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PSYCHOSOCIAL DETERMINANTS OF MARITAL QUALITY AMONG MARRIED COUPLES



By

SADAF BINTE MUNEER

Dr. Muhammad Ajmal

National Institute of Psychology

Centre of Excellence

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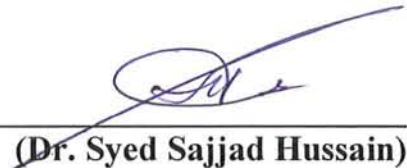


**(Dr. Rubina Hanif)
Supervisor**

External Examiners



**(Dr. Seema Pervez)
External Examiner**



**(Dr. Syed Sajjad Hussain)
External Examiner**



**(Prof. Dr. Anila Kamal)
Director, NIP**

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By

SADAF BINTE MUNEER

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Dr. Muhammad Ajmal

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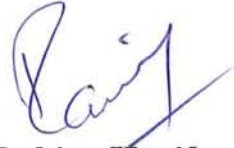
Prof. Barry Ruback

Cindy McPherson Frantz

Jennifer E. Lansford

CERTIFICATE

Certified that Ph. D. Dissertation titled, "**Psychosocial Determinants of Marital Quality among Married Couples**" prepared by Sadaf Binte Muneer has been approved for submission to Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad.



Dr. Rubina Hanif

Supervisor

Dedicated to:

Ahsan and Mahrosh; two most challenging and delightful
additions to my life.

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of present study was to find out the psychosocial determinants of marital quality among married couples living in Rawalpindi and Islamabad (Pakistan). The study also aimed to test the proposed models of relationships between psychosocial factors and marital quality through Structural Equation Modeling. Further, the role of demographic variables i. e., gender, financial status, family system, number of children and education was also probed. Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976), Dimensions of Commitment Inventory (Adams and Jones, 1997), Trait Forgiveness Scale (Berry, Worthington, O'Connor, Parrott, & Wade, 2005), Communication Patterns Questionnaire (Christensen and Sullaway, 1984), and Husbands 'And Wives' Emotion Work scale (Erickson, 1993), Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (Rahim, 1983), The Experiences in Close Relationships- Revised Questionnaire (Fraley, Waller, and Brennan, 2000), Eros and Storge sub-scales of the short form of the Love Attitude Scale (Hendrick, Hendrick, and Dicke, 1998) were identified to measure the constructs of the study. The research was carried out in three phases. Phase I aimed to find out the definition and determinants of marital quality in our culture. Four focus groups revealed commitment, forgiveness, communication patterns, marital emotion work, conflict handling, attachment, friendship, romance, education, children, financial status, duration of marriage, and family system as important determinants of marital quality. Phase II aimed to measure the psychometric properties of all the scales. Measures were validated through CFA and EFA for the Pakistani sample. The findings suggested some modifications in instruments for Pakistani sample. Internal consistency was also determined through alpha coefficients and item total correlations. Phase III aimed to find out the relationship between psychosocial factors and marital quality. The sample was consisted of 616 married individuals (308 couples). Step wise regression analysis suggested significant positive prediction of marital quality by constructive communication, marital emotion work, commitment to spouse and marriage and romance. Significant gender

differences were also found. Finally, role of each psychosocial determinant was thoroughly examined using various non-recursive path models. In fact the predicted paths were tested in combined models for husbands and wives using Structural Equation Modeling which was executed through Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) 18. Findings showed that when forgiveness, attachment, commitment, conflict handling or demographic variables were predictors; husbands' marital quality was more pertinent than wives' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. On the other hand when love, marital emotion work or communication patterns were predictors; wives' marital quality was more pertinent than husbands' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. In the end two conclusive models were made by combining the best fit models and tested through path analysis. It was interesting to note that many psychosocial variables that significantly predicted marital quality became insignificant when they were seen in combination with all other significant predictors. Implications of the present study are discussed under Pakistani cultural and theoretical framework for future research directions.

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

A man and woman, who resolve to get married, do not perceive to change their partners since they are so intensely engrossed and captivated with each other that such bleak and dreadful thoughts just do not surface. Unfortunately passage of time can and does usually affect (mostly adversely) this passionate and intoxicating relationship. As they continue to see each other more intimately day and night, the euphoric aura gradually wears off and the cruel and harsh realities of life and human diversity set in (Aust, 2007). Increasingly they observe and experience traits and habits they were either not aware of or had consciously ignored earlier. These, usually inconsequential intrinsic habits and quirks take on greater significance and impact their daily life more than they did during the forgiving honeymoon phase (Markman, Stanley, & Blumberg, 2001). One spouse squeezes the tooth paste tube from the bottom up; the other does it anywhere he or she grabs hold of. Disagreements on seemingly insignificant and minor actions abruptly turn into arguments. Arguments can precipitate hurling cruel accusations more often on unrelated non-issues. Before one realises; the serenade is probably over and the once ecstatic couple stand pulverized and wondering whether they had made the punctilious choice (Waite & Gallagher, 2000).

This and similar circumstances reflect life and permeability of human nature. It is preferable to absorb the miniscule differences rather than attempt to change one's spouse views if one wants mental peace and continual love and respect to maintain marital quality. It is agreed that differences of opinion are usually subjective, but

arguments can and do occur continually. Additionally, such unexpected marital tiffs and disruptions arise quite early particularly while making choices- normally poor or selfish ones (Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2000). It is also agreed that one cannot avoid making choices in marriage; whether one is recently married or been married for many years. Couples, who comprehend that all human beings must continue to make choices from a list of options on a daily basis, should also realize that their marriage will enjoy far greater success of security and happiness when built on sound reasonable choices. As one desires a happier marriage, there simply is no other alternative (Gottman & Notarius, 2000). It is preferred to be tolerant of each other since everyone has bad habits or annoying idiosyncrasies it is leaving a towel on the floor or listening to the radio too loudly, one has to tolerate each other and realise that no one is perfect. Of course married couples irritate each other occasionally, but if one wants to last together for long period, learning to tolerate and love oddities would help.

A husband and wife who have remained happily married for a prolonged period have possibly accepted each other's shortcomings, faults or differences and managed to circumvent the minor issues in their marriage. They have thus deliberately chosen to avoid making mountains out of molehills. Again, one knowingly chooses how to relate to ones marriage partner; either to selfishly demand his/her way or to unselfishly eschew the desire to make our partner happy and secure (Aust, 2007).

Previous studies have amply demonstrated that when people are inquired to rate or rank their life goals; having a happy and contented marriage is usually amongst the most important (Waite & Gallagher, 2000). Acknowledging the all

pervasive prominence and significance of this goal, family social scientists and psychologists could hardly be faulted for trying to evaluate the range and scope of its attainment and to identify the conditions under which it is likely to be achieved. These altruistic endeavours have been extensive, and the available academic and clinical literature including relevant books and articles that deals with marital happiness and/or satisfaction is monumental. However, there does not appear to be any empirical variables which have a consistently high statistical correlation with marital quality. Gottman (1979) concluded in his literature review that findings on marital satisfaction have indicated that there are numerous factors that can indirectly affect marital quality and no one set of variables can consistently be identified as characteristic of couples who report high marital satisfaction.

There is no denying the fact that the foremost elements affecting human life depend on our aptitude and competence to create and maintain significant relationships especially intimate and delicate relationships like marriage. Majority of individuals perform fairly well at the initial stage of the matrimonial life, but falter as they tread along this path. One could cite and advance a number of compelling determinants that can affect the quality of our relationships. Conflict terminates the ability to feel, to think rationally, and to be emotionally accessible to another person (Davis, Shaver & Vernon, 2004); essentially blocking effective communication until both the partners feel secure enough to focus on one another (Gottman, 1994). If the individuals are unwilling to forget and forgiving in such circumstances then this afflicts their mutual relationship gravely (Mikulincer et al., 2006). Conversely if the partners are firmly anchored to each other (Buunk, 1997) and are effectuated to

maintain their relationship, they would act differently in conflict situations (Dainton & Aylor, 2002).

Individuals who cultivate more in their relationships emotionally are probably more satiated with them (Alexandrov et al., 2005). They are forgiving and their better communication ability enables them to co-habit without much ado and altercation (Guerrero, 1998). Significant to note is that the most puissant means of communication has no words, and takes place at a much elevated stratum than speech. Utilising nonverbal communication is the preferred means to attract the partner's attention and keep relationships on track. Ocular contact, facial expression, tone and pitch of voice, posture, gestures, touch; intensity, rhythm, timing, and sounds that convey comprehension captivate the brain and influence others much more than the words alone (Dainton & Aylor, 2002).

A crucial and consequential element that can help scholars in better understanding marriage is culture. Marriage in Pakistani culture is distinctive from marriage in Western culture in many aspects. West tends to place far greater emphasis and importance to intimacy, sharing and closeness. Self disclosure, interdependence, and emotional warmth are also highly valued, and the delusion of romantic love is connected to the marital relationship. Moreover nature and attributes of verbal communication between partners is contemplated to be an important indicator of marital functioning. In contrast to Western practises, a great majority of marriages in Pakistani culture are family arranged. These thereafter continue to heavily rely on more objective criteria, such as corresponding match of partner's age, social standing, family background, education, financial status and prospective growth potential. (Sastry, 1999). Patriarchal cultural values are deeply entrenched in Pakistani society.

Yllo and Straus (1990) found that ingredients of patriarchy are visible and manifested in the relatively low status accorded to women in nearly all spheres including educational, health, economic, administrative, political and legal domains. Such patriarchy continues to afflict large percentage of women particularly in the rural areas in Pakistan. For example, only 45 educated women exist for every 100 educated men in Pakistan, and female infant mortality is much higher than male infant mortality (BBC, 2005). At an ideological level, patriarchal dogmas are sustained by strict gender divide (Sharif, 1997). Conversely Thornton and Leo (1992) revealed that western culture has become more tolerant of non traditional roles, such that 64% of women and 62% of men no longer support a traditional gendered division of labour.

Albeit happy marriage may be a cherished objective of all married individuals but unfortunately this remains a difficult proposition. Married individuals must understand that they would have to confront with undetermined prejudices and temptations if they want to maintain or improve the quality of their marital relationship. An interesting but ironic thought provoking fact to ponder concerning marital quality is that despite abundance of literature available to analysts on marital quality, there remain many issues that remain contentious. One of these issues concerns defining and measuring marital quality.

Marital Quality

There are different terms available in literature for denoting happy marriages i.e.; marital happiness, satisfaction, adjustment and quality (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). Till recently social scientists continue to debate and have not arrived

at the consensus definitions of these terms including what unit of analysis is most appropriate for which term. Spanier and Cole (1976) compare defining terms such as these to defining love: Although everyone knows what a person means when the term is used, but for scientific research to expatiate and develop, definitions of terms need to be standardized and operationalized to be of any cogent use.

Marital adjustment happens to be one of the foremost of these terms employed extensively in early research. A good marriage was seen as one in which the couple was overtly and highly adjusted to each other and to their marriage. Spanier and Cole (1976) proffered a standard to determine adjustment by the varying degree of: irksome marital differences, inter-spousal tensions and personal anxiety, marital satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, consensus on matters of importance to marital functioning. Spanier (1976) elaborated that marital adjustment refers to such processes that are preferred to be mandatory to achieve a harmonious and fundamental marital relationship (Spanier, 1976). Accordingly the unit of analysis must be the couple or relationship. But researchers while repudiating this argued that it does not fully encompass all the factors indispensable to delineate a good marriage. Accordingly it was suggested (Spanier and Cole, 1976) that the term marital adjustment is abandoned and the term marital stability is employed instead to categorise happy marriages.

Marital stability is described as "the formal or informal status of a marriage as intact or non-intact." Spanier and Lewis (1980) felt that a stable marriage was one that was terminated by the death of one or both spouses whereas an unstable marriage was willingly terminated by one or both spouses through divorce, annulment or desertion. Nye (1988) defined a stable marriage in terms of longevity of the marriage. They

established three primary determinants of marital stability: Positive affect toward spouses, constraints against dissolution of the marriage, and unattractive alternatives to marriage such as celibacy or remarriage. Undeniably term marital stability did not embrace all the dimensions of a marriage. The connotation for marital stability implies that if a marriage is stable and well adjusted it is consequently good and satisfying for the couple. This however is not the reality in many instances whence it is apparent that many marriages that are stable are not necessarily good and satisfying. Bersheid (1983) established that the strength of a relationship is not a viable indicator of emotional satisfaction since relationships with strong negative emotions also sustain. A common and relevant specimen of this is a couple, though married for over twenty years is not happy and contended but have tolerated and cohabited for the "sake of their children." Their marriage although stable is neither satisfying nor of an enviable quality.

Marital satisfaction was another term coined by social writers to perceive marital happiness. According to Sabatelli (1980) marital satisfaction refers to an individual's subjective impression of the intimate affinity. Consequently the applicable unit of analysis must be an individual's own perception. Pittman and Lloyd (1988) conjectured that for individual's perception of satisfaction, appropriate unit of analysis is individual. But the term marital satisfaction like the terms marital adjustment and marital stability is limited since it does not encompass the entire gamut of what it means to have a "good" marriage.

Ultimately, the term marital quality emerged in social and inters personal literature. Utilisation of the term marital quality appears to have eliminated to a large extent many of the fallacies and myths that earlier definitions had concocted. Several

definitions were advanced by Spanier and his colleagues. Marital quality is expounded by Spanier (1976) as a subjective appraisal of a married couple's relationship where the range of evaluations comprises a continuum manifesting numerous features of marital interaction and marital functioning. High marital quality, therefore, is identified with good judgement, reliable interpersonal communication, a high degree of marital happiness, cohesion, integration, and a high tenor of mutual satisfaction with the relationship. Spanier and Lewis (1979) went further to state that marital relationship is compensated often by more attractive alternatives, but may also be reinforced by external pressures to remain married.

Spanier and Cole (1976) subscribed that attaining marital quality is a continuous process. Spanier and his colleagues (1979) defined marital quality as an overall evaluation of the functioning of the marriage. Later on Spanier & Lewis (1980) elaborated marital quality as the subjective evaluation of the relationship of a married couple on certain finite dimensions. At times term marital quality has been employed analogous to marital satisfaction. It relates to a person's global evaluation of the marriage relationship (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987; Norton, 1983). Pittman and Lloyd (1988) described that appropriate unit of analysis should be the couple to study marital quality. In fact Lewis and Spanier (1979) used marital quality as the primary expression to cover all related facets of marriage such as marital satisfaction, marital stability, and marital adjustment. The common denominator amongst these components of marriage is that they are all requisite ingredients to make up a marriage which is high in quality (Spanier & Lewis, 1980).

Theory and common sense presage strong effects of marital quality on life quality. This implies that having a good marriage is virtually necessary, though not potent for global happiness. Some research on the effects of marital quality has also indicated that there are visible effects of marital quality on physical and mental health of the concerned couples (Umberson, 1987; Verbrugge, 1979).

Theories of marital quality. Initial theories on marriage laid the basis, which were utilised for complete understanding of the phenomenon of marriage. Some interesting and trustworthy theories were developed dealing with marital quality. Cuber and Harroff (1963) developed a typology of marital quality and categorized marriages as: conflict-habituated (involving a great deal of altercation by the couple, but is endured and possibly enjoyed); devitalized (involving little or no fighting, but also little or no passionate involvement), passive-congenial (where each partner is involved as much, or more, outside of the marriage as in it), vital (where the couple is highly involved with each other, but not restrictive of the other so that each may experience personal growth), or total (where the couple is constantly together and intensely share all mutual interests).

Subsequently, Burr (1973) advanced a theory that explained marital quality through three factors i.e., premarital factors (including homogeny between possible mates, parental models, and support from parents and friends toward the relationship), social and economic factors (including socioeconomic status of the couple, the wife's work status, approval of the marriage by friends and relatives), and interpersonal and dyadic factors (including positive regard for the spouse, emotional gratification in the form of expressing affection, communication skills of the couple, role fit, and

interaction with each other and other groups). Later on, Huan and Stinnett (1982) professed that the common factor of "comfortableness" is implied when speaking about many of the marital qualities. They arrived at six factors necessary for relationship comfort i.e.: empathy, spontaneity, trust, interest-care, respect, and criticalness-hostility.

Spanier and Lewis (1980) have also developed an Exchange Typology of Marital Quality and Marital Stability. This typology permits a marriage to be discerned on the scales of quality and stability concurrently. The theory, however, introduces a new dimension— time. Unlike other theories, this categorization enables the marriage to be analyzed at varying times during the marriage's tenure.

In essence, the single major predictor of marital stability remains marital quality, and it is likely that those marriages with the weakest marital adjustment, satisfaction, happiness, etc., will be most expected to terminate in divorce or separation. This relationship is often diminished by more alluring substitutes but may be overwhelmed by extraneous compulsions to remain married (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). Marital quality is a multidimensional attribute that cannot survive without its constituent components like satisfaction, stability and adjustment. It is evident that the common denominator between all the preceding theories is that they all witness marriage as having more than one dimension containing recipes of diverse and sometimes conflicting, ingredients.

In furtherance to the above mentioned theories, several novel theories have also been put across to explain complexities of modern day marriage. It is apparent that the past century bears testimony to deep variation in the functions, characteristics and stability of marriage (Cherlin, 2004). In view of accelerated elevation in women's

social, economic and financial standing and corresponding devaluation of social and economic functions once specifically associated with the family, and the enhanced cultural power of expressive individualism, aspects like egalitarianism, equity, traditionalism, positive interaction, self deception, emotional functions of marriage have become particularly crucial for modern day marital quality and marital stability (Bumpass, 1990).

Companionate theory. This theory is based on three assumptions concerning enhanced marital quality. Firstly those spouses should share similar work and family responsibilities. Such role sharing is expected to improve the quality of marriage by providing husbands and wives with common experiences and interests around which they can create conversations, empathic concerns, mutual comprehension and such other matters. The companionate marriage stands in distinct opposition to an older specimen of marriage where women specialize in expressive, private functions and men specialize in instrumental, public functions. Supporters of companionate marriage suggest that the diminishing or extermination of such gender roles will be a sequel to a richer emotional life and high quality marriages (Amato, Johnson, Booth, & Rogers, 2003).

It also assumes that the denial and eviction of patriarchal authority and power is a key function for promoting marital intimacy. Classical social theory has long observed the tensions between authority or power and intimacy (Weber, 1978). The exercise of authority and power is usually associated with social divergence, and marital theorists have argued that one of the rationales that men are less expressive in marriage is that they tend to fend their orthodox dominance by hedging their

expression of affect. Identically women's financial reliance on marriage has guided them to cater to the emotional needs of their partners and to the emotional dynamics of the marital relationship in an endeavour to preserve the sanctity and security of their marriages and to boost their status within marriage. Women also have been programmed socially to minimize the expression of their own thoughts, desires and feelings--especially negative ones--for fear of jeopardizing their marriages (Blumberg & Coleman 1989; Thompson & Walker 1989). Distinctively the companionate theory of marriage predicts that marriages characterized by an ethic of dispassionate regard, as well as equitable access to the labour force, will initiate higher levels of interpersonal honesty (Gottman, 1994). In such marriages, women should sense like they have the strength to express their feelings and men should have a greater obligation to bear their share of the tasks associated with marriage.

Traditionally, masculinity has been delineated in opposition to all things feminine--including the ready and frequent expression of emotion, affection and vulnerability, as well as attentiveness to relationship dynamics (Gilmore, 1990). Last assumption of these theory states that men who reckon the ethos of egalitarianism embrace a counter-stereotypical masculinity, that is, "a style of manliness that is not afraid to accept influence from women, to recognize and express emotion, and to give cognitive room to the marriage relation as such." (McQuillan & Ferree, 1998) For all these compulsions, the companionate theory of marriage predicts that egalitarian relationships are emphasised by more "interpersonal closeness, trust, communication and mutuality" that evokes the kinds of experiences and emotional skills necessary for high quality marriages (Goldscheider & Waite, 1991).

The companionate model of marriage suggests that wives in egalitarian marriages are more satisfied with their marriages and husbands in such marriages also participate more favourably. One could therefore infer that more equal marriages are happier. Nonetheless, recent studies on the link between egalitarianism and marital quality produced mixed results wherein a number of studies suggesting that more traditional women endure happier marriages (e.g., Amato & Booth, 1995; Gager & Sanchez, 1998; Sanchez, Wright, Wilson, & Nock, 2003). Of course, the absence of a transparent connection between marital equality and marital happiness could be because other institutional and cultural factors have confounded the association between egalitarianism and marital happiness.

Institutional theory. One plausible argument that the companionate model may hinder predicting marital happiness is that gender egalitarianism appears to be associated with lower levels of normative support for the institution of marriage, as well as lower levels of participation in institutions that provide social support to marriage, such as religious organizations (Chafetz & Saltzman, 1995; Wilcox, 2004). Traditional individuals may be elated since they are more likely to bestow the institution of marriage with high moral significance and/or be affiliated with religious institutions that provide social support for marriage. Such individuals may be better able to negotiate the contemporary challenges of marriage and to retain their happiness because of these social and normative supports.

Specifically, the institutional model of marriage predicts that individuals are happier in their marriages if they are strongly committed to the institution of marriage; if they are involved with institutions that provide social support to marriage;

and if they share the normative and social aspects of their commitment to marriage with their spouses. Primarily normative and social support for the institution of marriage may be associated with strong legitimating pressures. Individuals who have a strong normative commitment to the institution of marriage may feel greater internal pressure to construct a "family myth" that they are happy (Hochschild & Ann, 1989). Such a myth would legitimize individual's investments in their own marriages and self-imposed dependency of wives upon their husbands. Similarly individuals who are actively involved in a religious fraternity may sense greater social strain to remain committed to their marriages irrespective of the conduct of their spouses. Consequently these individuals may be more inclined to view their marriage in a positive vein to safeguard their investment in married life.

Another relevant feature is that a high level of normative and social support for the institution of marriage may also promote marital happiness by furthering an altruistic mindset that makes individuals less likely to continuously assess the relationship for ensuring service of their individual interests. Such characters consider marriage as a sacred institution. Their marital relationship is likely to overshadow the individual interests of partners, bringing forth virtues such as fidelity, sacrifice and mutual support (Bahr & Bahr, 2001). In such scenarios exchanges between marital partners are often conducted according to an "enchanted" cultural logic of its own. In such instances, exchanges of gifts varying in value, may or may not even be reciprocated, and could often have some kind of symbolic value above and beyond their immediate instrumental value (Bourdieu, 1990; Bahr & Bahr, 2001; Wilcox, 2004). Individuals who are deeply committed to the institution of marriage, and who identify with this enchanted view of marriage, are probably less likely than more

individualistic to keep an ongoing narrative of how the relationship is or is not serving their own interests. This willingness to avoid looking at the marriage in a self-interested fashion is probably associated with fewer critical evaluations of the marital relationship. This would ensure higher levels of marital quality (Brines & Joyner, 1999; Wilcox 2004).

Individuals who reach higher pinnacles of normative and social support for the institution of marriage with their husbands/wives should enjoy a higher degree of marital well-being--apart from whether or not this shared commitment actually leads to distinctive marital behaviour on the part of their spouses. This shared dyadic commitment appears to catalyze an affirmation of marital well-being in wives and husbands. Wives in particular who understand that their husbands are committed to the marriage react with much enhanced personal commitment to their marriage and express greater marital happiness (Nock, 1995). This could be partly attributed to shared commitment engenders by sense of relational security and a long-term view of the marital relationship. This facilitates women to face the everyday stresses, challenges and conflicts associated with married life without lamenting that these cast any risk to the permanence of their relationship (Brines & Joyner, 1999; Nock, 2000). Alternatively a shared commitment to marriage cultivates a sense of trust that, in turn, makes women satisfied about the current state of the relationship and its future prospects.

Men who share with their wives high amplitude of normative and social commitment to the institution of marriage are likely to enjoy high levels of marital trust, which in turn makes them more likely to pledge themselves to their marriage. Men who share a commitment to the institution of marriage with their wives are more

likely to believe in their spouses and to repose greater trust in them mainly because of their commitment to the lofty ideals of marital fidelity and permanence. This marital trust, thus entitles men to make safe investments in their marriages without much furore for maintaining a continuous account of goods and services avowed in the marriage (Amato & Rogers, 1999; Blumstein & Schwartz, 1983; Brines & Joyner, 1999). Inevitably they are able to manage their marriages corresponding to the "enchanted" logic of gift-exchange in which gifts can be given even when there is no instant expectation of exact response and, indeed, where one seeks not to keep an visible and accurate accounting of the marital pattern of exchange for fear of weakening the feelings of enchantment that permeates the intimate relationship (Bourdieu, 1990; Bahr & Bahr, 2001; Wilcox, 2004).

Equity theory. With the dramatic changes in women's labour force participation and cultural norms surrounding gender roles since the 1960s, along with men's failure to take up an equal share of household labour, it is not surprising that the division of household labour has emerged as a crucial source of conflict for many contemporary marriages (Blair & Johnson, 1992; Greenstein, 1996; Hochschild, 1983). Indeed, women who perceive housework arrangements as unfair are more likely to report lower levels of marital happiness (Blair & Johnson, 1992; Greenstein, 1996). Objective inequality in the division of household labour does not always lead to perceptions of inequity, and consequently feelings of marital unhappiness, on the part of individuals. Here, equity theory notes that perceptions of justice in the division of family responsibilities are shaped—among other things—by the ideological

commitments of individuals (DeMaris & Longmore, 1996; Sanchez, 1994; Sanchez & Kane, 1996; Thompson, 1988).

Traditional individuals adhere to a gender ideology that suggests that women have a natural or innate orientation towards care giving and domestic labour. Thus, they are more likely to view housework as a feminine task, which makes them less likely to accept inequalities in the division of household labour as unfair. This acceptance of continuing inequalities in the division of household labour makes traditional individuals less likely to confront marital conflict and lower levels of marital happiness (Blair & Johnson, 1992; Greenstein 1996; Hochschild 1983). For such individuals, standards of equity are more complex than simple equality.

Traditional women do not equate equality and equity on a one-to-one basis so they make limited demands upon their husbands (Nock, 2000). Chafetz and Saltzman (1995) argues that women committed to a liberal gender role ideology are more likely to be angered by marital inequality and to initiate marital conflict as a consequence. This conflict, in turn, may retard positive investment by their men. In fact, more progressive women have higher expectations than their peers. Equity theory would thus predict that gender role traditionalism leads to lower female expectations of men's marital investments. Thus, equity theory suggests that traditional wives have lower expectations of marital equality in the division of household labour and other aspects of marriage; consequently, they will be happier with their marriages and accept whatever they receive because they do not discriminate and equate equity with equality. Similarly, husbands married to traditional wives will invest more because they experience less spousal unhappiness with the division of domestic labour (Erickson, 2005).

Gender theory. Gender theory of marriage suggests that men and women are considerably invested in "doing gender" even when they embrace an egalitarian gender role ideology (West & Zimmerman, 1987). A range of socio-cultural factors also account for the validity of the gender perspective. Specifically, over the life span women and men are socialized to embrace gender-typical patterns of behaviour (Maccoby, 1998; Thompson and Walker, 1989). In turn, the dispositions acquired over the life pattern are reinforced by a range of ongoing cultural and social strains-- e.g., cultural conventions, gendered inequalities in the labour force, etc. (Coltrane, 1989; Ferree, 1991). For these reasons, women and men face strong internal and external strains and anxieties to produce gender in their marriages (Atkinson & Boles, 1984; Berk, 1985; Greenstein, 2000).

Thus, individuals may be happier in marriages where they are able to successfully produce gender. Likewise, individuals who are married to more traditional spouses may be happier and, accordingly, more likely to invest more positively in to their marriages (Amato & Booth, 1995; Nock, 1998; Wilkie et al., 1998). Contrary to the expectations of the companionate model of marriage, the gender model of marriage would preclude that marriage that are strongly gendered make individuals happier and make them more likely to have high marital quality.

Gottmann's theory of marital satisfaction. Gottman's (1999) scientifically proven theory of marriage, based on 25 years of longitudinal research, remains one of the leading theories in the cogitation of marital satisfaction. This states that positive interaction and friendship is the essence to marital satisfaction and the prediction of marital stability over time. Notwithstanding the recent critique that Gottman's ability

to accurately predict divorce may be over stated based on the lack of cross-validation analyses (Heyman & Smith-Slep, 2001); it continues to be regarded as a leading theory in the field of marital study. His theoretical framework is valuable in the present contemplation, as the objective is not to predict divorce, but to predict marital quality. According to Gottman (1999), a ratio of 5:1 positive to negative interactions is imperative for marital stability. Gottman found that “more positive affect was the only variable that predicted both marital stability and happiness” (p. 21).

Gottman (1999) proposed that there is a process of what he calls “sentiment override” in couples. He states, “Sentiment override can be either positive or negative. Negative sentiment override means that people have ‘a chip on their shoulder’. These types of partners are highly alert and vigilant; seeking for slights or attacks by their partner. Positive sentiment override means that even negativity by the partner is classified as informative rather than as a personal attack. Positive sentiment override creates a milieu in which the partners are more tolerant and acceptance of each other, while negative sentiment override creates a set of expectations that one’s spouse will perform negatively. Similarly, O’Leary and Smith (1991) refer to this phenomenon as “cognitive attribution correlates of marital satisfaction”. These authors feel that distressed couples are less likely to objectively consider positive behaviour from their spouses as positive and more likely to interpret the purport of their spouse’s statements more negatively than they were meant to be. Compared to non distressed couples, dissatisfied spouses make attributions that mould their partners’ behaviour in a negative light and these attributions in turn negatively affect marital satisfaction (Bradbury & Fincham, 1990).

In summary, according to many marital analytical researchers (Gottman, 1999; O'Leary & Smith, 1991; Bradbury, 1998; Fincham, Beach & Kemp-Fincham, 1997; Levenson, Carstensen, & Gottman, 1994) it is not what overtly occurs in the marriage, but how the partners perceive and identify what has happened that is vital. In an engrossing introspection examining aspects of positive and negative sentiment dominate, Notarius, Benson, Sloane, Vanzetti, and Hornyak (1989) laid bare interesting gender differences in the support for the validity of these phenomena. They found that distressed wives were more negative, were more likely to evaluate their partner's messages as negative (suggesting the operation of a negative sentiment override), and given a negative evaluation of their partner's antecedent message, were more likely to offer a negative reply than were all other spouses. Gottman estimates that 69% of couples' problems will be what he calls, perpetual problems, meaning they are beyond resolution. He had found that in the case of the perpetual problems, it is preferred for couples to establish a dialogue, as opposed to a solution in these instances. When couples cannot establish dialogue about these issues, they often become gridlocked, where each partner becomes frustrated and eventually emotionally disengaged. Gottman also stressed upon role of communication in marital satisfaction.

Self deception theory. The relationship problem if initiated and developed due to destructive habits, attitudes or behaviours, then by changing the habits and attitudes, the situation could be managed better. However if the individual does not respond or react positively, this would indicate that he/she is engaged in self-deception. This theory thus advocates that humans are capable of an act of self-

betrayal. It may however be noted that self-deception is distinguished from those moments when we consciously deceive others, and also from those times when we just err in perception or awareness. Consequently those engaged in destructive marital conflicts may be able to give up their seemingly inescapable destructiveness (Olson, 2000).

In accordance with to this theory when individuals delude themselves about their moral compulsion of how to be a good person, they endure psychological and relational problems. For example, the violent husband, in the family court, feels ashamed of his maltreatment of his spouse. However a week later, he batters and hurts her again. – However now he expresses that it is her that droves him to it and argues that he is not to be blamed for his actions. At one instance he acknowledges his own moral reprehensible conduct; in another moment his behaviour becomes her fault. He has thus compromised and betrayed his beliefs and the world has changed for him. It appears to people who betray themselves that the problems they confront and the solutions they cannot find are "out there" – but beyond their own ability. Factually when individuals appear to display ignorance, incompetence and similar weaknesses of being incapable to change; that change may still be possible. Such change must commence with denying self-betrayal and self-deception (Richardson, Fowers, & Guignon, 1999).

Self-deception and moral action. Warner's (1997) conceptual framework indicates the possibility of humans to transform thoughts and feelings from constructive to destructive. We deceive ourselves about our personal moral beliefs

and this self deception will change the way we explain our attitudes, actions, feelings and behaviours to ourselves and others.

In marriage, majority of us would claim and take pride to be following the dictates of our heart beats. We feel attracted to one another and give deference to our feelings by pronouncing a permanent commitment. Thereafter, at some juncture, these hopes or dreams are confronted by reality. These could include unanticipated happenings and uncontrolled events and they are then confused and perplexed how to deal with the unexpected. Some tend to feel that their original feelings were naive or false. Some consider that ethos of romance have been destroyed or damaged by thorns of real life. A few feel the best they can do is to now resign to their present situation and just hope for the best. In extreme cases despair now sets in and the consideration of abandoning the marriage manifests. One is faced with a dilemma in marriages where the choice appears to be between being realistic (and despairing) and adhering to false hopes. Contemplate the possibilities that we do not seem to discern from our experience, but from the quality of life we are living. Emotional events in a marriage to a large extent are given the meanings we subscribe to them and the meanings we assign reveal more about ourselves than about the situation. "The issue is not being realistic or unrealistic, but being self- deceived or straightforward" (Richardson, Fowers, & Guignon, 1999).

In conclusion, we can connote that we have a good understanding of how to deal with others and to perform in our own and others' best interests. Our beliefs are transparent about what is right including convictions about how to treat others. It is also possible to betray, or go contrary to our innate judgement of how to manipulate others. When we abandon our beliefs, we usually do not support our and others vital

interests. In such contingencies, we tend to attribute blame on others for our actions. But, we have the liberty and ability, at all times to be the kind of person we eventually transform to.

