceived Social Support' scale (PSS) was used in the present study because (a) it stresses the *perceived* relevance of the individual's support networks, rather than relying on a simplistic count of the size or breadth of the network (see Chapter 3 for the importance of this qualitative account), (b) the scale correlates highly with other scales (e.g. Cohen's ISEL; Cohen et al, 1986: Sarason's SSQ: Sarason et al, 1987a) and (c) the scale was of suitable length to allow it to be included within a lengthy questionnaire. Two scales are presented in the original PSS, one for family support and the other for friendship support. In this study, only a shorter version of the friendship scale was used, as this scale has been shown to be positively related to Levenson and Gottman's social skills indicator (above: Sarason et al, 1987a).

6.2.2. Some additional variables of interest

A number of additional variables of more general interest were also included in this questionnaire. These are outlined below.

Relationship investment: a measure of attitudes

In previous studies of investment (e.g. Rusbult et al, 1982), investment has been treated as an entity which is of interest only in the examination of an *established* relationship. In this study, a simple assumption is made: this is that those who are willing to invest in a relationship are most likely to form such a relationship. Thus an individual's willingness to invest in a future romantic relationship is treated as a potential predictor of (a) the likelihood of any relationship forming and (b) the quality of that new relationship (Hendrick et al, 1988, and Lund, 1985, found that investment was positively correlated with relationship duration). The measure for examining investment was Lund's (1985) investment scale, which incorporates a number of measures which can be easily presented as a measure of a 'hypothetical' relationship, and has high reported internal validity as well as reasonable concurrent/predictive validity (Lund, 1985).

Love: a measure of attitudes and anticipated behaviour

As is the case with investment, love has been treated within the PR literature as important in the examination of the *established* partnership (e.g. Berg and McQuinn, 1986; Hendrick et al, 1988; Traupmann and Hatfield, 1981), although 'attitudes to love' scales have measured some more general and less particularistic relationship-orientated attitudes (e.g. Hendrick and Hendrick, 1986; Hobart, 1958; Knox, 1970; Lee, 1973; Rubin, 1970). Using a variety of different scales, research has suggested that the way love is expressed in a relationship may be related to a number of relationship outcome

measures, as well as providing investigators with a reliable indicator of future relationship development (Hendrick et al, 1988; Hill et al, 1976)

This study employs two scales for the measurement of love. The first of these (Munro and Adams, 1978) examines the participants more general 'attitude towards love'. This scale has been used in a wide variety of settings (c.f. Payne and Vandewiele, 1987) and was chosen as the items selected reflect both the romantic ideal and conjugal parts of love (see Berscheid and Walster, 1978; Knox, 1970).

The second scale employed is similar to the investment scale described above in that it inquires about particular anticipated behaviours within a relationship. This second scale is taken from Sternberg's recent research into love (1986; Sternberg, 1987, personal communication), and comprises items suggested by Sternberg (1986) for the 'action' (behavioural) analysis of love. The scale comprises three subscales measuring intimacy ("feelings of closeness, connectedness and bondedness"), passion ("the drives that lead to romance, physical attraction, sexual consumation and related phenomenon") and decision/commitment ("the decision that one loves a certain other, and ... one's commitment to maintain that love": Sternberg, 1989, unpub: 5f). In recent publications, Sternberg's analysis has been cited as a valuable conceptualisation of love which demonstrates an encouraging overlap with other similar measures (c.f. Hendrick et al, 1988), and Sternberg himself has recently produced reasonable reliability coefficients for the three love components (Sternberg, 1989, unpub). Taken along with the 'attitude towards love' scale, this measure should provide an insight into both the informant's attitudes to love

and their potential behaviours when 'in love' - both central aspects of the phenomenon (Murstein, unpublished and undated). Because of the unusual manner in which these love scales are being employed this analysis was purely exploratory, and no hypotheses were generated as to the way in which the experimental participant's 'love' scores might relate to the development of future relationships.

Relationship experience measures

Two additional measures were included as indicators of the previous success(es) of the respondents in relationship formation. The first question simply asked "how many 'dating' relationships with members of the opposite sex have you had in the last two years (where you have actually 'gone out' together)". A second question asked "How long has the **longest** of these lasted?" For this second question, respondents were asked to tick one of four possible answers: less than a week, less than a month, one to three months, and more than three months. It was hypothesised that, in line with the previously expressed expectations concerning attitudes towards relationship investment, those with a more positive attitude towards investment will be those with past experiences of longer relationships.

6.2.3. The overall design of the questionnaire

Respondents received questionnaires measuring all the above variables (i.e. both the 'major independent variables' and the 'additional variables of interest') and questionnaires thus comprised 9 sets of questions in all measuring i. Prior knowledge (and prejudice) about the type of people likely to be present in a particular setting; ii.

Concurrent evaluation of the suitability of the present situation for relationship development; iii. Dating and assertion skills; iv. Self-esteem; v. Social support; vi. Partner preferences. vii. Attitudes towards relationship investment; viii. Attitudes towards love ix. Prior relationship experiences. The derivation and rationale underlying the majority of these measures is described above whilst the formation of the partner preference measures was described in chapters 4 and 5. The obtainment of the observed behavioural data (through a separate session involving audio and video taping) is described in a later procedure section (6.3). The final questionnaire ran to 12 pages in all, and took around 40 minutes to complete.

Dating agency information

One advantage of using the present sample (described in more detail in section 6.3) was that it provided one more source of information about the participants: this was data given to the dating agency at the point in which the participants joined this agency. This data could be correlated with the other scores obtained as above for exploratory analysis[2].

Dating agency data, collected on joining the agency, was available for the following criteria. A section of the dating agency questionnaire from which this data is selected is reproduced in Appendix C.

Self-descriptions: These were obtained for

i) Height
ii) Weight
iii) Age
iv) Skin colouring
v) Physical build (self-description)
vi) Attractiveness (self-rating)
vii) Drinking behaviour
viii) Educational qualifications

ix) Schooling
x) Religion
xi) Political viewpoint

Descriptions of the partner desired: These were obtained for
i) Height
ii) Age
iii) Skin colouring
iv) Physical type
v) Attractiveness
vi) Drinking behaviour
vii) Educational qualifications
viii) Schooling
ix) Religion
x) Political viewpoint

Personality variables
Information on members' personality was gathered by the agency using a loose series of 20 personality questions based upon (rather crude) ideas of the dimensions of extravert-introvert and assertive-nonassertive. Items scoring highly on the 'extravert' dimension might include 'I am usually the one who talks the most'. Items high on the 'assertive' dimension might include 'I find it easy to express my views'. Rather than make any definite assumptions about the theoretical perspective and factorial structures of the long-lost psychologist who designed this questionnaire, factor analyses were conducted on the items for the purposes of the present analysis (see section 6.4.2).

Relationship preferences
The agency's method of gaining information about relationship preferences was to ask members a series of 20 questions which included such posers as 'are you looking for "one special relationship? ... (or) "some easy-going, undemanding relationships?'". Again, factor analyses were conducted on these items and are described below (section 6.4.2).

Lifestyle questions
These were fairly loosely defined questions (20 in all) probably aiming at identifying 'risk-taking' tendencies. A factor analysis of scores on these questions is reported in the results section.

Approach to work
Twenty further questions inquired into 'work motivation' and the tendency towards over-work and the factor analyses conducted on these scores will again be reported later.

Interest and activities
Here, respondents were asked about their musical interests, their choice of entertainments for an evening out, the activities they enjoyed and devoted most time to, and the things they most enjoyed doing at home. In each case, a number of options were available for selection (six options were provided for musical interests, ten for

the other questions). A factor analysis of these items is the last to be reported in this chapter.

Picture test

This was included in the dating agency questionnaire on the advice of their consultant psychologist. Unfortunately, the agency have since forgotten the purpose of this test, but keep it in the questionnaire for aesthetic reasons (!). Because of this oversight, no data was available for this particular item.

6.3: Method of data collection

Participants

Chapter 3 underlines the rationale for the selection of dating agency members for this study. As noted in this previous chapter, participants were selected from such an agency as a) they were likely to be highly motivated, b) they were thought to be suitable for longitudinal analysis. Participants were matched as far as possible with University students on the criteria of age (all were aged between 18 and 27, the age that individuals are most likely to seek relationships: Perlman (1986 in Duck, 1988)) and participants were also matched across samples for sex (44% of the present sample were female, 56% male).

Previous research into computer dating has been very limited and sporadic (Murstein, 1980; Woll and Cozby, 1987), and tends to comprise mainly articles and books by journalists (e.g. Godwin, 1973) or works inspired by the agencies themselves (e.g. Dateline, 1987; Mullen, 1984), although some recent research has examined the videodating process (see Woll and Cozby, 1987, for a review - mainly of their own research)[9]. The limited research that has emerged has concentrated on the physical cues clearly available in video-dating (e.g. age, physical attractiveness; Curran, 1975; Riggio and Woll, 1984; Woll et al, 1986), and has tended to ignore more 'psychological'

characteristics. A few exceptions, however, are worthy of note. *Sindberg et al (1972)* examined the 'similarity leads to attraction' formula for the existence of attraction between agency members, but their research was restricted to the examination of already established partnership and therefore lacked the advantages of a longitudinal analysis. Similarly, *Byrne et al's (1977)* study of attitude similarity is also methodologically flawed, this time for the artificiality of the main manipulations. *Wallace (1959)* - in an early study - noted that members of his correspondence 'Research club' (similar to a dating agency) were low on sociability, and, in some more recent work, Green et al (1984) suggested that age, attractiveness and status effects overrode the 'psychological' characteristics of humour and warmth in the selection of agency partners. However, there is little more to be gleaned from the literature, and unfortunately, dating agencies do not produce their own 'success' figures for relationships which form through agency contacts, which is disappointing given that such agencies may provide valuable material for research (Woll and Cozby, 1987).

For the present study, the dating agency chosen for the recruitment of experimental participants was Dateline International, the world's largest dating agency with 35,000 members, 15,000 of these resident in London. Consultation with the agency identified 'smoking habits' as an important determinant of partner choice (insofar as this choice is indicated on the members' questionnaires), and therefore all those selected for this study were uniform on this criterion (all were non-smokers). The participants chosen for the present study also all rated themselves as 'attractive' or 'very attractive' (98% of the agency

membership falls into these self-rating categories: the remaining 2%, who rate themselves as 'unattractive', are only desired by a miniscule percentage of the agency's membership).

550 individuals who met these criteria of age, smoking habits and attractiveness ratings were mailed copies of a letter requesting their participation in a "short interview" evening at a London Polytechnic[4]. As a reward for their co-operation, participants were also invited to a social evening following the experimental session, where they would have an opportunity to meet other single dating agency members. Of the 550 contacted, 110 (20%) agreed to participate, and out of this 110, 46 attended the experimental evenings and a further 30 filled in questionnaires in the subsequent weeks (overall participation rate = 14 %). 23 of these 76 also sent back consent forms allowing me access to further information held by the dating agency (see section 6.2.2, above).

An analysis of the response rate

As was the case for the previous studies reported in this thesis, the response rate was disappointing, and although 76 questionnaires were eventually completed by agency members, the presence of only 46 participants at the experimental evenings meant that only a restricted analysis could be conducted upon some of the variables described above. As with the earlier studies, however, various mitigating factors should be taken into account in considering the response rate. Participants were requested to participate in a lengthy evening, which would involve intimate and detailed questioning by a stranger without the offer of any direct monetary payment (participants were not even

paid travelling expenses for these journeys out into cold winter nights!). Of necessity, those taking part could have little idea about who was likely to attend, and might well have foreseen embarrassing and artificial encounters with a group of total strangers. These factors probably contributed to the small response rate.

The representativeness of the sample (demographic details)

Extensive demographic details on the experimental participants were not requested in an already over-long questionnaire schedule. Some insight into the demography of these informants, however, can be obtained from two sources. The first of these scores is the detailed information held on the Dateline computer and available for the 23 participants who agreed for the release of this data (see section 6.2.2) This first source of data is tabulated in table 6c. The second set of demographic information comes from a much larger group of 24,000 (anonymous) dating agency members, who formed part of a large survey of the agency membership conducted by Dateline themselves in 1987. This second set of data is compared with national UK figures obtained from the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys in table 6d (below).

Table 6c: Demographic details of a subsample of 23 dating agency members

Variable measured	Distribution
Age	Mean age = 23.2
"Skin colouring"*	16 European; 3 African/American Negro 2 Chinese/Oriental; 1 Middle Eastern
Education	12 with 'O' level or equivalent; 6 with University degree qualifications 2 'with A' level or equivalent; 1 with technical qualifications; 1 with no qualifications
Schooling	10 from Comprehensive school; 6 from Secondary Modern; 3 from private/public school; 3 from grammar school.
Religion	10 have no religion; 9 are Church of England/ Protestant; 2 are Roman Catholic; 1 is Muslim.
Politics	13 are not interested; 7 are 'Centre'; 2 are Right wing

Note

* This is the term employed by Dateline.

Table 6d. Demographic details of 24,000 members of Dateline compared with census information for the general population of Great Britain

Variable measured	Distribution amongst Dateline members	Distribution amongst the General population
"Skin Colouring"[a]	96% typical of European	95% typical of European
Qualifications[a]		
No qualifications	14% (male); 14% (female)	43% (male); 48% (female)
O level/equivalent	22% (male); 38% (female)	14% (male); 17% (female)
A level/equivalent	12% (male); 15% (female)	10% (male); 5% (female)
Technical	21% (male); 7% (female)	22% (male); 24% (female)
University degree	31% (male); 26% (female)	11% (male); 6% (female)
Schooling[b]		
Private/public	15% (male); 18% (female)	6% (across the sexes)
Grammar	27% (male); 31% (female)	19% (across the sexes)
Comprehensive	32% (male); 26% (female)	35% (across the sexes)
Secondary modern	26% (male); 25% (female)	40% (across the sexes)

Notes

[a]. Data from Dateline International, 1987 (only sex-specific figures were available) and the General Household Survey, OPCS, 1985. The 'general population' technical qualifications include both higher education below degree level and apprenticeships

[b]. The 1971 census is used as the source for comparison as many (perhaps the majority?) of the members of Dateline are in their 30s and 40s.

Comment on the representativeness of the sample

The evidence from table 6d. suggests that dating agency members are derived from a restricted proportion of the populace - indeed they are probably most representative of those able to afford an average annual agency fee of £75 / year. In a summary of videodating research, Woll and Cozby, 1987, similarly note that dating agencies attract the more affluent. The main differences between agency members and the general population are in terms of educational qualifications, with agency members being more qualified than the average individual (for men, χ^2 = 23.23, 4 d.f. $p < 0.005$; for women, χ^2 = 51.10, 4 d.f. $p < 0.001$), and

with respect to schooling, with dating agency members far more likely to have attended grammar or private/public schools (for men, χ^2 = 8.35 3 d.f. p< .05; for women, χ^2 = 13.67 3 d.f. p< .01). Again, this overrepresentation of the well-educated has been noted elsewhere (Wallace, 1959). There were no clear differences between the general population and the 24,000 Dateline members with respect to racial background (for men, χ^2 = 1.67 3 d.f.; χ^2 = 1.67 3 d.f).

Because of the small numbers involved no statistical comparison was made between the 23 participants in this present study (details tabulated on table 6c) and the larger sample of 24,000 dating agency members (see table 6d). However, a cursory viewing of the data suggests that the subsample of agency members that participated in the present study were *representative* of dating agency members as a whole - and *unrepresentative* in terms of educational qualifications when compared to the general population of Britain.

Piloting the questionnaire

The full questionnaire was piloted on three different groups, chosen for pilot work for reasons of both diversity and accessibility. These three groups are described below.

Pilot group 1: 26 second year undergraduate students at the University of Kent were asked to complete the questionnaire during a compulsory class practical. These pilot respondents were asked in particular to comment upon any ambiguities in the questionnaire or other problems that may have arisen during completion of the instrument.

Pilot group 2: 17 part-time University cleaners (also at the University of Kent) similarly completed the questionnaire. This group

of respondents were chosen as a pilot sample as they were less experienced at completing such schedules than the students. Participants were again instructed to identify any ambiguities or other problems arising during the completion of the schedule.

Pilot group 3: The final pilot group consisted of 12 members of adult education courses taught in the Kent area. My own experience in teaching such groups is that although they have more formal educational qualifications than the sample of cleaners, these individuals are less experienced in completing questionnaire schedules than students. Informants were again instructed to fill in their questionnaires and to report back any problems.

All three groups found the questionnaire instructions and scale items comprehensible, although some ambiguities in instruction were noted, and the instructions suitably modified. The only consistent criticism to emerge was that the questionnaire was rather lengthy, and therefore time-consuming to complete.

Procedure for data collection

The procedure was as follows:-

1. The study ran over three consecutive evenings in November and December 1987. Once individuals had agreed to participate on a particular evening, they were sent details of the timing for the evening, and a map of the location of the sessions (see Appendix B). Participants were also telephoned a few days before their specified evening in order to remind them of their commitment, and to answer any questions they may have had about the evening.

2. On the days of the experimental sessions, participants were met at the local underground station by one of the three experimenters 'on duty' for that evening[5]. Participants were then escorted to the Polytechnic where a doorman welcomed them and ushered them into an experimental room.

3. Participants were then presented with the questionnaire and asked to complete it as truthfully as possible. An experimenter familiar with the questionnaire remained in the room to answer any questions.

4. On completing the questionnaire, participants were randomly divided into mix-sexed groups of between 3 and 5 persons, and led through to an interview room (mix-sexed groupings were used as social skills in mixed sex company was of particular interest). Individuals were informed that they would be filmed through a one-way mirror and were shown the mirror through which filming would take place (see figure 6.1, below). Participants were also shown the taperecorder used for audio-recordings of their sessions, and reassured about the confidentiality of the recordings. At this point, respondents were given the opportunity to withdraw from this part of the study, and 8 out of a total of 46 withdrew.

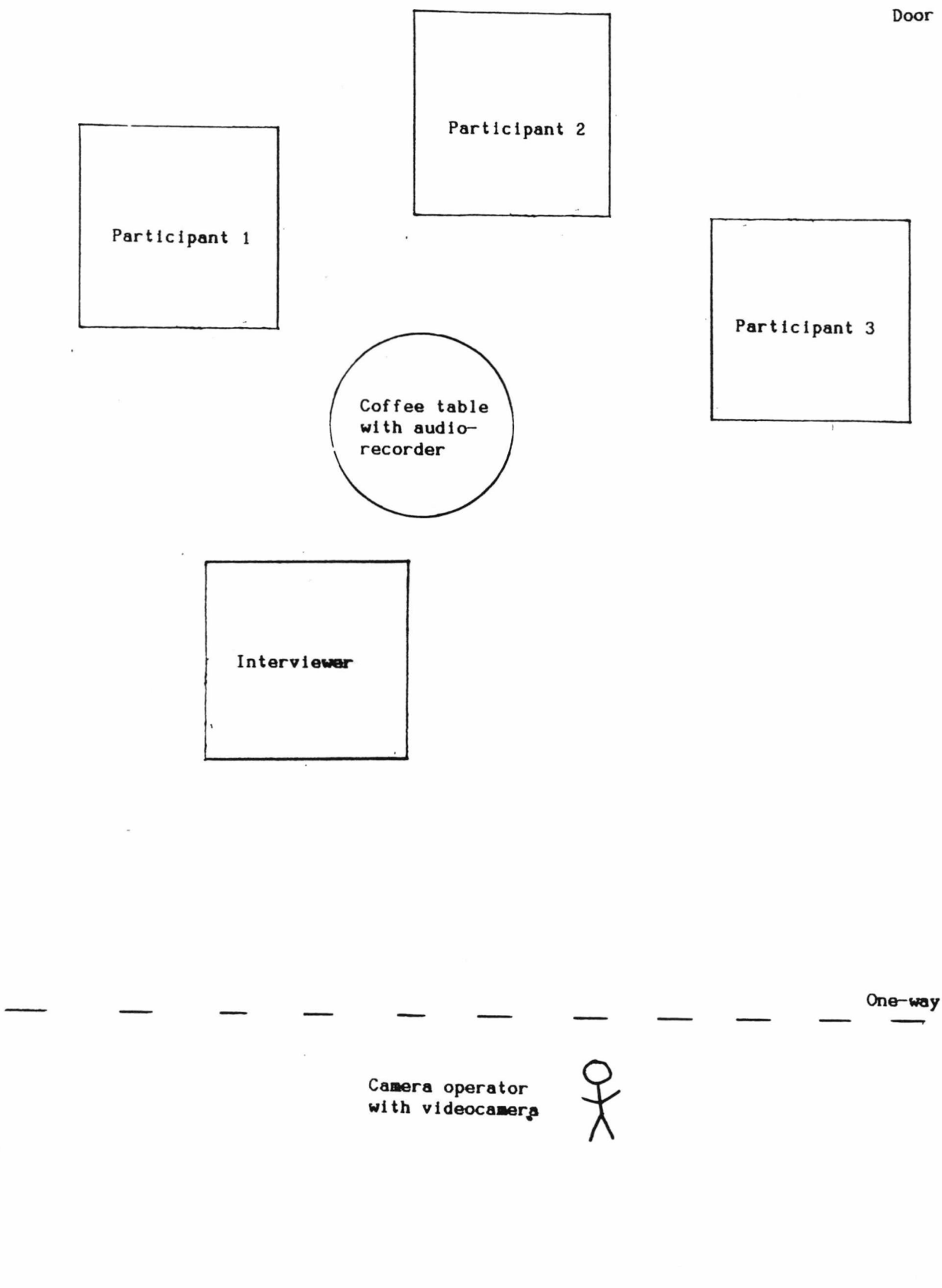
5. Consenting participants were then 'interviewed' for five minutes (the time period advised by Ickes and Tooke, 1988, in their "waiting room" paradigm studies). The 'interview' consisted of an informal conversation on the merits and demerits of dating agencies, as well as the participants' own estimations of Dateline. The interviewer's input into the interview was kept as constant as possible across groups and evenings. The complete interaction was recorded on audio and videotape. Figure 6.1. shows the approximate layout of the

interviewing room, but participants were given an opportunity to set up their own seating arrangements at the beginning of each encounter. This allowed raters to later estimate participants' ideas on the appropriate distance between interactants, a critical variable in assessing social skills (see the nonverbal coding scheme above).

6. Following the 'interview' session, participants were led through to a further room, set up as a 'party area'. Participants were reassured that they were no longer being watched (!) and were invited to 'get to know one another' (with the help of some freely-available light snacks and alcohol). To facilitate interaction, the lighting was kept low and the music was of a reasonably 'romantic' nature (see Chapter 3 on the importance of creating the 'right' setting for positive interaction to take place). On the last of the three evenings, participants played a variety of 'party games' designed to stimulate close interaction.

7. Each of the experimental evenings ended around midnight. Participants were duly notified that they would be recontacted again some months later, and all but two participants expressed a willingness to answer further questions at a later date.

Figure 6.1: The 'interview' setting



6.4: Patterns in the data

The following pages examine the scores for the participants taken as a group, on a variety of measures. Here scores are presented for both the major independent variables and the auxiliary variables described earlier in this chapter.

6.4.1 Major independent variables

i. Prior knowledge (and prejudice) concerning the type of people likely to be present in any particular setting

It was first necessary to ascertain whether or not those completing the questionnaire had indeed met members of the Dateline organisation in the past. 61 of the 75 who answered this question had met members previously, 14 had not. Those who had previously met members of the organisation answered 4 questions concerning their impressions of such members from their previous encounter(s), and 4 questions about their general impression of Dateline members. Those who had yet to meet members answered only the latter set of questions.

Those who had formerly met members of Dateline rated such individuals as 'very average' overall in terms of deceitfulness, trustworthiness, reliability and consideration, and respondents rated their past encounters with members as moderately 'easy' and 'interesting', and felt moderately 'attracted' towards, and 'accepted' by, their partner (average mean for the eight items = 4.23 on seven-point Likert-type scale, where the higher the score, the greater the degree of acceptance etc). Those who had yet to meet Dateline members rated potential encounters with such members as also likely to be 'average' on the criteria (measured average mean for the 4 items = 3.9 per

item). Overall therefore, (and unsurprisingly) the agency members felt that the people they were likely to meet through the agency were likely to be 'average' on the criteria measured.

ii. Evaluation of the suitability of the present situation for relationship development

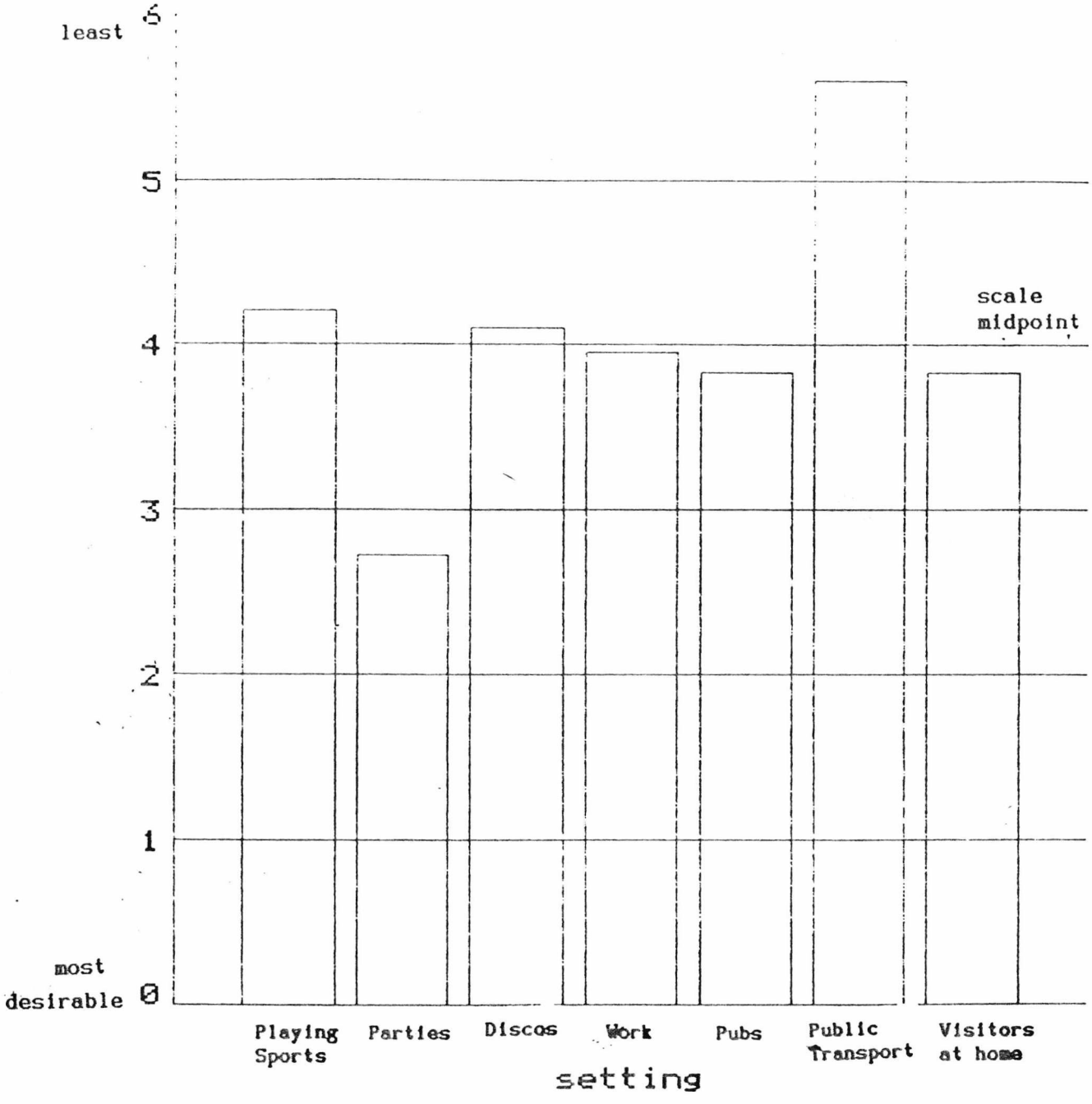
Some situations were judged to be more desirable for forming relationships than others and the desirability of various settings are illustrated in the histograms in figure 6.2.

From this figure it can be seen that most situations were rated around the '4' mark, where '4' represents the scale midpoint and indicates that the situations were 'average' in terms of their suitability for relationship formation. The two exceptions to this were parties, which were generally rated as 'appropriate' for relationship formation (mean 2.73 out of 7, where the lower scores indicates high 'appropriateness') and 'public transport', which was deemed 'inappropriate' (mean 5.63 out of 7).

Mean scores, however, obscure some interesting trends in the data. The data for the disco setting was tri-polar: 13 respondents rated discos as 'excellent' for meeting partners, 13 rated them 'average to good' and 20 rated them as 'not at all suitable'. Similarly, 15 respondents rated pubs as 'excellent' for meeting partners, whilst another 15 rated them as 'average'. Personal experiences probably play a large part in such determinations, and must be considered in any detailed prospective analysis.

Few respondents filled in the 'free-response' questions (asking about

Fig 6.2 Desirability of settings for (future) relationship development



the situations in which they felt most comfortable/uncomfortable). Therefore responses to this question were not analysed.

iii. Ability to communicate

It will be remembered that two measures were taken of the 'ability to communicate'. These are described individually below.

A pencil and paper test of dating and assertion skills: the DAQ.

Both males and females scored similarly on this test, and scores were therefore combined (male: N=37 x=51.76; female N=37 x=51.89. A two-sample t-test of sex differences shows no differences: p=0.96)

Unfortunately, Levenson and Gottman fail to provide an indication of what they would consider a 'normal' score for this measure, but three reported studies have provided other scores on the DAQ. These three studies are summarised in table 6e.

Table 6e. Previous scores on Levenson & Gottman's DAQ scale (1978)

Authors	Participants	Scores
Reis et al (1980)	43 male (students)	56.26
	53 female (students)	59.41
Katzman & Wolchik (1984)	80 female students (30 bulimics)	50.93
	(22 binge eaters)	54.64
	(28 control)	56.03
Rudy et al (1982)	64 male (students)	Assertive: 67.5
		Mod assert 57.6
		Low assert 46.8

Abbreviations: assert(ive): Mod(erately).

A meta-analysis incorporating the three studies in table 6e gives an average DAQ score of 56.39. Dating agency members scored considerably lower than this - compared to the data of Reis et al (1980) and

Katzman & Wolchik's (1984) control group this difference is very notable ($p<0.0001$ in each case), and the participants in this study also scored lower than Katzman and Wolchik's 'binge eaters' ($p<0.05$: the present respondents scores were similar to the bulimics group $p<0.60$). The dating agency scores also compared unfavourably with Rudy et al's (1982) assertive group ($p<0.0001$) and their moderately assertive group ($p<0.0001$). Scores compared *favourably* with Rudy et al's 'low assertiveness' group ($p<0.0001$).

Videotaped behaviour.

The *nonverbal analysis* of social skills provided some interesting data, although numbers of participants were limited (N=38) as participants had to a) be present at the experimental evenings and b) be prepared to be filmed. The various types of NVC measured are listed below. For all the nonverbal analyses, scores were obtained from two independent researchers (Cronbach's α for interjudge agreement = .76). The various nonverbal behaviours of the respondents are tabulated below (table 6f).

Table 6f: Nonverbal behaviours of dating agency members in mixed-sex interviews

Behaviour under consideration	Most frequent behaviour	Frequency of nonskilled behaviours
Proximity	62% within "normal" range	35% "too distant but does not create a negative impression"
Looking	74% "normal gaze frequency and pattern"	14% slightly over/ underlook: 11% look markedly too little
Orientation	66% "normal...for casual personal interaction"	29% "turned slightly away"...without creating a bad impression
Facial expression	75% "normal range of emotional expressions"	14% "inexpressive but not unpleasant": 8% "inappropriately negative" expressions
Posture tonus	64% sat "too stiffly" or "too slouched" 24% normal "relaxed" position	
Posture position	63% "slightly reclined or closed" 34% notably overreclined/closed	
Gestures	39% "normal amount and variety of gestures"	24% notably restricted range 30% "abnormally limited" in gestures

As can be seen from this table, the largest amount of "unskilled behaviour" was observed in relation to posture and gesturing.

Scores on the two measures of communication skills, the DAQ and the nonverbal behaviour analysis, were also intercorrelated. The resulting correlation was reasonably encouraging for any assertions of complementary measurement (Pearson r=.49), especially given claims

that self-reports and behavioural methods measure "two quite different domains" (Olson, 1977: 117).

Conversational behaviours

These were analysed by using the audio-recordings made during the experimental evenings. Unfortunately, in the short interval for which participants were recorded, few useful indications arose concerning the specific conversational behaviours under investigation. Mean scores for the various occurrence of these conversational behaviours are listed in table 6g. The only conversational device to be used with any frequency by participants was the joke: one participant joked three times and another seven times during their brief exchange (!).

Table 6g: The use of particular conversational behaviours by 38 Dateline members

Item under consideration	Frequency of occurrence
Intimacy of conversational input	All conversations rated as 'appropriate in intimacy' except one (very intimate) and one (nonintimate)
Clarifications	Only 3 occurred in all 38 conversations: these occurred during 3 separate conversations
Ambiguities	Only 2 occurred in all 38 conversations: these occurred during 2 separate conversations
Jokes	Average of 0.37 per person (!)
Metacommunication	None at all
References to others present	Only 3 occurred in all 38 conversations: these occurred during 3 separate conversations
Questions	Average of 0.34 per person (!)
Evaluations of others present	Only one occurred in all 38 conversations
'Oh' (use of)	None audible

iv. Self-esteem

The Rosenberg self-esteem scale is a Guttmann scale with each item ranging from a possible score of 1 (low self-esteem) to 4 (high self-esteem). Scores for the participants on the modified Rosenberg self-esteem scale (which involved just six questions, possible range 6 (low) - 24 (high)) averaged at 16.73: the mean response was for participants to claim that they 'agreed' that they had 'good qualities' (and to disagree with the statement that they 'wished they could have more respect for themselves'). However, participants failed to strongly endorse any agreement/disagreement with the scale

statements.

Given the modified version of the Rosenberg scale used for this analysis it is difficult to make a direct comparison between the scores of the dating agency participants and those obtained by other researchers using other samples. However, using a z-test transformation, the agency respondents' scores are modified to 27.89, a score significantly lower than the participants in most other studies (these 'other participants' are usually the omnipresent university students: e.g. Shrauger and Sorman's (1977) respondents scored a mean of 29.4 (z test comparison between samples = -2.62 $p<.005$); Shrauger and Terbovic's (1976) participants scored 32.3 (z = -7.77, $p<.001$). Nevertheless, the participants in the present study did score higher than the moderately depressed informants in Reynold and Coats' recent study of adolescents (1986: 'z' scores for Reynold's respondents are only available for their randomly assigned groupings, but ranged from 3.56 (the agency members score higher than the adolescents $p< .001$) to 9.50 (the agency members score higher again. $p< .0001$).

v. Social support

Agency members here recorded a mean score of 5.65 out of a possible score of 10, indicating that they felt only moderately accepted by their friends (standard deviation = 2.72). Grace & Schill (1986) used this scale with 118 male undergraduates in their analysis of trust, and these authors dichotomized their participants into 'high trust' (N=60, $\bar{x}$=14.85) and 'low trust' (N=58, $\bar{x}$=12.29) groups. Once again using a Z test transformation for proportions, the scores from the

dating agency sample were modified to give a full-test score (full score = 11.29). This score was significantly lower than the scores reported by Grace & Schill for high trust individuals ($z=-7.82$ $p<0.001$) and is even marginally lower than these authors' scores for low-trust respondents ($z=-1.64$; $p<0.10$).

vi. Partner preferences

The three measures constructed for examination of partner preferences were outlined in Chapters 4 and 5. The preferences of the dating agency members are reported below.

Scores on the rank preference measure

Mean scores for the rank preference measure are reported below (table 6h), alongside those scores recorded by myself and Buss and Barnes (1986) and discussed in the earlier studies reported in this thesis (chapters 4 and 5).

Table 6h: Order of desirability for the ranked preferences by origin of sample

Factor ranking	-------sample-------		
	Buss and Barnes (1986: student)	Goodwin (1989: students)	Goodwin (1989: Dateline)
1st	Kind-considerate	Kind-considerate	Kind-considerate
2nd	Socially exciting	Socially exciting	Socially exciting
3rd	Artistic-intell	Easygoing-adap.	Easygoing-adap.
4th	Easygoing-adap.	Artistic-intell	Artistic-intell
5th	Politically cons	Politically cons	Politically cons

Abbreviations: adap(table); intell(igent); cons(ervative). 'Students' refers to the student/supermarket sample discussed in chapter 4.

It can be seen from this table that dating agency member's order of partner preferences are identical to those of my earlier sample, and, with the exception of the respective ordering of the 'Artistic-intelligent' and 'Socially exciting' factors, represent the same ordering of preferences as that reported by the participants in Buss and Barnes' (1986) student sample. Figure 6.3 compares the factor scores for the dating agency sample with my earlier student sample using mean item scores as the point of comparison (i.e. the average rankings of the four items in the 'kind-considerate' factor, the average rankings of the four items in the 'socially-exciting' factor etc). As can be seen, scores were closely correlated across samples (Pearson's correlation r=.97). Concentrating on just the present (Dateline) study, a comparison of sex differences in terms of the ranked preferences - again using the average rankings of the four items in the factors - shows the strong degree of agreement between the sexes (Figure 6.4): indeed there were no statistical differences between the sexes in this sample.

Fig 6.3: Scores on ranking measure

by origin of sample

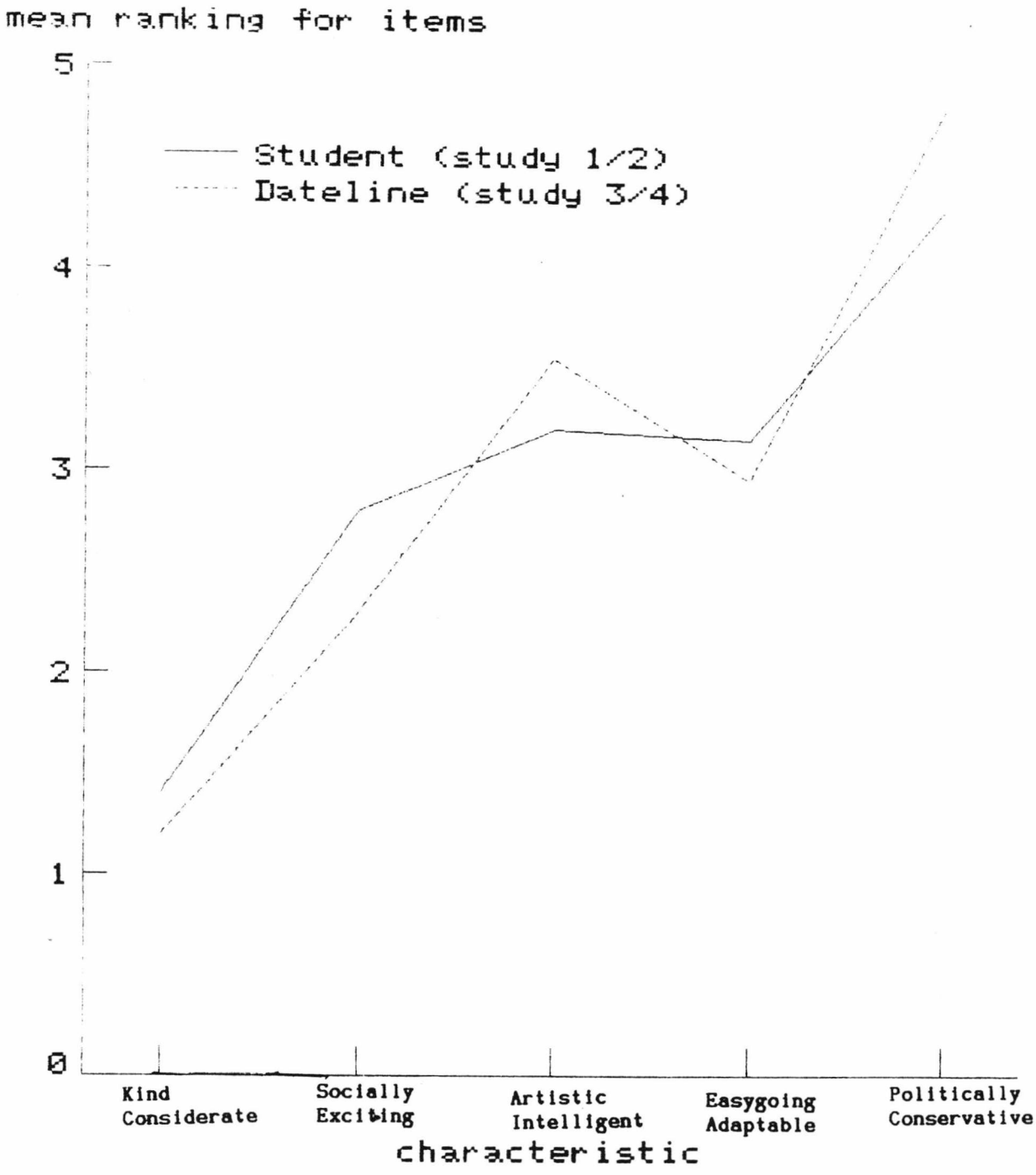
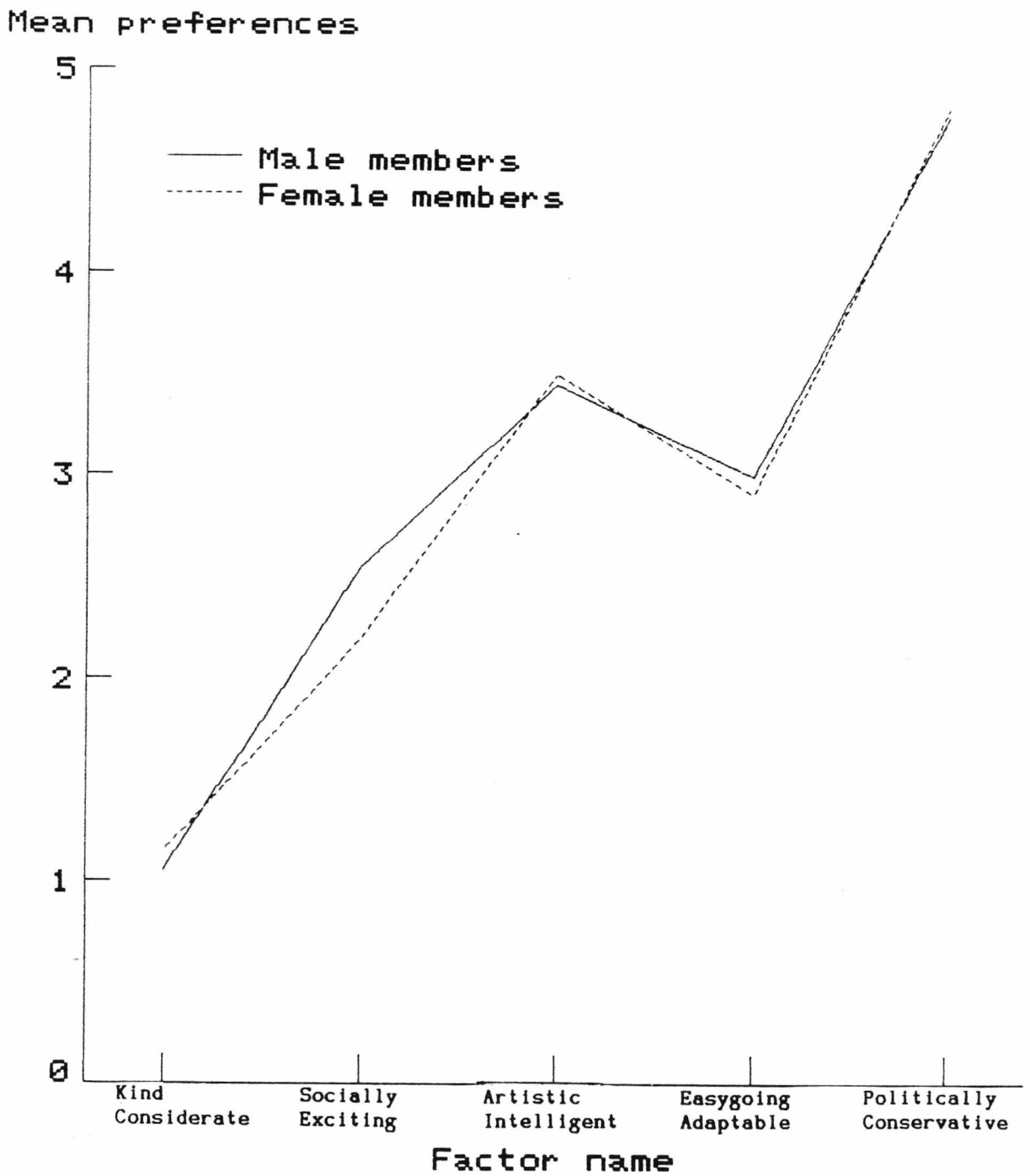


Fig 6.4: Ranked partner preferences

Dateline sample only

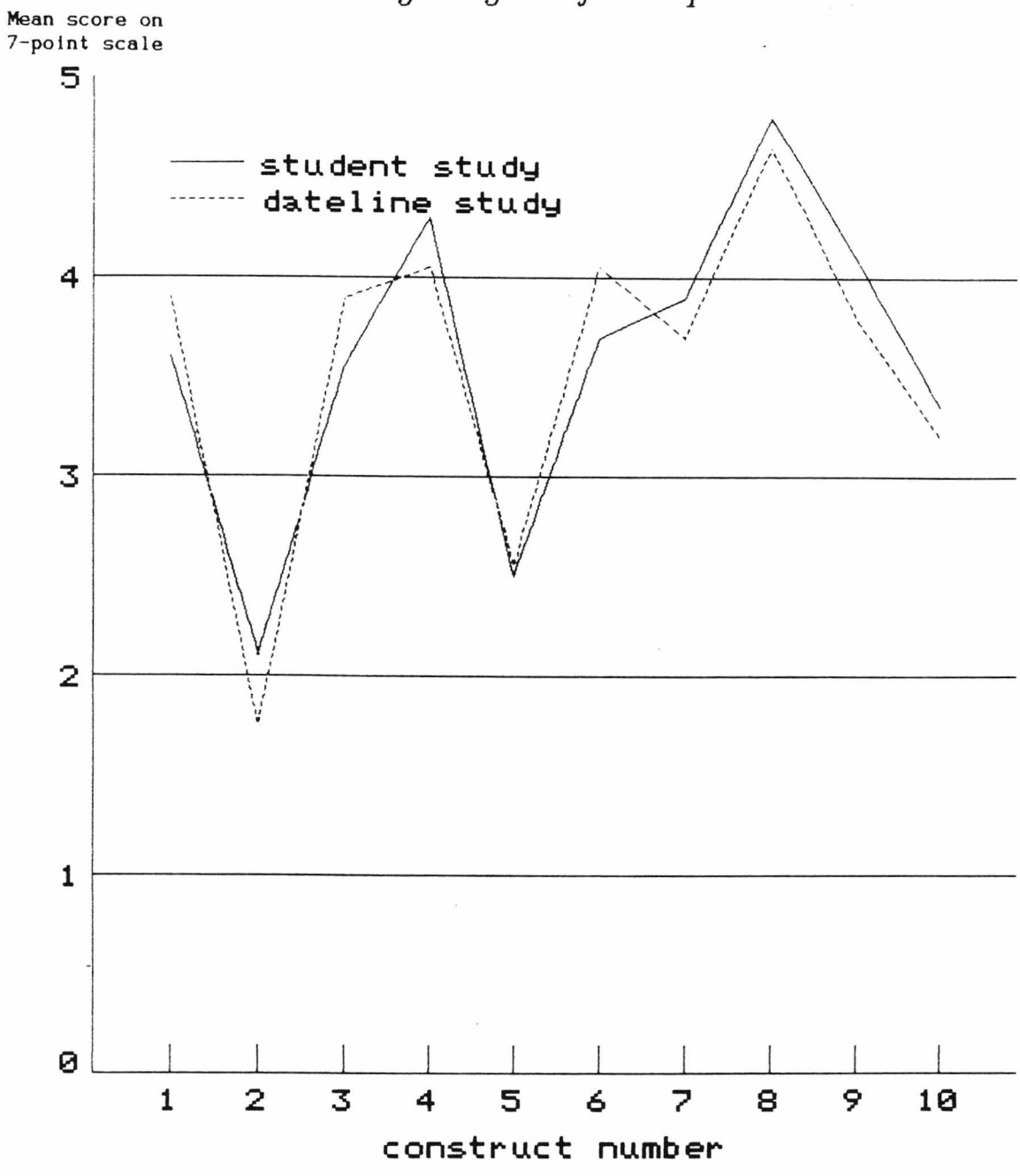


The bipolar preference measure

Mean scores for the Dateline sample on this measure are recorded below (figure 6.5), alongside mean scores for the ten construct scores reported in my earlier (and similar) study described in chapter 4. The ten constructs listed on the horizontal axis correspond to the ten constructs listed in chapter 4. A statistical comparison between the samples demonstrates high correlation between the two cohorts (Pearson correlational r=.94). In only one case (construct 6, the dimensions '*aggressive-timid*'), did the mean preferences for a partner indicate a difference between samples in which 'side' of a bi-polar construct participants preferred (student participants had a marginal tendency to prefer the aggressive side of the aggressive-timid continuum, Dateline members marginally preferred the timid). The most extreme indications of preference were similar across samples (i.e. the clear preferences for honesty and humour and, to a lesser extent, preferences for extraversion and a partner who enjoys 'being with others' (rather than being alone)).

Fig 6.5: Bi-polar partner preferences

by origin of sample



Concentrating once again on the present (Dateline) sample, there were two statistically significiant sex differences: women preferred the 'domineering' (rather than submissive) man and an extraverted (rather than introverted) partner. These sex differences were also found in the student sample reported earlier. One other sex difference which was identified in the earlier student study (men like women who are more the 'loner' type) was not clearly (i.e. significantly) evident in the present dating agency analysis.

As the completion of construct 'importance ratings' proved to be a very time-consuming task for the participants in the previous student study, and as the vast majority of the earlier respondents rated the personal constructs as 'relevant' to their conception of a romantic partner, construct importance ratings were omitted from the analysis in the present investigation.

The free-response measure

In general, the participants in the Dateline study demonstrated a wide diversity of preferences for a partner when presented with the task of free-listing their preferences. The top 10 preferences in the earlier (student) study are here compared with those obtained from the Dateline sample (Table 61)

Table 6i: Top Free-response preferences for a partner by origin of sample

Preference ranking	-------sample-------	
	Goodwin (1989) Student / Supermarket	Goodwin (1989) Dateline sample
1st	Friendship (18%)	Personality (16%) Good looks (16%) Honesty (16%)
2nd	Honesty (15%)	
3rd	Love (10%) Understanding (10%)	
4th		Love (9%) Fun (9%)
5th	Companionship (8%)	Friendship (7%)
6th	Fun (7%) Personality (7%) Intelligence (7%)	Similarity (5%) Kind-caring (5%) Humour (5%) Trust (5%) Height (5%)
9th	Humour (6%)	
10th	Good looks (5%) Loyalty (5%)	

Note: Occurrences are listed as rounded percentages in the parantheses. Note that, because of ties, the top 11 (rather than 10) preferences are listed for the student/supermarket sample(!)

As can be seen from the above table, there were several differences in the free-choices made by the two samples. The most notable difference is the prominent positioning of 'good looks' by the Dateline members. Friendship was not as highly rated by the Dateline participants, but if trust and 'similarity' are included within the category of 'friendship' (as might seem sensible) then the percentage of respondents naming friendship as first-choice jumps to 17% ('pole'

position). Honesty and love were highly rated by both samples, as were fun and personality. Perhaps predictably, intelligence was more highly rated in the earlier sample than amongst the Dateline candidates (there were a majority of students in the earlier sample). Interestingly, 'personality' followed by 'good looks' were also the top two free choices for a partner reported by Woll and Van Der Meer (1986 unpub. cited in Woll and Cozby, 1987).