Psychosocial Determinants of Marital Quality

Many individuals discover marriage at its commencement as a journey of joy, satisfaction and fulfillment but for others, it becomes a nightmare and a source of gloom, frustration and despair. Researchers have and continue to make efforts to unearth the factors that result in an endeavor, initiated with so much optimism, gyrate to disillusionment. They have also attempted to find factors that enhance marital quality and stability. Literature supports the idea that satisfying marriages tend to lessen the impact upon protected spouses from psychological distress and negative life events (Waltz, Badura, Pfaff, & Schott, 1988).

Numerous studies have firmly established premarital factors to have clear shades of predictive nature with respect to subsequent marital outcomes (Halford, Markman, Kline & Stanly, 2003). These could be bracketed into four broad conceptual types of premarital predictors identified as familial, individual, contextual and couple factors (Busby, Holman, & Taniguchi, 2001). The familial factors could include family bondage and splits/disagreements, parents' own marriage strength and satisfaction level, nature and tenor of family communications, quality of parenting/upbringing, family socio demographic breakup, depth/closeness of parent-child relationship, and individuation from family, childhood stressor/panic events, and unresolved family-of-origin issues (Holman, 2001).

The individual factors would comprise emotions/feelings (e.g., anger, impulsivity, irritability, dependence, sociability), attitudes (values and attitudes about marriage, flexible, and realistic relationship expectations), acquired and inherited skills (e.g., capability to deal with stress, interpersonal skills, decisiveness, assertiveness), and emotional/mental health (neuroticism, anxiety, depression, phobias, self esteem, egoistic tendency, emotional stability, history of traumatic events, drug and alcohol abuse, secure attachment styles) (Niehuis, 2006). The contextual factors include social/cultural network relationship approval (e.g., approval from parents, close relatives and intimate friends), socio-cultural features at the initiation of marriage (age at marriage, education, income/employment status, socioeconomic standing, ethnic features), and major/significant life events (i.e., developmental stages comprising acute and chronic circumstances that affect either one or both partners like serious/life threatening problems and /or major punishments imposed by employer culminating in termination from the job) (Busby, Holman, & Taniguchi, 2001).

The couple factors include nature and quality of couple interactions (e.g., interactional patterns, communication, violence or abuse), relationship history (e.g., length of relationship, cohabitation), commonality of viewpoints, attitudes and values (e.g., religion, gender role expectations), similarity of personal backgrounds (e.g., age, race, socioeconomic status), and congruence of personality (e.g., overtly friendly, neuroticism, kindness, emotional health) (Halford, Markman, Kline & Stanly, 2003). Theoretical and empirical data estimates that marital quality tends to be affected by certain tangible post marital factors. Based on literature, present study found communication pattern, marital emotion work, commitment, conflict handling,

forgiveness, attachment, friendship and romance as important predictors of marital quality. Explanation of these factors and their relationship with marital quality is detailed below:

Communication pattern. Communication remains a vital interpersonal skill; it is the means for relating with one another and the strong basis, on which relationships are cultivated i.e., initiated, maintained, negotiated and dissolved (Hargie & Tourish, 1997). A person's actions including verbal and non-verbal speech are considered communication. It is an interpersonal exchange regulated by various parameters including value systems, personal characteristics, tensions, and situational conditions. Interpersonal communication is a continuing interdependent process between two unique individuals (Gouran, Wiethoff, & Doelger, 1994). Three features dictate the principles underlying interpersonal communications (DeVito, 1986). Firstly, communication is inescapable. It is extremely difficult not to communicate. Secondly, communication is irreversible. Once words have been uttered, they cannot be taken back even if they had been spoken without ill intent. Lastly, communication by its very nature is complex. It involves the deep interaction of both individuals' mental perception of self, other and the relationship.

There are presently two popular definitions and explanation of interpersonal communication; one being contextual whereas the other is developmental. The contextual specifies how interpersonal communication varies from other communication contexts (e.g., small group, public or mass communication) and other communication processes (e.g., close proximity, other feedback). However the contextual definition does not fully take into account the relationships between the two parties.

The developmental definition of interpersonal communication takes into account the valued divergence of communication due to the nature of the relationship. For e.g., communication between an individual and his wife and the same individual and his peers are anticipated to be noticeably different. Developmental communication occurs amidst individuals who are acquainted with each other over for a prolonged period and who consider each other as unique persons, not just as people who are simply acting out a social situation (Gouran et al, 1994). The developmental term specifies that communication is qualitatively improved as the relationship matures (Montgomery, 1988). This definition provides a distinct and refined structure in which to understand and examine the finer subtleties and components of interpersonal communication.

Interpersonal communication includes multiple tiers of understanding. All communication when divested comprises of a content element (the what) and a relational ingredient (the how) (DeVito, 1986). Metacommunication (Bateson, 1972) is a common theoretical edifice for examining the how; perhaps best described as “the message behind the message”. Metacommunication is an act of communication between two individuals that also communicates something about the communication itself, or about the relationship between the two agents, or both (Gouran et al, 1994). Metacommunication includes information such as verbal, nonverbal, contextual, and historical cues of the dyad that tell the receiver how the message should be interpreted.

Having the couple communicate early concerning their personal role expectations and marital relationship may obviate subsequent misunderstandings. The relationship of effective couple communication and marital quality is considered

analogous by Spanier and Lewis (1980) when they declare that greater the individual's level of interpersonal skill functioning, the higher the marital quality. Schulman (1974) concluded that there is strong reason to believe that faulty or weak communication is the root cause of the marital misconceptions of one another as she found a relationship between the idealization of the spouse-to-be and the blocked communication.

In the domain of communication and conflict resolution, Knudson, Sommers, and Golding (1980) established that couples who reacted to marital conflict by discussing the conflictual issue at hand displayed greater understanding to each other's interpersonal viewpoints. The couples who in a conflict situation avoided the issue were not as well aware of each other's apprehensions. When comparing the communicational interactions of marital distressed and non-distressed couples engaged in conflict resolution tasks, Billings (1979) found that distressed couples enacted significantly more negative and fewer positive problem-sharing acts. Birchler and Webb (1975) concluded that unhappy couples make their original problems worse or accumulate new ones because their styles of interaction and problem resolution was ineffective, if not destructive.

Sallie, Sally, and Dennis (2002) expounded that there is no couple that does not need to work diligently at enhancing their relationship. Believing that the good times will continue to happen and be sustained on their own is a menu for disappointment and disillusionment. The fact is that all marriages have problems that cause conflict and strain the relationship. Among the most common problems are finances, sex, work place and children. At times there is not enough cash or even if there is, one person is worried and becomes upset about how the other spends it. Sex is the cause

for nearly 45 percent of couples seeking marriage counselling. Usually, one partner craves for more sex activities and on different terms than the other. Moreover, partners might have different role expectations about who does what within and outside of the house. Also, couples may disagree over how to raise and discipline children.

Experts in this domain have established that positive communication contributes maximum to resolving issues which turn up in a marriage. These problems will not lead to marital meltdown if the individuals can talk about them constructively with their partner. Gottman (1994) videotaped more than 3,000 couples to try and isolate the conditions that make relationships thrive or fail. He found that when discussing a problem, an unhappy couple starts out by criticizing a partner's behaviour. An attack on the partner's personality or character ensues. This is eventuated rather quite rapidly by expressions of contempt bordering on hatred — a particularly destructive and negative factor. Naturally, the accused partner goes on the defensive, prompting a counterattack. A fight ensues and the problem is aggravated without it being directly addressed nor resolved. In contraposition, happy couples conduct many times says five times more positively while arguing the conflict situation than negative ones. Gottman had found for instance, that they utilised humour to relieve tension and pepper the conversation with expressions of affection and understanding to maintain a quiescent atmosphere.

Gender differences and similarities in couple communication. Much of the literature in popular culture leads one to believe that men and women are truly quite disparate in form of their emotional experiences and their expression of those

experiences. According to John Gray (1992), author of *Men are from Mars; Women are from Venus*, men and women differ in their experience of emotions and their articulation of them. Interestingly most of the empirical data on sex and gender differences illustrates conversely. Specifically, it confirms that men and women are more similar than they are different in terms of communicating in their close, personal relationships (Canary & Emmers-Sommer 1997).

Research on communication in close, personal relationships by Dan Canary and Emmers-Sommer (1997) suggests that women in comparison to men, exhibit far greater range of emotions, like sadness, fear, love, anger, happiness, empathy, hatred, greed, suspicion, humiliation, compassion and anger. They also tend to reveal personal information, such as their own opinion or intimate details of their personal life. They would also employ touch to convey sublime feelings of closeness. Often such individuals utilise power wielding strategies of manipulation, display negative and confrontational conflict behaviours, enact self-disclosure but also show loyalty towards their partner and their existing bondages. They are engaged in task-sharing in an endeavour to sustain their relationship. In dual-career couples, the wife usually undertakes the lion's share of the household chores and children upbringing duties.

Theory of couple-types/marital communication. Commensurate to this theory, gender differences, in comparison to sex differences, exercises a more significant feature in designating couple-types. Fitzpatrick (1988) argued that a variety of couple-types exist including:

Traditional couple-types. Husbands and wives are highly interdependent and accentuate doing things together. They believe in traditional gender role ethics (e.g., the woman takes the husband's last name when married) and revere the stability of the relationship holding it in highest esteem. Traditionalists utilise positive communication behaviours during conflict (e.g., discuss issues keeping the sanctity of the relationship in mind i.e., not using threats), appear not to argue over minor matters, but do overtly and without any inhibitions engage about major issues (Fitzpatrick, 1988).

Independent couple-types. Independents value both interdependence (doing things together) and personal freedom and autonomy. They actively discuss most aspects of their relationship and espouse non-traditional beliefs about relationships (i.e., do not support the view that the "man is in charge") (Fitzpatrick, 1988). Independents earnestly engage in conflict over minor and major issues, argue for personal positions, and offer valid reasons for accepting their positions (Witteman & Fitzpatrick, 1986).

Separate couple-types. Separates are not dependent on each other and also tend to avoid interaction, particularly if they fear entering into a conflict situation. Separates are most likely to withdraw or yield during early stages of a brewing conflict because active engagement in conflict involves interaction and a form of interdependence. However, when they do engage in conflict, the interaction can be quite bitter and vicious (Fitzpatrick, 1988).

Mixed couple-types. Nearly half of couple-types do not specifically fall into a distinct category such that both husband and wife are traditional, independents, or separates. Alternately, many couples represent a dovetailing of two different types. The most common mixed couple-type is the separate husband and the traditional wife (Fitzpatrick, 1988).

Communication patterns and couple satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Research speculates that certain communication paradigm can be beneficial to a relationship's conservation and salvation, whereas other communication prototypes can be destructive to a relationship's stability. Gottman and colleagues (Gottman, 1994; Gottman & Levenson, 1988) have offered specific couple communication models that subscribe to both satisfactory and unsatisfactory couple relationships, with a strong convergence on the intimate personal relationship of marriage. In fact, Gottman was able to foretell divorce occurring scrupulously in 94 percent of the time. Gottman has established that the etiquette of criticism, defensiveness, contempt, and withdrawal hold the major impact in impacting a close relationship negatively. Although men and women can execute all of these conduct templates, it is of inherent impairment when the man in the relationship withdraws from interacting and speaking on vital contentious concerns. This particular behavioural pattern is reflective of a mixed couple-type where the husband is a separate and the wife is a traditional.

Generally Gottman (1994) offered several observations regarding distinctions between satisfied relationships from a dissatisfied one. First, dissatisfied couples more often engage in destructive communication patterns than satisfied couples. Specifically, dissatisfied couples are more likely to engage in criticism, defensiveness,

contempt, and withdrawal. Many of these behaviours can also be conveyed nonverbally. For example, a partner stiffening up to convey defensiveness, rolling his or her eyes to convey contempt, or withdrawing and staring off into space to convey withdrawal pattern. Of the four behaviours, Gottman (1994) argued that the behaviours of contempt and defensiveness are the most damaging and that the man's withdrawal from conflict is the strongest predictor of an impending divorce. In addition to emotional harm, these behaviours can also contribute to eruption of physiological distress.

Second, husbands are more likely to withdraw from conflict in unsatisfied marriages and less likely to do so in satisfied marriages. That is, husbands are more likely to self-disclose their feelings to their wives in happy marriages. This suggests that one cannot assume that men are emotionally distant from everyone, as the common stereotype would indicate. Indeed, the mediating factor might be the state of the relationship. Research also suggests that women have a greater repertoire of individuals to disclose to than men do and are more inclined to disclose regardless of marital satisfaction, whereas some men restrict disclosure only to their wife. For those men trapped in unhappy marriages, their feelings remain suppressed and are often revealed to no one. Conclusively, much of the examinations bolster these aforementioned patterns (Canary & Emmers-Sommer, 1997; Gottman, 1994; House, 1981).

Third, men and women conduct differently in the face of negative effect. Specifically, the in depth quest suggests that women function more aptly in high conflict situations than men. Within the context of satisfied marriages, both husbands and wives perform de-escalation actions (i.e., reducing the conflict) during low-level

conflict. Women continue to engage in de-escalation behaviours even during high conflict scenarios, whereas men find it extremely difficult irrespective of their marital satisfaction status. Within unsatisfied marriages, neither the husband nor wife engages in conflict de-escalation behaviours (Gottman, 1979, 1994).

Fourth, studies suggest that destructive communication during conflict affects men more adversely from a physiological standpoint than women. Gottman (1994) postulated that men and women may differ in their responses to negative communication such that men react more quickly to negative affect but their recovery from the episode is much slower than that of women. These reactions to negative communication are practically evidenced through measurement of elevated adrenal excretions and blood pressure. Interestingly, Gottman (1994) noted that while women's health appears to be superior to men's within these contexts, men's cause appears to improve more from marriage than women.

Fifth, Gottman (1994) laid down the need for a five-to-one ratio for a steady relationship; specifically, that five positive communications are necessary to counter one negative communication. Further, negative communications that involve the four destructive behaviours mentioned earlier (criticism, defensiveness, contempt, and withdrawal) are particularly damaging to the relationship. In response to these destructive behaviours, Gottman (1994) recommends that partners engage in the behaviours of soothing (assurance), non-defensive listening, and validating (supporting).

Sixthly, in addition to certain communication behaviours and patterns, dissatisfied or distressed couples are often identified and distinguished from satisfied or non-distressed couples under stipulations of how their conflict behaviours

collectively produce cycles. Usually dissatisfied couples find themselves in what Gottman (1994) termed "negativity cycles." Such cycles involve one partner lodging a complaint which is responded with the partner's counter complaint, which in turn is met with another counter complaint, and so forth. Gottman found that satisfied and dissatisfied couples were distinguished, in part, by the couples' ability to extricate themselves from the complaint/counter complaint syndrome. While a satisfied couple might make only a few attempts at the destructive complaint/counter complaint cycle, dissatisfied couples kept bashing out the complaints, finding themselves into a deeper and deeper negativity spiral.

Finally, distressed couples are more inclined to make negative allegations toward the partner during conflict and insinuate such behaviour to internal factors, whereas non-distressed couples were more likely to incriminate such behaviour to external factors. For example, if John and Jane is a distressed couple, they are more likely to censure to one another, whereas if they are a non-distressed couple, they are more likely to attribute behaviours to the existing environment.

Marital emotion work. Hochschild (1979, 1989) explained marital emotion work as any venture of individuals to declare positive feeling or emotion toward their spouses; to be mindful to the dynamics of their relationship and the basic requirements of their spouses, or to dedicate time for activities focused specifically on the development of their relationship. Prior to the publication of Oakley's (1974) "The Sociology of Housework", the undertaking of household tasks was primarily regarded by sociologists as a normal aspect of women's role in marriage or as a part of child rearing, not as a work role. There was one facet of family life missing from

the empirical research on family work and that was provision of emotional support. Although Hochschild (1983) classified it as emotion work, Erickson (1993) reconceptualised the provision of emotional support as being an integral part of work that is being undertaken at home.

The invocation for intimate and impervious interpersonal relationships within the marriage and family has expanded with passage of time (Turner, 1970). Couples are experiencing a gradual but noticeable move from marriages built upon mechanical functioning to those that accentuate the propriety of companionship (Hicks & Platt, 1970). The family thus provides the ideal perspective for emotional expression and communication (Lasch, 1979). Since emotion is an invariable component of a modern family life (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Hochschild, 1983), family scholars have exploited the theoretical ascendancy of emotional support for the functioning of the marital relationship (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Staines & Libby, 1986). Researchers have invariably directed their attention to the effect of emotional support on to those who receive it and little is known about the effect of these behaviours on those who provide sustenance for the marital relationship itself (House, 1981).

Family scholars have admitted housework and child care tasks as work, but the vast majority continues to view emotional support as another aspect of marital or family intimacy rather than as an integral ingredient of family work (Thompson & Walker, 1989). Being the family's emotional care taker is perceived as something women are rather than something women actually do (Hochschild, 1983; West & Zimmerman, 1987). Gestures of warmth and caring should not only be articulated carefully but also be aimed to converge on the objective of conveying the appropriate and intended emotions to the recipient (Daniels, 1987; Hochschild, 1983). The

previous notion of emotional support in intimate situation underestimates the fact that marriage and family as institutions do not just spontaneously occur. It is a fact that a marriage does not exist merely because a ceremony has been performed, nor a family raised subsequent to the arrival of a child. There is much investment of time, resources and emotions which have to work in harmony for the achievement and maintenance of both (Wadel, 1979).

An indication of whether emotion works maybe decisive for the preservation of marriage would be to analyse the precise elements contributing to creation of a divorce situation. Kitson with Holmes (1992), in a longitudinal study of divorced and married couples studied the features where their marital expectations were least fulfilled. Amongst divorced, the role most affecting the decision to divorce was "someone to talk things over with", was indicated by 64 percent of the respondents. Among married this role was also noted as the most problematic. Another study found that when husbands are more engaged in undertaking family work, wives confirm greater marital satisfaction (Staines & Libby, 1986).

Other writers have reported inconsistent results and thus drawn non-coherent conclusions. Hochschild (1989) and Kessler et al. (1985) viewed that performing emotion work will accelerate feelings of burn out and diminish marital well being. Researchers have also explored the impact of variables like age, education, duration of married life, children's presence in home, income, and number of hours worked per week on marital quality. Johnson and Greenberg (1994) found that longevity of marriage has consequences on the positive and negative dimensions of marital quality. The presence of children living at home surprisingly was consistently depicted to have negatively affected women's individual and marital well being (Johnson and

Greenberg, 1994; Vanfossen, 1981). Age was also considered to influence women's perception of well being (Vanfossen, 1981), as well as attitudes toward housework (Sweet & Bumpass, 1988). Similarly education appears to affect housework-related attitudes and behaviours. For instance, education may be linked with more enlightened attitudes toward family work (Sweet & Bumpass, 1988); it may also be availed to be a resource to avert family work (Coverman, 1985; Shelton, 1992) and/or may affect alternative choice of household tasks (Robinson, 1977). Higher salaries are normally corresponding with adopting challenging and demanding careers that may curtail availability of time for devoting to family work (Erickson, 1993). This is apparent in the well-established finding that women, even when they are employed full time, accomplish substantive amount of routine housework and child care (Coltrane, 2000; Shelton & John, 1996).

Levenger's (1964) provided lends credence to the importance of emotional expressivity by enunciating that it was more strongly related to marital satisfaction than was instrumental task completion. Daniels (1987) later elucidated that applying the concept of work only to such activities for which people are paid transcribes much of women's activities invisible. Daniels argued that by virtue of the work people perform; establishes their status in society thereby illustrating the main avenue for identity. She further illuminated how the acknowledgement of an activity as work tends to infuse it with a certain level of moral force and dignity (Daniels, 1987). Failure to characterize women's work seriously impacts to invalidate women's essential contributions to social and community life and thus causes surge in gender inequality.

Women themselves often downplay the size of time and effort consumed in caring work since it is expected to be a natural expression of love but also because the illusion of effortlessness is part of doing the work well (Hochschild, 1983). The concept that husbands and wives may have to work at caring and intimacy; rebuts what many may aspire to believe about love and marriage. The stronger the bond between people, the greater the emotion work is likely to be (Hochschild, 1983). Giving encouragement, expressing your appreciation, listening intently to what someone says, and displaying empathy with another person's feelings (even when they are not shared) on a continual basis represent emotion work of the highest order. Recent studies have identified numerous factors manipulating the relationship between marital quality and marital emotion work. These factors are:

Relative resources. According to this perspective, the spouse who generates relatively more financial resources (e.g., income) to the relationship will undertake less family work (Brines, 1994). These will entail fiscal dependency of one spouse on another, regardless of the spouse's biological gender (Coltrane, 2000). Based on this theory, one could presume that the greater one's economic dependence, the more housework, child care, and emotion work one will perform (Erickson, 2005).

Time constraints. The time constraints approach anticipates that the more time spent in paid employment, would ensure less housework, child care, and emotion work an individual would perform (Artis & Pavalko, 2003; Coverman, 1985). However other studies reveal that women continue to perform the majority of family

work irrespective of the number of hours they worked outside the home (Kamo, 1991; Shelton & John, 1996).

Gender ideology. This model postulates a converse relationship between orthodox attitudes and commensurate division of family and emotion work (Blair & Lichter, 1991; Kamo, 1988). This relationship however appears to be more valid for men than for women (Presser, 1994; Shelton & John, 1996). This means that the more traditional one's gender ideology, greater housework, child care and emotion work wives will perform. Also, the more traditional men's gender ideology, the less emotion work they will perform.

Gender construction. There is no denying the fact that women continue to clear the bulk of normal housework and child care and also appear more responsible than their mates for this work regardless of income, time constraints, or ideology (Shelton & John, 1996; Spain & Bianchi, 1996). Rationalising to account for this empirical fact, feminist scholars have speculated that the intensification of women's paid employment has not led to a corresponding increase in men's domestic work because the nature and understanding of women's involvement in family work is incomparable from men's (DeVault, 1991; Thompson & Walker, 1989). Husbands and wives display and reproduce gender, (Ridgeway & Correll, 2000) because it signifies the degree to which husbands and wives have construed gender "appropriately" (Twiggs et al., 1999; West & Zimmerman, 1987). So long as women are considered liable for family work in a manner that men are not, the undertaking of this will continue to remain more pertinent to how women construct a gendered sense

of self and, in so doing; their behaviour will continue to reflect such (self-) expectations (Sanchez & Thomson, 1997).

Consequently there is a visible shift from gendered tasks to gendered selves. To what extent might one's construction of self in "masculine" or "feminine" terms be associated with the performance of family and emotion work remains debatable. The more feminine characteristics men and women apply to themselves, the more household labour and emotion work they are expected to perform. Erickson (1993) found that the performance of emotion work was significantly influenced by respondents' construction of gender, rather than by their biological gender. Those who construed gender in feminine terms were significantly more likely to perform emotion work. Somewhat surprisingly, seeing oneself in masculine terms was also positively related to emotion work performance. In addition, respondents who espoused a more traditional gender ideology were less likely to perform emotion work.

Marital commitment. Enduring and happy marriages improve physical and psychological health of the individuals involved and provide secure and ideal environments for the healthy development of children (Myers, 2000). Several justifications have been put forth for creation of successful marriages. Of these, marital commitment beliefs are of specific interest. Marital commitment between spouses has been found to be a crucial predictor of stable, satisfying marriages (Adams & Jones, 1997; Johnson, 1991; Johnson, Caughlin, & Huston, 1999; Nock, 1995; Noller, 1996). Lifetime commitment to marriage, loyalty to one's spouse,

admirably unyielding moral values, love and respect for one's spouse as best friend, and commitment to sexual fidelity are the major redeeming characteristics of satisfying marriages of long duration (Fenell, 1993, Lauer & Lauer, 1986).

In recent years, scholars from various social and academic disciplines have focused increased attention on dedication in close relationships. They have defined and conceptualized commitment (e.g., Adams & Jones, 1997; Stanley & Markman, 1992); developed modules that exemplify or predict commitment (e.g., Ballard-Reisch & Weigel, 1999; Johnson, 1999), as well as cognate commitment to other relational variables; for example, relationship maintenance strategies (Dainton & Aylor, 2002; Stafford, Dainton, & Haas, 2000).

Adams and Jones (1997) noted that marital commitment is not a unitary contraption. It is dependent upon specified inner beliefs and values directed toward the spouse and marriage, as well as exterior social compulsions and limitations impinging the maintenance of the marriage (Johnson, 1991; Johnson et al., 1999). The component of internal beliefs and values appears to facilitate the voluntary establishment of external constraints (e.g., bearing children, one spouse giving up paid outside work, developing close relationships with in-laws etc) that bolsters the marriage (Adams & Jones, 1997; Johnson, 1991; Johnson et al., 1999). These internal beliefs encompass the severity of devotion to the future spouse (devotion component) and views concerning the importance and permanence of the communal fabric of marriage (moral commitment).

Devotion to spouse is construed as the extent of fortitude and effort a person is willing to endorse to achieve a satisfying marital relationship, and the manner he or she is anticipated to resolve marital conflict (Noller, 1996). Moral commitment to the

valued institution of marriage is gauged in terms of attitudes toward divorce as a final solution to resolve marital conflict, the understanding of personal responsibility for preserving the marriage, and the view of commitment to and immutability of the marriage (Adams & Jones, 1997). This set of beliefs and values is likely to exist in young adults prior to their first marriage, and serves as a credible subconscious blue print that directs their subsequent marital behaviours.

Beliefs and values that constitute marital commitment are likely to be beguiled by social learning processes that are contributory elements in the development of other social-cognitive framework, and by social ambience that instil and perpetuate these beliefs (Adams & Jones, 1997; Beall & Sternberg, 1995). For example, previous research has shown that social-cognitive architecture such as internal emplacement of control are related to higher marital satisfaction and elevated sense of moral encumbrance (Miller, Lefcourt, Holmes, Ware, & Saleh, 1986; Murk & Addleman, 1992;). Similarly, egalitarian gender role attitudes are related to higher marital satisfaction (Gray-Little, Baucom, & Hamby, 1996; Miller & Kannae, 1999).

Cate, Levin, and Richmond (2002) computed commitment in terms of Johnson's (1991, 1999) tripartite structure, that is, affected by individual, relationship, extraneous variables as well as couple demeanours. They identified major couple behaviours like self-disclosure, conflict, frequency of interaction, and negative affect reciprocity and concluded that communication influences marital commitment. Another elucidation was provided by Ballard-Reisch and Weigel (BRW; 1999) who exposed that commitment as an ongoing, circular, dynamic, and dialectical process that partners negotiated utilising explicit and implicit communication.

Surra et al. (1999) suggested that commitment had multiple tiers which alter with time. However, they measured commitment level as the average change in marriage but did not address how commitment levels fluctuated during the duration of a marriage. Additionally, Johnson (1991) acknowledged degenerations in commitment, observing that when partners experience low commitment, they may still remain in a relationship due to inhibitions and constraints that precludes easy relationship dissolution. Similarly, Levinger (1983) suggested that when initial attraction start to dissipate, the couple takes cognizance of other compulsions that make it prohibitive to withdraw from the relationship Commitment levels vary with time is thus recognised by numerous scholars.

Agnew et al. (1998), argue that the more partners commit to one another, greater is their senses-of-self blend. Acitelli, Rogers, and Knee (1999) contemplated that in close relationships, connection between the other and the self also becomes included as part of the self. Moreover, Aron, Tudor, and Nelson (1991) viewed close relationships as including other in the self and suggested that spouses often protrude their understanding of self and partner to the ambit that they experience self-other confusion. Considering that the self and other become intertwined conjecturing the future that does not include the partner becomes problematic to visualise.

Hayes and Webb (2004) defined commitment as spouses' mutual desire to remain in marriage. Further, commitment is enacted mutually. For example, if one spouse experiences diminished desire to remain in the marriage, the other partner may pursue the spouse to renegotiate the marriage in such a manner that both spouses rededicate to marriage. Dyads may experience their commitment in diverse ways and base their commitment on peculiar factors. More specifically, the mates need to

venture into a nominal level of commitment for the marriage to survive, although one partner may be more committed than the other. Alternatively, if one spouse decides to terminate the relationship, the marriage may be annulled, as the mutual desire for continuance would vanish.

Hayes and Webb (2004) explained marital commitment through path model. They established found that the motivation for desire to remain in marriage may vary across marriages and include individual preferences factors (e.g., religious beliefs), dyadic factors (e.g., spouses' "love each other"), and external factors (e.g., couples remaining married for the sake of the children).

Investigation has laid down a positive relationship between relational satisfaction and commitment (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986; Sprecher, 1988). Hayes and Webb (2004) in their investigation found a cogent relationship between marital quality and commitment; the level of marital quality increases in accordance with the degree of commitment. They explained that marital quality is the extent to which marital dyads recognize the outstanding features of their partnership which they value. These are superior to comparable features in other relationships they have had, could be having, and are likely to have. They also described that marital quality may decrease in marital relationships when and if spouses differed from one another, had too much of a good thing, or grew apart individually. In such circumstances they may yearn for increased physical or psychological space, or both. However, as marital quality dwindles, the once loving couple may feel too disconnected and thus employ maintenance behaviours including communication to increase marital quality (Hayes & Webb, 2004). Other analysts have also detected that couples employ communicative behaviours to maintain their marriages (e.g., Baxter, 1988; Baxter &

Simon, 1993; Stafford & Canary, 1991). Hayes and Webb (2004) found that commitment to maintain marriages will normally vacillate between extremes and that marital dyads use maintenance behaviours tools like communication to maintain marital quality at an essential level or higher.

Dickson (1995) reported that highly committed married couples shared a vision or “plan” for the course they wanted their lives to meander. As marital dyads increasingly desire to remain together over time, they increasingly project a future including themselves as an important unit. Agnew et al.’s (1998) analysis supported the viewpoint that commitment and cognitive interdependence mutually influence one another. Weigel’s (2003) identified forging future plans with spouse as an important aspect of their marital commitment whereas Knapp and Taylor’s (1994) had defined perceptions of a rewarding future with the partner as one of commitment’s underlying dimensions.

Attachment. Attachment has been described as an affectionate bond that a person forms between him/herself and another specific one (usually the parent) — a tie that binds them together in space and endures over time (Ainsworth, Bell, & Stayton, 1973). However, it may be more accurately described as an attitude, or readiness for certain behaviours, that one person displays toward another.

Bowlby believed that attachment characterized human experience from "the cradle to the grave." In mid-1980's researchers began to take seriously the possibility that attachment processes may play out in adulthood. Hazan and Shaver (1987) explored Bowlby's ideas in the context of romantic relationships. According to Hazan and Shaver, the emotional bond that develops between adult romantic partners is

partly a function of the same motivational system that gives rise to the emotional bond between infants and their caregivers. Infants and caregivers and adult romantic partners share many features. For example they feel safe when the other is close and responsive, engages in close, intimate, bodily contact and feel vulnerable when the other is inaccessible. They also found that infants and their caretakers share discoveries with one another, play with one another's facial features and exhibit a mutual fascination and preoccupation with one another and engage in "baby talk". They thus inferred that adult romantic relationships are attachments that give rise to care giving and sexuality.

If adult romantic relationships are attachment relationships, then we should observe the same kinds of individual differences in adult relationships that Ainsworth observed in infant-caregiver relationships. We may expect some adults, for example, to be secure in their relationships--to feel confident that their partners will be there for them when needed, and ready to rely on others and having others rely upon them. We should also expect some other adults to be diffident in their relationships. For example, some unassured adults may be reticent and anxious-resistant: they worry that others may not love them totally, and be easily frustrated or angered when their attachment needs are not fulfilled. Others may be avoidant: they may appear not to worry much about close relationships, and may prefer neither to be much dependent upon other nor to have others be too dependent upon them.

Hypothesising adult romantic relationships as attachment relationships; then the manner adult relationships "work", should be akin to the way infant-caregiver relationships work. Plainly, the same kinds of factors that facilitate exploration in children (i.e., having a responsive caregiver) should facilitate inquisition amongst

adults (i.e., having a responsive partner). The kinds of subjects that make an attachment figure "desirable" for infants (i.e., responsiveness, availability) are the kinds of features we should find desirable in adult romantic partners. Fundamentally differences in attachment should influence relational and personal functioning in adulthood in the same manner they did in childhood. Similarly, if we presume that adult relationships are attachment relationships, it is imminent that children who are secure will mature as adults who are secure in their romantic relationships.

Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) suggested that there are two fundamental parameters with respect to adult attachment patterns. One critical variable has been labelled attachment-related anxiety. People who register high on this variable begin to worry whether their partner is available, responsive or attentive, etc. People who rank on the low end of this variable are more secure in the perceived responsiveness of their partners. The other critical variable is termed attachment-related avoidance. People on the higher scale of this dimension prefer not to rely on others or open up to others. People on the lower end are more comfortable being intimate with others and are more secure depending upon and having others depend upon them. A prototypical secure adult is however low on both of these dimensions. Fraley and Waller (1998) visualize and measure individual differences in attachment dimensionally rather than categorically.

Adults seeking long-term relationships identify responsive care giving qualities, such as attentiveness, warmth, and sensitivity, as most "attractive" in potential dating partners (Zeifman & Hazan, 1997). Despite the attractiveness of secure qualities, not all adults are fortunate to be paired with secure partners. Some evidence suggests that people end up in relationships with partners who confirm their

existing beliefs about attachment relationships (Frazier et al., 1996). Secure adults tend to be more satisfied in their relationships than insecure adults. Their relationships are characterized by enhanced longevity, trust, commitment, and interdependence (e.g., Feeney & Noller, 1990), and they are more likely to use romantic partners as a secure base from which to explore the world (Fraley & Davis, 1997). A fairly large proportion of dissertations on adult attachment have been devoted to unearthing the behavioural and psychological mechanisms that promote security and secure base behaviour amongst adults.

In accordance with attachment theory, secure adults are more likely than insecure adults to seek support from their partners when distressed. Furthermore, they are more likely to provide support to their distressed partners (e.g., Simpson et al., 1992). The attributions that insecure individuals make concerning their partner's behaviour during and following relational conflicts exasperate, rather than assuage, their insecurities (e.g., Simpson et al., 1996). In an experimental assignment in which adults were instructed to discuss losing their partner, Fraley and Shaver (1997) found that rejected individuals (i.e., individuals who are high on the dimension of attachment-related avoidance but low on the dimension of attachment-related anxiety) were just as physiologically distressed (as assessed by skin conductance measures) as other individuals. When advised to stifle their thoughts and feelings, dismissing individuals were able to do so effectively. That is, they could deactivate their physiological stimulation to some extent and diminish the attention they paid to attachment-related thoughts. Fearfully-avoidant individuals were however not as successful in quenching their emotions.

In the course of a romantic relationship, couples usually make a transition from falling or being in love to loving each other (Berscheid & Regan, 2004). Flirtation and dating often leads to initiation of mutual activities. This culminates in sharing of intimate information including discussion of long term goals that the couple might pursue together. The partners typically begin to make adjustment to their daily activities and dwelling conditions reflecting their increasing commitment to each other (e.g., Brehm, 1992). During this transition, attachment styles can facilitate or obstruct the amalgamation of a long-lasting relationship (Morgan & Shaver, 1999). Secure individuals' languish for and also manifest positive beliefs about their partner's supportiveness and trustworthiness. They consider their partner as an attachment figure (a reliable source of comfort and support), and sustain the partner as an attachment figure (a sensitive and responsive caregiver). In contrast, insecure people's negative working models (anxious and avoidant, respectively) are likely to misconstrue beliefs and conjectures about the relationship. This disrupts the crystallisation of a long-lasting, mutually intimate, supportive, and committed relationship. Hazan and Shaver (1987) chronicled that secure people had more optimistic and animated beliefs about romantic love than their anxious or avoidant counterparts. Secure people were more likely to affirm in the existence of romantic love, the possibility of maintaining intense love over a long period, and the likelihood of spotting a partner one could undoubtedly fall in love with. Hazan and Shaver (1987) also found some interesting variations and aberrations between anxious and avoidant individuals. The too-easily activated attachment systems of anxious individuals seem to favour falling in love easily and indiscriminately, with hopes of melding with another person and increasing felt security. Avoidant people conversely

find it demanding to fall in love, and many even question that such a state is possible outside of movies and fantasy romantic stories. Even within a long-term relationship, anxious people are more certain to nurture their “passion” whereas an avoidant attachment style is associated with experiencing less passion over time (Davis et al., 2004).

Pistole (1994) reasoned that secure people would be unlikely to experience much conflict related to closeness and distance. They accurately gauge the amount of closeness sought by their partner and are able to tolerate and communicate effectively about any momentary violations, in either direction, of desired personal boundaries. Avoidant people prefer interpersonal distance and view even normal intimacy and proximity as intrusive. Anxious people seek closeness to such an extent that it would make their partners uncomfortable. Attachment insecurities can also impede with commitment. Both avoidant requirements for independence and tense diffidence about a partner’s trustworthiness can hamper chances of committing oneself to a lasting relationship. Additionally, avoidant distancing and anxious intrusiveness can inhibit partners from committing themselves to what they dread might be a troubled and, a distressing intimate arrangement.

Variations in relationship commitment between anxious and avoidant people have also been examined within the framework of Rusbult’s (1983) investment-cost model. Pistole, Clark, and Tubbs (1995) found that although both anxious and avoidant people indicated comparatively low levels of commitment to their couple relationships, the anxious ones reported the highest relationship costs while the avoidant ones reported the lowest investments. This implies that anxious people’s lack of commitment emanates from disappointment, pain, and frustration, whereas

avoidant people's lack of commitment originates from unwillingness to invest in a long-term relationship. Maintenance of a long-term relationship reckons largely on partners' interpersonal skills, the quality of their daily interactions, and their ability to manage disagreements and conflicts (Noller & Feeney, 2002). Verbal and nonverbal interchanges in which dyads tend to freely express their thoughts and feelings in an affectionate and loving way appears too hinged on partners' attachment security and is attenuated or distorted by attachment insecurity (Noller & Feeney, 2002).

Insecure people are liable to respond to an interaction partner's unfavourable behaviour with more animosity and dysfunctional indignation and less forgiveness than secure people. Generally, attachment insecurities are analogous with less "voice" (active attempts to solve a problem) and "loyalty" (understanding the temporary behaviour of a partner's character and hoping for improvement) – the two most accommodative, constructive riposte to a partner's misdemeanour (Rusbult et al., 1991). Attachment insecurities also appears to be bracketed with more "exit" responses (attempts to inflict the partner or abandon the relationship) and "neglect" responses (ignoring the partner and refusing to discuss the problem) – the two most relationship-destructive responses (Gaines & Henderson, 2002.). Kachadourian et al. (2004) declared that more attachment-anxious or avoidant people were less likely to forgive their romantic partners. In a diary reading of daily fluctuations in the tendency to forgive a partner, Mikulincer et al. (2006) found that both attachment anxiety and avoidance predicted lower levels of daily forgiveness across 21 consecutive days. Whereas secure people were more inclined to absolve their spouse on days when they perceived more positive spousal behaviour, more insecure people (either anxious or avoidant) reported little forgiveness even on days when they perceived their spouse to

be available, attentive, and supportive. Secure people generally report low levels of jealousy, fairly mild or restrained emotional reactions to a partner's occasional interest in other people, and constructive strategies for coping with transgressions, such as openly discussing them with one's partner (Buunk, 1997; Guerrero, 1998).

Insecure men and women as compared to secure ones, tend to express less affection and empathy during conflicts. They are also found to be less frequently compromising, more frequently employ coercive and destructive demand-withdrawal strategies, engage more often in attacks of various kinds, and wind up experiencing greater post-conflict distress (Creasey & Ladd, 2005). Women are expected to take an active, leading role during such interactions (e.g., to articulate relationship concerns and guide a discussion of areas of disagreement) whereas men are generally assigned a less active role (e.g., Christensen & Heavey, 1990). Consequently, the conflict negotiation task may be particularly stressful for avoidant women, who prefer to distance themselves rather than confront relationship problems, and for anxious men, who tend to express distress and acquire a predominant position in the discussion (Powers et al., 2006).

Nurturing of a long-term relationship is dependent upon the amount to which partners experience and express respect, admiration, and gratitude to each other and the degree to which they are able to create a climate of appreciation and friendship instead of denunciation and contempt (Gottman, 1994). According to Markman, Stanley, and Blumberg (1994), expressing positive concern for a romantic partner is one of four compelling relationship values, the other three being commitment, intimacy, and forgiveness (Frei & Shaver, 2002). "Satisfaction" refers to having needs met within long-term couple relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2006). According to

attachment theory, relationship satisfaction can be envisaged to surge as partners become available as reliable sources of closeness and intimacy, effective providers of support and security (safe havens), and secure bases from which they can engage in autonomous growth-oriented activities (Feeney, 1999; Mikulincer, Florian, Cowan, & Cowan, 2002). Supporting an attachment-theoretical analysis, less secure people – whether anxious, avoidant, or both – generally report reduced satisfaction with their dating relationships (Elitzur & Mintzer, 2001; Mohr, 1999). Some studies have considered potentially confounded variables and found that insecurely attached people's relationship dissatisfaction cannot be explained by other personality factors, such as the "big five" traits, depression, self-esteem, or sex-role orientation (Jones & Cunningham, 1996; Nofle & Shaver, 2006; Whisman & Allan, 1996), increasing determination in the singularity of the contribution of attachment-related variables to relationship satisfaction.

Similarly, some other studies detected greater marital satisfaction among secure versus insecure spouses (Alexandrov, Cowan & Cowan, 2005; Treboux, Crowell & Waters, 2004). Avoidant men seem to be having greater odds for relationship dissatisfaction than anxious men. Or maybe this could be blamed on to women being especially unhappy with avoidant men who translate this into complaints and conflicts that debilitate avoidant men's satisfaction (Campbell et al., 2005). There is also some evidence that attachment security can protect relationship quality during life transitions and painful periods (Simpson & Rholes, 2002). Comprehensively, the findings suggest that attachment security is a psychological resource that mitigates relationship satisfaction despite stressful experiences and relationship changes. Insecure individuals, in contrast, are at risk for relationship

deterioration during nerve-wracking spells and may need intercessions that buttress relational stability during demanding times.

Hazan and Shaver (1987) recorded that people who described themselves as having an avoidant or anxious attachment style had shorter relationships (4.9 and 6 years, respectively) than secure people (10 years). Couples that included an avoidant woman and/or an anxious man were highly prone to split within the 3-year study period. In contrast, the pairing of an anxious woman with an avoidant man, despite both partners reporting relatively high levels of relationship distress, was resistant to breakup of the union. Duemmler and Kobak (2001) found that avoidance was predictive of relationship dissolution irrespective of gender difference. Avoidant individuals are quite likely to be dissatisfied with their relationships and to address their dissatisfaction by walking away. Anxious individuals are also vulnerable to dissatisfaction, but they seem more likely to face it by remaining in an unfulfilling relationship, unless their partner deserts them. Secure individuals can stay with a committed long-term relationship when there are problems that can be resolved, but they also have the advantage of self-confidence and some supportive social network to assist them successfully leave a perilous or unrelenting dissatisfying relationship. Bartholomew & Allison (2006) and Dickstein, Seifer, Andre, and Schiller (2001) found that secure couples (i.e., couples in which both partners were securely attached) achieved greater satisfaction level than mixed couples (in which only one partner was secure) and doubly insecure couples.

Conflict handling. Conflict is an inevitable and ubiquitous phenomenon in human society. People usually consider conflict as problematic and invoking strong

negative feelings. Studies (i.e., Ting-Toomey, 1997; Tjosvold, Moy, & Shigeru, 1999) have indicated negative outcomes of conflict ranging from discomfort, misunderstanding, and disruption leading to severance of relationship to the collapse of organizations. Individuals as such endeavor to avoid and resolve conflict in cherished relationships. It is for such conspicuous reasons that conflict in romantic relationships has caused outpouring of pronounced scholarly and popular material. When managed well, conflict in romantic unions would enable relational partners to about each other and create a sense of cohesion and commitment (Siegert & Stamp, 1994). When mishandled, conflict can have negative implications for the relationship and for the relational partners (Fincham & Beach, 1999). Romantic conflict is a prevalent occurrence. The outcomes can damage the relationships, as well as impact individuals beyond those directly involved. There are many treatises focusing on romantic conflict and its associated influence. Research also claimed that couples that lack proper communication skills in conflict situations are more likely to resort to abusive or violent behaviours (Sabourin, Infante, & Rudd, 1993). Thus, romantic conflict is an important context in which one can examine the effects of individual differences on conflict styles.

Conflict handling styles exemplify the individuals' general proclivities or means of managing disputes in a variety of antagonistic interactive occurrences in various interactions (Sternberg & Soriano, 1984; Ting-Toomey, 1997; Ting-Toomey et al., 2000). Conflict handling styles provide a fair guide to an individual's communication orientation toward conflict. Most individuals have a predominant conflict handling style, but it is possible to modify and tailor conflict styles in regards to a specific situation (Wilmot & Hocker, 2001). Thus, conflict handling style is a

combination of traits (e.g., cultural background and personality) and states (e.g., situational factors, such as ingroup-outgroup conflict and conflict salience) (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001).

Gottman (1994) classifies three couple types according to their styles of conflict interactions: validating, volatile, and conflict avoiders. Whereas validating partners understand one another's point of view on a variety of topics and strive toward compromise, volatile partners are emotionally expressive, comfortable with disagreement, and highly persuasive. Conflict avoiders detest negative messages and attempt to reduce potential conflicts by appeasing or deferring to one another. All three groups of stable couples exhibited a 5:1 positivity to negativity ratio.

Conflicts can occur at all levels of society; between individuals, families, workgroups, during local and central decision making, and within society as a whole. There are different reasons why conflicts occur, for example different perceptions, objectives, values or interests, misunderstanding of situations, unsatisfied needs and prevailing conditions/environment. To live with unsolved conflicts saps away energy and could cause people to feel burdened and broken up. It is therefore necessary to fully comprehend the cause and nature of the conflict and its effects, and thereafter try to influence or resolve the conflict (Levin, 2007). No matter how happy a married couple appears, their marriage is not bereft of occasional conflicts. Having conflicts in marriage life is normal as it is brought about by the natural differences of the couple. However, if the gravity and frequency of conflicts inside a marriage keeps climbing to new heights, the risk of destroying the marriage mounts. Ensuring a healthy marriage remains the key towards avoiding marital conflicts.

To openly accept conflicts requires courage and willpower. There are many reasons why people choose to suppress understanding of a conflict. Levin (2007) pointed out that people suppress conflict when they think that there is no possibility to make things better, or they could get in trouble if they tried to interfere, or it is best not to think about it or someone else will do something about it.

Experiences at an early age often play an important role in how one understands situations. Stress caused by conflict may incite us to use different defence mechanisms. By denying existence of a conflict, we attempt to portray a "fantasy model" of reality. Critique and suggestions for change are not understood, because the existence of the conflict is not accepted. However if, instead, existence of a conflict is accepted and resolved, this will cause better understanding of the thoughts, feelings and needs of each other, and can also result in more openness, creativity and community. Thus, the conflict could help a relationship to improve. If an individual has good problem solving skills, he would be able to handle conflict effectively. Levin (2007) presented a model for problem-solving comprising of six steps.

The first step is to identify and define a problem where problem is described in ways which are not based on critique or disdain. "I" statements are the most effective way of formulating a problem. This means that one starts with one's own feelings and ideas. One must be an active listener; let other state their views, try to understand the opponent. One can also ask check questions to ensure that nothing has been misunderstood. Understanding the views of the opponent can lead us to see the problem in a new way. But one must not suppress one's own feelings. It is always better to ensure that our opponent understands that the objective is to seek a resolution

which satisfies needs of both - a solution where no one is a loser, a so-called win-win solution.

Second step deals with proposing different solutions. It is not always easy to immediately reach or discern the best solution and one can ask the opponent to start proposing solutions instead. Meanwhile one will have gained precious time to propose one's ideas later on. Employ active listening techniques and respect the suggestions and ideas of the other person. Try to list several different solutions, before evaluating and discussing each one of them. As a third step, the concerned individuals should evaluate the different solutions. But it is very essential that individuals remain frank, fair and critical using active listening mode.

The fourth step involves making a decision. A consensus agreement on a solution is necessary for it to succeed. One should not try to persuade or force the opponent to accept a certain solution. If the other person is not able to freely accept a solution there is a risk that nothing has changed or improved. Immediately after having agreed on a solution, it is usually necessary to discuss how to implement it and then carry out the solution. Who will do what, and when? If the other person does not adhere to what has been agreed on, one should confront him/her with "I" statements. But do not again and again remind the other person of their tasks because this will cause them to rely on our reminders instead of taking their own responsibility for their behaviour.

As a final step the individuals should perform a follow-up evaluation. Sometimes, one may discover that there are deficiencies or weaknesses in the

solution. Both parties should be willing to revise decisions, but this should be done together, not arbitrary by one of the individuals. Again, here also the individuals have to agree on all changes to the solution, just as they had agreed on the original solution.

Most often than not, serious marriage conflicts are related to minor issues that snowball. Marriage entails that the spouses love each other for who they are and small annoying things should be accepted for granted. Understanding each other especially about insignificant things will help strengthen the relationship and give a general sense of belongingness to both the spouses.

It is never a wise thought to compare your spouse with the spouse of others, even if it is intended for fun. All humans are composed of good and bad traits. Unfortunately most individuals tend to see only the bad attributes and idiosyncrasies in their spouses. Marriage means belongingness and spouses should make their partners feel that they belong together. Otherwise conflict may arise and would create problems. Similarly, couples tend to be more serious with the passage of time, thus, leaving out all the passion and the fun. Keeping the feeling of being in love is the main foundation of a successful marriage. People tend to resort to anger, hatred and disrespect when confronting their partners. Thus they assume that conflict resolution is somehow related to violence and hurt. This leads to violent and troublesome marriage. Conflict handling is the practice of identifying and handling conflict in a sensible, fair, and efficient manner. Conflict handling requires such skills as effective communicating and problem solving. Ting-Toomey (1994) defined conflict as “the perceived and/or actual incompatibility of values, expectations, processes, or outcomes between two or more parties over substantive and/or relational issues” (p. 360). Conflict could occur in any type of relationship.

Previous research has been conducted in various contexts, including organizational (Stohl, 2001), small group (Rau, 2005), intergenerational (Zhang, Harwood, & Hummert, 2005), intercultural (Cai, Wilson, & Drake, 2000), gender (Cupach & Canary, 1995; Halpern & McLean Parks, 1996), as well as romantic (Cahn, 1990; Caughlin & Vangelisti, 1999; Fitzpatrick & Winke, 1979; Hubbard, 2001). In intimate romantic relationships, people fall in love or fall out of love. Joyfulness and happiness are part of the emotional highs, while sadness, conflict, tension, and anger are part of the emotional lows. Conflict is a normative feature of a stable romantic relationship, with episodes of conflict occurring approximately twice a week (Lloyd, 1987). As the saying goes, the person you love the most hurt you the most. Indeed, the more interested the two parties are in one another, the more inevitable the conflict and the added pressure on the relationship can occur (Burgess & Huston, 1979). Romantic conflict results from cultural and/or individual differences in how to approach, treat, and handle social norms. The worst situation could be ending a relationship, which is extremely painful and costly because of the amount of time, commitment, and emotional energy the two parties have invested into the maintenance of it. Therefore, managing conflicts effectively becomes quite important in romantic relationships.

Prior research indicated that conflict handling can be a productive experience since it would bring about positive changes in a relationship and /or achievement of goals (Canary & Spitzberg, 1990; Thomas, 1976; Ting-Toomey et al., 2000). Appropriate conflict handling styles provide “interpersonal relationship satisfaction and creative problem solving” (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001, p. 3), and lead to “improved efficiency, creativity, and profitability” (Axelrod & Johnson, 2005, p. 42).

However, since “it is through multiple channels that we acquire and develop our own ethics, values, norms, and ways of behaving in our everyday lives” (Ting-Toomey, 2005, p.211). What might be a proper way of handling disputes in romantic relationships in one society may not be acceptable in another due to different assumptions regarding behavioral natures, expectations, and values (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001).

Styles of Handling Interpersonal Conflict. Rahim (2002) gave the viewpoint that conflict can facilitate learning and increase effectiveness. Based on the conceptualizations of Follett (1940), Thomas (1976), Rahim and Bonoma (1979) differentiated the styles of handling interpersonal conflict on two basic dimensions i.e., concern for self and for others. The first dimension explicates the degree (high or low) to which a person attempts to appease his or her own concern. The second elucidates the degree (high or low) to which a person attempts to satiate the concern of others. Combining of the two dimensions, results in five specific styles of handling conflict. Descriptions of these styles are presented below (Rahim, 1983, 2001).

Integrating (high concern for self and others) style involves openness, exchange of information, and examination of incongruities to arrive at an effective solution acceptable to both sides. It is associated with problem solving, which may lead to creative solutions. Obliging (low concern for self and high concern for others) style is associated with attempting to down play the differences and emphasizing commonalities to allay the concern of the other party. Dominating (high concern for self and low concern for others) style has been identified with win-lose orientation or with forcing behaviour to win one's position. Avoiding (low concern for self and others) style has been associated with withdrawal, eluding, buck-passing, or by

passing situations. Compromising (intermediate in concern for self and others) style involves mutually give-and-take arrangement whereby both parties give up something to make a mutually acceptable decision.

Numerous studies suggested that there were differences in conflict management styles between individualists and collectivists (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001; Ting-Toomey et al., 2000). However, some studies found mixed results concerning preferred styles by members of individualistic and collectivistic cultures (Kim & Leung, 2000). Past studies (e.g., Gabrielidis et al., 1997; Ohbuchi, Fukushima, & Tedeschi, 1999; Ting-Toomey et al., 1991) demonstrated that members of individualistic cultures appear to avail more dominating conflict strategies, more substantive, outcome-oriented strategies (i.e., integrating), and fewer avoiding conflict strategies than members of collectivistic cultures (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). For example, Ohbuchi et al. (1999) found that American students reported greater direct conflict confrontation and less conflict avoidance than Japanese students. French, Pidada, Denoma, McDonald, and Lawton (2005) studied conflict styles between Indonesian and American children. Their findings showed that Indonesian youth tended to exhibit disengagement when faced with conflict, while European-Americans considered that conflicts were best addressed directly.

Research also indicated that the avoiding style was used more often by individualists rather than collectivists (Cai & Fink, 2002) and can be perceived very negatively (e.g., inappropriate and ineffective) in some collectivistic cultures (Zhang et al., 2005). For example, Cai and Fink (2002) examined the correlation between collectivism and individualism and conflict management styles with participants

comprising of both American and international graduate students. They authenticated that individualists preferred the avoiding style more than collectivists.

Studies indicated that Chinese (collectivists) tended to use the accommodating and avoiding styles, while competition was perceived more desirably by Americans (individualists) (French et al., 2005). Ting-Toomey et al. (1991) and Trubisky, Ting-Toomey, and Lin (1991) suggested that Chinese were guided by the moral philosophy of Confucianism, which emphasized upon cultivation of harmonious interpersonal relationships. The, Chinese obviously preferred to use more obliging and avoiding conflict styles, whereas European Americans appeared to use a higher degree of dominating conflict style than their Asian counterparts. Leung, Au, Fernandez-Dols, and Iwawaki 's (1992) work also provides some evidence that Asians liked to use avoidance and third-party management styles to deal with conflict issues, while European Americans gravitated towards upfront, solution-oriented style (i.e., integrating and compromising) in tackling with conflict problems.

Forgiveness. According to McCullough et al. (2000) there is no transparent agreement as to what forgiveness implies but there is a general agreement as to what forgiveness is not. It is not, for example pardoning, condoning, excusing, forgetting or denying. Hebl and Enright (1993) postulated that the most valuable definition of forgiveness is that proposed by North (1987). Understanding North's (1987) definition, Robert Enright and those supportive of his exposition equate the concept of forgiveness with the notion of mercy. Enright, a pioneer in the area of the empirical examination of forgiveness has beautifully interpreted forgiveness as the "willingness to abandon one's right to resentment, negative judgement, and indifferent behaviour

toward one who unjustly injured us, while fostering the undeserved qualities of compassion, generosity, and even love toward him or her” (Enright, and The Human Development Study Group, 1991).

Enigmatically, those we love are often the ones we are most likely to hurt. It is rare that a person who does not, at some juncture of his life, feel “hurt,” “let down,” “betrayed,” “disappointed,” or “wronged” by his or her relationship partner. When interpersonal transgressions happen in marriage they can elicit strong negative feelings and carry the potential to unsettle the relationship. Perhaps not surprisingly, spouses report that the ability and willingness to beseech and grant forgiveness is one of the most premier qualities contributing to marital longevity and marital satisfaction (Fenell, 1993).

An interesting debate in this area revolves around the relationship between forgiveness and reconciliation. Enright and Zell (1989) argue that it is possible to forgive without reconciliation, whereas Power et al., (2006) advocates that forgiveness without reconciliation is not complete. Worthington (1998), more reasonably claims that there are in reality four possible logical relationships between forgiveness and reconciliation. While there can be no mistaking that reconciliation and forgiveness may both ensue (even if the causal relationship is not clear) what is perhaps most often questioned is whether there can be reconciliation without forgiveness and/or forgiveness without reconciliation.

There is a subtle difference between forgiving and really forgiving. When we forgive, we usually avoid throwing down the outburst of accusations and hurtful behaviour against the offender. The popular advice of “forgive and forget” completely misses the point. Forgetting, in psychological vocabulary is dubbed “repression.”

When something is "repressed," it just lingers in the dark shadows of the unconscious along with all the emotions associated with it. As long as those emotions, such as anger, are brewing secretly in the unconscious, genuine forgiveness remains inconceivable.

When we actually forgive we also acknowledge the agony caused. We acknowledge the human condition as being imperfect. We deal with the anger and the accompanying resentment. We then abandon, by an act of the heart, of all the negative, pernicious emotions, the judgment and the guilt against the transgressor. We then reconnect and rejuvenate what was wasted. In case of "no-sweat-forgiveness", we just make an attempt to forget and move on. While, in true forgiveness we elect to let go of the toxicity created by the offence-offender and restore the liaison with the offender.

If we examine the word 'forgive', we could see that it is comprised of two words 'for' and 'give' which means to give as one did before; in other words, to restore the flow of giving as one did before the hurt (Fincham, 2009). A profound spiritual transaction happens between two people that really forgive each other after someone hurt us. Anger and revenge are natural phenomenon whereas forgiving is not. But that is actually the meaning of true forgiveness. When we stand as near to our spouse as we stood the day he/she stepped on our toe that hurt badly; that is real forgiveness.

It is not easy to really forgive. Sometimes it feels like it is next to impossible. But it's possible when we choose to do what is right for the relationship and ourselves. When we decide to really forgive, we become stronger and the marriage becomes better than it was before. Thus, forgiveness is not a feeling rather it's an option one

chose to forgive as an act of the will. We feel powerful because we would exercise our freedom. Though it appears simple, it may consume time and we may undergo relapse one after other. If one is patient enough then one would not only be able to let go of anger progressively but would also feel free to show affection to one's spouse (Fincham, 2009).

When we change our behaviour, the environment of our relationship changes and we could suddenly understand how vulnerable we all are in marital relationship. That state of vulnerability allows for a tremendous flow of feelings; positive feelings that are way better than the feelings of "new love." Forgiveness can make us a better person even if we don't accomplish what we want.

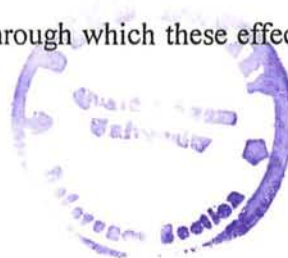
The ability to forgive one's partner may be one of the most substantial factors in conserving healthy romantic relationships (Fincham, 2009). There are many cross-sectional studies that discovered forgiveness to be an important variable for improving relationship satisfaction. It is conspicuous that there are mixed findings on the longitudinal relation between forgiveness and later relationship satisfaction, with some evidence indirectly supporting the relationship (Paleari, Regalia, & Fincham, 2005) and other findings supporting this relationship for only some spouses (McNulty, 2008).

Various studies have indicated that forgiveness predicts sustained relationship satisfaction in the face of partner infractions (Fincham, Hall, & Beach, 2006). Most conceptualizations of forgiveness emphasize a motivational change in which negative response tendencies toward the trespasser (e.g., retaliation, vengeance) decrease (McCullough, Fincham, & Tsang, 2003). Decreased negative motivation alone is perhaps insufficient for relationship repair when the transgressor is an intimate partner

whereas it implies a recurrence to a status of neutrality rather than positivity towards the partner. Consequently, increased positive motivation (goodwill) towards the offender has been postulated as an additional component of forgiveness, especially in close relationships. This positive dimension is thought to dominate approach behaviour in the light of a partner transgression (e.g., Fincham, 2000) and evidence for the role of this dimension has begun to accumulate (e.g., Fincham & Beach, 2002, 2006; Paleari, Regalia, & Fincham, 2009). Thus, forgiveness is theorized to promote not only a reduction in negative responses but also increased goodwill towards the transgressor.

A growing body of evidence attests to the potential benefits of interpersonal forgiveness for the well-being of close relationships. Forgiveness has been shown to reduce psychological aggression and facilitate relational closeness following a partners' transgression (Karremans & Van Lange, 2004). In couples forgiveness towards the partner is associated with restored relational closeness, satisfaction, and positive interaction following an interpersonal transgression (Kachadourian, Finchman, & Davila, 2004). There is also evidence that forgiving the partner enhances intimacy and commitment in the relationship, promotes constructive communication, and has a positive influence on marital quality over time (Paleari, Regalia, & Fincham, 2005; Tsang, McCullough & Fincham, 2006). Finally, after controlling for concurrent socio-cognitive processes, forgiveness predicts later marital quality more strongly than marital quality predicts later forgiveness (Paleari et al., 2005).

Although the beneficial effects of forgiveness for relational well-being are now well documented, the mechanisms through which these effects occur are largely



unknown. How does forgiveness strengthen the relationship? In view of evidence that relationship satisfaction and stability are affected by partner's perceived efficacy in managing couple arguments (Fincham, Harold & Gano-Phillips, 2000; Kurdek, 1998), one potential mechanism that might be involved is the perceived ability to effectively handle arguments. In fact, Fincham, Beach, and Davila (2004) showed that forgiveness dimensions predict perceived efficacy in managing conflicts. Husbands who were less unforgiving had wives who reported more effective arguing during conflicts. Conversely, wives who were more benevolent in response to a partner transgression had husbands who reported higher levels of effective arguing. Beach, Kamen and Fincham (2006) concluded that forgiveness is likely to assist arguing couples maneuver "from a trajectory dominated by vicious cycles to one protected by self-regulating, constructive feedback loops".

Forgiveness as a way of resolving conflicts. Forgiveness has usually been described as an approach to handle *offences* (or transgressions or injuries) rather than as an instrument to deal with *conflicts* (McCullough, Pargament & Thoresen, 2000). Within this domain, offences and conflicts are considered to be conceptually explicit. Offences trigger pronounced damages to the individual, specifically to his or her perspective of the self, and/or to pivotal beliefs about the availability and trustworthiness of others (Feeney, 2005). Conversely, conflicts are social interactions, in which the partners hold incompatible objectives, interests, desires, expectations or hold diverse thoughts, and which can range from mild divergences in preferences or opinions to severe verbal and physical altercations and assaults (Beach, 2001; Bradbury, Rogge, & Lawrence, 2001). Nonetheless conflicts, particularly minor ones,

do not necessarily precipitate the amount of personal damage that offences do and consequently do not necessarily demand forgiveness (e.g., disagreeing about where to go on holidays is properly not perceived as a hurt necessitating forgiveness). Notwithstanding this viewpoint, both ordinary people and social scientists often construe that forgiveness can play an active role in effectively managing interpersonal conflicts. For example, several scholars (Barber, Maltby & Makaskill, 2005; Ouwerkerk, & Kluver, 2003; Lawler, Younger, Piferi, Billington, Jobe, Edmondson, & Jones, 2003) have argued that forgiveness might be conducive in reaching a clear understanding of how individuals view and deal with interpersonal conflicts. As previously noted, this assumption is supported by recent empirical evidence demonstrating that forgiving the spouse promotes better effective conflict resolution (Fincham et al., 2004).

Conflicts and malfeasances are especially likely to co-occur in daily life. We understand that conflicts lead to offences whenever a partner utters words or undertakes actions that the other person perceives as hurtful or insulting. Similarly offences tend to engender conflict especially when these are committed against others who are intimate. Within the context of close relationships and in the aftermath of offences, overt verbal communication occurs often. By virtue of the divergent positions taken by the transgressor and the victim of the offence (Feeney & Hill, 2006), these verbal exchanges can unknowingly and very quickly result in conflicts. An effective tool to handle these conflicts may be to forgive the initial offence that initiated the conflict. Forgiving the partner may be accurately treated as a method of handling couple conflicts where the conflict originates from a partner offence.

Association between forgiveness and marital quality. Forgiveness has been associated with several notable constructs in the marital domain, including conflict resolution, relationship enhancing attributions, and greater commitment. However, the most potent analysis in this emerging literature, documents a positive reciprocity between forgiveness and marital quality. Despite the centrality to the emerging literature on forgiveness and marriage, certain issues concerning the association between forgiveness and marital quality remain pending. Perhaps one of the most vital is whether the relation is causal and, if so, the direction of possible causal effects. Interestingly the potential reciprocal relationship between marital quality and forgiveness within marriage remains vague and undetermined.

The second issue is the limit to which gender is related to the forgiveness–marital quality association, an important contemplation in light of suggestive writings that women are more forgiving than men (e.g., Exline, Baumeister, Bushman, Campbell, & Finkel, 2004; Karremans et al., 2003). Likewise, wives may be more sensitive to relationship problems (Markus & Oyserman, 1989), thereby suggesting the potential for gender-related templates in the relationship between marital quality and forgiveness. A number of studies document a robust bond between forgiveness and marital satisfaction (Fincham et al., 2005, 2006). However, despite powerful correlation claimed between forgiveness and marital quality, it does not address the issue of direction of its effects. A more promising means of addressing this issue appears to examine the association longitudinally.

Paleari, Regalia, and Fincham (2005) examined forgiveness in longer-term Italian marriages (mean length of marriage 18.8 years), at two points in time spanning a 6-month period. Among other things, they tested a model in which early forgiveness

predicted later satisfaction but only indirectly, through concurrent forgiveness. Ironically they found support for this indirect link but only for husbands. Although the reason for this gender-related finding is unclear; it may be related to the assessment of forgiveness for different events across the two points in time. This resulted in low stability coefficients and likely underestimated the longitudinal relation between forgiveness and marital quality. A further limitation of this Endeavour is that it did not test non recursive models that could arrest possible reciprocal effects between forgiveness and marital quality. This is critical, as a complete account of the association between forgiveness and marital quality will have to encompass the potential bidirectional interplay between them. In addition, there is plausible reason to believe that longitudinal relations might vary as a function of gender.

An issue that is liable to be overlooked in forgiveness compositions is the relationship between gender and forgiveness. As regards relationships, the magnitude of the cross-sectional relation between forgiveness and marital quality does not normally digress for men and women (e.g., Kachadourian, Fincham, & Davila, 2004). This is somehow surprising in the perspective of gender role deviations for women and men. Gender roles give rise to clear differences in expectations. Women are rated more favorably on helpfulness, kindness, compassion, and ability to devote oneself to another and women display more emotional support for others (Eagly, 1987). Because gender roles are often innate, women's gender roles may induce them to place greater emphasis on caring for others regardless of whether or not their own needs are being met and to sacrifice more in order to "save" a relationship (Lerner, 1987). Indeed, women are perceived as being more relationship-oriented than men (e.g., Markus & Oyserman, 1989) and so may relish or be compelled to shoulder responsibility for the

resolution of relationship difficulties. Not surprisingly, there is some evidence that women are more forgiving, on average, than are men (e.g., Exline et al., 2004; Karremans et al., 2003). The result may be a stronger tendency for women relative to men to forgive when something strays in their close relationships.