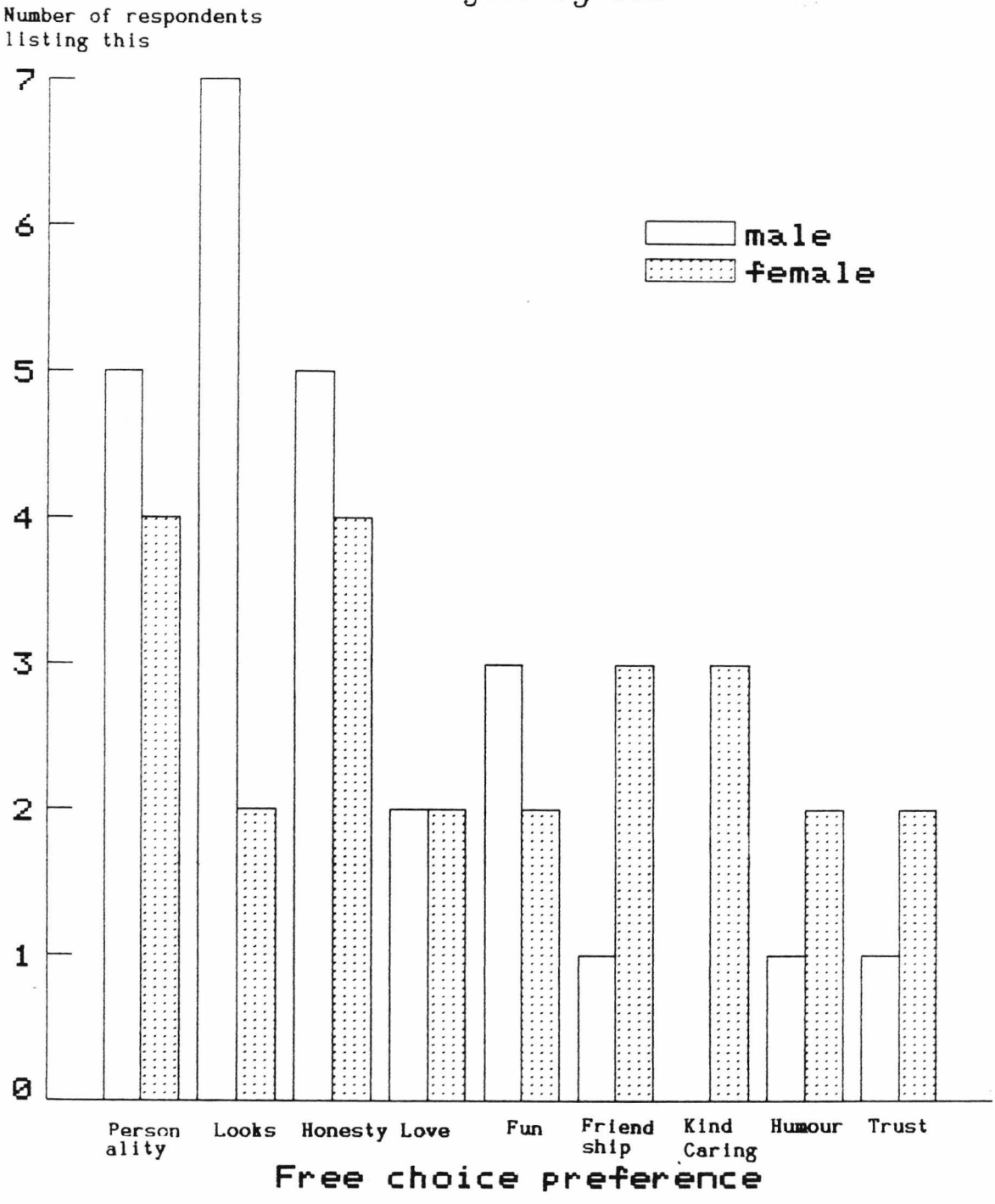
Figure 6.6 serves to illustrate sex differences in the Dateline member's free listings of partner preferences (note that in a few cases sex was not identifiable from the returned questionnaires, and therefore these responses could not be entered into the sex analysis). From this figure it is clear that there were few major sex differences in these preferences with the exception of 'looks' (as was expected, males stress the value of looks more than females: see the introduction to chapter 4). Females stressed the kind/caring dimension of a partner more than males: this was unexpected, as both sexes gave high priority to the kind/considerate dimension in the fixed rank listings (see above).

The relationship between free-choice preferences and ranking preferences

The top free-responses were compared with the ordering of the top ranked preferences as in study 1 (see chapter 4 of this thesis). Overall agreement between these forms of preference was a reasonably encouraging 64%.

Fig 6.6: "Top ten" partner preferences

Analysis by sex



6.4.2: Additional variables of interest

As indicated in the Introduction to this chapter, scores on a number of other variables were collected. These scores are discussed below.

Relationship investment: a measure of attitudes

Lund's investment scale was used for the measurement of attitude towards relationships. This investment scale employs 12 items, each accompanied by a seven-point Likert type scale (thus the maximum score is 84 and the minimum 12). Participants in the present study scored a mean of 59.92 (median 61, mode 60), and a t-test for sex differences indicated no significant sex differences ($t = -.86$; $p<.40$). This suggests that the respondents believe that, on the whole, they would invest fairly highly in any romantic relationship.

Using the z-test transformation technique to project results over the full scale if it is possible to compare the present scores with Lund's own results (Lund's participants were all University students involved in relationships of more than two years duration). Such a comparison suggests that the Dateline members scored rather low on projected investment in comparison ($z=.-1.84$; $p<.03$), although it must be stressed that the two samples are not directly compatible (Lund's participants were already involved in relationships, whereas the dating agency members were still single and were simply anticipating future interactions).

Love: a measure of attitudes and anticipated behaviour

Romantic love has been seen as a prerequisite for marriage by both men and women (Simpson et al, 1986) In this study, two measures were taken

of the variable 'Love' - an attitudinal measure (Munro and Adams, 1978) and a measure of anticipated behaviour (derived from Sternberg, 1986). The *Munro - Adams* scale consists of three subscales: romantic ideal, conjugal-rational love and romantic power. Participants' judgements were this time recorded on 5-point Likert-type scales. Dateline members' 'ideal love' scores averaged out at a total of 19.16 across the 5 items (scale range 5-25, s.d. 4.05), giving a mean item score of 3.83 (where the higher the score, the more strongly the attitude is held). Participants also recorded a similar score for their belief in 'conjugal love' (scale range 4-20; $\bar{x}$ item score = 3.59 s.d. 3.55), but scored less highly on 'romantic power' (scale range 4-20; $\bar{x}$ item score = 2.73 s.d. 3.71: here, high scores on this last index imply a belief in love as 'a powerful interpersonal force' (Munro and Adams, 1978: 217). There were no sex differences on the three subscales when measured scale by scale, although there was a marginal statistical difference between the sexes when the three subscales are added to form one score (1-tail t-test $p<.06$: men are the higher scores). It is worth noting in passing that this overall lack of difference between the sexes runs contrary to the great majority of studies in this area, which conclude that men are generally more idealistic than women in love (see Hendrick, 1988, for a review). As the present study used a shortened version of the full scales, it is again necessary to make some projections about the scale scores derived in order to compare the scores with those of other researchers. Payne and Vandewiele (1987) provide a useful summary of past applications of the Munro-Adams scale, and present scale scores obtained when giving the scale to American, Ugandan, Senegalese and

Caribbean informants. This variety of scores is presented alongside the Dateline data in Table 6j.

Table 6j. Mean item scores for five samples on the Munro-Adams love attitude scale

Munro-Adams Subscales (Dateline)	-------Sample------- American	Ugandan	Senegalese	Caribbean	British
Conjugal love	4.79	3.94	3.89	3.76	3.59
Romantic Idealism	4.04	3.70	3.76	4.02	3.83
Romantic Power	2.94	3.18	3.69	3.18	2.73

Note: Data for the American, Ugandan, Senegalese and Caribbean scores is derived from Payne and Vandewiele (1987): for the purposes of comparison, scores are item *means*, obtained by dividing the scale scores by the number of items in the scale.

These means show that the Dateline participants scored less highly on 'conjugal' love than any other of the above populations ($z = -2.22$: $p<.01$). Idealisation of love amongst the agency participants, however, was not as rare as for the Ugandan and Sengalese respondents, although it was notably rarer than for the American and Caribbean informants. The belief in the 'romantic power' of love was lower in the present study than in the other cited studies but this difference was not statistically significant.

The Sternberg scale was taken from recent work by Sternberg (1986). Participants once again indicated their choices on 5-point Likert-type scales, this time indicating how they would *act* in a close relationship, with scores ranging from a possible 4-20 (on the intimacy scale), 5-25 (passion scale) and 4-20 (decision/commitment

scale), with the higher the score, the more likely the particular behaviour. Generally, the agency participants believed that they would show a high degree of intimacy in a close relationship (overall scale score = 17.36, $\bar{x}$ score per item = 4.34, s.d. 2.82); a slightly less (but nevertheless keen) degree of passion (overall scale score = 20.32, $\bar{x}$ per item = 4.06, s.d. 3.28) and showed a slightly lesser concern with decision/commitment (overall scale score = 15.64, $\bar{x}$ score per item = 3.91, s.d. 3.32). According to Sternberg (1986), a high degree of intimacy and passion (but a lesser concern with decision/commitment) is indicative of the 'romantic lover'. This result was perhaps unsurprising given the general finding that romanticism is greatest in the young (Hendrick, 1988), and Sternberg himself has recently reported that the 'ideal lover' is generally regarded as high on 'intimacy', moderately high on 'passion' and lower on 'commitment/decision' (Sternberg, 1989, unpub).

A number of interesting correlations arose from a comparison of the Munro-Adams and the adapted Sternberg scales. Munro and Adams' 'Romantic idealism' correlated significantly with both Sternberg's 'Intimacy' scale scores (Pearson r correlation significant $p<.001$) and his 'Commitment/Decision' scale scores (Pearson r correlation significant at $p<.02$). The first of these correlations is indeed what might have been expected (intimacy is part of any romantic ideal), but the second correlation is more difficult to explain. As might have predicted, Munro-Adams' notion of 'conjugal love' is negatively related to Sternberg's notion of 'passion' (significant at $p<.02$), and positively related to the latter's notion of 'commitment/decision' (significant at $p<.006$). However, Munro-Adams 'Romantic power' was

also positively correlated with Sternberg's 'commitment/decision' (significant at $p<.01$), a correlation for which no obvious explanation comes to mind. The results of this exercise in correlation therefore seem to be confusing. The strongest relationships are indeed those that might be expected: 'romantic idealism' is linked with intimacy, 'conjugal love' with commitment and decision. However, all these relationships require more detailed examination in future research.

Relationship experience measures

Two measures were taken of relationship experience, asking respectively for the number and length of respondents' past relationships. On average, respondents had been involved in just over 5 previous relationships, although the distribution of relationship length was bi-polar (with a fairly large number of respondents (31%) having experienced no relationship longer than one month, but the majority (51%) having had relationships of more than three months). There were notable sex differences: women had experienced more relationships over the last two years ($\bar{x}$ = 7.37 vs male mean of 3.13 two-tail t-test $p<.01$), and had had longer relationships than men (two-tail t-test $p<.02$).

The lengthy duration of these relationships is rather surprising, given Freemon's (1976) contention that in computer dating "very few long-term involvements grow out of such initial acquaintances" (52). Contrary to expectations (see section 6.2.2) there was no significant correlation between length of previous relationship and investment score ($p<.15$). Interestingly, however, those with the longer past relationships were very negative towards the Munro-Adams dimensions of

conjugal love (correlation significant at p<.003) and romantic power (correlation significant at p<.002), which may indicate that the participants had had unsatisfactory previous experiences.

Dating agency information

A wide range of variables were examined by using the information provided by the dating agency. Scores on these variables are briefly outlined below. It must be remembered here that results are at best suggestive, as only small numbers of participants were involved (N=23)

Participants *self-descriptions* suggest that the participants were not notably unusual in physical characteristics - the modal height was between 5ft 6" and 5ft 11", the modal weight just over 10 stones, the modal age (already limited by selection criteria) was between 23 and 24 years of age. Participants mainly had 'skin colouring typical of Central or Northern Europe' (Dateline's terminology), claimed to be predominantly of 'slim' build, rated themselves as 'attractive' (rather than 'very attractive' or 'not attractive') and 'drank occasionally'. Education and schooling were, however, indicative of a 'middle-class' bias to the membership (see section 6.3, above). Overall, few of the informants claimed to have any interest in politics.

The *partners desired* by the respondents reflected their own physical characteristics and personal background. Agency members sought partners between 5'3" and 6' in height and aged between 21 and 28 (age is also widely recognized as an important variable in newspaper advertisements c.f. Abu-Lughod and Amin, 1961). Participants

overwhelmingly preferred individuals with 'skin colouring typical of''Central or Northern Europe' and most were prejudiced against partners who had 'skin colouring typical of' the 'Middle East', 'India/Pakistan/Asia' (sic) or 'Africa or American Negro' (there was also a lesser discrimination against those with 'skin colouring typical of' China, Japan 'or Oriental' (sic) and Southern Europe / Latin). This finding appears to be similar to one reported in the first major computer-dating study (Coombs and Kenkel, 1966), who noted that race was important for a high proportion of their respondents. Physical attractiveness was also an important concern of the present participants (as indeed it is for members of videodating agencies (Woll, 1986) and those who advertise themselves in newspapers (Cameron et al, 1977)): the preferred partner was 'normally built' with the informants being unwilling to meet the 'well built' or 'heavily built'. Those who rated themselves as of 'average' attractiveness were the most clearly welcomed, although (unsurprisingly) the 'very attractive' were also desired (the 'not attractive' were *not* desired). Drinking habits were 'irrelevant' to most of the agency respondents, although 'occasional drinkers' were the most popular. Most did not worry about educational experience, although those with no such experience were rejected by some informants. Schooling was irrelevant to almost all participants, as were most religions with the exceptions of Judaism and Muslim (which were those religions least desired). Few were concerned about the politics of their partner.

The various personality and interest variables are more difficult to interpret because of the lack of a clear and continuous scoring system for the participants (and, of course, because of the small numbers of

participants involved). The following factor interpretations must be therefore treated as purely heuristic. All factor analyses were conducted with the aid of the SPSSX principal components and varimax rotation packages. In each case eigen values exceeded unity and item loadings were greater than .3 on the factors concerned.

Personality variables: a principal components analysis suggests an 8-factor solution for a factor analysis of the personality items, and these factors are listed below, alongside the two highest-loading items on each factor when varimax rotation is applied (Table 6k). This combination of principal components analysis and varimax rotation is useful for analysing a large number of variables (Lipton and Nelson, 1980). The 8 factors account for 83.2% of the item variance. However, it must be noted at this point that this data was far from ideal for factor analysis (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test for sampling adequacy = .17).

Table 6k. The 8 principal factors for the Dateline 'personality' variables

Factor name	Two highest loading items	Item loadings
Unassertive	'I find it easy to say 'no' when criticised'	-.890
	'I lose confidence when I am criticised'	.732
Quiet	'I am usually the one who talks the most'	-.791
	'I am easily persuaded'	.686
?!	'I don't care too much what other people think of me'	.754
	'I usually fit my views in with those of others'	.730
Expressive	'I find it easy to express my views'	.836
	'I find it easy to express my emotions'	.788
Acquiescent	'I don't like to make a scene by complaining'	.832
	'I will complain when unfairly treated'	-.736
Non-conversation	'I soon give up trying to keep a conversation going'	.895
Indecisive	'I prefer someone else to make decisions'	.819
	'I usually end up getting my own way'	-.757
In control	'I don't hesitate to leave boring situations'	.932
	'I like to keep my emotions under control'	.533

Note: Factor 6 contained only one item, whilst the third factor seemed to contain contradictory items, which were both similarly loaded making interpretation problematic. Factors were obtained through varimax rotation.

A similar analysis was carried out for the next set of items, the 'relationship preferences' questions (see table 61, below). Principal factor analysis again extracted 8 factors, which accounted for 84.9% of the variance, when varimax rotation was applied. However, sampling adequacy was again suspect (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of adequacy = .22).

Table 6l. The 8 principal factors for the Dateline 'relationship' variables

Factor name	Two highest loading items	Item loadings
Independent	'I prefer to solve my problems on my own'	.918
	'Most of my friends see me as a source of emotional support'	.862
Talk through problems	'If I have a confrontation with a friend, I prefer to talk the problem out.'	.891
Anxious	'I get anxious about developing friendships'	.860
	'I like quiet, subtle humour'	.692
Easygoing	'I enjoy 'zany' types of humour most'	.900
	'I'm looking for some easy-going, undemanding friendships'	.683
Special relationship	'I am looking for one special relationship'	.845
Intimacy	'I prefer to develop my relationships in intimate surroundings'	.818
	'I prefer to have long lasting relationships'	.804
Commonality	'Friendships for me, mean working towards some common goal'	.867
Challenging	'I like friends who challenge my views'	.920

Note: factors 2, 5, 7 and 8 contain only one high-loading item.

Similar analyses were carried out with Lifestyle and Work attitudes, but the sampling adequacy figures were so low (.125 for lifestyle and .083 for Work attitudes) that details on these analyses are not presented here. Sampling adequacy was more promising for the items purporting to measure 'interests and activities', and principal components analyses for 'preferred places to spend an evening out', 'home activities' and 'hobbies' (all part of this 'interest and activities' measure) are presented below (Tables 6m to 6o)

Table 6m. The 3 principal factors for the Dateline 'night out' questions

Factor name loadings	Loading items	Item
Traditionalists	Eating Out	.802
	Cinema	.758
	Clubs/Discos	.728
	Dancing	.635
Culture lovers	Concerts	.801
	Opera/Ballet	.734
	Theatre	.685
Party lovers	Parties	.883
	Dinner parties	.722
	Pubs/Wine bars	.524

Note: The 3 principal factors explain 63.1% of the variance when using varimax rotations. Sampling adequacy using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin formula = .38.

Table 6n. The 4 principal factors for the Dateline "home interests" variables

Factor name loadings	Loading items	Item
DIY	DIY	.715
	Reading	.676
	Gardening	.669
	Cooking/Entertaining	.585
Music lover	Listening to music	.834
	Watching T.V.	-.678
	Listening to the radio	-.560
Children	Being with children	.628
	Watching televised sport	-.590
Pets	Pets	.640

Note: The 4 principal factors explain 69.5% of the variance when using varimax rotation. Sampling adequacy using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin formula = .48

Table 6o. The 3 principal factors in the Dateline "hobbies" variables

Factor name loadings	Loading items	Item
Active	Photography	.786
	Foreign Travel	.777
	Playing Sport	.741
	Motoring/Travelling	.642
	Ballroom Dancing	.603
Passive	Keep Fit	-.833
	The Arts	.793
Passive sightseer	Sightseeing	.764
	Walking/Hiking	-.575
	Countryside	.513

Note: These three principal factors explain 62.7% of the variance using varimax rotation. Sampling adequacy using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin formula = .54.

Participants' scores on principal factors

An analysis of frequencies data for the respondents illuminates some interesting aspects of their attitudes. Participants' personality *self*-descriptions mainly fell within the factor categories 'unassertive', 'acquiescent', and 'expressive', which suggests that the respondents value the 'quiet life' (this finding supports the early conclusion of Wallace, 1959, that "correspondence club" members are low on sociability). Participants *sought* an intimate and long-term relationship (as do members of videodating agencies: Woll and Cozby, 1987) and spurned the partner who wanted many short-lived affairs. Turning to interests and activities, our participants enjoyed 'a night out' everywhere but the 'cultural' setting of the theatre, etc. and when at home, they could best be described as 'music lovers', although they also read in their spare time. As hobbies, they enjoyed the relatively passive act of sightseeing, but also the more active pursuits of motoring/travelling, foreign travel and keeping fit.

Perhaps unsurprisingly (given the age group) they did not participate in ballroom dancing...

6.5: Discussion

Given the amount of data generated by the above analyses, it is difficult to draw any simple conclusion from the patterns in the data. However, some indications of the nature of the sample and the validity of the study can be gathered by addressing the following questions.

6.5.1. Are dating agency members different?

The brief conclusions are summarised here in Tables 6p and 6q. Many of the scores obtained are for new measures for which there is no obvious comparison between this and other studies, and in table 6p results for the data are summarised for the situation where no natural comparisons can be made with past work.

These scores indicate that the agency participants were in no way 'unusual' amongst their peers in their attitudes and activities. However, when established scales are used to examine other aspects of respondents' personalities and self-concept, and the scores obtained for the present sample are contrasted with the scores obtained from other populations, differences do emerge. These are clearly demonstrated below (Table 6q)

Table 6p. Conclusions from 'patterns in the data' I (where there are no previously established scales for comparison of scores)

Measure	Conclusion	Results section
Agency members' opinions concerning other members	Members rated as 'average' people	i.
Suitable situations for relationship development	Parties are best, although personal experience plays a decisive role in such evaluations	ii.
Ability to communicate: nonverbal behaviour analysis	Only posture and gesturing seem to pose a problem: all other behaviours seemed appropriate	iii.
Ability to communicate: conversation analysis	Insufficient data	iii.
Love scale (adapted from Sternberg (1986; 1987)	Participants' responses were typical of the 'romantic' type	Add. measure
Relationship experiences	Participants' had an average of 5 relationships: most have experienced a relationship of more than 3 months duration.	Add. measure
Participants' self-descriptions and partner preferences *	Participants' wanted those similar to themselves in terms of physical characteristics and background	Add. measure
Participants' pers-ality descriptions	8 principal components emerge: most participants' were 'unassertive' and acquiescent	Add. measure
Participants' desires for a relationship partner ᵇ	8 principal components emerge: most participants' seek intimacy	Add. measure
Participants' preferred activities on a 'night out'	3 principal components emerge: most participants' are 'traditionalists' or 'party lovers'	Add. measure
Participants' home interests	4 principal components emerge: participants' particularly enjoy music	Add. measure
Participants' hobbies	3 principal components emerge: participants enjoy 'active' hobbies	Add. measure

Notes: Add. measure = additional measure. * items describe physical dimensions ᵇ items describe personality of partner required.

Table 6q. Conclusions from 'patterns in the data' II (where there are established scales for comparison of scores)

Measure	Conclusion	Results section
Dating and Assertion Questionnaire (DAQ)	Dating agency members score significantly lower on the DAQ than other populations measured elsewhere	iii
Self-esteem scale (SES)	Dating agency members generally score significantly lower on the SES than other populations measured elsewhere	iv
Social support scale	Dating agency members score significantly lower on this scale than other populations measured elsewhere	v
Partner preferences	These were generally similar to those reported in previous studies, although physical attractiveness was more highly rated by the agency participants (when giving their 'free responses')	vi
Relationship investment	Using an 'anticipated investment' scale the scores obtained were lower than those obtained for the scale used in the conventional manner	Add measure
Love (Munro and Adams scale)	Participants score lower on conjugal love and romantic power than do the participants in previous samples	Add measure

Abbreviation: Add(itional) measure.

Here, several lower-than-expected scores are notable. These may support the contention that dating agencies largely fail to live up to their glossy advertising (Duck, 1983; Murstein, 1986; Woll and Cozby, 1987) and it is possible that the very nature of the members attracted may be one obvious reason for this failure. Low scores on social

skills is the most obvious case in point: the low scores on social support are more difficult to interpret because whilst correlations have been found between social support and social skills in previous research (e.g. Sarason et al, 1985: in this study these variables correlated $r(76) = .29$ ($p<.005$) using a two-tail test), the direction of causality remains uncertain. Similarly, participants' low self-esteem may again result from, or contribute towards, the lack of a fulfilling support network (indeed, there is a (very) high correlation between self-esteem and social support: in the present investigation Pearson $r(76) = .96$ ($p<.0001$) using a two-tail test). The participants' low scores on relationship investment are perhaps less worrying: these may have resulted from the unusual nature of the administration of this measure, and were still quite high ($\bar{x} = 4.99$ on a 7-point scale where the higher the score, the higher the investment). And for all this depreciation of the agency participants, respondents were, at least, not cynical: their 'love' scores suggest, in fact, that Dateline members are really quite 'romantic' people. The conclusion from all this is that although dating agency members hold views and attitudes which are generally representative of the wider population, these participants can also be categorized as psychologically rather more withdrawn, unassertive and unassured than most. This is not *by necessity* a bad thing for the agency members: there is evidence to suggest that the *over*-assertive and competitive 'Type A' (female) is likely to suffer very erratic relationships with others (Rosenberg and Strube, 1986). Furthermore, it must be recognized that the comparisons made are often between very different

populations, and that sampling biases may have significantly influenced the results obtained.

6.5.2. How do the different measures complement one another

The relationship among the variables

The proposed interrelations between the main variables of interest in Part II of this thesis are outlined in Chapter 3 (figures 3.1. and 3.3), and again at the beginning of this chapter. The proof of these frameworks will lie in the testing of predictions, which is the task of the next chapter.

At this stage, it is premature to try to add to this framework the other 'additional variables' introduced in this chapter, but a cursory examination of the intercorrelations between these 'other' variables suggests the primitive set of path relations below (figure 6.7: only those intercorrelations which used scores from the complete sample are reported). The intercorrelations suggest that when participants had suffered, in the past, from poor relations with members of the opposite sex such experiences may have contributed towards a rather negative attitude towards all types of love. However, more optimistically, where agency members *were* willing to place faith in (mainly romantic) 'love', then they also envisaged a greater investment in future relationship. This greater investment should enable these particular (more optimistic) individuals to perform better in their forthcoming partnerships (Rusbult, 1979; 1980).

The validity of multiple measures

Where multiple measures have been used to estimate one variable, the

Figure 6.7: A speculation on the formation of relationship attitudes

¹Correlations with Munro-Adams scores

r(74)=-,17† (romantic ideal scale)
r(71)=-,32** (conjugal love scale)
r(72)=-,34** (romantic power scale)

²Correlations with Lund scores

On the Munro-Adams scale

r(76)=,48**** (romantic ideal scale)
r(74)=,29** (romantic power scale)

On the Sternberg scale

r(74)=,54**** (intimacy scale)
r(75)=,31** (passion scale)
r(76)=,40**** (decision/commitment scale)

**** p<,0001
*** p<,001
** p<,01
* p<,05
† p<,10

degree of correlation between the measures has been generally encouraging. Different measures of partner preferences complemented one another in a manner very similar to the previous studies reported in this thesis. The clearest interrelations between the two love scales were those most readily expected. Even the dating agency's own personality questions indicated that agency members were predominately non-assertive (see the DAQ scores) and preferred the quiet and nonthreatening individual (the kind and considerate personality?). The overlap between the different measures of social skills was also encouraging although far from ideal, but unfortunately the conversation analysis scheme used failed to provide sufficient data for a full 'nonverbal' examination.

6.5.3. Concluding remarks

Dating agency participants differ from the general population by being more withdrawn and less assertive and socially skilled, and they add to their suffering by having a lesser (friendship) support network and by having a lower opinion of themselves than other populations. This is interesting as no other research has produced such extensive data on such agencies, and the results allow for a location of that proportion of the population for whom the following prospective analyses may apply, whilst identifying interrelations between variables which may be valid for populations beyond the present sample. Other than this, participants' desires and aspirations seemed to be quite 'normal', if a little romantic, and respondents looked for similar attributes in a partner as students. The questionnaire designed for this sample seems to tap a wide range of variables in a

coherent manner, and in most cases the multiple scales employed complement one another. The task of the next chapter is to see to what extent these questionnaire can help successfully predict future relationship prediction within a longitudinal design.

Footnotes for chapter 6

[1] A rigorous application of scientific methodology is generally lacking in most investigations into conversation: see Mishler's (1975) claim that:

> "sociolinguistic literature is still weighted towards programmatic statements: it is rich in hypotheses and assertions but relatively sparse in systematic methods and detailed findings that bear on these hypotheses" (118).

[2] It is worth noting that the dating agency ask members about the 'type of partner they want' (in terms of age, ethnicity etc). This, of course, is similar to the precepts explored in this thesis concerning 'getting what you want' from a partner. However, when 'personality' is examined by the agency in matching partners, the dating agency reverts to the 'similars attract' formula.

[3] There is also a burgeoning interest in personal advertisements in newspapers and the like (Abu-Lughod and Amin, 1961; Cameron et al, 1977; Cockburn, 1988; Lynn and Bolig, 1985; Koestner and Wheeler, 1988; Sitton and Rippee, 1986). However, an analysis of just advertisements does not allow for the examination of interactional competency, and such an examination is essential for our present investigation.

[4] To protect confidentiality, potential participants were mailed by the dating agency, so that only the names of the individuals who agreed to participate would be known to me.

[5] I would like to thank Peter Musgrove, Ruchira Bose, Louise Parkinson, all of whom helped on one of the three evenings. I would like to record particular thanks to Steven Moston, who played 'cameraman' on all three occasions

Chapter 7

Predicting relationship formation II: the testing of the full initiation framework

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7.1: Introduction and aims of the study

Chapter 6 described various characteristics of a group of dating agency members and provided a comparison with other possible populations on a wide variety of measures. This chapter examines to what extent the predictions about relationship formation outlined in Chapter 3 are valid for this dating agency population.

Aims of this study

The two major aims of this study are as follows:-

a) To re-examine the relationships between the partner desired and the partner obtained in a manner similar to that described in chapter 5, but using a different population: dating agency members. Dateline respondents had 4 months to find a partner, and those who found such a partner were questionned in detail, as was their partner.

b) To introduce new variables into the relationship prediction equation, variables consonant with the frameworks suggested in Chapter 3 (Figures 3.1 and 3.3). These variables were expected to contribute towards the validity of the various predictions made in that chapter.

Three kinds of relationship outcome data are described in this chapter, henceforth referred to as (1) the 'behavioural data', (2) the 'partner data' and (3) the 'Dateline members data'. These 3 kinds of outcome data are tackled within a framework of three small sub-samples (parts 1 to 3 of this chapter) which are outlined in figure 7.1.

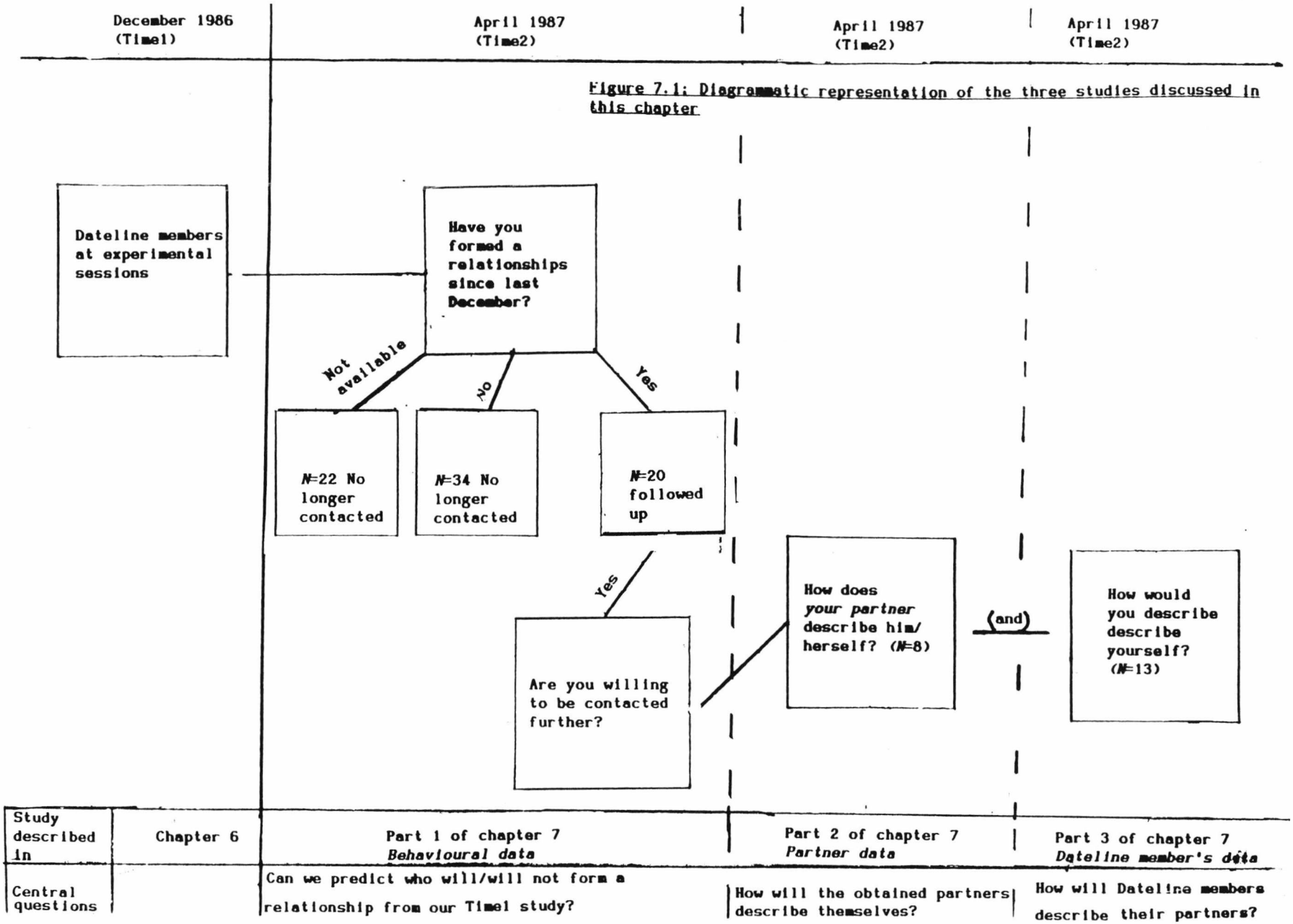

Figure 7.1: Diagrammatic representation of the three studies discussed in this chapter

Part 1 of this chapter uses *'the behavioural data'*: this is simply the Dateline members' statements as to whether or not they had formed a relationship since the time of their participation in the experiments described in chapter 6. Four questions are addressed:

(a) how does an individual's opinion of a group (e.g. Dateline members) affect his/her formation of a relationship with members of that group? (see figure 3.1 cell 3)

(b) how do self-esteem and communication ability affect the formation of new relationships? (see figure 3.1 cell 4)

(c) how does social support affect the formation of relationships? (cell 1, figure 3.1) and

(d) how do attitudes towards relationship investment and love affect the likelihood of relationship formation? (see the introduction to chapter 6).

Part 2 of this chapter uses *'the partner data'*, data obtained from the Dateline member's partner (these partners during the previous four months i.e. since the earlier experimental administrations). This data comes from scales selected from those given to the earlier Dateline participants. Here the central questions are (a) are relationships formed in particular, 'suitable' settings? (figure 3.1 cell 3) and (b) do individuals 'get what they want' in a relationship, when the measurement of 'what they have got' relies on their partner's own *self* descriptions.

In part 3 of this chapter *the 'Dateline members'* themselves are asked to provide 'the other side of the story', and thus once again make use of the long-suffering dating agency participants, this time to provide insight into how they view their partners. This data is used to once

again ask whether 'individuals get what they want', but now 'getting what they want' relies on a judgement made by one partner on the other i.e. it is *intra*personal data.

The hypotheses relevant to this data follow on from the discussions in chapters 3 and 6. These hypotheses can be subdivided in accordance with the three parts of this chapter and the three types of data described above.

7.2: Hypotheses

Hypotheses for part 1 of this chapter (using the behavioural data)

This set of data provides the opportunity to examine the greatest number of hypotheses.

H1: Those with poor social support are more likely to form a relationship which compensates for this deficit. **Therefore, Dateline members with poor social support (at time1: the time of the experimental sessions described in chapter 6) should be more likely to have found a relationshp at time2** (i.e. four months later).

H2: Those Dateline members with a positive attitude towards other Dateline members at time1 are most likely to have formed relationships with Dateline members by time2.

H3: Those most able to communicate successfully with the opposite sex at time1 are those most likely to have formed a relationship by time2.

H4: Those with high self-esteem at time1 are those most likely to have formed a relationship by time2.

H5: Dateline members who indicated a high prospective investment in any subsequent relationship are most likely to have formed a relationship by time2.

H6: 'Romantic' attitudes towards love have been found to be highly correlated with relationship investment (see Chapter 6). Therefore, **Dateline members who form new relationships should be those with the most 'romantic' and 'passionate' attitudes towards love.**

A small number of Dateline participants gave permission for data to be accessed concerning their personality and attitudes towards life and relationships, data which was recorded on Dateline's own 'joining questionnaire' (see chapter 6 for more details about this 'joining' questionnaire). As was stressed in Chapter 6, the use of this data must remain purely exploratory, and no specific hypotheses concerning this information are suggested here.

Hypotheses for part 2 of this chapter (using the partner data)

The data for this part of the chapter relies heavily on self-reports provided by the Dateline respondents' partners.

H7: Those Dateline members who considered a specific setting to be 'suitable' for new interactions at time1 are most likely to have formed their new relationship in this particular setting.

H8: Dateline members seeking a particular characteristic in a partner at time1 will find a partner who describes themselves as possessing the desired characteristic. (In this sub-study, details about the obtained partner's characteristics were given by this partner themselves in the form of self-descriptions. This follows the procedure described in the first part of chapter 5).

Hypotheses for the third part of this chapter using the Dateline members' data

Here, the main hypothesis is the same as that proposed in Chapter 5:

H9: Insofar as unattached individuals at time1 identify clear preferences for a romantic partner, these individuals should have found a partner by time2 *whom those same individuals* adjudge to demonstrate the desired trait(s).

Data from Chapter 5 also indicated a clear caveat for this hypothesis. This is as follows:-

H9 (i): **The correlation between the characteristics of the preferred partner (measured at time1) and the characteristics of the obtained partner (described at time2) should be stronger when the Dateline members' view their partner *positively.***

7.3. Method of data collection

Participants

The method for data collection in this study is similar to that employed in the first longitudinal study (described in chapters 4 and 5). The original Dateline participants were contacted by telephone and letter four months after the experimental evenings, and simply asked whether or not they had, in the last four months, formed a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship with a member of the opposite sex. As in the previous study, to be classified as worthy of follow-up the partners that had been chosen by the Dateline respondents had to a) be unknown to the Dateline members at the time of the experimental evenings, b) be of the opinion that they were participating in a 'boyfriend-girlfriend' relationship, and c) express a willingness to be questioned in some depth about their relationship.

Twenty of the Dateline members had formed new relationships since the experimental evenings (9 males and 11 females) and a further thirty-four had not'. Twenty-two of the Dateline members proved to be no longer contactable. Of the twenty that had formed relationships, 13 agreed to partake in further questioning (7 males and 6 females), thus providing some *intra*personal data (i.e. the same individual compared the partner he/she desired (at time1) with the partner obtained (at time2). 8 of the obtained *partners* also provided data, thus allowing for *inter*personal comparisons between the partner sought by the Dateline member and the self-ratings of the partner he/she obtained.

Measures

A more complete description of all the measures can be found in

Chapter 6.

Part 1 (do scores on various measures predict likelihood of relationship formation?) The independent variable measures used here are (a) the Prociadano and Heller PSS scale for friendship (1983: H_1) (b) the 'prior knowledge and prejudice towards Dateline members' scale (H_2) (c) the Levenson and Gottman DAQ (1978) and the adopted Trower et al nonverbal coding scheme (1978: H_3) (d) the Rosenberg Self-esteem scale (1965) (H_4) (e) the Lund investment scale (1985) (H_5) and (f) the 'attitude towards love' scales (Munro and Adams, 1978) and the 'Love behaviour' scales (adapted from Sternberg, 1986) (H_6). The dependent variable is simply the answer to the question 'has a relationship been formed?'

Part 2 (do the partners *obtained* rate *themselves* in a manner so as to indicate that they are the types of individuals Dateline members prefer?). Here the analysis consists primarily of a series of correlations between the preferences of the Dateline members (at time1) and the self-descriptions of their respective partners (at time2). The self-description scales are identical to those utilized in part 1 of chapter 5. There was one addition to this simple correlational procedure. Hypothesis 7 suggests that "those who considered a specific setting to be 'suitable' for new interactions are most likely to form a new relationship in this particular setting". Therefore the new partners (measured at time2) were asked 'where did you meet your partner?' and the reported setting was compared with the Dateline member's most preferred and least preferred setting for relationship formation (recorded at time1).

Part 3 (do individuals get what they want?). Here the process of data

collection was identical to that described in the second part of Chapter 5. The Dateline members' preferences for a partner (at time1) were simply correlated with those *same* individuals ratings of their partner at time2 (the rating scale used here was identical to that described in Chapter 5 part 2). A 'relationship satisfacton' test identical to that described in the second part of chapter 5 - and thus incorporated within the data information concerning those partnerships that had recently dissolved on both amicable - and hostile - terms (three relationships dissolved during data collection in this particular investigation). As before, a 'positive relationship' versus 'negative relationship' split was invoked for this analysis. Judges for the relationship satisfaction test were 23 Adult Education students, and agreement between the judges was generally good (Cronbach's alpha α = .85).

Summary of procedures.

1. 76 Dateline members completed questionnaires and a proportion were filmed as described in Chapter 6 (time1 of the present longitudinal investigation).
2. These same individuals were contacted again 4 months later (i.e at time2) and asked 'have you formed a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship in the last 4 months?'
3. The presence or absence of such a relationship was used as the dependent variable for part 1 of the present investigation.
4. Those Dateline members that had formed a new relationship (and were willing to be questioned further) were sent questionnaires to complete themselves, and given other questionnaires to pass on to their

partners. The questionnaires which these agency members gave their partners, alongside the time1 data already collected, formed the data for the second part of this investigation. The questionnaires they kept and completed themselves, along with the time1 data already collected, formed the data for the third part of this investigation.

7.4: Results of the analysis

Below the results are presented in the form of the 9 hypotheses laid out at the beginning of the present chapter, and in relation to the three parts of the investigation undertaken.

Hypotheses for part 1 of the investigation

H_1: Those with poor social support are more likely to form a relationship which compensates for this deficiency.

Analysis

There were no differences between the new-relationship and no-new-relationship groups in terms of the Dateline members' degree of social support (as measured at time1: two-tail t-test for two independent samples, $p<.46$). Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.

H_2: Those with a positive attitude towards Dateline members are most likely to have formed relationships with such members.

Analysis.

Again a two-tail t-test was employed to differentiate between those who had and had not formed a new relationship between time1 and time2 on attitudes towards Dateline members in general. Again, there was no

difference between the two groups when using a total score for the eight items measured ($p<.92$), and thus no support for this hypothesis.

H_3: Those most able to communicate successfully with the opposite sex are those most likely to have formed a new relationship.

'Communication' here includes dating and assertion abilities (measured through the use of both pencil and paper tests and observer ratings of nonverbal communication skills).

Analysis

Once again a bi-nomial division was invoked between those who had formed a relationship in the intervening 4 months (N=20) and those who had not (N=34). There were no differences between the groups on the pencil and paper test of dating and assertion skills (using a two-tail t-test for two independent samples, $p<.20$). One interesting finding from past research on videodating may explain the results here. This is the conclusion that the most popular clients of videodating are the *expressive* male and the *less expressive* female (Riggio and Woll, 1984). In this data, it was possible that the two sexes served to 'cancel one another out', and thus expressiveness (which may have indirectly affected either the pencil and paper test scores or the nonverbal data) failed to influence the probability of relationship formation. Unfortunately, the small number of participants in the present investigation prevented a meaningful cross-sex comparison of data.

Using non-verbal behaviours as an index of social skills the analysis was hampered by the very small numbers of participants videotaped at

time1 (only seven of the recorded participants went on to form 'new relationships'). A conventional statistical comparison was therefore inappropriate. However, and encouragingly, the new-relationship group was more 'skilled' than the no-new-relationship sample on *every* non-verbal behaviour.

H_4: Those with high self-esteem are those most likely to form new relationships.

Analysis

There were no differences between the new-relationship and no-new-relationship groups on self-esteem as measured at time1 (two-tail t-test for two independent samples, $p<.41$), and this hypothesis is therefore rejected.

H_5: Dateline members who (at time1) indicated a high prospective investment in any subsequent relationship are most likely to have formed a new relationship by time2.

Analysis

Using just a one-tail t-test to differentiate between the new-relationship/ no-new-relationship groups marginal support for this hypothesis was obtained ($p< .08$).

H_6: Dateline members who formed new relationships were those with the most 'romantic' and 'passionate' attitudes towards love at time1.

Analysis

The two significant differences between the no-relationship and new-relationship groups using the two love scales suggest that, as

hypothesised, a) the 'new-relationship' group were those who had (prior to partner formation) the more 'romantic' attitudes (as measured on the Munro-Adams scale (1-tail t-test $p<.01$)) and b) the 'new relationship' group were also those who had (prior to relationship formation) a marginally more 'passionate' attitude to love (on the adapted Sternberg scale (1-tail t-test $p<.06$)). There were no other significant differences between these groups on these two scales.

Hypotheses relevant to part 2 of the investigation

It will be remembered that the data here is derived from the *self*-reports provided by the partners obtained by the original Dateline respondents.

H_7: Those Dateline members who considered a specific setting to be 'suitable' for new interactions at time1 are most likely to have formed their new relationship in this setting.

Analysis

Unfortunately, only four respondents specified where they had formed their relationship, and this particular analysis was therefore dropped.

H_8: Dateline members seeking a particular characteristic in a partner at time1 will find a partner who describes themselves as possessing the required characteristic.

Analysis

The partners' self-descriptions of their characteristics *using the*

ranking-items measure were reasonably similar to those characteristics desired by the Dateline participants (mean Pearson correlation r = .48). However, there was little similarity between the partner's self-descriptions on the *constructs* measure and those constructs originally desired by the Dateline members at time1 (mean Pearson correlation r = .01). Free-responses were, unfortunately, only provided by 3 of the participants, therefore this data was not analysed.

Hypotheses for the third part of this investigation

The main hypothesis for this data is the same as that suggested in Chapter 5:

H_9: Insofar as unattached individuals identify clear preferences for a romantic partner, these individuals should obtain partners who demonstrate the desired trait.

Analysis

For this analysis Dateline members' original preferences for a partner (at time 1) were correlated with their description of their obtained partners (at time 2). Item-by-item analysis was now conducted[iii] across all 13 participants. The mean correlation between desired and obtained partners was .55 (for ranked preferences) and .41 (for constructs data). These correlations were of a similar magnitude to those obtained from the student sample.

To allow for some form of statistical comparison for the free-response data, 10 judges (6 female, 4 male) independently and blindly matched Dateline members' preferences for a partner with the set of time2 characteristics which they felt to be most synonymous with these

desires[3].

Table 7a. offers each respondent's top 3 free-response desiderata for a partner (measured at time1) and his/her top 3 descriptions of the partner he/she obtained (measured at time2: the respondent listing these qualities is, of course, the same individual in both cases). Only twelve participants completed free-responses, so it is just these twelve that are listed, and these are presented in the table in the order in which judges correctly identified the pairings. Thus for the first set of characteristics listed on the left of the table (the "desired" set of characteristics: looks, compassion and intelligence) seven of the ten judges considered the obtained characteristics ('intelligent, attractive and considerate') to be near-synonyms of the stated desires. This example clearly supports the earlier theorising in that the Dateline member gets what he/she wanted. In the final case on the table, however, the relationship between 'wanting' and 'getting' is less clear. In this case, the Dateline respondent 'wanted' an 'honest' and 'attractive' partner, who was a good 'conversationalist', and obtained a partner who he/she describes as 'caring', 'sociable' and 'with a sense of humour'. Whilst this second set of descriptors by no means excludes the first set, none of the judges felt these characteristics to be synonymous.

The perceived degree of overlap between the desired and obtained partner must depend very much on the reader's own judgments. For each pair of characteristics it would expected that $(1/_{1\,2}\times 10)$ judges (or .83 judges) would place together the desired and obtained partner's descriptions *by chance alone*. In the first four cases on the above table, the number of judges placing together the participant's desires

Table 7a: Intrapersonal data comparing the preferred and obtained partner using the top 3 free-responses

No. judges placing chars. together	Top 3 desired preferences listed at time1.	Top 3 obtained partner characteristics at time2.
7	Looks, compassionate, intell.	Intell, attract. considerate
3	Honesty, enjoyment, kindness	Honest, kind, generous
3	Person, maturity, intell.	Caring, bright, enthusiastic
3	Mutuality, personality, kind	Person, mutuality, affection
2	Rel., faithful, common interests	Too close, undemanding, unst
2	Personality, trust, looks	Looks, honest, humour.
1	Fun, kind, loving	Kind, caring, understanding.
1	Friendship, interesting, humour	Honest, humorous, consid.
0	Humour, trust, mutual interests	Free thinking, stim., fun
0	Friendship, underst., humour	Admired, caring, easygoing
0	Supportive, dynamic, honesty	Insecure, conservative, emot
0	Honest, attractive, conversation	Caring, sociable, humour

Abbreviations
char(acteristic)s: intell(igent): attract(ive): Person(ality): Rel(iable): consid(erate): unst(imulating): stim(ulating): underst(anding): emot(ional): good conversation(alist).

with that same participant's descriptions of his/her partner exceeds chance (χ^2>5, p< .05). In the next two cases listed on the table, slightly more judges also placed together the 'desired' and 'obtained' characteristics than might have been expected by chance, but the effect was only of marginal statistical significance (χ^2 = 1.65 p< .10). In the remaining six cases, judges placed together 'desired/obtained' characteristics at chance level or below. There is thus only moderate support for the desired-obtained relationship for the free-response criteria.

The data from Chapter 5 also indicated a clear caveat for this ninth hypothesis. This was as follows:-

$H_{9\ (1)}$: The correlation between preferences (at time1) and obtained

characteristics (at time2) should be higher when the Dateline members view their new partner positively.

Analysis

Re-analysing the data, and dividing participants into (a) those whom judges rated as implying (in their free choices) that they had obtained relationship satisfaction and (b) those whose descriptions of their partner imply less relationship satisfaction, the results indicated that, as expected, tthe correlation between 'what an individual wants' and 'what they get' was stronger for the first group (a), but the difference was not statistically significant (two-tail t-test $p<.28$ for the ranks data and $p<.49$ for the personal construct data). Because free-response data was used to differentiate 'high' versus 'low' relationship satisfaction, it was clearly not possible to use free-responses once again in a test of this modified hypothesis.

Additional agency material

Unfortunately, only three of those who allowed access to the data held by the Dateline corporation computer went on to form relationships. Because of this low number, a prospective analysis of these experimental participants was considered inappropriate.

7.5: Discussion

The results of the three sections of this investigation are summarised in the following table (table 7b).

Table 7b: Summary of the results of sections 1-3 of this investigation

Part of study	Hypothesis Number	Directional support for Hypothesis?	Conclusion from present analysis
Part 1	1	Yes	Social support at time1 does *not* predict relationship formation
	2	No	Attitudes towards agency members at time1 do not predict relationship formation.
	3	None for DAQ Some for NVC	Good NVC may aid relationship formation.
	4	No	Self-esteem at time1 does not predict relationship formation
	5	Yes	A positive attitude towards relationship investment at time1 may aid formation.
	6	Yes	Romantic attitudes and proposed passionate behaviours in a relationship are positively related to relationship formation
Part 2	7	Insufficient data	----------
	8	Yes	Preferences for a partner at time1 are only weakly related to partner's *self*-descriptions
Part 3	9	Yes	Preferences for a partner at time1 are fairly highly correlated with that *same* individual's descriptions of his / her partner (at time2), especially where the obtained relationship provides high satisfaction.

As can be seen from the above table the great majority of the hypotheses were disconfirmed. Furthermore, support for hypotheses 5 and 6, whilst encouraging, was not crucial to the testing of the framework for relationship initiation proposed in chapter 3. These results were obviously disappointing. Below some possible reasons for this failure are considered.

Three Possible reasons for the lack of confirmation of the hypotheses

(1). One simple explanation is that there were insufficient numbers of participants in two of the three sub-studies for a meaningful analysis to be conducted (there were only 8 participants in part 2 of this investigation and 13 in part 3). The directional support for some of the main hypotheses is encouraging: most notably, preferences for a partner at time1 related to that same individual's descriptions of his/her partner at time2 to a similar degree to that reported in chapter 5, and although the differences for relationship satisfaction were not significant for this set of variables, the results were clearly in the hypothesised direction. The most unexpected aspects of this data are those which occur for cells 3 and 4 of the framework for relationship initiation (chapter 3). Contrary to expectation, attitudes towards agency members, self-esteem and some aspects of dating skills do *not* seem to be positively related to relationship formation in the manner proposed.

(2). Another explanation might be found in the unusual population used in these studies. It will be remembered that the data in chapter 6 suggested that dating agency members were more shy, less able in terms of dating and assertion skills, and of lower self-esteem, than a

variety of other populations. The similarity in scores between those who did and did not form relationships may stem from the fact that few in the sample obtained even 'average' scores on these variables, and that higher performances on these criteria are necessary before these variables have a significant effect on the relationship formation process.

(3). A third explanation is that, although partner preferences are significant in the formation of relationships, the 'additional variables' posited in the relationship initiation framework are inappropriate, or are envisiged to contribute to the relationship formation process in a misleading manner. Certainly, *social support* needs to be more closely tied in with the partner preferences studied (as was suggested in chapter 3). Similarly, communication ability may be of more importance when considering on a variety of behavioural indices, rather than using paper and pencil measures based around hypothetical situations perhaps unrelated to the dating activities of the participants examined.

An alternative explanation is that social skill is intimately concerned with considerations of partner preferences, and thus it should not be considered as a univariate and 'desirable' quality. Duck (1988) suggests that:

> "(T)o the extent that ...skills can be personalised or tailored to the needs of the other person, an individual will be personally rewarding to that person, and will thereby help to sustain any relationship with him or her" (page 92).

Thus if an individual desires a partner who is withdrawn and introverted, then it is possible that this individual will also actively seek a partner who is *non*-assertive, and in some ways 'non-

skilled' (indeed, it might be best to speak of 'appropriate social competence', rather than of social competence *per se*[4]). In this light, social skills may be seen as important indicators of personality, and as such may affect relationship formation at a number of different levels.

Some previous research indirectly supports this contention. Sarason et al (1985) and Friedman et al (1988) propose the possible existence of a 'skills-personality' correlation, but unfortunately do not provide data relevant for the present purposes. Bowerman et al (1970) and Rosenkrantz et al (1968: both cited in Pendleton, 1982) found that women's assertive behaviour was less desirable for women than for men. To explore this further a small pilot study was conducted with 27 Adult Education students. These students were asked to indicate the type of partner they preferred on bi-polar constructs identical to those used in the studies so far reported in this thesis. They were then asked to indicate how they thought their *preferred* partner would act on a paper and pencil social skills schedule devised by Riggio (1986). The results indicated that, as expected, those who desired certain characteristics in a partner (e.g. aggressiveness in interpersonal relations) were also keen to obtain a partner who demonstrated social skills related to this characteristic (e.g. a willingness to manipulate others for their own ends). Extracts from the questionnaire used in this study are presented in Appendix C.

It may also be appropriate to take a fresh look at self-esteem. Self-esteem was proposed, in chapter 3, to be a variable positively associated with relationship formation. However, as reported in the review of the literature in chapter 1, Mathes and Moore (1985) adopted

Reik's (1941) hypothesis that *poor* self-esteem may in fact increase the likelihood of relationship formation, and their results claim to demonstrate the validity of such a proposal. This image of the vunerability of the depressed is vividly portrayed in Tennov's (1979) description of 'limerance', a state very similar to infatuation, which she claims is the frequent fate of many who feel rejected by society, and Dion and Dion (1975) similarly found that low self-esteem individuals expressed greater love, liking and trust in their romantic partners, and evaluated these partners more favourably. Seen in this light, low self-esteem can be considered alongside poor social support as a potential relationship *motivator,* which acts to encourage the depressed and lonely to form romantic relationships.

7.6: A reconceptualisation of relationship initiation

If the above reinterpretations are accepted, then the framework for relationship formation requires some modification. A revised version of this framework, taking into account the above proposals, is offered in figure 7.2. In this reconceptualisation, motivation to form a relationship is now seen as an important and primary relationship determinant, and is hypothesised to derive from low self-esteem and poor social support. Attitudes towards various aspects of close relationships should interact with motivation to form an additional relationship predictor. Social skills influence partner interaction only insomuch as they are congruent with preferred behavioural schedules. Whilst the testing of this revised framework is beyond the scope of this thesis, it is hoped that the proposals inherent within this revised scheme will be tested in future research.

Figure 7.2: A reconceptualisation of relationship initiation

Motivated to form a relationship? (low self-esteem? Poor social support?)

Positive towards relationship investment? Romantic/ passionate attitude towards love?

Preferences for a partner

Opportunity for interaction

Meets partner with behaviour congruent with preferences?

7.7: General conclusion to the second part of the thesis

This second part of the thesis has involved the testing out a framework for relationship initiation which is centred around the importance of partner preferences as a predictor of relationship formation. Two different longitudinal studies I have found that preferences for a partner are a reasonable indicator of the nature of that partner *when the manner in which that partner is rated by the original experimental respondent* is taken into account. However, trying to 'objectively test' the obtained partners' themselves, by using personality schedules (Chapter 5) or that individual's *self-*descriptions (Chapters 5 and 7) contributed little to the power of the prospective predictions about the partner chosen. This finding reasserts a point made by Carl Rogers more than 30 years ago (Rogers, 1951): we live in the centre of our own perceptual field, a field which may bear little resemblence to what others consider to constitute an 'objective' reality.

The other major finding of this second part of the thesis was in fact the *failure* of many of the variables in the framework for relationship initiation to provide the predictive power that was anticipated. This failure may have arisen simply out of the small numbers of participants involved in the studies, or the unrepresentative nature of these participants...or it may have stemmed from the fact that the framework was oversimplistic, and that it needed to allow for the interaction of various variables within the framework to provide a more accurate picture of the formation of heterosexual romantic relationships (e.g. the interaction between preferences for a partner and an individual's social skills). The wider implications of this

complexity will be considered when considering the thesis findings as a whole (Chapter 11).

Footnotes to chapter 7

[1] This was a reasonably high percentage, given that Woll and Cozby (1984) report that only some 10-15% of the past members of videodating agencies reported a dating 'success story' worthy of their membership. Similarly, only around 10-15% of the student participants (described in chapters 4/5) had formed a new relationship in a compatible four month period.

[2] In Chapter 5, overall factor scores were also used, but these provided only limited data and were therefore not used in this study.

[3] To avoid biasing this matching procedure, judges were not told what these sets of descriptors represented, but were merely instructed to "match together each of those sets of characteristics on your left" (these were the 'desired' attributes) with the sets of characteristics on your right" (these were the 'obtained' attributes) *"on the basis of similarity"*.

[4] Spitzberg and Canary's notion of "relational competence" - "the extent to which objectives functionally related to communication are fulfilled through interaction appropriate to the context" (1985: 39) makes a move in this direction.

PART III of the thesis:

Predicting relationship quality: Three cross-sectional studies

Chapter 8

Predicting relationship adjustment, commitment and stability I: a study of dating agency couples

The findings of this study were reported in a paper entitled "Predicting Heterosexual Relationships: A new filter theory approach" presented at the London Conference of the British Psychological Society, December 1987.

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"Happiness in marriage is entirely a matter of chance" [Austen, J: Pride and Prejudice].

8.1: Introduction and hypthoses

In this third part of the thesis the analysis turns away from the prediction of relationship initiation to the prediction of marital quality. This chapter extends the theoretical analysis offered in chapters two and three by providing a more detailed rationale and set of formulae for the operationalisation of the hypotheses suggested in these earlier chapters, and then moves on to provide data for the first of the empirical studies examining the established relationship.

8.1.1: Some pointers from previous research on marital quality

In recent years, the analysis of various manifestations of relationship quality has become a topic of particular interest for those working in PR (Nye, 1988). In their 1980 review of the field, Spanier and Lewis noted that 'marital quality' had been cited as the dependent variable in 150 journal articles during the preceding decade, and the following decade has produced no decrease in this output, with more than 200 articles mentioning marital satisfaction and a further 200 citing marital adjustment reported in the 'Psychological Abstracts' for the years 1983-1988. In trying to estimate marital quality, previous research has examined a number of outcome variables (e.g. marital satisfaction, relationship adjustment etc: see Bahr et al, 1983; Miller, 1976), some of which require separate determination (Burr et al, 1979; Duck, 1981; Kelly and Conley, 1987; Lenthall, 1977; Lloyd et al, 1984; Newcomb and Bentler, 1981; Rosenblatt, 1977; Spanier and Lewis, 1980). At times, the sheer

size of the output has attracted harsh criticism: Markman et al (1982) refer to a worrying trend of 'blind empiricism' in the marriage literature, condemning an increasing research tradition which seems to be driven more by empirical than theoretical rationales.

Despite this diversity in method and approach, there are some common features discernable in the previous research. A large percentage of prior studies can be placed on one of 3 levels, levels which correspond to the three levels of relationship analysis described in chapters 2 and 3 (i.e. the individual, the dyadic and the societal). In the following section, these three 'levels' of analysis are described, and the variables chosen for the following studies (described in this and the next two chapters) are placed within this trichotomous framework.

8.1.2. Three organising 'levels' of research for investigating relationship quality

Level (1). *Perceptions of relationship outcome.* This 'level' would include the partner's estimates of rewards, costs, investments in the relationship etc, as well as needs and other intrapersonal judgements. In the study described in this chapter, and in the following two studies (chapters 9 and 10), the individual level of analysis is chiefly represented by a variable already familiar to the reader of this thesis, that of 'personal preference' fulfilment (c.f. Graziano and Musser, 1982, and Shaver and Hazan, 1985; for recent commentatories on (need) fulfilment as a contributor towards the maintenance of close relationships). As outlined in chapter 3, this judgement of partner fulfilment is joined in the analysis of

relationship quality by considerations of social support, so that it is only possible to say that someone is suffering from a 'deficiency' in a particular preference area if his/her partner fails to fulfil his/her desires here *and* his/her social support network is unable to deal with this lack.

Level (2). *Satisfaction arising from role interactions.* In the context of the present set of investigations, the dyadic level of analysis consists of an examination of role expectations and agreement. Here the role analysis is conducted with particular attention to the subjective aspect of any role: in the words of Rhyne (1981: 942)

> "it is not what happens in (a) marriage, but how the partners understand or define what has happened"

that is important. Chapters 2 and 3 argued that appropriate role behaviours were really only of concern to the couple who were receiving sufficient preference fulfilments to care about such interactions. Role interactions thus operate as a *secondary* filter, following on from the primary filtering influence of preference fulfilment.

Level (3). *'Alternative attractions'*. The 'societal' level of analysis is examined using the concept of the 'comparison level for alternative relationships' (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959) as a predictor of relationship success'. The comparisons with which the present research is concerned are those made when a partner contrasts his/her present mate with a (possibly more attractive) alternative (this 'alternative' includes not only another individual but the prospect of no partner at all). Such comparisons have been established as powerful predictors of

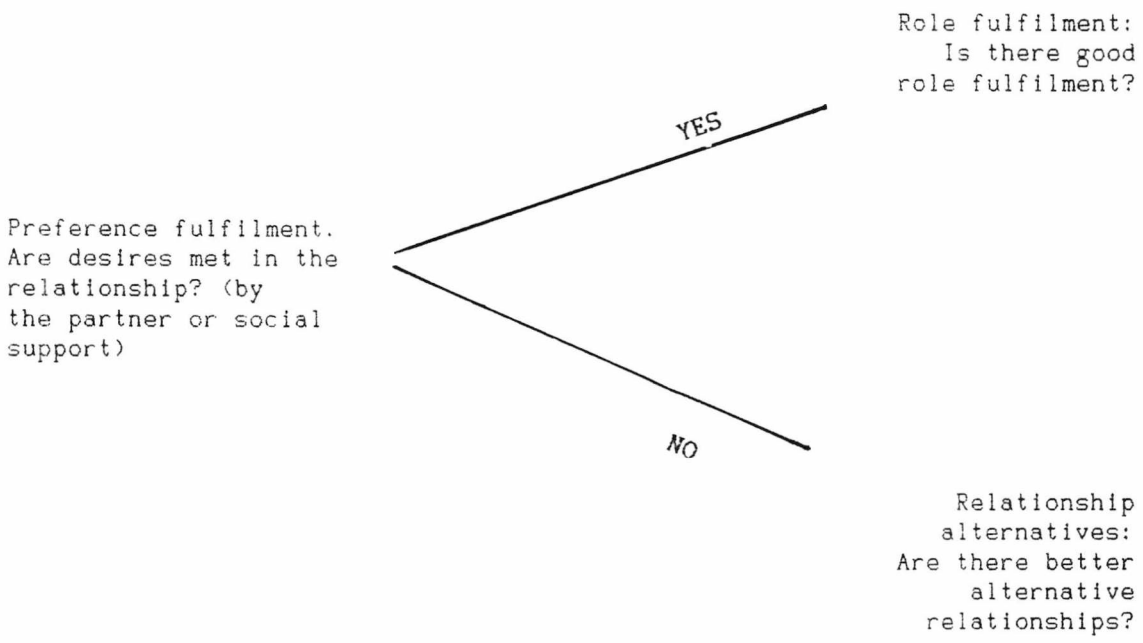
relationship satisfaction (Kurdeck and Schmitt, 1986), stability (Udry, 1981) and commitment (Johnson, 1982; Michaels et al, 1986; Rusbult et al, 1986). As was the case with role considerations, it is suggested that relationship alternatives should only be taken into account once preference fulfilment has been concerned, and thus relationship alternatives also represent a secondary filter stage in any relationship quality framework.[2]

These three levels of analysis, and the proposition of different filtering effects, can be incorporated into a framework for predicting relationship quality. This framework was first discussed in chapter 3, and was illustrated there in figure 3.2. Here the framework is simplified in the form of figure 8.1.

In this new, simplified framework, the first filter is that of preference fulfilment, which results from the interaction of the resources provided by the partner and those available from the social support network. The second variable (roles) is relevant *only* when partner preferences have been fulfilled by the partner or the support network, and role fulfilment is dependent upon an agreement between the role-related behaviours expected of the partner and the role behaviours performed by that partner.

The third variable in the relationship quality framework is that of relationship alternatives: these are important *only* when partner preferences are *not* satisfactorily fulfilled by either the support network or the partner. It is now the very availability of attractive relationship alternatives which is influential in determining relationship quality.

Figure 8.1: Filter construction for the framework for predicting relationship quality



8.1.3: Hypotheses

A number of hypotheses follow from the above framework.

Hypotheses relevant for the testing of the relationship quality framework (fig. 8.1)

H_1: If desires are *not* fulfilled (either by the partner or by the social support network) then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability

a) will be very low if there are good alternative relationships available

b) will be low to moderate if there are only poor relationship alternatives available.

H_2: If desires are *satisfied* (by either the partner or by the social support network), but role-fulfilment is poor, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be moderate.

H_3: If desires are satisfied, *and* roles are also fulfilled, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be high.

The marital quality literature also suggests a number of more general hypotheses selected. Four such hypotheses are offered below (H^4 - H^7).

General Hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

H_4: There should be a high similarity in terms of marital quality between husbands and wives (Buss, 1984b; Dean and Lucas, 1978; Eysenck and Wakefield, 1981; Gilford and Bengtson, 1979; Glenn, 1975). Where

there is a difference in relationship quality between the sexes

H_{4a}: the husband should gain more satisfaction from the relationship than the wife (Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Bernard, 1972; Rhyne, 1981; Sporakowski and Hughston, 1978; Wiggins et al, 1983).

H5: Relationship adjustment should be positively related to both marital commitment (Murstein and MacDonald, 1983; Waring et al, 1981) and relationship stability (Bentler and Newcomb, 1978)

H6: Marital adjustment should not be related to age (Buss, 1984b; Grover et al, 1985; Spanier and Lewis, 1980; Schlesinger, 1983; White et al, 1986; Yelsma, 1986)

H7: The number of years a partner is known before marriage should be positively related to marital quality (Goode, 1956; Grover et al, 1985)

8.2: Method of data collection

8.2.1: Participants

In the previous longitudinal study (described in Chapters 6 and 7) single members of a dating agency were used as the population for investigation. The experience of conducting this study demonstrated that these agency members were generally willing to participate in intensive questioning about their relationships.

In the last decade, a number of dating agency members have contacted the Dateline agency to report their satisfaction with a particular computer pairing, and to state that they would be willing to

participate in Dateline's own 'in house' research. This particularly satisfied group, although self-selective and unrepresentative of a wider population (see chapter 6), were very suitable for a first testing of the relationship continuation framework for three main reasons. First of all, the group had all expressed a willingness to participate in research, so that the first indications as to the usefulness of the relationship quality framework could be obtained fairly quickly. Secondly, this group was likely to be positively skewed in terms of their happiness with their relationship, and it was felt that they would thus provide a particularly stringent empirical test of the theoretical framework under examination. Thirdly, studies on the genuinely 'happily' married are relatively rare (Mace, 1985), and this study could hopefully add to the existing literature on the "successful" relationship.

The participants in the study to be reported in this chapter were thus all 'dating agency' couples (i.e. they were both former members of Dateline that had met through that organization and had subsequently married). All had expressed a willingness to participate in Dateline's research. These potential participants were sent a letter from the agency asking them if they would be prepared to participate in the research on relationships. 82 individuals agreed and completed the full relationship questionnaire (39 couples plus 4 responses from just one member of a couple) - this was out of a total of 206 individuals (103 couples) contacted and represents a response rate of just over 40%. Participants were from a wide age range (mean age = 36.5) and on average, they had known their partner for 10½ months before marriage.

Comments on the response rate

The 40% response rate, although significantly better than that obtained in the earlier studies on relationship formation, is still far from satisfactory. One probable reason for this poor response is the length of the questionnaire (the questionnaire ran to some 15 pages in all). A second possible explanation can be found in a general (and by now all too familiar) problem common to investigations of this nature: i.e. the very intimacy of the questions asked is a likely deterent for many a potential respondent (Mace, 1985, calls this "the intermarital taboo"). A final deterrent to a higher response rate resulted from the (understandable) request of the dating agency not to unduly annoy any non-respondents by contacting them with further pleas for co-operation. Because of this restriction, series of reminders along the lines recommended by Dillman (1978), and standard within the PR field (e.g. Bahr et al, 1983), were not employed.

8.2.2: Materials

In this study, four independent variables were employed (two of which were combined for this analysis) to predict three (dependent) scores for relationship quality.

Predictors of relationship quality

Personal preferences. In the second part of this thesis a new instrument was constructed to measure 'preferences' for a relationship partner. This instrument asked respondents to complete both rank and bi-polar construct scales and to provide free listings to indicate their desired future partner. When considering already established

couples, it is clearly more difficult to ask about preferences for a 'future' partner, but it is possible to try to ascertain to what extent present desires are met within the present relationship. For this an instrument was necessary which could estimate both the 'desired' and the 'obtained' properties of an ongoing partnership. Such an instrument does not appear to have been devised specifically for the present kind of investigation. However, Schutz's FIRO-B measure (1958), a behaviour-orientated instrument for the measurement of needs, does suggest measures for estimating both 'wanted needs' and 'expressed needs', and Schutz himself uses the FIRO-B scale to examine situations where members of a dyad "reciprocally satisfy each other's behaviour preferences" (1958: 108). Schutz's measure is particularly useful for the examination of a variety of dyadic interactions (Malloy and Copeland, 1980) and has been employed in some of the most important work in PR (cf. Levinger et al, 1970; Kerckhoff and Davis, 1962) and in family therapy research (Doherty and Colangelo, 1984). The scales that form FIRO-B are also of sufficient clarity and of suitable length for inclusion into a large questionnaire measuring a number of different variables.

Further support for the choice of the FIRO-B can be gleaned from an examination of the needs that the instrument examines. The FIRO-B scale investigates 3 need 'areas': inclusion ("the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with people with respect to interaction and association"); control ("the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to control and power") and affect ("the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to love and

affiliation"). An examination of the predominant needs scales used by needs researchers working within the PR field reveals that the scales most frequently used in this research (e.g. the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, or EPPS: Edwards, 1959 and Cattell's 16PF: Cattell et al, 1970) all include control, inclusion and affect-related items. In the one work perhaps closest to the present thesis in its theoretical stance (Centers, 1975) Centers concludes that there are probably five associative needs (p. 66), and that these include Schutz's inclusion, control and affect. Alongside this, the need for *inclusion* has been documented recently, by Duck (1983; 1988) among others (see also Rubin, 1974; Schachter, 1959; Weiss, 1974, 1975) and is closely related to Murray's *need for affiliation* (Centers, 1971) and 'the intimacy motive' (McAdams, 1984). The need for *control* has close ties with the power motive (discussed in chapter 2, but see also McAdams, 1984, 1988 and Mason and Blankenship, 1987), and can be aligned with Patterson's 'social control' function of relationships (1984). The need for *affect* has been clearly illustrated by, among others, the work of Bowlby (1973), Sullivan (1953) and Weiss (1973).

Social support

In the analysis of preference fulfilment the FIRO-B preference (need) instrument is combined with an assessment of relevant social support. As mentioned in chapter 3, the *social support* scale used in this part of the thesis is a little different from the one used in the previous studies. This change in instrumentation arose from the realisation that if social support is hypothesised to be intimately related to personal preferences, it is necessary to mould support measure to fit

the measure for preferences (Cohen and McKay, 1984; Gottlieb, 1988; Hobfoll and Stokes, 1988).

Establishing a new social support scale followed the following procedure. (1) To retain parity with my earlier research, the same basic Procidano and Heller ten-item social support scale for friends (1983) formed the basis of the new scale, but two new items were added aimed at reflecting a 'control-related' support dimension. (2) Thirty judges (students and staff members from three academic departments of Kent University) completed the modified twelve items scale, two items of which were discarded as judges regarded them to be ambiguous in wording. (3) An exploratory cluster analysis, using the judges ratings and the 'verticle icicle' clustering display supplied by the SPSSX package, suggested that 8 of the 10 remaining support items fell within three main clusters which grouped in the manner anticipated (i.e. indicating social support related to affect, inclusion and control). These three clusters could be used to form the scales devised to estimate the three types of support. (4) A confirmatory factor analysis, also using the judges' ratings and the SPSSX package substantiated the independence of the three main support subscales whilst the cumulative variance for the three factors using varimax rotation explained a satisfactory 76% of the variability in the data. (5) Intra-scale reliabilities were calculated by comparing overall subscale means (i.e. means for the three scales measuring the three types of support) with the individual items that comprised the scales. Scalar items correlated more than $r = .90$ with their respective subscale in all cases.

The measurement of roles. According to Murstein (1976a), many of the dependent variables used to describe marital quality depend on the

> "evaluation of the perceived functioning of oneself in a dyadic relationship in comparison with the roles one envisages for oneself, and the perceived role functioning of the partner with respect to the roles one has envisaged for him" (121f).

It is possible to measure "roles" over a wide range of attitudes and behaviours, but in the context of this thesis the term 'Role fulfilment' is used as the aggregate score for two instruments measuring empirically and conceptually separable aspects of role behaviour (cf. Bahr et al, 1983).

The first instrument can be termed the 'preference' role indicator (Nye, 1976; Scanzoni and Fox, 1980). This was based upon a formula which by now will be familiar to a reader of this thesis: role satisfaction = desired behaviour minus performed behaviour (Murstein, 1976a; Tharp, 1963). In order to measure this role satisfaction the degree to which a participant rated a role task as important was multiplied by his/her estimate of his/her partner's performance on this task. To disallow the measurement of 'irrelevant' roles, a score was only calculated for a particular role if the respondent claimed that this role was important enough to be worthy of consideration (after Burr et al, 1979).

The second role score was obtained by including a straightforward 'role consensus' scale' in the questionnaire, asking respondents to report how much they and their partner agreed or disagreed on a number of tasks (after Bahr et al, 1983). The overall 'role fulfilment' score was an amalgam of the two measures, an amalgam aided by the fact that

both measures demonstrated similar range and median scores. This amalgam can be expressed in the following equation (1):

Role Fulfilment = (role preference + role consensus)/2. (1)

The selection of the actual role items used to obtain this aggregate was a far from straight-forward task, as past researchers have used such a variety of role indices. Nye (1976), however, offers a list of eight role interactions which have been consistently found to be important in previous literature, and six of these roles were chosen for inclusion into the present scheme (housekeeping, earning a living, keeping in touch with the relatives, physical intimacy, family recreation, and dealing with personal problems: the two omitted roles are childcare-related (or 'parental' roles (Staines and Libby, 1986)) which were not included as they would limit the sample to couples with children). Nye and McLaughlin (1976) have demonstrated a close relationship between these six roles and relationship quality, and these six areas of relationship behaviour undoubtedly reflect upon a wide 'normative' pool of roles likely to be of importance to the population in general (cf. Bahr et al, 1983 and Blood and Wolfe, 1960, for further support for the validity of Nye's roles)[3].

Scales for the examination of *relationship alternatives* are less common in PR literature. The scale used in the present study (Udry, 1981) has a number of advantages, the main advantage being that it is one of the few scales to avoid confounding the effects of the attractiveness of a current partner with considerations of

relationship alternatives (Johnson, 1985, unpub). The scale is also more comprehensive than that used by many others (e.g. Rusbult et al, 1986b) whilst remaining a suitable length and clarity for the purposes of the present investigation (the scale comprises 11 items scored on 4-point scales)

Indices of relationship quality

Three indices of relationship quality were used in the present study *Marital adjustment* is generally recognized as a term which encompasses a fairly wide area of marital experience (Miller, 1976). The two most popular measures used in the assessment of marital adjustment are the Locke-Wallace LMAT (1959) and the Spanier Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS: Spanier 1976) (Cohen, 1985). Although the more recent of the two, the DAS has quickly become established as an important measure for the investigation of a host of relationship variables (Lewis and Spanier, 1980; Spanier and Thompson, 1982), and although the scale has its critics (e.g. Norton, 1983) it has been argued by others to be one of the best of the currently available instruments (Cohen, 1985). The scale examines four components of dyadic adjustment (dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus and affectional expression) within a 32-question schedule (a 7-question short alternative is available (Sharpley and Rogers, 1984), but is less satisfactory for a deep analysis: ibid). Respondents can score between 0 and 151 on this scale, with a score of less than one hundred usually considered to be an indicator of marital distress (Jacobson and Moore, 1981)

Relationship commitment is generally considered to play a major role in the successful marriage (Lauer and Lauer, 1985; Sporakowski and Hughston, 1978). For the present studies, a measure was sought which examines both personal measures of commitment (an individual's 'personal' reasons for staying in the relationship: i.e. they stay because they want to) alongside structural factors (constraints which make it difficult to leave: i.e. they stay because they have to. Johnson, 1982; 1985, unpub). Although Michaels et al (1986) talk of their scale as a measure of personal commitment, their simple measure (which asks about the probability of dissolution) does in fact allow for individual's perceptions of structural barriers. This commitment scale was also particularly useful as it provided a short measure suitable for inclusion into a rapidly growing questionnaire (there are just two items, both scored on 7-point Likert-type scales)

Relationship stability. If commitment is an individual or dyadic level variable (Rosenblatt, 1977), stability is most clearly a *group-level* variable, and a measure of *relationship stability* was therefore introduced as a contributor to the wider analysis. The 5-item measure suggested by Booth et al (1983) has the advantage of stressing both the behaviour and the cognitions of an individual within the context of his/her relationship (e.g. item 2: 'have you *discussed* divorce or separation with a close friend?: item 3: have you ever *thought* your marriage might be in trouble?' my italics). Items are answered by simply indicating either 'yes' or 'no'.

Additional questions

To examine the general hypotheses for married couples, 6 additional questions were asked of my participants. These requested respondents:

1. To indicate whether male or female (in order to test H_4 and H_{4a})
2. To write down their age (in order to test H_5)
3. To indicate how many years and months the participant knew his/her partner before they were married. (in order to test H_7)
4. To indicate the identity of their partner - whilst remaining anonymous. In order to do this, a methodological procedure described by Eysenck and Wakefield (1981) was adopted: both members of a couple made up a (6-figure) number and placed it in a box on their questionnaire, so that respondents could later be matched.
5. To indicate whether or not they were 'still together' or 'separated'. Obviously, those who were separated could be partialled out in the analysis (and, if there were a sufficient numbers, marital status could be used as a further dependent variable).
6. To note down their legal marital status (married, 'living together, but not married' (cohabiting) or 'living apart'). Again, those participants responding to the latter two categories could be treated separately in the analysis.

8.2.3: Piloting the questionnaire

The full questionnaire was piloted on fifteen adult education students, in order to eliminate any ambiguities in the overall presentation or wording. Comments made by these students were used to modify the questionnaire so as to improve the comprehensibility of the questions asked.

8.2.4: Procedure

Questionnaires contained all of the above measures. Participants were sent individual stamped addressed envelopes for response and the importance of replying independently from their partner was stressed (after Bradburn and Sudman, 1979). Confidentiality and anonymity were assured. A full copy of the questionnaire and the attendant letters/instruction are included in the Appendix.

8.3: Results

It is possible to treat the framework illustrated at the beginning of this chapter (figure 8.1) either in terms of a series of dichotomous yes/no decisions (are desires for a partner met? Is there good role fulfilment etc) or to consider the independent variables as continuous data and to subject them to regression analyses. In this and the subsequent two chapters both methods of analysis are presented.

8.3.1: Treating the relationship quality framework as a series of dichotomous variables

H_1: If desires are *not* fulfilled (either by the partner or by the social support network) then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability

a) will be very low if there are good alternative relationships available

b) will be low to moderate if there are only poor alternative relationships available.

Dividing the sample into the preference fulfilled and the preference unfulfilled.

The first task involved differentiating between those who have had their desires met (either by their partner or by their support network), and those who have not been so fortunate. For the purposes of analysis, these two groups were preference 'fulfilled' and the preference 'unfulfilled' respectively.

An individual was termed unfulfilled if (a) his/her desires were not met by his/her partner (calculated by subtracting his/her partner's perceived characteristics from his/her relevant desires) *and* (b) if that individual lacked sufficient social support in a area of preference where a deficiency (in (a)) existed. 'Sufficient' social support was deemed to exist where the individual's reported social support score exceeded the median point for scores across all experimental participants. This can be expressed as follows:

An experimental participant was deemed to be "unfulfilled" when

(Affection expressed by the participant's partner (as perceived by the participant on the FIRO-B)) minus (Affection desired by the participant ≤ -2) *and* the participant's social support (affection) score $<$ median population score

OR

(Inclusion expressed by the participant's partner (as perceived by the participant on the FIRO-B)) minus (Inclusion desired by the participant ≤ -2) *and* the participant's social support (inclusion) score $<$ median population score

OR

(Control expressed by the participant's partner (as perceived by the participant on the FIRO-B)) minus (Control desired by the participant ≤ -2) *and* the participant's social support (control) score $<$ median population score

An individual was deemed "fulfilled" if there were no major deficiencies in any of Schutz's need areas, or if an existing deficiency was complemented by a social support score greater than or equal to the population median on that variable. This can be expressed as follows:

An individual was deemed as fulfilled when

(Affection expressed by the participant's partner (as perceived by the participant on the FIRO-B)) minus (Affection desired by the participant ≥ -1) *or* the participant's social support (affection) score > median population score

AND

(Inclusion expressed by the participant's partner (on the FIRO-B)) minus (Inclusion desired by the participant ≥ -1) *or* the participant's social support (inclusion) score > median population score

AND

(Control expressed by the participant's partner (on the FIRO-B)) minus (Control desired by the participant ≥ -1) *or* the participant's social support (control) score > median population score

The cut-off point of -2 as the critical score for preference fulfilment is of course an arbitrary one, but was chosen to allow for minor dissatisfactions which were hypothesised not to influence the relationship. Table 8a indicates the differences in mean scores between the fulfilled and unfulfilled groups on the three dependent variables.

Table 8a: Differences between those preference 'fulfilled' and those preference 'unfulfilled' by their partner/social network on marital adjustment, commitment and stability

Dependent variable	'Fulfilled' (N=58)	'Unfulfilled' (N=24)	p< (2-tail t-test)
Marital adjustment	123.50	115.50	.06
Stability	4.60	4.50	.21
Commitment	13.63	13.08	.69

Although all differences between the 'fulfilled' and 'unfulfilled' samples were in the expected direction, there was only one difference which approached conventional levels of statistical significance (for the marital adjustment score). The lack of statistical significance here may have resulted from the small numbers of participants deemed to be 'unfulfilled' (N=24).

Examining the first hypothesis using the preference fulfilment filter and relationship alternatives

Having examined the preference unfulfilled/fulfilled distinction it is now possible to turn to the relationship 'alternatives' scores (table 8b). Here, the analysis deals solely with those who have been categorised above as experiencing 'unfulfilled' relationships. To be considered as having 'good' alternatives, an individual had to score above the median point for participants on this variable: to be considered as only possessing 'poor' alternatives, the participant had to score below this midpoint.

Table 8b: Relationship alternatives amongst the preference 'unfulfilled' as a predictor of the 3 dependent variables

Dependent variable	Poor alternatives (N=12)	Good alternatives (N=12)	p< (2-tail t-test)
Marital adjustment	123.58	110.17	.03
Stability	4.91	4.30	.29
Commitment	13.75	13.08	.17

Again, the results are generally in the expected direction, with the differences between the 'good alternatives' and 'poor alternatives' groups on marital adjustment reaching an acceptable level of statistical significance ($p<.03$). As predicted, those with good relationship alternatives scored poorly in terms of relationship adjustment (at least for the present sample, where the overall median score for all participants was 121). Similarly, although both commitment and stability scores seem high for all participants, those with good alternatives performed poorly on these variables considering the generally high scores obtained by participants (overall mean scores for the whole sample: stability = 4.6 and commitment = 13.5). Those with few relationship alternatives experienced, as predicted, a 'moderate' degree of relationship adjustment and stability, although they scored higher than expected in terms of their commitment to the relationship.

Examining the second and third hypotheses using the preference fulfilment filter and role fulfilment

H_2: If desires are *satisfied* (by either the partner or by the social support network), but role-fulfilment is poor, then relationship

adjustment, commitment and stability will be moderate.

H_3: If desires are *satisfied*, and roles are also fulfilled, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be high.

Analysis

Comparing scores on role fulfillment the analysis uses *only* scores from those participants classified as having preference 'fulfilled' relationships. To be considered having 'good' (rather than poor) role fulfilment, participants once again had to exceed the median population score on this variable.

Table 8c: Role scores amongst the preference 'fulfilled' as predictors of the 3 dependent variables

Dependent variable	Good role' fulfilment (N=29)	'Poor role' fulfilment (N=29)	p< (2-tail t-test)
Marital adjustment	130.90	115.52	.01
Commitment	13.93	13.25	.08
Stability	4.89	4.28	.03

Here, degree of role fulfilment clearly differentiated participants in terms of the three marital quality variables and did so in the anticipated manner. However, those who obtained low scores on role fulfilment performed markedly less well than might have been anticipated considering that all the participants examined here were already 'preference fulfilled'.

8.3.2: A re-examination of the relationship quality framework using regression analyses.

To perform a more stringent test of the relationship quality framework, it is necessary to examine the *contamination effects* of unexpected variables: i.e. the influence of relationship alternatives when preferences are fulfilled (according to the theory outlined in chapters 2 and 3, alternatives should not be important here) and the influence of role fulfilment when preferences *are not* fulfilled (which should be minimal according to the earlier theorising). To examine the presence of any such contamination, continuous data was now used to perform regression analyses. In making use of a wider range of scores, these resulting equations have the advantage of revealing any concealed patterns in the data and should illustrate the interference of unexpected variables in the various sections of the analysis.

Assumptions underlying regression analysis

A regression analysis makes a number of assumptions (Lewis-Beck, 1980), and two of these are of particular concern here. First is the assumption of *no specification error*, which includes the supposition that no relevant variables have been excluded from the analysis. To deal with this, all three independent variables were entered into the following regression equations. Second is the assumption *low multicollinearity* (i.e. no two or more variables are highly correlated with one another and there is no linear combination of independent variables). To tackle this, simple correlation coefficients were calculated between all the dependent variables: none approached the .8

intercorrelation mark specified as the 'danger figure' by Lewis-Beck (1980)

Regression analysis examining preference and role fulfilment

Here only the preference 'fulfilled' relationship is considered (the *N* for the following analysis was therefore 58). From the framework illustrated in figure 8.1. the hypothetical equation should be

Relationship adjustment (Commitment/stability) $\int$ (preference fulfilment + role fulfilment) (4)

According to the theory suggested in chapters 2 and 3, relationship alternatives should not be of significance here.

Analysis

Three regression analyses were conducted using preference fulfilment, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives scores as the independent variables. Here, preference fulfilment is considered to be the result of the earlier equation:

Degree to which desire can be fulfilled by partner minus degree to which desire is held (5)

and, as these are all 'fulfilled' relationships, social support is high wherever fulfilment scores are low. For this analysis all three preference areas were entered into the equation and the fulfilment scores were expected to operate cumulatively. Roles and alternatives are here the raw scores on these variables.

The regression equations using marital adjustment, commitment and stability as the dependent variables are reproduced in the form of tables 8d-8f.

Table 8d. Regressing preference fulfilment, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives on marital adjustment for the 'preference fulfilled' participants

Independent Variable	Value (Beta)	t-ratio	p< (significance level)
Constant	107.00	9.67	.001
Affect Fulfilment	.11	.14	n.s.
Inclusion Fulfilment	-1.81	-2.43	.05
Control Fulfilment	.46	.77	n.s.
Role Fulfilment	1.85	5.16	.001
Alternatives	-.83	-2.76	.02

This equation accounts for 48.1% of the variance (adjusted r-squared figure)

Table 8e. Regressing preference fulfilment, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives on marital stability for the 'preference fulfilled' participants

Independent Variable	Value (Beta)	t-ratio	p< (significance level)
Constant	3.74	4.52	.01
Affect Fulfilment	0.00	.06	n.s.
Inclusion Fulfilment	-.12	-2.08	.05
Control Fulfilment	.04	.70	n.s.
Role Fulfilment	.08	2.71	.02
Alternatives	-.03	-1.14	n.s.

This equation accounts for 23.0% of the variance (adjusted r-squared figure)

Table 8f. Regressing preference fulfilment, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives on marital commitment for the 'preference fulfilled' participants

Independent Variable	Value (Beta)	t-ratio	p< (significance level)
Constant	14.00	10.26	.001
Affect Fulfilment	-.06	-.06	n.s.
Inclusion Fulfilment	-.12	-1.28	n.s.
Control Fulfilment	.03	.34	n.s.
Role Fulfilment	.06	1.32	n.s.
Alternatives	-.06	-1.74	n.s.

This equation accounts for 14.5% of the variance (adjusted r-squared figure)

Comment on results

Whilst, as expected, affect and control fulfilment are generally positive (although non-significant) contributors towards the prediction of the dependent variables, and role fulfilment plays a significant part in marital quality (a part that seems to exceed that of alternatives in importance), these equations nevertheless suggest a number of problems for the relationship quality framework. Preference fulfilment scores for affect and control were consistently *in*significant predictors of marital quality, and the one fulfilment predictor that did make a reasonable contribution (inclusion fulfilment) operated in a direction contrary to that expected. The strong performance of relationship alternatives, although perhaps outperformed in the long run by role fulfilment, was also a matter for some concern: alternatives should *not* have predicted marital adjustment if the relationship quality framework was correct. These results suggest that, for the 'preference fulfilled' individuals, relationship quality is (as anticipated) a positive linear function of role fulfilment, but relationship alternatives and lack of inclusion fulfilment are also additional predictors.

Regression analyses examining preference <u>non</u>fulfilment and relationship alternatives

For this analysis, just those deemed to be *'unfulfilled'* in terms of preference fulfilment are examined. Here the hypothetical equation would be

Marital adjustment (Commitment/stability) $\int$ (preference fulfilment - relationship alternatives) (6)

According to the theory introduced in chapters 2 and 3, role fulfilment should not be of importance here. The *N* of participants here was 24.

Analysis

Tables 8g - 8i provide the regression details for marital adjustment, commitment and stability respectively.

Table 8g. Regressing preference fulfilment, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives on marital adjustment for the preference unfulfilled participants

Independent Variable	Value (Beta)	t-ratio	p< (significance level)
Constant	98.90	3.02	.01
Affect Fulfilment	.21	.12	n.s.
Inclusion Fulfilment	-2.01	-1.71	n.s.
Control Fulfilment	1.45	1.12	n.s.
Role Fulfilment	3.14	3.08	.01
Alternatives	-1.70	-2.12	.05

This equation accounts for 55.3% of the variance (adjusted r-squared figure)

Table 8h. Regressing preference fulfilment, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives on marital commitment for the preference unfulfilled participants

Independent Variable	Value (Beta)	t-ratio	p< (significance level)
Constant	13.60	2.64	.02
Affect Fulfilment	.13	.50	n.s.
Inclusion Fulfilment	-.15	-.79	n.s.
Control Fulfilment	.02	.01	n.s.
Role Fulfilment	.14	.89	n.s.
Alternatives	-.13	-1.09	n.s.

This equation accounts for 12.0% of the variance (adjusted r-squared figure)

Table 8i. Regressing preference fulfilment, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives on marital stability for the preference unfulfilled participants

Independent Variable	Value (Beta)	t-ratio	p< (significance level)
Constant	7.25	2.42	.02
Affect Fulfilment	.04	.20	n.s.
Inclusion Fulfilment	- .47	-.40	n.s.
Control Fulfilment	.17	1.53	n.s.
Role Fulfilment	.01	.06	n.s.
Alternatives	-.10	-1.46	n.s.

This equation accounts for 23.0% of the variance (adjusted r-squared figure)

Once again, the regression equations bring into question the relationship quality framework. Although, as before, there are encouraging aspects to the results (affect and control are still positive in the equations, although they are not significant) the influence of roles in this part of the framework appears to be of similar magnitude to that of relationship alternatives. Inclusion fulfilment again appears to operate in the opposite direction to that hypothesised, although it is not a statistical significant contributor for these particular relationships.

Overall regression equations for the analysis of relationship quality

The above analyses suggest that relationship alternatives and roles in marriage are influential throughout the maintenance process, and these operate more or less regardless of preference fulfilments. The similarity between the results of the analyses for both the preference fulfilled and the preference unfulfilled suggests the value of examining overall regression equations using all the available data. The equation for each of these dependent variables is offered below. Here, the significant t-statistics are indicated by the asteriks. (*** p<.001: ** p<.01: * p<.05)

(7) Adjustment = 107 (constant:***) + .05 (affect fulfilment) - 1.50 (inclusion fulfilment:**) + .66 (control fulfilment) + 2.09 (role fulfilment:***) - 1.11 (alternatives:***). R-squared (adjusted) = 46.2%

(8) Commitment = 14.1 (constant:***) - .05 (affect fulfilment) - .05 (inclusion fulfilment) - .01 (control fulfilment) + .07 (role fulfilment) - .09 (alternatives:**) R-squared (adjusted) = 8.4%

(9) Stability = 4.14 (constant:***) - .02 (affect fulfilment) - .05 (inclusion fulfilment) = .03 (control fulfilment) + .08 (role fulfilment: **) - .05 (alternatives: **) R-squared (adjusted) = 12.2%

From the above, it can be seen that the most satisfactory equation for prediction purposes is that offering marital adjustment as the dependent variable (with an R-squared figure suggesting that almost 50% of the variance in the sample is explained). This equation reaffirms the patterns that emerged in previous analysis: preference fulfilment in general is a poor predictor, although inclusion fulfilment does appear to be significant *but operates in the opposite direction to that hypothesised.* Relationship alternatives and role fulfilment are clear predictors of relationship adjustment.

Other interrelations between the variables

An examination of the intercorrelations between all the independent and dependent variables reinforce the messages from the overall regression analyses. Marital adjustment is positively correlated with roles ($r=.58$ $p<.001$) and negatively correlated with relationship alternatives ($r=-.42$ $p<.001$). This role fulfilment - marital adjustment correlation is typical of the 'role congruence' - 'marital satisfaction' correlations usually achieved by workers in the field (these are usually between .5 and .85: Burr et al, 1979). The same

patterns emerge using the other two dependent variables of relationship commitment and stability (commitment is positively correlated with roles (r=.23 p<.05) and negatively correlated with alternatives (r=-.31 p<.01): stability is positively correlated with roles (r=.33 p<.01) and negatively correlated with alternatives (r=-.25 p<.05)). Social support for all three of Schutz's needs areas was positively correlated with relationship quality (c.f. G. Lee, 1988), but the correlations were not high (the highest of the 9 correlations was r= 0.3). This is perhaps to be expected given the ambiguous part social support can play in established relationships (Levinger and Rands, 1985).

8.3.3: General Hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

In the introduction to this chapter some more general hypotheses for the analysis of married couples were offered. All the present sample were married and living together, so marital status and habitation mode were not analysed separately. Where correlations are reported in the text, individual scores (rather than dyadic indices) were used as the preferred means of indicating association (as advised by Kenny, 1988).

H_4: There should be a high similarity between husbands and wives on marital adjustment. Where there is a difference,

H_{4m}: the husband should gain more satisfaction from the relationship than the wife.

Analysis

Table 8j shows the mean scores for men and women (taken pairwise) on

the three dependent variables. Here, scores for the sexes are intercorrelated.

Table 8j: Pearson r correlation between the sexes for scores on the dependent variables

Dependent Variable	Men - Women (N=41)	p< 2-tail statistic
Marital adjustment	r = .645	.001
Commitment	r =-.110	n.s.
Stability	r = .795	.001

The marital adjustment correlation was of the expected magnitude (Dean and Lucas, 1978). The only unexpected interrelation here was for the commitment score, where large differences between the sexes were obtained.

A t-test is used to address hypothesis $_{4a}$, and demonstrates the direction of any differences between the sexes (table 8k).

Table 8k: T-tests for a comparison between the sexes for scores on the dependent variables

Dependent Variable	Men (N=41)	Women (N=41)	p< 2-tail t-test
Marital adjustment	120.20	123.20	.42
Commitment	13.26	13.84	.08
Stability	4.74	4.58	.37

Table 8k shows that there was no support for the hypothesis that men

scored higher than women on indicators of marital quality. The only real difference between the sexes, the (slightly) greater stability score for the male participant, echoes Pittman et al's (1983) finding that marital cohesion is greater for men than women.

H_5: Relationship adjustment should be positively related to both marital commitment and relationship stability.

Analysis

Relationship commitment and stability were highly correlated with marital adjustment, as predicted ($r=.59$ $p<.001$ for commitment and .50 $p<.001$ for commitment).

H_6: Marital adjustment should not be related to age.

Analysis

The intercorrelations between age and marital adjustment, stability and commitment are tabulated in table 81.

Table 81: Intercorrelations between participant's age and the three dependent variables

Dependent Variable	Correlation r (N=82)	p< 2-tail test
Marital adjustment	.39	.001
Commitment	-.03	n.s.
Stability	.13	n.s.

Here, the expectation of no relationship between marital adjustment and age was *not* confirmed, although it is notable that there was no

relationship between age and either of the other two dependent measures of relationship quality.

H_7: The number of years a partner is known before marriage should be positively related to relationship quality

Analysis

An analysis similar to the one for relationship age was conducted, and is summarised in table 8m.

Table 8m: Intercorrelations between length of courtship and the three dependent variables

Dependent Variable	Correlation r (N=82)	p< 2-tail test
Marital adjustment	-.37	.001
Commitment	-.04	n.s.
Stability	-.32	.01

Here, the data suggests a firm *rejection* of the hypothesis, with only the relationship between commitment and the shorter length of courtship not proving statistically significant at the conventional 5% level.

8.4: Discussion

8.4.1: Summary of results

Testing the relationship quality framework (fig 8.1). The results indicate that, although there were differences in the expected

direction between the preference fulfilled and unfulfilled with respect to the dependent variables, the differences were small and only approach statistical significance for marital adjustment. Role fulfilment and relationship alternatives are important predictors of relationship quality and operate throughout the framework. Preference fulfilment plays only a small part in the data taken as a whole, although inclusion fulfilment appears regularly as a variable negatively related to marital adjustment.

General hypotheses for the analysis of married couples. The conclusions from this more general analysis are summarised in table 8n

8.4.2. Discussion of the relationship quality framework

The weak influence of preference fulfilment

The results reported above were disappointing primarily because of the weak contribution made by preference fulfilment to the prediction of marital quality. Initially, it was expected that there would be a marked difference between those termed 'preference fulfilled' (that is those with only a low (or no) preference deficiency score or those with compensating social support) and those described as 'preference unfulfilled' (those deficient in preference fulfilment and low on social support), and the difference was expected to materialise for all 3 relationship quality variables. However, the differences in relationship quality between the preference fulfilled and those unfulfilled were only weakly evident, and when the deficiency scores were entered into regression equations it became clear that preference fulfilment was not a predictor in the manner hypothesised. Affection

and control fulfilment scores were generally positively related to relationship quality (as expected), but their contribution was of negligible size. Inclusion fulfilment proved to be the most consistent indicator of relationship quality, but this operated in the opposite direction to that expected.

Table 8n: The general hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

Hypothesis Number	Hypothesis	Indications from the results	Comments
4 (4a)	Both sexes in a couple should score similarly on marital quality	True: r=.65 (p< .001) for adjustment and .80 for stability	Where there is a difference, women score higher on marital quality.
5	Relationship commitment and stability should be positively correlated with marital adjustment	True: r=.59 (p< .001) r=.50 (p< .001)	Commitment and stability are also highly correlated
6	Marital adjustment should be unrelated to age	False: r=.39 (p<. 001)	Age was unrelated to commitment and stability
7	Length of courtship should be positively correlated with marital quality	False: r=-.37 (p<.001)	Both stability and commitment are also negatively correlated.

This latter finding requires some further consideration. Whilst it is probably true to say that control and affection are more important areas of fulfilment for marital accord than inclusion within a social

network (and, indeed, withdrawal from social networks is a characteristic of the close relationship: Johnson and Leslie, 1982; Milardo, 1982) it is still uncertain why an unfulfilled desire for inclusion should be significantly correlated with marital quality, especially as this result was also obtained independently of the participant's social support scores. One possible explanation involves returning to the need scales by Schutz (1958) which were adopted for the present questionnaire. In describing their partners, participants in the present study were asked if their partner 'is someone who likes to include others in their activities' (this was in order to determine whether or not that partner allows for the participant to be included within a group). It is, of course, quite possible that for those with less satisfactory relationships the participant's partner may include 'others' in group activities - but may *exclude* his/her actual partner. Turning the hypothesised equation of (relationship quality ∫ inclusion fulfilment) on its head, it may be suggested that those with poor relationships *deliberately exclude* their partners from their social activities. This finding requires further investigation.

Two other possible explanations for the performance of inclusion fulfilment should also be mentioned. One further explanation - which explains the non-positive effect of inclusion if not the negative direction of this finding - stems from the observation that inclusion fulfilment is perhaps of importance only early on in a relationship, and declines as the relationship progresses (Centers, 1971). In the sample, the longer relationship was indeed the happier one, perhaps because inclusion was no longer important (and hence there was no reason for discontent in this area). A final explanation points to the

findings of Moffitt et al (1986), who report that a *need for affiliation* is *in itself* indicative of a happy relationship. Therefore it is unsurprising that partners were unable to meet fully the avid affiliation/inclusion desires of their mates, and thus had husbands/wives who were scored as 'deficient' on this characteristic.

The importance of roles throughout the framework for relationship quality

Relationship roles were significant predictors of adjustment and stability scores (for the preference fulfilled) and predictors of adjustment (for the preference unfulfilled). This finding is certainly in line with prior research which stresses the general significance of relationship roles, but it ran contrary to the hypothesis that roles would not be important in the 'preference unfulfilled' relationship. Further data is needed on this point before any definite conclusions can be reached.

The importance of relationship alternatives throughout the relationship quality framework

As was the case with role fulfilment, relationship alternatives were also significant predictors of relationship adjustment, although the *overall* part played in relationship prediction by relationship alternatives may be smaller than that played by role fulfilment. Some encouragement for the present framework may be obtained from the finding that relationship alternatives are a lesser predictor of relationship quality than roles for the preference fulfilled — as

indeed was expected. Once again, however, this requires more extensive investigation and the use of standardized variables.

Differences between the three dependent variables

Although the three dependent variables have been seen to be highly correlated, there were some differences in the findings which are worthy of note. Some of these differences are undoubtedly the results of ceiling effects: the high scores for commitment and stability reported throughout this study are likely to be the product of studying such a 'happy' group of experimental participants. Differences between the dependent variables are summarised in table 8o.

As can be seen from the table, commitment scores were the most likely ones to be the 'odd scores out' in the relationship quality analysis. Commitment can be influenced by a wide variety of factors (Kelley, 1983; Surra et al, 1988) and there is some precedent for finding a difference between commitment and other relationship quality indicators (e.g. Johnson, 1982; Rosenblatt, 1977). Rusbult (1979, 1980, 1986b), following Thibaut and Kelley (1959), makes a conceptual distinction between commitment and relationship satisfaction, claiming that (low) relationship commitment is more the result of relationship alternatives than satisfaction. However, the results reported here even conflict with Rusbult's findings: this study suggests that alternatives were *more* important for relationship adjustment than for commitment. If this result is confirmed by further investigations (see chapters 9 and 10), it will ask some pertinent questions about Rusbult's investment model.

Table 8o: Notable differences in the findings with respect to the dependent variables (commitment, stability and adjustment).

Independent Variable	Result reported in tables...	Comments
Role fulfilment	8d - 8f	Roles were less important in predicting marital *commitment* than for predicting stability or adjustment.
Relationship alternatives	8g - 8i	Alternatives were more important in predicting *adjustment* than for predicting stability or commitment.
Role fulfilment	Overall regression equation	Roles were less important in predicting *commitment* than for predicting stability or adjustment.
Scores on marital quality for married couples.	8j	There was a much lower correlation between partners for *commitment* to the relationship than there was for marital adjustment or stability.
Length of courtship	8m	Length of courtship was a weaker predictor of relationship *commitment* than it was of stability or adjustment.

8.4.3: Commentary on the general hypotheses for married couples

In this study, two of the more general hypotheses for married couples (hypotheses 4 and 5) received confirmation, whilst two did not (hypotheses 6 and 7). The general similarity between the partners on the dependent variable was quite clearly demonstrated, and the correlation was of the expected magnitude. However, the high marital quality scores recorded for female participants was contrary to hypothesis. This result could have arisen for a number of reasons. First, it may be necessary to allow for status outside marriage in any

such correlation (Glenn, 1975). Second, it should be noted that both sexes scored very highly on the relationship quality measures, so that the sex distinction here may be rather artificial. The largest difference between the sexes was in their commitment scores: this supports Hendrick's (1984) hypothesis that men are inclined towards 'low commitment love' (cited in Duck, 1988).