In contrast, the male gender role is more consistent with activity and displays of anger and retaliation (Kuebli & Fivush, 1992). Men are more likely to use direct influence strategies to “make” others change (e.g., coercion, appeal to expertise; Howard, Blumstein, & Schwartz, 1986). The internalization of these expectations may force men to view interpersonal conflict resulting from partner transgressions in terms of competition and “winning” or lead them to withdraw, or attempt to withdraw, from the situation. Such tendencies should make men less likely to view forgiveness as an option when it comes to transgressions. In addition, it may lead men to view forgiveness in mixed or negative terms when it is selected as an option, obscuring short-term beneficial effects of forgiveness on relationship satisfaction.

Friendship and romance. In contemporary Western culture, romantic love is deemed a very important component of marriage. Many individuals view romantic love as the very basis to marry (Dion & Dion, 1991) and its disappearance as sufficient grounds to terminate marriage (Simpson, Campbell, & Berscheid, 1986). Increasingly, romantic love and marriage have come to be viewed as a source of self-fulfillment and expression (Dion & Dion, 1991). Ironically though, it is widely believed that over time romantic love fades and that at best it evolves into a “warm afterglow” (Reik, 1944) of companionate love, a friendship-type love. How then,

could something that is considered critical, if not the very purpose of marrying, also be assumed and accepted to die out inevitably?

Types of love and phases. Berscheid and Hatfield (1969), pioneers in the scientific exploration of love, proposed two major types of love—passionate and companionate. Passionate love, “a state of intense longing for union with another” (Hatfield & Rapson, 1993), also referred to as “being in love” (Meyers & Berscheid, 1997), “infatuation” (Fisher, 1998), and “limerence” (Tennov, 1979), includes an obsessive element, characterized by intrusive thinking, uncertainty, and mood swings. Companionate love, less intense than passionate love, combines attachment, commitment, and intimacy. It is defined as “the affection and tenderness we feel for those with whom our lives are deeply entwined” (Berscheid & Hatfield, 1969); and refers to deep friendship, easy companionship, the sharing of common interests and activities, but not necessarily including sexual desire or attraction (e.g., Grote & Frieze, 1994). A widely accepted view is that over time there is a linear passage of passionate love into companionate love (Hatfield & Walster, 1978).

Another prominent theory Love Styles (Lee, 1977; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), delineates six basic styles of which three are directly relevant here: (a) Eros or romantic love, an intense focus, valuing, and desire for union with the beloved, without obsession; (b) Mania or obsessive love in which “The lover is jealous, full of doubt about the partner’s sincerity and commitment, subject to physical symptoms such as inability to eat and sleep, experiences acute excitement alternating with debilitating depression” (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1992); and (c) Storge or friendship love, a feeling of natural affection, a secure, trusting, friendship (often experienced

toward siblings or friends) that does not involve sexual desire and is akin to companionate love. Eros and Mania together correspond to Berscheid and Hatfield's (1969) definition of passionate love. Storge, corresponds to Berscheid and Hatfield's definition of companionate love.

A third influential theory is the Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory, conceptualizes love as consisting of three components— passion, intimacy, and commitment—of which different combinations result in different types of love. Passionate love is derived from a combination of intimacy and passion, without commitment; infatuated love, from passion without commitment or intimacy; and fatuous love, from passion and commitment, without intimacy. Sternberg argued that over the course of successful relationships, passion generally decreases, latent intimacy increases, and commitment increases.

Many models of love imply that over time romantic love inevitably declines and, at best, evolves into some kind of friendship or companionate love. Social science models (e.g., Berscheid & Hatfield, 1969; Sternberg, 1986) emphasize habituation and familiarity, unavoidable interdependence conflicts, and the like. Other approaches describe mechanisms that can promote an occasional existence of romantic love in long-term relationships. Berscheid's (1983) interruption model predicts that temporary interruptions, such as brief separations and conflicts, may reignite latent passionate love (including its obsessive element). The self-expansion model (Aron & Aron, 1986) proposes that there are natural mechanisms that may promote long-term romantic love—such as shared participation in novel and challenging activities (e.g., Aron et al., 2000). Similarly, the rate of change in

intimacy model (Baumeister & Bratslavsky, 1999) suggests that if couples have opportunities to increase intimacy at a rapid pace, it may also increase passion.

Finally, recent evolutionary models propose that long-term romantic love may be an adaptation that promotes continued pair-bonding, keeping partners together even when problems or desirable alternatives present themselves (Buss, 2006). Other evolutionary work suggests that distinct systems evolved for mating, romantic attraction, and long-term attachments (Fisher, 1998); that in general, romantic attraction fades, but may exist in some cases serving to keep older couples energetic, optimistic, and with a companion (Fisher, 2006).

Two key qualitative studies suggest that romantic love may be experienced for a long-term partner. In their classic interview investigation of nearly 500 American middle-class marriages of 10 years or more, Cuber and Haroff (1965) distinguished between “intrinsic” couples, who continued to enjoy deep, intimate, and affectionate connections with their partners and “utilitarian” couples, who maintained the bond for other reasons than to experience deep involvement with their spouse. Two subgroups of intrinsic couples were identified: “vital” couples, those intensely bound in important life matters with enjoyment, and “total” couples, those with many points of vital meshing shared mutually and enthusiastically.

Tennov (1979) conducted hundreds of interviews with individuals reporting being intensely in love and observed that many older people in happy marriages replied affirmatively to being in love, but unlike those in “limerant” relationships, they did not report continuous and intrusive thinking. There have also been a number of relevant quantitative surveys that lead to the same conclusion, with three bearing directly on whether romantic/passionate love lasts. One interview contemplation by

Hatfield, Traupmann, and Sprecher (1984) found that women, aged 50 to 82, in long-term relationships (33 years or more) reported high levels ($M = 2.98$ on a 5-point scale) of passionate love (described as a wildly emotional state, with tender and sexual feelings, elation and pain, anxiety and relief), although slightly lower levels than compared with women in shorter relationships (less than 33 years, $M = 3.27$). In another study, Tucker and Aron (1993) found high levels of passionate love (PLS) across family life cycles (marriage, parenthood, and empty nest), with only slight decreases, even when controlling for marital satisfaction. Montgomery and Sorrell (1997) investigated love styles among four family life stages and found no significant differences in romantic love (Eros) from single in-love youth to those married with and without children living at home.

Psychologists, therapists, and lay people have pondered and quizzed over the possibility of romantic love in long-term marriages. Some have assumed that very high levels of romantic love in long term relationships might be inefficient, being metabolically expensive (e.g., Fisher, 2006) and perhaps even deterring the lover from familial, work, and community obligations. Perhaps others have been swayed by media reports highlighting the dark side of love and marriage (e.g., high divorce rates, infidelity, stalking, domestic violence, giving up independence etc.). Maintaining the assumption that romantic love cannot last allows those with good, but not stellar relationships to maintain the status quo and avoid being threatened by the possibility of high levels of love in long-term relationships. Indeed, this is perhaps a rational strategy (even if based on a myth) given that relationship well-being appears to be significantly benefited by downward social comparison with other couples (Rusbult, Van Lange, Wildschut, Yovetich, & Verette, 2000). Or perhaps, as proposed by

Mitchell (2002), love could be enduring, but in an attempt to guarantee safety and minimize risks of having unrealistic assumptions about the certainty of the relationship, individuals usually attempt to drive romantic love over time.

Determining whether romantic love can thrive over time, and if so, what it is like in long-term relationships, is necessary for an unclouded understanding of basic relationship principles, their applications, and evolutionary foundations. For example, the possibility of romantic love in long-term relationships would suggest that the field needs to consider more than the absence of problems and conflict (the main focus of most current marital literature). The possibility of long-term romantic love may also affect therapists' and individuals' perceptions, so they set higher expectations, and so that long-term mates are less likely to seek out alternative partners or terminate relationships rather than face what has seemed like impossible challenges to achieve romantic love in their marriages. Moreover, this presumes people are willing to commit to long-term relationships at all. The assumption that time kills romantic love could undermine people's decisions even to enter into marriages.

Some inquisitors (Acevedo & Aron, 2009) argue that romantic love—with intensity, engagement, and sexual interest—can endure. Although it does not usually include the obsession of initial love, it does not inevitably die out or at best turn into companionate love—a warm, less intense love, devoid of attraction and much sexual desire. They suggested that romantic love in its later and early stages can share the qualities of intensity, engagement, and sexual liveliness.

Long-Term romantic love and well-being. If romantic love—intense, engaging, and sexual—does exist in long-term relationships (and does not just turn

into companionship), is it associated with general well-being? We have seen that romantic love seems to be a better thing for the relationship. Nevertheless, is this just a folie-a-deux? Is it also beneficial for the individuals involved and those around them? Some studies have found that just being married is associated with subjective well-being (e.g., Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). With regard to love in those marriages, studies suggest that it is also an important predictor of happiness, positive emotions, and life satisfaction (e.g., Diener & Lucas, 2000, who assessed love in general; Kim & Hatfield, 2004, who used the PLS). However, problems related to marriage (e.g., jealousy, control, and domestic violence) might even suggest that a great deal of delusion in marriage might be maladaptive, or at the minimum distracting, steering a passionate couple away from fulfilling parental and occupational duties, socializing with friends, family, and the community.

Well-Being. Marital satisfaction predicts global happiness, above and beyond other types of satisfaction (e.g., Glenn & Weaver, 1981); predicts psychological well-being and physical health (e.g., Drigotas, Rusbult, Wieselquist, & Whitton, 1999); and may serve as a buffer to stressful life events (e.g., Coan, Schaefer, & Davidson, 2006; Treboux, Crowell, & Waters, 2004). Correspondingly, low quality marital bonds are predictive of depression (e.g., Beach & O'Leary, 1993) and marital dissolution (e.g., Huston et al., 2001). How much of this has to do specifically with romantic love? A study comparing normative versus distressed married couples in long term relationships found that "love" (defined as a deep emotional bond, mutual caring and attraction, together with trust and closeness) ranked as the highest of 19 variables discriminating between the normative and distressed groups (Riehl-Emde, Thomas, & Willi, 2003). Other studies have also suggested strong and significant links between

romantic love with overall happiness in life (Aron & Henkemeyer, 1995), and lower psychological symptoms, greater life satisfaction, and better physical health (Traupmann, Eckels, & Hatfield, 1982).

Self-esteem. Several theorists have suggested self-esteem plays an important role in relationships and specifically in relation to romantic love. For example, Hendrick and Hendrick (1992) describe Eros (romantic love) as “self-confidence and high self-esteem which allow an intense, exclusive focus on a partner but not possessiveness or jealousy” (p. 64). In contrast, Mania (obsession) is described as being full of insecurity and doubt and related to relationship turbulence, dissatisfaction, and obsession. Consistent with this idea, several studies report that self-esteem is moderately positively associated with higher Eros and lower Mania scores (e.g., Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, Hendrick, 1988). The direction of causality could be from self-esteem to love. For example, adults classified as “secure” according to attachment theory models, tend to report higher self-esteem (e.g., Feeney & Noller, 1990; Treboux et al., 2004), and endorse mutual support and development (e.g., Ainsworth, 1991; Crowell, Treboux, & Waters, 2002). Thus, having the felt security that a partner is “there for you,” not only makes for a smooth functioning relationship but also may facilitate feelings of romantic love. In contrast, individuals classified as insecure are less effective at using and providing a consistent secure base for their partners, have lower satisfaction and greater conflict in relationships, and also report lower self-esteem. Such events may heighten feelings of insecurity about the relationship, and could manifest as obsessive love.

Rationale of Present Study

Marriage remains the foundation for all family relationships. It has been often described as the most vital and fundamental human relationship since it provides the primary structure and viable basis for establishing a family relationship and nurturing the next generation (Larson & Holman, 1994). More over the significance and affects of marriage in the daily life of an individual has also been widely accepted and documented. According to Aldous (1996), a good marriage provides individuals with a sense of purpose and identity of their lives. A large collection of studies has demonstrated that people are generally happier and healthier when they are married (Orbuch & Custer, 1995; Gottman, 1994; White, 1994; Kelly & Conley, 1987). The Researcher thus aims to study in depth the variable that has such important and pertinent role to play in a developed society at one end and for an individual at the other end.

There is no denying the fact that despite the significance of marriage for the society and individuals, unfortunately there is high divorce rate which continues to accelerate the world over including Pakistan. Divorce rate is particularly high in educated couples. In spite marriage being overtly a highly desirable proposition, recent and past statistics reveal that marital satisfaction is not easily achieved. It is apparent from the consistently high divorce rate, that there is little known about ways and means to achieve and maintain a sufficient level of marital satisfaction to assure marital success (Schvaneveldt & Young, 1992; Thomas & Arcus, 1992). The researcher thus aims to discern, identify and describe the relevant factors that enhance

the marital quality. Also, as educated married couples in Pakistan have more marital problems so they would best suited to help in understanding the concepts related to marriage.

It has also been observed that there are missing links in existing social literature on the subject and the researcher aims to fill in these crevices. There are numerous terms available in literature for marital happiness like adjustment, satisfaction, stability and quality (Nye, 1988; Spanier & Lewis, 1980) and still scholars continue to argue which term is appropriate and how it should be defined. Past scholars have pointed out that several methodological and theoretical issues that need further elaborations and modifications. For example, initial issue is that the subject suffers from a definitional vagueness (Adams, 1988; McKenry & Price, 1984; Eshelman, 1981; Spanier & Lewis, 1980). An objective of the current study is to find out how married couples in Pakistan understand and define marital quality. This will enable the researcher to tackle the problem of definitional ambiguity and lay the firm basis to assist subsequent discourse objectives. Next important concern has been lack of a sound theoretical foundation (Adams, 1988; Fincham & Bradbury, 1987; Spanier & Lewis, 1980). Researcher as a result aims to address this issue by outlining early and recent theories explaining marital quality. Third important issue is that a single or limited number of independent variables are being tested by inquisitors in their studies (Spanier & Lewis, 1980; Hicks & Platt, 1970), and culturally and economically biased samples restricted to white middle class and college educated respondents have been studied (Adams, 1988; McKenry & Price, 1984; Donahue & Ryder, 1982). The current work specifically aims to focus on all those factors that are considered important by married couples living in Pakistan for achieving high marital quality.

Further, different studies have shown contrasting psychosocial factors as determinants of marital quality but they have studied various aspects independently (Dainton & Aylor, 2002; Rahim, 2002; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Fenell, 1993; Gottman, 1979; Glenn & Weaver, 1978). In addition there has been conflicting evidence regarding the effects of several key demographic variables on marital happiness and satisfaction. In particular there is conflicting evidence regarding the role of such factors as socioeconomic status (Glenn & Weaver, 1978), wives' employment outside the home (Hoffman, 1989), presence or absence of children (Abbott & Broady, 1985; Glenn & McLanahan, 1982), age at marriage and longevity of marriage (Glenn & Weaver, 1978) on marital quality. Thus, the aim was to fulfill the gap in existing literature as no comprehensive theory or research has studied all the factors.

Though, some existing studies, as discussed earlier have shown various factors as determinants of marital quality separately focusing on one or two variables, but none of the study has explored multiple factors contributing to marital quality comprehensively in one research. Further, present study has also explored qualitatively that Pakistani couples do not give importance to friendship as a significant predictor of marital quality; whereas western studies have empirically established role of friendship in marital quality (Grote & Frieze, 1994) in the same way some mixed opinions were also found in focus group discussions about other variables as well. Therefore, in present study, the researcher aims to give a comprehensive and vivid picture for pakistani data. The objective is also to examine

the role of demographic variables in predicting husbands' and wives' marital quality within the confines of such a society.

Another prominent concern of analysts has been that there are various measurement biases and problems (Snyder & Smith, 1986; Norton, 1983; Spanier, 1976). In the current study this matter has also been dealt with. Although various instruments have been extensively used, still the vast majority of literature on marital quality focuses on Western contexts. As a result the developed instruments might retain some elements of bias. There is a growing interest in marital quality and its determinants for non-Western contexts and there are now studies that examine marital quality in Cameroon (Gwanfogbe et al., 1997), Turkey (Fisiloglu & Demir, 2000), Bolivia (Orgill & Heaton, 2005), and China (Pimentel, 2000), among others. Yet little is known or available about Pakistani culture. This expanded exegesis on marital quality within Non-Western contexts raises both new challenges and opportunities for elucidation on marital quality. Underlying this research on marital quality is the challenge of operationalising and measuring marital quality and its determinants. The Researcher intends to identify instruments that could be utilised to measure marital quality and its determinants. It is also essential to find out the factor structure that exists for Pakistani culture. The intent is to extend the available knowledge and to establish similar or different patterns of findings specific to Pakistan. This will hopefully facilitate to provide important knowledge about culture specific aspects of marital quality and its determinants. To achieve this objective it was significant to see how well the existing structure of scales is confirmed and validated for the sample of

the present study. Consequently, the dissertation focused on establishing the validity of already developed scales that measure marital quality and its determinants.

In summation, there is tremendous need for greater integration of theory, research and application in the area of marital relationships (Lavee, 1988; Nye, 1988). The researcher has striven to focus upon the institution of marriage and its determinants in sufficient profundity since it has an overwhelming impact upon an individual as well as the human society. The researcher thus aims to distinguish, ascertain and explain the pertinent variables that augment and impact upon the marital quality. It has been observed that there remain certain abstract linkages in current social literature on the subject and the research aims to cover these fissures as best as possible. It is also the intention to clarify some of the important terms related to marital happiness on which there is still serious debate and no consensus has been achieved amongst the social scholars. The intent of the research is to establish how married couples in Pakistan perceive and characterize marital quality and remove any cobwebs on this subject. The researcher aims to address the issues identified in the preceding discussion related to marital quality and its determinants sequentially.

**OBJECTIVES, OPERATIONAL
DEFINITIONS AND RESEARCH
DESIGN**

OBJECTIVES, OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Objectives

The present study was carried out to find out the psychosocial determinants of marital quality among married couples. Broadly, following were objectives of present study:

1. To study perception of marital quality by Pakistani couples living in Rawalpindi and Islamabad.
2. To identify psychosocial factors leading to marital quality.
3. To determine the factor structure of measures of study variables on Pakistani sample.
4. To find out role of demographic variables (i.e. gender, education, duration of marriage, number of children, financial status, and family system i.e. nuclear or joint family) in marital quality.
5. To test the models of relationship between psychosocial factors (Communication patterns, marital emotion work, commitment, attachment, conflict handling, forgiveness, friendship, and romance) and marital quality.
6. To test the models of relationship between demographic variables (i.e; gender, education, duration of marriage, number of children, financial status, and family system i.e. nuclear or joint family) and marital quality.

Operational Definitions of Variables

Marital quality. Marital quality is an overall evaluation of the functioning of the marriage (Spanier, 1988). Spanier (1976) measured marital quality as degree of dyadic consensus, affectional expression, dyadic satisfaction, and dyadic cohesion. Dyadic consensus is the extent of agreement between partners on matters important to the relationship, such as money, religion, recreation, friends, household tasks and time spent together. Dyadic satisfaction is the amount of tension in the relationship, as well as the extent to which the individual has considered ending the relationship. Affectional expression is the individual's satisfaction with the expression of affection and sex in the relationship. Dyadic cohesion is the common interests and activities shared by the couple.

In the present study marital quality is measured by using Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) as a unidimensional instrument, consisting up of 29 items. Higher scores represent higher marital quality.

Commitment. Commitment is based on global assessments of an individual's desire or intent to remain in a relationship (Adams & Jones, 1997). In interpersonal context, commitment is defined as a cognitive-affective process that contributes to an individual's decision to endure or persist in his or her relationship (Johnson, 1991; Kelley, 1983). In the present study commitment was assessed in terms of Commitment to Spouse, Commitment to Marriage, and Feelings of Entrapment by using Dimensions of Commitment Inventory (Adams & Jones, 1997), consisting of 24 items. This is a five-point rating scale with 5 indicating strongly agree and 1 indicating strongly disagree. Score on subscales were used to determine the dominant

commitment type among respondents. Adams and Jones (1997) defined the three commitment types as:

Commitment to spouse. It reflects feelings of attraction devotion and satisfaction towards one's partner.

Commitment to marriage. It reflects a sense of obligation and duty to honour the marriage vows and persist in the relationship.

Feelings of entrapment. It reflects a desire to avoid certain negative consequences that dissolution of relationship would spawn, such as disapproval of family, friends, the loss of important investment in the relationship, and feelings of embarrassment and shame.

Forgiveness. Forgiveness is willingness to abandon one's right to resentment, negative judgement, and indifferent behaviour toward one who unjustly injured us, while fostering the undeserved qualities of compassion, generosity, and even love toward him or her (Enright & The Human Development Study Group, 1991). In the present study forgiveness is measured through Trait Forgiveness Scale (Berry, Worthington, O'Connor, Parrott, & Wade, 2005), consisting of 8 items. This is a five-point rating scale with 5 indicating strongly agree and 1 indicating strongly disagree. Scores represent extent to which forgiveness trait is present in the respondents.

Communication pattern. Communication is the process of transferring information from a sender to a receiver with the use of a medium in which the communicated information is understood by both sender and receiver. In the present study communication patterns are measured through short form of Communication Patterns Questionnaire (Christensen and Sullaway, 1984), consisting of 14 items. The three communication patterns are measured in the present research, which are defined as (Sasanpour, Shahverdyan, & Ahmadi, 2012):

Mutual constructive communication. Both partners in the couple try to communicate about the problem, they discuss their feelings toward each other and express and propose solutions to the problems. Both partners feel that they understood each other.

Demand-withdraw communication. One partner tries to drag the other one in an issue by criticizing, nagging or proposing some changes while the other one tries not to talk at all, to change the subject in order to avoid discussing the subject, or to remain silent.

Mutual avoidance and withholding pattern. Both partners try to avoid, withhold and withdraw after discussing an issue.

Marital emotion work. Hochschild (1979, 1983) defined marital emotion work as any effort of individuals to express positive emotion toward the spouses, to be attentive to the dynamics of their relationship and the needs of their spouses, or to set aside time for activities focused specifically on their relationship. In the present

study Husbands' and Wives' Emotion Work scale (Erickson, 1993) was used and it was decided to take two ratings. The first rating was termed as marital emotion work (self) which showed how much the respondent believed that he/ she engages in marital emotion work. The second rating was termed as marital emotion work (spouse) which showed how much the respondent believed that his/ her spouse engages in marital emotion work.

Conflict handling. Conflict is an extremely broad term used to refer to any situation where there are mutually antagonistic events, motives, purposes, behaviours, impulses, etc (Reber, 1983). Conflict handling is how one deals with conflict. In the present study four conflict handling styles are measured through Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (Rahim, 1983), consisting of 30 items. The scores on the subscales reflected the extent to which an individual is making use of that particular conflict resolution strategy. These conflict handling styles are defined as (Rahim, 1983, 2001):

Integrating style. It reflects high concern for self and others. It involves openness, exchange of information, and examination of differences to reach an effective solution acceptable to both parties.

Obliging and compromising style. Obliging style reflects low concern for self and high concern for others. This style is associated with attempting to play down the differences and emphasizing commonalities to satisfy the concern of the other party. Compromising style intermediates in concern for self and others and involves give-

and-take whereby both parties give up something to make a mutually acceptable decision.

Dominating style. It reflects high concern for self and low concern for others. It has been identified with win–lose orientation or with forcing behavior to win one's position.

Avoiding style. It reflects low concern for self and others and has been associated with withdrawal, buck-passing, or sidestepping situations.

Attachment. Attachment has been described as an affectional tie that one person or animal forms between him/herself and another specific one (usually the parent) — a tie that binds them together in space and endures over time (Ainsworth, Bell, & Stayton, 1974). In the present study two attachment styles are measured through The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire (Fraley, Waller, and Brennan, 2000). This is a five-point rating scale with 5 indicating strongly agree and 1 indicating strongly disagree. The two attachment styles are defined as:

Attachment related anxiety. It reflects the extent to which people are insecure about their partner's availability and responsiveness.

Attachment related avoidance. It reflects the extent to which people are uncomfortable being close to and feel secure depending on their partner.

Friendship and romance. In the present study Friendship and Romance will be measured through the Eros and Storge sub-scales which are included Love

Attitude Scale: Short Form (Hendrick, Hendrick, & Dicke, 1998). The two styles of love are defined as (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1992):

Eros or romantic love. It indicates an intense and focused desire for union with the beloved, without obsession.

Storge or friendship love. It indicates a feeling of natural affection, a secure, trusting, friendship (often experienced toward siblings or friends) that does not involve sexual desire.

Research Design

Present study was completed in three phases.

Phase I. The aim of this phase was to find out the definition and determinants of marital quality and also to find out how they would be measured. This part of the study was completed in three steps. The description of these steps is given below.

Step I. Literature review was done to find out definitions of marital quality its determinants in general. Focus groups were conducted to find out definitions of marital quality its determinants according to married individuals and couples living in Rawalpindi and Islamabad.

Step II. Identification of instruments was done to find out the instruments that will be used to measure marital quality and its determinants. Try out of the selected

instruments was done to see comprehension and understanding of the participants for these instruments.

Step III. Based on the feedback of participants in step II, modification and finalization of instruments was done in the finest possible manner keeping the contextual significance intact.

Phase II. The aim of this phase was to find out the factor structure, reliability and validity of the instruments. This part of the study was completed in two steps. The description of these steps is given below.

Step I. Determination of factor structure of the instruments was done to find out the factor structure that exists for Pakistani sample.

Step II. Confirmation of factor structure, estimation of psychometric properties and validation of instruments was done for Pakistani sample.

Phase III. The aim of this phase was hypotheses testing to find out psychosocial determinants of marital quality. This part of the study was completed in two steps. The description of these steps is given below.

Step I. Role of psychosocial factors was studied to find out relationships among different study variables.

Step II. Final step of the present study consisted up of model testing through structural equation modelling. The aim was to test the proposed models of relationships between psychosocial factors (i.e., forgiveness, commitment, marital emotion work, communication pattern, attachment, marital conflicts, romance, and friendship), demographic variables (i.e., gender, education, duration of marriage, number of children, financial status, and family system i.e. nuclear or joint family) and marital quality for married couples.

**PHASE I:
IDENTIFICATION, TRY OUT AND
FINALIZATION OF INSTRUMENTS**

PHASE I: IDENTIFICATION, TRY OUT AND FINALIZATION OF INSTRUMENTS

Objectives

Following were the objectives of phase I:

1. To find out definition and determinants of marital quality.
2. To identify and try out measures that will be used to study different research variables.
3. To modify and finalize the measures.

In order to meet these objectives following steps were taken:

Step I: Definition and Determinants of Marital Quality

Extensive literature review was done to find out how marital quality is defined, and what its determinants are in general. It was found that marital quality is defined as the subjective evaluation of a married couple's relationship on a number of dimensions and evaluations (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). Several studies have revealed that number of different factors determine marital quality. Out of all factors most consistent determinants are communication pattern (Gottman, 1994; Gottman, 1979; Glenn & Weaver, 1978), marital emotion work (Erickson, 2005; Daniels, 1987; Hochschild, 1983), commitment (Dainton & Aylor, 2002; Stafford, Dainton, & Haas,

2000; Adams & Jones, 1997), attachment (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Hazan & Shaver, 1987), conflict handling (Rahim, 2002; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979), forgiveness (Exline et al., 2004; Karremans et al., 2003; Fenell, 1993) and friendship and romance (Aron & Acevedo, 2009; Hatfield & Rapson, 1993; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1992).

This provided the researcher with base line information. But this information mostly dealt with perception of western society regarding marital quality and its determinants. In order to find out how marital quality is defined by married individuals and couples living in Rawalpindi and Islamabad, and what according to them its determinants are, four focus groups were conducted.

Sample

The participants of the first focus group comprised of 10 married women with age range 29-40 years ($M = 33$, $SD = 5.2$) and duration of their married life 4 years to 17 years ($M = 7$, $SD = 2.3$). The second focus group was conducted with 8 married men who had been married for 2 to 13 years ($M = 6$, $SD = 2.2$), with age range 30- 40 years ($M = 34$, $SD = 4.4$). Participants of the third focus group included 4 married couples with age range 26-40 years ($M = 33$, $SD = 7.2$) and duration of married life 6 to 22 years ($M = 10$, $SD = 3.6$). Fourth focus group was composed of 8 experts who had research experience in the area of marital relationship with age range 36-45 years ($M = 39$, $SD = 8.1$). The duration of their married life was from 6 years to 20 years ($M = 12$, $SD = 5.3$). All the participants had at least fourteen years of formal education having at least 1 child and were from Rawalpindi and Islamabad.

Procedure

The participants were approached individually and after having their consent for participation they were included in the focus group. The sessions lasted for 60-90 minutes ($M = 70$, $SD = 15.5$). Three general guidelines were given which included the following domains for the focus group discussions:

1. Understanding of marital quality in general.
2. Understanding of the factors that enhance marital quality in particular.
3. Understanding of the factors that decrease marital quality in particular.

The participants in each focus group were asked to introduce themselves to each other. They were given oral instructions about the objectives of the focus group. They were explained the general rules and discussion guidelines i.e., the importance of everyone speaking up, talking one at a time, etc. The participants were encouraged to share their maximum observations. They were given assurance of confidentiality of their opinion and comments. All the guidelines were open and neutral and all the participants were given instructions that there were no right or wrong answers and that they should pay respect to other participants and the opinion they have. The moderator was a PhD scholar who kept the group focused to generate lively and productive discussions. The moderator had good communication skills and she was able to obtain a balanced input from a diverse group of people. At the end the participants were acknowledged for their cooperation and participation.

Results

Focus group 1. During the first session, all the women actively participated in the discussion, though at times the discussion lost its focus because the women were quoting detailed personal examples. So the researcher had to intervene in order to keep the discussion purposeful. For women, marital quality was “how happy or satisfied you are in your marriage” or “how special you feel in your relationship.” Women emphasized on having a long term relationship. They believed that once one knows that one is in a long term relationship, one automatically starts to put in more and in this way relationship flourishes. They also pointed out that commitment should be mutual. They said that at times men start to take them for granted which spoils the relationship and decreases marital quality. For women, romance was something that boosts commitment and marital quality. One of the women said “I do not want anything else from my husband but his eyes should always have love for me. It assures me that he is happy and I am married to the right person”.

Following information was obtained from focus group discussion.

- Marital quality was defined as how happy or satisfied individuals were in their marital relationships.
- Women were open and comfortable talking about marriage and they relied on personal experiences while conveying their point of view.
- According to participants commitment played a very important role in marital quality and its impact was even more when it was shared by both husband and wife.

- Women considered romance as a stimulating factor to increase both commitment and marital quality.
- Women believed that children are very important for survival of marital relationship. They pointed out that children strengthen women's position in in-laws.

Focus group 2. Few of the participants were initially not contributing much in the discussion during the second focus group. The researcher ensured them that their provided information would be confidential and nothing that could possibly reveal their identities would be disclosed. After that it became a healthy discussion in which everyone participated. They were more general in their approach and rarely gave personal examples. For men, marital quality was "how comfortable you are with your partner and how much space you are getting". For some men friendship was the most important thing in a marital relationship. Some other men said that every man needs space in his marital relationship and he cannot have that if his wife is his friend. They said that men would never enjoy their lives as men if they would tell their wives each and every thing. While other men negated them and said that if the wife is a man's good friend then he would want to enjoy his life with her as a family and not alone as a man. They believed that conflicts arise in every marriage but how one handles them is what matters. One of the participants said that "a wise woman is one who knows how to say no to her husband". They said that relationship with in-laws is also very important. As it is the girl who comes in to a new family, it is her responsibility that she adjusts there and works to make in-laws and their family friends and relatives happy. They also pointed out that if individuals can learn to take things lightly then

this would also improve the quality of their married life. They stated that a good sense of humour can be helpful in this regard.

Following information was gained from focus group discussion.

- Marital quality was defined by men as being comfortable in the marital relationship and having enough personal space.
- Few participants considered friendship as important contributor of marital quality. On the other hand, there was a section of the group that was totally against friendship and considered it as a factor that can hamper marital quality.
- Participants were not comfortable talking about their personal experiences and preferred to participate in the discussion as general. Even when they gave examples they preferably mentioned experiences of their friends and avoided mentioning their wives.
- Married men believed that conflicts arise in all marriages and good conflict management skills enhance marital quality.
- Healthy relationships with in-laws enhance marital quality.
- Good sense of humour enables individuals to humour in different situations of married life which in turn increases marital quality.
- Participants repeatedly emphasized that women should take more responsibility in enhancing the quality of marriage. They should change themselves according to the rules of their new family and make more compromises.

Focus group 3. During the third session the participants actively participated in discussion and there was continuous flow of information as members of both the gender were present but it was obvious that they were not talking about the intimate

aspects of marriage. When the researcher specifically asked them to discuss that area, they humbly refused by saying that the researcher could ask them separately because it would be embarrassing for them to discuss all that in front of their spouses. Couples defined marital quality as “extent of happiness or satisfaction in marriage”. They pointed out that both men and women have to make compromises in their marriage. One of them said that “it is two equal individuals that we are talking about who have their own personalities”. They said that all married individuals make mistakes and a lasting relationship is one in which the spouses would forgive each others mistakes. They also added that these mistakes can even help to improve their relationship if they can learn from them. Friendship was also identified as an important factor that enhances marital quality. They said that when one can talk freely with one’s spouse, share activities, enjoy each others company, then one can say that it is a happy marriage. Discussion and agreement on important issues e.g. financial matters, children, recreational activities, etc were also regarded significant.

Following results were obtained from focus group discussion.

- Couples defined marital quality as the extent of happiness or satisfaction in marriage.
- Marital relationship involves two individuals who are equal but with different personalities.
- Couples were of the opinion that compromises are an integral part of marriage and both men and women have to make compromises.
- Both men and women agreed that married individuals make mistakes in their marriages and if handled properly these mistakes can actually prove to be beneficial for the marital relationship.

- Forgiveness and friendship enhances marital quality.
- Both men and women agreed that constructive communication between husband and wife is the key ingredient of superior marital quality.
- Participants pointed out that couples who share activities and enjoy each other's company have higher marital quality.
- Participants were of the opinion that being able to discuss and agree on issues like financial matters, children, and recreational activities is vital for improving marital quality.

Focus group 4. All the experts actively participated in the discussion during the fourth session. According to experts, marital quality is a “complex and subjective phenomena that is combination of many factors”. They pointed out that healthy relationship is one where both partners understand each other. Thus one could study the factors that lead to misunderstandings and who are the main players. Awareness of all these factors could help to improve the relationship. Experts stressed upon certain personal factors as commitment, forgiveness, care, appreciation, etc. they said that research has found that all these factors contribute to enhance marital quality. They pointed out that marriage in our culture is more than a relationship between two individuals. They discussed the role of families from both sides. They also talked about the role of friends and colleagues especially if both spouses are working. Moreover, they said that education and socioeconomic background of individuals is also crucial in determining how the individuals would handle things in their marriage. They declared that marriage is a continuous learning process and said that if they can learn to handle conflicts effectively then this would surely enhance marital quality.

They told that there are two aspects of a marriage; emotional and physical. High marital quality means that the spouses are emotionally investing and at the same time they are taking initiative and expressing satisfaction with the physical aspect. They said that according to research when married individuals feel secure in their relationship, they trust their partners and never let petty issues ruin their relationship. One of the experts said: “it is like a mature friendship where two individuals are best of friends, who let each other go because they know for sure that he/she would come back. So they have their own identities and yet they are always together”.

Following results were attained from focus group discussion.

- Participants defined marital quality as a “complex and subjective phenomena. They believed that combination of many factors enhance marital quality.
- Experts stressed upon certain personal factors as commitment, forgiveness, care, appreciation, education, socioeconomic background, conflict management and understanding between partners as stimulators of marital quality.
- According to participants, marriage in our culture is more than a relationship between two individuals. Role of wife’s parents was declared as important as husband’s parents.
- Participants pointed out that there are two facets of marriage; emotional and physical which are equally important for high marital quality.
- Friendship and trust were also regarded as essential for high marital quality.

Conclusion

The definitions given by the participants helped the researcher to develop understanding of the concept marital quality. In sum, marital quality was explained as a subjective phenomenon that depicts satisfaction in one's marital relationship and agreement between partners regarding various aspects of relationship. Several factors were identified through focus group discussions as determinants of marital quality. These included commitment, forgiveness, communication patterns, marital emotion work, conflict handling, attachment, friendship, romance, education, children, financial status, duration of marriage, and family system.

Step II: Identification and Try out of Instruments

Objectives

1. To identify the instruments to measure marital quality and its determinants.
2. To try out instruments to see their cultural relevance and comprehension.

Sample

Initially, sample consisted of 400 married individuals who were given the items booklet but response rate was very low and 112 individuals with age range 20-45 years ($M = 29$, $SD = 8.7$) returned the completed booklets. Participants were selected using purposive sampling technique. Only those individuals were selected

who had been married for at least 2 year to 25 years. All the participants had at least fourteen years of formal education having at least 1 child and were from Rawalpindi and Islamabad.

Instruments

Eight scales were identified which included Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Dimensions of Commitment Inventory, Trait Forgivingness Scale, Communication Patterns Questionnaire, and Husbands 'And Wives' Emotion Work scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire, Eros and Storge sub-scales of the short form of the Love Attitude Scale.

Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976). The DAS is a 32- item instrument that assesses the quality of marital or romantic relationships (see Appendix A). The items on this scale are divided into four subscales to measure degree of dyadic consensus, affectional expression, dyadic satisfaction, and dyadic cohesion. The scale yields separate scores on the 4 sub-scales. The number of statements in each of the sub-scale is not equal. Dyadic Consensus subscale contains 13 items (1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15). Dyadic Satisfaction subscale has 10 items (16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 31, and 32). Dyadic Cohesion subscale consists of 5 items (24-28). Affectional Expression subscale contains 4 items (4, 6, 29, and 30).

Responses format varies across the 32 items and includes 5, 6 and 7 point Likert scale questions and 2 yes/no items. Item no. 1 – 15 are scored as 6-point Likert type

items, zero score is given when “always disagree” is selected and a score of 5 is given when “always agree” is selected. Item no. 16-22 are also scored as 6-point Likert type items, but here zero score is given when “all the time” is selected and a score of 5 is given when “never” is selected. Item no. 23 and 24 are scored as 5-point Likert type items, zero score is given when “never” or “none of them” is selected and a score of 4 is given when “every day” or “all of them” is selected. Item no. 25 – 28 are scored as 6-point Likert type items, zero score is given when “never” is selected and a score of 5 is given when “more often” is selected. Options for item no. 29 and 30 are “yes” or “no”. The total score ranges from 0 – 151. Lower scores indicate poorer dyadic adjustment. For item no. 31 a score of 1 is given when “extremely unhappy” is selected and a score of 7 is given when “perfect” is selected.

Dimensions of Commitment Inventory (Adams & Jones, 1997). The DCI is a 45- item instrument (see Appendix B), consisting of three sub-scales: Commitment to Spouse, Commitment to Marriage, and Feelings of Entrapment. Each item is scored 1-5; a score of 1 is given to “strongly disagree” and a score of 5 is given to “strongly agree”. Few items are scored in reverse direction. These include the following items: 11, 12, 16, 24, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 35, 36, 37, 39, and 45. These are items worded negatively about marital commitment. The DCI subscale scores are computed by summing across the appropriate items. Commitment to Spouse is obtained from item no. 1, 4, 8, 11, 14, 18, 19, 25, 26, 28, 29, 33, 37, 39, and 45. Commitment to Marriage is calculated from item no. 3, 9, 13, 16, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, 31, 32, 35, 36, 38, and 42. Feelings of Entrapment is obtained by adding item no. 2, 5, 6, 7, 10, 12, 15, 17, 20, 30, 34, 40, 41, 43, 44. The higher score on DCI indicate higher marital commitment.

Trait Forgivingness Scale (Berry, Worthington, O'Connor, Parrott, & Wade, 2005). TFS is a one-dimensional trait scale measuring one's self-reported disposition to be forgiving of interpersonal transgressions (see Appendix C). It assesses a respondent's self-appraisal of his or her proneness to forgive interpersonal transgressions. This instrument contains 10 items scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). The Trait Forgivingness Scale (TFS) has a range of 10 to 50; high scores indicate high trait forgivingness. Scoring is done by Reverse-scoring items 1, 3, 6, 7, 8, and then adding the score obtained on the 10 items.

Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (Rahim, 1983). ROCI-II was originally developed to delineate 5 interpersonal conflict resolution strategies, namely integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising, in business settings. These 5 areas are combinations of 2 dimensions, concern for others and concern for self. Thus, each style refers to a specific combination of the individual's concern for self and concern for others. Interpersonal conflict as defined by Rahim (2001), "...refers to the manifestation of incompatibility, disagreement, or difference between two or more interacting individuals".

For research purposes modified version of this scale was used which measures how one generally handles conflict with one's partner. The ROCI-II is comprised of 35 items scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale (see Appendix D). The response options vary from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" where a score of 5 is given to "strongly agree" and a score of 1 is given to "strongly disagree". The ROCI-II scores are computed by summing across the appropriate items. Thus 5 different scores

are obtained in total and each score indicates whether the individual is using more or less of that particular conflict resolution strategy while handling conflicts with one's partner. Integrating conflict resolution style is obtained from item no. 1, 4, 6, 15, 28, 29, and 35. Avoiding conflict resolution style is calculated from item no. 3, 7, 22, 23, 32, 33, and 34. Dominating conflict resolution style is obtained by adding scores on item no. 8, 10, 11, 18, 24, 27, and 31. Obliging conflict resolution style is obtained from item no. 2, 12, 13, 16, 17, 25, and 30. Compromising conflict resolution style is calculated from item no. 5, 9, 14, 19, 20, 21, and 26.

The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000). ECR-R comprise of 36 items and two sub-scales: attachment-related anxiety scale and attachment-related avoidance scale (see Appendix E). Originally, each item was coded 1-7 (1= strongly disagree, 7= strongly agree) but for convenience of the sample the response categories were reduced (with author's permission) from 7 to 5. So now the response options vary from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" where a score of 5 is given to "strongly agree" and a score of 1 is given to "strongly disagree".

The first 18 items comprise the attachment-related anxiety scale. Items 19 – 36 comprise the attachment-related avoidance scale. To obtain a score for attachment-related *anxiety*, a person's responses to items 1 – 18 are averaged. However, because items 9 and 11 are "reverse keyed" (i.e., high numbers represent low anxiety rather than high anxiety), the answers to those questions are reversed before averaging the responses.

To obtain a score for attachment-related *avoidance*, a person's responses to items 19 – 36 are averaged. Items 20, 22, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 34, 35, and 36 will need to be reverse keyed before computing the average. Individuals with secured attachment will score low on both these sub-scales. Dismissing individual will score high on both the sub-scales. Fearful individual will score high on avoidance and low on anxiety. Preoccupied individual will score low on avoidance and high on anxiety.

Husbands' and Wives' Emotion Work (Erickson, 1993). HWEW is a one-dimensional scale with 15 items. Originally, each item was coded 1-7 (1=never, 7=always) but for convenience of the sample the response categories were reduced (with author's permission) from 7 to 5. Now it is a 5-point Likert type scale and the statements are scored on a rating scale ranging from "never" to "always". A score of 1 is given to "never" and a score of 5 is given to "always".

The scale has two parts. First part assesses how often the respondent engages in acts of Emotion Work (see Appendix F1). Whereas the second part assesses how often the respondent says that his/her spouse engages in acts of Emotion Work (see Appendix F2). Higher scores indicate respondents' or his/her spouses' higher Emotion Work.

Communication Patterns Questionnaire: short form (Christensen & Sullaway, 1984). The short form of CPQ assesses the interaction patterns of couples during conflict (see Appendix G). The scale generates scores on following sub-scales: Mutual Constructive Communication, demand-withdraw communication, and Mutual Avoidance and Withholding. Originally the scale had 9 response options but the

feedback gathered from pretesting revealed that the options were confusing the respondents and were difficult for them to understand. The matter was discussed with the authors and with their permission the response options were reduced to 5. So now it is a 5-point Likert type scale and the statements are scored on a rating scale ranging from “very unlikely” to “very likely”. A score of 1 is given to “very unlikely” and a score of 5 is given to “very likely”.

Mutual Constructive Communication is calculated by adding scores obtained on item no 2, 5, 6, 11, and 13. Man demand/woman withdraw communication is calculated by adding scores on item no. 3, 7, and 9. Woman demand/man withdraw communication is obtained through adding scores on item no. 4, 8, and 10. Mutual Avoidance and Withholding pattern is obtained from adding scores on item no.1, 12 and 14.

Love Attitude Scale: Short Form (Hendrick, Hendrick, & Dicke, 1998).

This scale consists of 6 sub-scales, out of which 2 sub-scales will be used for research purposes. The two sub-scales contain 8 items and each item is rated on a 5-point scale (see Appendix H). 1 on response scale means strongly disagree and 5 means strongly agree. To find out whether Eros (romanticism) or Storge (friendship) love style is present or not, ratings for the items in each sub-scale is added up and the total is then divided by four.

If the respondent will score high on one of the two sub-scales then this will indicate that his/her relationship is characterized by one particular style of love. On the other hand if the respondent will score high on both the sub-scales then this would

mean that his/her love style is much more complex and is characterized by both friendship and romanticism.

Personal and Demographic Data Sheet. In addition, demographic information like sex, years of education, financial status, duration of married life, number of children, and family system was also collected (see Appendix I).

Procedure

Participants were approached at their homes or work places. After having their consent the booklet was handed over to the respondents. They were asked to read each item of the booklet carefully and indicate if any of the items was culturally inappropriate or difficult to understand. They were asked to encircle or underline the inappropriate or difficult words or items. They were ensured that their provided information would be kept confidential and would only be used for research purposes.

Results

It was found that all the items are culturally relevant but there are too many items to retain attention and that a lot of time is required to complete the booklet. In addition few items were not easily understandable because words in these items were pointed out by the sample as difficult. Difficulty was with Dyadic Adjustment Scale's item no. 7, 8, 18, 19, and 28; Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory's item no. 3, 5, 14, 17, 20, and 23; Dimensions of Commitment Inventory's item no. 22 and 23; and Communication Patterns Questionnaire's item no. 7 and 8.

Step III: Modification and Finalization of Instruments

Objective

1. To modify and finalize the measures.

Modification and finalization of instruments was done through three committee approaches. The committee consisted of 5 members (4 PhD students and 1 professor) which reviewed and finalized the modifications. First committee decided that none of the items will be deleted but scales needed modifications. Second committee suggested different literal meaning of difficult words that could be used. Third committee finalized which literal meaning would be written within the parenthesis along with the difficult word.

The difficult items are given below with words identified as difficult are underlined and modifications approved by the committee are written within the parenthesis:

Original Item	Modified Item
Dyadic Adjustment Scale	
7 Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement and disagreement between you and your partner for Conventinality (correct or proper behavior)	Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement and disagreement between you and your partner for <u>Conventinality</u> (Traditionalism; Following the generally accepted practices esp. with regard to social behavior)

8	Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement and disagreement between you and your partner for Philosophy of life	Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement and disagreement between you and your partner for <u>Philosophy of life</u> (Way of life, Rules for living a life)
18	In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	In general, how often do you think that <u>things</u> (matters) between you and your partner are going well?
19	Do you confide in your mate?	Do you <u>confide</u> in (speak to in confidence, open your heart to) your mate?
28	How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate? Work together on a project	How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate? Work together on a <u>project</u> (task or activity)

Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory

3	I attempt to avoid being "put on the spot" and try to keep my conflict with my partner to myself.	I attempt to avoid being " <u>put on the spot</u> " (responding at the moment) and try to keep my conflict with my partner to myself.
5	I give some to get some.	I <u>give some to get some</u> . (I believe in give and take in my marital relationship)
14	I win some and I lose some.	I win some and I lose some. (At times I compromise and at times he/she compromises)
20	I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks	I usually propose a middle ground for breaking <u>deadlocks</u> (A point in which a disagreement can not be settled).

23	I avoid an encounter with my partner.	I avoid an <u>encounter</u> (to meet or deal with something bad) with my partner.
Dimensions of Commitment Inventory		
22	I believe in the sanctity of marriage.	I believe in the <u>sanctity</u> (Sacredness, Holiness) of marriage.
33	I often think that my spouse and I have too many irreconcilable differences.	I often think that my spouse and I have too many <u>irreconcilable</u> (which cannot be settled) differences.
Communication Patterns Questionnaire		
7	Husband nags and demands while Wife withdraws, becomes silent, or refuses to discuss the matter further.	Husband <u>nags</u> (Harass, to annoy or try to persuade someone by continuously finding fault & complaining) and demands while Wife withdraws, becomes silent, or refuses to discuss the matter further.

Two more suggestions were put forth for Communication Patterns Questionnaire:

1. The word "Man" should be replaced with "husband" & "Woman" should be replaced with "wife".
2. The words "Both members" should be replaced with "Both of us"

The finalized version was given to 3 experts (Psychology Professors). After their approval the researcher then moved to the next phase.

PHASE II:
DETERMINATION AND
CONFIRMATION OF FACTOR
STRUCTURE OF THE SCALES

PHASE II: DETERMINATION AND CONFIRMATION OF FACTOR STRUCTURE OF THE SCALES

Objectives

Following were the objectives of phase II:

1. To confirm and determine the factor structure and validate the instruments for Pakistani sample.
2. To determine the psychometric properties of the instruments for Pakistani sample.

In order to meet these objectives following steps were taken:

Step I: Determination of Factor Structure of the Scales

All the instruments used in the present study were already developed and standardized scales but the researcher still considered factor analysis to be vital. This is because it was necessary to find out the factor structure that exists for Pakistani culture.

Objective. To confirm the factor structure of the instruments for Pakistani sample through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Sample. A sample of 234 married individuals (117 couples) was selected from Rawalpindi and Islamabad. Participants were selected by using purposive sampling technique. Only those individuals were selected who had been married for at least

1 year to 25 years. Age range of the sample was from 22 – 55 years ($M= 36.93$, $SD= 7.2$). All the participants had at least 1 child and held at least bachelor's degree.

Procedure. Participants were approached at their homes or work places and briefed about the current study. Initially, information was obtained verbally to see whether they fit in to the research criteria. They were briefed about research and were assured that their provided information would be kept confidential and would only be used for research purposes. After having their consent the booklet was handed over to the respondents.

They were instructed to read each statement carefully and respond honestly to all items of the scales. The written instructions were reproduced verbally. The participants were briefed that there were no right or wrong answers to the statements, and that they were to select the option that was most accurate for them. There was no time limit to complete the questionnaires but they were encouraged to mark the first answer that would come to their mind. They were instructed to answer each and every item and to provide only one answer for each item. As the sample consisted of couple data, the researcher made certain that the respondent's answers were not influenced by his/her spouse. Mostly, the husbands and wives filled their respective booklets at the same time and they were instructed not to see each others' answers. On average it took 50 minutes to complete one booklet.

After the completion, the research booklets were inspected for missing data. In the end, respondents were thanked for their participation and cooperation.

Confirmatory factor analysis. For testing the dimensionality of the scales, items of all the instruments were factor analyzed through confirmatory factor analysis technique using AMOS 18. The findings helped in determining the structure of factors for married couples living in Rawalpindi and Islamabad and examined whether the constructs have same structure or they depict new patterns for Pakistani sample. CFA specifically relies on several statistical tests to determine the adequacy of model fit to the data. For present study also researcher considered widely used model fit indices (CMIN/df, CFI, NFI, TLI, and RMSEA) and factor loadings (.40 and above) as criterion to test the validity of the test items. CFI ranges from 0 to 1 with a larger value indicating better model fit. Acceptable model fit is indicated by a CFI value of 0.90 or greater (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The Normed Fit Index (NFI) compares the fit of a particular model to a baseline null model; values greater than 0.90 indicate a good fit (Bentler and Bonett 1980). The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI; Tucker and Lewis, 1973) is a nonnormed fit index that reflects model fit very well at all sample sizes (Bentler 1990). In accordance with Browne and Cudeck (1992), Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan (1999), MacCallum et al. (1996) and Steiger (1990), the RMSEA is interpreted as follows: Values of zero indicate perfect fit between the model and the data, values below .05 indicate good fit, values between .05 and .08 indicate fair fit, values between .08 and .10 mediocre fit, and values above .10 indicate poor fit. Matsunaga (2010), Bernard (1998) and Costello and Osborne (2005) suggested .40 as cut off criterion to determine whether or not a particular item loaded substantially on a factor.

Table 1*Factor Loadings of CFA for Dyadic Adjustment Scale*

Item no.	Items	Loadings
Dyadic Cohesion		
22	Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	.55
25	How often would you say you and your mate have a stimulating exchange of ideas?	.78
26	How often would you say you and your mate laugh together?	.78
27	How often would you say you and your mate calmly discuss something?	.87
28	How often would you say you and your mate work together on a project (task or activity)?	.86
Dyadic Satisfaction		
16	How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	.77
17	How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	.78
18	In general, how often do you think that things (matters) between you and your partner are going well?	.74
19	Do you confide in (speak to in confidence, open your heart to) your mate?	.66
20	Do you ever regret that you married (or lived together)?	.84
21	How often do you and your partner quarrel?	.87
22	How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	.82
23	Do you kiss your mate?	.66
31	The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy" represents the degree of happiness in most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered of your relationship.	.87

Continued...

Item no.	Items	Loadings
32	Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does. • I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does. • I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does. • It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed. • It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going. • My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going. 	.72
Dyadic Affection		
4	Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement and disagreement between you and your partner for Demonstrations of affection	.84
6	Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement and disagreement between you and your partner for Sex relations	.71
29	Indicate if being too tired for sex caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks	.58
30	Indicate if Not showing love caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks	.54
Dyadic Consensus		
Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement and disagreement between you and your partner for		
1	Handling family finances	.85
2	Matters of recreation	.87

Continued...

Item no.	Items	Loadings
	Friends	
5		.61
8	Philosophy of life (Way of life, Rules for living a life)	.57
9	Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws	.82
10	Aims, goals and things believed important	.51
11	Amount of time spent together	.78
12	Making major decisions	.64
13	Household tasks	.69
14	Leisure time interests and activities	.86
15	Career decisions	.57

Table 1 shows factor loadings of the scale items. It is evident that all the items fall within the acceptable range except for item no 3 and 7 which did not meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 2

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Indices	CMIN	Df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	1345.94	366	.847	.803	.818	.107

Table 2 showed unacceptable model fit indices for CFI= .84, TLI=.81, and RMSEA= .11.

Table 3*Factor Loadings of CFA for Trait Forgiveness Scale*

Item no.	Items	Loadings
1	People close to me probably think I hold a grudge too long.	.77
2	I can forgive a friend for almost anything.	.70
3	If someone treats me badly, I treat him or her the same.	.54
4	I try to forgive others even when they don't feel guilty for what they did.	.45
6	I feel bitter about many of my relationships.	.70
7	Even after I forgive someone, things often come back to me that I resent.	.72
8	There are some things for which I could never forgive even a loved one.	.55
10	I am a forgiving person.	.85

Table 3 shows factor loadings of the scale items. It is evident that all the items fall within the acceptable range except for item no 5 and 9 which did not meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 4*Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Trait Forgiveness Scale*

Indices	CMIN	Df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	17.823	11	.99	.98	.98	.052

Table 4 showed good model fit indices for CMIN/df=1.62, CFI=.99, NFI=.98, TLI= .98, and RMSEA= .05. These results indicated that TFS is statistically valid for measuring forgiveness.

Table 5*Factor Loadings of CFA for Communication Pattern Questionnaire: Short form*

Item no	Items	Loadings
Mutual avoidance and Withholding Pattern		
1	Both of us avoid discussing the problem.	.81
12	Both of us withdraw from each other after the discussion.	.87
14	Neither partner is giving to the other after the discussion.	.82
Mutual Constructive Pattern		
2	Both of us try to discuss the problem.	.89
5	Both of us express their feelings to each other.	.77
6	Both of us suggest possible solutions and compromises.	.92
11	Both feel each other has understood his/her position.	.91
13	Both of us feel that the problem has been solved.	.89
Man-demand Woman-withdraw Pattern		
3	Husband tries to start a discussion while Wife tries to avoid a discussion.	.83
7	Husband nags (Harass, to annoy or try to persuade someone by continuously finding fault & complaining) and demands while Wife withdraws, becomes silent, or refuses to discuss the matter further.	.78
9	Husband criticizes while Wife defends herself.	.85
Woman-demand Man-withdraw Pattern		
4	Wife tries to start a discussion while Husband tries to avoid a discussion.	.65

Continued...

Item no	Items	Loadings
8	Wife nags and demands while Husband withdraws, becomes silent, or refuses to discuss the matter further.	.74
10	Wife criticizes while Husband defends himself.	.71

Table 5 shows factor loadings of the scale items. It is evident that all the items fall within the acceptable range and meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 6

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Communication Pattern

Questionnaire: short form

Indices	CMIN	Df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	209.401	67	.95	.93	.94	.09

Table 6 showed a good fit for CMIN/df=3.12, CFI=.95, NFI=.93, TLI= .94 and RMSEA= .09 is close to indicating a good fit. Thus CFA has confirmed the factor structure. These results indicate that CPQ is statistically valid for measuring different communication styles and that CPQ is constructed from the four sub-domains of Mutual avoidance and Withholding Pattern, Mutual Constructive Pattern, Man-demand Woman-withdraw Pattern, and Woman-demand Man-withdraw Pattern.

Table 7

Factor Loadings of CFA for Husbands' and Wives' Marital Emotion Work Scale (Self)

Item no	Items	Loadings
	How often do you engage in each of the following toward your partner?	
1	Confide innermost thoughts and feelings.	.71
2	Initiate talking things over.	.75
3	Tries to bring him/her out of a feeling of restlessness, boredom, or depression.	.67
4	Let him/her know that you have faith in him/her.	.86
5	Sense that he/she is disturbed about something.	.61
6	Offer him/her encouragement.	.80
7	Give him/her compliments.	.81
8	Stick by him/her in times of trouble.	.66
9	Offer him/her advice when he/she is faced with a problem.	.63
10	Respect him/her point of view.	.80
11	Act affectionately towards him/her.	.66
12	Express concern for his/her well-being.	.73
13	Communicate your feelings about the future of your relationship.	.80
14	Are a good friend.	.70
15	Do favors for him/her without being asked.	.71

Table 7 shows factor loadings of the scale items. It is evident that all the items fall within the acceptable range and meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 8

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Husbands' and Wives' Marital Emotion Work Scale (Self)

Indices	CMIN	Df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	105.916	55	.98	.96	.97	.06

Table 8 showed good model fit indices for CMIN/df=1.92, CFI=.98, NFI=.96, TLI= .97, and RMSEA= .06. These results indicate that HWEW is statistically valid for measuring emotion work of husbands and wives in their marriages.

Table 9

Factor Loadings of CFA for Husbands' and Wives' Marital Emotion Work Scale (Spouse)

Item no	Items	Loadings
	How often would you say your partner engages in each of the following	
1	Confides innermost thoughts and feelings.	.86
2	Initiates talking things over.	.80
3	Tries to bring me out of a feeling of restlessness, boredom, or depression.	.76
4	Lets me know that he/she has faith in me.	.88
5	Senses that I am disturbed about something.	.70
6	Offers me encouragement.	.81
7	Gives me compliments.	.86
8	Sticks by me in times of trouble.	.61
9	Offers me advice when I am faced with a problem.	.79

Continued...

Item no	Items	Loadings
10	Respects my point of view.	.83
11	Acts affectionately towards me.	.74
12	Expresses concern for my well-being.	.63
13	Communicates his/her feelings about the future of our relationship.	.91
14	Is a good friend.	.81
15	Does favors for me without being asked.	.86

Table 9 shows factor loadings of the scale items. It is evident that all the items fall within the acceptable range and meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 10

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Husband Wife Emotion Work Scale (Spouse)

Indices	CMIN	Df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	128.557	66	.98	.96	.97	.06

Table 10 showed good model fit indices for CMIN/df=1.94, CFI=.98, NFI=.96, TLI= .97, and RMSEA= .06. These results indicate that HWEW is statistically valid for measuring husbands' and wives' evaluation of their spouses' emotion work in their marriages.

Table 11*Factor Loadings of CFA for Love Attitude Scale: Short form*

Item no	Items	Loadings
Eros		
1	My partner and I have the right physical “chemistry” between us.	.74
2	I feel that my partner and I were meant for each other.	.93
3	My partner and I really understand each other.	.93
4	My partner fits my ideal standards of physical beauty/handsomeness.	.68
Storg		
5	I expect to always be friends with my partner.	.83
6	Our love is the best kind because it grew out of a long friendship.	.90
7	Our friendship merged gradually into love over time.	.84
8	Our love is really a deep friendship, not a mysterious mystical emotion.	.93

Table 11 shows factor loadings of the scale items. It is evident that all the items fall within the acceptable range and meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 12*Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Love Attitude Scale: short form*

Indices	CMIN	Df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	41.578	14	.98	.97	.96	.09

Table 12 showed good model fit indices for CMIN/df=2.9, CFI=.98, NFI=.97, TLI= .96 and RMSEA= .09 is close to indicating a good fit. The CFA has confirmed the factor structure. These results indicate that LAS is statistically valid for measuring different styles of love and that two of its sub-domains are romanticism and friendship.

Table 13

Factor Loadings of CFA for Experiences in Close Relation Scale-Revised Questionnaire

Item no	Items	Loadings
Attachment-related Anxiety		
1	I'm afraid that I will lose my spouse's love.	.85
2	I often worry that my spouse will not want to stay with me.	.85
3	I often worry that my spouse doesn't really love me.	.92
4	I worry that my spouse won't care about me as much as I care about him/her.	.90
5	I often wish that my spouse's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.	.87
6	I worry a lot about my marital relationship.	.91
7	When my spouse is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.	.77
8	When I show my feelings for my spouse, I'm afraid he/she will not feel the same about me.	.87
9	I rarely worry about my spouse leaving me.	.56
10	My spouse makes me doubt myself.	.87
11	I do not often worry about being abandoned.	.64
12	I find that my spouse doesn't want to get as close as I would like.	.86
13	Sometimes my spouse changes his/her feelings about me for no apparent reason.	.82
14	My desire to be very close sometimes scares my spouse away.	.70
15	I'm afraid that once my spouse gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.	.45
16	It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my spouse.	.88

Continued...

Item no	Items	Loadings
17	I worry that I won't measure up to my spouse.	.82
18	My spouse only seems to notice me when I'm angry.	.80
Attachment-related Avoidance		
19	I prefer not to show my spouse how I feel deep down.	.88
20	I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my spouse.	.85
21	I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my spouse.	.88
22	I am very comfortable being close to my spouse.	.86
23	I don't feel comfortable opening up to my spouse.	.90
24	I prefer not to be too close to my spouse.	.88
25	I get uncomfortable when my spouse wants to be very close.	.84
26	I find it relatively easy to get close to my spouse.	.79
27	It's not difficult for me to get close to my spouse.	.77
28	I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my spouse.	.95
29	It helps to turn to my spouse in times of need.	.89
30	I tell my spouse just about everything.	.90
31	I talk things over with my spouse.	.87
33	I feel comfortable depending on my spouse.	.90
34	I find it easy to depend on my spouse.	.91
35	It's easy for me to be affectionate with my spouse.	.68
36	My spouse really understands me and my needs.	.88

Table 13 shows factor loadings of the scale items. It is evident that all the items fall within the acceptable range except for item no 32 which did not meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 14

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Experiences in Close Relation Scale-Revised Questionnaire

Indices	CMIN	Df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	2372	440	.85	.82	.80	.14

Results of CFA did not confirm the factor structure. Five model fit indices (CMIN/df, CFI, NFI, TLI, and RMSEA) were used to interpret the findings. The above table indicated that all model fit indices (CMIN/df=5.39, CFI=.85, NFI=.82, TLI=.80, and RMSEA=.14) indicate unacceptable fit. The results suggest that an exploratory factor analysis should be carried out.

Table 15

Factor Loadings of CFA for Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory

Item no	Items	Loadings
Integrating Style		
1	I try to investigate an issue with my partner to find a solution acceptable to us.	.91
4	I try to integrate my ideas with those of my partner's to come up with a decision jointly.	.91
6	I try to work with my partner to find solutions to a problem which satisfy our expectations.	.86
15	I exchange accurate information with my partner to solve a problem together.	.93

Continued...

Item no	Items	Loadings
28	I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.	.74
29	I collaborate with my partner to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	.81
35	I try to work with my partner for a proper understanding of a problem.	.82
Obliging Style		
2	I generally try to satisfy the needs of my partner.	.68
12	I usually accommodate the wishes of my partner.	.78
13	I give in to the wishes of my partner.	.75
16	I sometimes help my partner to make a decision in his/her favor.	.84
17	I usually allow concessions to partner.	.79
25	I often go along with the suggestions of my partner.	.82
30	I try to satisfy the expectations of my partner.	.76
Avoiding Style		
3	I attempt to avoid being "put on the spot" (responding at the moment) and try to keep my conflict with my partner to myself.	.65
7	I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my partner.	.78
23	I avoid an encounter (to meet or deal with something bad) with my partner.	.71
32	I try to keep my disagreement with my partner to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.	.58
33	I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my partner.	.68
34	I generally avoid an argument with my partner.	.75
Compromising Style		

Continued...

Item no	Items	Loadings
5	I give some to get some. (I believe in give and take in my marital relationship)	.74
9	I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.	.84
14	I win some and I lose some. (At times I compromise and at times he/she compromises)	.53
19	I try to play down our differences to reach a compromise.	.68
20	I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks (A point in which a disagreement can not be settled).	.81
21	I negotiate with my partner so that a compromise can be reached.	.87
26	I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.	.85
Dominating Style		
8	I usually hold on to my solution to a problem.	.83
10	I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.	.92
11	I use my authority to make a decision in my favor.	.94
27	I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue.	.76
31	I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.	.81

Table 15 showed that all the items fall within the acceptable range except for item no 24, 18 and 22 which did not meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 16

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Experiences in Close Relation Scale

Indices	CMIN	Df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	1892.118	431	.80	.76	.77	.12

Table 16 showed unacceptable model fit indices for CFI=.80, NFI=.76, TLI=.77, and RMSEA= .12.