The link between the dependent variables is probably best seen in the light of wider findings on cognitive consistency (c.f. Hinde, 1981: individuals are unlikely to describe their marriage as unstable if they have just rated it so highly on adjustment). The strong relationship between age and marital adjustment was not expected, and may reflect the fact that those who are dissatisfied with their relationship become divorced (and are thus 'weeded out' of a possible sample), or that older couples tend to respond to questionnaires in a more socially desirable manner (Sporakowski and Axelson, 1984). Finally, the negative relationship between marital adjustment and length of courtship was again unexpected, but must be considered alongside the present method of data collection. All the participants in this study met through a dating agency, where individuals are highly motivated towards forming a close relationship (with a strong prospect to marriage). Interviewing the participants at the experimental evenings (see Chapter 6) many claimed that the successful initial date led to a flurry of subsequent meetings with the partner over a short period of time. From this it might be assumed that within a few weeks, agency partners knew a great deal about one another, possibly more (considering the time span) than couples who had met through other means[4]. Thus a delay in arranging marriage may have

reflected an uncertainty in the partner's minds about the suitability of his/her future spouse, and this may be related to poor marital adjustment at a later date. This is, of course, all speculation which cannot be proven from the present data. The variable of length of marriage will, however, be re-examined in the research to be reported in chapters 9 and 10.

8.4.4: Proposals for subsequent study

This present study has acted as a pilot exploration of the theoretical framework illustrated in figures 3.2. and 8.1. A number of questions have been raised about the validity of this framework, and the next two chapters re-examine the hypotheses in the light of these questions, and involve the following modifications:

a) The selection of a more representative sample of the English population (chapter 9) followed by a wider representation of married couples in general (chapter 10).

b) An increase in both the number of dependent variables, which now include responses to relationship dissatisfaction: chapter 9) and independent variables (which now include occupational status in chapter 9 and age at marriage in chapters 9 and 10).

The following chapters also look once again at the general hypotheses for marital couples and attempt to ascertain whether the results reported in this chapter represent a serious challenge to the findings recorded in the previous literature. The cumulative results should help delimit those effects that resulted from sample restrictions, and those that arise from more general - and perhaps generalisable - phenomena (cf. Holman and Burr, 1980).

Footnotes for chapter 8

[1] Strictly speaking, the comparison level for alternatives can be interpreted as operating on two levels. From one perspective, alternatives can be termed an individual-level factor in the relationship equation, as the available person found most attractive should be the one most able to fulfil prevalent desires (Levinger, 1983). However, from the perspective adopted in this chapter, society at large can also be seen as providing a pool of alternatives, and the prevelance of these alternatives (perhaps reflected by sex ratios) may influence dyadic relations: see Secord, 1982.

2 In chapter 2 a case was made for treating the effects of relationship alternatives in a different manner for relationship stability than for relationship adjustment. However, there seems to be some disagreement about the way in which the stability / adjustment equation operates (Thomas and Kleber, 1981), and very little evidence to support the different arguments. Therefore both relationship stability and adjustment are considered here to be components of an overall phenomenon termed 'relationship quality'

[3] It is also worth noting the close overlap between Nye's role categories and the five areas of 'marital functioning' identified by Tharp (1963), as well as the overlap with the three major role categories pinpointed by Staines and Libby (1986).

[4] It is necessary to remember that couples were partly paired by the agency on the criteria of physical proximity, so that the couples should have had ample chance to interact... and frequency of interaction is also positively related to attraction (Zajonc, 1968).

Chapter 9: Predicting relationship adjustment, commitment and stability II: a random selection of Kent couples

The material discussed in this chapter was presented in a paper entitled "Striking the perfect match: a combinative model for predicting relationship satisfaction" presented at the International Congress of Psychology, September 1988: Sydney, Australia. I must thank the ESRC and the University of Kent for financial aid towards the cost of presenting this paper.

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"doubt everything at least once" [Lichtenberg, G.C. 'Reflections']

9.1: Introduction

9.1.1. The need for a representative sample

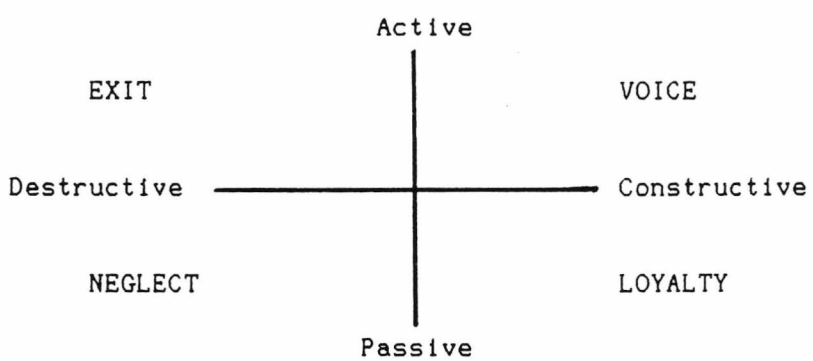
Chapter 8 described the conducting of the first empirical examination of the framework for predicting relationship quality (see figure 8.1). It was clear from this chapter that some of the findings posed problems for this framework: whilst role fulfilment and relationship alternatives were significant predictors of relationship quality (as expected), these variables were influential *regardless* of preference fulfilment. Also unexpected was the finding that preference fulfilment played only a small and erratic part in determining relationship quality. Even the additional hypotheses for married couples, hypotheses drawn from a (sometimes lengthy) tradition of research, received only mixed support.

However, it is evident that dating agency couples who volunteer for studies on relationships may not be typical of the more general population. Recent commentators have underlined the need for representative sampling when constructing relationship theory (e.g. Croake and Lyon, 1978; Krokoff, 1987; McCarthy, 1981; Miller et al, 1982) and a wider sample base is introduced in this chapter (see the method section below). Critics of the methodologies employed in previous PR research have also pointed to the importance of including, alongside measures of the individual's cognitive appraisals of a relationship, more specific indicators of relationship-related *behaviours* (Hinde, 1981; McCarthy, 1981). One such measure is described in the following section.

9.1.2. A behavioural measure of relationship quality: responses to relationship dissatisfaction

A wide range of research has been conducted examining the factors that contribute towards relationship quality (see chapter 8). However, it is only recently that *periodic* deterioration within a relationship, and the partners' responses to such deterioration, has been identified as a topic of interest (Rusbult, 1987). Rusbult's 'responses to dissatisfaction' model is drawn from the industrial research of Hirschman (1970 in Rusbult, 1987) and has been developed by Rusbult as a means of examining particular incidents of dissatisfaction within close relationships (Rusbult et al, 1982; Rusbult et al, 1986a,c; Rusbult 1987; Rusbult and Zembrodt, 1983). The model suggests that four types of response are possible to any relationship dissatisfaction, and that these four responses can be placed along two distinct poles, the destructive / constructive and the active / passive as below (figure 9.1)

Figure 9.1: Rusbult's 'Responses to Dissatisfaction' model (from Rusbult, 1987)



'Exit' behaviour includes "formally separating, moving out of a joint residence, thinking or talking about leaving one's partner" ...;

'Voice' is "discussing problems, suggesting solutions to problems, trying to change oneself or change the partner..."; 'Loyalty' "is 'waiting and hoping that things will improve, giving things some time, supporting the partner in the face of criticism..." and 'Neglect' is "ignoring the partner or spending less time together, refusing to discuss problems, treating the partner badly emotionally or physically..." (Rusbult et al, 1986c: 3). According to Rusbult (1987) Exit responses are typical of couples with low relationship satisfaction, low relationship investment and good alternatives, whilst the Voice response usually occurs with couples who are satisfied, have high relationship investments and also good relationship alternatives. Neglect and Loyalty occur when couples have few relationship alternatives: Neglect responses are frequent when satisfaction and investment are low, Loyalty can be found when satisfaction and investment are high. This taxonomy has been used to analyse established couples, dating students, gay and lesbian men and women and has even been used to predict musical participation (Kowlowsky and Kluger, 1986). The various components of the model have been used as both independent (e.g. Rusbult et al, 1986a) and dependent (e.g. Rusbult, 1987) variables: in this study responses to dissatisfaction are used as *dependent* variables.

9.1.3. Hypotheses

The hypotheses for this study are essentially the same as those suggested for chapter 8, and thus draw on the theory proposed in chapters 2 and 3. Two slight modifications in the hypotheses are however introduced for this study: the four responses to

dissatisfaction listed by Rusbult are introduced as new dependent variables to be examined, and two further, general hypotheses, concerning the influence of social class and age at marriage on marital quality are added.

Hypotheses relevant for the testing of the relationship quality framework (fig. 8.1)

H_{1a}: As low relationship satisfaction is positively related to low adjustment, and Rusbult reports that low satisfaction is also positively correlated with destructive responses to relationship dissatisfaction (Rusbult 1987), then **where desires (preferences) are not fulfilled there should be a greater tendency towards Exit and Neglect responses to dissatisfaction.**

H_{1b}: **If desires are *not* fulfilled (either by the partner or by the social support network), then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability**

a) **will be very low if there are good alternative relationships available, and there should be an 'active', destructive response to dissatisfaction (i.e. Exit).**

b) **will be low to moderate if there are only poor relationship alternatives available**

H_2: **If desires are *satisfied* (by either the partner or by the social support network), but role-fulfilment is poor, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be moderate.**

H_3: If desires are *satisfied*, and roles are also fulfilled, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be high. Here, there should also be a corresponding constructive response to relationship dissatisfaction (i.e. Voice and/or Loyalty)

General Hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

H_4: There should be a high similarity between husbands and wives in terms of marital quality (Buss, 1984b; Dean and Lucas, 1978; Eysenck and Wakefield, 1981; Gilford and Bengtson, 1979; Glenn, 1975). Where there is a difference,

H_{4a}: the husband should gain more satisfaction from the relationship than the wife (Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Bernard, 1972; Rhyne, 1981; Sporakowski and Hughston, 1978; Wiggins et al, 1983).

H_5: Relationship adjustment should be positively related to both marital commitment (Murstein and MacDonald, 1983; Waring et al, 1981) and relationship stability (Bentler and Newcomb, 1978)

H_6: Marital adjustment should not be related to age (Buss, 1984b; Grover et al, 1985; Spanier and Lewis, 1980; Schlesinger, 1983; White et al, 1986; Yelsma, 1986)

H_7: The number of years a partner is known before marriage should be positively related to marital quality (Goode, 1956; Grover et al, 1985)

H_8: There should be a positive correlation between age at marriage and marital quality (Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Lee, 1977)

H_9: Those from a low social economic class should be less adjusted and stable in their relationships than those from a higher social economic group (evidence reviewed in Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Duck, 1988; Haralambos, 1985; Nye, 1979).

9.2: Method of data collection

9.2.1. Participants

1000 married couples were randomly selected from the general electoral register for the Maidstone area, using social economic group information provided by the town council to collect as broad a sample as possible'. To be classified as a 'married couple', couples had to share a family name and be classed in the electoral register as 'Mr' and 'Mrs'. These 1000 couples were sent a letter asking for their participation in a 'detailed study on relationships'. Potential participants were asked to respond to the request by returning a response slip in a pre-paid envelope enclosed.

252 individuals returned response slips indicating a willingness to participate in this study, and these individuals were sent the marriage questionnaire described below, alongside a pre-paid envelope for reply. All potential respondents were assured of their anonymity and asked to complete and return their questionnaires independently of their partner. Participants were also instructed to signify their membership of a couple by agreeing with their partner a random (private) number for inclusion on the schedule (as in chapter 8).

Potential participants who agreed to participate in the study but failed to return the completed questionnaire were sent a reminder. 166 of the 252 who agreed to participate (i.e. 66%) returned completed questionnaires. This final number of 166 questionnaires comprised responses from 77 couples and 12 individuals who responded without their partner. Participants were from a wide age range (median age was 43, ages ranged from 20 to 85): they had, on average, been married for 21 years and had known their partner for a mean time of just over 3 years (38 months) before marriage.

Comment on the response rate

Once again, the number of responses was disappointing, although an exact response rate is not easily calculated (it is only possible to guess marital status from the electoral register, as mothers and sons are often classified as 'Mr' and 'Mrs'. The register also contained a number of inaccuracies - including several dead people(!)). Factors by now familiar to the reader doubtlessly also contributed to the low number of replies: in a study of this size it did not prove possible to pay respondents, who were asked to complete, unrenumerated, a lengthy and intimate questionnaire (the longest of any in this thesis, running to 20 pages). As previously commented, low response rates are (not unsuprisingly) a frequent hazard in this field.

9.2.2. Materials

All measures were obtained by using one relationship questionnaire. This questionnaire was identical to that described in chapter 8, with the following three additions:

The measurement of responses to dissatisfaction

The most appropriate measurement of responses to dissatisfaction for the present population was developed by Rusbult et al (1986a), and it is from this article that the following instructions for participants were taken:

"..everyone experiences some unhappiness in their relationships, even in the most perfect involvements. These questions concern the most recent dissatisfying incident in your relationship. You may choose to describe a fairly important problem, or you may decide to describe a more trivial incident, either is fine".

Participants were then asked to

a) provide open-ended responses describing a recent dissatisfying incident in their relationship.

b) complete 5-point Likert scales providing Voice, Loyalty, Exit or Neglect-type descriptions of the response to that dissatisfaction (Rusbult refers to these as the "structural" measures)

Rusbult et al (ibid) report a high correlation between the open-ended responses and structural descriptions of the dissatisfaction, and therefore in the present analysis only the structural indicators were examined.

The examination of social class

All respondents were asked to indicate their occupation, and these occupations were then coded according to the Registrar General's social class classifications using the social group indicators provided by the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys (1980)

Measuring age at marriage

To enable this to be measured, respondents were asked to indicate the number of years they had been married.

9.3: Results

The analysis of results was similar to that carried out in chapter 8, and the presentation of the data adopts a similar format to this previous chapter.

9.3.1. Treating the relationship quality framework as a series of dichotomous variables

Dividing the sample into the preference unfulfilled and the preference fulfilled

H_{1a}: Where desires (preferences) are not fulfilled there should be a greater tendency towards Exit and Neglect responses to dissatisfaction.

H_{1b}: If desires are *not* fulfilled (either by the partner or by the social support network), then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability

a) **will be very low if there are good alternative relationships available, and there should be an 'active', destructive response to dissatisfaction (i.e. Exit).**

b) **will be low to moderate if there are only poor relationship alternatives available**

Analysis for hypothesis 1a

In chapter 8 those who had their desires met by their partner or their

social support network were defined the 'preference fulfilled', those who were fulfilled by neither their partner or their support network were deemed 'preference unfulfilled'. In the previous study differences between the preference 'fulfilled' and 'unfulfilled' on the marital quality variables were in the direction predicted, but did not reach conventional levels of statistical significance. In the present study, a similar directional tendency can be noted for marital adjustment, commitment and stability (table 9a).

Table 9a Differences between those who are preference 'fulfilled' and those 'unfulfilled' by their partner/social network on the seven dependent variables

Dependent variable	'Fulfilled' (N=109)	'Unfulfilled' (N=53)	p< (2-tail t-test)
Marital adjustment	115.9	111.1	n.s.
Commitment	13.3	13.0	n.s.
Stability	4.2	4.0	n.s.
Voice response	7.0	7.1	n.s.
Loyal response	9.4	8.8	.01
Exit response	2.9	2.4	.001
Neglect response	7.8	7.3	.001

Note: 'n.s.' indicates results were not significant at the conventional 5% significance level.

The above results, however, challenge the hypothesis concerning responses to relationship dissatisfaction. Whilst those who are preference 'fulfilled' in their relationships are more likely to remain (constructively) Loyal following an altercation (as might be expected), these individuals were paradoxically also more likely to

consider Exiting or Neglecting the relationship (destructive behaviours).

Examining hypothesis 1b using the preference filter and relationship alternatives

According to the theorising in chapters 2 and 3 relationship alternatives are only of importance only when a relationship is 'preference unfulfilled'. In chapter 8, such alternatives were seen to be powerful predictor of relationship quality, and here the analysis was extended to consider responses to dissatisfaction. 'Good' and 'poor' alternatives are distinguished by using the median score on this variable across all participants as the cut-off point.

Table 9b: Relationship alternatives amongst the preference 'unfulfilled' as a predictor of the 7 dependent variables

Dependent variable	Poor alternatives (N= 26)	Good alternatives (N=27)	p< (2-tail t-test)
Marital adjustment	112.6	109.4	n.s.
Commitment	13.5	12.6	n.s.
Stability	4.6	3.5	.05
Voice	7.0	7.3	n.s.
Loyalty	9.2	8.4	n.s.
Exit	2.0	2.9	n.s.
Neglect	6.5	8.4	n.s.

Note: 'n.s.' indicates results were not significant at the conventional 5% significance level.

The effects of alternatives were not so immediately discernible in this analysis, although all differences were in the direction predicted. However, the one statistically significant finding, that relationship stability was greater amongst those with the lesser alternatives, was as expected.

Examining the second and third hypotheses using the preference fulfilment filter and role fulfilment

H_2: If desires are *satisfied* (by either the partner or by the social support network), but role-fulfilment is poor, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be moderate.

H_3: If desires are *satisfied*, and roles are also fulfilled, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be high. Here there should also be a corresponding constructive response to relationship dissatisfaction (i.e. Voice and/or Loyalty)

Analysis

In chapter 8, role fulfilment was seen to be a powerful determinant of relationship quality, and when considering just the preference fulfilled, the same conclusion can be reached for the present study (see table 9c). Indeed, role fulfilment has *such* a powerful influence here that it once again challenges the hypothesis that those who are preference fulfilled yet enjoy only poor role interaction will be 'moderate' in relationship quality (hypothesis 2). The results here indicate that those who fall within this preference fulfilled/poor role fulfilment category score *lower* than the overall median scores on the variables concerned.

The effects of role performance on responses to relationship dissatisfaction were minimal, although results were in the anticipated direction for all variables other than the Loyalty response to dissatisfaction.

Table 9c: Role scores amongst the preference 'fulfilled' as predictors of the 3 dependent variables

Dependent variable	'Poor role' fulfilment (N=55)	'Good role' fulfilment (N=54)	p< (2-tail t-test)
Marital adjustment	109.9	121.5	.0001
Commitment	12.9	13.5	.0001
Stability	3.7	4.6	(.10)
Voice	6.9	7.7	n.s.
Loyalty	9.7	9.1	n.s.
Exit	3.3	2.5	n.s.
Neglect	8.7	6.9	n.s.

Note: Parantheses indicate marginal significance: 'n.s.' indicates results were not significant at the conventional 5% significance level.

9.3.2. A re-examination of the framework using regression analyses

In the analysis below the results are reanalysed using all the scores as continuous data. As seven dependent variables are now examined, only those predictors obtaining t-values significant at the 5% level are reported in the tables below. For all the following analyses, regression variables are standardized to allow for an easier comparison of β values.

Regression analysis examining preference and role fulfilment

It will be recalled from the previous chapter that the proposed equations for those enjoying preference 'fulfilled' relationships are as follows:

Relationship adjustment (Commitment/stability, *and* positive responses to relationship dissatisfaction) f (preference fulfilment + role fulfilment) (1)

and that

Destructive responses to relationship dissatisfaction f (poor preference fulfilment and negative role fulfilment). (2)

It was also hypothesised that relationship alternatives would not be influential in these equations

Analysis

Table 9d shows that the relationship between role fulfilment and marital quality is almost identical to that reported in chapter 8: i.e. role fulfilment predicts relationship adjustment and stability but does *not* predict relationship commitment. Relationship alternatives play an unexpectedly large part in the equations here, and exceed role fulfilment in their predictive power (the standardisation of variables makes direct comparison of the beta values possible). Relationship alternatives also provided the only significant predictor of the nature of a partner's response after a

disagreement. Here, relationship alternatives were positively related to the tendency towards Exit following such a disagreement.

Table 9d. Regressing preference fulfilment, relationship alternatives and role fulfilment on marital quality and responses to relationship dissatisfaction for the "preference fulfilled" participants

Dependent Variable	Adjusted R-squared	Significant Predictors	Standardized Beta value	Significance level for t-value (p<)
Marital adjustment	24%	Role fulfilment	.31	.004
		Alternatives	-.43	.0001
Commitment	15%	Alternatives	-.40	.0004
Stability	21%	Role fulfilment	.19	(.07)
		Alternatives	-.46	.0001
Voice	-2%	None		
Loyalty	0%	None		
Exit	10%	Alternatives	.31	.006
Neglect	2%	None		

Note: Only statistical significances at p< .05 are reported, with the exception of the result for the prediction of relationship stability, where parantheses indicate marginal significance.

Preference fulfilment had only a minimal influence on the dependent variables, although the direction of results was again overwhelmingly as predicted ($^{15}/_{21}$ results were in the anticipated direction: for marital quality, the prediction was that all three preference fulfilment scores would be positive. For responses to dissatisfaction, the prediction was that preference scores would be positive for the constructive responses to dissatisfaction (Voice and Loyalty) and

negative for the destructive responses (Exit and Neglect)). This pattern of results is illustrated in table 9e.

Table 9e. The *direction* of the three preference fulfilment scores on regression equations for the prediction of relationship quality and responses to dissatisfaction (preference fulfilled participants only)

	Predicted direction of preference fulfilment	-Preference inclusion	fulfilment control	variable- affect
Relationship adjustment	All positive	positive	positive	positive
Commitment	All positive	negative	positive	negative
Stability	All positive	positive	positive	positive
Voice	All positive	negative	positive	negative
Loyalty	All positive	positive	negative	positive
Exit	All negative	negative	negative	positive
Neglect	All negative	negative	negative	negative

Regression analysis examining relationship alternatives amongst the preference unfulfilled.

In chapter 8, a hypothetical equation was offered for the examination of those who were 'preference unfulfilled'. This equation is modified here to produce two equations which incorporate the earlier discussions on responses to relationship dissatisfaction.

Relationship adjustment (Commitment/stability, *and* positive responses to relationship dissatisfaction) $\neq$ (preference fulfilment and poor relationship alternatives) (3)

Destructive responses to relationship dissatisfaction $\neq$ (poor preference fulfilment and good relationship alternatives). (4)

It was thought that relationship roles would not be of significance in these equations.

Table 9f provides the results relevant to this analysis.

Analysis

Table 9f. Regressing preference fulfilment, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives on marital quality and responses to relationship dissatisfaction (for the preference unfulfilled only)

Dependent Variable	Adjusted R-squared	Significant Predictors	Standardized Beta value	Significance level for t-value (p<)
Marital adjustment	-6%	None		
Commitment	9%	Relationship Alternatives	-.32	.0002
Stability	13%	Relationship Alternatives	-.38	.0001
Voice	-3%	None		
Loyalty	-2%	None		
Exit	2%	Relationship Alternatives	.20	.03
Neglect	-2%	None		

Note: Only statistical significances at p< .05 are reported here.

As predicted, only one independent variable, the variable of relationship alternatives, had a significant impact on the equations. Also as expected, role fulfilment was not important when considering this section of the relationship quality framework. The interrelation between good alternatives and a tendency towards Exit following disagreement supports one part of the first hypothesis, and echoes the findings of Rusbult (e.g. Rusbult et al, 1986c).
In this regression analysis, the effects of preference fulfilment were not only minimal, but the direction of these preferences within the regression equations was mixed. Table 9g illustrates this confusing pattern by showing the direction of these preference results alongside the anticipated influence of these partner preferences.

Table 9g. The *direction* of the three preference fulfilment scores on regression equations for the prediction of relationship quality and responses to dissatisfaction (considering just the preference unfulfilled)

	Predicted direction of preference fulfilment	-Preference inclusion	fulfilment control	variable- affect
Relationship adjustment	All positive	positive	negative	negative
Commitment	All positive	positive	positive	negative
Stability	All positive	negative	negative	positive
Voice	All positive	positive	positive	positive
Loyalty	All positive	positive	negative	positive
Exit	All negative	negative	negative	positive
Neglect	All negative	negative	negative	positive

Overall regression equations for the analysis of relationship quality

The above suggests that role fulfilment and relationship alternatives are important in the prediction of relationship quality, but preference fulfilment has only a minimal part to play in this process. This pattern of results can once more be summarised within a set of overall regression equations. Here, as before, only the significant predictors (at $p<.05$) are reported.

Table 9h: Regressing preference fulfilment, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives on marital quality and responses to relationship dissatisfaction (for all participants)

Dependent Variable	Adjusted R-squared	Significant Predictors	Standardized Beta value	Significance level for t-value (p<)
Marital adjustment	11%	Relationship alternatives	-.35	.0001
Commitment	9%	Relationship alternatives	-.33	.0002
Stability	13%	Relationship alternatives	-.36	.0001
Voice	-3%	None		
Loyalty	-2%	None		
Exit	2%	Relationship alternatives	.21	.03
Neglect	-2%	None		

Here, the overall regression equation accounts for little of the variance in scores, and only one factor makes a significant contribution, that of relationship alternatives. Role fulfilment was strangely absent as a predictor, but intriguingly, this variable was *negatively* correlated with *all* four modes of response to dissatisfaction (although this correlation was nonsignificant at the 5% level in each case).

The final consideration of the importance of preference fulfilment is presented in table 9i

Table 9i: The *direction* of the three preference fulfilment scores on regression equations for the prediction of relationship quality and responses to dissatisfaction (using data for all of the participants)

	Predicted direction of preference fulfilment	-Preference fulfilment variable- inclusion	control	affect
Relationship adjustment	All positive	positive	negative	positive
Commitment	All positive	positive	positive	negative
Stability	All positive	negative	negative	positive
Voice	All positive	positive	positive	positive
Loyalty	All positive	positive	negative	positive
Exit	All negative	negative	negative	positive
Neglect	All negative	negative	negative	positive

The results here again suggest that preference fulfilment as measured in this study is not a reliable predictor of relationship quality and interaction.

9.3.3: General hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

The previous literature in this area also suggested a number of more general hypotheses

H_4: There should be a high similarity between husbands and wives on marital quality. Where there is a difference,

H_{4a}: the husband should gain more satisfaction from the relationship than the wife

Analysis

A series of Pearson-r correlations produced pair-wise comparisons

between husbands and wives on the marital quality variables. The results indicated a high correlation between partners (correlation for adjustment = .51, for commitment = .54 and for stability = .56: all are significant at the p< .001 level)

A series of t-tests were then used to examine any existing differences between the sexes (table 9j).

Table 9j T-tests for a comparison between the sexes for scores on the dependent variables

Dependent variables	Men (N=80)	Women (N=86)	p< 2-tail t-test
Marital adjustment	116.1	114.5	n.s.
Commitment	13.3	13.3	n.s
Stability	4.3	4.0	n.s
Voice	6.8	7.1	n.s
Loyalty	9.0	9.7	n.s
Exit	2.3	3.2	.05
Neglect	7.1	8.2	n.s

Note: 'n.s.' indicates results were not significant at the conventional 5% significance level.

Consistent with the hypothesis, men felt rather more stable in their relationship, and exhibited a greater amount of adjustment, but the differences did not reach statistical significance. The one significant finding, the greater tendency for women to consider exiting the relationship, is in line with the hypothesised patterns of marital quality.

H_5: Relationship adjustment should be positively related to both marital commitment and stability.

Analysis

Intercorrelations between these variables demonstrate the predicted positive correlations. Using the Pearson coefficient, adjustment is seen to be correlated r=.56 (p< .001) with commitment and r=.63 (p< .001) with stability. To complete the set of intercorrelations, commitment is correlated r=.51 (p< .001) with stability.

H6: Marital adjustment should not be related to age

Analysis

Table 9k reports the correlations between age and marital adjustment, stability and commitment, as well as the correlations between age and the four possible responses to relationship dissatisfaction

Table 9k: Pearson r correlations between participant's age and the seven dependent variables

Dependent variables	Correlation r (N=166)	p< 2-tail test
Marital adjustment	.19	.03
Commitment	.10	(.10)
Stability	.09	n.s.
Voice	-.09	n.s.
Loyalty	-.01	n.s.
Exit	-.03	n.s.
Neglect	-.20	.03

Note: n.s. indicates the correlation is nonsignificant at p< .05: the parantheses indicate marginal significance

The above suggests that age is positively correlated with adjustment, and age is also marginally correlated with commitment. Age is inversely related to Neglect after dissatisfaction. However, it should be stressed that these are *small* correlations, which are presented as 'statistically significant' partly because of the large number of participants involved in this study.

Recent research on personality convergence in marriage (Guttman and Zohar, 1987), and a number of studies on marriage across the lifespan (see Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Gilford and Bengtson, 1979 and Schlesinger, 1983 for reviews) suggests that it is also informative to analyse scattergrams of age when examining the predictive qualities of this variable. Figures 9.2 - 9.4 are scattergram plots for marital quality when plotted against age. From these, however, it is clear that there are no consistent curvilinear trends to be found in such a comparison.

Figure 9.2: Relationship adjustment over the years: a scattergram illustrating the nature of the association between age and marital adjustment

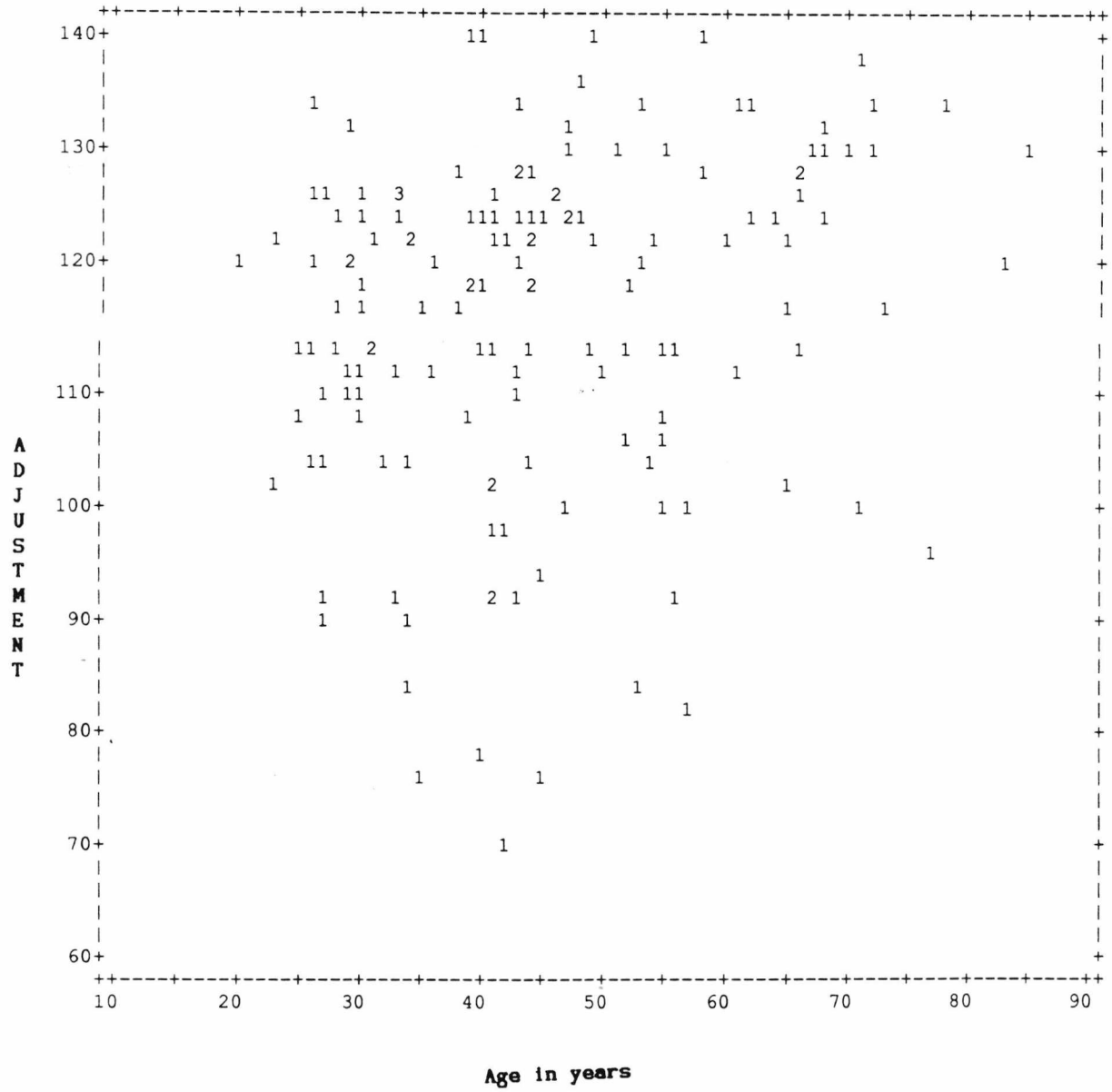


Figure 9.3: Relationship stability over the years: a scattergram illustrating the nature of the association between age and marital stability

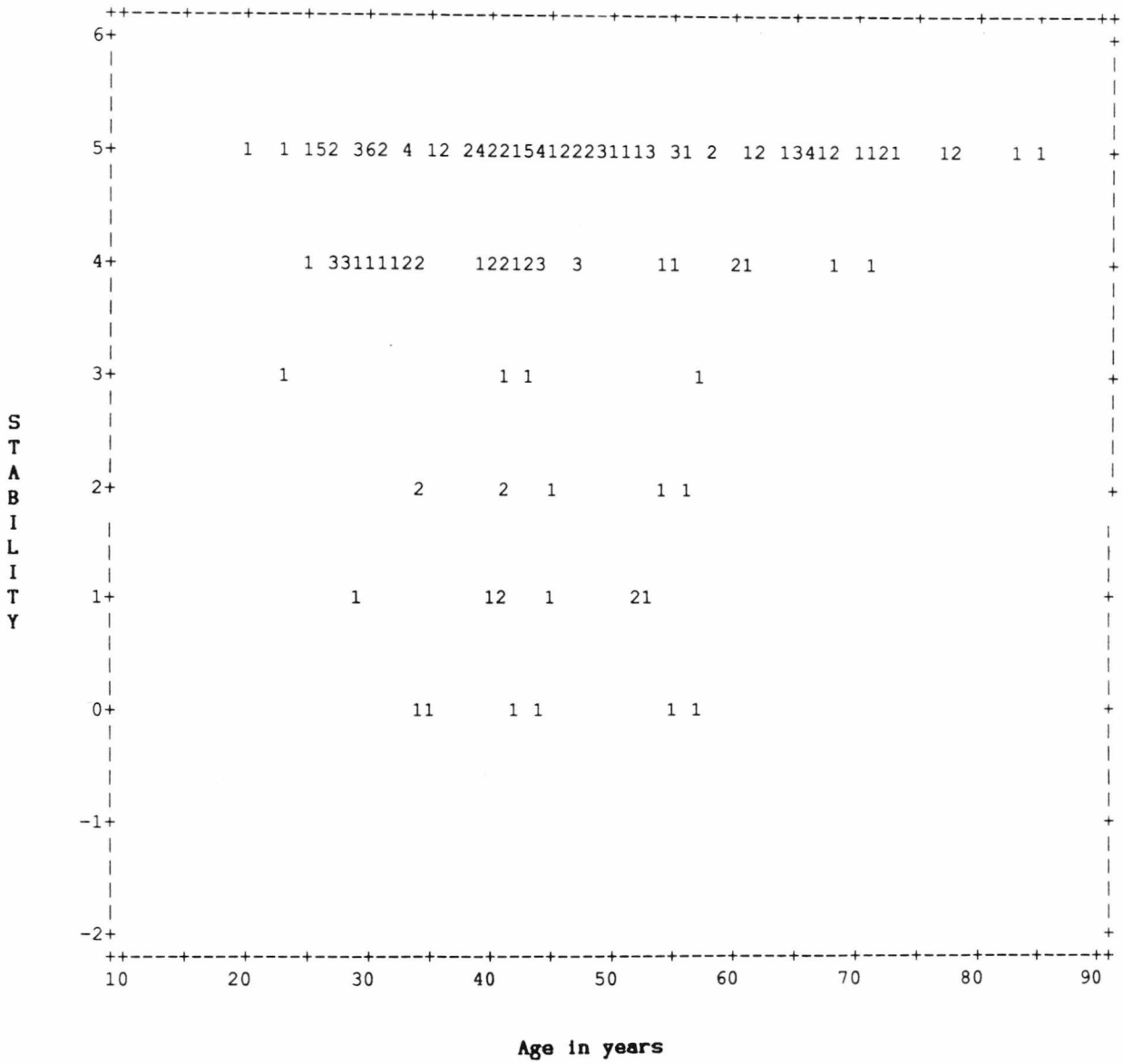
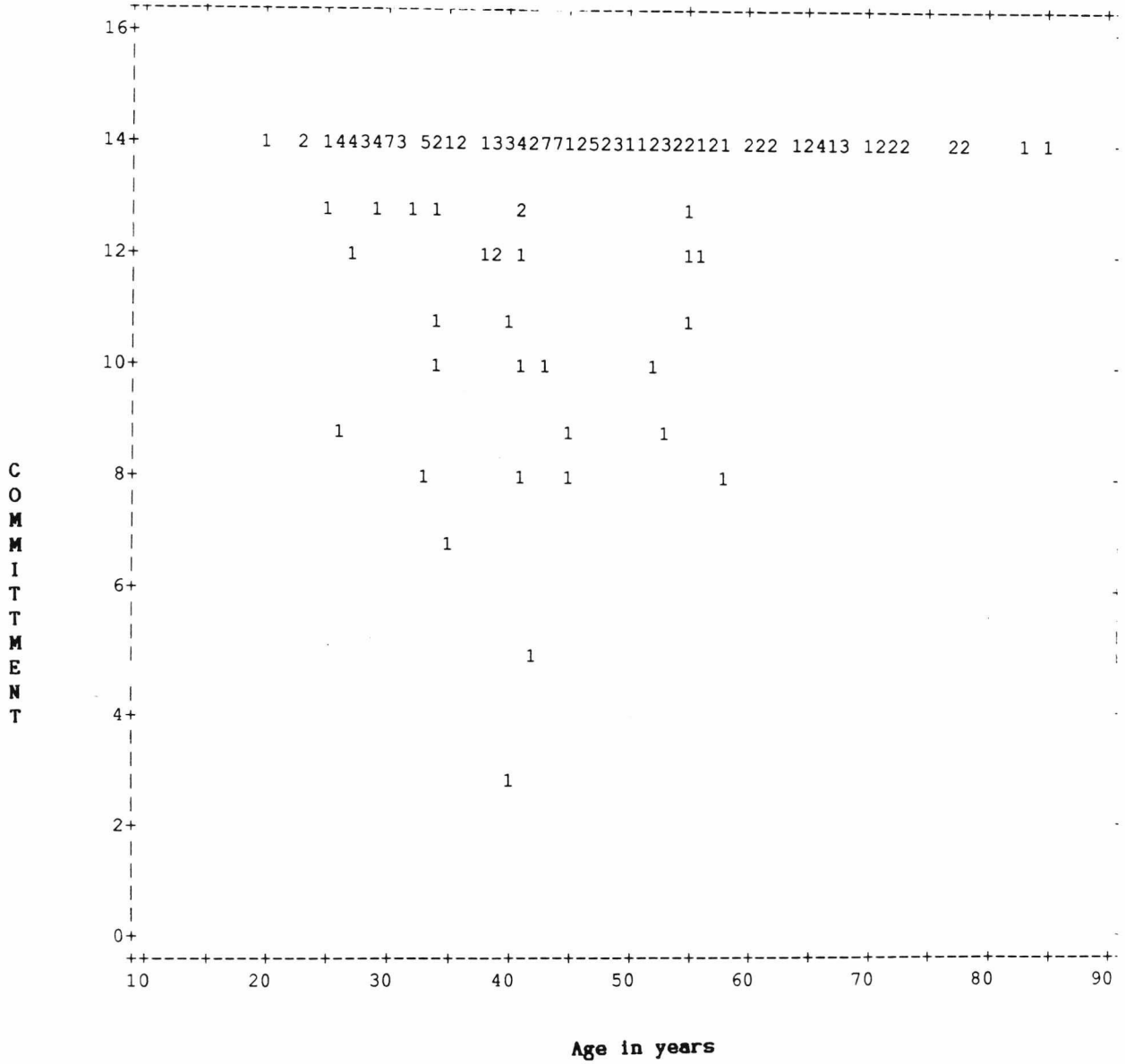


Figure 9.4: Relationship commitment over the years: a scattergram illustrating the nature of the association between age and marital commitment



H7: The number of years a partner is known before marriage should be positively related to marital quality

Analysis

The relationship between length of courtship and the three relationship quality variables is tabulated below, once again using the Pearson r co-efficient (table 91).

Table 91: Intercorrelations between length of courtship and the three relationship quality variables

Dependent variables	Correlation r (N=166)	p< 2-tail test
Marital adjustment	.05	n.s.
Commitment	.03	n.s.
Stability	.13	(.07)

Note: n.s. indicates the correlation was not significant at p< .05; parantheses indicate marginal statistical significance

As can be seen from this table, the correlations between length of courtship and the relationship quality variables were in the expected direction (i.e. they were positive) but only approach significance for one variable, relationship stability.

H8: There should be a positive correlation between age at marriage and marital quality

Analysis

Here the results offer very little support for the hypothesis: marital adjustment *is* seen to be positively correlated to age at marriage, but

the correlation is only a very weak one. However, commitment and stability are (weakly) *negatively* correlated with age at marriage. These mixed findings will be further investigated in the following, final investigation of relationship quality (Chapter 10).

Table 9m: Intercorrelations between age at marriage and the three marital quality dependent variables

Dependent variables	Correlation r (N=166)	p< 2-tail test
Marital adjustment	.04	n.s.
Commitment	-.05	n.s.
Stability	-.09	n.s.

Note: n.s. indicates the correlation was not significant at p< .05

H_9: Those from a low socio-economic class should be less adjusted and stable in their relationships than those from a higher social economic group

Analysis

For the final hypothesis, social class (as measured by respondent's occupation) was correlated with the relationship quality variables. As the higher the number of classification on the Registrar General's scale the lower the class (i.e. class V is the lowest) the present hypothesis would suggest a *negative* correlation between class classification number and relationship quality. Not all respondents provided sufficient information about their occupation for social

group classification, and some occupation statuses proved difficult to code. Therefore the *N* here was only 104.

Table 9n: Intercorrelations between social economic group and the three marital quality variables

Dependent variables	Correlation r (N=104)	p< 2-tail test
Marital adjustment	.03	n.s.
Commitment	-.05	n.s.
Stability	.00	n.s.

Note: n.s. indicates the correlation was not significant at p< .05

As can be seen from the above table (9n) there were no clear effects for social economic grouping on relationship quality.

9.4. Discussion

9.4.1. Summary of Results

Testing the framework. Analysing the data as a series of dichotomous variables, the results indicate that relationship alternatives and role fulfilment are both important determinants of relationship quality. However, when regression analyses were run using all the variables, relationship alternatives were to be the strongest predictor of marital quality. Consistent with the findings reported in the previous chapter, preference fulfilment was found to play only a very small part in predicting relationship quality.

Predicting responses to relationship dissatisfaction from the relationship quality framework

The data provided few overall indications of why individuals respond to relationship dissatisfaction in a particular manner. This may be partly the result of both the 'ceiling' and 'floor' effects which

operated in the data (scores were generally very low for Exit and Neglect and high for Loyalty responses). Two notable results do emerge however: first of all, as predicted, good relationship alternatives promote considerations of Exit when disagreements arise (Rusbult 1987 forms a similar hypothesis). Secondly, an examination of the correlational matrices shows that, as expected, Exit and Neglect are negatively related to relationship quality. However, whilst Loyalty is positively related to relationship quality (as Rusbult suggests) Voice has an inconsistent relationship with such quality. This latter result may arise from the complex attributional processes which often occur in close relationships (cf. Sillars, 1985), and where 'voicing your opinion' may be interpreted as 'nagging/ tormenting' etc (an attribution likely to contribute to a downward cycle of destructive interactions: see Gottman, 1979; Noller, 1985). Thus 'positive' behaviours may be viewed as 'negative' by those discontented with the state of their relationship (Bradbury and Fincham, 1988).

General hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

The conclusions reached for these general hypotheses are summarised in table 9o.

Table 9o: Six general hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

H_o No.	Hypothesis	Indications from the results	Comments
4 (4a)	Both sexes in a couple should score similarly on marital quality	True: r=.51 for adjustment, r=.54 and r=.56 for commitment and stability (all significant at p<.001).	Where there is a difference men score higher than women on marital quality.
5	Relationship commitment and stability should be positively related to marital adjustment	True: r=.56 (p< .001) r=.63 (p< .001)	Commitment and stability are also highly correlated
6	Marital adjustment should be unrelated to age	False: r=.19 (p<. 01)	Age *was* only marginally correlated to commitment and was unrelated to stability
7	Length of courtship should be positively correlated with marital quality	False? r=.05 for adjustment, r=.03 and r=.13 for commitment and stability (all n.s)	Length of courtship was *marginally* correlated with stability
8	Age at marriage should be positively correlated with marital quality	False? r=.04 (n.s) for adjustment and -.05 (commitment) and -.09 (stability)	Scattergrams show no significant age trends for marital quality.
9	Social class should be negatively correlated with marital quality	False. All results for the quality variables were n.s	No social class effects were evident.

Note: 'n.s' indicates results were not significant at the 5% level.

9.4.2. Discussion of the relationship quality framework

The weak influence of partner preferences

This study found that, once again, preference fulfilment made little

or no contribution to either the prediction of marital quality or to the estimation of responses to relationship dissatisfaction. Whilst a general distinction between the preference 'fulfilled' and 'unfulfilled' revealed that, as expected, scores for marital adjustment, stability and commitment were higher for those deemed 'fulfilled', the differences were only marginal. When considering responses to dissatisfaction, the differences that emerged between the fulfilled and unfulfilled were not as expected: whilst those who were 'preference fulfilled' were more likely to be Loyal to their partner following dissatisfaction (as predicted) these individual were also more likely to be more willing to countenance Exiting or Neglecting the relationship (contrary to hypothesis).

When interpreting the regression equations, the role of preference fulfilment in predicting relationship quality became even more confusing. In chapter 8, inclusion fulfilment was the 'mavarick' in the 'preference pack', consistently contributing *negatively* to relationship quality. In this study, there is no obvious mavarick: instead, the preference variables acted in a generally unpredictable manner. Of course, a number of explanations are possible even within the present theory: one possibility is that the measure of fulfilment used in this study was oversimplistic, and that the relationship between preferences and social support may be more complex than that suggested in this thesis. A second explanation is that the preference desires measured were inappropriate for the particular individuals who participated in this study. The implications of this will be considered in the concluding chapter to this thesis (chapter 11).

The importance of role fulfilment and relationship alternatives

Chapter 8 concluded that role fulfilment played a significant part in each section of the relationship quality framework, but in the present investigation relationship alternatives were also major predictors. Although this is in some senses a reversal of the pattern revealed in chapter 8 (where roles were seen to be of greater importance than alternatives) this reversal is perhaps unsurprising: previous researchers have consistently argued that relationship alternatives should be of greater importance as the quality of the relationship declines (see chapter 3)... and those who participated in the previous study were generally far less satisfied with their relationships than the participants in the present study.

Differences between the dependent variables

In chapter 8 commitment was seen to be the 'odd one out' amongst the dependent variables used to measure marital quality, but in the present study such differences between the dependent variables were less evident. This suggests that some of the earlier inconsistencies between the results for the dependent variables may have arisen from the previous small sample size. As was the case with the previous study, the dependent variables continued to be highly correlated with one another.

One surprising finding in the results concerned the interrelationship between the four responses to relationship dissatisfaction. The correlation matrix for these responses is presented in table 9p

Table 9p. A Pearson-r correlational matrix for the four responses to relationship dissatisfaction

	Loyalty	Exit	Neglect
Voice	-.21 (p<.01)	-.09 (nonsig)	-.20 (p<.01)
Loyalty		.52 (p<.001)	.69 (p<.001)
Exit			.71 (p<.001)

Abbreviation: nonsig(nificant) at p< .05.

The really interesting variable here is Loyalty. Just "waiting and hoping for things to improve" is closely aligned with the *destructive* reactions to disagreement, a finding which runs contrary to the theorising of Rusbult, which suggests that Loyalty is a *constructive* reaction to dissatisfaction. This implies that future studies using this response to dissatisfaction taxonomy need to be wary of the possible 'negative' effects of 'loyalty'.

9.4.3. Commentary on the general hypotheses for married couples

The results of this examination of general hypotheses were remarkably similar to those reported in chapter 8. Couples again scored similarly on relationship quality (hypothesis 4), but here the tendency was for men to score marginally higher than their female partners (although this difference was nonsignificant). Once again, all the dependent relationship quality variables were highly correlated (hypothesis 5). A positive link between age and marital adjustment was discovered (hypothesis 6), and although this correlation was of a similar magnitude to that reported by Lee (1977) this small correlation

(r=.19) only reached acceptable levels of statistical significance because of the large numbers of participants in the study. Scattergrams failed to show the curvilinear, 'U-shaped' relationship between age and marital quality which might have been expected from previous work on marital quality across the relationship lifecycle (Gilford and Bengtson, 1979 and Schlesinger, 1983).

Length of courtship was positively related to marital quality in this study (hypothesis 7), but the association was very small. Age at marriage was also seen to be unrelated to relationship quality (hypothesis 8): this may reflect the relatively mature age at which the couples married (mean age at marriage for the present study was 25, approximately two years older than the median age for this generation, Argyle and Henderson, 1985). Finally, the class effect reported by other workers in this field failed to materialise for the present sample. This may be the result of a relative homogeneity in class distribution amongst the respondents in the sample (there were few responses from members of social class I or V), or it may be due to the fairly large number of retired participants in this study (almost 10% of the sample classified themselves as such, and this may have had significant influence on class status).

9.4.4. Concluding remarks

The present study has reaffirmed many of the findings of the more exploratory study reported in chapter 8. 'Preference fulfilment' was not a significant predictor of relationship quality, although relationship alternatives (and, in some sections of the filter framework, role fulfilment) *were* important contributors towards such

quality. Once again there was only mixed support for a variety of general hypotheses for the examination of married couples.

Hypotheses drawn (admittedly indirectly) from Rusbult's 'responses to dissatisfactions' model proved to be of limited predictive validity, although a tendency towards considering Exiting from a relationship was successfully predicted by considering the strength of alternative relationships, Rusbult's model may require some further consideration in that 'Loyalty' does not seem to be the constructive response to dissatisfaction which she suggests. Furthermore, 'Voice' seems to have an ambiguous relationship with marital quality.

The next chapter takes a step away from studies based in a Western culture to see to what extent the findings reported so far might apply to residents of another very different continent - South America. In this, the final empirical study to be reported in this thesis, the present framework is used to consider the effects of the variables listed on marriages in previously 'uncharted' territory.

Footnote to chapter 9

[1] Maidstone is a moderately small town in Kent, comprising a full and representative range of the Registrar General's social classes (Census data, 1981, OPCS).

Chapter 10: Predicting relationship quality III: a cross-national comparison

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"I have found all buyers cautious, and all of them have astute eyes,
But even the most astute man buys his wife while she is still wrapped"
[Nietzsche, F. 'Thus Spake Zarathustra' (1982 edition: 96)]

10.1: Introduction

This, the final empirical chapter of the thesis, describes the last test of the framework for marital quality first outlined in figure 3.2 (and simplified in figure 8.1). This study makes an important departure from the previous analyses in using the relationship quality framework for the purposes of cross-cultural comparison.

10.1.1. The need for cross-cultural research

> "Our location in a culture presents us with particular styles and types of acceptable relationships that may be quite different from those acceptable and familiar in other cultures" (Duck, 1988a: 14).

In the past two decades, a number of commentators have pointed to the desirability of a cross-national approach to family studies (Berardo, 1980; Buunk and Hupka, 1986; Holman and Burr, 1980), and in recent years there has been a steady growth in the numbers of such analyses (see for example, Osmond's 1980 review). Such investigations have been seen as unique opportunities to establish the degree to which findings derived from research in Western settings are truly generalizable - and to go beyond what Jahoda (1986: 24) calls "Homo Americanus" .

However, three problems are apparent in much of the experimental 'cross-cultural' research. First, the 'cross-cultural' element has often been compromised for the sake of convenience/practicality, so that the comparisons made are between ethnic groups *within* the same

country. Thus Meredith and Ching (1977) contrasted the marital roles of Japanese-Americans and Caucasian-Americans *within* the United States. Here, the obvious problem is that individuals may assimilate into their new culture, so that a controlled comparisons of different cultures becomes very difficult (as Chia et al (1986), citing Inkeles and Levinson (1969) put it: "(p)eople who have lived in the same society for a long period of time come to share similar experiences and consequently adopt similar attitudes and characteristics" (page 599)). The antithesis of this problem has also been evident at times: different countries are assumed to be separate cultures because of their different names, but cultures are not necessarily countries (Rosenblatt and Anderson, 1981).

Secondly, contrasts between cultures have usually compared variables of Western interest across the cultures, variables often embedded within a Western value system (Andreyeva and Gozman, 1981). However, it is often misleading to generalise across cultures when particular concepts may mean very different things in these different cultures: indeed, it is necessary to appreciate just how "irrelevant" the questions important to Westerners may be in the lives of people in other cultures (Rosenblatt, 1977; Rosenblatt and Anderson, 1981). Apart from providing researchers with an unnecesarily ethnocentric view of the world, such comparisons may devalue other, significant factors likely to influence PR in non-Western societies.

Finally, one last problem echoes the earlier critique of 'the lack of theory' in PR (see chapters 1-3). Cross-cultural investigators, like many working in PR within just one culture, have all too often failed to assimilate critical variables within wider theoretical perspectives

(Rosenblatt and Anderson, 1981).

These three problems had to be considered when designing the present cross-national investigation. The aim of the present study was to conduct a cross-national comparison examining respondents who lived in a different country *and* culture (this tackles the first problem). Ethnological validity was hopefully maintained by questioning a small number of this country's inhabitants first, to attain the relevance of the questions asked of the respondents (to deal with the second problem). The investigation also used a theoretical framework used in a series of previous analyses (described in chapters 8 and 9: see problem 3) and, by measuring the congruence between expectations and behaviours (rather than performance on any one particular behaviour) the applications were hopefully relatively culture-free (see Burr et al, 1979).

10.1.2. An investigation of Uruguayan married couples

This study was conducted with the aid of a Uruguayan colleague who distributed the questionnaires in her native country. Unfortunately, a psychological literature review (which included Uruguayan psychological journals) revealed no existing research on Uruguayan marriage, and therefore the cross-national study described below introduced no specifically new hypotheses to the analysis of marital quality, but was intended instead to see how the Uruguayan couples performed on the various previous hypotheses. These hypotheses were as follows:

10.1.3. Hypotheses relevant for the testing of the relationship quality framework

H_1: If desires are *not* fulfilled (either by the partner or by the social support network) then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability

a) **will be very low if there are good alternative relationships available**

b) **will be low to moderate if there are only poor relationship alternatives available.**

H_2: If desires are *satisfied* (by either the partner or by the social support network), but role-fulfilment is poor, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be moderate.

H_3: If desires are satisfied, *and* roles are also fulfilled, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be high.

General hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

H_4: There should be a high similarity in terms of marital quality between husbands and wives (Buss, 1984b; Dean and Lucas, 1978; Eysenck and Wakefield, 1981; Gilford and Bengtson, 1979; Glenn, 1975). Where there is a difference in relationship quality between the sexes

H_{4a}: the husband should gain more satisfaction from the relationship than the wife (Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Bernard, 1972; Rhyne, 1981; Sporakowski and Hughston, 1978; Wiggins et al, 1983).

H_5: Marital adjustment should not be related to age (Buss, 1984b; Grover et al, 1985; Spanier and Lewis, 1980; Schlesinger, 1983; White et al, 1986; Yelsma, 1986)

H_6: The number of years a partner is known before marriage should be positively related to marital quality (Goode, 1956; Grover et al, 1985)

H_7: There should be a positive correlation between age at marriage and adjustment within the marriage (Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Lee, 1977).

10.2: Method of data collection

10.2.1. Participants

Participants for this study were a non-probability sample of Uruguayan residents. The questionnaires were translated into Spanish and distributed to married couples around Uruguay, who were instructed to complete the questionnaire separately and to return the forms in a sealed envelope to the researcher. The inclusion of a 'six random numbers' identification was included to ensure correct matching of partners (see chapters 8 and 9). 20 questionnaires were returned completed (77% of those distributed) representing 9 couples and 2 individual responses. Participants were aged around 36 years (median age) and had been married for 6 years (median number of years). They had known one another for 3½ years prior to marriage and had married at around the age of 26 (median figures). Respondents were drawn from

a range of occupations, and even included a practicing psychologist (!).

10.2.2. Materials

The full questionnaire described in chapter 9 was simply too heavy to be transported with the researcher by air, and therefore the length of the questionnaire was diminished to a 'mere' 13 pages. The items included in this revised version measured the following main independent variables using the same scales as those described in chapter 8. The following were thus examined:

* partner preference fulfilment
* role fulfilment
* social support
* relationship alternatives

Biographical information also included:

* occupation (to indicate the social class spread of the population studied)
* sex of respondent
* age of respondent
* the number of years the partners were known to one another prior to marriage
* length of the marriage

As all the dependent variables were highly correlated for the studies reported in chapters 8 and 9, only one dependent variable was retained

for this study. Relationship adjustment was chosen as this variable as it provided the most detailed information on the respondent, and did not suffer from the same 'ceiling' effects reported for relationship commitment and stability. Responses were analysed using the same methods of aggregation reported in the previous two chapters.

10.3. Results

The presentation of results follows the format established in chapters 8 and 9. The only dependent variable measured here was that of relationship adjustment.

10.3.1. Treating the relationship quality framework as a series of dichotomous variables

H_1: If desires are *not* fulfilled (either by the partner or by the social support network) then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability

a) will be very low if there are good alternative relationships available

b) will be low to moderate if there are only poor relationship alternatives available.

Analysis

It will be remembered from the previous two chapters that 'preference fulfilment' is measured by considering (a) the degree to which a respondent succeeded (or failed) to have his/her desires met by his/her partner and (b) the extent to which this failure was compensated for by the respondent's social network. Those with no desires left unfulfilled by their partner, *or* those who were suitably

'compensated' for their lack by outside forces, were termed 'preference fulfilled'. Those with unfulfilled desires and insufficient social support were termed 'preference unfulfilled'. Although the sample sizes are very small here, an examination of the distribution of the data suggests sufficient normality to allow for the use of a parametric test (McCall, 1980). Here, as in previous chapters, a t-test is used to compare the 'fulfilled' with the 'unfulfilled' (table 10a).

Table 10a Differences between those who are preference 'fulfilled' and those 'unfulfilled' by their partner/social network on relationship adjustment

Dependent variable	'Fulfilled' (N=13)	'Unfulfilled' (N=7)	p< (1-tail t-test)
Marital adjustment	126.4	117.1	p<.05

Using just a one-tail test (directionality is implicit in hypothesis 1) the results confirm the expected differences between the preference unfulfilled and fulfilled (p<. 05). When considering just those seven respondents termed 'preference unfulfilled' on the criterion of relationship alternatives, the small numbers of respondents make the use of standard statistical procedures inappropriate. Nevertheless, it is notable that those with 'good' alternatives (i.e those who have alternative scores which exceed the median population score) appear to be far less adjusted in their relationship than those with poor alternatives (those below the population median: the comparison is between mean scores of 111.5 and 125.3). This is indeed as hypothesis 1 would predict. The 'moderate' score for the preference unfulfilled

and poor alternatives group (125.3) is also as predicted (the median score for all the sample was 125.0).

H_2: If desires are *satisfied* (by either the partner or by the social support network), but role-fulfilment is poor, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be moderate.

H_3: If desires are satisfied, *and* roles are also fulfilled, then relationship adjustment, commitment and stability will be high.

Here just those 13 respondents deemed to be 'preference fulfilled' are considered. These thirteen can be divided into two groups: those with a role fulfilment score which exceeds the population median for the thirteen, and those with a score falling below this population median. Despite the very small numbers now involved, the sample is again evenly distributed and a t-test is used to differentiate the two groups (table 10b).

Table 10b: Role scores amongst the preference 'fulfilled' as a predictor of marital adjustment

Dependent variable	'Poor role' fulfilment (N=7)	'Good role' fulfilment (N=6)	p< (1-tail t-test)
Marital adjustment	117.2	134.3	.003

Here a clear difference is evident between the two groups, and a one-tail t-test (again, the direction is predicted in the hypothesis) underlines this distinction. Successful role interaction is clearly important for those fortunate enough to be preference fulfilled.

10.3.2. A re-examination of the relationship quality framework using regression analyses

Below, the data is re-examined using all scores as continuous variables. Here, regression scores were once again standardised to allow for an easier comparison of the relevant predictors.

Regression analysis examining preference and role fulfilment

First, consider only the 'preference fulfilled' participants in this study. The regression analysis for the prediction of relationship adjustment uses all the independent variables, although it will be recalled from earlier chapters that the predicted equation for this group is that:

Relationship adjustment $\propto$ (preference fulfilment + role fulfilment) (1)

(i.e. relationship alternatives should NOT be of importance here).

The results were largely as hypothesised (see table 10c). Role fulfilment plays a significant part in predicting relationship quality but perceptions of relationship alternatives do not. Contrary to hypothesis (but in line with the findings reported in chapter 8) inclusion fulfilment is negatively related to relationship adjustment, although affect and control fulfilment are positively related to adjustment, as anticipated. An encouragingly large proportion of the variance in the data is explained by this equation.

Table 10c. Regressing preference fulfilment, relationship alternatives and role fulfilment on marital adjustment (data from just the preference fulfilled)

Independent Variables	Standardized Beta value	Significance level for t-value 2-tail test (p<)
Inclusion Fulfilment	-.55	.06
Affect Fulfilment	.26	.30
Control Fulfilment	.48	.09
Relationship Alternatives	-.14	.58
Role Fulfilment	.90	.01

Note: the adjusted R-squared for the proportion of variance explained = .59

Regression analysis examining relationship alternatives amongst the preference unfulfilled.

Here it will be remembered that the following equation is predicted

Relationship adjustment $\propto$ (poor preference fulfilment and poor relationship alternatives) (2)

(i.e. role fulfilment should NOT be important here).

Table 10d provides the results of this study. None of the variables here proved to be significant contributors to relationship adjustment, although it will be noted that the influence of relationship alternatives was, as predicted, stronger than that of roles. Inclusion fulfilment was once more negatively correlated with marital adjustment, whilst control and affect fulfilment were positively correlated with such adjustment. The large r-squared figure (for

degree of variance explained the equation) is probably best explained by the small number of respondents falling within this division.

Table 10d. Regressing preference fulfilment, relationship alternatives and role fulfilment on marital adjustment (using data from the preference fulfilled)

Independent Variables	Standardized Beta value	Significance level for t-value (2-tail test p<)
Inclusion Fulfilment	-.38	.49
Affect Fulfilment	.54	.19
Control Fulfilment	1.57	.35
Relationship Alternatives	-1.20	.22
Role Fulfilment	.99	.35

Note: Adjusted r-squared = .87

An overall regression equation for the analysis of relationship quality

To capture a flavour of the overall results, one final regression equation was conducted. The results are reported in table 10e. Here the pattern is similar to that reported in the first of these cross-sectional studies on relationship quality (see chapter 8). Both role fulfilment and relationship alternatives have powerful effects on relationship quality, and, encouragingly for the present theory, control and affect fulfilment also seem to have some (marginal) predictive value when using a one-tail t-value.

Table 10e. Regressing preference fulfilment, relationship alternatives and role fulfilment on marital adjustment (using all the data)

Independent Variables	Standardized Beta value	Significance level for t-value: 1-tail test (p<)
Inclusion Fulfilment	-.25	.13
Affect Fulfilment	.41	.04
Control Fulfilment	.39	.05
Relationship Alternatives	-.43	.02
Role Fulfilment	.66	.005

Note: the adjusted r-squared figure for amount of variance explained = .55

10.3.3. General hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

H_4: There should be a high similarity between husbands and wives on marital quality. Where there is a difference,

H_{4a}: the husband should gain more satisfaction from the relationship than the wife.

Analysis

Pair-wise comparisons using the Pearson correlation coefficient were calculated for estimating the similarity between husbands and wives on marital adjustment. The resulting correlation of .49, although slightly lower than the similar correlation in the previous studies, was still high and may have failed to reach statistical significance because of the small sample size (N = 9 pairs).

The following table illustrates the mean scores for men and women on adjustment (hypothesis $_{4a}$). However, as the sample size was still

small, and the distribution of the sample was uneven for this variable, normality could not be assumed, and a non-parametric version of the t-test, the Mann-Whitney U statistic, was employed (table 10f).

Table 10f: A means comparison between the sexes for scores on relationship adjustment

Dependent variable	Men (N=10)	Women (N=10)	Mann-Whitney U statistic
Marital adjustment	121.6	124.7	p< .43

As can be seen from the above, women scored slightly higher than men on adjustment (as was the case in chapter 8), but the difference was not statistically significant.

H_8: Marital adjustment should not be related to age

Analysis

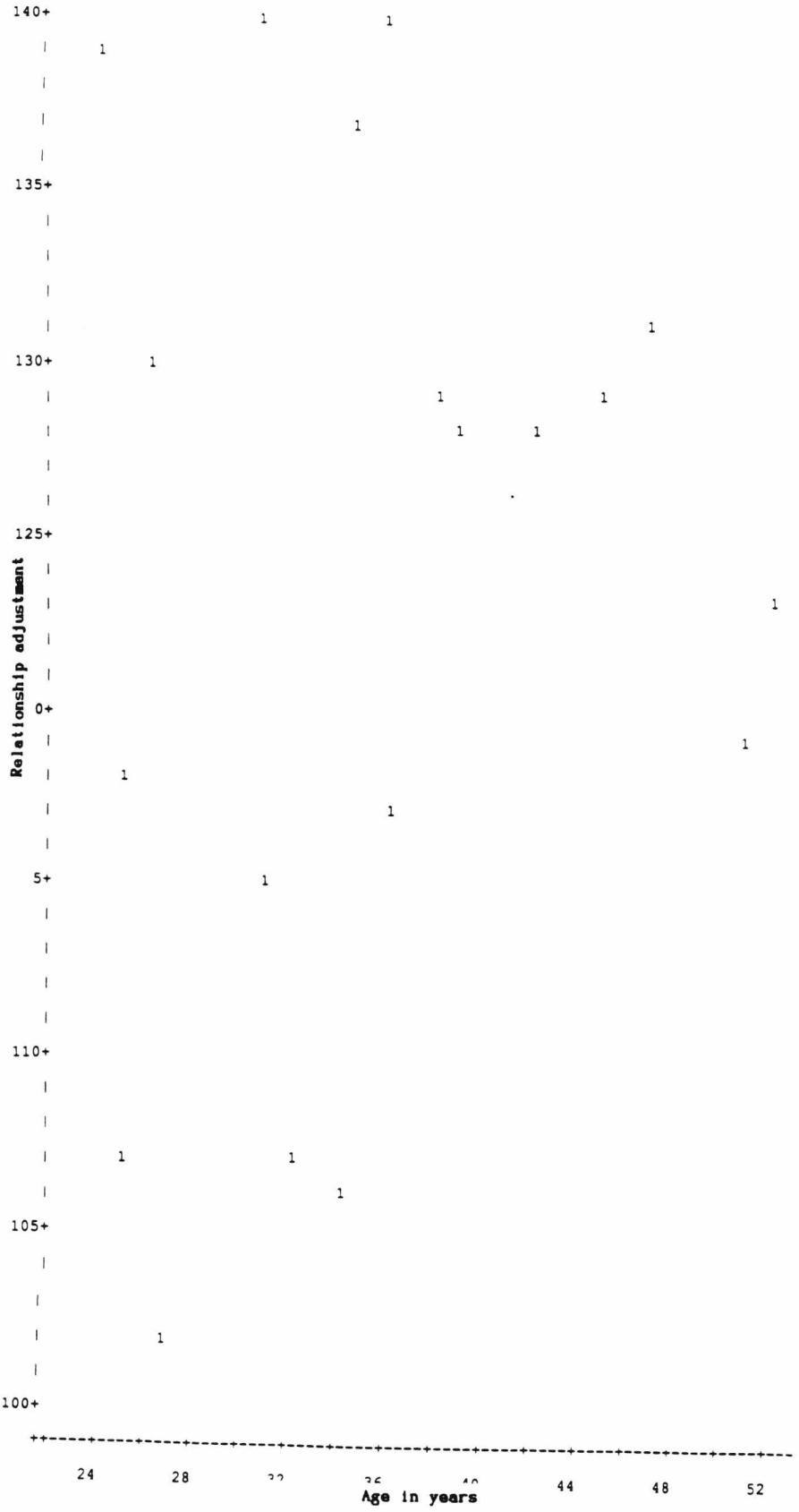
Table 10g reports the Pearson-r correlation between age and marital adjustment.

Table 10g: Pearson r correlation between individual's age and marital adjustment

Dependent variable	Correlation r (N=20)	p< 2-tail test
Marital adjustment	.09	.36

The weak correlation supports the hypothesis of the non-effect of age. In the previous chapter, scatter plots were used to examine

Figure 10.1: A scatterplot of age against relationship adjustment



curvilinear effects in the age data. Figure 10.1 is a scattergram plot for marital adjustment plotted against age. From this it is possible to conclude that there is no such curvilinear effect.

H_6: The number of years a partner is known before marriage should be positively related to marital quality

Analysis

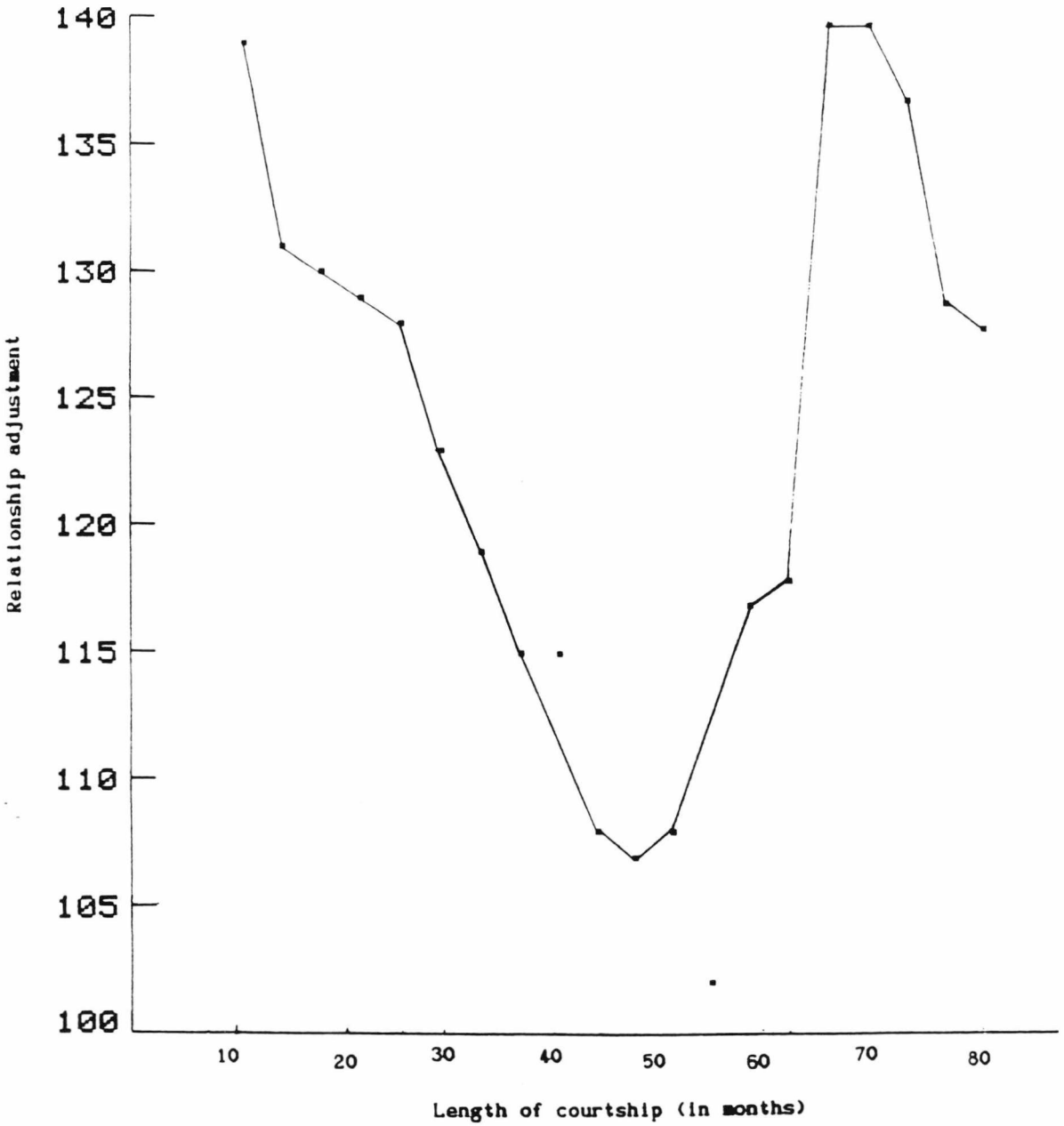
A Pearson-r coefficient correlating years known before marriage and relationship adjustment is presented below (table 10h)

Table 10h: Intercorrelation between length of courtship and marital adjustment

Dependent variable	Correlation r (N=20)	p< 2-tail test
Marital adjustment	-.07	.39

Here the conclusion must be to accept the (alternative) hypothesis of no-relation between the two variables. A scatterplot shows that some traces of a complex curvilinear distribution may be evident (figure 10.2). The pattern is only weak, and depends upon the omission of 2 'outliers', but may be traced as follows: (a) those who marry after only a short courtship actually enjoy a very healthy (adjusted) relationship, however (b) those who spend an intermediate time contemplating union have the least successful of the relationships (c) those who spent a little longer courting enjoy a moderate/good relationship whilst (d) those couples acquainted for more the longest are only moderately contented. This echoes the finding reported in

Fig 10.2: Length of courtship
plotted against marital adjustment



chapter 8 that the most 'immediate partners' are usually fairly accurate in their anticipation of a good relationship. However, two considerations must be stressed here. First, these patterns are drawn from only a very small amount of data. Second, length of acquaintance does not *necessarily* correlate with frequency and intimacy of contact (i.e. some individuals may have known their future partner for many years but may have met him/her only occasionally). It would be particularly interesting to examine arranged marriages in the light of these findings, as here individuals may have been acquainted with their future partner since their youth (Fox, 1975; Rosenblatt and Anderson, 1981).

H_7: There should be a positive correlation between age at marriage and marriage quality

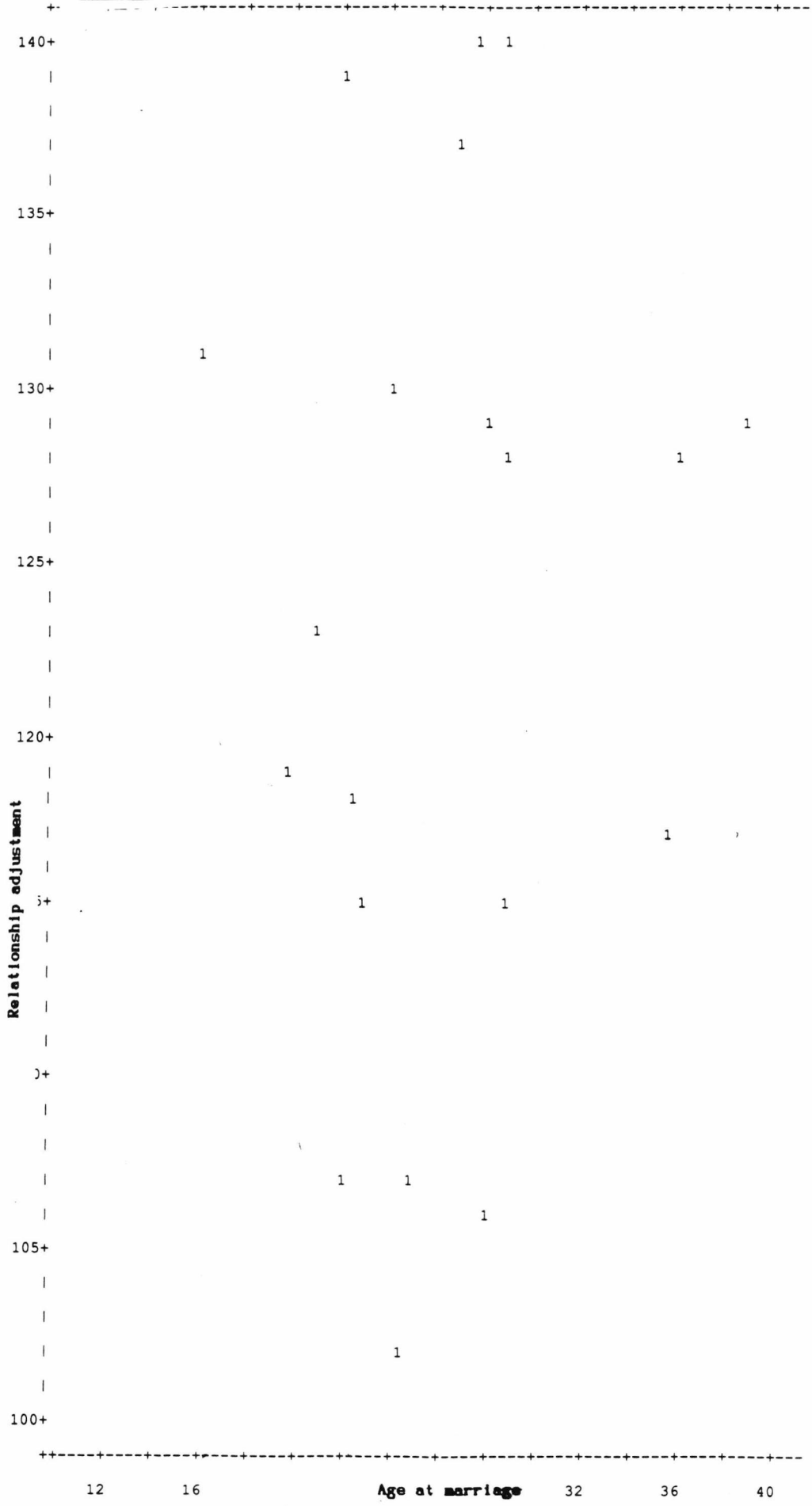
Analysis

Table 10i: Intercorrelations between age at marriage and marital adjustment

Dependent variable	Correlation r (N=20)	p< 2-tail test
Marital adjustment	.13	.30

Here, as in chapter 9, the data indicates that there is only a small positive correlation between age at marriage and marital adjustment. However, the correlation was *so* small that the alternative hypothesis of no correlation again seems the most obvious conclusion. Figure 10.3 again searches out any curvilinear effects in the data by considering

Figure 10.3: A scatterplot of age at marriage against relationship adjustment



a scatter plot, but fails to indicate any implicit patterning in the distribution.

10.4. Discussion

10.4.1. Summary of results

A test of the framework for relationship initiation. The findings in this study are very similar to those reported in chapter 8, and, somewhat ironically (given the select nature of this sample) they indicate that, here at least, it is fruitful to use all the contributors to the theoretical framework to predict relationship quality.

When considering the quality framework as a series of dichotomous variables, it is clear that that those who are 'preference fulfilled' are more adjusted in their relationships than those 'unfulfilled' in their partner preferences. Role fulfilment and relationship alternatives are important considerations, but they depend for some of their effect on the filter of preference fulfilment, as predicted. When examining the framework overall (irrespective of the preference filter), control and affect preference fulfilment act alongside relationship alternatives and role fulfilment as predictors of adjustment in the relationship.

General hypotheses for the analysis of married couples

Table 10j summarises the findings for the auxiliary hypotheses tested in this cross-national study.

Table 10j: The general hypotheses for the analysis of married couples (Uruguayan sample)

H_o No.	Hypothesis	Indications from the results	Comments
4 (4a)	Both sexes in a couple should score similarly on marital adjustment.	True: r= .49 (p< .001)	Where there is a difference, women score higher than men on adjustment.
5	Age should be unrelated to marital adjustment	True: r= .09 (nonsig.)	A scattergram supports the hypothesis of no relation.
6	Length of courtship should be positively correlated with marital quality.	False r=-.07 (nonsig.)	A scattergram suggests a possible but complex curvilinear pattern.
7	Age at marriage should be positively correlated with marital adjustment	False r= .13 (nonsig.)	A scattergram shows no significant age trends for marital quality.

Note: 'nonsig.' indicates results were not significant at the 5% level.

10.4.2. The framework for the examination of relationship quality: cross-national effects?

It seems strange to assert that the only time a series of hypotheses constructed from previous Western research should be supported is in a study of Uruguayan marriages, but this seems to be the case here. For the first time, preference fulfilment plays a part in a regression

analysis of relationship adjustment (albeit a small part), and it is control and affect fulfilment which are the important contributors here.

It is possible to compare the part played by preference fulfilment in the three studies of marital quality by examining the table below (10k): because of the ceiling effects reported for commitment and stability in the previous studies emphasis here is on the prediction of relationship adjustment. This table reports results from the overall regression analyses conducted for each sample.

Table 10k: The part played by preference fulfilment in the three studies of marital quality (data is taken from overall regression analyses only and considers just relationship adjustment)

Sample	Preference fulfilment considered	Significance level of t value (p<) 1-tail test	Direction of influence
Dateline couples	Affect	nonsig	positive
	Inclusion	p< .01	negative
	Control	nonsig	positive
Married couples in Kent	Affect	nonsig	positive
	Inclusion	nonsig	positive
	Control	nonsig	negative
Uruguayan Couples	Affect	p<. 04	positive
	Inclusion	nonsig	negative
	Control	p< .05	positive

Note: 'nonsig.' indicates results were not significant at the 5% level.

Although there were clear differences between the studies, it appears that affect fulfilment and possibly control fulfilment are positive contributors towards relationship adjustment, whilst inclusion fulfilment is negatively related to such adjustment.

Role fulfilment plays a consistent part in relationship quality prediction across the studies, and this uniformity is demonstrated in table 101 (below).

Table 101: The importance of role fulfilment in the three studies of marital quality (data is taken from overall regression analyses only and considers only relationship adjustment)

Sample	Significance level (p<) 2-tail test	Direction of influence
Dateline couples (adjustment)	.001	positive
Married couples in Kent	nonsig	positive
Uruguayan Couples	.01	positive

Note: 'nonsig.' indicates results were not significant at the 5% level.

Although roles were nonsignificant contributors to relationship adjustment in the overall regression equation for the Kent couples survey, role fulfilment had a positive influence on all the measures of relationship quality in all of the studies. There is evidence from recent cross-cultural research amongst very 'non-Western' societies that there is an increasing tendency towards equality in role performance (e.g. Chia et al, 1986, amongst the Chinese; Ullrich, 1987, amongst female Havik Brahmins) and this is reflected in the 'role agreement' scores of the present sample (median score = 23 out of a possible 35).

Relationship alternatives had the most consistent predictive value in each of the studies, as can be seen from table 10m.

Table 10m: The importance of relationship alternatives in the three studies of marital quality (data is taken from overall regression analyses only and considers only relationship adjustment)

Sample	Significance level (p<) 2-tail test	Direction of influence
Dateline couples (adjustment)	.001	negative
Married couples in Kent	.0001	negative
Uruguayan Couples	.04	negative

Note: the 'negative' direction implies that 'good' alternatives are positively related to bad (non-adjusted) relationships.

I know of no research specifically examining the contribution of relationship alternatives to marital relations in South America, but Secord (1983) has suggested that the relative numbers of men and women in a society (of marriagable age) is the key to power and dependency in close relationships. 1980 statistics on population by sex in Uruguay[1] indicate that there *were* marginally fewer women between the ages of 20 and 30 in Uruguay at this time, although the differences were not large (approx. 2% of the total population). By extrapolation, these differences in numbers might explain the marginally *greater* contentment with their marriage expressed by the females in the present study.

Summing up, the results reported in this study appear to be very similar to those reported in earlier studies, with a possible increase

in importance of the variables of control and affect preference fulfilment. However, the similarity between the studies may, of course, just reflect the Western values which are implicit in this type of test (see the introduction to this chapter), and a more rule-based exploration (e.g. Argyle et al, 1986) might have uncovered more substantial differences between the countries.

10.4.3. The general hypotheses for the investigation of married couples: cross-national effects?

Homogeneity across the two countries of England and Uruguay is also the major finding arising from considerations of the general hypotheses for married couples. This similarity across samples is summarised in table 10n (below). Because of the differences in sample sizes, some correlations of similar magnitude are statistically significant in one study when they would be 'insignificant' in another. Therefore only the magnitudes of the correlations are reported, rather than their probability distribution values (see Rosenthal and Rubin, 1985, for the value of concentrating on size effects rather than probability values).

Table 10n: The general hypotheses for the analysis of married couples: a comparison of the results across the 3 samples

Hypothesis	Indications from the results	Comments
Both sexes in a couple are similar with regards to marital adjustment	Dateline study: r= .65 Kent study: r= .51 Uruguay study: r= .49	Where there was a difference, women scored higher than men in 2 of the studies
Marital adjustment is unrelated to age	Dateline study: r= .19 Kent study: r= .39 Uruguay study: r= .09	
Length of courtship is positively related to marital adjustment	Dateline study: r=-.37 Kent study: r= .05 Uruguay study r=-.07	

Note: only those hypotheses common to the 3 studies are reported

As in the previous studies, Uruguayan husbands and wives' scored similary on relationship adjustment, although there was some disagreement between the samples on whether men or women in general score higher on adjustment. Marital adjustment was positively related to age for all three samples, but the correlation was only significant for the largest of the studies (the study of Kent couples, chapter 9). This result could be a simple sample artifact: the "Dateline" and Uruguayan respondents were considerably younger than those in the Kent sample, and the lack of a full age distribution for these two small samples might have precluded such age effects. Two other explanations for this result are possible. One is that role taking consensus and accuracy increased with length of marriage (cf. Couch, 1958) and this led to higher marital quality amongst the older individuals surveyed. A second is that different cultural norms operated at different times,

and may have thus differentially affected marital expectations (Kelley, 1981). Contrary to hypothesis, length of courtship was *not* positively related to marital adjustment in any of the studies, and was in fact inversely related to adjustment in two of the samples. This may be result of a complex curvilinear relationship between courtship duration and relationship quality, a possibility which was briefly explored earlier in this chapter.

One final hypothesis, common to the latter of the two studies, investigated the relationship between age at marriage and relationship adjustment. The results failed to indicate any consistent correlation between these two variables, although this finding may again be the result of a sampling artifact (in both samples, the age at marriage was relatively high).

Taking together the results indicate that certain *psychological* features of close relationships are important across countries, and that other, largely biographic details may be of lesser significance than has previously been assumed (cf. Bentler and Newcomb, 1978). This might serve as an important reminder to those family researchers who limit their cross-national investigations to just demographic variables (see, for example, the studies summarised by Osmond, 1980).

10.4.4. What other considerations must be taken into account in a cross-national analysis?

Establishing some sense of 'psychological parity' across nations is important, but this must not be the only feature of future cross-national research. Economic considerations have been found to be important both in the West (cf Murstein, 1986) and the East (cf.

Ullrich, 1987). 'Class' and 'caste' features, and racial biases, are all also likely to be influential in determining marital quality (Corwin, 1977), as well as level of cultural assimilation (Stopes-Roe and Cochrane, 1988). It is notable here that cross-cultural research is rarely 'context free' (Lomov, 1982), and may at times be used for quite clear political ends (e.g. Stones, 1986, writing on love concludes his article with a statement that many may view as contentious: speaking about South Africa he describes a society where

> "cultural integration is increasing over time and various segregationist and antidemocratic principles are falling away" (Stones, 1986: 381)).

As Osmond comments in his 1980 review, it is necessary to identify both the macro and the micro levels in relationships work, as well as clarifying where these may overlap and distort the data (c.f. the work on marriage failure amongst American blacks, which, because of the influence of demographic variables, may be difficult to interpret: Ball and Robbins, 1984 cited in Duck, 1988). This chapter has been 'minimally cross-national' in trying out a framework which has already been tested on other Western samples. Future researchers would do well to be more adventurous, and should go on to construct multi-levelled models of relationship processes within wider theoretical frameworks.

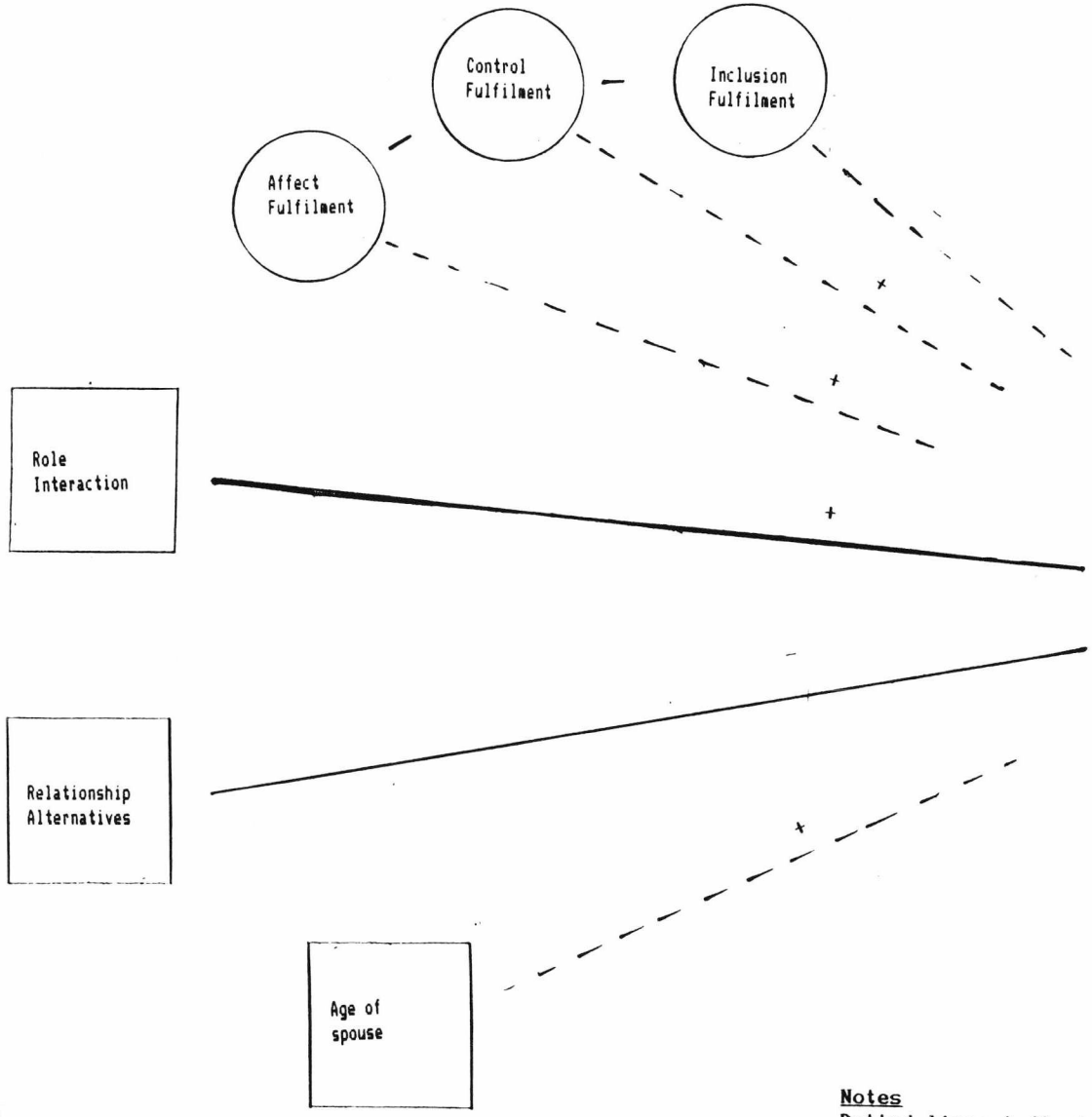
10.4.5. A re-conceptualisation of the relationship quality framework

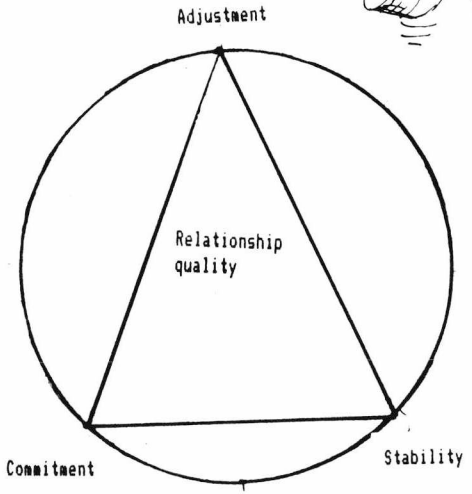
In this, the final part of the third section of the thesis, the findings from the three cross-sectional studies on relationship quality can be combined to provide a reconceptualizing of the framework proposed in figure 3.2. For this reformulation, data was available on the five main relationship quality predictors (the three

preference fulfilment measures, role fulfilment and relationship alternatives) and the five demographic variables and interrelationships between scores examined in at least two or more of the studies (the husband-wife relationship quality correlation, the interrelationship between the quality variables, age, age at marriage and length of courtship). Allowing for the inconsistencies in some of the findings, and the weak effects of some of the operating variables, a tentative reformulation is offered in figure 10.4.

Many of these interrelationships are very weak, and require further investigation. Sample sizes were small (Bentler and Newcomb, 1978, suggest that for β weights to be accurate population estimators, there should be approximately 30 cases for each variable. This was clearly not the case for these studies, nor for Bentler and Newcomb's own!). At this stage in the research, it seems too soon to proffer any new filtering effects operating upon the variables.

Figure 10.4: A reconceptualisation of the relationship quality framework





Notes
Dotted lines indicate a tentative connection
The triangle in the relationship quality circle indicates a high intercorrelation on relationship quality scores.

10.4.6. General comments on the findings of the third part of the thesis

Relationship alternatives and roles are both important contributors to relationship quality, and this has been shown to be the case in both England and Uruguay. However, as for preference fulfilment, the case remains open: the uncertainty in the results here may be due to a number of reasons which will be considered in the following chapter. This thesis indicates that many of the traditional demographic predictors of relationship adjustment (age at marriage, length of courtship, social class, etc) must play second fiddle to the important psychological factors of relationship alternatives and role interaction. This, at least, may prove to be a useful heuristic for those who wish to take this type of research further.

Footnote to chapter 10

[1] 1980 figures were used, as the sample population had been married for a median period of 6 years before questionnaire completion

Chapter 11: Conclusion

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The great tragedy of science - the slaying of a beautiful hypothesis by an ugly fact" [Huxley, T.H. "Biogenesis and Abiogenesis"]

"Scholarship is the enemy of romance" [B. Braggs].

11.1. Summary of research findings

In this thesis, two longitudinal studies and three cross-sectional investigations were conducted to test the central hypothesis that preference fulfilment is a major predictor of both relationship initiation and relationship quality. Such preference fulfilment was placed alongside other variables in two frameworks which attempted to predict the nature of the initiation or quality of a relationship. The main findings of these seven investigations can be summarised in table 11a (below).

Table 11a: A summary of the main results of the seven empirical studies

Study and chapter number	Central question(s)	Major findings
1: 1st part of 1st longitudinal study (chapter 4).	What do individuals look for in a partner (I)?	Individuals (regardless of our age or sex) seek the 'kind and considerate' partner who is honest and outgoing. All three measures of preferences reflected these concerns
2: 2nd part of 1st longitudinal study (chapter 5)	How do desires for a partner relate to the partner chosen?	'Partner preferences' are moderate predictors of the choice of relationship partner
3: 1st part of 2nd longitudinal study (chapter 6).	What do individuals look for in a partner (II)? Are dating agency members different from the general population?	Dating agency members have similar partner preferences to students but they are rather more withdrawn, are less assertive, have smaller social networks and less social skill.
4: 2nd part of 2nd longitudinal study (chapter 7).	How do desires for a partner relate to the partner chosen? How might a number of other variables affect this?	'Partner preferences' are moderate predictors of the choice of relationship partner. Non-verbal skills, a positive attitude to relationship investment, and a romantic / passionate attitude towards the relationship are positively related to the probability of partner formation

Study and chapter number	Central question(s)	Major findings
5: Married couples study 1: dating agency couples sample (chapter 8)	How might relationship desires, role fulfilment, social support and relationship alternatives combine to predict quality?	The fulfilment of relationship desires does not predict marital quality, but role fulfilment and (poor) relationship alternatives are major predictors of such quality.
6: Married couples study II: Kent couples sample (chapter 9).	How might the above variables predict marital quality *and* responses to relationship disagreement?	The fulfilment of relationship desires does not predict marital quality, but the presence of (poor) relationship alternatives predicts such quality. Good relationship alternatives encourage a tendency towards 'exiting' a relationship following disagreement.
7: Married couples study III: Uruguayan couples (sample) 10)	Can the findings of studies 5 and 6 be replicated using a Uruguayan sample?	Role fulfilment and the availability of relationship alternatives are again important for predicting marital adjustment, but here preference fulfilment may also play a small part in the prediction of such adjustment.

11.2: Some issues arising from these findings

11.2.1. Commentary on the above results I: Do preferences help predict relationship initiation?

The answer to this question must be a resounding...'maybe'. In the second part of this thesis it was shown that the correlation between the partner desired and the partner obtained was approximately 0.5. - *when considering how that obtained partner is rated by the original experimental respondent.* This correlation resulted when both rankings and bipolar constructs were used as preference measures, and the results indicated an encouraging overlap between the 'free' responses as preference indicators and those preferences which featured prominently on the 'fixed' rankings and bi-polar measures. However, a correlation of 0.5 explains only 25% of the variance in the data, and is thus far from completely satisfactory (especially when using such small sample sizes): it is therefore best to view the obtained correlations more as 'suggestive' than 'conclusive'. It is also valuable to consider some alternative explanations for these obtained correlations.

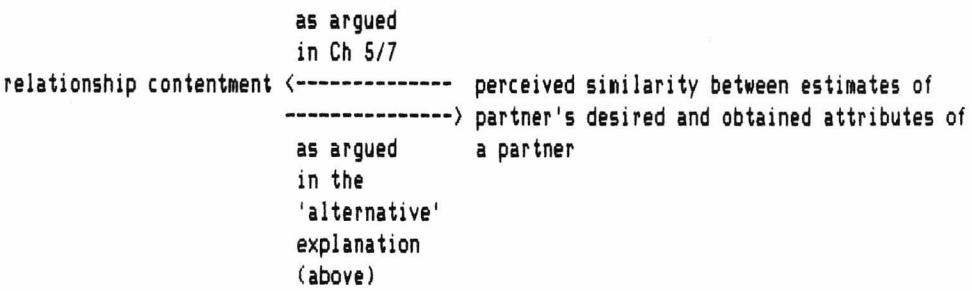
Alternative explanations for the correlation between 'what you want' and 'what you get'... the prediction of relationship initiation

First consider the possibility that the obtained correlation was the result simply of the particular items respondents rated. The data shows that there was a degree of 'social desirability' operating with respect to certain preference comparisons, and this may have meant that those who were content with their obtained relationship indicated the presence/absence of the 'desirable' listed

characteristics...simply in order to maintain cognitive consistency (Karp et al, 1970, refer to this as the 'halo effect': Koenig (1971 in Berger and Calabrese, 1975) terms this the 'justification process'). Thus an individual who was content with his/her relationship would fill in the questionnaire in a 'socially desirable' manner at time2: if he/she was discontented with that relationship then he/she would fill in the questionnaire in a less desirable manner.

This interpretation can be contrasted with the interpretation suggested earlier in this thesis i.e. the idea that in successful close relationships individuals simply 'get what they 'want. The debate between the two interpretations centres around an issue of causality illustrated in figure 11.1.

Figure 11.1: Two interpretations of the observed correlation between preferred and obtained partner



This 'alternative explanation' is not tenable for two reasons. First, the preference measures were fairly complex, and social desirability was less clear for the bi-polar preferences (where the 'we get what we want' correlation was still around .4 to .5). Second, although there were some socially desirable responses for all of the measures (not unexpectedly: see the previous literature reviewed in chapter 4) the spread of preferences shows sufficient variability for a simple

'social desirability' interpretation of the results to be unacceptable.

Another issue is whether or not it might have been possible to predict the relationship formation that *did* occur through the use of simpler formulae (e.g. the similarity-attraction correlation (Newcomb, 1961), or the 'matching' of partner on physical attractiveness (Berscheid and Walster, 1974)). Whilst some limited predictions may have been made from these formuale, the studies on such phenomena as the similarity-attraction relationship are notoriously inconclusive (see chapter 1), and often fail to provide a clear theoretical rationale for the results obtained (e.g. why do individuals wish for someone similar to themselves, when they might be ashamed of the very point on which they are similar?). In this thesis at least, the proposed frameworks have a simple and hedonistic rationale: people try to get what they want from a partner. This is the same hedonistic principle which has driven various reinforcement and exchange theories etc (cf. Kayser et al, 1984), but here the predictions are being made on a *psychological* level of hedonism (rather than a materialistic one). This 'psychological' dimension, although hinted at by numerous writers (e.g. Centers, 1975; Graziano and Musser, 1982) has all too often been ignored in recent years by experimenters obsessed with notions of material exchange.

11.2.2. Commentary on the above results II: Do preferences for a partner's behaviour and attitudes help predict relationship quality?

Here, the results are less encouraging for the framework presented in chapters 2 and 3 of this thesis, and it is only in one study - the one

with the smallest and probably the least representative of the samples - that there was any real indication of the positive effects of preference fulfilment on relationship quality. Even here, where there were indications of the positive influence of preference fulfilment, such fulfilment operated only on the dimension of control and affect fulfilment, with inclusion fulfilment being negatively correlated to relationship quality.

How might these findings be explained? One (uncomfortable) possibility is that the theory behind the predictions was flawed, and that using a measure of personality compensation as a prediction of marital success was doomed to fail from the start (see Huston et al, 1981, for such a line of argument). However, the appeal of the fulfilment propositions outlined in this thesis is undoubted (Knights and Willmott, 1974-5; White and Hatcher, 1984) - the idea of need/preference fulfilment has its 'charm' (as Wittgenstein (1943-6) says of Freud), and the lack of confirmation for these hypotheses may also have arisen from a number of other sources.

One possibility is that the mathematical equation used to calculate fulfilment, based upon the logic that social support quality would compensate for a partner's deficit, was inappropriately conceived or wrongly weighted; unfortunately, there are an almost infinite number of such equations which might have been offered. The effects of social support are not always beneficial (Lieberman, 1986; Starker, 1986), and here a more sophisticated measure of social support may have been needed, one which included the size of the support network (as well as the quality of the support (cf Gottlieb, 1985). Furthermore, there are undoubtedly important elements of a partner's relationship which

cannot usually be compensated for by others in a support network (e.g. sexual intimacy: cf. Eysenck and Wakefield, 1981 on the predictive value of such intimacy in marital relations). One final consideration is as to whether *all* Schutz's three needs were really appropriate for this investigation, and whether these needs should have been more specifically matched to particular informants or particular age cohorts (cf. Kelly, 1981). There is even some evidence in the ever-elusive needs literature to suggest that various needs should be treated as in conflict with one another (LaGaipa, 1981), a possibility not hitherto considered in this thesis.

This, however, is a relatively new field of investigation, and all these questions require further (empirical) examination, perhaps by manipulating a wider range of social support measures and preference / need indicators. Results from these new findings must be replicated over a variety of settings (Festinger and Katz, 1953; Murstein, 1976; Rosenthal and Rubin, 1985: this was indeed one of the aims of this thesis), whilst taking into account the new factors that such variations might induce. Unfortunately, when prying into unconscious forces which may be 'unconscious of themselves' (Sartre), such investigations will inevitably be problematic.

11.2.3. Marital roles and relationship alternatives

The results for the two other factors I posited as contributing towards relationship quality are easier to explain. Whilst results across the marital quality studies did differ, the overall conclusion remains the same: relationship alternatives and, to a lesser extent, role fulfilment, were powerful predictors of relationship quality and

also predicted some of a partner's most likely responses to relationship disagreements. These two factors (roles and relationship alternatives) consistently explained a respectable percentage of the variance in the regression equations examining marital quality. This was, of course, encouraging, and using that all-important researcher's guide of Occams razor, these findings question the importance of other, purportedly 'significant', predictors of marital quality (e.g. relationship investment: Rusbult et al, 1986b). Whilst over-simplification may seem to be crass (relationships are complicated things: Campbell and Tesser, 1985) parsimony is necessary when faced with an increasingly complex and muddled field. Future researchers should look critically at the interrelations between independent variables, and thus help to identify the most useful predictors of relationship quality and behaviour and cognitions within relationships.

11.2.4. Additional findings

These were not, of course, the only findings from the studies reported in this thesis, and the section below summarises six other findings of interest. A later section (11.5.2) goes on to consider some of the implications of these results.

1. In the prediction of relationship formation, intrapersonal perception is all important (Duck and Sants, 1983). Therefore it is a pointless task to try to use an individual's preferences for a partner to predict 'objectively' the nature of his/her future partner. Ajzen (1977) makes a similar point

> "It is not so much the 'true' personality of yourself and your partner that matters at the early stages so much as what you think or believe about each other's personality". (cited in Duck, 1983:71)

This reflects a constructivist bias in the research, where reality is construed as a process of active creation rather than something that exists 'out there' to be discovered (see Hendricks (1988) for a further discussion).

2. Three different groups of informants (students, dating agency members and supermarket shoppers) all shared approximately the same ideas about the characteristics they preferred in a partner, and these preferences existed relatively independently of sex or age effects. When informants were asked to freely list their top preferences for a partner, these lists corresponded well with their own more 'fixed' responses on the preference instruments, and indicated that certain psychological characteristics (rather than material values) were those most highly sought by our respondents.

3. Relationship *initiation* may involve a number of other factors other than just preference fulfilment, and these factors help to provide a flavour of the complex nature of PR. These factors might include a *motivation* towards forming a relationship, perhaps spurred on by low self-esteem and poor social support, an *ability* to form a relationship (perhaps most obvious in the individual's non-verbal displays) and an *attitude* appropriate for relationship formation. All these factors (and probably more) are important components of the relationship formation process (see chapter 7).

4. Both members of a couple achieved similar scores on relationship quality, and sex differences in these scores were only minimal.