Table 17

Factor Loadings of CFA for Dimensions of Commitment Inventory

Item no	Items	Loadings
Commitment to Spouse		
1	I am dedicated to my marriage as fulfilling as it can be.	.82
4	No matter what, my spouse knows that I will always be there for him/her.	.77
8	I am completely devoted to my spouse.	.72
14	There is nothing that I would not sacrifice for my spouse.	.72
18	I want to grow old with my spouse.	.78
25	I like knowing that my spouse and I form an inseparable unit.	.65
26	When I imagine what my life will be like in the future, I always see my spouse standing next to me.	.83
28	I frequently daydream about what it would like to be married to someone other than my spouse.	.84
33	I often think about what it would like to be romantically involved with someone other than my spouse.	.79
45	My future plans do not include my spouse.	.78
Commitment to Marriage		
3	It is morally wrong to divorce your spouse.	.82
9	Marriages are supposed to last forever.	.82
16	I don't feel obliged to remain married to my spouse.	.61
22	I believe in the sanctity (Sacredness, Holiness) of marriage.	.57
23	A marriage should be protected at all costs.	.51
24	If there are too many problems in a marriage, it's OK to get a divorce.	.53

Item no	Items	Loadings
35	I don't think it's morally wrong to divorce your spouse.	.48
36	I don't believe that marriages should last for ever.	.65
38	My spouse and I remain together because we value the institution of marriage.	.54
Feelings of Entrapment		
2	A divorce would ruin my reputation.	.69
6	I was raised to believe that once one gets married, one doesn't get divorced, no matter how unsatisfying the marriage may be.	.75
7	It would be humiliating if my spouse and I divorced.	.77
12	I would not be embarrassed to get a divorce.	.58
20	My friends would disapprove if I ended my marriage.	.60

Table 17 shows that item no 27, 31, 42, 30, 43, and 41 were not selected because their factor loadings were less than .40. Moreover item no. 17, 10, 19, 5, 15, 37, 21, 34, 44, 11, 33, 32, 40, 13, and 29 were not retained because they were conflict items and were loaded on more than one subscale.

Table 18

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Dimensions of Commitment Inventory

Indices	CMIN	Df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	753.5	216	.90	.85	.85	.10

Table 18 showed good model fit indices for CMIN/df=3.9, CFI=.90, NFI=.85, TLI= .85 and RMSEA= .10 is at the cut-off of indicating an acceptable fit. The CFA has confirmed the factor structure. These results indicate that DCI is statistically valid

for measuring marital commitment and that it is constructed from the three sub-domains commitment to spouse, commitment to marriage, and feelings of entrapment.

Thus, results of CFA confirmed the factor structure for five scales used in the study. These scales included Trait Forgivingness Scale, short form of Communication Patterns Questionnaire, and Husbands 'And Wives' Emotion Work scale, Dimensions of Commitment Inventory, and Eros and Storge sub-scales of the short form of the Love Attitude Scale. Whereas factor structure for Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, and The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire could not be confirmed according to criteria given by (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Bentler, 1990; Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999). Therefore, for current sample these instruments were further factor analyzed through exploratory factor analysis.

Exploratory factor analysis. In order to find the basic structure of these instruments for Pakistani sample, exploratory factor analysis was used. Researchers generally use different criteria to estimate the number of factors for the given items. The widely known approaches were recommended by Kaiser (1958) and Cattell (1966) on the basis of eigen values which can help to determine the importance of a particular factor and to indicate the amount of variance in a set of items accounted for that particular factor. The number of factors was determined on the basis of eigen values greater than 1 and scree plot (Kim & Mueller, 1978). Moreover, on the basis of factor loadings $\geq .40$ (Matsunaga, 2010; Bernard, 1998; Costello & Osborne, 2005), items were selected for final version of the scales. Thus, items with less than .40 factor loadings were eliminated.

Before running the factor analysis, some of the tests were applied for the verification of the data fit for factor analysis i.e. Bartlett test of Sphericity and similarly Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was computed. Principal Component Analysis with Direct Oblimin Method and Scree plot were used to explore the factor structure of DAS. It is a method of oblique rotation which provides the degree to which the factors are correlated to one another.

Table 19

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett Test of Sphericity of Dyadic Adjustment Scale (N=234)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure	Bartlett Test of Sphericity	Df	P
.94	6791.76	496	.000

Table 19 shows the KMO value and Bartlett Test of Sphericity for DAS. Kaiser (1974) recommends KMO value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and so factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factor results. So the value of .94 suggests that the data is very good for factor analysis. More over, the Bartlett Test of Sphericity value 6791.76, significant at $p \leq .000$ also supports that data is good for factor analysis.

Table 20

Factor loadings, Eigen values, and percentage variances explained by the Extraction Sum of Squared Loadings of Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) Using Direct Oblimin Method (N=234) (Items = 32)

	Items	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	F ₅	F ₆
21	How often do you and your partner quarrel?	.85	-.25	-.01	.10	.16	-.02
31	The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy" represents the degree of happiness in most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered of your relationship.	.84	-.18	.10	-.17	-.09	.06
20	Do you ever regret that you married (or lived together)?	.84	-.16	-.03	-.04	.01	.03
28	Work together on a project (task or activity)	.83	-.04	-.19	-.31	-.03	.06
14	Leisure time interests and activities	.83	.23	-.08	.11	-.15	.00
27	Calmly discuss something	.82	-.19	-.02	-.10	.25	.02
2	Matters of recreation	.82	.25	.03	.01	-.05	-.11
16	How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	.81	-.03	-.16	-.06	-.13	-.04
1	Handling family finances	.80	.21	-.17	.01	-.04	-.12
22	How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	.80	-.27	-.03	.24	.06	.01
25	Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	.80	.13	-.19	-.24	-.02	.23
4	Demonstrations of affection	.78	-.24	.20	-.14	-.09	.117
8	Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws	.78	.11	-.21	.17	.09	-.228
26	Laugh together	.75	-.28	-.14	.20	-.04	.074
11	Amount of time spent together	.75	.28	-.04	-.06	.09	-.318

Continued...

	Items	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	F ₅	F ₆
17	How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	.75	-.34	-.10	-.01	-.33	-.087
18	In general, how often do you think that things (matters) between you and your partner are going well?	.72	-.30	.03	.03	.35	-.072
23	Do you kiss your mate?	.69	.27	-.37	-.04	-.26	.220
6	Sex relations	.68	-.17	.17	.20	-.42	-.02
19	Do you confide in (speak to in confidence, open your heart to) your mate?	.66	-.28	.11	-.16	.39	-.02
12	Making major decisions	.66	.25	.35	.30	.04	-.08
13	Household tasks	.64	.60	.04	-.18	.06	-.20
15	Career decisions	.63	.05	.49	-.02	-.19	-.24
32	Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?	.62	-.56	-.19	-.09	.21	.05
5	Friends	.62	.15	.39	-.34	.23	.05
24	Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	.61	.39	-.28	-.15	-.08	.33
29	Being too tired for sex.	.59	.17	-.15	.28	-.06	-.20
30	Not showing love.	.56	.06	-.25	.43	.05	.14
8	Philosophy of life (Way of life, Rules for living a life)	.56	.11	.32	-.52	-.16	-.02
10	Aims, goals and things believed important	.53	.16	.32	.48	.22	-.01
3	Religious matters	.35	-.15	.50	.21	-.37	.39
7	Conventionality (Traditionalism; Following the generally accepted practices esp. with regard to social behavior)	.32	.43	.18	.14	.43	.49
	Eigen values	16.05	2.18	1.65	1.53	1.35	1.02
	% ages of Variance	50.17	6.82	5.14	4.78	4.22	3.13
	Cumulative % ages	50.17	56.99	62.13	66.91	71.13	74.26

The items with factor loading equal to or greater than .40 have been considered for final selection of the scale. It is believed that if various factors share items that cross load highly on more than one factor, these items are considered

complex as they reflect the influence of more than one factor. For this scale most items fell in one category showing the uni-factor structure of the scale. Item no 3 and 7 did not load on factor I, thus it was decided not to include these two items for the final version of the scale. Some of the items did cross load on other factors but it was decided to retain them because their loadings were much higher on the factor I.

Table 20 also demonstrated the eigen values and percentages of variance that points towards presence of six factors. Factor I has eigen value of 16.053 and it explained 50.167% of the total variance, that is the highest value among six factors. From an analyst's perspective, factors with eigen value of 1.00 or more are traditionally considered worth analyzing. However, Gorsuch (1983) presented that researcher's approach can provide explanation overriding reasons for selecting other number of factors. Thus, although each of the remaining five factors also has an eigen value more than 1, the researcher better considered one factor solution for the present data. Consequently, final version of the scale comprised of 30 items all of which loaded significantly on factor I. In addition, Scree plot for factor matrix of 32 items of DAS through principal component analysis using direct oblimin method also point toward the uni-structure representation of data.

In order to explore the factor structure of ROCI-II, and ECR-R Principal component analysis with Varimax Rotation and Scree plot were used. Varimax rotation is one of the methods of Orthogonal rotation. The basic assumption to use the Varimax rotation is to maximize the orthogonality, interpretability, simplification and to maximize the variance of the factors. The factors structure obtained through Varimax rotation are unrelated to one another (Kahn, 2006).

Table 21

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett Test of Sphericity of Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (N=234)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure	Bartlett Test of Sphericity	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
.88	8226.07	595	.000

Table 21 shows the KMO value and Bartlett Test of Sphericity for ROCI-II. Kaiser (1974) recommends KMO value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and so factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factor results. So the value of .88 suggests that the data is very good for factor analysis. Moreover, the Bartlett Test of Sphericity value 8226.07, significant at $p \leq .000$ also support that data is good for factor analysis.

Table 22

Factor loadings, Eigen values, and percentage variances explained by the Extraction Sum of Squared Loadings of Rahim Organization Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II) Using Varimax Rotation Method (N=234) (Items = 35)

	Items	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	F ₅	F ₆
30	I try to satisfy the expectations of my partner.	.76	.17	.08	-.10	.39	-.12
19	I try to play down our differences to reach a compromise.	.75	.16	.07	-.11	.29	.09
9	I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.	.74	.39	.24	-.02	-.12	-.11
21	I negotiate with my partner so that a compromise can be reached.	.74	.36	.25	-.04	-.18	.02
5	I give some to get some. (I believe in give and take in my marital relationship)	.74	.27	.15	-.08	-.21	-.03
25	I often go along with the suggestions of my partner.	.70	.18	.35	-.05	.11	-.15
16	I sometimes help my partner to make a decision in his/her favor.	.67	.32	.29	-.09	.19	-.16
12	I usually accommodate the wishes of my partner.	.65	.29	.32	-.10	.18	.06
2	I generally try to satisfy the needs of my partner.	.65	.27	.17	-.27	.26	.27
26	I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.	.62	.26	.49	-.06	-.14	-.08
17	I usually allow concessions to partner.	.61	.36	.38	.21	-.01	-.03
13	I give in to the wishes of my partner.	.55	.32	.45	.20	.05	-.03
14	I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.	.55	.47	.22	-.11	-.03	.02
1	I try to investigate an issue with my partner to find a solution acceptable to us.	.34	.82	.30	-.09	.01	.01

Continued...

	Items	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	F ₅	F ₆
15	I exchange accurate information with my partner to solve a problem together.	.47	.78	.14	-.03	.03	-.18
6	I try to work with my partner to find solutions to a problem which satisfy our expectations.	.29	.75	.38	-.08	.12	-.16
4	I try to integrate my ideas with those of my partner's to come up with a decision jointly.	.34	.74	.39	-.15	.08	.10
29	I collaborate with my partner to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	.46	.69	.12	-.27	.01	.09
35	I collaborate with my partner to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	.48	.64	.17	-.25	.08	.05
8	I usually hold on to my solution to a problem.	-.19	-.07	-.85	.19	.15	-.12
10	I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.	-.29	-.30	-.79	.10	.06	.02
11	I use my authority to make a decision in my favor.	-.29	-.29	-.78	.10	.13	-.09
27	I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue.	-.43	-.31	-.61	.17	.14	.12
31	I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.	-.49	-.23	-.56	.25	.18	.05
20	I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks (A point in which a disagreement can not be settled).	.51	.33	.53	-.06	-.06	-.10
33	I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my partner.	-.14	.09	.01	.80	.02	.02
23	I avoid an encounter (to meet or deal with something bad) with my partner.	-.25	-.20	-.05	.77	.05	.30
7	I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my partner.	.01	-.22	-.27	.73	-.02	.00
3	I attempt to avoid being "put on the spot" (responding at the moment) and try to keep my conflict with my partner to myself.	.26	-.07	-.20	.62	.21	.43

Continued...

	Items	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	F ₅	F ₆
34	I generally avoid an argument with my partner.	-.05	-.23	-.38	.58	.13	-.33
32	I try to keep my disagreement with my partner to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.	-.10	-.09	.06	.53	.53	-.22
24	I use my expertise to make a decision in my favor.	.11	.07	-.12	.09	.85	-.04
18	I argue my case with my partner to show the merits of my position.	.194	.15	-.28	.08	.80	-.04
14	I win some and I lose some. (At times I compromise and at times he/she compromises)	.448	.38	.02	-.09	-.52	-.28
22	I try to stay away from disagreement with my partner.	-.30	-.09	.15	.35	-.37	.60
	Eigen values	15.35	3.84	2.66	1.51	1.74	1.01
	% ages of Variance	43.98	10.96	7.61	4.31	3.92	2.88
	Cumulative % ages	43.98	54.94	62.55	66.86	70.78	73.66

Table 22 indicates the factorial structure of ROCI-II. Kaiser-Guttman's retention criterion of eigen values (Kaiser, 1974) greater than 1 revealed 6 factor solution for ROCI-II. However, Gorsuch (1983) presented that researcher's approach can provide explanation overriding reasons for selecting other number of factors. Thus, although all factors have an eigen value more than 1, the researcher better considered four factor solution for the present data to correspond to the best approximation of simple structure and would yield most interpretable results. Consequently, for final version of the scale a total of 13 items loaded on factor I. Moreover, 6, 5, and 6 items were loaded on 2nd, 3rd, and 4th factors respectively. Item no. 28, 20, 24, 18, and 22 were not selected for the final version of the scale. Although the loadings of these items were greater than .40 but they were scattered in a discordant way on more than one factor. So it was not justified to retain these items as they fail to contribute meaningfully to any of the factor. In addition, examination of Scree plot indicates presence of 4 or 5 factors. There seem to be a merged inflection point at factor 5 and then the line seem to level off. But a close examination of the graph suggested that the 5th factor might have emerged as a matter of chance. Hence the scree plot suggested that four factors should be kept.

Table 23

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett Test of Sphericity of ECR-R (N=234)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure	Bartlett Test of Sphericity	df	p
.89	13407.44	630	.000

Table 1 shows the KMO value and Bartlett Test of Sphericity for ECR-R. Kaiser (1974) recommends KMO value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and so factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factor results. So the value of .89 suggests that the data is very good for factor analysis. Moreover, the Bartlett Test of Sphericity value 13407.44, significant at $p \leq .000$ also supports that the data is good for factor analysis.

Table 24

Factor loadings, Eigen values, and percentage variances explained by the Extraction Sum of Squared Loadings of Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire (ECR-R) Using Varimax Rotation Method (N=234) (Items = 36)

Items	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	F ₅	F ₆
28 I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my spouse.	.94	.17	.02	-.09	.05	-.08
29 It helps to turn to my spouse in times of need.	.92	.06	-.09	-.14	.06	.08
23 I don't feel comfortable opening up to my spouse.	.91	.10	.04	.11	.06	.13

Continued...

	Items	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	F ₅	F ₆
33	I feel comfortable depending on my spouse.	.90	.11	-.01	-.03	.06	-.15
19	I prefer not to show my spouse how I feel deep down.	.89	.08	.09	.21	-.01	.15
34	I find it easy to depend on my spouse.	.89	.22	.07	.01	-.02	-.18
30	I tell my spouse just about everything.	.89	.21	.05	-.10	.03	-.21
21	I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my spouse.	.89	.04	.01	.15	.07	.15
31	I talk things over with my spouse.	.87	.18	.07	-.11	.01	-.13
20	I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my spouse.	.86	.02	.15	.12	.15	-.04
24	I prefer not to be too close to my spouse.	.84	.23	.11	.14	-.04	.20
25	I get uncomfortable when my spouse wants to be very close.	.83	.17	.16	.09	-.04	.32
36	My spouse really understands me and my needs.	.80	.37	.12	-.05	-.21	-.07
26	I find it relatively easy to get close to my spouse.	.78	.01	.18	.02	.35	-.03
22	I am very comfortable being close to my spouse.	.77	.28	.27	-.14	-.11	.27
27	It's not difficult for me to get close to my spouse.	.73	.16	.42	-.01	.19	.16
35	It's easy for me to be affectionate with my spouse.	.59	.33	.57	.09	.18	-.21
12	I find that my spouse doesn't want to get as close as I would like.	.25	.90	-.17	-.05	-.05	-.05
6	I worry a lot about my marital relationship.	.23	.89	.05	-.04	-.03	.23
5	I often wish that my spouse's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.	.18	.90	-.18	.08	.06	.11
10	My spouse makes me doubt myself.	.31	.86	.01	.01	-.02	-.03
8	When I show my feelings for my spouse, I'm afraid he/she will not feel the same about me.	.25	.84	.00	.06	.02	.30
2	I often worry that my spouse will not want to stay with me.	.01	.84	.28	.10	.08	-.29

Continued...

	Items	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	F ₅	F ₆
3	I often worry that my spouse doesn't really love me.	.16	.84	.27	.13	.25	-.17
1	I'm afraid that I will lose my spouse's love.	-.02	.83	.19	.23	.13	-.22
7	When my spouse is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.	-.05	.82	.01	.06	.14	-.11
4	I worry that my spouse won't care about me as much as I care about him/her.	.10	.81	.12	.30	.28	-.15
13	Sometimes my spouse changes his/her feelings about me for no apparent reason.	.32	.81	-.09	.15	-.02	.02
17	I worry that I won't measure up to my spouse.	.11	.78	.08	.18	.20	.27
16	It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my spouse.	.27	.76	.36	.23	.08	.03
18	My spouse only seems to notice me when I'm angry.	.22	.75	.38	.11	.05	.37
14	My desire to be very close sometimes scares my spouse away.	.01	.66	-.06	.05	.65	.21
32	I am nervous when my spouse gets too close to me.	.31	.06	.85	.02	-.14	.05
9	I rarely worry about my spouse leaving me.	-.03	.48	-.06	.81	-.02	-.01
11	I do not often worry about being abandoned.	.08	.56	.16	.74	-.03	.05
15	I'm afraid that once my spouse gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.	.24	.39	-.07	-.07	.77	-.09
	Eigen values	17.36	8.10	1.69	1.37	1.17	1.02
	% ages of Variance	48.22	22.50	4.68	3.80	3.24	2.85
	Cumulative % ages	48.22	70.72	75.40	79.21	82.45	85.30

Table 24 shows factor loadings of ECR-R items. Kaiser-Guttman's retention criterion of eigen values (Kaiser, 1974) greater than 1 revealed 6 factor solution for ECR-R. However, Gorsuch (1983) presented that researcher's approach can provide explanation overriding reasons for selecting other number of factors. Thus, although all factors have an eigen value more than 1, the researcher better considered two

factor solution for the present data to correspond to the best approximation of simple structure and would yield most interpretable results. Factor I has an eigen value of 17.358 and it explained 48.217% of the total variance; factor II has an eigen values of 8.101 and it explained 22.502% of the total variance. The total variance explained by the two factors is 70.720%. All the items loaded meaningfully on the two factors except for item no. 32, 9, 11, and 15. Thus these four items would not be retained for the final version. A total of 17 items loaded on factor I, where as 15 items were loaded on factor II. In addition, the scree plot clearly indicates the presence of two factors.

Step II: Confirmation of Factor Structure of the Scales

Items retained through exploratory factor analysis were again analyzed through confirmatory factor analysis technique. This is because it was necessary to confirm the factor structure proposed by exploratory factor analysis.

Objectives.

1. To confirm the factor structure of the instruments (Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, and The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire) for Pakistani sample.
2. To determine psychometric properties and reliability estimates of the instruments for Pakistani sample.

Sample. An independent sample of 250 married individuals (125 couples) was selected from Rawalpindi and Islamabad. Participants were selected by using purposive sampling technique. Only those individuals were selected who had been married for at least 1 year to 25 years. Age range of the sample was from 23 – 55 years ($M= 37.64$, $SD= 8.1$). All the participants had at least 1 child and held at least bachelor's degree.

Instruments. The instruments with factor structures emerged in step I of this phase were used in step II. The modified versions of instruments included a uni-dimensional Dyadic Adjustment Scale with 30 items (see Appendix L), a Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory with 30 items (see Appendix M) and four conflict

resolution styles (*obliging and compromising, avoiding, integrating, and dominating*), and The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire with 32 items (see Appendix N) and two attachment styles (*attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance*).

Procedure. Participants were approached at their homes or work places and briefed about the current study. Initially, information was obtained verbally to see whether they fit in to the research criteria. They were briefed about research and were assured that their provided information would be kept confidential and would only be used for research purposes. After having their consent the booklet was handed over to the respondents.

They were instructed to read each statement carefully and respond honestly to all items of the scales. The written instructions were reproduced verbally. The participants were briefed that there were no right or wrong answers to the statements, and that they were to select the option that was most accurate for them. There was no time limit to complete the questionnaires but they were encouraged to mark the first answer that would come to their mind. They were instructed to answer each and every item and to provide only one answer for each item. As the sample consisted of couple data, the researcher made certain that the respondent's answers were not influenced by his/her spouse. After the completion, the research booklets were inspected for missing data. In the end, respondents were thanked for their participation and cooperation.

Results. To confirm the dimensionality of the three scales (Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, and The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire), items of each scale were factor analyzed through confirmatory factor analysis technique. Results of CFA were as follows:

Table 25

Factor Loadings of CFA for Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Modified)

Item no	Items	Loadings
1	Handling family finances	.60
2	Matters of recreation	.60
4	Demonstrations of affection	.65
5	Friends	.51
6	Sex relations	.55
8	Philosophy of life (Way of life, Rules for living a life)	.41
10	Aims, goals and things believed important	.51
11	Amount of time spent together	.58
12	Making major decisions	.64
13	Household tasks	.57
14	Leisure time interests and activities	.57
15	Career decisions	.57
16	How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	.67
17	How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	.73
18	In general, how often do you think that things (matters) between you and your partner are going well?	.72

Continued...

Item no	Items	Loadings
19	Do you confide in (speak to in confidence, open your heart to) your mate?	.84
20	Do you ever regret that you married (or lived together)?	.72
21	How often do you and your partner quarrel?	.71
22	How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	.64
23	Do you kiss your mate?	.74
24	Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	.72
	How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?	
25	Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	.81
26	Laugh together	.55
27	Calmly discuss something	.72
28	Work together on a project (task or activity)	.83
29	Indicate if being too tired for sex caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks	.40
30	Indicate if Not showing love caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks	.55
31	The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy" represents the degree of happiness in most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered of your relationship.	.80
32	Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?	.57

Table 25 shows factor loadings of the scale items. It is evident that all the items fall within the acceptable range except for item no 9 which did not meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 26

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Modified)

Indices	CMIN	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	505.271	331	.960	.893	.951	.046

Table 26 shows good model fit indices for CMIN/df=1.52, CFI=.96, NFI=.89, TLI= .95, and RMSEA= .04. These results indicated that DAS is a unidimensional scale and is statistically valid for measuring marital quality.

Table 27

Factor Loadings of CFA for Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory (Modified)

Item no	Items	Loadings
Compromising + Obliging Style		
30	I try to satisfy the expectations of my partner.	.61
19	I try to play down our differences to reach a compromise.	.58
9	I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.	.84
21	I negotiate with my partner so that a compromise can be reached.	.73
5	I give some to get some. (I believe in give and take in my marital relationship)	.79
25	I often go along with the suggestions of my partner.	.60
16	I sometimes help my partner to make a decision in his/her favor.	.60
12	I usually accommodate the wishes of my partner.	.72
2	I generally try to satisfy the needs of my partner.	.80
26	I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.	.64
17	I usually allow concessions to partner.	.55

Continued...

Item no	Items	Loadings
13	I give in to the wishes of my partner.	.67
14	I win some and I lose some. (At times I compromise and at times he/she compromises)	.78
Integrating Style		
1	I try to investigate an issue with my partner to find a solution acceptable to us.	.91
15	I exchange accurate information with my partner to solve a problem together.	.87
6	I try to work with my partner to find solutions to a problem which satisfy our expectations.	.88
4	I try to integrate my ideas with those of my partner's to come up with a decision jointly.	.85
29	I collaborate with my partner to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	.78
35	I try to work with my partner for a proper understanding of a problem.	.79
Dominating Style		
8	I usually hold on to my solution to a problem.	.97
10	I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.	.95
11	I use my authority to make a decision in my favor.	.95
27	I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue.	.57
31	I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.	.68
Avoiding Style		
33	I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my partner.	.86
23	I avoid an encounter (to meet or deal with something bad) with my partner.	.80
7	I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my partner.	.74
3	I attempt to avoid being "put on the spot" (responding at the moment) and try to keep my conflict with my partner to myself.	.58
34	I generally avoid an argument with my partner.	.81
32	I try to keep my disagreement with my partner to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.	.79

Table 27 shows factor loadings of the scale items. It is evident that all the items fall within the acceptable range and meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 28

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory (Modified)

Indices	CMIN	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	997.88	368	.91	.87	.90	.08

Table 28 showed good model fit indices for CMIN/df=2.71, CFI=.91, NFI=.87, and TLI= .90. Thus CFA has confirmed the factor structure as proposed by EFA. These results indicate that ROCI-II is statistically valid for measuring different Conflict resolution styles and that it is constructed from the four sub-domains of Compromising and Obliging, Integrating, Dominating and Avoiding styles.

Table 29

Factor Loadings of CFA for Experiences in Close Relation Scale (Modified)

Item no	Items	Loadings
Attachment-related Anxiety		
12	I find that my spouse doesn't want to get as close as I would like.	.84
6	I worry a lot about my marital relationship.	.81
5	I often wish that my spouse's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.	.86
10	My spouse makes me doubt myself.	.80

Continued...

Item no	Items	Loadings
8	When I show my feelings for my spouse, I'm afraid he/she will not feel the same about me.	.78
2	I often worry that my spouse will not want to stay with me.	.82
3	I often worry that my spouse doesn't really love me.	.93
1	I'm afraid that I will lose my spouse's love.	.84
7	When my spouse is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.	.75
4	I worry that my spouse won't care about me as much as I care about him/her.	.85
13	Sometimes my spouse changes his/her feelings about me for no apparent reason.	.78
17	I worry that I won't measure up to my spouse.	.54
16	It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my spouse.	.49
18	My spouse only seems to notice me when I'm angry.	.57
14	My desire to be very close sometimes scares my spouse away.	.68
Attachment-related Avoidance		
28	I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my spouse.	.92
29	It helps to turn to my spouse in times of need.	.47
23	I don't feel comfortable opening up to my spouse.	.88
33	I feel comfortable depending on my spouse.	.42
19	I prefer not to show my spouse how I feel deep down.	.87
34	I find it easy to depend on my spouse.	.43
30	I tell my spouse just about everything.	.47
21	I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my spouse.	.80
31	I talk things over with my spouse.	.49
20	I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my spouse.	.93

Continued...

Item no	Items	Loadings
24	I prefer not to be too close to my spouse.	.83
25	I get uncomfortable when my spouse wants to be very close.	.83
36	My spouse really understands me and my needs.	.45
26	I find it relatively easy to get close to my spouse.	.78
22	I am very comfortable being close to my spouse.	.81
27	It's not difficult for me to get close to my spouse.	.77
35	It's easy for me to be affectionate with my spouse.	.41

Table 29 showed that all the items fall within the acceptable range and meet the criteria for selection of items (.40 or above).

Table 30

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (indices of model fit) for Experiences in Close Relation Scale (Modified)

Indices	CMIN	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
	791.57	380	.95	.91	.94	.06

Table 30 shows good model fit indices for CMIN/df=2.08, CFI=.95, NFI=.91, TLI= .94, and RMSEA= .06. Thus CFA has confirmed the factor structure as proposed by EFA. These results indicate that ECR-R is statistically valid for measuring different attachment styles and that it is constructed from the two sub-domains of anxiety and avoidance.

Table 31

Reliability Estimates of all the Instruments (N=484)

Sr no	Scales and sub-scales	No of Items	Alpha Coefficients
1	Dyadic Adjustment Scale	29	.95
2	Dimensions of Commitment Inventory		
	<i>Commitment to Spouse</i>	10	.91
	<i>Commitment to Marriage</i>	9	.83
	<i>Feelings of Entrapment</i>	5	.86
3	Trait Forgivingness Scale	8	.86
4	Communication Patterns Questionnaire short form		
	<i>Mutual constructive communication</i>	5	.92
	<i>Demand-withdraw communication</i>	6	.89
	<i>Mutual avoidance and withholding pattern</i>	3	.88
5	Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory		
	<i>Integrating style</i>	6	.95
	<i>Obliging and compromising style</i>	13	.94
	<i>Dominating style</i>	5	.92
	<i>Avoiding style</i>	6	.88
6	Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire		
	<i>Attachment related anxiety</i>	15	.97
	<i>Attachment related avoidance</i>	17	.97

Continued...

Sr no	Scales and sub-scales	No of Items	Alpha Coefficients
7	Love Attitude Scale: Short Form		
	<i>Eros or romantic love</i>	4	.91
	<i>Storge or friendship love</i>	4	.88
8	Husbands' and Wives' Emotion Work scale		
	<i>Marital emotion work (self)</i>	15	.96
	<i>Marital emotion work (spouse)</i>	15	.95

Table 31 depicts the alpha coefficients for the eight scales and their subscales used in the study. The findings showed that all the scales i.e., Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Dimensions of Commitment Inventory, Trait Forgivingness Scale, Communication Patterns Questionnaire: short form, and Husbands 'And Wives' Emotion Work scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire, Eros and Storge sub-scales of Love Attitude Scale: short form are reliable measures of the constructs they are measuring and are internally consistent. All the alpha values are acceptable and fall within high range.

Item total correlations. For all the scales item total correlations were calculated for analyzing each item in order to see whether all the items were significantly measuring their respective constructs. To achieve this purpose, all items identified through factor analysis were correlated with their respective scale or sub-scale total.

Table 32*Item Total Correlations of Dyadic adjustment Scale (N = 484)*

Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>
1	.71**	14	.72**	24	.62**
2	.74**	15	.63**	25	.80**
4	.73**	16	.75**	26	.66**
5	.60**	17	.74**	27	.78**
6	.62**	18	.72**	28	.79**
8	.52**	19	.73**	29	.49**
10	.53**	20	.78**	30	.53**
11	.70**	21	.78**	31	.83**
12	.63**	22	.72**	32	.62**
13	.63**	23	.68**	26	.66**

**Significant at .01 level

Table 32 showed that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis have significant positive correlation with the total score as well. This clearly indicated that the scale is internally consistent and that all items have their due contribution in the measurement of marital quality. Highly significant correlations are pointing towards the fact that the scale has valid construction and all items are measuring one construct.

Table 33*Item Total Correlations of Husbands' and Wives' Emotion Work Scale (N = 484)*

Self		Spouse	
Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>
1	.84**	1	.79**
2	.80**	2	.80**
3	.80**	3	.77**
4	.83**	4	.82**
5	.77**	5	.79**
6	.80**	6	.71**
7	.80**	7	.79**
8	.80**	8	.68**
9	.78**	9	.81**
10	.75**	10	.78**
11	.70**	11	.68**
12	.76**	12	.68**
13	.85**	13	.79**
14	.81**	14	.76**
15	.76**	15	.79**

Table 33 showed that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis have significant positive correlation with the total score of the subscales as well. This clearly indicated that the scale is internally consistent and that all items have their due contribution in the measurement of marital emotion work. Highly significant correlations are pointing towards the fact that the scale has valid construction and all items are measuring one construct.

Table 34*Item Total Correlations of Trait Forgiveness Scale (N = 484)*

Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>
1	.76**	6	.75**
2	.69**	7	.76**
3	.68**	8	.62**
4	.63**	10	.84**

Table 34 showed that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis have significant positive correlation with the total score as well. This clearly indicated that the scale is internally consistent and that all items have their due contribution in the measurement of forgiveness. Highly significant correlations are pointing towards the fact that the scale has valid construction and all items are measuring one construct.

Table 35*Item Total Correlations of Love Attitude Scale: Short form (N = 484)*

Eros		Storge	
Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>
1	.90**	6	.80**
2	.83**	7	.85**
3	.90**	8	.89**
4	.90**	10	.87**

Table 35 showed that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis have significant positive correlation with the total score of the subscales as well. This clearly indicated that the scale is internally consistent and that all items have their due contribution in the measurement of different styles of love.

Highly significant correlations are pointing towards the fact that the scale has valid construction and all items are measuring one construct.

Table 36

Item Total Correlations of Dimensions of Commitment Inventory (N = 484)

Commitment to Spouse		Commitment to Marriage		Feelings of Entrapment	
Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>
1	.84**	3	.81**	2	.84**
4	.70**	9	.83**	6	.83**
8	.71**	16	.66**	7	.85**
14	.69**	22	.77**	12	.76**
18	.73**	23	.42**	20	.74**
25	.73**	24	.58**		
26	.84**	35	.40**		
28	.87**	36	.79**		
33	.61**	38	.82**		
45	.69**				

Table 36 showed that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis have significant positive correlation with the total score of the subscales as well. This clearly indicated that the scale is internally consistent and that all items have their due contribution in the measurement of marital commitment. Highly significant correlations are pointing towards the fact that the scale has valid construction and all items are measuring one construct.

Table 37

Item Total Correlations of Communication Patterns questionnaire: Short form (N = 484)

Mutual constructive communication		Demand-withdraw communication		Mutual avoidance and withholding pattern	
Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>
2	.91**	3	.80**	1	.87**
5	.80**	7	.81**	12	.90**
6	.90**	9	.84**	14	.92**
11	.87**	4	.77**		
13	.88**	8	.83**		
		10	.84**		

Table 37 showed that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis have significant positive correlation with the total score of the subscales as well. This clearly indicated that the scale is internally consistent and that all items have their due contribution in the measurement of different communication patterns. Highly significant correlations are pointing towards the fact that the scale has valid construction and all items are measuring one construct.