Marital adjustment was marginally related to age but length of courtship was not linearly correlated with marital quality. Various other demographic variables hypothesised to be indicators of relationship quality proved to be insignificant contributors to the prediction of such quality. Overall the results suggest that 'psychological' determinants of relationship quality (how a couple interrelate (role fulfilment) and how they perceive their relationship alternatives) were more important than the demographic entities assessed (see also Kelly and Conley, 1987, for a similar argument).

5. Responses to relationship dissatisfaction may be less clear cut than Rusbult's model implies (e.g. Rusbult, 1987), as 'loyalty' to a partner ('just waiting for things to improve') can be seen as a destructive response to problems. However, the tendency towards contemplating exiting a relationship appears to be a function of good relationship alternatives, as Rusbult suggests.

6. A limited cross-national between Uruguay and England suggests that cross-national differences in the determination of marital quality are minimal. These results indicate that the findings of these studies may perhaps be generalised to different countries.

11.3 Methodological issues

> "The area of personality and acquaintance is not the best example of rigorous scientific scrutiny: rarely in the field of human experience has so much been done by so many to so little effect" (Duck, 1977: 181)

This thesis has brought to the fore a number of important methodological issues which require consideration before any definite

conclusions can be drawn from the research. These considerations can be divided into four areas: (1) the problems associated with obtaining a suitable and representative sample for study (2) the ethical problems associated with this kind of research (3) the nature of the data collection and the confounding of variables and (4) the problems associated with capturing ongoing processes within a viable research design.

11.3.1. Gaining a suitable and representative sample

This has proven to be a constant problem throughout this research, but most notably in the longitudinal studies reported in Part III of this thesis. This is not a problem particular to this set of reports: indeed, there is some evidence to suggest that high response rates have become increasingly difficult to obtain in recent years (Miller et al, 1982). Harvey et al (1978) comment on the (quite reasonable) unwillingness of individuals to partake in studies revealing intimate aspects of themselves, and various methodological techniques have been devised to maximise response rate (e.g. Dillman's "Total design method", 1978). However, within this thesis such techniques for maximising response rates, which often involve persistent questioning, were usually inappropriate, and on one occasion the organisation helping in the research refused to allow the standard follow up of non-respondents (see chapter 6).

One article (Hill et al, 1979) has already been cited in this thesis as a commentary on the unrepresentative nature of questionnaire respondents (see also Krokoff, 1987). This is an area which requires further investigation: what exactly are the systematic biases which

operate in sample selection? (a difficult question to answer simply because, by very definition, 'non-respondents' are very difficult to obtain information about). Detailed studies of such 'non respondents' are necessary, and it is disappointing to see that so many large 'all-embracing' text-books (e.g. Duck et al, 1988b) pay so little attention to this important issue'.

11.3.2. Ethical issues

Ethical issues are rarely tackled within PR research, but there can be little doubt that, just as in quantum physics, observation changes object...and not always in the manner so desired. The 'hyper-vigilance' of a relationship can have a negative effect on that relationship (evidence reviewed in Duck, 1988) and researchers must ask themselves important questions about the effects of including negative or misleading items within a questionnaire (Marks et al, 1989, recently made a similar point when discussing the ethics of testing beliefs about AIDS by incorporating falsehoods into an attitude questionnaire). The interactive relationship between questioner and informant can also have some surprisingly subtle effects, as PR investigators are often more 'involved' in a relationship than they expect (Levinger, 1977). Respondents often wish to know 'how they did' on a test (Harvey et al, 1983), a particularly difficult issue for the investigator of marital quality, and one recently confused by the Data Protection Act (1984). Many may feel that a questionnaire invades their privacy (Harvey et al, 1983) and questions may contribute to existing relationship problems (one respondent in the sixth study reported that 'the most recent source of

disagreement with her partner concerned whether or not to complete the questionnaire!). This is particularly the case when studies of relationship alternatives are considered: the unavailable alternative can become increasingly attractive immediately after making a decision, and this may flame feelings of regret which can be of considerable duration (Margulis et al, 1984). Rubin and Mitchell (1976) estimated that "taking part in [their] study...had real effects on considerably more than half of the couples" (page 18).

Further ethical problems also abound. Some methods of study (e.g. Icke's (1982) 'waiting room' technique for analysing attraction) raise the problem of deception in experimentation (here Icke used concealed videocameras for the collection of data). Unfortunately, even when 'ethical discipline' is maintained, the effect of obeying the so-called 'ethical principles' is often unclear (Aitkenhead and Dordoy, 1983). In some situations, the promoting of disclosure in a relationship can seriously affect the power-balance in that relationship (Rubin and Mitchell, 1976). Overall, it must be recognized that the field of PR is a very 'personal' one, and that the feelings of participants in studies must be of paramount concern to the researcher.

11.3.3. The nature of the data collection and the confounding of variables

The primary method of collecting data in this thesis was that of questionnaire self-report, the most frequently used method in family-related research (Miller et al, 1982). This method has a number of advantages: it is cost effective, relatively easy and convenient, and

is one of the few ways in which a large amount of data can be collected in a short amount of time (Harvey et al, 1988). Such a method of data collection can also tap overt private activities and avoids many of the biases apparent in a more behavioural analysis (Harvey et al, 1983).

The use of self-reports does, however, have its problems (Filsinger et al, 1981; McCarthy, 1981). Questionnaires can be faked and respondents are highly motivated to lie when such intimate concerns as sexual activity are investigated (questions on sexual activity were included in the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Spanier, 1976). Self-report questionnaires may also overemphasise attitudes at the cost of behaviour, and, when attempting to analyse behaviour through reconstruction of events, they may be open to a myriad of memory/motivation biases (Gottlieb, 1985). Questionnaires are also, of course, time consuming and often stressful in the cognitive demands they may make on informants (Berscheid, 1983, warns of "the cognitive gymnastics that respondents must perform in order to review and summarise extraordinary individualistic and complex sets of data" (117)). The only real solution to these problems seems to be extensive piloting, and each new questionnaire used in these studies was piloted on groups chosen to match potential respondents. By using the comments of these pilot groups, it is hoped that the problems listed here were minimised.

Some use was also made of observational measures of behaviour in this thesis to complement the pencil and paper self-report measures, and it was encouraging in this respect to record the overlap between the social skills pencil and paper measures and the nonverbal behaviour

skills analysis. Future researchers should also, however, strive to triangulate their methodologies to maximise potential validity (Denzin, 1970 in de Jong Gierveld, 1989; Ickes, 1982; Miller et al, 1982; Morton and Douglas, 1981). The identification of such an overlap between observation-based and self-report instruments is an important step in extending the armoury of the PR researcher.

Issues of causal analysis in PR are very complex: few causes are simple or determined by a one-to-one relationship between variables, and causes may exist reciprocally in causal loops (Harvey et al 1983). A multiplicity of factors are influential in both initial attraction (Centers, 1975) and marital choice (Bentler and Newcomb, 1978; Murstein, 1980), and these may vary in quite subtle ways across cultures (Rosenblatt, 1977). In this thesis, the studies reported in Part III of the work fall into McCarthy's category of 'at a stretch longitudinal' (McCarthy, 1981: 32), which is one step beyond the simple cross-sectional analysis but is still a design dogged by issues of causality (ibid). All the studies can be seen as 'haunted' by the "spectre of the third variable" (ibid: 33) - or in this case, the fourth or fifth or sixth variable, and the methodological designs to which the studies were restricted (for simple reasons of time and the subsequent participant attrition) cannot claim to have freed the research from such contamination. For this reason, the reconceptualised frameworks at the end of Parts II and III of this thesis can be seen only as heuristic presentations, suggested primarily in the hope that they will stimulate others towards further research along the lines they describe.

11.3.4. The relationship as a process

In recent years, a number of writers have stressed that relationships are 'processes', rather than static entities, and that they should be studied as such (e.g. Duck, 1977; 1983; 1986; 1988b; Duck and Sants, 1983; Murstein, 1980; Scanzoni, 1978). If, indeed, this is the case, methodologies need to be developed which are suitable for examining these processes. One methodological approach involves looking at relationship trajectories over time (e.g. Huston et al, 1981; Surra et al, 1987), but this technique, which relies on retrospective accounts, is open to recall/reconstruction biases (Duck and Miell, 1983; Goodwin, 1988a; Gottlieb, 1985; Harvey et al, 1983; Reis et al, 1985). Another approach has been to gather data at different points in a relationship (e.g. Hill et al, 1976) but, given the respondent's likely reactivity to previous questions (see above), it is difficult to judge how to what extent the resulting data may be generalised. Another method is to try to chart the 'rules' of different relationships and relationship stages (cf Argyle et al, 1985b and Kayser et al's 'contract theory', Kayser et al, 1984) but here the problem is that cultural norms for behaviour might not reflect the important cognitions that inform (and perhaps determine) relationship processes. A final, and increasingly popular, means of study is the 'diary method' (e.g. Wheeler and Nezlek, 1977), where events, and sometimes thoughts, are monitored over a period of time on diary sheets. The problem here is the same as the one faced by those attempting to 'interpret' factor analysis (Gould, 1982; Ryder, 1970): it is still up to the researcher to impose structure and meaning on the assorted data, as well as to decide what motivates process changes

(Patterson, 1988).

My own feeling here is that the notion of 'relationship process' is an appealing and probably useful one, but researchers need to be sure what they mean by the term before berating others about their 'static' approach to the field.

11.4. Some pertinent questions

The psychology of PR, unlike the psychological study of some other areas of human and animal interaction, is a subject upon which a large percentage of the population feel qualified to theorise. In many ways this is one of its strengths (cf Bannister and Fransella, 1971 on the importance of an accessible science). However, this implicit invitation to criticise has meant that I am frequently asked a number of questions about the research and four of these are given brief consideration here.

Question 1 Do these partner preferences exist *at all?* Don't individuals often just look for someone, for *no* clearly defined reason, and, if this relationship seems to work, define *retrospectively* what their preferences must have been in the first place?

Comments[2] It is certainly true that throughout their relationships individuals continually reconstruct and reinterpret what has occurred (and what *should* have occurred (see Burnett et al, 1987)). However this does not mean that people necessarily enter their relationships with a *tabula rasa* in terms of the type of partner their desire. The question here is, at least for the present purpose, an empirical

rather than philosophical one; if an individual can identify clear preferences for personality characteristics, and his/her future partner shows a predictable relationship to this desired personality, then the research can have claimed to have made an advance on the attempts of others pursuing a similar feat of prediction.

Question 2 Is not the oft-cited research on proximity and exposure a reliable relationship indicator?

Comments. No. This research can help to explain how certain individuals meet, and can thus help delimit the "field of availables", but can never fully explain attraction/repulsion towards these individuals (Ktsanes and Ktsanes, 1968; Levinger and Rands, 1985). The present theory attempts to make tentative predictions about relationship formation *within* an already clearly defined "field of availables".

Question 3 "In closely knit relationships, the effects of pair communality would eventually transcend those of member similarity (Levinger et al, 1970: 441)...Pair communality is unpredictable from simple extrapolation made from individual-centered measures" (ibid. page 442). Similarly, Hendrick (1985) claims: "When two persons interact in an intimate way to form a relationship, the relationship takes on a life and identity of its own" (page 335). Does not the present theory ignore the power of the dyad (rather than the individual)?

Comments. "Pair communality" and the like is something of a catchphrase in modern relationship psychology (individuals alone don't

predict, but dyads do). The problem with this remains - how does communality arise in the first place? In the longer term relationship, of course, 'pair communality' may in fact be very similar to the notion of 'role fulfilment'.

Question 4. How does all this supposedly rational 'calculating' of preference fulfilment tally with the romantic claims of lovers?

Comments. Of course, the hedonistic stance adopted here is rather unromantic and discomforting for some. However it is the very *complexity* of the preference patterns of any individual which in a way serve to indicate his / her very individuality; as Weiss rightly notes:

> "We interact with whole personalities, not isolated characteristics, and whole personalities are each unique" (1975: 307).

11.5: Prospect for future research

11.5.1 The importance of PR research

Duck (1983: 26) claims that ""relationships are the fabric of social life and hence of social psychology", and there are undoubtedly a number of reasons for the importance of the growth of research in the PR field. Successful close relationships are closely allied to happiness and physical and mental health (Cochrane, 1988; Gove et al, 1983; Schaefer and Burnett, 1987; Staines and Libby, 1986; Traupmann and Hatfield, 1981; Waring and Patton, 1984; Weiss, 1976), whilst relationship failure can be one of the most stressful of all life events (evidence reviewed in Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Duck, 1988; Rook, 1987). A number of commentators (of whom Argyle is one of the most prominent: e.g. Argyle, 1983) suggest that those lacking a close

relationship can be taught relationship skills, and the results of the brief examination of social skills (chapter 6) suggests that such skills may be important if the greatly desired close relationship is to be obtained (almost everyone wants to feel loved: Klinger, 1977). Furthermore, most civil legal aid is spent on matrimonial cases (Argyle and Henderson, 1985), and large sums are lost at the workplace through relationship-related absenteeism (ibid.).

Others have commented on the wider effects of PR. Kelley looks beyond the individual's emotions to claim that

> "because close relationships have such strong effects on their members and are so pervasive in any society, the dynamics of change in psychological and societal causal conditions cannot be fully understood without taking relationships into account" (Kelley, 1983: 502)

and Vandenberg (1972) even suggests that the social climate in which children are raised can also be determined by studies of mate selection. Perhaps most intriguing of all, however, are the more obscure influences of relationship events. Marital satisfaction can, among other things, influence shopping decisions (Kirchler and Wagner, 1987) and relationship breakdown may affect the memory of the former relationship participants for quite 'unrelated' events and objects (Wegner et al, 1985).

11.5.2: Implications of the present research

Five implications can be drawn from the findings of this thesis. The *first* implication concerns the very first reported finding, the commonality of preferences for a partner amongst a wide range of individuals and regardless of sex, age or population distribution. If this is, indeed, evidence of a 'psychological preferences' similarity

between different samples and subsamples, then two questions must be asked. First, if the media image of the 'desirable partner' as sexually attractive, perhaps even a little 'hard' or 'callous', so contradicts the idea of the 'desirable partner' espoused by the wider population, what happens when an individual becomes concerned about the conflict between 'how they are' and 'how they should be' (i.e. how the media tells them to be)? Do individuals rejected by one or more others then try to emulate the media image of the desirable individual, and become caught in a spiral of rejection (because the media values are inappropriate)? There is no research specifically on this topic, although there is evidence to suggest that the media does provide individuals with images of the 'desirable' partner (see Andreyeva and Gozman, 1981). The second question is...if there is such a common image of the 'desirable partner', can such an image then be used to change life-threatening relationship attitudes, and perhaps even behaviour (a very relevant topic given current concerns about the HIV virus). Close relationships can, according to Raush (1977) 'change' societal practices, but the exact way in which this occurs remain at present an issue for speculation.

A *second* implication of the findings concerns the dating agency members. There seems to be evidence here that these individuals are lacking in some social skills, and need some counselling in these skills (a service not provided by any of the current agencies). If this skill deficit is indeed the case for the wider population of dating agency members, then it seems inevitable that, without training, the widely-held image of the 'dating agency meet' will become self-fulfilling: i.e. two shy, withdrawn, unskilled individuals

will spend their first, nervous evening together unable to use the skills necessary for the initiation of a longer relationship.

A *third* implication comes from the findings reported in the third part of this thesis. If, as seems to be the case, relationship roles are so important, then couples facing relationship difficulties may need to be made aware of the importance of smooth interaction in performing *relevant* role duties. At the present time, however, the conceptual confusion which seems to surround so much marriage guidance advice (Goodwin, 1986) may make it difficult to fit such an awareness into the present marriage training programmes. Similarly, it seems necessary to stress to couples and potential guides in this complex area the significance of relationship alternatives and the (devastating) importance that the perception of relationship alternatives may have on a relationship. The most obvious (but rather flippant) advice to couples must be ... don't let your partner know that <u>too</u> many others find him/her attractive! (cf. also Kelley, 1983, on the monitoring of relationship alternatives).

A *fourth* implication concerns the comparison conducted between the English and Uruguayan populations. If the results obtained here can first be replicated in Uruguay (using a larger and wider sample) it may prove valuable to extend the analysis of marital roles and relationship alternatives (and perhaps, too, preference fulfilment) to other South American countries. Latin America is a region where cross-national research has been minimal in the past, but this area could, with its mixture of cultures and races, provide invaluable comparative data for the relationship analyst.

The *final* implication to be drawn from this research is that the

moderate success of preference fulfilment in predicting relationship formation stresses that, alongside the dyadic and societal causes now so stressed in PR handbooks, researchers must not forget the importance of intrapsychic forces in close relationships. In longitudinal studies, personality traits measured prior to marriage have proven to be far better predictors of relationship compatability than financial/economic factors (Kelley and Conley, 1987) and the recent writings of Graziano and Musser (1982) of Margulis (1984), of Buss and Barnes (1986), and even some of the recent comments of Duck (1988b), appear to implicitly recognise such intrapersonal forces. In the words of Shaver and Hazan

> "we must go beyond the behavioural analysis to the level of feelings, needs and desires. This 'going beyond' will probably involve some 'going back' at least temporarily, to recapture some of the rich insights of psychodynamic and motivational approaches to psychology" (1985: 181)

11.5.3: The need for a multi-disciplinary, multi-variate analysis

In a recent introductory text, Duck claims that

> "(t)he issues are too complex for any one discipline to have all the answers ... the study of relationships works best when scholars relate to one another and are willing to step outside the confines of their own discipline in reality..." (Duck, 1988a: xi).

Unfortunately, however, sociology and psychology have too often remained separate traditions, contaminated by "a history of mutual suspicion or indifference" (Good, 1980). This thesis, because of the methods employed as much as anything else, has used ideas and techniques of investigation drawn largely from the social psychological literature, although the rather diverse field of 'family studies' (as characterised by publications in the 'Journal of Marriage

and the Family', for example) has also featured prominently. This limitation in focus is largely to the detriment of this work: other contributions which could doubtlessly be incorporated into future research might come from more traditional sociological writings, economics, history etc...By incorporating research from these fields, researchers would doubtlessly also have to recognize the impact of other variables too (e.g. religious affiliation: Argyle and Henderson, 1985).

One variable which has not been incorporated into this research should be undoubtedly included in any extension of the present ideas into the study of marital dissolution. The 'structural forces' which keep a couple together are in many ways the other side of the coin to relationship alternatives: they represent the 'non-alternatives' presented, usually by outside forces, to the existing couple, and are thus important determinants of the move towards relationship dissolution (cf. Johnson, 1982 on structural commitment, Levinger (1965) on barriers to relationship dissolution). Murstein (after Bolton, 1961) sums this up well with his image of the relationship as a "slowly accelerating conveyor belt" (Murstein, 1976a: 107), an escalator which in many circumstances (depending on structural forces) becomes harder and harder to jump off.

Alongside these structural forces, a second, more intrapsychic concept which seems worthy of future attention is that of 'relationship awareness' (Acitelli and Duck, 1987). In future work researchers should probe this as an important, filtering variable which may determine the influence of other relationship stimulants or prohibitors.

A third trend in recent research which deserves further investigation can be termed 'the study of the ordinary' (e.g. Duck, 1988b). The mundane tasks that make up everyday life may be important for a number of reasons (Ginsburg, 1988), not the least of these being the influence they may have on role relationships (Duck, 1986: see also the research which shows that the more people do things together, the happier they are with their relationship: White, 1983). A study of 'the ordinary' might well include a study of the context in which relationships take place (Cramer et al, 1985) as well, perhaps, as the external forces (such as music) which might encourage or distract from the ongoing interactions (e.g. the complexity of music has been shown to have important effects on moods (Konecni, 1982), which are, of course, critical to relationship negotiations).

Examining 'other' variables should also proceed hand in hand with the examination of other types of relationships - relationships other than those of friendship, heterosexual dating and marriage which so dominate PR research (Good, 1980). Recent research has made some progress in examining the 'alternative' relationship, but the movement away from the more traditional relationship concerns has been slow. Research trends undoubtedly reflect temporal concerns - books and articles on alternative relationships, and behavioural forms such as 'swinging' were popular in the 1970s (e.g. Libby and Whitehurst, 1977, on 'alternative' marriage, Whitehouse (1975) on 'alternative life-styles') but relying on temporal trends in public interest may not be enough whilst individuals are still suffering from the result of societal misperception (c.f. the plight of homosexuals in the light of the AIDS crisis). Yet in the end it is the threat to the survival of

society posed by the HIV virus, and the political, moral and (inevitably) funding implications that this perceived threat may have, which may ultimately produce the most urgent motivation for those working in the PR field (see Parker, 1989, for a critical discussion).

11.5.4: Concluding remarks

There can be little doubt that the 'emerging field of interpersonal relationships' (Duck, 1983 SASP Newsletter) is still a new, and rather fragile, field of study. There is still a great deal more to be said, and much that has been said must, at the present time, remain uncertain. This thesis has considered two sets of questions central for the development of the PR field (a) how and why do individuals form close attraction relationships? and (b) how can the quality of established relationships be predicted?, and has examined these in a series of seven studies. By doing this it has hopefully made a small contribution to progress in this nascent field.

Footnotes to chapter 11

[1] One consistent finding of the investigations was that participants in the marital studies were generally well adjusted in their relationships (using a cut-off point of 100 on the Spanier DAS measure (Kahn et al, 1985) the vast majority of respondents in all three studies exceeded this score). This 'positive' relationship bias amongst respondents in PR studies is also widely reported elsewhere (e.g. Bernard, 1972; Gove et al, 1983; Lauer and Lauer, 1985).

[2] This question was first discussed at the beginning of this chapter under the auspices of a 'question of causality', but the prevalence of this question makes it worthy of further discussion here.

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Appendix A: Main questionnaires

Questionnaire for study 1 (chapter 4)	Appendix A: 1
Questionnaires for study 2 (chapter 5)	Appendix A: 4
Questionnaire for study 3 (chapter 6)	Appendix A: 19
Questionnaires for study 4 (chapter 7)	Appendix A: 31
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Appendix B: Letters to participants

Communications for study 1 (chapter 4)	Appendix B: 1
Communications for study 2 (chapter 5)	Appendix B: 5
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Appendix C: Additional instruments

The Romantic World Test (see chapter 4)	Appendix C: 1
Relationship satisfaction inventory (see chapter 5)	Appendix C: 14
The Dateline questionnaire (see chapter 6)	Appendix C: 18
The Combined Systems Analysis (see chapter 6)	Appendix C: 21
Relationship satisfaction inventory (see chapter 7)	Appendix C: 52
The 'preferred social skills' inventory (chapter 7)	Appendix C: 55
Social support scale reliability test (chapter 8)	Appendix C: 57

Questionnaire given to supermarket shoppers (study 1)

ROMANTIC PARTNER QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction and background information

The following is a questionnaire about the type of person with whom you feel you are likely to form a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship. I would be extremely grateful if you would try to fill in all the questions honestly and with due consideration to any past relationship experiences you might have had. Please allow for the fact that we are not all perfect - and remember that the type of person who we would like as an **ideal** partner is often different from the type with whom we really expect to form such a relationship.

All responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and read by no-one but myself. Thank you very much for your help.

Are you...(please tick one)

Male [ ] Female [ ]

Please tick which of the following age categories applies to you...

17-19 [ ] 20-25 [ ] 26-35 [ ] 36 or over [ ]

Question 1.
Please read the following 5 lists of characteristics and for each list form a ranking of the desirability of each characteristic in someone with whom you would like to have a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship. Rank the most desirable characteristic as '1', the second as '2' and so on. Please put your ranks in the column to the left of the characteristics listed.

List 1

[ ] Kind
[ ] Exciting personality
[ ] Creative
[ ] Politically conservative
[ ] Easy-going

List 2

[ ] Understanding
[ ] Socially skilled
[ ] Artistic
[ ] Politically liberal
[ ] Able to plan ahead

List 3

[ ] Intellectually stimulating
[ ] Tall
[ ] Well-liked by others
[ ] Considerate
[ ] Sociable

List 4

[ ] Wealthy
[ ] Open-minded on questions of morals and ethics
[ ] Honest
[ ] Stylish appearance
[ ] Idealistic

Question 2,
Please indicate on the following scales the point at which you think your likely partner would fall (if, for example, you think that they are very domineering, place a cross at the 'domineering' end of the scale, like so; domineering |_X_|__|__|__|__|__| submissive).
Alongside each scale, could you also please indicate how relevant you think these opposites are for the way in which you might view a future partner. Please use the following numbers to indicate their how relevant you think these opposites are; (1) very relevant; (2) relevant (3) unsure (4) irrelevant (5) totally irrelevant. Place these numbers underneath the 'a number 1-5' column.

		Such opposites are- (a number 1-5)
domineering	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	submissive
honest	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	subtle
independent minded	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	flexible
serious	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	happy-go-lucky
humorous	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	serious
aggressive	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	timid
conservative	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	radical
introvert	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	extrovert
motivated by thinking	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	motivated by emotion
likes to be with others	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	likes to be alone.

Question 3
Finally, I would like you to write in the space below a list of the main things you are looking for in a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship. Please could you place a ranking beside each one (make the most important '1', the second most '2' etc) to indicate the extent to which you think these are important.

ITEM. RANKING.

In order to complete my research - and to contact you if you win the book prize! - I would be very grateful if you could write, in the space, either your addess or a telephone number at which you can be contacted. I may then wish to contact you in few months time in order to ask you a couple more brief questions (of course, just as on this questionnaire, you will have every right to refuse to answer them).

Once again, thank you very much for your help.

NAME: .....

ADDRESS: .....

.....

TELEPHONE NUMBER (if relevant): .....

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RELATIONSHIPS QUESTIONNAIRE

Last October, I gave out, as a central part of my PhD thesis, a large number of questionnaires concerning student's ideas about a future partner. This questionnaire largely covered issues about the *personalities* sought by that person, and this was tested by asking respondents to rank various personality preferences. From this data, I made some tentative predictions about the *personality type* that the respondent would find attractive.

Naturally, however, the only way in which this can be tested is by now testing the personality of a person found attractive by my respondent. Although I understand that your relationship is no longer continuing there has obviously been some attraction between you at some time. It is this *initial* attraction which was the subject of my predictions, and it is therefore essential to the success of my research that I gather some personality information about you. I apologise for the length of this questionnaire, but it is reduced set of questions based on research which originally took 30 hours to complete! As a small 'thank you' for participating a small monetary award (£2) is available for you if you complete the questionnaire.

All responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and read by no-one but myself. Once again, thank you very much for your help. If you have any difficulty, please contact me on extension 3084.

Robin Goodwin.

Please tick which of the following age, sex and occupation categories applies to you...

17-19 [ ] 20-25 [ ] 26-35 [ ] 36 or over [ ]

Male [ ] Female [ ]

Student at UKC [ ] Not a student at UKC [ ]

If you are a student at UKC...Did you also fill in the first questionnaire on relationships?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

*If the answer to this is **yes**, please write your name here (so I can further compare responses)*

.....

Set A

Please ring the answer 'yes' or 'no' to the following questions

1. I like science	Yes	No
2. I seem to be about as capable and clever as most others around me	Yes	No
3. It makes me feel a failure when I hear of the success of someone I know well	Yes	No
4. I like to read about history	Yes	No
5. I do not have a great fear of snakes	Yes	No
6. In college I always look far ahead in planning what courses to take	Yes	No
7. I have very few fears compared to my friends	Yes	No
8. I have had very peculiar and strange experiences	Yes	No
9. I like poetry	Yes	No
10 I often feel as though I have done something wrong or unintelligent	Yes	No
11 Police cars should be specially marked so you can see them coming	Yes	No
12 It is no use worrying about public affairs, I can't do anything about them anyhow	Yes	No
13 The idea of doing research appeals to me	Yes	No
14 I am quite a fast reader	Yes	No
15 The only interesting part of the newspaper is the cartoons	Yes	No
16 It is all right to get around the law if you don't actually break it	Yes	No
17 A person who doesn't vote is not a good citizen	Yes	No
18 I find it hard to keep my mind on a task or job	Yes	No
19 Most people are honest chiefly through fear of being caught	Yes	No
20 I usually take an active part in the entertainment at parties	Yes	No
21 It is always a good thing to be frank	Yes	No
22 Everyone should take the time to find out about national affairs, even if it means giving up some personal pleasures.	Yes	No
23 I would like to write a technical book	Yes	No
24 I seem to be about as capable and clever as most others around me	Yes	No
25 When I work on a committee I like to take charge of things	Yes	No
26 I always like to keep my things neat and tidy and in good order	Yes	No
27 I looked up to my father as an ideal figure	Yes	No
28 I would be ashamed not to use my privelege of voting	Yes	No
29 A storm terrifies me	Yes	No
30 Once a week or oftener I feel suddenly hot all over, without apparent cause	Yes	No
31 Maybe some minority groups do get rough treatment, but it's no business of mine	Yes	No
32 When I get bored I like to stir up some excitement	Yes	No
33 I have the wanderlust and am never happy unless I am roaming/travelling about	Yes	No
34 Any job is alright with me, so long as it pays well.	Yes	No
35 I have never been in trouble because of my sexual behaviour	Yes	No
36 I am fascinated by fire	Yes	No

37	I have had more than my fair share of things to worry about	Yes	No
38	I think I'd like to drive a racing car	Yes	No
39	In school I found it very hard to talk in front of the class	Yes	No

Set b

Please also do the same again for the following questions

1	Are you a talkative person?	Yes	No
2	Do you ever feel "just miserable" for no reason?	Yes	No
3	Do you often worry about things you should not have done or said?	Yes	No
4	Can you usually let yourself go and enjoy yourself at a lively party?	Yes	No
5	Are your feelings easily hurt?	Yes	No
6	Do you like going out a lot?	Yes	No
7	Are you often troubled about feelings of guilt?	Yes	No
8	Do you prefer reading to meeting people?	Yes	No
9	Are you a worrier?	Yes	No
10	Would you call yourself happy-go-lucky?	Yes	No
11	Do you worry about awful things that might happen?	Yes	No
12	Do you think marriage is old-fashioned and should be done away with?	Yes	No
13	Can you easily get some life inot a rather dull party?	Yes	No
14	Do you worry about your health?	Yes	No
15	Do you like mixing with people?	Yes	No
16	Do you suffer from sleeplessness?	Yes	No
17	Do you like doing things in which you have to act quickly?	Yes	No
18	Do you often feel life is very dull?	Yes	No
19	Can you get a party going?	Yes	No
20	Do you worry too long after an embarrassing experience?	Yes	No
21	Do you suffer from "nerves"?	Yes	No
22	Are you easily hurt when people find fault with you or the work you do?	Yes	No

Set C

Please ring how characteristic you think the following statements are about yourself.

1. I prefer to be myself

very characteristic	quite characteristic	somewhat characteristic	not characteristic of me

2. I don't need much from people

very characteristic	quite characteristic	somewhat characteristic	not characteristic of me

3. I get upset when someone discovers a mistake I've made

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

4. I don't need other people to make me feel good

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

5. What other people say doesn't bother me

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

6. I am willing to disregard other people's feelings in order to accomplish something that's important to me

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

7. I do my best work when I know it will be appreciated

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

8 As a child, pleasing my parents was very important to me

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

9. I'm the only person I want to please

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

10 I would be completely lost if I don't have someone special

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

11 I easily get discouraged when I don't get what I need from others

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

12 When I am sick, I prefer that my friends leave me alone

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

13 What people think of me doesn't affect how I feel

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

14 I hate it when people offer me sympathy

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

15 I don't need anyone

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

16 I believe people could do a lot more for me if they wanted to.

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

17 Even when things go wrong I can get along without asking for help from my friends

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

18 Disapproval by someone I care about is very painful to me

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

19 I tend to be a loner

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

20 The idea of losing a close friend is terrifying to me

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

21 I can't stand being fussed over when I am sick

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

22 I rely only on myself

very characteristic | quite characteristic | somewhat characteristic | not characteristic of me

23 I must have one person who is very special to me

very characteristic	quite characteristic	somewhat characteristic	not characteristic of me

Set D

The next questions also concern rating how relevant certain statements are to you, using a slightly different scale. I would like you to place a cross at the point on the scale each statement applies to you. If, for example, you think that 'I frequently get upset' applies to you a great deal, place a cross at the 'a lot' end of the scale, like so:

a little |_X_|__|__|__|__|__| a lot).

1. I often say the first thing that comes into my head

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

2. I often feel insecure

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

3. I like to wear myself out with exertion

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

4. I like to plan things way ahead of time

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

5. When I do things, I do them vigorously

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

6. I have fewer fears than most people my age.

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

7. There are many things that annoy me

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

8. For relaxation I like to slow down and take things easy (reverse)

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

9. I often act on the spur of the moment

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

10 My life is fast paced

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

11 I often feel sluggish

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

12 I tend to be nervous in new situations

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

13 I am known as hot-blooded and quick-tempered

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

14 I am easily frightened

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

15 I yell and scream more than most people my age

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

16 When I get scared, I panic

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

17 I usually seem to be in a hurry

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

18 When displeased, I let people know it right away

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

19 I like to be off and running as soon as I wake up in the morning

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

20 It takes a lot to get me mad.

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

21 I like to keep busy all the time

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

22 My movements are forceful and emphatic

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

23 I like to make detailed plans before I do something

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

24 I often feel as if I'm bursting with energy

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

25 I often have trouble making up my mind

a little |__|__|__|__|__| a lot

The scales below inquire about what kind of a person you think you are. Each pair describes contradictory characteristics- that is, you cannot be both at the same time, such as very artistic and not at all artistic. Please use the scales as in the above questions.

1. Not at all aggressive |__|__|__|__|__| Very aggressive

2. Not at all independent |__|__|__|__|__| Very independent

3. Not at all emotional |__|__|__|__|__| Very emotional

4. Very submissive |__|__|__|__|__| Very dominant

5. Not at all excitable in a major crisis |__|__|__|__|__| Very excitable in a major crisis

6. Very passive |__|__|__|__|__| Very active

7. Not at all able to devote yourself completely to others |__|__|__|__|__| Able to devote yourself completely to others

8. Very rough |__|__|__|__|__| Very gentle

9. Not at all helpful to others |__|__|__|__|__| Very helpful to others

10 Not at all competitive |__|__|__|__|__| Very competitive

11 Very home oriented |__|__|__|__|__| Very worldly

12 Not at all kind |__|__|__|__|__| Very kind

13 Indifferent to others approval |__|__|__|__|__| Highly needful of others approval

14 *Feelings not easily hurt* |__|__|__|__|__| *Feelings easily hurt*

15 *Not at all aware of feelings of others* |__|__|__|__|__| *Very aware of feelings of others*

16 *Can make decisions easily* |__|__|__|__|__| *Have difficulty making decisions*

17 *Give up very easily* |__|__|__|__|__| *Never give up easily*

18 *Never cry* |__|__|__|__|__| *Cry very easily*

19 *Not at all self-confident* |__|__|__|__|__| *Very self-confident*

20 *Feel very inferior* |__|__|__|__|__| *Feel very superior*

21 *Not at all understanding* |__|__|__|__|__| *Very understanding of others*

22 *Very cold in relations with others* |__|__|__|__|__| *Very warm in relations with others*

23 *Very little need for security* |__|__|__|__|__| *Very strong need for security*

24 *Go to pieces under pressure* |__|__|__|__|__| *Stands up well well under pressure*

Please apply the same scaling to deal with the following questions about yourself-

1. *It is difficult for others to know when I am feeling sad or depressed*

   not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| *very true of me*

2. *I enjoy giving parties*

   not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| *very true of me*

3. *There are very few people who are as sensitive and understanding as I*

   not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| *very true of me*

4. *Other people are the source of my greatest pleasure and pain.*

   not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| *very true of me*

5. When I am embarrased, people can always tell by the expression on my face.

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

6. Sometimes, I find it difficult to look at others when I am talking about something very personal.

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

7. I have often been told that I have "expressive" eyes

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

8. I prefer jobs that require working with a large number of people

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

9. Without fail I can always tell the character of a person by watching him or her interact with others

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

10 In certain situations, I find myself worrying about whether I am doing or saying the right things

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

11 Even when friends try to make me smile or laugh, I am able to keep a "straight face".

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

12 When in a group of people I have trouble thinking of the right things to talk about

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

13 Sometimes, I have trouble making my friends and family realize just how angry or upset I am with them.

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

14 I am usually the one who has to begin conversations.

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

15 One of the greatest pleasures in life is simply being with people

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

16 I often worry that people will misinterpret something that I have said to them.

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

17 I usually adapt my ideas and behaviours to the group that happens to be with me at the time

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

18 At parties, I am not a very good "mixer"

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

19 I often touch my friends when speaking to them

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

20 At parties, I enjoy speaking to a great number of different people

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

21 I sometimes cry at sad movies

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

22 I am very sensitive to criticism

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

23 I am rarely able to hide when I am feeling a very strong emotion.

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

24 When starting a conversation with a stranger, I sometimes say the wrong thing

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

25 I rarely show my feelings or emotions

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

26 I am unlikely to speak to strangers until they speak to me

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

27 People often tell me that I am sensitive and understanding person

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

28 I often think about the impression that I am making on others

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

29 I am easily able to make myself look happy one minute and sad the next

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

30 I can very easily adjust to being in almost any social situation

not at all true of me |__|__|__|__|__| very true of me

Finally, please use the scales in a similar manner to indicate the extent to you think the following descriptions apply to you.

1. Antisocial characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

2. Timid characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

3. Nonegotistical characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

4. Appreciative characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

5. Impersonal characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

6. Friendly characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

7. Self-doubting characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

8. Forceless characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

9. Unargumentative characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

10 Good-natured characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

11 Accommodating characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

12 Cordial characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

13 Approachable characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

14 Tenderhearted characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

15 Unbold characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

16 Unvain characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

17 Well-mannered characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

18 Pretenseless characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

19 Courteous characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

20 Unsociable characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

21 Neighbourly characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

22 Kind characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

23 Not social characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

24 Sympathetic characteristic |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| very uncharacteristic

Thank you **very much** for all your help!

CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL-

RELATIONSHIPS QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction and background information

The following is a questionnaire about the type of person with whom you are having a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship and was devised for my research into ideas about relationships. I would be extremely grateful if you would try to fill in all the questions honestly- but don't take too long on any of the questions (it is your first ideas that I am interested in). As before, all responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and read by no-one but myself. Thank you very much for your help.

Are you still in a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship with this person?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

Question 1.
Please read the following 5 lists of characteristics and for each list form a ranking of **how you would describe your boyfriend/girlfriend-** the characteristic which stands out most about them. Rank the most prominent feature as '1', the second as '2' and so on. Please put your ranks in the column to the left of the characteristics listed.

List 1

[ ] Kind
[ ] Exciting personality
[ ] Creative
[ ] Politically conservative
[ ] Easy-going

List 2

[ ] Understanding
[ ] Socially skilled
[ ] Artistic
[ ] Politically liberal
[ ] Able to plan ahead

List 3

[ ] Wealthy
[ ] Open-minded on morals/ethics
[ ] Honest
[ ] Stylish appearance
[ ] Idealistic

List 4

[ ] Intellectually stimulating
[ ] Tall
[ ] Well-liked by others
[ ] Considerate
[ ] Sociable

Question 2.
Please indicate on the scales below the point at which you think this partner falls (if, for example, you think that they are very domineering, place a cross at the 'domineering' end of the scale, like so: domineering |_X_|__|__|__|__|__|__| submissive).

Alongside each scale, could you also please indicate how relevant you think these opposites are for the way in which you view your partner: please use the following numbers to indicate their relevance: (1) very relevant; (2) relevant (3) unsure (4) irrelevant (5) totally irrelevant. For example, if you tend to think of them in terms of whether or not they are domineering or submissive, put a (1) or (2), if you never think of them in these terms, put a (4) or (5), and so on.

	Such opposites are- (a number 1-5)	
domineering	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	submissive
honest	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	subtle
independent minded	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	flexible
serious	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	happy-go-lucky
humorous	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	serious
aggressive	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	timid
conservative	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	radical
introvert	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	extrovert
motivated by thinking	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	motivated by emotion
likes to be with others	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	likes to be on their own

Question 3

Finally, I would like you to write in the space below **what is most noticeable about your partner**. Please could you place a ranking beside each one (make the most obvious '1', the second most '2' etc) to indicate **the extent to which you think these are his or her characteristics.** *Thank you once again for your help!*

ITEM. *RANKING.*

Dear Dateline Member,

First of all, thank you very much for agreeing to take part in my experiments, and for giving up your time to help me with my research. As you can see, the main part of this is contained in this questionnaire which should hopefully not take too long to fill in!

Please remember that everything you write in here will be treated *in the strictest of confidence*, and will be read by no-one but myself, and then only for the purposes of this research. Just as DATELINE have not given me access to the **confidential** questionnaire you filled in on joining them, not even DATELINE will have access to your answers here, and in no way will your answers to this questionnaire alter your treatment by this organisation.

Please also remember that there is no 'correct' answer to any of these questions- other than what is really 'true' for you. None of the questions are 'trick' questions, but are designed simply to test the way in which you feel about relationships.

The questionnaire is divided into three parts: the first concerning your experiences with DATELINE, the second dealing with your preferred type of partner, the final asking some more general questions about yourself and your friends. The main **type** of question asks you to fill in a 5 or 7 point scale like the following

|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|

It may then ask you a question like the one in the second part, concerning your preferences for a partner, and offer you a scale like the following one:

aggressive |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| timid

You should then put a cross at the left-hand end

aggressive |X_|__|__|__|__|__|__| timid

if you prefer someone to be very aggressive, or a cross at the other end

aggressive |__|__|__|__|__|__|X_| timid

if you prefer the other extreme. Obviously, if you like them to be **less** aggressive or **less** timid, then put your cross nearer the centre. The same principle applies for both 5-point and 7-point scales.

Please try to answer **all** the questions, and try not to spend too long on any one question. If you have any problems please do not hesitate to contact me on Canterbury 764000 ext 3084.

Once again, many thanks for your help.

Robin.

DATELINE QUESTIONNAIRE

PART 1: ***You and the Dateline organisation.***

a. How suitable do you find the following situations for meeting and getting to know members of the opposite sex?

Playing sports Very Suitable |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all suitable

Parties Very Suitable |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all suitable

Discos Very Suitable |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all suitable

Work Very Suitable |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all suitable

Pubs Very Suitable |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all suitable

Public transport (buses, trains etc) Very Suitable |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all suitable

Visitors at home (sister's friends, etc) Very Suitable |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all suitable

b. Are there any other places in which you feel **very comfortable** meeting members of the opposite sex?

c. Are there any other places in which you feel **very uncomfortable** meeting members of the opposite sex?

d. Have you ever met a member of **Dateline** before? Yes ____ No ____

If the answer to this question is YES, How true is the following of the type of person (or people) you have met through **Dateline**

a. Very deceitful |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all deceitful

b. Very trustworthy |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all trustworthy

c. Very reliable |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all reliable.

d. Very considerate |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all considerate

Even if you have yet to meet someone through DATELINE, please mark on the following scales how true you think the following would be of the type of meeting you are likely to have with a fellow DATELINE member.

1. You feel at ease during the conversation
   Very much so |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all.

2. You feel mentally 'turned off' during the conversation
   Very much so |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all.

3. You feel cautious during the conversation
   Very much so |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all.

4. You feel accepted during the conversation.
   Very much so |_|_|_|_|_|_|_| Not at all.

PART 2: ***Your preferred partner.***

Please could you write in the space below a list of the main things you are looking for in a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship. Please could you place a ranking beside each one (make the most important '1', the second most '2' etc) to show the extent to which you think these are important.

ITEM RANKING.

Please read the following 4 lists of characteristics and for each list form a ranking of the desirability of each characteristic in someone with whom you would like to have a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship. Please do the ranking in the same way as the last question- rank the most desirable characteristic as '1', the second as '2' and so on until you complete the list. Please put your ranks in the column to the left of the characteristics listed.

List 1

[ ] Kind
[ ] Exciting personality
[ ] Creative
[ ] Politically conservative
[ ] Easy-going

List 2

[ ] Understanding
[ ] Socially skilled
[ ] Artistic
[ ] Politically liberal
[ ] Able to plan ahead

List 3

[ ] Intellectually stimulating
[ ] Tall
[ ] Well-liked by others
[ ] Considerate
[ ] Sociable

List 4.

[ ] Wealthy
[ ] Open-minded on questions of morals and ethics
[ ] Honest
[ ] Stylish appearance
[ ] Idealistic
[ ] Healthy

Please indicate on the following scales the point at which you think your likely partner would come (if, for example, you think that they are very domineering, place a cross at the 'domineering' end of the scale like so: domineering |_X|__|__|__|__|__|__| submissive).

domineering |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| submissive

honest |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| subtle

independent minded|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| flexible

serious |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| happy-go-lucky

humorous |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| serious

aggressive |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| timid

conservative |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| radical

introvert |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| extrovert

motivated by thinking |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| motivated by emotion

likes to be with others |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| likes to be alone.

PART 3: ***You, and your friends.***

a. How many 'dating'relationships with members of the opposite sex have you had in the last 2 years? (where you have actually 'gone out' together)

_____

b. If you have had any such relationships, how long has the **longest** of these lasted? (Please tick the correct time-period)

Less than a week ___
Less than a month ___
One to three months ___
More than three months ___

c. *Directions*: The statements which follow refer to feelings and experiences which occur to most people at one time or another in their relationship with friends. For each statements there are three possible answers: Yes, No, Don't know. Please circle the answer you choose yourself for each item.

Yes No Don't know 1. My friends give me the moral support I need.

Yes No Don't know 2. Most other people are closer to their friends than I am to mine.

Yes No Don't know 3. Certain friends come to me when they have problems or need advice

Yes No Don't know 4. If I felt that one or more of my friends were upset with me, I'd just keep it to myself

Yes No Don't know 5. I feel that I'm on the edge in my circle of friends

Yes No Don't know 6. My friends come to me for emotional support

Yes No Don't know 7. I have a deep sharing relationship with a number of friends

Yes No Don't know 8. When I confide in friends, it makes me feel uncomfortable.

Yes No Don't know 9. I've recently been given a good idea about how to do something by a friend.

Yes No Don't know 10. I wish my friends were very different.

d. How much do you agree with the following statements...

1. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

1____Strongly agree
2____Agree
3____Disagree
4____Strongly disagree

2. At times I think I am no good at all.

1____Strongly agree
2____Agree
3____Disagree
4____Strongly disagree

3. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

1____Strongly agree
2____Agree
3____Disagree
4____Strongly disagree

4. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself

1____Strongly agree
2____Agree
3____Disagree
4____Strongly disagree

5. I wish I could have more respect for myself

1____Strongly agree
2____Agree
3____Disagree
4____Strongly disagree

6. I take a positive attitude toward myself

1____Strongly agree
2____Agree
3____Disagree
4____Strongly disagree

How important are the following items likely to be in a future relationship? Please place their importance on the following scale:-

1. Spending your free time with your partner, rather than doing things or seeing other people
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

2. Spending continuous time alone together such as on dates, weekend outings or holidays .
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

3. Sharing important personal feelings, problems, and beliefs with your partner.
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

4. Having sex with your partner.
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

5. Sharing material possessions such as sporting equipment, furniture, a car, or a house.
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

6. Telling your partner your true feelings about the relationship such as whether you love him or her.
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

7. Making formal agreements about your relationship such as deciding to see each other regularly, get engaged, or get married.
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

8. Letting friends know your feelings and plans about the relationship.
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

9. Putting effort into seeing your partner (such as travelling long distances or travelling often).
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

10. Changing things about yourself to please your partner such as your habits, attitudes or appearance.
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

11. Changing your career plans or other interests to continue your relationship.
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

12. Trying to encourage and support your partner.
very important |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| not at all important

To what extent to you agree with the following items

1. Love is the highest goal between a man and a woman.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

2. Love is more important than any chance or opportunity for success in professional or business.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

3. One should not marry unless one is absolutely sure that one is in love.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

4. Love is the most important thing in a relationship.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

5. To live in love is more pleasant than any other way of life in the world.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

6. A decision to marry should come from serious thinking, not just a feeling of love.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

7. A successful love relationship is secure, not overtly exciting, and something which has been thought out.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

8. Jealousy does not play a part in a lasting love relationship.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

9. Love is feeling warm, close and involved, but not necessarily sexually excited.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

10. There can be no genuine failure in life for those in love.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

11. True love never dies; it overcomes all obstacles.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

12. If love between two people dies, then everything is gone.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

13. When one partner in a love relationship is weak, the other must be strong.
I strongly Agree |___|___|___|___|___| I strongly disagree.

How important will the following be to you in a future relationship?

Communicating your inner feelings
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Encouraging the other persons well-being
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Sharing possession, your time, and yourself!
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Being able to sympathize and really **'feel'** for the other
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Kissing
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Hugging
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Gazing
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Touching

Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Making love
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Being faithful
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Staying in the relationship through hard times
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Engagement
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

Marriage
Very important |___|___|___|___|___| Totally unimportant

FINALLY!
Below you will find a list of specific behaviours which may or may not be relevant to you. . Could you use the following rating scale to *place the number which best indicates the likelihood of your behaving that way. Please be as truthful as possible*

1=I never do this
2=I sometimes do this
3=I often do this
4=I do this almost always.

1. Standing up for my rights ____

2. Maintaining a long conversation with a member of the opposite sex.___

3. Being confident in my ability to succeed in a situation in which I have to demonstrate my competence ____

4. Saying 'no' when I feel like it ____

5. Going out for a second time with someone I have been out with once ____

6. Assuming a role of leadership ____

7. Being able to accurately sense how a member of the opposite sex feels about me ____

8. Having an intimate emotional relationship with a member of the opposite sex _____

9. Having an intimate physical relationship with a member of the opposite sex _____

The following questions describe a variety of social situations that you might encounter. In each situation you may feel 'put on the spot'. Some situations may be familiar to you, and others not. I'd like you to read each situation and try to imagine yourself actually in the situation. The more vividly you get a mental picture and place yourself into the situation, the better.

After each situation could you once more use the 5-point scale to indicate how you would feel and act in this situation.

1. You're waiting patiently in line at the 'Pay here' counter when a couple of people push in right in front of you. You feel really annoyed and want to tell them to wait their turn at the back of the line. One of them says, "Look, you don't mind do you? But we're in a terrible hurry".

I would be very uncomfortable, (unable to handle this situation and would avoid it if possible) |___|___|___|___|___| I would feel very comfortable (and able to handle this well)

2. You have enjoyed this date and would like to see the person you are dating again. The evening is coming to a close and you decide to say something.

I would be very uncomfortable, (unable to handle this situation and would avoid it if possible) |___|___|___|___|___| I would feel very comfortable (and able to handle this well)

3. You are talking to your boss about skipping some paper work. You explain your situation. Looking at past reports on you, your boss comments that you are slipping pretty far behind with your work. You go into greater detail about why you have fallen behind and why you'd like to skip this work. Your boss then says "I'm sorry, but it's against company policy to let you miss out such work."

I would be very uncomfortable, (unable to handle this situation and would avoid it if possible) |___|___|___|___|___| I would feel very comfortable (and able to handle this well)

4. You meet someone you don't know very well but are attracted to. You want to ask them out for a date.

I would be very uncomfortable, (unable to handle this situation and would avoid it if possible) |___|___|___|___|___| I would feel very comfortable (and able to handle this well)

5. You meet someone of the opposite sex at lunch and have a very enjoyable conversation. You'd like to get together again and decide to say something.

I would be very uncomfortable, (unable to handle this situation and would avoid it if possible) |___|___|___|___|___| I would feel very comfortable (and able to handle this well)

6. Someone with whom you are sharing a room or flat has several bad habits that upset you very much. So far, you have mentioned them once or twice, but no noticeable changes have occurred. You have 3 months left to live together. You decide to say something.

I would be very uncomfortable, (unable to handle this situation and would avoid it if possible) |___|___|___|___|___| I would feel very comfortable (and able to handle this well)

7. You're with a small group of people who you don't know too well. Most of them are expressing a point of view that you disagree with. You'd like to state your opinion even if it means you'll probably be in the minority.

I would be very uncomfortable, (unable to handle this situation and would avoid it if possible) |___|___|___|___|___| I would feel very comfortable (and able to handle this well)

8. You go to a party where you don't know many people. Someone of the opposite sex approaches you and introduces themself. You want to start a conversation and get to know him or her.

I would be very uncomfortable, (unable to handle this situation and would avoid it if possible) |___|___|___|___|___| I would feel very comfortable (and able to handle this well)

9. You are trying to make an appointment with the overall head of your firm. You are talking to his or her secretary face to face. She asks you what area of the company you work in and when you tell her, she starts asking you questions about the nature of your problem. You inquire as to why she is asking all these questions and she replies very snobbishly that she is the person who decides if your problem is important enough to warrant an audience with the boss. You decide to say something.

I would be very uncomfortable, (unable to handle this situation and would avoid it if possible) |___|___|___|___|___| I would feel very comfortable (and able to handle this well)

Thank you very much for your help. If you leave your completed questionnaire here, an assistant will collect it in afterwards.

Robin.

24th November 1987.

Dear

Last May you kindly took part in a study I ran with the co-operation of Dateline. This involved you completing a fairly detailed questionnaire.