Table 38*Item Total Correlations of Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (N = 484)*

Obliging and Compromising		Integrating		Dominating		Avoiding			
Item	<i>r</i>	Item	<i>r</i>	Item	<i>r</i>	Item	<i>r</i>		
No		No		No		No			
30	.69**	12	.76**	1	.93**	8	.90**	33	.82**
19	.69**	2	.75**	15	.88**	10	.93**	23	.83**
9	.86**	26	.77**	6	.90**	11	.92**	7	.81**
21	.82**	17	.75**	4	.89**	27	.78**	3	.72**
5	.80**	13	.74**	29	.86**	31	.80**	34	.79**
25	.72**	14	.65**	35	.86**			32	.79**
16	.75**								

Table 38 showed that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis have significant positive correlation with the total score of the subscales as well. This clearly indicated that the scale is internally consistent and that all items have their due contribution in the measurement of different conflict resolution styles. Highly significant correlations are pointing towards the fact that the scale has valid construction and all items are measuring one construct.

Table 39

Item Total Correlations of Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire (N = 484)

Attachment related anxiety				Attachment related avoidance			
Item	<i>r</i>	Item	<i>r</i>	Item	<i>r</i>	Item	<i>r</i>
No		No		No		No	
12	.86**	4	.87**	28	.90**	20	.85**
6	.88**	13	.83**	29	.81**	24	.85**
5	.88**	17	.77**	23	.88**	25	.82**
10	.86**	16	.78**	33	.81**	36	.79**
8	.84**	18	.79**	19	.86**	26	.75**
2	.81**	14	.70**	34	.84**	22	.82**
3	.89**			30	.83**	27	.76**
1	.83**			21	.82**	35	.68**
7	.78**			31	.82**		

Table 39 showed that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis have significant positive correlation with the total score of the subscales as well. This clearly indicated that the scale is internally consistent and that all items have their due contribution in the measurement of different styles of attachment. Highly significant correlations are pointing towards the fact that the scale has valid construction and all items are measuring one construct.

Discussion. Marriage is one of the most studied and discussed subjects in the area of social Psychology especially family studies. It is a well-accepted social institution, with approximately 85% of individuals marrying at some point in their lifetime (Knox & Schacht, 2000). But on the other hand there are several issues associated with marriage. Literature has shown that approximately one half of first-time marriages end in divorce (Faust & McKibben, 1999) and approximately 33 percent of all first-time marriages suffer from separation or divorce during the first ten years (Bramlett & Mosher, 2001). Studies have also found a strong link between physical and psychological health problems and the experience of separation and divorce (Goodwin, 1997; Prigerson, Maciejewski, & Rosenheck, 1999). Given that the high rates of marriage are often followed by marital disruption, empirical research increasingly has been conducted to examine predictors of relationship success. Specifically what are the characteristics of marriages that succeed over time still need to be explored (Kurdek, 1998).

On the other hand, researchers agree on the point that marital quality is an important aspect of family life that shapes people's wellbeing and helps them to achieve their goals. Greater marital quality is associated with less depression (Williams, 2003), better self rated health (Umberson, et al., 2006), less physical illness (Wickrama, et al., 1997), and other positive outcomes (Ross, et al., 1990). Given the importance of marital quality, there is also a large literature that explores its determinants, including differences in the experience of marital quality by ethnicity and gender (Amato, et al., 2003, Bulanda and Brown, 2007, Rogers and Amato, 2000). The aim of this study is to extend the previous research on predictors of marital

quality by examining married couples, in particular to focus on specific psychosocial factors that enhance marital quality.

The study was completed in three phases. The aim of first phase was to find out the definition and determinants of marital quality and also to find out how they would be measured. This phase further comprised of three steps. First step focused on understanding the definition of marital quality and identifying its determinants. Extensive literature review was done and four focus groups were conducted to achieve this purpose. Participants of focus groups defined marital quality as a subjective phenomenon that shows how happy and satisfied one is in one's marital relationship. Several factors were identified through focus group discussions as determinants of marital quality. These included commitment, forgiveness, communication patterns, marital emotion work, conflict handling, attachment, friendship, romance, education, children, financial status, duration of marriage, and family system. It was interesting to note that these factors were also considered important by western literature (Spanier and Lewis, 1980; Gottman, 1994; Erickson, 2005; Dainton & Aylor, 2002; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Rahim, 2002; Acevedo & Aron, 2009)

Second step focused on identification and try out of instruments. Eight scales were identified which included Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Dimensions of Commitment Inventory, Trait Forgiveness Scale, Communication Patterns Questionnaire, and Husbands 'And Wives' Emotion Work scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire, Eros and Storge sub-scales of the short form of the Love Attitude Scale. After the try out it was found that all the items are culturally relevant but few

items were not easily understandable because words in these items were pointed out by the sample as difficult. Thus a third step was carried out in which modification and finalization of instruments was done through committee approach. It was decided that none of the items will be deleted but these scales needed modifications. Literal meaning of difficult words were written within the parenthesis along with the difficult word. The researcher then moved to the next phase.

Second phase of the study focused on determination and confirmation of factor structure of the scales for Pakistani sample. As all the instruments used in the present study were already developed and standardized scales the researcher still considered factor analysis to be vital because it was necessary to find out the factor structure that existed for Pakistani culture. Thus aim of the researcher was to extend the available knowledge and to establish similar or different patterns of findings in Pakistan. This will help to provide important information about culture specific aspects of marital quality and its determinants. To achieve this objective it was significant to see how well the existing structure of scales is confirmed and validated for the sample of the present study. Consequently, the study focused on establishing the validity of already developed scales that measure marital quality and its determinants.

For the present study the first step was to run CFA for all the scales in the study. The data was analyzed through CFA using AMOS 18. CFA specifically relies on several statistical tests to determine the adequacy of model fit to the data. For present study also researcher considered widely used model fit indices (CMIN/df, CFI, NFI, TLI, and RMSEA) and factor loadings (.40 and above) as criterion to test the validity of the test items. The chi-square test indicates the amount of difference

between expected and observed covariance matrices. A chi-square value close to zero indicates little difference between the expected and observed covariance matrices. In addition, the probability level must be greater than 0.05 when chi-square is close to zero. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is equal to the discrepancy function adjusted for sample size. CFI ranges from 0 to 1 with a larger value indicating better model fit. Acceptable model fit is indicated by a CFI value of 0.90 or greater (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The Normed Fit Index (NFI) compares the fit of a particular model to a baseline null model; values greater than 0.90 indicate a good fit (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI; Tucker & Lewis, 1973) is a nonnormed fit index that reflects model fit very well at all sample sizes (Bentler, 1990).

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is related to residual in the model. RMSEA values range from 0 to 1 with a smaller RMSEA value indicating better model fit. There is considerable difference of opinion among researchers regarding how RMSEA values should be interpreted. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), acceptable model fit is indicated by value of .06 or less. MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) have used .01, .05, and .08 to indicate excellent, good, and mediocre fit respectively. However, others have suggested .10 as the cutoff for poor fitting models (Raubenheimer, 2004). In accordance with Browne and Cudeck (1992), Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan (1999), MacCallum et al. (1996), and Steiger (1990), the RMSEA was to be interpreted as follows: Values of zero indicate perfect fit between the model and the data, values below .05 indicate good fit, values between .05 and .08 indicate fair fit, values between .08 and .10 mediocre fit, and values above .10 indicate poor fit.

The criterion for considering a loading high varies from study to study, with some researchers using cut off points as low as .30, others use as high as .55. Ideally researchers retain items that clearly and strongly load on factor while showing small to nil loadings on other factors. Many times researchers end up in situations where they have to make delicate and in part subjective decisions. An item may cross load and have large factor loadings on number of components or its primary loading is not as large as to call it clearly loaded on any one factor. A widely utilized approach in such a situation is to use a cut off value. Then if an items factor loading is greater than the priori determined cut off value (usually .40), the researcher retain that item otherwise not (Matsunaga, 2010). Bernard (1998), Costello and Osborne (2005) also suggested .40 as criterion in determining whether or not a particular item loaded substantially on a factor. Walker and Maddan (2012) explained that in case of exploratory factor analysis, this determines which variables to combine in to scales or factors. In case of CFA this will determine how the theoretical model came out to be when tested. Thus for present study also researcher considered .40 as cut off and all items with factor loadings less than .40 were not retained. Selection of items of the scales was done through a step wise procedure explained by Wille (1966) and Raubenheimer (2004).

Wille (1966) explained the procedure to examine and miximise convergent and discriminant validity of subscales using factor analysis in a stepwise fashion. The subscales' discriminant validity is assessed and improved by identifying and removing, one by one, the items that load significantly on more than one factor. At the same time, the subscales' convergent validity is assessed and improved by identifying and removing, one by one, those items which fail to load significantly on any factor.

These two criteria are evaluated simultaneously, and at each step the item which violates these requirements of discriminant and/or convergent validity to the greatest extent is removed, until none of the remaining items violate either form of validity. The procedure is very simple when EFA is used and although the same procedure is used with CFA but extra caution is taken as the researcher has already developed theory in hand (Raubenheimer, 2004). Generally while applying this strategy, the researcher should ensure that the items retained do not only satisfy these psychometric criteria, but that their content is commensurate with the theoretical construct(s) they are supposed to measure (Wille, 1966; Raubenheimer, 2004).

Results of CFA indicate a good fit to the data for Trait Forgiveness Scale (CMIN/df=1.62, CFI=.99, NFI=.98, TLI= .98, and RMSEA= .05), Communication Pattern Questionnaire: short form (CMIN/df=3.12, CFI=.95, NFI=.93, TLI= .94 and RMSEA= .09), Husband Wife Emotion Work Scale: Self (CMIN/df=1.92, CFI=.98, NFI=.96, TLI= .97, and RMSEA= .06), Husband Wife Emotion Work Scale: Spouse (CMIN/df=1.94, CFI=.98, NFI=.96, TLI= .97, and RMSEA= .06), Love Attitude Scale (CMIN/df=2.9, CFI=.98, NFI=.97, TLI= .96 and RMSEA= .09), and Dimensions of Commitment Inventory (CMIN/df=3.9, CFI=.90, NFI=.85, TLI= .85 and RMSEA= .10). Thus according to the criterion set by Bentler (1990), Hu & Bentler (1999), Bentler and Bonett (1980), Browne and Cudeck (1992), Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan (1999), MacCallum et al. (1996) and Steiger (1990) analyses indicated acceptable model fit. Construct validity was established for these scales and they were ready to be used for the main study. However, following the criterion explained by Matsunaga (2010), Bernard (1998), Costello and Osborne (2005), Walker and Maddan (2012), item no 27, 31, 42, 30, 43, and 41 of DCI and

item no 5 and 9 of TFS were not retained because their factor loadings were less than .40. Also, as suggested by Wille (1966), Raubenheimer (2004) and Walker and Maddan (2012), item no. 17, 10, 19, 5, 15, 37, 21, 34, 44, 11, 33, 32, 40, 13, and 29 were not retained because they were conflict items and were loaded on more than one subscale.

On the other hand, results of CFA did not confirm the factor structure for Dyadic Adjustment Scale (CFI= .84, TLI=.81, and RMSEA= .11), Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (CFI=.80, NFI=.76, TLI= .77, and RMSEA= .12), and The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire (CMIN/df=5.39, CFI=.85, NFI=.82, TLI= .80, and RMSEA= .14). Thus according to the criterion set by Bentler (1990), Hu & Bentler (1999), Bentler and Bonett (1980), Browne and Cudeck (1992), Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan (1999), MacCallum et al. (1996) and Steiger (1990) analyses indicated unacceptable model fit for these scales and suggested that exploratory factor analyses should be carried out to find out the factor structure that exists for Pakistani sample. Interesting results were found when EFA was run to determine the construct validity of three scales; Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, and Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire.

Principal Component Analysis with Direct Oblimin Method and Scree plot were used to explore the factor structure of DAS. The factor analysis results revealed that 30 out of 32 items in DAS explained 50.167 % of variance (See Table 20). Although some of the items in the scale did fall on the other factors too but their loadings were significantly high on the first factor. Therefore it was more understandable to retain them in factor I. Scree plot also revealed that the large

variance is explained by only one factor. The unifactor solution of the scale was consistent with previous studies. Studies using both EFA (Kazak, Jarmas, & Snitzer, 1988; Sharpley & Cross, 1982) and CFA (Antill & Cotton, 1982; Spanier & Thompson, 1982) have concluded that the DAS is best interpreted as measuring one general factor. Spanier (1988) also reiterated that the DAS worked best as a global summary measure and explained that he had not used subscale scores in any of his own research. Similarly, Thompson (1988) suggested that the DAS was best as a summary measure and should not be used for assessment of the separate dimensions of marital quality.

For ROCI-II and ECR-R varimax rotation method was used. In case of ROCI-II, four factor solution revealed best results. All the items with factor loadings $\geq .40$ were retained. A total of 13 items loaded on factor I. Similarly, 6, 5, and 6 items were loaded on 2nd, 3rd, and 4th factors respectively. In case of DCI, four factor solution revealed best results as well. Item no. 28, 20, 24, 18, and 22 were not selected for the final version of the scale. The four factors explained 66.86% of the variance (See Table 22). A total of 13 items loaded on factor I. This factor was labeled as compromising and obliging style. Moreover, 6, 5, and 6 items were loaded on 2nd, 3rd, and 4th factors and were labeled as integrating, dominating and avoiding style respectively. Item no. 28, 20, 24, 18, and 22 were not selected for the final version of the scale (See Table 22). Although the loadings of these items were greater than .40 but they were scattered in a discordant way on more than one factor. So it was not justified to retain these items as they fail to contribute meaningfully to any of the factor (Wille, 1966; Raubenheimer, 2004; Walker and Maddan, 2012). The different factor structure found in this study could be explained in light of other research

findings. Regarding conflict management styles, studies have found that individualistic cultures prefer integrating style the most, followed by compromising, obliging, dominating styles. On the other hand collectivists prefer less confrontational approaches like compromising and obliging style the most followed by avoiding style (Liu, 2012; Leung & Wu, 1990; Ohbuchi, Fukushima, & Tedeschi, 1999; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). Moreover, they have also found that women use integrating style more than men, whereas men use dominating style more than women (Offerman and Beil, 1992; Papa & Natale, 1989; Sorenson et al., 1995). Thus the change in factor structure was accepted keeping in mind the cultural differences as a reason behind it.

Two-factor solution came out for ECR-R which was same as the original measure. However, following the criterion explained by Matsunaga (2010), Fleury (1998), Bernard (1998), Costello and Osborne (2005), Walker and Maddan (2012), item no. 32, 9, 11, and 15 were not retained for the final version. The two factors explained 70.720% of the variance (See Table 24). All the changes suggested by EFA for the three instruments were finalized through committee approach.

The factor structures emerged in the first step of phase II were used in the second step. The modified versions of instruments included a uni-dimensional Dyadic Adjustment Scale with 30 items, a Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory with 30 items having four conflict resolution styles (*obliging and compromising, avoiding, integrating, and dominating*), and The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire with 32 items having two attachment styles (*attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance*). An independent sample of 125 married couples participated to confirm the dimensionality of the three scales as proposed by EFA.

Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Modified) showed good model fit indices for $CMIN/df=1.52$, $CFI=.96$, $NFI=.89$, $TLI=.95$, and $RMSEA=.04$. However, following the criterion explained by Matsunaga (2010), Fleury (1998), Bernard (1998), Costello and Osborne (2005), Walker and Maddan (2012), item no. 9 was not retained for the final version. Results indicated that DAS is a unidimensional scale and is statistically valid for measuring marital quality of Pakistani married couple. Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory (Modified) also showed good model fit indices for $CMIN/df=2.71$, $CFI=.91$, $NFI=.87$, and $TLI=.90$. Thus CFA confirmed the factor structure as proposed by EFA and results indicated that ROCI-II is statistically valid for measuring different Conflict resolution styles and that it is constructed from the four sub-domains of Compromising and Obliging, Integrating, Dominating and Avoiding styles. Similarly, Experiences in Close Relation Scale (Modified) also showed good model fit indices for $CMIN/df=2.08$, $CFI=.95$, $NFI=.91$, $TLI=.94$, and $RMSEA=.06$. Once again, CFA confirmed the factor structure as proposed by EFA. These results indicated that ECR-R is statistically valid for measuring different attachment styles and that it is constructed from the two sub-domains of anxiety and avoidance.

Due to modifications in instruments it was desirable to determine psychometric properties of all scales. Alpha coefficients for the eight scales, their subscales and item total correlations were calculated. It was found that all the alpha values are acceptable and fall within high range (See Table 31). Item total correlations were calculated for analyzing each item in order to see whether all the items were significantly measuring their respective constructs. To achieve this purpose, all items identified through factor analysis were correlated with their respective scale or sub-

scale total. It was found that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis have significant positive correlation with the total score as well. This clearly indicated that the scales were internally consistent and that all items had their due contribution in the measurement of their respective constructs. Highly significant correlations were reinforcing the fact that the scale had valid construction and all items were measuring one construct. Thus findings showed that all the scales i.e., Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Dimensions of Commitment Inventory, Trait Forgiveness Scale, Communication Patterns Questionnaire: short form, and Husbands 'And Wives' Emotion Work Scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire, Eros and Storge sub-scales of Love Attitude Scale: short form are reliable measures of the constructs they are measuring and are internally consistent.

In conclusion, phase II suggested to make certain modifications in Trait Forgiveness Scale, Dimensions of Commitment Inventory, Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory-II, and Experience in Close Relationship-Revised Questionnaire. Over all, the phase provided good support for reliability and validity of the instruments and provided significant support that these instruments were ready to be used in the next phase.

PHASE III
STEP I: IDENTIFICATION OF
RELATIONSHIPS AMONG STUDY
VARIABLES

PHASE III
STEP I: IDENTIFICATION OF RELATIONSHIPS
AMONG STUDY VARIABLES

Phase III of the study was undertaken in order to find out the relationships among different study variables. The specific objectives of this phase were:

1. To study the predictive relationship between psychosocial factors (i.e., forgiveness, commitment, marital emotion work, communication pattern, attachment, conflict handling, romance, and friendship) and marital quality.
2. To study the predictive relationship between duration of marriage, number of children, education and marital quality.
3. To study the differences in marital quality on the basis of gender, family system, and financial status.
4. To study the differences in husbands and wives on the basis of marital emotion work.

Hypotheses

Following hypotheses were formulated to test in present study:

1. Integrating, obliging and compromising conflict handling styles will positively predict marital quality.
2. Dominating and avoiding conflict handling styles will negatively predict marital quality.

3. Forgiveness will be significant positive predictor of marital quality.
4. Marital emotion work shown by individuals and their spouses will positively predict marital quality.
5. Demand-withdraw and mutual avoidance and withholding communication will negatively predict marital quality.
6. Mutual constructive communication will positively predict marital quality.
7. Friendship and romance will positively predict marital quality.
8. Commitment to spouse and marriage will positively predict marital quality.
9. Feelings of entrapment will negatively predict marital quality.
10. Anxious and avoidant attachment styles will negatively predict marital quality.
11. Duration of marriage, education and nuclear family system will positively predict marital quality.
12. Number of children will negatively predict marital quality.

Sample

A sample of 616 married individuals (308 couples) was selected from Rawalpindi and Islamabad. Participants were selected by using purposive sampling technique. Only those individuals were selected who had been married for at least 2 year to 25 years ($M= 12.71$, $SD= 6.97$). Age range of the sample was from 23 – 58 years ($M= 38.30$, $SD= 8.02$). All the participants had at least 1 child and held at least bachelor's degree.

Instruments

Instruments finalized in phase II were used in this phase. All the instruments used in the study were Likert type rating scales. Detailed description of these instruments is given below:

Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale. 29 items DAS retained through CFA in phase II was used in this phase (see Appendix L). It is a uni-dimensional scale and it assesses the quality of marital or romantic relationships. The response categories and scoring for selected items was same as in original scale reported in step II of phase I.

Revised Dimensions of Commitment Inventory. 24 items Dimensions of Commitment Inventory retained through CFA in phase II was used in this phase (see Appendix K). The number of items retained for subscales were 10 measuring commitment to spouse, 9 measuring commitment to marriage, and 5 measuring feelings of entrapment. The response categories and scoring for selected items was same as in original scale reported in step II of phase I.

Revised Trait Forgivingness Scale. 8 items TFS retained through CFA in phase II was used in this phase (see Appendix J). It is a uni-dimensional scale and it assesses self-reported disposition to be forgiving of interpersonal transgressions. The response categories and scoring for selected items was same as in original scale reported in step II of phase I.

Revised Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory. 30 items Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory retained through CFA in phase II was used in this phase (see Appendix M). The number of items retained for subscales were 6 measuring integrating style, 13 measuring obliging and compromising style, 5 measuring dominating style and 6 measuring avoiding style. The response options vary from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” where a score of 5 is given to “strongly agree” and a score of 1 is given to “strongly disagree”. Scores are computed by summing across the appropriate items of the four subscales. Each score indicates whether the individual is using more or less of that particular conflict resolution strategy while handling conflicts with one’s partner.

Revised The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire. 32 items ECR-R retained through CFA in phase II was used in this phase (see Appendix N). The number of items retained for subscales were 15 measuring attachment related anxiety, 17 measuring attachment related avoidance. The response categories for selected items were same as in original scale reported in step II of phase I. Scores are computed by summing across the appropriate items of the two subscales.

In addition, original versions of Husbands and Wives Emotion Work Scale (see Appendix F), Communication Patterns Questionnaire: short form (see Appendix G), Eros and Storge subscales of Short form of Love Attitude Scale (see Appendix H) and demographic information (see Appendix I) were also used.

Procedure

Participants were approached at their homes or work places and briefed about the current study. Initially, information was obtained verbally to see whether they fit in to the research criteria. They were briefed about research and were assured that their provided information would be kept confidential and would only be used for research purposes. After having their consent the booklet was handed over to the respondents.

They were instructed to read each statement carefully and respond honestly to all items of the scales. The written instructions were reproduced verbally. The participants were briefed that there were no right or wrong answers to the statements, and that they were to select the option that was most accurate for them. There was no time limit to complete the questionnaires but they were encouraged to mark the first answer that would come to their mind. They were instructed to answer each and every item and to provide only one answer for each item. As the sample consisted of couple data, the researcher made certain that the respondent's answers were not influenced by his/her spouse. Mostly, the husbands and wives filled their respective booklets at the same time and they were instructed not to see each others' answers. On average it took 50 minutes to complete one booklet. After the completion, the research booklets were inspected for missing data. In the end, respondents were thanked for their participation and cooperation.

Results

For the present phase instruments emerged in phase II were administered. At preliminary level means, standard deviations, alphas coefficients were estimated. Test of univariate normality including skewness and kurtosis were calculated to determine the normality of variables scores. Moreover, correlation coefficients were determined to find out associations between the study variables. *t*- tests were calculated to find out mean differences among different study variables. Finally, step wise regression analyses were carried out to study the predictive relationship between psychosocial factors (commitment, forgivingness, communication pattern, marital emotion work, conflict handling, attachment, friendship and romance) and marital quality. Additionally, predictive relationship between demographic variables as education, number of children and duration of marriage was also determined.

Table 40 given below indicates that the magnitude of alpha reliability for scales used in the study ranged from .76 to .97. It was concluded that all the scales of the current research were internally consistent and measuring their respective constructs reliably. Moreover, the table also presented means and standard deviations on all variables for husbands and wives. Skewness and kurtosis values in the table given below explain the normal distribution of data.

Table 40

Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates of Husbands and Wives for Study Variables (N=616)

Scales	No of items	α	Husbands (N= 308)				Wives (N=308)				
			<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>	kurtosis	Skewness	α	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>	kurtosis	Skewness
1. Dyadic Adjustment Scale	29	.96	91.75	23.34	-1.29	-.15	.96	92.00	22.99	-1.16	-.20
2. Dimensions of Commitment Inventory											
<i>Commitment to Spouse</i>	10	.93	37.36	8.51	-.43	-.68	.86	43.33	5.55	2.18	-1.31
<i>Commitment to Marriage</i>	9	.82	30.08	7.40	-.17	-.93	.76	35.39	5.70	.57	-1.02
<i>Feelings of Entrapment</i>	5	.76	11.83	4.11	.52	.43	.83	17.11	4.60	-.39	-.36
3. Trait Forgivingness Scale	8	.85	24.82	6.30	-.76	-.41	.87	26.66	6.83	-.70	-.62
4. Communication Patterns Questionnaire short form											
<i>Mutual constructive</i>	5	.94	16.31	6.28	-1.38	-.34	.92	16.93	5.67	-1.37	-.22
<i>Demand-withdraw</i>	6	.79	15.89	6.58	-.81	.36	.88	15.46	6.47	-.85	.29
<i>Mutual avoidance and withholding</i>	3	.90	8.43	4.11	-1.41	.17	.86	7.70	3.57	-.92	.38
5. Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory											
<i>Integrating style</i>	6	.96	19.10	6.66	-1.28	-.04	.93	21.76	5.52	-1.01	-.27
<i>Obliging and compromising</i>	13	.94	44.94	10.69	-1.19	-.30	.91	52.30	8.42	2.37	-1.39
<i>Dominating style</i>	5	.86	16.88	4.85	-.90	-.24	.86	11.79	4.28	-.25	.48
<i>Avoiding style</i>	6	.86	18.79	5.78	-.50	-.24	.84	15.72	5.39	-.70	.02
6. Experiences in Close Relationships- Revised Questionnaire											
<i>Attachment related anxiety</i>	15	.96	1.63	.82	2.47	1.65	.96	2.05	.96	.27	1.09
<i>Attachment related avoidance</i>	17	.97	2.23	.97	-.37	.81	.96	1.65	.78	1.39	1.38
7. Love Attitude Scale: Short Form											
<i>Eros or romantic love</i>	4	.89	11.56	4.49	-1.21	-.13	.91	12.32	4.69	-1.31	-.17
<i>Storge or friendship love</i>	4	.88	13.99	5.13	-.79	.02	.89	15.17	5.27	-.73	-.31
8. Husbands' and Wives' Emotion Work scale											
<i>Marital emotion work (self)</i>	15	.97	52.10	13.85	-.73	-.65	.96	57.80	12.78	-.59	-.69
<i>Marital emotion work (spouse)</i>	15	.96	53.57	13.93	-.80	-.68	.96	53.06	14.65	-.59	-.62

Table 41 (a)*Within and Between Scale Correlations on all study variables for husbands and wives (N=616)*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1.DAS	-	.79**	-.38**	-.45**	.55**	.68**	.32**	-.41**	.68**	.80**	-.66**	-.61**	.82**	.80**	-.50**	-.36**	.74**	.46**
2.Integ	.81**	-	-.28**	-.43**	.67**	.59**	.12**	-.34**	.57**	.73**	-.57**	-.54**	.64**	.68**	-.45**	-.45**	.61**	.41**
3.Avoid	-.46**	-.50**	-	.24**	-.27**	-.14*	-.10	.47**	-.20**	-.26**	.39**	.33**	-.23**	-.20**	.18**	.35**	-.17**	-.20**
4.Dom	-.23**	-.39**	.19**	-	-.51**	-.49**	-.10	.14*	-.37**	-.32**	.16**	.21**	-.44**	-.46**	.18**	.29**	-.10	.04
5.Obcom	.82**	.86**	-.45**	-.33**	-	.66**	.12**	-.15**	.40**	.48**	-.33**	-.46**	.48**	.45**	-.54**	-.52**	.36**	.22**
6.Cspo	.79**	.69**	-.15**	-.16**	.73**	-	.27**	-.12*	.47**	.57**	-.38**	-.42**	.66**	.63**	-.54**	-.33**	.47**	.32**
7.Cmar	.58**	.45**	-.20**	.06	.47**	.47**	-	.19**	.47**	.08	-.15*	.01	.43**	.23**	-.03	-.12	.27**	.17**
8.Entrap	-.26**	-.21**	.39**	-.15**	-.27**	-.14*	.13*	-	-.15**	-.47**	.54**	.43**	-.26**	-.21**	.17**	.16**	-.37**	-.26**
9.TFS	.57**	.44**	-.28**	-.17**	.42**	.41**	.52**	.08	-	.51**	-.46**	-.25**	.67**	.63**	-.28**	-.23**	.47**	.26**
10.Mcons	.86**	.76**	-.35**	-.29**	.81**	.78**	.50**	-.17**	.46**	-	-.69**	-.68**	.68**	.68**	-.53**	-.31**	.71**	.45**
11.Dewith	-.60**	-.55**	.64**	.26**	-.57**	-.39**	-.26**	.28**	-.40**	-.59**	-	.74**	-.52**	-.42**	.42**	.44**	-.64**	-.50**
12.Mavoid	-.77**	-.66**	.54**	.24**	-.69**	-.59**	-.28**	.31**	-.39**	-.80**	.78**	-	-.39**	-.38**	.483**	.50**	-.55**	-.45**
13.Ew-self	.70**	.68**	-.22**	-.15**	.71**	.77**	.52**	-.04	.36**	.79**	-.41**	.58**	-	.74**	-.41**	-.25**	.63**	.36**
14.Ew-spo	.77**	.59**	-.29**	-.02	.65**	.70**	.45**	-.15*	.45**	.76**	-.47**	.64**	.74**	-	-.43**	-.19**	.54**	.29**
15.Att-anx	-.41**	-.36**	.43**	.25**	-.42**	-.23**	-.12*	.25**	-.30**	-.25**	.41**	.37**	-.06	-.24**	-	.42**	-.43**	-.37**
16.Att-avo	-.61**	-.53**	.20**	.34**	-.64**	-.57**	-.33**	.09	-.45**	-.63**	.49**	.49**	.46**	-.53**	.43**	-	-.36**	-.37**
17.Eros	.75**	.72**	-.56**	-.25**	.73**	.58**	.44**	-.18**	.49**	.72**	-.62**	.68**	.58**	.61**	-.41**	-.57**	-	.67**
18.Storge	.56**	.60**	-.47**	-.30**	.59**	.46**	.42**	.00	.46**	.61**	-.56**	.52**	.53**	.48**	-.27**	-.54**	.71**	-

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed), *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed)

Note: Wives' results are above the diagonal whereas husbands' results are below the diagonal;

DAS= Dyadic Adjustment Scale; Integ= Integrating Conflict Resolution Style; Avoid= Avoiding Conflict Resolution Style; Dom= Dominating Conflict Resolution Style; Obcom= Obliging and Compromising Conflict Resolution Style; Cspo= Commitment to Spouse; Cmar= Commitment to Marriage; Entrap= Feeling of Entrapment; TFS= Trait Forgiveness Scale; Mcons= Mutual Constructive Communication Pattern; Dewith= Demand Withdraw Communication pattern; Mavoid= Mutual Avoidance and Withdrawal Communication Pattern; Ew-self= Husbands and Wives Emotion Work (Self); Ew-spo= Husbands and Wives Emotion Work (Spouse); Att-anx= Attachment-related Anxiety; Att-avo= Attachment-related Avoidance;

Table 41 (b)*Frequency and Percentage of No. of Children (N=616)*

No. of Children	Frequency	Percentage
1	112	18.2
2	154	25
3	180	29.2
4	140	22.7
5	30	4.9

Table 41 (c)*Frequency and Percentage of Education (N=616)*

Education	Frequency	Percentage
Bachelors' & Equivalent	273	44.3
Masters & Equivalent	210	34.1
MPhil & Equivalent	128	20.8
PhD & Above	5	0.8

Table 41 (a) depicts correlation matrix of all the measures. The matrix reflects a distinct pattern of significant positive as well as significant negative relationships between different variables. Moreover variation among strength of relationships variables is evident for husbands and wives. For both husbands and wives significant positive relationship was identified between certain variables (i.e., integrating, obliging and compromising conflict resolution styles, commitment to spouse and marriage, forgiveness, mutual constructive communication pattern, marital emotion work of spouse and respondent, romance, and friendship) and marital quality. On the other hand, significant negative relationship was observed between certain other variables (i.e., avoiding and dominating conflict resolution styles, feeling of entrapment, demand-withdrawal and mutual avoidance communication patterns, attachment related anxiety and avoidance) and marital quality, for both husbands and wives.

Generally, direction of relationships between variables appears to be same for both husbands and wives but the strength of relationship varies. For example there is significant negative relationship between dominating conflict resolution style, demand-withdraw communication pattern and attachment-related anxiety and marital quality but the relationship is stronger for wives than husbands. Similarly, there is significant negative relationship between avoiding conflict resolution style, mutual avoidance communication pattern and attachment-related avoidance and marital quality but the relationship is stronger for husbands than wives.

On the other hand, there is significant positive relationship between obliging and compromising conflict resolution style, commitment to spouse and marriage, mutual constructive communication pattern and friendship and marital quality but the

relationship is stronger for husbands than wives. Similarly, there is significant positive relationship between forgiveness, marital emotion work of spouse and respondent and marital quality but the relationship is stronger for wives than husbands.

Table 42

Means, Standard Deviations, & t-values on Marital Quality for Husbands and Wives in Joint or Nuclear Family System

	Nuclear (n=143)		Joint (n=165)		t	95% CI		Cohen's d
	M	S.D	M	S.D		LL	UL	
Husbands (N= 308)	97.85	23.54	86.46	21.89	4.39***	16.48	6.29	.50
Wives (N= 308)	96.93	23.28	87.72	21.94	3.57***	14.28	4.13	.40

*df= , ***p<.001*

Table 42 shows significant differences in marital quality for husbands and wives living in joint or nuclear family systems. The results showed that husbands and wives living in nuclear family system scored higher as compared to those living in joint family system and this difference is statistically significant for both husbands ($t=(306), 4.39, p<.001$) and wives ($t=(306), 3.57, p<.001$). For husbands effect size is .24 and for wives effect size is .20 which indicates that the magnitude of difference between two groups is small for both husbands and wives (Cohen, 1988).