I recently contacted you, and you said that you had met someone either through Dateline, or outside of the organisation, since last May. **PLEASE, PLEASE...** give this questionnaire to your partner and try to persuade them to fill it in for me- and remember to fill in the brief questionnaire yourself. As I am sure you can appreciate, the evening in which you took part cost me a considerable amount of time and money, and it will have been wasted without your replies. Please assure your partner that, although I know who you are, they will remain totally anonymous, and all the data I collect will remain totally confidential. Because of this need for secrecy, you should each really fill in the questionnaire alone, and I enclose two pre-paid postage envelopes for your replies.

Thank you very much for your co-operation: I will send you an overall summary of what I find when the study is completed.

Robin Goodwin.

Note: Your partner's questionnaire does not mention the Dateline organisation or how I met you, as I am not certain that all the new partners know of their partner's Dateline membership. Therefore the first page of their questionnaire (my covering letter) may read a little strangely! I hope you understand my reasons for this.

CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL-

RELATIONSHIPS QUESTIONNAIRE

Last May, I gave out, as a central part of my research, a number of questionnaires which were given randomly to a number of single people in London, and which concerned their ideas about a future partner. This questionnaire covered issues about the *personalities* sought by that person, and from their replies I made some predictions about the *personality type* that they would find attractive. One of the people to answer this was

Naturally, however, the only way in which this can be tested is by now testing the personality of a person found attractive by someone who did the questionnaire. I understand from that you now have a relationship with them, and it is therefore essential to the success of my research that I gather some personality information about you. All responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and read by no-one but myself. DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ANYWHERE ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE- YOU SHOULD REMAIN ANONYMOUS. I enclose a pre-paid postage envelope for your reply.

Once again, thank you very much for your help. If you have any difficulty, please feel free to contact me on Canterbury 764000 extension 3084.

Robin Goodwin.

Please tick which of the following age and sex categories applies to you...

Male [ ] Female [ ]

Instructions

The main **type** of question asks you to fill in a 5 or 7 point scale like the following

|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|

It may then ask you a question concerning how you would describe yourself, and offer you a scale like the following one:

aggressive |__|__|__|__|__|__|__| timid

You should then put a cross at the left-hand end

aggressive |X_|__|__|__|__|__|__| timid

if you consider yourself to be very aggressive, or a cross at the other end

aggressive |__|__|__|__|__|__|X_| timid

if you see yourself at the other extreme. Obviously, if you are **less** aggressive or **less** timid, then put your cross nearer the centre. The same principle applies for both 5-point and 7-point scales.

Please try to answer **all** the questions, and try not to spend too long on any one question- it is your first response that I am most interested in. Again, if you have any problems please do not hesitate to contact me on Canterbury 764000 ext 3084.

Once again, many thanks for your help.

Robin.

PART 1- Your Personality

Set A

Please indicate how relevant the following statements are to you. If, for example, you think you are very domineering, place an 'X' at the domineering end, like so

domineering |_X|__|__|__|__|__| submissive: *if you are somewhere inbetween, place your cross at or near the centre, like so*

domineering |__|__|__|_X|__|__|__| submissive, *and so on.*

1.	domineering	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	submissive
2.	honest	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	subtle
3.	independent minded	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	flexible
4.	serious	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	happy-go-lucky
5.	humorous	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	serious
6.	aggressive	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	timid
7.	conservative	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	radical
8.	introvert	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	extrovert
9.	motivated by thinking	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	motivated by emotion
10	like to be with others	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	like to be on your own.

Set B

Please read the following 4 lists of characteristics and for each list form a ranking of **how you would describe yourself**. Rank the most prominent feature as '1', the second as '2' and so on. Please put your ranks in the column to the left of the characteristics listed.

List 1

[ ] Kind
[ ] Exciting personality
[ ] Creative
[ ] Politically conservative
[ ] Easy-going

List 2

[ ] Understanding
[ ] Socially skilled
[ ] Artistic
[ ] Politically liberal
[ ] Able to plan ahead

List 3

[ ] Wealthy
[ ] Open-minded on morals/ethics
[ ] Honest
[ ] Stylish appearance
[ ] Idealistic

List 4

[ ] Intellectually stimulating
[ ] Tall
[ ] Well-liked by others
[ ] Considerate
[ ] Sociable

Set C

Finally, I would like you to write in the space below how you would describe yourself. Please try to think what are your most important characteristics, and place a ranking beside each one (make the most important '1', the second most '2' etc) to indicate the extent to which you think these are important.

ITEM. RANKING.

Where did you meet your partner? Please describe the setting in the space below

Thank you **very much** for all your help!

CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL-

RELATIONSHIPS QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction and background information

The following is a questionnaire about the type of person with whom you are having a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship and was devised for my research into ideas about relationships. I would be extremely grateful if you would try to fill in all the questions honestly- but don't take too long on any of the questions (it is your first ideas that I am interested in). As before, all responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and read by no-one but myself. Thank you very much for your help.

Are you still in a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship with this person?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

Part 1.
Please read the following 5 lists of characteristics and for each list form a ranking of **how you would describe your boyfriend/girlfriend**- the characteristic which stands out most about them. Rank the most prominent feature as '1', the second as '2' and so on. Please put your ranks in the column to the left of the characteristics listed.

List 1

[ ] Kind
[ ] Exciting personality
[ ] Creative
[ ] Politically conservative
[ ] Easy-going

List 2

[ ] Understanding
[ ] Socially skilled
[ ] Artistic
[ ] Politically liberal
[ ] Able to plan ahead

List 3

[ ] Wealthy
[ ] Open-minded on morals/ethics
[ ] Honest
[ ] Stylish appearance
[ ] Idealistic

List 4

[ ] Intellectually stimulating
[ ] Tall
[ ] Well-liked by others
[ ] Considerate
[ ] Sociable

Part 2.
Please indicate on the scales below the point at which you think this partner falls (if, for example, you think that they are very domineering, place a cross at the 'domineering' end of the scale, like so: domineering |_X_|__|__|__|__|__|__| submissive).

Alongside each scale, could you also please indicate how relevant you think these opposites are for the way in which you view your partner: please use the following numbers to indicate their relevance: (1) very relevant; (2) relevant (3) unsure (4) irrelevant (5) totally irrelevant. For example, if you tend to think of them in terms of whether or not they are domineering or submissive, put a (1) or (2), if you never think of them in these terms, put a (4) or (5), and so on.

		Such opposites are- (a number 1-5)
domineering	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	submissive
honest	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	subtle
independent minded	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	flexible
serious	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	happy-go-lucky
humorous	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	serious
aggressive	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	timid
conservative	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	radical
introvert	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	extrovert
motivated by thinking	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	motivated by emotion
likes to be with others	|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|	likes to be on their own

Part 3

Finally, I would like you to write in the space below **what is most noticeable about your partner**. Please could you place a ranking beside each one (make the most obvious '1', the second most '2' etc) to indicate **the extent to which you think these are his or her characteristics.** *Thank you once again for your help!*

ITEM. *RANKING.*

Institute of Social and
Applied Psychology
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ

Telephone: 0227 764000
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

August 1987

Dear sir/madam,

I am a research psychologist at the University of Kent carrying out investigations into what makes a happy relationship. In particular, I am interested in the way in which certain characteristics of people may be important not only during their first attraction to one another, but throughout their relationship.

The DATELINE organisation have kindly offered to help me in this research, as they, too, are obviously interested in what makes 'the happy couple'. They have informed me that you met your partner through DATELINE, and that you may be willing to take part in this research.

This involves filling in a questionnaire, and a a copy of this for both you and your partner is enclosed, along with two pre-paid envelopes for reply. I do realise that these questionnaires look rather long, but as you can imagine, there are many things that are important in a successful relationship. Each questionnaire should take no longer than 35 minutes to answer (don't think too long about any of the questions, it is your *first* genuine response I am interested in).

I should stress that I am not interested in knowing *who* you are, and <u>your identity will remain secret.</u> I am, however, interested in comparing your answer with your partner's, so in order to keep your identity secret, I would like you to make up an identity number and fill it in the box over the page. I would also like your partner to use the same number, so that I can compare your answers. Of course, as I do not know who chooses which number, both your identities will remain completely secret.

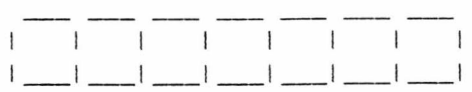
Thank you *very much* for your time and help. If you have any questions or worries, I can be contacted on Canterbury 764000 ext. 3084, or at the above address. And hopefully, with your co-operation, this research should help DATELINE match together many more successful couples!

ROBIN GOODWIN
(Research Psychologist)

<u>Note</u> ***Please try to persuade your partner to fill in this questionnaire. If, however, they are unable or do not wish to do so, please still fill in your questionnaire, and send it back in the pre-paid envelope.*** **PLEASE DO THIS QUESTIONNAIRE ALONE AND DO NOT CONFER WITH YOUR PARTNER ON YOUR ANSWERS.**

Identity number (7 numbers or letters)

Please make up your own number, and place it in the box below: please remember to ask your partner to use THE SAME number.



Obviously, this questionnaire is mainly about couples who are still together. Please tick which of the following boxes applies to you...

1. "Still together" [ ] 2. "Separated" [ ]

and which of the following boxes applies...

1. Married [ ]
2. Living together, but not married [ ]
3. Living apart [ ]

Are you.....(please tick one)

Male [ ] Female [ ]

Please write your age in the space below...

.....(years)

If you are married, how long did you know your partner before you were married? (in years and months)

.....years .....months

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS ENTIRELY CONFIDENTIAL, AND WILL BE SEEN BY NO-ONE BUT MYSELF, AND ONLY USED FOR THIS RESEARCH. THERE IS NO WAY I (OR ANYONE) WILL KNOW WHO HAS ANSWERED THIS.

Question Set A: How to answer

This question set is asking about the type of person you are. Each question has 6 possible responses, and I would like you to ring round which one is appropriate for you. Please note that although some questions have the same wording they are all different questions (and will have different sets of possible answers).

1. I like people to act cool and distant toward me

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

2. I like people to invite me to things

usually	often	sometimes	occasionally	rarely	never

3. I like people to invite me join their activities

usually	often	sometimes	occasionally	rarely	never

4. I like people to act friendly toward me

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

5. I like people to act close toward me.

usually	often	sometimes	occasionally	rarely	never

6. I let people control my actions

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

7. I like people to invite me to join their activities

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

8. I let other people strongly influence my actions

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

9. I like people to ask me to participate in their discussions

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

10. I like people to act distant toward me

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

11. I am easily led by people

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

12. I let other people control my actions

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

13. I like people to invite me to things

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

14. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

15. I let other people strongly influence my actions

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

16. I like people to include me in their activities

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

17. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

18. I let other people decide what to do

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

19. I like people to include me in their activities

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

20. I let other people decide what to do

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

21. I like people to act close and personal with me

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

22. I am easily led by people

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

23. I let other people take charge of things

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

24. I like people to act close toward me

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people 2	nobody

25. I like people to act distant toward me

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

26. I like people to act close and personal with me

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

27. I like people to act cool and distant toward me

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

The following questions are about how you see your partner. Below are some descriptions of a person's characteristics. How true are they of your partner? **(Again, please ring the appropriate response)**

Is your partner...?

1. Someone who tries to be with other people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

2. Someone who likes to join social groups?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

3. Someone who tends to join social organizations whenever they have an opportunity?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

4. Someone who tries to have other people do things the way they want them done?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

5. Someone who tries to include other people in their plans?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

6. Someone who tries to have other people do things the way they want them done?

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

7. Someone who tries to be included in informal activities?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

8. Someone who tries to take charge of things when they are with people?

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

9. Someone who tends to join in when people are doing things together?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

10. Someone who tries to be the dominant person when they are with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

11. Someone who tries to take charge of things when they are with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

12. Someone who takes charge of things when they are with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

13. Someone who tries to have close, personal relationships with people?

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

14. Someone who tries to influence strongly other people's actions

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

15. Someone who tries to have close relationships with people?

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

16. Someone who tries to participate in group activities?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

17. Someone who tries to be friendly to people?

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

18. Someone who tries to influence strongly other people's actions?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

19. Someone who tries to have people around them?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

20. Someone who acts cool and distant with people?

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

21. Someone who tries to have close, personal relationships with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

22. Someone who tries to have other people do things they want done?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

23. Someone who tries to get close and personal with people?

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

24. Someone whose personal relations with people are cool and distant?

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

25. Someone who tries to get close and personal with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

26. Someone who tries to avoid being alone?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

27. Someone who tries to have close relationships with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

Question Set B: How to answer

The next questions asks about the *roles* you and your partner play in your relationship.

For this set of questions, *please ring the appropriate answer.*

a. *How importantly do you rate keeping in contact with the relatives?*

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

b. *How good do you think your partner is at helping and keeping in touch with the relatives?*

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

c. *How importantly do you rate the task of provider for your relationship?*

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

d. How good do you think your partner is at playing the role of provider for the household?

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

e. *How importantly do you rate the task of houskeeper for your relationship?*

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

f. How good do you think your partner is at being housekeeper in your household?

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

g. *How important is initiating sex in your relationship?*

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

h. *How good is your partner at satisfying your sexual needs?*

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

i. *How important is having someone to discuss personal problems with to your relationship?*

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

j. How well do you feel your partner does at helping you with your personal problems?

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

k. How important is family recreation in your relationship?

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

l. *How well do you feel your partner does at organizing and providing recreation for the family?*

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

Question Set C: How to answer

Within most relationships, there is inevitably disagreement about some topics and issues. The next question asks: *How often do you disagree with your partner on the following activities...* (please ring the appropriate answer)

a) housekeeping

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

b) earning a living

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

c) keeping in touch with relatives

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

d) physical intimacy

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

e) recreation

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

f) discussing each other's personal problems

Very frequently Frequently Sometimes Rarely Never

Question Set D: How to answer

These next few questions are rather negative, I'm afraid. However, these days it seems like a lot of steady relationships and marriages are breaking up. Of course this isn't likely, but just suppose your partner were to leave you this year. How likely do you imagine each of the following would be? Decide whether you think each item would be impossible, possible, probable or certain (again, ring around the appropriate * below).

1. HOW LIKELY IS IT THAT:	IMPOSSIBLE	POSSIBLE BUT UNLIKELY	PROBABLE	CERTAIN
a. You could get another partner better than your present one?	*	*	*	*
b. You could get another partner as good as they are?	*	*	*	*
c. You would be quite satisfied without a partner?	*	*	*	*
d. You would be sad, but get over it quickly?	*	*	*	*
e. You would be able to live as well as you do now?	*	*	*	*
f. You would be able to take care of yourself	*	*	*	*
g. You would be better off economically?	*	*	*	*
h. Your prospects for a happy future would be bleak?	*	*	*	*
i. There are many other partners you could be happy with?	*	*	*	*
j. You could support yourself at your present level?	*	*	*	*
k. Your life would be ruined?	*	*	*	*

2. It is probably fair to say that most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below ***(circling the appropriate #)*** *the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list, (from 'always agree' to 'always disagree').*

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occa-sionally Agree	Fre-quently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
a. Handling family finances	*	*	*	*	*	*
b. Matters of recreation	*	*	*	*	*	*
c. Religious matters	*	*	*	*	*	*
d. Demonstrations of Affection	*	*	*	*	*	*
e. Friends	*	*	*	*	*	*
f. Sex relations	*	*	*	*	*	*
g. Conventionality (correct or proper behaviour)	*	*	*	*	*	*
h. Philosophy of life	*	*	*	*	*	*
i. Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws	*	*	*	*	*	*
j. Aims, goals, and things believed important	*	*	*	*	*	*
k. Amount of time spent together	*	*	*	*	*	*
l. Making major decisions	*	*	*	*	*	*
m. Household tasks	*	*	*	*	*	*
n. Leisure time interests and activities	*	*	*	*	*	*
o. Career decisions	*	*	*	*	*	*

Now please do the same thing with answers ranging from 'All the time' to 'Never'

	All the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occa-sionally	Rarely	Never
a . How often do you discuss or have you consid-ered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	*	*	*	*	*	*
b . How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	*	*	*	*	*	*
c . In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	*	*	*	*	*	*
d . Do you confide in your mate?	*	*	*	*	*	*
e . Do you ever regret that you entered this relationship?	*	*	*	*	*	*
f . How often do you and your partner quarrel?	*	*	*	*	*	*
g . How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	*	*	*	*	*	*

And now the same with answers from 'Everyday to Never' and 'All of them' to 'None of them'...

	Everyday	Almost Everday	Occas-ionally	Rarely	Never
a . Do you kiss your mate?	*	*	*	*	*

	All of them	Most of them	Some of them	Very few of them	None of them
b . Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	*	*	*	*	*

Finally here, how often would you say the following events occur between you and your partner? (from 'never' to 'more often- than once a day')

	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often
a . Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	*	*	*	*	*	*
b . Laugh together	*	*	*	*	*	*
c. Calmly discuss something	*	*	*	*	*	*
d . Work together on a project	*	*	*	*	*	*

Question Set E: How to answer

The next questions introduce a new type of scale. This asks you to fill in a 5 or 7 point scale like the following

|___|___|___|___|___|

It may then ask you a question like the first one (offering a statement on your relationship with your friends and family) and give you a scale like the following one:

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| **not at all**

The idea is to place a cross (X) in one of the spaces to indicate how you feel about a statement. The more you go to the end of the scale to place your cross, the more you agree with the statement at that end of the scale. Please use the middle of the scale *only when you find it impossible to make up your mind on which side of the scale to place your cross.*

1. *The next questions ask about your relationship with your friends and family. Whilst your relationship might be quite different for your friends than for your family, most people still have a 'feel' of how people like this treat them overall, and it is this I am testing. Please remember that its your first, general impression I am interested in.*

a. My friends and family seek me out for companionship

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

b. Most other people are closer to their friends and family than I am

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

c. When I am with my friends and family, they don't allow me to take charge often enough.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

d. My friends and family don't allow me to run things the way *I* want them.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

e. Certain friends and members of my family come to me when they have problems or need advice.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

f. I have a deep sharing relationship with a number of my friends/family members.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

g. I lack the close relationship with a friend or family member that others usually have.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

h. I feel I have a close and confiding relationship with a friend or member of my family.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

2. How probable do you think it is that you will break off your relationship with your partner in the near future?

extremely likely |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| extremely unlikely.

3. How probable do you think it is that your partner will break off your relationship in the near future?

extremely likely |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| extremely unlikely.

The final Question set: How to answer

The grand finale of this questionnaire asks a mixture of questions. First, please just tick 'yes' or 'no' boxes for your answer.

1. There are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Please indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks

a. Being too tired for sex Yes [ ] No [ ]

b. Not showing love Yes [ ] No [ ]

Question 2 (part a-e) is only for MARRIED COUPLES

2a Have you or your husband/wife ever seriously suggested the idea of divorce within the last three years?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b. Have you discussed divorce or separation with a close friend?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

c. Even people who get along quite well with their spouse sometimes wonder whether their marriage is working out. Have you ever thought your marriage might be in trouble?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

d. Did you talk about consulting a lawyer?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

e. Has the thought of getting a divorce or separation crossed your mind in the past three years?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

3. **Now please just tick the the following statement** *which best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?*

___ I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and *would go to almost any 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 help it succeed.
___ My relationship can never succeed, and *there is no more that I can do* to keep the relationship going.

And- very!- finally, the asteriks 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

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

Thank you very for your time and effort. Remember, there is a postage-paid envelope enclosed for your response.

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Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

August 1987

Dear sir/madam,

I am a research psychologist at the University of Kent carrying out investigations into why marriages succeed or break down. In particular, I am interested in the way in which certain characteristics of partners may be important throughout marriage.

I am contacting you, as a randomly selected married couple (taken from the electoral register), to ask you whether you would be prepared to help me out in my research (see the slip at the bottom of the page). This research simply involves filling in a fairly detailed questionnaire which I will send to you if you agree to participate (this questionnaire takes about 30 minutes to complete). The questionnaire will ask about how you view yourself and your partner, the ways in which you work together as a team, how you view your relationship together, and how you mix with your friends and relatives. I will require nothing more of you after this, and promise not to bother you again. However, if you so desire, I can send you a general summary of my results (- and you can see if you agree with my conclusions!)

I should stress that if you do complete the questionnaire <u>all data will be dealt with in the strictest confidence, and your identity will remain completely secret</u> (*I will not know who fills in each form*). The individual answers given on each these questionnaires will be used only for the purposes of this research.

If you have any questions or worries about this research, please feel free to contact me at the above address or on Canterbury 764000 ext 3084. I attach a pre-paid addressed envelope for your reply.

Yours, with thanks,

ROBIN GOODWIN
(Research Psychologist)

I am willing to fill in your questionnaire (please tick yes/no).

Yes [ ] No [ ]

My name is ..... Address .....

.....

.....Tel No. .....

My partner is willing to fill in your questionnaire (please tick yes/no)

Yes [ ] No [ ]

"Married couples" Questionnaire

October 1987

Dear sir/madam,

Recently I contacted you, and asked whether you and your partner would be willing to fill in a questionnaire about your relationship. You kindly offered to help me in this research, and I therefore enclose a copy of this for both you and your partner, along with two pre-paid envelopes for your replies. I must apologies if these questionnaires look rather long, but as you can imagine, there are many things that are important in a successful relationship. Each questionnaire should take no longer than 35 minutes to answer (don't think too long about any of the questions, it is your *first* genuine response I am interested in).

I should stress that I am not interested in knowing your name, and your identity will remain secret. I am, however, interested in comparing your answer with your partner's, so in order to keep your identity secret, I would like you to make up an identity number and fill it in the box over the page. I would also like your partner to use the same number, so that I can compare your answers. Of course, as I do not know who chooses which number, both your identities will remain completely secret. Please fill in this questionnaire even if things are not going too well for you in your relationship at present. It is is obviously important for my research that I gain whole range of responses, from those whose marriage is very successful to those who may have troubled relationships.

Please do try to persuade your partner to fill in this questionnaire. If, however, they are unable or do not wish to do so, please still fill in your questionnaire, and send it back in the pre-paid envelope. PLEASE DO THIS QUESTIONNAIRE ALONE AND DO NOT CONFER WITH YOUR PARTNER ON YOUR ANSWERS.

Thank you *very much* for your time and help. If you have any questions or worries, I can be contacted on Canterbury 764000 ext. 3084, or at the above address. And hopefully, with your co-operation, this research should help researchers understand how this complicated thing called "marriage" works, and help us help those with difficulties in their relationships.

Yours, with many thanks,

ROBIN GOODWIN
(Research Psychologist)

Identity number (7 numbers or letters)

Please make up your own number, and place it in the box below: please remember to ask your partner to use THE SAME number.

Obviously, this questionnaire is mainly about couples who are still together. Please tick which of the following boxes applies to you...

1. "Still together" [ ] 2. "Separated" [ ]

Please could you write down your occupation underneath (along the dotted lines)

.....

Please also write the occupation of your partner

.....

Are you.....(please tick one)

Male [ ] Female [ ]

Please write your age in the space below...

.....(years)

How long did you know your partner before you were married? (in years and months)

.....years .....months

How long have you been married? (in years and months)

.....years .....months

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS ENTIRELY CONFIDENTIAL, AND WILL BE SEEN BY NO-ONE BUT MYSELF, AND ONLY USED FOR THIS RESEARCH. THERE IS NO WAY I (OR ANYONE) WILL KNOW WHO HAS ANSWERED THIS.

Question Set A: How to answer

This question set is asking about the type of person you are. Each question has 6 possible responses, and I would like you to ring round which one is appropriate for you. Please note that although some questions have the same wording they are all different questions (and will have different sets of possible answers).

1. I like people to act cool and distant toward me

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

2. I like people to invite me to things

usually	often	sometimes	occasionally	rarely	never

3. I like people to invite me join their activities

usually	often	sometimes	occasionally	rarely	never

4. I like people to act friendly toward me

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

5. I like people to act close toward me.

usually	often	sometimes	occasionally	rarely	never

6. I let people control my actions

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

7. I like people to invite me to join their activities

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

8. I let other people strongly influence my actions

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

9. I like people to ask me to participate in their discussions

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

10. I like people to act distant toward me

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

11. I am easily led by people

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

12. I let other people control my actions

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

13. I like people to invite me to things

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

14. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

15. I let other people strongly influence my actions

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

16. I like people to include me in their activities

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

17. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

18. I let other people decide what to do

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

19. I like people to include me in their activities

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

20. I let other people decide what to do

usually | often | sometimes | occasionally | rarely | never

21. I like people to act close and personal with me

most people | many people | some people | a few people | one or 2 people | nobody

22. I am easily led by people

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

23. I let other people take charge of things

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

24. I like people to act close toward me

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people 2	nobody

25. I like people to act distant toward me

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

26. I like people to act close and personal with me

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

27. I like people to act cool and distant toward me

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

The following questions are about how you see your partner. Below are some descriptions of a person's characteristics. How true are they of your partner? **(Again, please ring the appropriate response)**

Is your partner...?

1. Someone who prefers to be with other people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

2. Someone who likes to join social groups?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

3. Someone who tends to join social organizations whenever they have an opportunity?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

4. Someone who likes to have other people do things the way they want them done?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

5. Someone who likes to include other people in their plans?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

6. Someone who likes to have other people do things the way they want them done?

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

7. Someone who likes to be included in informal activities?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

8. Someone who likes to take charge of things when they are with people?

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

9. Someone who tends to join in when people are doing things together?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

10. Someone who likes to be the dominant person when they are with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

11. Someone who likes to take charge of things when they are with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

12. Someone who takes charge of things when they are with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

13. Someone who likes to have close, personal relationships with people?

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

14. Someone who likes to influence strongly other people's actions

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

15. Someone who likes to have close relationships with people?

most people many people some people a few people one or 2 people nobody

16. Someone who likes to participate in group activities?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

17. Someone who likes to be friendly to people?

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

18. Someone who likes to influence strongly other people's actions?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

19. Someone who likes to have people around them?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

20. Someone who acts cool and distant with people?

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

21. Someone who likes to have close, personal relationships with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

22. Someone who likes to have other people do things they want done?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

23. Someone who likes to get close and personal with people?

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

24. Someone whose personal relations with people are cool and distant?

most people	many people	some people	a few people	one or 2 people	nobody

25. Someone who likes to get close and personal with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

26. Someone who likes to avoid being alone?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

27. Someone who likes to have close relationships with people?

usually often sometimes occasionally rarely never

Question Set B: How to answer

The next questions asks about the *roles* you and your partner play in your relationship. The first set of questions require you to circle one answer, as before. The second set ask you to tick the appropriate answer.

For this set of questions, *please ring the appropriate answer.*

a. *How importantly do you rate keeping in contact with the relatives?*

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

b. How good do you think your partner is at helping and keeping in touch with the relatives

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Don't try

c. *How importantly do you rate the role of provider for your relationship?*

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

d. How good do you think your partner is at being the provider for the household?

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Don't try

e. How importantly do you rate the role of houskeeper for your relationship?

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

f. How good do you think your partner is at being housekeeper in your household?

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

g. *How important is initiating sex in your relationship?*

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

h. *How good is your partner at satisfying your sexual needs?*

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

i. *How important is having someone to discuss personal problems with to your relationship?*

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

j. How well do you feel your partner does at helping you with your personal problems?

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

k. How important is family recreation in your relationship?

Very important	Quite important	Unsure	Not very important	Very unimportant

l. *How well do you feel your partner does at organizing and providing recreation for the family?*

Extremely good	Quite good	Fairly good	Rather poor	Extremely poor	Doesn't try

Question Set C: How to answer

Within most relationships, there is inevitably disagreement about some topics and issues. The next question asks: *How often do you disagree with your partner on the following activities...* (please ring the appropriate answer)

a) housekeeping

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

b) earning a living

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

c) keeping in touch with relatives

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

d) physical intimacy

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

e) recreation

Very frequently	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

f) discussing each other's personal problems

Very frequently | Frequently | Sometimes | Rarely | Never

Question Set D: How to answer

These next few questions are rather negative, I'm afraid. However, these days it seems like a lot of steady relationships and marriages are breaking up. Of course this isn't likely, but just suppose your partner were to leave you this year. How likely do you imagine each of the following would be? Decide whether you think each item would be impossible, possible, probable or certain (again, ring around the appropriate * below).

1. HOW LIKELY IS IT THAT:	IMPOSSIBLE	POSSIBLE BUT UNLIKELY	PROBABLE	CERTAIN
a. You could find another partner better than your present one?	*	*	*	*
b. You could find another partner as good as they are?	*	*	*	*
c. You would be quite satisfied without a partner?	*	*	*	*
d. You would be sad, but get over it quickly?	*	*	*	*
e. You would be able to live as well as you do now?	*	*	*	*
f. You would be able to take care of yourself	*	*	*	*
g. You would be better off economically?	*	*	*	*
h. Your prospects for a happy future would be bleak?	*	*	*	*
i. There are many other partners you could be happy with?	*	*	*	*
j. You could support yourself at your present level?	*	*	*	*
k. Your life would be ruined?	*	*	*	*

2. It is probably fair to say that most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below ***(circling the appropriate *)*** *the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list, (from 'always agree' to 'always disagree').*

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occa-sionally Agree	Fre-quently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
a. Handling family finances	*	*	*	*	*	*
b. Matters of recreation	*	*	*	*	*	*
c. Religious matters	*	*	*	*	*	*
d. Demonstrations of Affection	*	*	*	*	*	*
e. Friends	*	*	*	*	*	*
f. Sex relations	*	*	*	*	*	*
g. Conventionality (correct or proper behaviour)	*	*	*	*	*	*
h. Philosophy of life	*	*	*	*	*	*
i. Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws	*	*	*	*	*	*
j. Aims, goals, and things believed important	*	*	*	*	*	*
k. Amount of time spent together	*	*	*	*	*	*
l. Making major decisions	*	*	*	*	*	*
m. Household tasks	*	*	*	*	*	*
n. Leisure time interests and activities	*	*	*	*	*	*
o. Career decisions	*	*	*	*	*	*

Now please do the same thing with answers ranging from 'All the time' to 'Never'

	All the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occa-sionally	Rarely	Never
a . How often do you discuss or have you consid -ered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	*	*	*	*	*	*
b . How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	*	*	*	*	*	*
c . In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	*	*	*	*	*	*
d . Do you confide in your mate?	*	*	*	*	*	*
e . Do you ever regret that you entered this relationship?	*	*	*	*	*	*
f . How often do you and your partner quarrel?	*	*	*	*	*	*
g . How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	*	*	*	*	*	*

And now the same with answers from 'Everyday to Never' and 'All of them' to 'None of them'...

	Everyday	Almost Everday	Occas-ionally	Rarely	Never
a . Do you kiss your partner?	*	*	*	*	*

	All of them	Most of them	Some of them	Very few of them	None of them
b . Do you and your partner engage in outside interests together?	*	*	*	*	*

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your partner? (from 'never' to 'more often- than once a day')

	Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often
a . Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	*	*	*	*	*	*
b . Laugh together	*	*	*	*	*	*
c. Calmly discuss something	*	*	*	*	*	*
d . Work together on a project	*	*	*	*	*	*

Question Set E: How to answer

The next questions introduce a new type of scale. This asks you to fill in a 5 or 7 point scale like the following

|___|___|___|___|___|

It may then ask you a question like the first one (offering a statement on your relationship with your friends and family) and give you a scale like the following one:

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

The idea is to place a cross (X) in one of the spaces to indicate how you feel about a statement. The more you go to the end of the scale to place your cross, the more you agree with the statement at that end of the scale. Please use the middle of the scale *only when you find it impossible to make up your mind on which side of the scale to place your cross.*

1. *The next questions ask about your relationship with your friends and family. Whilst your relationship might be quite different for your friends than for your family, most people still have a 'feel' of how people like this treat them overall, and it is this I am testing. Please remember that its your first, general impression I am interested in.*

a. My friends and family seek me out for companionship

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

b. Most other people are closer to their friends and family than I am

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

c. When I am with my friends and family, they don't allow me to take charge often enough.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

d. My friends and family don't allow me to run things the way *I* want them.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

e. Certain friends and members of my family come to me when they have problems or need advice.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

f. I have a deep sharing relationship with a number of my friends/family members.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

g. I lack the close relationship with a friend or family member that others usually have.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

h. I feel I have a close and confiding relationship with a friend or member of my family.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

2. How probable do you think it is that you will break off your relationship with your partner in the near future?

extremely likely |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| extremely unlikely.

3. How probable do you think it is that your partner will break off your relationship in the near future?

extremely likely |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| extremely unlikely.

<u>The final Question set: How to answer</u>
The grand finale of this questionnaire asks a mixture of questions.

1. As was mentioned earlier, everyone experiences some unhappiness in their relationships, even in the most perfect involvements. These questions concern the most recent dissatisfying incident in your relationship. You may choose to describe a fairly important problem, or you may decide to describe a more trivial incident, either is fine.

a. What caused the most recent dissatisfaction? That is, what was the event, issue or problem that made you feel unhappy or irritated with your partner or relationship? (Please write a sentence or two).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

b. How did you respond to this situation? (Please write a sentence or two).

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2. In the last question set, I asked you to fill out a special kind of 5 point scale (like this: |___|___|___|___|___|). Please use the same scale to answer the following...

a. You have just described a dissatisfying incident in your relationship. To what extent did you respond to the incident in *each* of the following ways?

i. *I thought about ending the relationship*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

ii. *I suggested that we separate for a while*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

iii. *I talked to my partner about what was bothering me*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| *very much so*

iv. We compromised, and worked out a solution which was good for both of us

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

v. *I waited a while before saying anything, just to see if things would improve on their own*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

vi. *I fervently hoped that things would improve, but didn't do much to change things*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

vii. *I forgave my partner and forgot about it*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

viii. *I criticized my partner for other things, things that weren't really related to the problem*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

ix. *I ignored my partner for a little while*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

x. *I said (or did) some cruel things to my partner*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

xi. *I just let things fall apart*

I didn't do this at all |___|___|___|___|___| very much so

Now, please just tick 'yes' or 'no' boxes for your answer.

3. Naturally, there are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Please indicate if any of the items below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks

3a. Being too tired for sex Yes [ ] No [ ]

3b. Not showing love Yes [ ] No [ ]

4a. Have you or your husband/wife ever seriously suggested the idea of divorce within the last three years?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

4b. Have you discussed divorce or separation with a close friend?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

4c. Even people who get along quite well with their spouse sometimes wonder whether their marriage is working out. Have you ever thought your marriage might be in trouble?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

4d. Did you talk about consulting a lawyer?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

4e. Has the thought of getting a divorce or separation crossed your mind in the past three years?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

5. **Now please just tick the following statement** *which best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?*

___ I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and *would go to almost any 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 help it succeed.
___ My relationship can never succeed, and *there is no more that I can do* to keep the relationship going.

6. **And- <u>very!</u>- finally, the asteriks 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**

* * * * * * *

Extremely <u>Un</u>happy | Fairly <u>Un</u>happy | A Little <u>Un</u>happy | Happy | Very Happy | Extremely Happy | Perfect

Thank you <u>very</u> for your time and effort. Remember, there is a postage-paid envelope enclosed for your response, and a separate one for your partner's response

Robin Goodwin
Institute of Social and Applied Psychology
University of Kent, Canterbury

Cuestionario para matrimonios

Estimado señor/a:

Soy un psicólogo de la Universidad de Kent en Canterbury, Reino Unido.Estoy realizando una investigación acerca del matrimonio en Gran Bretaña y en el resto del mundo. Gran parte de mi estudio se refiere al estudio de matrimonios sudamericanos, y le agradecería si dedicara unos minutos de su tiempo para contestar el siguiente cuestionario. Debo perdirle disculpas si este cuestionario es muy largo, pero , como sabrá, existen muchas cosas que son importantes en una relación. Este cuestionario no debe tomar mas de veinte (20) minutos de su tiempo; por favor no se detenga demasiado en cada pregunta, estoy interesado en su primera reacción.

Debo enfatizar que no necesito saber su nombre, y su identidad no sera dada a conocer.. Sin embargo, estoy interesado en comparar su respuesta con la de su esposo/a . Para mantener la discreción, me gustaria que se adjudique un numero de identidad, y póngalo en el casillero en la hoja siguiente. Le pediría también que su pareja use el mismo numero, asi yo podré comparar vuestras respuestas. Por favor complete el siguiente cuestionario, incluso si su relación no es ideal actualmente. Es de suma importancia para mi investigación que obtenga una amplia gama de respuestas desde aquellos que tienen matrimonios exitosos a aquellos cuya relación no es del todo ideal.

Por favor, trate de convencer a su esposo/a que conteste este cuestionario. Si, por cualquier razon, el/ella no puede/quiere tomar parte, conteste Ud. de todos modos, y devuélvamelos a mi cuando termine. Por favor conteste solo/a y no consulte con su pareja.

Muchas gracias por su tiempo y colaboración.

Los saluda atentamente

Robin Goodwin

ROBIN GOODWIN
(PSICOLOGO DE INVESTIGACION)

Numero de identidad (7 numeros o letras)

Por favor, invente su propio numero y póngalo en el casillero siguiente; no olvide pedir a su pareja que use EL MISMO numero.

Obviamente este cuestionario es principalmente para aquellas parejas que todavía estan unidas. Por favor marque cual de las siguientes opciones se refiere a vuestra relación.

1. Juntos todavia [ ] 2. Separados [ ]

Por favor indique su ocupación (sobre la linea de puntos)

.....

Por favor, indique la ocupación de su esposo/a

.....

Sexo

Masculino [ ] 2. Femenino [ ]

Por favor indique su edad...

..... (años)

Hace cuanto tiempo se conocían cuando se casaron?

..... (años) .... (meses)

Cuanto tiempo llevan casados?

..... (años) .... (meses)

ESTE CUESTIONARIO ES TOTALMENTE CONFIDENCIAL, Y NO SERA VISTO POR NINGUNA PERSONA MAS QUE YO Y LA SENORITA TERRY.

Grupo de preguntas A: Como contestar

Este grupo de preguntas es acerca de que tipo de persona Ud es. Cada pregunta tiene seis respuestas posibles, y le pediria que marcara cual es la apropiada para Ud. Recuerde que, aunque algunas preguntas estan fraseadas de la misma manera, todas son preguntas diferentes (y, por lo tanto, pueden tener respuestas diferentes).

1. Me gusta que la gente se comporte friamente y distante hacia mi.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

2. Me gusta que la gente me invite a cosas.

casi siempre	muchas veces	a veces	ocasionalmente	raramente	nunca

3. Me gusta que la gente me invite a participar en sus actividades.

casi siempre	muchas veces	a veces	ocasionalmente	raramente	nunca

4. Me gusta que la gente se muestre amistosa conmigo.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

5. Me gusta que la gente se comporte calidamente conmigo.

casi siempre	muchas veces	a veces	ocasionalmente	raramente	nunca

6. Dejo que la gente controle mis acciones.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

7. Me gusta que la gente me invite a participar en sus actividades.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

8. Dejo que otra gente totalmente influya en mis acciones.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

9. Me gusta que la gente me invite a participar en sus charlas.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

10. Me gusta que la gente actúe distante hacia mi.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

11. Soy facilmente guiado/a por la gente.

casi siempre	muchas veces	a veces	ocasionalmente	raramente	nunca

12. Dejo que otra gente controle mis acciones

casi siempre	muchas veces	a veces	ocasionalmente	raramente	nunca

13. Me gusta que la gente me invite a cosas.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

14. Me gusta que la gente me invite a participar en sus actividades.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

15. Dejo que otra gente totalmente influya mis acciones.

casi siempre	muchas veces	a veces	ocasionalmente	raramente	nunca

16. Me gusta que la gente me incluya en sus actividades.

casi siempre	muchas veces	a veces	ocasionalmente	raramente	nunca

17. Me gusta que la gente me invite a participar en sus actividades.

casi siempre	muchas veces	a veces	ocasionalmente	raramente	nunca

18. Dejo que otra gente decida que hacer.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

19. Me gusta que la gente me incluya en sus actividades.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

20. Dejo que otra gente decida que hacer.

casi siempre	muchas veces	a veces	ocasionalmente	raramente	nunca

21. Me gusta que la gente actue cercanamente y personalmente conmigo.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

22. Soy guiado por otra gente con facilidad.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

23. Dejo que otra gente se encargue de las cosas

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

24. Me gusta que la gente se comporte calidamente conmigo.

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

25. Me gusta que la gente actue distante hacia mi.

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

26. Me gusta que la gente actue calidamente y personalmente conmigo.

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

27. Me gusta que la gente actue friamente y distante conmigo.

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

Las siguiuentes preguntas son acerca de como ud. percibe a su pareja. A continuación hay algunas descripciones de caracteristicas personales. Cuan ciertas son de su pareja? (Otra vez ponga un circulo alrededor de la respuesta)

Es su esposo/a...?

1. Alguien que prefiere estar con otra gente?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

2. Alguien que le gusta unirse a grupos sociales?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

3. Alguien que tiende a unirse a organizaciones sociales siempre que tiene la oportunidad?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

4. Alguien que le gusta tener otra gente haciendo cosas de la manera que a él/ella le gusta?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

5. Alguien que le gusta incluir a otra gente en sus planes?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

6. Alguien que le gusta tener otra gente haciendo cosas de la manera que a él/ella le gusta?

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

7. Alguien que le gusta ser incluido/a en activades formales?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

8. Alguien que le gusta encargarse de cosas cuando estan con gente?

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

9. Alguien que tiende a unirse cuando la gente esta haciendo cosas?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

10. Alguien que quiere ser dominante cuando esta con gente?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

11. Alguien que le gusta encargarse de cosas cuando estan con gente?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

12. Alguien que se encarga de las cosas cuando esta con gente?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

13. Alguien que le gusta tener relaciones calidas y personales con la gente?

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

14. Alguien que le gusta influir totalmente en las acciones de otra gente?

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

15. Alguien que le gusta tener relaciones calidas con la gente?

la mayoria de la gente	mucha gente	alguna gente	unas personas	pocas personas	una o dos personas	nadie

16. Alguien que le gusta participar en actividades grupales?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

17. Alguien que le gusta ser amistoso con la gente?

la mayoria de la gente | mucha gente | alguna gente | unas personas | pocas personas | una o dos personas | nadie

18. Alguien que le gusta influir totalmente en las acciones de otra gente?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

19. Alguien que le gusta tener gente alrededor?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

20. Alguien que actua friamente y distante con la gente?

la mayoria de la gente | mucha gente | alguna gente | unas personas | pocas personas | una o dos personas2 | nadie

21. Alguien que le gusta tener relaciones calidas y personales con la gente?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

22. Alguien que le gusta que la gente haga cosas que él/ella quiere tener hechas?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

23. Alguien que le gusta acercarse y ser personal con la gente?

la mayoria de la gente | mucha gente | alguna gente | unas personas | pocas personas | una o dos personas | nadie

24. Alguien cuyas relaciones personales con la gente son frias y distantes?

la mayoria de la gente | mucha gente | alguna gente | unas personas | pocas personas | una o dos personas | nadie

25. Alguien que le gusta acercarse y ser personal con la gente?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

26. Alguien que le gusta evitar estar solo/a?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

27. Alguien que le gusta tener relaciones calidas con la gente?

casi siempre muchas veces a veces ocasionalmente raramente nunca

Grupo de preguntas B: Como contestar

En la mayoria de las relaciones siempre hay desacuerdo sobre ciertos temas. La siguiente pregunta es: *Cuan frecuentemente esta Ud. en desacuerdo con su esposo/a en las siguientes actividades...(Por favor, ponga un circulo alrededor de la respuesta apropiada)*

a) tareas domesticas

Muy frecuentemente Frecuentemente A Veces Raramente Nunca

b) ganar el sustento

Muy frecuentemente Frecuentemente A Veces Raramente Nunca

c) manteniendose en contacto con los parientes

Muy frecuentemente Frecuentemente A Veces Raramente Nunca

d) intimidad fisica

Muy frecuentemente Frecuentemente A Veces Raramente Nunca

e) recreacion

Muy frecuentemente Frecuentemente A Veces Raramente Nunca

f) discutir los problemas personales de ambos

Muy frecuentemente Frecuentemente A Veces Raramente Nunca

Grupo de preguntas C: Como contestar

Me temo que las siguientes preguntas son algo negativas. Sin embargo, en estos tiempos parece que muchas relaciones serias y matrimonios se disuelven. Por cierto esto no va a ocurrir, pero suponga que su pareja lo va a dejar este año. Cuan posible imagina Ud. que lo siguiente seria? Decida si piensa que cada frase es imposible, posible, probable o seguro (otra vez ponga un circulo alrededor del *).

1. CUAN POSIBLE ES:

	IMPOSIBLE	POSIBLE PERO IMPROBABLE	PROBABLE	SEGURO
a. Que Ud. encuentre un companero/a mejor que el/ella?	*	*	*	*
b. Que Ud. encuentre a otro compañero/a tan bueno como el/ella?	*	*	*	*
c. Que Ud. este bastante satisfecho sin companero/a?	*	*	*	*

	IMPOSIBLE	POSIBLE PERO IMPROBABLE	PROBABLE	SEGURO
d. Que Ud. este triste pero que se recupere rapidamente?	*	*	*	*
e. Que Ud. pueda vivir tan bien como vive ahora?	*	*	*	*
f. Que Ud. sea capable de cuidarse a si mismo/a?	*	*	*	*
g. Que Ud. este en mejor posición economicamente?				
h. Que Ud. no tenga un futuro feliz?	*	*	*	*
i. Que haya muchos compañeros/as con los/las cuales podria ser feliz?	*	*	*	*
j. Que Ud. se pueda mantener a si mismo/a en su presente nivel?	*	*	*	*
k. Que su vida se arruine?	*	*	*	*

2. Es justo decir que la mayoria de la gente tiene desacuerdos en sus relaciones. Por favor indique (poniendo un circulo alrededor del *) el grado aproximado de acuerdo o desacuerdo entre Ud. y su esposo/a en cada situación en la siguiente lista (desde 'siempre de acuerdo' hasta 'siempre en desacuerdo').

	Siempre de acuerdo	Casi Siempre de acuerdo	Ocasionalmente de acuerdo	Frecuentemente en desacuerdo	Casi Siempre en desacuerdo	Casi en desacuerdo
a. Manejar finanazas familiares	*	*	*	*	*	*
b. Recreación	*	*	*	*	*	*
c. Cuestiones religiosas	*	*	*	*	*	*
d. Demostrac-*iones de afecto*	*	*	*	*	*	*

	Siempre de acuerdo	Casi Siempre de acuerdo	Ocasionalmente de acuerdo	Frecuentemente en desacuerdo	Casi Siempre en desacuerdo	Casi en desacuerdo
e. Amigos	*	*	*	*	*	*
f. Relaciones sexuales.	*	*	*	*	*	*
g. Convencionalidad	*	*	*	*	*	*
h. Filosofia de la vida	*	*	*	*	*	*
i. Formas de tratar a sus padres u otros familiares cercanos	*	*	*	*	*	*
j. Aspiraciones goles y cosas percibidas como importantes	*	*	*	*	*	*
k. Tiempo juntos	*	*	*	*	*	*
l. Tomar decisiones importantes	*	*	*	*	*	*
m. Tareas domesticas	*	*	*	*	*	*
n. Interes y actividades en el tiempo libre	*	*	*	*	*	*
o. Decisiones refentes a su carrera (la de ambos)	*	*	*	*	*	*

Ahora, por favor haga lo mismo con respuestas que van desde 'Siempre' a 'Nunca'.

	Siempre	Casi Siempre	Mucha Veces	Ocasional-mente	Rara-mente	Nunca
a. Con que frecuencia discuten Uds., o han considerado divorcio, separacion o terminar vuestra relacion?	*	*	*	*	*	*
b. Con que frecuencia deja Ud. o su pareja la casa despues de una pelea?	*	*	*	*	*	*
c. En general, cuando piensa Ud. que las cosas entre Ud. y su pareja estan yendo bien?	*	*	*	*	*	*
d. Confía Ud. en su pareja?	*	*	*	*	*	*
e. Se arrepiente de haber empezado esta relación?	*	*	*	*	*	*
f. Cuan frecuentemente discuten Ud. y su pareja?	*	*	*	*	*	*
g. Cuan frecuentemente Ud. y su pareja piensan que "se ponen los pelos de punta" entre Uds.?	*	*	*	*	*	*

Y ahora, lo mismo con respuestas que van de 'Todos los dias' a 'Nunca' y 'Todos' a 'Ninguno'

	Todos los dias	Casi todos los dias	Ocasional-mente	Rara-mente	Nunca
a. Besa Ud. a su pareja?	*	*	*	*	*

	Todos	Casi todos	Algunos	Muy Pocos	Ninguno
b. Ud. y su pareja comparten intereses en su tiempo libre juntos?	*	*	*	*	*

Con que frecuencia diria Ud. que los eventos siguientes pasan entre Ud. y su pareja? (desde 'Nunca' a 'Mas de una vez al dia')

	Nunca	Menos de una vez por mes	Una o dos veces por mes	Una o dos veces por semana	Una vez al dia	Mas seguido
a. Tienen un intercambio de ideas estimulante?	*	*	*	*	*	*
b. Rien juntos?	*	*	*	*	*	*
c. Discuten algo con calma?	*	*	*	*	*	*
d. Trabajan juntos en algun proyecto?	*	*	*	*	*	*

Grupo de preguntas D; Como contestar

Las siguientes preguntas se contestan usando un tipo de escala diferente. Aqui debera Ud. usar una escala de cinco puntos como la siguiente:

|___|___|___|___|___|

Luego se le preguntara algo parecido a lo siguiente(dando como ejemplo una relación entre Ud. con sus amigos y familiares) y contestara de acuerdo a una escala como la siguiente:

mucho |___|___|___|___|___| para nada

La idea consiste en poner una cruz (X) en uno de los casilleros para indicar como siente Ud. Mas hacia la izquierda, lo mas que Ud. esta de acuerdo con la frase en ese extremo de la escala. Por favor use el medio de la escala *solo cuando le parezca imposible decidirse de que lado de la escala responder.*

1. Las siguientes preguntas son acerca de su relción con sus amigos y su familia. Aun cuando su relación con sus amigos y su familia sea diferente. la mayoria de la gente tiene una idea de como ambos lo tratan en general, y esto es lo que quiero saber. Por favor, recuerde que lo quiero saber es su primera reacción.

a. Mis amigos y mi familia me buscan para tener compania.

mucho |___|___|___|___|___| para nada

b. La mayoria de la gente estan mas unidos a sus amigos o familia que yo.

mucho |___|___|___|___|___| para nada

c. Cuando estoy con mis amigos o mi familia estos no me dejan 'Tomar las riendas.'

mucho |___|___|___|___|___| para nada

d. Mis amigos y mi familia no me dejan hacer las cosas de la manera que yo quiero.

mucho |___|___|___|___|___| para nada

e. Algunos de mis amigos y/o miembros de mi familia vienen a pedirme consejo o a que les resuelva los problemas.

mucho |___|___|___|___|___| para nada

f. Tengo una profunda relación de compartir con un buen numero de mis amigos y de mi familia.

mucho |___|___|___|___|___| para nada

g. No tengo la relación cercana con un amigo/a o miembro de mi familia que otras personas tienen.

mucho |___|___|___|___|___| para nada

h. Pienso que tengo una relación cálida con un/a amigo/a o con un miembro de mi familia.

mucho |___|___|___|___|___| para nada

Ahora, por favor, simplemente marque 'si' o 'no' en los casilleros.

2. Por favor indique si alguna de las situaciones siguientes han producido diferencias de opinion o han causado problemas en las ultimas semanas.

2a. Estar muy cansado/a para hacer el amor. Si [ ] No [ ]

2b. No demostrar cariño Si [ ] No [ ]

3. Ahora por favor, simplemente marque la frase *que mejor describe el futuro de vuestra relacion.*

___ Quiero desesperadamente que mi relación marche bien, y *haria cualquier cosa* para lograrlo.
___ Quiero mucho que mi relación marche bien, y *haré todo lo que pueda* para lograrlo.
___ Quiero mucho que mi relación marche bien, y *pondré mi grano de arena* para lograrlo.
___ Seria bueno que mi relación marche bien, pero *me rehúso a hacer más de lo que estoy haciendo ahora* para lograr que marche bien.
___ Mi relación no puede nunca marchar bien, y *no hay nada mas que yo pueda hacer* para que la relación continúe.

4. Y, F I N A L M E N T E (hurra, inglés plomo!) los * en la linea siguiente representan diferentes grados de felicidad en su relación. El punto del medio, 'Feliz' representa el grado de felicidad de la mayoría de las relaciones. Por favor, ponga un circulo alrededor del * que mejor describe su grado de felicidad (considerando todo aspecto) de su relación.

*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Extremadamente Infeliz	Bastante Infeliz	Un poco Infeliz	Feliz	Muy Feliz	Extremada-mente Feliz	Per-fecta

Robin Goodwin
Institute of Social and Applied Psychology
University of Kent, Canterbury
England.

APPENDIX B: 1

Social Psychology Research Unit
Beverley Farm
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ

Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

4 September 1986

Dear Student

I am researching into personal relationships, and would be extremely grateful if you could help me by completing the attached booklet. This should not take long and all responses will be treated in the strictest confidence. You need not put any identifying mark on the booklet other than your sex.

Please try and complete the booklet as soon as possible, and at any rate not later than 20 September.

A postage-paid envelope is included for your convenience.

Yours sincerely

Robin Goodwin
Postgraduate Student

APPENDIX B: 2

Social Psychology Research Unit
Beverley Farm
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ

Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

4 September 1986

Dear Student

Robin really does need you to do this by the date he has requested as it is important that he analyses the results in time for the start of the new academic year in October. Your co-operation will greatly assist him, and I hope you will agree to complete the test. Please do return it as soon as possible.

Yours sincerely

Geoffrey M Stephenson

APPENDIX B: 3

Institute of Social and
Applied Psychology
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ

Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

Dear shopper,

I am doing research at the University of Kent here in Canterbury, and I am studying people's ideas about relationships. As part of this research, I have written a short questionnaire asking you about the type of person you are looking for in a romantic relationship.

I would be extremely grateful if you could help me in my research by filling in this questionnaire and by placing it in the box provided underneath. I will then call at the store regularly to collect the replies.

As a "thank you" for helping me complete my work each reply will be placed into a draw and a book prize- Professor Steve Duck's "Human Relationships"- will be given to the first name drawn out. I should stress that all replies will be treated with the strictest confidence, and read only by myself, and only for the purposes of this research. If you have any worries about this questionnaire, or are unsure on any points, please feel free to contact me on Canterbury 764000 ext. 3084.

Once again, many thanks for your help.

Robin Goodwin.

Dear student,

I am studying for a PhD at the Institute of Social and Applied Psychology in Beverley Farm. I am interested in new students views about their relationships, and for this purpose I have devised a short questionnaire about approaches to such relationships. This questionnaire is similar to one given out at the Freshers Bazaar, but the new version has been changed following some subject's misgivings about the intimacy of some of the questions, and the ambiguity of a couple of the items.

I would be extremely grateful if you would help me in my research by filling in this questionnaire as soon as possible, and by returning it in the envelope provided to one of the college porters (no stamp is needed). As a "thank you" for helping me to complete my research, each questionnaire has a code number on the top right-hand corner- the numbers on those questionnaires returned will be put into a draw and a cash prize of £25 will be given to the winning number.

I should stress that **all** replies will be treated with the strictest confidence, and read only by myself, and only for the purposes of this research. If you have any worries about the questionnaire, or are unsure on any points, please contact me on my internal extension number (3084).

Once again, many thanks for your help,

Robin Goodwin.

Note

If you have recently returned the questionnaire given to you at the Freshers bazaar, or are in the process of filling this out, please ignore this modified version. Replies from the first questionnaire will also be entered into the draw.

Sample interview schedule for study 2 (chapter 5)

Male. (1)
Girl (1).
Freshers(F).

FOLLOW-UP FORM 1: GENERAL QUESTIONS.

If you can think back to the Freshers Bazaar, at the beginning of last term, you filled in a form asking about your ideas on relationships and the type of opposite-sex partner you are attracted to. At the bottom of that form was a warning that I would like, if possible, to follow-up some of these forms a few months later. I'd therefore like to ask you a few questions, and possibly even bribe you to take part in a further questionnaire or interview. If you have any objections to any of these questions...

1. *New Relationships.*

* a. In October, you said that you had a girlfriend (or wife!) at the present time. My first question is- have you been involved in a *different, new* boyfriend-girlfriend relationship since then?

1. Yes 2. No (goto Section 2) 3.Unsure. (goto Section 2)

Ask the rest of the questions in Section 1 only if the answer to the above question was 'Yes'.

* b. Are you still in a girlfriend-boyfriend relationship with this person?

1. Yes 2. No (goto f) 3.Unsure (goto f)

---

* c. How long have you been going out together)

1. 3 months (or more!) 2. 2-3 months 3. 1-2 months 4. 2-4 weeks

5. 1-2 weeks 6. Less than a week 7. One or two days 8. One night.

* d. During this period, how many times a week do you meet up- where you would have a chance to be relatively alone together.

1. Once a month (or less) 2. 2-3 times a month 3. Every week

4. Two or three times/week 5. Four or five times/week

6. Just about every day 7. More than once a day 8. Spend a large part

of the day together every day.

* e. Do you think I could persuade you into being interviewed, either together or alone, at some time in the future (she doesn't have to be someone at UKC if we could arrange a time together). I should stress

that the first questionnaire filled in will not be a great deal of use to me without some follow-up information.

1. Willing to participate 2. Unwilling to participate (goto Section 2)

ARRANGED TIME OF APPOINTMENT:

Her name .....

Her address if in college .....

If she is not in college please get respondent to arrange a suitable time for both of them to be interviewed.

Day .....

Suitable time .....

Proposed location.....

Go to question i.

****

* f. How long did you go out together

1. 3 months (or more!) 2. 2-3 months 3. 1-2 months 4. 2-4 weeks

5. 1-2 weeks 6. Less than a week 7. One or two days 8. One night.

* g. During this period, how many times a week do you think you would meet up where you would have a chance to be relatively alone together.

1. Once a month (or less) 2. 2-3 times a month 3. Every week

4. Two or three times/week 5. Four or five times/week

6. Just about every day 7. More than once a day 8. Spend a large part

of the day together every day.

If the relationship lasted more than a week (i.e. answer code 1-5).

* h. Even although you are no longer going out together, would you object to me asking you a few questions about your relationship, either alone or together, mainly about what you found attractive about each other in the first place. If she is willing, I might possibly like to give her a modified version of the questionnaire I first gave you. I should stress that the first questionnaire filled in will not be a great deal of use to me without some follow-up information.

1. Willing to participate 2. Unwilling to participate (goto Section 2)

ARRANGED TIME OF APPOINTMENT:

Her name .....

Her address ....

Day .....

Suitable time .....

Proposed location .....

****

* i. Is she a student at UKC?

1. Yes 2. No.

* j. Is she someone on this list of names (all these people filled in a version of the first questionnaire).

1. Yes 2. No 3. Unsure.

Section 2. ASK ONLY IF ANSWER TO SECTION 1A IS NEGATIVE

* a. I may wish to ask you at some time a few questions on how your view of relationships may have changed in the last three months at UKC, although I'm still not sure I'll do this particular follow-up at all. Would you be willing to help me in this if I called round again some time?

1. Willing to participate 2. Unwilling to participate

Section 3. ONLY ASK IF RESPONDENT IS NOT OTHERWISE ATTACHED!

* a. Many people, when they first received their questionnaires, asked me if I was running some kind of free dating agency service (and, I should add, that this was actually requested by a lot of people doing the questionnaire!). Consequently, it has been suggested to me, half jokingly I think, that I might run some sort of 'blind date' for the Rag Ball on St. Valentine's Day, or something similar to this. This would involve some sort of pre-arranged ticket system where you would meet your matched-up partner on the night, and I could try and use my data to match up the 'appropriate' couples. I doubt there will be enough interest to make this worth while, but would you, in principle, be willing to take part (for a bit of fun, if nothing else!)

1. Willing to participate 2. Unwilling to participate.

Thank you very much for your time- and help in completing the first study.

Institute of Social and
Applied Psychology
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ
Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL- CONFIDENTIAL-

RELATIONSHIPS QUESTIONNAIRE

Last May, I gave out, as a central part of my research, a number of questionnaires which were given randomly to a number of single people in London, and which concerned their ideas about a future partner. .This questionnaire covered issues about the *personalities* sought by that person, and from their replies I made some predictions about the *personality type* that they would find attractive. One of the people to answer this was

Naturally, however, the only way in which this can be tested is by now testing the personality of a person found attractive by someone who did the questionnaire. I understand from that you now have a relationship with them, and it is therefore essential to the success of my research that I gather some personality information about you. I apologise for the length of this questionnaire, but it is a reduced set of questions based on research which originally took 30 hours to complete! As your partner can tell you, their original questionnaire involved a considerable amount of preparation on my part, and this preparation will have been wasted if you do not answer this questionnaire.

All responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and read by no-one but myself. DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ANYWHERE ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE- YOU SHOULD REMAIN ANONYMOUS. I enclose a pre-paid postage envelope for your reply.

Once again, thank you very much for your help. If you have any difficulty, please feel free to contact me on Canterbury 764000 extension 3084.

Robin Goodwin.

Please tick which of the following age and sex categories applies to you...

17-19 [ ] 20-25 [ ] 26-35 [ ] 36 or over [ ]

Male [ ] Female [ ]

APPENDIX B: 9

Institute of Social and
Applied Psychology
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ

Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

17th May 1987

Dear

If you remember back to the end of last term you kindly helped me out in my research by persuading your partner (or ex-partner) to fill in a lengthy questionnaire for me- for which I paid you £2. I duly analysed the results and presented them at a large Psychology Conference.

However, I have recently been talking to some of the top academics in this area around the country, and they have pointed out a big problem with this work. Although I obtained some data about what you wanted in a partner (way back in October) - and I then measured your partner on some personality tests- I never found out how *you* saw your partner! At the present time this omission is likely to severely hamper my work.

I would therefore ask you to do one last thing for me (sorry!). Enclosed is a **ONE-PAGE** questionnaire asking you what you think of your partner/ ex-partner by answering a scale the same as the one you answered in October. I do know that this is an extremely busy time of the year for you, but it is vital I contact you now before some people disappear forever. The questionnaire should literally take no more than 10 minutes to complete, and if you could send it back via internal mail to me (just give it to one of the porters) I will be forever grateful- AND I PROMISE TO NEVER BOTHER YOU AGAIN! Please remember, this is for you to complete- not you partner or an ex-partner. Once again, of course, all your responses will be kept completely confidential.

Thank you- again- very much for your help!

Robin.

Institute of Social and
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The University
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Kent CT2 7LZ
Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

29th September 1987

Dear

If you think back to last May, you kindly took part in a survey which I ran at the SAFEWAYS stores in Canterbury and Herne Bay (this involved you filling in a questionnaire about relationships). I said at the time I intended to contact you at a later date, and I would now like to ask you just one more question about your relationships.

The questionnaire I gave you was about the *type* of partner you were looking for. In order for that questionnaire to be of use to me, I would now like to ask you whether or not you have since found a partner with whom you have a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship.

If you have found a partner, I would very much like to ask you to fill in the same questionnaire, but now with respect to your new partner. This would let me then compare the type of person that you think *they* are to the type of person you said you wanted four months ago.

Please *please* send me back the slip underneath, whether or not you have found a partner since May. The success of my research literally hangs on whether or not I get these slips back, and without these slips, the original questionnaire you completed would have been pointless.

I enclose a pre-paid envelope for your reply. If you have any queries or worries, please do not hesitate to contact me on Canterbury 764000 ext 3084.

Thank you, once again, for your help.

Please note: the original questionnaire in SAFEWAYS was designed only for single people. However, a "joker" had removed the notice stating this, and some married/attached people filled it in by mistake. If you were one of these, my apologies for any insult caused by the above question!

---

* Have you been involved in a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship with someone since you took part in my questionnaire in May? *(Please tick the appropriate box)*

Yes [ ] No [ ]

* If you have, would you be willing to let me send you the *same* questionnaire for you to fill in once more?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

Now please send this slip back to me in the envelope provided.

APPENDIX B: 11

Social Psychology Research Unit
Beverley Farm
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ

Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

21st October 1986.

Dear Dateline member,

My name is Robin Goodwin, and I am doing research at the University of Kent at Canterbury in the Institute of Social and Applied psychology. My research is on how people form relationships, and the Dateline organisation has kindly offered to help me with this work.

I am writing to you to invite you to a short interview where you will be asked to fill in some questionnaires (rather like the Dateline one but a bit more detailed). As a "thank you" for helping me in this way, I will be organising a free party for those taking part after the interview, where you will be given a chance to meet other single people, all members of Dateline. This will take place in a relaxed atmosphere, and drinks, food and music will all be provided. As this is a pre-Christmas party I can also provide some party games if there is enough interest. I am hoping that there will be about 30 people coming on each occasion.

The interview and party will take place in central London at the Central London Polytechnic just opposite Aldgate tube station. Please let me know as soon as possible if you will be coming along, as I need to make arrangements for suitable numbers for each evening (because of this, I'm afraid I cannot let anyone in who has not told me that they are coming). Please also let me know if you won't be coming, as this will help me arrange for the appropriate numbers. Maps of the area and how to get there will be sent to you if you decide to come.

A 'freepost' envelope is provided for your reply. Please fill in the slip below and place it in this envelope. No stamp is required. If you have any enquiries, I can be contacted at the above address, or on 0227 66822 ext. 3084.

Thank you very much for your help,

Robin Goodwin

Robin Goodwin. B.A.. (Hons).

dateline international

23 Abingdon Road,
London W8 6AH
Telephone: 01-938 1011

October 1986

Dear Dateline Member

You will see from the enclosed letter from Robin Goodwin of the University of Kent that we have offered to assist him with some research on how people form relationships. He has asked us to contact, on his behalf, an equal number of young, single men and women in the Greater London area who may be willing to help him. I must point out that, at this stage, he has absolutely no idea who you are; this letter is being sent to you through our offices and he will only discover your identity if you choose to contact him using the enclosed stamped addressed envelope.

The decision as to whether or not you help him is entirely yours; I would only add that he is planning to make this a 'fun' exercise. All the men and women in our sample are between the ages of 20-25, none has been married before, all describe themselves as 'attractive' or 'very attractive' and none of them smoke! So it does seem as though it's going to be a most enjoyable event, and you will be given the opportunity to meet lots of Dateline members 'en masse'.

If you would like to discuss this further, Robin has given you his address and his telephone number, or alternatively you may call me at the Dateline offices.

Yours sincerely

Pauline Chandler

Pauline Chandler
Company Secretary

Dateline International Dating Systems Limited is a company registered in England number 1207199. Share capital £50,000. Registered office 23 Abingdon Road, London W8. VAT Registration number

Institute of Social and
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Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

8th November 1986.

Dear Dateline member,

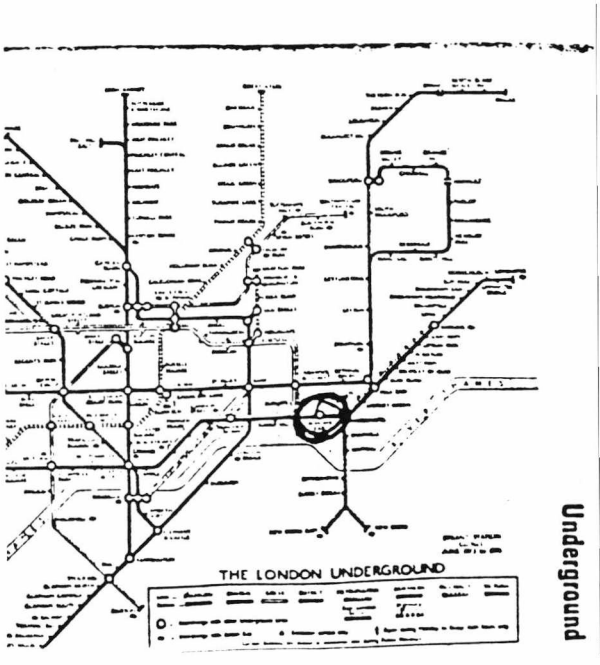
Thank you very much for agreeing to come to my interview/party, and so helping me with my research. You said you would like to come on the 15th November, and I enclose details on how to get to the Polytechnic (please note that this is now the **City of London Polytechnic** and not the Central London Polytechnic as originally stated!). The evening will start at 6pm **sharp**, and it is essential that you arrive on time as the doors to the Polytechnic will only be open for a few minutes. A prompt start will also ensure that the questionnaire/interview part of the evening will be over quickly, and you can then relax and enjoy yourself!

If you have any problems or difficulties, or any worries about the evening, please still feel free to contact me on Canterbury 66822 ext.3084. If I am out, please try and leave a 'phone number where I can contact you quickly.

I look forward to meeting you on the 15th,

Robin Goodwin.

P.S.: I am sorry about the lateness of this letter, but I have been having great fun juggling around the appropriate numbers for each evening!



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Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

27th April 1987

Dear

If you think back to last November, you kindly volunteered to take part in an experiment and party evening I was running in co-operation with the Dateline dating agency.

You were, however, unable to turn up to this evening for some reason, and, because of problems with the City of London Polytechnic authorities (where the evening was to be held) it is unlikely that I will be able to repeat this evening.

However, *if you are still a single person* (whether or not you are a member of Dateline) I would be very grateful if you could help me with my research. I have designed a questionnaire about relationships and your preferences for a partner, and I would be very grateful if you could fill this in for me (it takes about half an hour). As a "thank you" for taking part, all replies will be entered into a prize draw, and the winner will get a copy of "Human Relationships", an excellent book about relationships by Professor Steven Duck.

I enclose a copy of the questionnaire with this letter, plus a pre-paid envelope in which you can return it. If you have any worries or queries, please do not hesitate to contact me on Canterbury 764000 extension 3084.

Once again, thank you for your help and interest

Robin Goodwin.

Institute of Social and
Applied Psychology
The University
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Kent CT2 7LZ
Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

OPTIONAL CONSENT FORM

August 1987

All that you have filled in so far is strictly confidential and secrèt, and I will not be able to identify *who* you are from any of the questions you have answered.

However, it would be interesting, although not essential to this work, if I could compare your responses on the questionnaire with the questionnaire you filled in for DATELINE when you first joined that organisation.

Obviously, however, under the Data Protection Act, I need your permission to obtain the answers you originally gave Dateline. This of course would involve you identifying yourself, and *I quite understand if you wish your identity to remain secret* (I would far rather that you return your main questionnaire and remain secret than not return anything at all!). However, if you do not object to being identified, I would be grateful if you could return the slip below, giving me permission to see your original DATELINE questionnaire. Please remember to include either your Dateline membership number or your address so that I can locate this information easily. I should stress that this data, like all the other you have given me, will be treated in the *strictest* confidence, and seen by me only and only used for the purposes of this research.

Again, if you have any worries or questions, please feel free to contact me on Canterbury 764000 ext 3084. When the study is over, I will send you a general summary of the results, so you can see if you agree with my conclusions!

Yours, with many thanks,

Robin.

I agree that ROBIN GOODWIN should have access to the information I have sent the DATELINE Organisation on their questionnaire for members. I accept that this information will be treated in full confidence and only available to the said person and for the purposes of his research

Name:..... **Signature:**.....

Dateline Membership Number:..... **Address:**.....

Institute of Social and
Applied Psychology
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ
Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

19th May 1987

Dear

If you think back to last November, you kindly took part in an experiment I ran at the City of London Polytechnic, which involved you filling in a questionnaire about relationships. I said at the time I intended to contact you at a later date, and I would now like to ask you just one more question about your relationships.

The questionnaire I gave you was about the *type* of partner you were looking for. In order for that questionnaire to be of use to me, I would now like to ask you whether or not you have since found a partner with whom you have a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship. It is not important to me whether or not you met your partner through the Dateline organization.

If you have found a partner I would very much like to ask them a few questions. This would take the form of another questionnaire, which they would answer, which would be shorter and less personal than the one you filled in. I would send you this questionnaire, along with an accompanying note, and would ask you to give this to them. This would let me then compare the type of person that *they* are to the type of person you said you wanted four months ago.

Please *please* send me back the slip underneath, whether or not you have found a partner since November. The success of my research literally hangs on whether or not I get these slips back, and without these slips, the experiment/ parties I arranged would have been pointless.

I enclose a pre-paid envelope for your reply. If you have any queries or worries, please do not hesitate to contact me on Canterbury 66822 ext 3084.

Thank you, once again, for your help.

---

* Have you been involved in a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship with someone since you took part in my experiment in November? *(Please tick the appropriate box)*

Yes [ ] No [ ]

* If you have, and you are still on reasonably good terms with that person, would you be willing to let me send you a questionnaire for you to give them? (They would send it back to me- confidentially- in a pre-paid envelope)

Yes [ ] No [ ]

Now please send this slip back to me in the envelope provided.

Institute of Social and
Applied Psychology
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ

Telephone: 0227 66822
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

26th June 1987

Dear Dateline member,

Last November you kindly took part in an experiment I ran in London with the co-operation of the Dateline organisation. One part of this evening involved filling in a questionnaire about your preferred type of partner.

When you first joined Dateline, you filled in a questionnaire asking for similar information about the type of partner you wanted, although the questions asked were rather different. Naturally, I would be interested in comparing the responses you gave me to those you gave Dateline in their questionnaire.

Obviously, however, under the Data Protection Act, I need your permission to obtain the answers you originally gave Dateline. I would therefore be very grateful if you could return the slip below, giving me permission to see this data (a pre-paid envelope is enclosed for your convenience). Please remember to put either your Dateline membership number or your address so that I can locate this information easily. I should stress that this data, like all the other you have given me, will be treated in the *strictest* confidence, and seen by me only and only used for the purposes of this research. If you have any worries or questions, please feel free to contact me on Canterbury 764000 ext 3084.

Yours, with many thanks,

Robin.

I agree that ROBIN GOODWIN should have access to the information I have sent the DATELINE Organisation on their questionnaire for members. I accept that this information will be treated in full confidence and only available to the said person and for the purposes of his research

Name:..... **Signature:**.....

Dateline Membership Number:..... **Address:**.....

.....

Date:..../.../87

dateline international

23 Abingdon Road,
London W8 6AH
Telephone: 01-938 1011

28 August 1987

To: 'Pauline's Dateline Couples'

Ladies and Gentlemen:

The enclosed is self explanatory albeit rather wordy! Robin Goodwin is a Research Psychologist carrying out investigations into chemistry between men and women, and what makes a happy marriage. We have been helping him with his research since last year, when he used dozens of our single people in his investigations.

He now needs information from people on the other side of the fence i.e. those who have met someone, and I didn't think you would mind receiving the enclosed questionnaire from Robin.

I would like to point out that your assistance is entirely voluntary. If you don't want to fill in Robin's questionnaire, you don't have to; just ignore it.

If you want to talk to Robin he has given you his telephone number on the enclosed letter and, of course, I am always available at the Dateline Offices if you want to have a chat with me.

Best wishes.

Yours sincerely

Pauline

Pauline Chandler

Dateline International Limited
is a company registered in England
number 1207199. Share capital £50,000
Registered office 23 Abingdon Road,
London W8 VAT Registration number
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Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY

2nd February 1988

Dear sir/madam

Just before Christmas, I wrote to you to ask whether or not you would be willing to take place in a questionnaire survey I was carrying out on marriage. You kindly replied, saying that you would be willing to take part in this study. I then sent you a copy of a fairly long questionnaire, along with one for your partner, and pre-paid envelopes for your replies.

Unfortunately, more than half of those who agreed to take part have not yet sent me their replies. I found this very disappointing, as these people *had* already agreed to take part. This low response rate is threatening to ruin my work, as I cannot be sure whether or not those who are not replying are in some way 'different' from those who do reply.

All of the questionnaires were anonymous, so I do not who has replied and who has not. If you have already sent in your response, I am very sorry for troubling you again, and I thank you for your help. If, however, you have not, *or your partner has not done so (and is still willing), please please* send in your reply as soon as possible. If you need a new questionnaire, please write to me at the above address, or ring me on Canterbury 764000 ext 3084. If you no longer have the stamped-addressed envelope I sent out, just send in your questionnaire without a stamp and I will pay postage at this end.

I apologise for having contacted you again - thank you, once more, for your help.

Yours sincerely

ROBIN GOODWIN
(Research Psychologist)

APPENDIX C: 1

Pilot study used in the preparation of the first questionnaire.

This is a short study designed to analyse the ways in which people see their world, in particular their 'Romantic' world.

Below are a list of 10 figures. First of all, could you please think of the names of 10 people who you think best fit the descriptions outlined, and place their names alongside each description. If you cannot think of their name, or wish it to remain secret, please put some initial or some other means of identification that you will understand (the particular names are of no interest to me and are just an aid for you in completing the test. You can destroy this sheet 1 after the experiment if you wish). PLEASE DO NOT USE THE SAME PERSON MORE THAN ONCE.

No. Description. Name

1. Present girlfriend or someone you have had a similar relationship with in the last 6 months.

2. An Ex-girlfriend.

3. Someone (of the opposite sex) you felt attracted to- but they seemed not to be attracted to you.

4. The girlfriend of a good friend of yours.

5. Someone (of the opposite sex) you felt was attracted to you- but you did not find attractive.

6. A media (T.V., sports, 'pin-up' etc) star -of the opposite sex- you find attractive.

7. The girlfriend of a person you dislike- or who dislikes you.

8. A girl you know whom you find unattractive.

9. Someone of the opposite sex you once liked and have come to dislike.

10 Someone of the opposite sex that you found attractive at school.

These last two apply to yourself, so you obviously need not put any name.

11 Yourself.

12 You as you would **like to be- ideally.**

Sheet 2

Each of the characters I asked you to fill in on sheet 1 has a reference number (from 1 to 12) alongside it ('The girlfriend (boyfriend) of a good friend of yours' is number 4, for example). Below are a list of these reference numbers representing two different characters. What I would like you to do is

1. Form a mental picture of the two characters in your head Do this for each row from A-X.

2. For each row, try to imagine a way in which the two are in some way different. Try and make these differences refer to personality characteristics rather than relying on superficial characteristics such as the colour of their eyes, etc. There are lots of things you may think of, and what I am interested in is the things you decide upon.

3. When you have decided on your way of categorizing these two people, put the way in which they differ in 'Way Different' column. Next to this put what you consider to be the opposite of this characteristic. When you have finished that row, go on to the next row, and so on.

Here is a summary of these instructions:-

Step 1: See who the two numbers on the first row refer to. Form a mental picture of the two characters you have named.

Step 2: Find a way in they are different and what you consider to be the opposite of this characteristic.

Step 3: Fill in the boxes for the Way in which they are Different and the opposite of this characteristic.

Step 4: Go on to the next row, back to Step 1.

Rows	Numbers	Way in which they differ.	The opposite of this is...
A	1 and 2		
B	11 and 12		
C	3 and 4		
D	5 and 6		
E	7 and 8		
F	10 and 9		
G	5 and 8		

Rows Numbers	Way in which they differ.	The opposite of this is...
H	7 and 6	
I	9 and 4	
J	10 and 3	
K	11 and 2	
L	12 and 1	
M	12 and 2	
N	11 and 1	
O	10 and 4	
P	9 and 3	
Q	9 and 6	
R	5 and 7	
S	7 and 2	
T	5 and 12	
U	8 and 4	
V	6 and 10	
W	1 and 3	
X	9 and 11	

APPENDIX C: 4

Pilot study used to prepare for the first questionnaire (see chapter 4)

Each of the characters I asked you to fill in on Sheet 1 has a reference number (from 1-12) alongside it. (The girl(boy)friend of a good friend of yours is number 4, for example). On the right-hand side of each separate page in the booklet is a list of numbers corresponding to these reference numbers, and a set of corresponding 7-point scales.

What I would like you to do is to evaluate each of the figures in accordance with the construct named on the 7-point scale. If, for example, you think figure 4 is a very passive person, you might place them at the 'passive' end like this ...

passive 1_X1__1__1__1__1__1__1 overpowering

or if you thought the person was very overpowering then you might place them at the overpowering end like this ...

passive 1__1__1__1__1__1__1_X1 overpowering

Please only put one 'X' per scale and try to complete all the scales for all the figures before going on to the next page. Please try and fill in the form alone and at a time when you can give it serious consideration.

Once again, many thanks for your help and please remember to return this booklet as soon as possible!

page 1

Cold/distant oversensitive

1. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
2. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
3. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
4. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
5. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
6. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
7. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
8. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
9. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
10. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
11. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|
12. |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|

cold and sensitive oversensitive

APPENDIX C: 5

Self-centered Self-negligent

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Self-centered_____Self-negligent

Domineering Submissive

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Domineering _____ Submissive

Honest Subtle

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Honest _____ Subtle

Insecure Bigheaded

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Insecure Bigheaded

Serious Happy-go-lucky

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Serious_____Happy-go-lucky

Independent-minded flexible

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Independent-minded flexible

Undynamic Explosive

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Undynamic_____Explosive

page 9

Humorous Serious

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Humorous _____ Serious

Passive Overpowering

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Passive _____ Overpowering

page 11

Aggressive Timid

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Aggressive _____ Timid

Carefree Practical

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Carefree _____ Practical

Cautious Takes chances

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Cautious Takes chances

conservative Radical

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

conservative _____ Radical

Introvert Extrovert

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Introvert _____ Extrovert

Motivated by thinking Motivated by emotions

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Motivated by thinking _____ Motivated by emotions

Likes to affiliate with others Likes to be autonomous

1. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
2. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
3. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
4. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
5. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
6. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
7. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
8. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
9. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
10. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
11. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|
12. |___|___|___|___|___|___|___|

Likes to affiliate with others Likes to be autonomous

Finally, did you have any particular difficulties in completing this test? If so, could you please outline in the space below any such difficulties you may have encountered.

Once again, many thanks for having helped me in this way.

APPENDIX C: 14

Relationship satisfaction inventory (see chapter 5)

The following are descriptions of someone given by another. What I would like you to do is to judge how positively or negatively you think that person was judged. The numbers respond to the ranking given by the rater- for example, "1" indicates that this was seen as the other person's most obvious characteristic, "2" their second most etc...

A.
1. Moralistic
2. Hypocritical
3. Independent (at the same time wanting a group)

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

B.
1. Fun-loving
2. Understanding
3. Sociable
4. Easy to talk to
5. Knowledgeable
6. Inventive

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

C.
1. Boring
1. Lack of charisma
1. Ugly
1. Egocentric
1. Selfish
2. Sullen
3. Reactionary
3. Loves themself
3. Mean with money

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

D.
1. Uncompromising
2. Honest
3. Friendly
4 Stubborn

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

E.
1. Considerate
2. Fun
3. Independent minded
4. Kind
5. Good-looking

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

F.
1. Independent
2. Physically attractive
3. Petty
4. Amorous
5. Blunt and to the point
6. Fancy-free

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

G.
1. Domineering
2. Selfish

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

H.
1. Honest
2. Emotional
3. Submissive
4. Serious

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

I.
1. Extrovert
2. Honest/blunt
3. Charm (esp re. women)
4. Laziness
5. Impulsiveness
6. Generosity

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

J.
1. Good dancer
2. Good looking
3. Sporting
4. Sociable
5. Conscientious

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

K.
1. Caring
2. Independent
3. Attractive
4. Stubborn

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

L.
1. Proud
2. Sense of duty
3. Does what they feel like
4. Honest with friends
5. Vain
6. Disorganized

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

M.
1. Fun loving
2. Good dress sense
2. Intelligent conversationalist

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

N.
1. Moody
2. Loud
3. Loving
4. Independent
5. Mad

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

Thank you very much for your help.

2.What kind of people do you want to meet?

We would like to know which characteristics you would normally look for in someone you want to meet. Look at the list below and write a one (1) in the boxes with the characteristics you prefer. If you are not sure, or do not mind either way, leave the box blank. If you definitely do not wish to meet people with a particular characteristic please write a nought (0) in the box. But please remember that every nought (0) you enter will prevent you from meeting people with that particular characteristic.

I AM ONLY PREPARED TO MEET PEOPLE BETWEEN: 51 ☐ Min Age
52 ☐ Max Age

I AM ONLY PREPARED TO MEET PEOPLE BETWEEN: 53 ☐ Min Height
54 ☐ Max Height

MARITAL STATUS
55 ☐ Single
56 ☐ Widow/widower
57 ☐ Separated
58 ☐ Divorced

SKIN COLOURING TYPICAL OF
59 ☐ European
60 ☐ Southern European or Latin
61 ☐ Chinese, Japanese or Oriental
62 ☐ Middle Eastern
63 ☐ Indian, Pakistani or Asian
64 ☐ African or American Negro

IMPORTANT!
When completing Section 2:

[1] *means your preference*

[ ] *means you don't mind*

[0] *means you definitely don't want that characteristic*

PHYSICAL TYPE
65 ☐ Slimly built
66 ☐ Normally built
67 ☐ Well built
68 ☐ Heavily built

ATTRACTIVENESS
69 ☐ Very attractive
70 ☐ Attractive
71 ☐ Not attractive

SMOKING
72 ☐ Regularly
73 ☐ Occasionally
74 ☐ Never

DRINKING
75 ☐ Regularly
76 ☐ Occasionally
77 ☐ Never

EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE
78 ☐ No educational qualifications
79 ☐ GCE 'O' Level or equivalent
80 ☐ GCE 'A' Level or equivalent
81 ☐ Technical qualification (HNC, HND or equivalent)
82 ☐ University degree or professional equivalent

SCHOOL
83 ☐ Private school
84 ☐ Grammar school
85 ☐ Comprehensive school
86 ☐ Secondary modern school

RELIGION
87 ☐ Church of England or other Protestant
88 ☐ No religious convictions
89 ☐ Roman Catholic
90 ☐ Jewish
91 ☐ Atheist
92 ☐ Muslim
93 ☐ Other major religious group .....

POLITICS
94 ☐ Left wing
95 ☐ Centre
96 ☐ Right wing
97 ☐ Not interested in politics

The two sections you have just completed have built up a physical picture of you and the type of person you would like to meet. But of course there is much more to a successful relationship than this. The next four sections examine your personality and the way you form relationships.

Please answer these sections in the following way: Write a 1 (one) if the statement applies to you. Write a 0 (nought) if the statement does not apply to you. Leave blank if you do not feel strongly one way or the other.

3. Your Personality

This section looks at the role you play in your relationships, your emotional reactions to other people and how you feel you get on best with them.

98 I'm good at drawing people out when talking. ☐
99 I find it easy to say 'no' when necessary. ☐
100 I lose confidence when I am criticised. ☐
101 I will complain when unfairly treated. ☐
102 I feel rude if I leave boring company. ☐
103 I am concerned about how others see me. ☐
104 I usually end up getting my own way. ☐
105 I soon give up trying to keep a conversation going. ☐
106 I am usually the one who talks the most. ☐
107 I am easily persuaded. ☐
108 I find it easy to express my views. ☐
109 I don't care too much what other people think of me. ☐
110 I find it easy to express my emotions. ☐
111 I prefer someone else to make the decisions. ☐
112 I usually fit my views in with those of others. ☐
113 I don't like to make a scene by complaining. ☐
114 I prefer listening to talking. ☐
115 I don't hesitate to leave boring situations. ☐
116 Personal criticism does not hurt me. ☐
117 I like to keep my emotions under control. ☐

4. Your Relationships

People form relationships and friendships in many different ways and for many different reasons. This section examines your attitudes towards these relationships and what you expect from them.

118 I prefer to have long lasting relationships. ☐
119 I enjoy 'zany' types of humour most. ☐
120 I prefer to solve my problems on my own. ☐
121 I look on my friendships as sources of entertainment. ☐
122 My friends probably think of me as an argumentative person. ☐
123 I am looking for one special relationship. ☐
124 I tend not to remain friends after an argument. ☐
125 I get anxious about developing friendships. ☐
126 Friendships for me, mean working towards some common goal. ☐
127 I find it helps to talk out my personal problems with friends. ☐
128 I would rather have a lot of relationships which change frequently. ☐
129 Most of my friends see me as a source of emotional support. ☐
130 I prefer to develop my relationships in intimate surroundings. ☐
131 I like quiet, subtle humour. ☐
132 I am usually relaxed when getting to know someone. ☐
133 I like friends who challenge my views. ☐
134 I prefer my relationships to develop in social settings. ☐
135 If I have a confrontation with a friend, I prefer to talk the problem out. ☐
136 I'm looking for some easy-going, undemanding friendships. ☐
137 I need a lot of personal support and encouragement in my relationships. ☐

5. Your Lifestyle

These questions help us to determine whether or not you prefer to adopt a conventional approach to your life and your relationships.

138 I like surprises in my relationships. ☐
139 When entertaining at home, I like to be well prepared. ☐
140 I prefer to have several relationships at the same time. ☐
141 I like taking emotional risks. ☐
142 I like to dress conventionally. ☐
143 I like to plan ahead in detail. ☐
144 I enjoy being controversial. ☐
145 I prefer to spend my social time just relaxing and talking. ☐
146 I think that sexual experimentation is important for a good relationship. ☐
147 With other people I like to listen for a while before joining in. ☐
148 When going out, I prefer formal occasions. ☐
149 I enjoy wearing the latest fashions. ☐
150 I usually entertain with little preparation. ☐
151 I feel most comfortable in a long-term relationship. ☐
152 I think that sex should be reserved for special relationships. ☐
153 I like to get out and do things with other people. ☐
154 I am cautious when making decisions. ☐
155 I take a 'middle of the road' view on most subjects. ☐
156 I like having fun spontaneously. ☐
157 I find it easy to talk about myself. ☐

```
                                        133350 SUSPENDED  QUESTIONNAIRE  0
                                        LAST RUN 17-Jul-87/1ADCDE TLF ENQ 05-Sep-86
                                        GIVEN OUT    2  LAST GIVEN OUT 07-Nov-86
                                        THIS MONTH  1  34) MAX PER MONTH  0
                                            DELETED FROM DATELINE 01-Dec-87
JOIN 11-Sep-86 RENEW 11-Sep-86 365 DAYS(EXP11-Sep-87)
L46 17/2/87                             DONT SEND LETTERS REF LETT 3/9/87
WEIGHT     4) 13.00                                      4 / 8  LAST PRINT REF  1065
HEIGHT     3) 6.02 MIN 16) 5.03          MAX 19) 6.04
AGE        5)  23  MIN 17)  20           MAX 20)  30
STATUS     6)   5       18) '1   '          21) PERSONALITY  '1 1 1110 01 10 1  01'
SKIN       7)   9           '1 0000'         22) RELATIONSHIPS'1111  01 10 1101  0 '
BUILD      8)   17          ' 1 0'           23) LIFESTYLE     '   0 11111 0 1  1 11'
ATTRACTIVE9)   20          '1 0'            24) WORK          '1    01 110  11  101'
SMOKING   10)  24          '001'            25) MUSIC         '1  10 '
DRINKING  11)  26          ' 10'            26) ENTERTAINMENT' 1 10 1101'
EDUCATION 12)  32          '00001'          27) HOME          '1110   100'
SCHOOL    13)  34          '11  '           28) ACTIVITIES    '1   11001 '
RELIGION  14)  41          '   0 0'         29) AMOUNT PAID   75
POLITICS  15)  48          ' 1 0'           30) OCCUPATION    CIVIL SERVANT
31) COORDINATES - OWN 51 16     SQUARE 1 48 19 54 14    SQUARE 2  0  0  0  0
32) GIVE OUT  33) EXPREM N 1  35) TEL ONLY N 36) 1ST RUN N 133350
RE(N)AME OR (D)ISP                                                  <'@C'> ?
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                              EMBER  133103  QUESTIONNAIRE  0
                                        LAST RUN 25-Jun-87/3ADCDE DMQ ENQ 26-Aug-86
                                        GIVEN OUT    0  LAST GIVEN OUT 18-Sep-90
                                        THIS MONTH  0  34) MAX PER MONTH  0
                                            DELETED FROM DATELINE 01-Dec-87
JOIN 12-Sep-86 RENEW 12-Sep-86 365 DAYS(EXP12-Sep-87)

WEIGHT     4) 10.07                                      7 / 11 LAST PRINT REF  724
HEIGHT     3) 5.06 MIN 16) 5.01          MAX 19) 5.07
AGE        5)  26  MIN 17)  21           MAX 20)  28
STATUS     6)   5       18) '10  '          21) PERSONALITY  '01010   10010  0  11'
SKIN       7)   14          '1  001'         22) RELATIONSHIPS'  00010  000  1  1 0'
BUILD      8)   17          '11 0'           23) LIFESTYLE     '11001  0 1  0  11 10'
ATTRACTIVE9)   20          ' 10'            24) WORK          '0 0000   110    10  '
SMOKING   10)  24          '001'            25) MUSIC         '001 00'
DRINKING  11)  26          ' 10'            26) ENTERTAINMENT' 101 11111'
EDUCATION 12)  29          '0    '          27) HOME          '1 1 1     '
SCHOOL    13)  36          '    '           28) ACTIVITIES    ' 0     0 0'
RELIGION  14)  40          '   000'         29) AMOUNT PAID   75
POLITICS  15)  50          '    '           30) OCCUPATION    ELECTRICIAN
31) COORDINATES - OWN 52 18     SQUARE 1 50 20 54 12    SQUARE 2  0  0  0  0
32)  DON'T GIVE OUT  33) EXPREM Y 1  35) TEL ONLY N 36) 1ST RUN N 133103
RE(N)AME OR (D)ISP                                                  <'@C'> ?
```

APPENDIX C: 21

COMBINED SYSTEMS ANALYSIS

APPENDIX C: 22

Level 1: Orientation, Structure and Form

1

The integration of the vocal and non vocal

Minimal conversational exchanges

Sex differences

Utterance form

Utterance content

Utterance process

Turn allocation

Co-operative principle

Narratives

Initiation-feedback

Transition points

Gambits

Formal markers

2: Stages

Openings/closings

Initiating move - personal phase - final stage

Preconversation

preliminary exchange - formulaic greetings - medial - parting

Introductions

3: Topics

Topic-length

Mundane versus relevant talk

Mono - versus - multi

Intimacy of topic

Story-telling

Pre-topic first offerings - first topics - 'euphemistic' closing - tying procedures

Topic boundings

Topic shading

Topic changing strategy

Topic extensions

4: Side sequences

On-going sequence - side sequence - return to ongoing sequence

Timeouts - ongoing sequence - continuation with deletion of sequence

5: Emotionally weighted concepts

Negative and positive face

Voice

Recognized, sanctioned and displayed features

Pragmatic rule violations

Level 2: Descriptive categorisations

1: Analysis of sequences

Announcement

Scope-stater

Summary

Summons-acknowledgememt

Reflection

Preannouncements

Metacommunication

Metastatement

Instructions

Formulations

Vow

Elicitation

Complaining

APPENDIX C: 26

Forewarn

Dethematization

Conclusion

Thanks

Suggestions

Requests

Reports

Promising

Plans

Introductions

Greetings

Generalisation

Forgiving

Explanation

APPENDIX C: 27

Edification

Compliments

Analysis

Accounts

Street-remarks

Pre-invitations

News

Jokes

Giving a reason

Excuses

Invitation

Imperatives

Demanding

Apology

Commands

Advisement

Semantic introducers

Major semantic field indicators

2: Analysis of moves within sequences

Mand

Laughter

Listing

Hedging

Gushing

Flattering

Downtoners

Downgraded conventional responses

Disclaimers

Committers

Understated

Steers

Silence

Restatement

Repeats

Politeness marker as downgrader

Powerful and powerless speech

Overstaters

Stereotyped phrases

Revision

Preparators

Paraphrase

Obligatory situational formulas

Justifications

Insults

Instantiation

Indication of point in time

Ambiguities

Example

Self correction

References to other

Quotes

Probability

Clarifications

Tellings as question-format

Regret expressed

Questions

Questions and question-wisecrack

Questioning: yes and no questions versus unanswerable

Tag-questions

Opinion giving

Neutral phrases

Presupposition

3: Topics of conversation

Trouble premonitory responses

Technical talk

Hypothetical talk

Achievement talk

Unforseeability of events (topic)

Device-based properties

Things done together (topic)

Relevant (other) inquiry

Relevant (generally) talk

Personal matters/details

Intimate talk

'Now' talk of therapists

Irrelevant talk

Category-generated talk

Factual conversation

4: Requires outside judgement

Voluntarism implied

Seeking

Seeking freedom, information and support

Knowledge uncertainty/certainty

Digressions

Control

Attitude

Support

Wish

Trivialisaton

Rhetorical appeal

Readiness to provide information

Claims of legitimacy

Individuation (degree of)

Information - includes minor and major

Informative

Beliefs

Subjective feelings

Threat

Settlement points

Self-orientated category

Other-orientated category

Offer

Evaluation

Clarification

Ambiguity

Not self

Self

Opposing person

No referent/referent

Both parties or persons

Minimization of damage

Mitigation and consolidation

Blame or responsibility

Unhappy incidents leading to blame

Responsibility admission and attribution

5: Response to particular items

A: Positive responses

Yielding

Submission

Admission

Convergence

Accede

Siding

Confirmation

Mutual affirmation

Consent

Agreement

Acceptance

Active recognition

Approval

Sympathy

Reinforcement

Acknowledgment

B: Rejection

Negation

Denial

Objection to counter

Counter-accusations

Dissent

Refusal

Disagreement

Disapproval

Ironicizing

C: Neutrality

Evaluation of an item

Reservation

Balancing everything

Neutral

Reactives

Playing down object

Ignoral

Commenting

6: Within speech characteristics

Spoonerisms

Proverbs and aphorisms

Nomination

Lax tokens

Keywords

Familiar terms

'Empty adjectives'

Catchwords

Abbreviations

'Same starts'

Proximity indicators

Non/quasi lexical analysis

Error-correction

Constant class errors

Second part of contrastive pair

Moodless clauses

7: Format

Self-repairs

Restarts

Prompt

Interruptions

Hesitation

Overlap

Pauses

Reinitiation

Stand-ins

Cut-off points

Completion

Continuers

Frames

Pass

8: Structure

Length of utterance

Discourse length

Number of utterances

Diversity and fluency

Management

Mode

Pitch

Intonational contour

Scope

Specificity

Conjoint/simultaneous speech

9: Techniques for achieving effect

Depotentiation

Checks

Downgraders

Upgraders

Guardedness

Impersonal parantheses

Immediacy

Intensity

Terminator

Synthesis

Pre-presequences

Pre-sequences

Predelicates

Prefinal object

Preverbal beginning markers

Level 3: Lexical analysis

Admire

Alright

Always

'an everything

Bad

Beautiful

Certainly

Coward

Enjoy

Feign

Forget

Good

Goodbye

Great

How

Ignore

I know

I mean

Impressed by

Know

Last

Like

Lov

May

Must

Never

Nice

Now

Oh

O.K.

Please

Pretend

Pretty

Regret

Right

See you

So-oo

Thank you

Understand

We

What

Where

Why

Yes

You know

You're welcome

Phrases

A main aspect

A surprising aspect

An unpleasant aspect

And finally as the last thing

And things like this

And what about you?

Another thing is...

As far as I can tell

As I see it

Before I forget

Believe it or not

By the way

Can you spare me a moment?

Doesn't everybody?

First of all

For my own part

Good-morning/Good-morning

How are you?

I have reason to believe that

I have something to say on that too

I heard on the grapevine

I honestly feel

I'd better not take up any more of your time

I'd like to say something

I'm positive

I'm pretty sure that

In my case

It appears to me

Its been nice talking to you

Its kind of hard to start if...

Just between you and me

Lets face it

Look, before we start

May I interrupt you for a moment?

My guess is

Rumour has it

She impressed me, I think

So, what do you think of that?

Something like that

Speaking of

Strangely enough

To begin with

To be realistic

That problem also

That problem too

Thats about all I have to say

Thats about it

The catch is

The way I look at it

This reminds me

This sort of thing

To my mind

To the best of my knowledge

We might as well start

What have you to say on that?

What I'm concerned

Why are we here?

Why are you here?

Why don't you

Why don't you take a turn

Without a doubt

Wouldja

You may or may not believe this, but...

You mean we've started

You must have misunderstood or not heard me right

You're welcome

Level 4: Conversational facilitators

Actually

Certainly

Did you?

I know

Mm hm

Now

Oh

Oh really

O.K.

Pretty good

Really

Right

The-uh

Uh

Uh huh

Well

Yes

Relationship satisfaction test for study 4 (see chapter 7)

The following are descriptions of someone given by another. What I would like you to do is to judge how positively or negatively you think that person was judged. The numbers respond to the ranking given by the rater- for example, "1" indicates that this was seen as the other person's most obvious characteristic, "2" their second most etc...

A.
1. Very close personality, which worries me
2. Reasonably easy going, does not make large demands
3. Probably not sufficiently stimulating to be a long term partner
4. Not stupid - if you know what I mean!

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

B.
1. Bright, caring, enthusiastic, professional and confident, individual
2. Dependent
3. Vunerable

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

C.
1. Free thinking
2. Stimulating
3. Fun
4. Kind hearted

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

D.
1. Caring
2. Sociable
3. Sense of humour
4 Reasonably attractive

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

E.
1. Good-looking and honest
2. Humorous and good personality

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

F.
1. Cares about my feelings
2. Considerate
3. Very easy to talk to, because they always listen
4. Gives lots of hugs
5. Makes me laugh.

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

G.
1. Kind
2. Considerate
3. Understanding
4. Attractive
5. Easy-going
6. Emotional

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

H.
1. Honest, generous, kind and sociable
2. Flexible (sometimes) and selfish (do what they want)

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

I.
1. Liked by others
2. Caring
3. Easy-going
4. Fun
5. Independent

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

J.
1. Intelligent, attractive and considerate

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

K.
1. (Good) Personality
2. Mutual interests
3. Affectionate
4. Kind
5. Understanding
6. Helpful

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

L.
1. Insecure
2. Conservative
3. Very emotional

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively

---

M.
1. Honest
2. Humorous
3. Considerate
4. Interesting
5. Kind
6. Sociable

How do you think this person judged the other person?

very negatively |___|___|___|___|___|___|___| very positively2

"Preferred social skills" inventory described chapter 7 (sample questions)

Please could you write in the space below a list of the main things you are looking for in a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship. Please could you place a ranking beside each one (make the most important '1', the second most '2' etc) to show the extent to which you think these are important.

ITEM RANKING.

Please indicate on the following scales the point at which you think your likely partner would come (if, for example, you think that they are very domineering, place a cross at the 'domineering' end of the scale like so: domineering |_X|__|__|__|__|__| submissive).

Alongside each scale, could you also please indicate how relevant you think these opposites are for the way in which you might view a future partner. Please use the following numbers to indicate how relevant you think these opposites are:; (1) very relevant (2) relevant (3) unsure (4) irrelevant (5) totally irrelevant. Place these numbers underneath the 'a number 1-5' column.

								Such opposites are- (a number 1-5)
domineering					✓			submissive
honest		✓						subtle
independent minded					✓			flexible
serious				✓				happy-go-lucky
humorous			✓					serious
aggressive				✓				timid
conservative					✓			radical
introvert				✓				extrovert
motivated by thinking				✓				motivated by emotion
likes to be with with others				✓				likes to be alone.

APPENDIX C: 56

How would you like your partner to be? Please indicate on the following scales whether you want...

1. Someone who is good at concealing their sadness/depression

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

2. Someone who likes to listen to others

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

3. Someone who enjoys playing practical jokes on people

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

4. Someone who enjoys giving parties

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

5. Someone who is made uncomfortable by criticism or scolding

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

6. Someone who can fit in with all types of people

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

7. Someone who speaks faster than most people

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

8. Someone who is very sensitive and understanding

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

9. Someone who finds it difficult to keep a "straight face" when telling a funny joke or story.

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

10 Someone who takes a while to know well.

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

11 Someone who is a very poor liar

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

12 Someone who loves to socialize

   I would like this |__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__|__| I would dislike this

Social support scale- reliability test

6th August 1987.

Dear Unit member,

At present I am trying to validate a short 12-item test on Social Support for my doctoral research on Relationship Development. Naturally, in order to obtain some reliability measures, I need to gather some responses to this questionnaire, and, as I know a number of members of your department are interested in the Social Support area, it was suggested that I might try to obtain some data from this Unit. Most of the question of the questions may be familiar for those acquainted with the area- they are derived from Prociadano and Heller (1983), but some additional questions have been added (and therefore the test needs verification).

I would therefore be VERY grateful if you could fill in this questionnaire for me- it should only take a couple of minutes (the questionnaire is printed overleaf). . Obviously, the responses will be totally anonymous (I would be grateful if you would not place any identifying marks on the form). You may like to guess at the underlying factors being tested (CLUE: there are 3 in all, and they are derived from a fairly well-known personality devised around 30 years ago...)

Many thanks for your help!

Robin

ROBIN GOODWIN, ISAP (Beverley Farm).

Note: means of response

The format of these questions is a traditional 5-point Likert scale: full details on response method will be given to the study's subjects (a randomly selected general population of newlyweds and successful dating agency couples). Briefly, I would like you to please indicate on the following scales the point at which you think you fall (if, for example, you think the statement applies very much to you, please place a cross at the 'very much so' end of the scale like so:

very much so /_X_/___/___/___/___/ not at all

if you believe that it does not refer to you at all, please place a cross like so:

very much so /___/___/___/___/__X/ not at all)

Please try and be certain on each answer-and avoid placing all your crosses in the centre!

Thanks. Robin.

1. My friends and family seek me out for companionship

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

2. I rely on my friends and family for emotional support

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

3. Most other people are closer to their friends and family than I am

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

4. When I am with my friends and family, they don't allow me to take charge often enough.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

5. My friends and family don't allow me to run things the way *I* want them.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

6. Certain friends and members of my family come to me when they have problems or need advice.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

7. I have a deep sharing relationship with a number of my friends/family members.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

8. I feel that I'm on the fringe of my family and friends

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

9. I lack the close relationship with a friend or family member that others usually have.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

10. My friends and family make me take charge too often

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

11. I feel I have a close and confiding relationship with a friend or member of my family.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

12. My friends and family allow me to delegate responsibilities just as I like.

very much so |___|___|___|___|___| not at all

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