Table 43

Means, Standard Deviations, & t-values on Marital Quality for Husbands and Wives in Couples where one or both spouses are working

	Both Spouses		One Spouse		<i>t</i>	95% CI		Cohen's <i>d</i>
	Working		Working					
	(n=122)		(n=186)					
	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>		LL	UL	
Husbands (<i>N</i> = 308)	99.70	23.41	86.53	21.82	5.04***	18.33	8.03	.58
Wives (<i>N</i> = 308)	100.14	23.01	86.66	21.42	5.25***	18.54	8.43	.60

df= 306, ****p*<.001

Table 43 shows significant differences in marital quality for husbands and wives when in couples where one or both spouses are working. The results showed that husbands and wives when in couples where both spouses are working scored higher as compared to those in couples where one spouse is working and this difference is statistically significant for both husbands ($t=(306), 5.04, p<.001$) and wives ($t=(306), 5.25, p<.001$). For husbands effect size is .28 and for wives effect size is .29 which indicates that the magnitude of difference between two groups is small for both husbands and wives

Table 44

Means, Standard Deviations, & t-values on Marital Quality for Husbands and Wives (N=616)

	Husbands		Wives		<i>t</i>	95% CI		Cohen's <i>d</i>
	(n=308)		(n=308)			LL	UL	
	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>				
DAS	91.75	23.34	92.00	22.99	-.13	-3.92	3.42	-.01

df= 614, DAS= Dyadic adjustment Scale

Table 44 shows no significant differences in marital quality for husbands and wives. The results showed that wives scored higher as compared to husbands but this difference is statistically not significant. Effect size is .005 which indicates that the magnitude of difference between two groups is negligible.

Table 45

Means, Standard Deviations, & paired t-test values on Marital Emotion Work for Husbands and Wives (N= 616)

	Marital Emotion		Marital Emotion		<i>t</i>	95% CI	
	work (Self)		work (Spouse)			LL	UL
	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>			
Husbands (n=308)	52.10	13.85	53.57	13.93	-2.58*	-2.59	-.35
Wives (n=308)	57.80	12.78	53.06	14.65	8.26***	3.61	5.87

df= 307, ****p*<.001, **p*<.05

Paired *t*-test was used to see if there was any difference in the respondents' contribution of marital emotion work and their perception of their spouses' contribution of marital emotion work. Results showed husbands scored significantly

high ($p < .05$) on their perception of their spouses' contribution of marital emotion work than their own contribution of it. On the other hand wives scored significantly high ($p < .001$) on their contribution of marital emotion work than their perception of their spouses' contribution of it.

Table 46

Regression Analyses of Duration of Marriage, Years of Education, and Number of Children for husbands and wives on Marital Quality (N=616)

No	Models	Husbands (N=308)			Wives (N=308)		
		B	β	t	B	β	t
1	Constant	94.76		34.26	95.31		34.98
	Duration of Marriage	-.24	-.07	-1.24	-.26	-.08	-1.39
2	Constant	.61		.07	15.26		1.86
	Years of Education	4.95	.53	10.88***	4.48	.48	9.46***
3	Constant	122.09		42.81	121.92		43.39
	No of Children	-11.19	-.55	-11.55***	-11.04	-.55	-11.56***

*** $p < .001$, $df = 306$

1. Husbands: $R^2 = .01$, $Adj R^2 = .00$, $F = 1.54$; Wives: $R^2 = .01$, $Adj R^2 = .00$, $F = 1.92$; 2. Husbands: $R^2 = .28$, $Adj R^2 = .28$, $F = 118.35***$; Wives: $R^2 = .23$, $Adj R^2 = .22$, $F = 89.46***$; 3. Husbands: $R^2 = .30$, $Adj R^2 = .30$, $F = 133.43***$; Wives: $R^2 = .30$, $Adj R^2 = .30$, $F = 133.68***$;

Table 46 shows significant prediction of marital quality by education and number of children. In case of husbands and wives, education came out to be a significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 28% and 23 % of the variance for husbands $\{R^2 = .28, F(306) = 118.35, p < .001\}$ and wives $\{R^2 = .23, F(306) = 89.46, p < .001\}$. Number of children came out to be a significant negative

predictor of marital quality as accounting for 30% of the variance $\{R^2 = .30, F(306) = 133.43, p < .001\}$ for husbands and wives $\{R^2 = .30, F(306) = 133.68, p < .001\}$. Whereas duration of marriage did not predict marital quality for both husbands and wives.

Table 47

Regression Analysis of Conflict Resolution Styles on Marital Quality (N=616)

No	Models	Husbands (N= 308)			Wives (N=308)			
		B	B	t	Models	B	β	t
1	Constant	10.88		3.33	Constant	19.90		6.14
	Oblicom	1.80	.82	25.49***	Integ	3.31	.80	22.94***
2	Constant	17.63		5.41	Constant	34.06		7.52
	Oblicom	1.09	.50	8.21***	Integ	3.13	.75	21.42***
	Integ	1.33	.38	6.27***	Avoid	-.65	-.15	-4.36***
3	Constant	7.02		1.49	Constant	43.89		7.81
	Oblicom	1.07	.49	8.22***	Integ	2.95	.72	18.78***
	Integ	1.48	.42	6.90***	Avoid	-.60	-.14	-4.00***
	Dom	.49	.10	3.08**	Dom	-.58	-.11	-2.89***

Note: Integ = Integrating conflict resolution style; Oblicom= Obliging and Compromising conflict resolution style; Dom = Dominating conflict resolution style; Avoid= Avoiding conflict resolution style

* $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

1. Husbands: $R^2 = .68$, Adj $R^2 = .68$, $F = 649.49***$, $\Delta R^2 = .68$; Wives: $R^2 = .63$, Adj $R^2 = .63$, $F = 526.14***$, $\Delta R^2 = .63$; 2. Husbands: $R^2 = .72$, Adj $R^2 = .71$, $F = 384.97***$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$; Wives: $R^2 = .65$, Adj $R^2 = .65$, $F = 288.01***$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$; 3. Husbands: $R^2 = .73$, Adj $R^2 = .72$, $F = 266.97***$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$; Wives: $R^2 = .66$, Adj $R^2 = .66$, $F = 199.47***$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$

Table 47 shows significant prediction of marital quality by conflict resolution styles. In case of husbands, three models emerged in the findings that accounted for 68 % to 73% of variance when all types of conflict resolution styles were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated obliging and compromising style as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 68% of the variance $\{R^2 = .68, F(1, 306) = 649.49, p < .001\}$. The second model included integrating style as significant positive predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 4% variance $\{R^2 = .71, F(2, 305) = 384.97, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. The third model also included dominating style as the third significant positive predictor of marital quality accounting for an additional 1% of variance $\{R^2 = .73, F(3, 304) = 266.97, p < .01\}$. Avoiding conflict resolution style did not enter in the model.

On the other hand in case of wives also, three models emerged in the findings that accounted for 63 % to 66% of variance when all types of conflict resolution styles were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated integrating style as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 63% of the variance $\{R^2 = .63, F(1, 306) = 526.14, p < .001\}$. The second model included avoiding style as significant but negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 2% variance $\{R^2 = .65, F(2, 305) = 288.01, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. The third model also included dominating style as the third significant and negative predictor of marital quality accounting for an additional 1% of variance $\{R^2 = .66, F(3, 304) = 199.41, p < .001\}$. Obliging and compromising conflict resolution style did not enter in the model.

Table 48

Regression Analysis of Commitment on Marital Quality ($N=616$)

No	Models	Husbands ($N= 308$)			Wives ($N=308$)			
		<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	Models	<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
1	Constant	10.48		2.87	Constant	-29.89		-3.93
	Spouse	2.16	.79	22.81***	Spouse	2.81	.68	16.17***
2	Constant	-1.97		-.52	Constant	5.99		.75
	Spouse	1.83	.67	18.31***	Spouse	2.63	.63	16.61***
	Marriag	.84	.27	7.34***	Entrap	-1.63	-.33	-8.52***
3	Constant	12.75		3.08	Constant	-10.97		-1.37
	Spouse	1.68	.61	17.55***	Spouse	2.33	.56	14.94***
	Marriag	1.01	.32	9.18***	Entrap	-1.91	-.38	-10.33***
	Entrap	-1.20	-.21	-6.80***	Marriag	.98	.24	6.42***

Note: Spouse =Commitment to Spouse; Marriag =Commitment to Marriage; Entrap =Feeling of Entrapment; *** $p<.001$

1. Husbands: $R^2=.63$, Adj $R^2=.63$, $F= 520.06^{***}$, $\Delta R^2=.63$; Wives: $R^2=.46$, Adj $R^2=.46$, $F= 261.30^{***}$, $\Delta R^2=.46$; 2. Husbands: $R^2=.69$, Adj $R^2=.69$, $F= 331.91^{***}$, $\Delta R^2=.06$; Wives: $R^2=.56$, Adj $R^2=.56$, $F= 197.49^{***}$, $\Delta R^2=.10$; 3. Husbands: $R^2=.73$, Adj $R^2=.72$, $F= 269.37^{***}$, $\Delta R^2=.04$; Wives: $R^2=.62$, Adj $R^2=.61$, $F= 162.77^{***}$, $\Delta R^2=.05$

Table 48 shows significant prediction of marital quality by marital commitment. In case of husbands, three models emerged in the findings that accounted for 63 % to 72% of variance when all types of commitment were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated commitment to spouse as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 63% of the variance $\{R^2=.63, F(1, 306) = 520.06, p<.001\}$. The second model included commitment to marriage as significant positive predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for

additional 6% variance $\{R^2 = .69, F(2, 305) = 331.91, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. The third model also included feelings of entrapment as the third significant but negative predictor of marital quality accounting for an additional 4% of variance $\{R^2 = .73, F(3, 304) = 46.11, p < .01\}$.

On the other hand for wives also three models emerged in the findings that accounted for 46 % to 62% of variance when all types of commitment were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated commitment to spouse as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 46% of the variance $\{R^2 = .46, F(1, 306) = 261.30, p < .001\}$. The second model included feelings of entrapment as significant but negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 10% variance $\{R^2 = .56, F(2, 305) = 72.56, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. The third model also included commitment to marriage as the third significant and positive predictor of marital quality accounting for an additional 5% of variance $\{R^2 = .62, F(3, 304) = 41.24, p < .001\}$.

Table 49

Regression Analysis of Forgiveness on Marital Quality (N=616)

No	Models	Husbands (N= 308)			Wives (N=308)			
		B	B	t	Models	B	β	t
1	Constant	39.13		8.80	Constant	31.15		8.00
	Forgiv	2.12	.57	12.20***	Forgiv	2.28	.68	16.13***

Note: Forgiv= Trait Forgivingness Scale; *** $p < .001$

Husbands: $R^2 = .33$, Adj $R^2 = .33$, $F = 148.88$ ***, $\Delta R^2 = .33$; Wives: $R^2 = .46$, Adj $R^2 = .46$, $F = 260.20$ ***, $\Delta R^2 = .46$

Table 49 shows significant prediction of marital quality by forgiveness. In case of husbands, forgiveness came out to be a significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 33% of the variance $\{R^2=.33, F(1, 306) = 148.88, p<.001\}$. In case of wives also, forgiveness came out to be a significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 46% of the variance $\{R^2=.46, F(1, 306) = 260.20, p<.001\}$.

Table 50

Regression Analysis of Communication Pattern on Marital Quality (N=616)

No	Models	Husbands (N= 308)			Wives (N=308)			
		B	B	t	Models	B	β	t
1	Constant	39.94		20.78	Constant	36.79		14.92
	Construc	3.18	.86	28.88***	Construc	3.26	.80	23.60***
2	Constant	63.97		13.12	Constant	61.69		12.28
	Construc	2.44	.66	13.98***	Construc	2.58	.64	14.34***
	M-avoid	-1.42	-.25	-5.32**	M-de	-1.68	-.25	-5.61**

Note: Construc= Mutual constructive communication pattern; M-avoid= Mutual avoidance and withdrawal communication pattern; M-de= Man demand- woman withdraw communication pattern
 *** $p<.01$, ** $p<.001$

1. Husbands: $R^2=.73$, Adj $R^2=.73$, $F= 834.11$ ***, $\Delta R^2=.73$; Wives: $R^2=.65$, Adj $R^2=.64$, $F= 557.17$ ***, $\Delta R^2=.65$; 2. Husbands: $R^2=.75$, Adj $R^2=.75$, $F= 468.47$ ** , $\Delta R^2=.02$; Wives: $R^2=.68$, Adj $R^2=.68$, $F= 322.02$ ** , $\Delta R^2=.03$

Table 50 shows significant prediction of marital quality by communication patterns. In case of husbands, two models emerged in the findings that accounted for

73 % to 75% of variance when all types of communication patterns were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated mutual constructive communication pattern as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 73% of the variance $\{R^2 = .73, F(1, 306) = 834.11, p < .001\}$. The second model included mutual avoidance and withholding communication pattern as significant negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 2% variance $\{R^2 = .75, F(2, 305) = 468.47, p < .01\}$ in marital quality. Demand withdraw communication patterns did not enter in the model.

In case of wives also two models emerged in the findings that accounted for 65 % to 68% of variance when all types of communication patterns were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated mutual constructive communication pattern as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 65% of the variance $\{R^2 = .65, F(1, 306) = 557.17, p < .001\}$. The second model included man demand woman withdraw communication pattern as significant but negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 3% variance $\{R^2 = .68, F(2, 305) = 322.02, p < .01\}$ in marital quality. Mutual avoidance and withholding and woman demand and man withdraw communication patterns did not enter in the model.

Table 51*Regression Analysis of Marital Emotion Work on Marital Quality (N=616)*

No	Models	Husbands (N= 308)			Wives (N=308)			
		B	B	t	Models	B	β	t
1	Constant	22.92		6.74	Constant	6.57		1.89
	Spouse	1.29	.77	20.91***	self	1.48	.82	12.19***
2	Constant	16.84		4.91	Constant	3.88		1.27
	Spouse	.93	.55	10.60***	Self	.93	.52	12.21***
	Self	.48	.29	5.48***	Spouse	.65	.41	9.80***

Note: Spouse= Marital emotion work (Spouse); Self= Marital emotion work (Self)

*** $p < .001$

1. Husbands: $R^2 = .59$, Adj $R^2 = .59$, $F = 437.25^{***}$, $\Delta R^2 = .59$; Wives: $R^2 = .68$, Adj $R^2 = .67$, $F = 634.49^{***}$, $\Delta R^2 = .68$; 2. Husbands: $R^2 = .63$, Adj $R^2 = .62$, $F = 254.43^{***}$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$; Wives: $R^2 = .75$, Adj $R^2 = .75$, $F = 463.88^{***}$, $\Delta R^2 = .08$

Table 51 shows significant prediction of marital quality by marital emotion work. In case of husbands, two models emerged in the findings that accounted for 59 % to 63% of variance when two types of marital emotion work were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated marital emotion work of spouse as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 59% of the variance $\{R^2 = .59, F(1, 306) = 437.25, p < .001\}$. The second model included marital emotion work by respondent as significant positive predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 4% variance $\{R^2 = .63, F(2, 305) = 254.43, p < .001\}$ in marital quality.

In case of wives also two models emerged in the findings that accounted for 68 % to 75% of variance when two types of marital emotion work were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated marital emotion work by respondent as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 68% of the variance

{ $R^2 = .68$, $F(1, 306) = 634.49$, $p < .001$ }. The second model included marital emotion work of spouse as significant positive predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 8% variance { $R^2 = .75$, $F(2, 305) = 463.88$, $p < .001$ } in marital quality.

Table 52

Regression Analysis of Attachment on Marital Quality (N=616)

No	Models	Husbands (N= 308)			Wives (N=308)			
		B	β	t	Models	B	β	t
1	Constant	124.46		46.77	Constant	116.46		43.08
	Avoidance	-14.67	-.61	-13.40**	Anxiety	-11.92	-.50	-9.98**
2	Constant	128.84		45.32	Constant	121.74		39.90
	Avoidance	-12.75	-.53	-10.77**	Anxiety	-10.04	-.42	-7.78**
	Anxiety	-5.33	-.19	-3.83**	Avoidance	-5.53	-.19	-3.51**

** $p < .01$

1. Husbands: $R^2 = .37$, Adj $R^2 = .37$, $F = 179.48$ **, $\Delta R^2 = .37$; Wives: $R^2 = .25$, Adj $R^2 = .24$, $F = 179.48$ **, $\Delta R^2 = .25$; 2. Husbands: $R^2 = .40$, Adj $R^2 = .40$, $F = 101.10$ **, $\Delta R^2 = .03$; Wives: $R^2 = .28$, Adj $R^2 = .27$, $F = 179.48$ **, $\Delta R^2 = .03$

Table 52 shows significant prediction of marital quality by attachment. In case of husbands, two models emerged in the findings that accounted for 37 % to 40% of variance when two types of attachment were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated attachment- related avoidance as significant negative predictor of marital quality as accounting for 37% of the variance { $R^2 = .37$, $F(1, 306) = 179.48$, $p < .01$ }. The second model included attachment-related anxiety as significant negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 3% variance { $R^2 = .40$, $F(2, 305) = 101.10$, $p < .01$ } in marital quality.

In case of wives also two models emerged in the findings that accounted for 25 % to 28% of variance when two types of attachment were regressed on marital quality. The first model indicated attachment- related anxiety as significant negative predictor of marital quality as accounting for 25% of the variance $\{R^2=.25, F(1, 306) = 99.59, p<.01\}$. The second model included attachment-related avoidance as significant negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 3% variance $\{R^2=.28, F(2, 305) = 57.79, p<.01\}$ in marital quality.

Table 53

Regression Analysis of Styles of Love on Marital Quality (N=616)

No	Models	Husbands (N= 308)			Wives (N=308)		
		B	B	t	Models	B	β t
1	Constant	46.73		19.21	Constant	47.09	19.03
	Eros	15.58	.75	19.85***	Eros	14.58	.74 19.41***

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$

Husbands: $R^2=.56$, Adj $R^2=.56$, $F=394.09^{**}$, $\Delta R^2=.56$; Wives: $R^2=.55$, Adj $R^2=.55$, $F=376.86^{**}$, $\Delta R^2=.55$

Table 53 shows significant prediction of marital quality by styles of love. In case of husbands, romance came out to be a significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 56% of the variance $\{R^2=.56, F(1, 306) = 394.09, p<.001\}$. In case of wives also, romance came out to be a significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 55% of the variance $\{R^2=.55, F(1, 306) = 376.86, p<.001\}$.

Discussion. This phase aimed to find out the trends of relationships among different study variables. Each of these relationships was studied for husbands and wives separately. Findings revealed predictive relationship of several psychosocial factors with marital quality for both husbands and wives, though few differences in patterns and more in strengths of relationships were observed for husbands and wives. 308 married couples participated in this phase of the study. Instruments finalized in phase II were used in this phase.

Initially means, standard deviations, alphas coefficients were estimated. It was found that the magnitude of alpha reliability for scales used in the study ranged from .76 to .97 (see Table 40). Thus, it was concluded that all the scales of the current research were internally consistent and measuring their respective constructs reliably. Skewness and kurtosis values explained normal distribution of data. The next step was to find out correlation coefficients to determine associations between the study variables. The correlation matrix reflected a distinct pattern of significant positive as well as significant negative relationships between different variables (see Table 41). Generally, direction of relationships between variables appears to be same for both husbands and wives but the strength of relationship varies. This means all those variables that had positive relationship for husbands also had positive relationship for wives but they were considered relatively more important by husbands than wives in enhancing marital quality. These findings are in line with previous studies which showed that gender difference is not significant when husbands and wives are reporting marital adjustment (Demir & Fısiloglu, 1999; Sakallı-Ugurlu & Glick, 2003). On the other hand there are other studies showing husbands experience more marital benefits than wives and therefore have higher marital satisfaction (Bernard,

1998). As for example, there was a significant positive relationship between obliging and compromising conflict resolution style, commitment to spouse and marriage, mutual constructive communication pattern and friendship and marital quality but the relationship was stronger for husbands than wives. This means that obliging and compromising conflict resolution style, commitment to spouse and marriage, mutual constructive communication pattern and friendship were considered more important by husbands than wives as having relationship with marital quality. Brines and Joyner (1999) and Wilcox (2004) also found that husbands who are deeply committed to their spouses and institution of marriage make fewer critical evaluations and experience enhanced marital happiness. Earlier researches (e.g. Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Gottman & Levenson, 1988) explained gender differences in marital behavior in which women are found to be more confronting, and emotionally expressive than men. Yet there is evidence that wives demonstrated increased tendency to use positive conflict resolution style than men (Sakalli-Ugurlu & Glick, 2003). Similarly, there was significant positive relationship between forgiveness, marital emotion work of spouse and respondent and marital quality but the relationship is stronger for wives than husbands. This reflected that forgiveness, marital emotion work of spouse and respondent were considered more important by wives than husbands as having relationship with marital quality. Johnson (1997) also found that wives are more likely to be accustomed to the emotional quality of marital functioning and more responsive to dealings that happen in the relationship. Literature also supports the viewpoint that wives are more forgiving than husbands (e.g., Exline, Baumeister, Bushman, Campbell, & Finkel, 2004; Karremans et al., 2003).

On the other hand, significant negative relationships were found between dominating conflict resolution style, demand-withdraw communication pattern and attachment-related anxiety and marital quality but the relationships were stronger for wives than husbands. This finding depicted that dominating conflict resolution style, demand-withdraw communication pattern and attachment-related anxiety were regarded as having more negative relationship with marital quality by wives than husbands. Gottman (1999) found that women are more likely to initiate discussions about conflicting relationship issues. The demand-withdrawal pattern is most often linked negatively to relationship satisfaction, with the most common pattern reportedly being for the wife to demand and the husband to withdraw (Gottman & Levenson, 1988). Similarly, significant negative relationships were found between avoiding conflict resolution style, mutual avoidance communication pattern and attachment-related avoidance and marital quality but the relationships were stronger for husbands than wives. This finding depicted that avoiding conflict resolution style, mutual avoidance communication pattern and attachment-related avoidance were regarded as having more negative relationship with marital quality by husbands than wives. Literature also reveals that avoiding conflict is also detrimental to relationships (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989) where men are likely to withdraw from negative marital interactions, while women are more likely to pursue the conversation or conflict (Johnson & Greenberg, 1994). Moreover, avoidant men seem to be at greater risk for relationship dissatisfaction than anxious men (Campbell et al., 2005). Studies have often found that males show higher avoidance and lower anxiety than females (Giudice, 2011).

Findings also revealed that there was a significant difference in marital quality for husbands and wives living in joint or nuclear family systems. It was found that husbands and wives had higher marital quality when living in nuclear family system as compared to those living in joint family system (see Table 42). Also, both husbands and wives reported that they had higher marital quality when both the spouses were working rather than when only one spouse was working (see Table 43). Several studies reinforce that when men and women residing with older in-laws or have less financial resources marital satisfaction decreases (Bloom et al, 2001; Mumtaz & Salway, 2005; Hindi, 2002; Allendorf, 2007; Jejeebhoy & Sathar, 2001). Results showed that wives scored higher as compared to husbands on marital quality but this difference was statistically not significant (Table 44). This means that both husband and wife in a couple were reported more or less same level of marital quality. This finding is in line with previous studies which showed that gender difference is not significant when husbands and wives are reporting marital adjustment (Hünler, 2002; Sakalli-Uğurlu, 2003).

When Paired *t*-test was used to see if there was any difference in the respondents' contribution of marital emotion work and their perception of their spouses' contribution of marital emotion work (see Table 45). Results showed husbands were reporting that their wives were emotionally more contributing in their marriages than their own contribution of it. On the other hand wives reported that they were emotionally more contributing in their marriages than their husbands. Being the family's emotional care taker is viewed as something women are rather than something women do (Hochschild, 1983; West & Zimmerman, 1987). From this point of view, when the socialization processes of females and males are considered,

females are generally accepted as being relationship oriented, it being in dyadic or group level, hence are more likely to develop interpersonal skills such as sensitivity, empathy, emotional expressiveness, and nurturance since it is adaptive and encouraged by society (Mackey & O'Brien, 1998). Erickson (1993, 2005) found that the performance of emotion work was significantly influenced by construction of gender, rather than by biological sex.

Lower levels of education and family income are correlated and are associated with a higher probability of marital disruption (Bramlett & Mosher, 2001). Interestingly, there is also evidence that educational level and income did not influence marital satisfaction for husbands or for wives. For present study, education did come out as a significant positive predictor of marital quality; accounting for 28% and 23 % of the variance for husbands $\{R^2=.28, F(306) = 118.35, p<.001\}$ and wives $\{R^2=.23, F(306) = 89.46, p<.001\}$. Number of children came out to be a significant negative predictor of marital quality as accounting for 30% of the variance $\{R^2=.30, F(306) = 133.43, p<.001\}$ for husbands and wives $\{R^2=.30, F(306) = 133.68, p<.001\}$. Most of the studies found that children had negative effects on marital adjustment (Hurley & Palonen, 1967; Ryder, 1973; White, Booth, & Edwards, 1986). Whereas duration of marriage did not predict marital quality at all for both husbands and wives (see Table 46). Literature shows that wives in marriages of 0 to 7 years in length are significantly less satisfied in their marriages because they have young children to take care of and the situation becomes even more complex if they are employed (Peterson & Gerson, 1992). While, husbands in marriages lasting 16 years or more report higher levels of marital satisfaction and decreased levels of conflict (Gottman, 1999).

Predictive relationships between different psychosocial factors and marital quality were also tested. When all types of conflict resolution styles were regressed on marital quality three models emerged for husbands and wives (see Table 47). The first model indicated obliging and compromising style as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 68% of the variance $\{R^2 = .68, F(1, 306) = 649.49, p < .001\}$. The second model included integrating style as significant positive predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 4% variance $\{R^2 = .71, F(2, 305) = 384.97, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. The third model also included dominating style as the third significant positive predictor of marital quality accounting for an additional 1% of variance $\{R^2 = .73, F(3, 304) = 266.97, p < .01\}$. Avoiding conflict resolution style did not enter in the model. These findings suggested that husbands who were employing obliging and compromising, integrating and dominating styles had higher marital quality.

In case of wives, first model indicated integrating style as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 63% of the variance $\{R^2 = .63, F(1, 306) = 526.14, p < .001\}$. The second model included avoiding style as significant but negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 2% variance $\{R^2 = .65, F(2, 305) = 288.01, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. The third model also included dominating style as the third significant and negative predictor of marital quality accounting for an additional 1% of variance $\{R^2 = .66, F(3, 304) = 199.41, p < .001\}$. These findings suggested that wives who were employing more of integrating styles and less of avoiding and dominating styles had higher marital quality. Interesting difference to note here was that dominating style was a significant positive predictor of marital quality for husbands but for wives it was a significant

negative predictor. Thus husbands who were employing more of and wives who were employing less of dominating style had higher marital quality. Moreover, avoiding conflict resolution style did not predict marital quality for husbands whereas obliging and compromising conflict resolution style did not predict marital quality for wives.

Over all, the above mentioned findings regarding the prediction of marital quality from conflict resolution styles are in line with previous findings. Malkoç (2001) found that spouses with high marital adjustment use more constructive and less destructive communication patterns than spouses low in marital adjustment. When conflict is handled in a constructive way, marital satisfaction and relationship stability will increase; on the other hand if conflict is handled in a destructive way, the couple is doomed to bear a relatively unsatisfactory relationship (Brehm, 1992; Cramer, 2000; Gottman, 1993; Gottman & Krokoff, 1989; Greeff & Bruyne, 2000; Heavey et al., 1993; Kurdek, 1995).

Different types of commitments also predicted marital quality for both husbands and wives (see Table 48). It was found that all three types of commitment were important to enhance marital quality for both husbands and wives, though few differences were also highlighted. In case of husbands, three models emerged; first model indicated commitment to spouse as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 63% of the variance $\{R^2 = .63, F(1, 306) = 520.06, p < .001\}$. The second model included commitment to marriage as significant positive predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 6% variance $\{R^2 = .69, F(2, 305) = 331.91, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. The third model also included feelings of entrapment as the third significant but negative predictor of marital quality accounting for an additional 4% of variance $\{R^2 = .73, F(3, 304) = 46.11, p < .01\}$. On the other

hand for wives also three models emerged; first model indicated commitment to spouse as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 46% of the variance $\{R^2 = .46, F(1, 306) = 261.30, p < .001\}$. The second model included feelings of entrapment as significant but negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 10% variance $\{R^2 = .56, F(2, 305) = 72.56, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. The third model also included commitment to marriage as the third significant and positive predictor of marital quality accounting for an additional 5% of variance $\{R^2 = .62, F(3, 304) = 41.24, p < .001\}$. Thus feelings of entrapment negatively predicted marital quality for both husbands and wives but it had more detrimental effect on wives than husbands. These findings also supported previous findings as in many studies marital commitment between spouses has been found to be an important predictor of stable, satisfying marriages (Adams & Jones, 1997; Johnson, 1991; Johnson, Caughlin, & Huston, 1999; Nock, 1995; Noller, 1996). However, Lauer and his colleagues (Lauer, Lauer and Kerr, 1990) explained that commitment to institution of marriage is a barrier that keeps individuals in unhappy marriages. Similarly feeling of entrapment is a negative dimension of commitment. In the current study commitment to spouse and marriage both came out to be positive predictors of marital quality. Thus, adding to the existing body of literature.

Forgiveness came out to be another significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 33% of the variance $\{R^2 = .33, F(1, 306) = 148.88, p < .001\}$ for husbands and explained 46% of the variance $\{R^2 = .46, F(1, 306) = 260.20, p < .001\}$ for wives. These findings reinforced previous studies determining positive relation between forgiveness and marital satisfaction (Orathinkal & Vansteenwegan, 2006; Fincham & Beach, 2007; Gordon & Baucom, 1998).

When different types of communication patterns were regressed on marital quality, two models emerged for both husbands and wives. In case of husbands, first model indicated mutual constructive communication pattern as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 73% of the variance $\{R^2 = .73, F(1, 306) = 834.11, p < .001\}$. The second model included mutual avoidance and withholding communication pattern as significant negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 2% variance $\{R^2 = .75, F(2, 305) = 468.47, p < .01\}$ in marital quality. In case of wives, first model indicated mutual constructive communication pattern as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 65% of the variance $\{R^2 = .65, F(1, 306) = 557.17, p < .001\}$. The second model included man demand woman withdraw communication pattern as significant but negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 3% variance $\{R^2 = .68, F(2, 305) = 322.02, p < .01\}$ in marital quality. Demand withdraw communication patterns did not predict marital quality for husbands. Whereas, mutual avoidance and withholding and woman demand and man withdraw communication patterns did not predict marital quality for wives. Constructive communication pattern has been associated with self-reported marital adjustment in other studies too (Heavy et al., 1995; Christensen & Shenk, 1991; Noller & White, 1990). Couples who report a pattern of demanding and withdrawing tend to experience declines in relationship satisfaction over time (Heavey, Christensen, & Malamuth, 1995) and divorce (Gottman & Levenson, 2000).

Furthermore, marital emotion work emerged as significant positive predictor of marital quality (See Table 51). When marital emotion work of respondent and spouse was regressed on marital quality, two models were emerged for both husbands

and wives. In case of husbands, first model indicated marital emotion work of spouse as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 59% of the variance $\{R^2 = .59, F(1, 306) = 437.25, p < .001\}$. The second model included marital emotion work by respondent as significant positive predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 4% variance $\{R^2 = .63, F(2, 305) = 254.43, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. In case of wives, first model indicated marital emotion work by respondent as significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for 68% of the variance $\{R^2 = .68, F(1, 306) = 634.49, p < .001\}$. The second model included marital emotion work of spouse as significant positive predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 8% variance $\{R^2 = .75, F(2, 305) = 463.88, p < .001\}$ in marital quality. Thus it is quite obvious that husbands' marital emotion work is predicting wives' marital quality and wives' marital emotion work is predicting husbands' marital quality. It was also found that both husbands and wives reported that wives' contribution of marital emotion work was more than husbands'. Erickson (2005) explained that constructing gender in feminine terms increased emotion work among men, whereas among women both feminine and masculine gender constructions increased more emotion work. Other studies have also found that women perform more marital emotion work (Hochschild, 1983; West & Zimmerman, 1987).

In case of husbands and wives, two models emerged in the findings when two types of attachment were regressed on marital quality (see Table 52). For husbands, first model indicated attachment-related avoidance as significant negative predictor of marital quality as accounting for 37% of the variance $\{R^2 = .37, F(1, 306) = 179.48, p < .01\}$. The second model included attachment-related anxiety as significant negative

predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 3% variance $\{R^2 = .40, F(2, 305) = 101.10, p < .01\}$ in marital quality. In case of wives, first model indicated attachment-related anxiety as significant negative predictor of marital quality as accounting for 25% of the variance $\{R^2 = .25, F(1, 306) = 99.59, p < .01\}$. The second model included attachment-related avoidance as significant negative predictor of marital quality and this model accounted for additional 3% variance $\{R^2 = .28, F(2, 305) = 57.79, p < .01\}$ in marital quality. Thus it could be interpreted that for husbands, attachment related avoidance was more detrimental for marital quality whereas in case of wives attachment related anxiety was injurious for marital quality. Existing literature supports this relationship between gender and attachment (Giudice, 2011). Studies have found that avoidant men seem to be at greater risk for relationship dissatisfaction than anxious men (Campbell et al., 2005). And anxious individuals are also vulnerable to dissatisfaction, but they seem more likely to deal with it by staying in an unfulfilling relationship, unless their partner leaves them (Bartholomew & Allison, 2006). For current study also attachment-related anxiety and avoidance came out to be negative predictors of marital quality.

Finally, styles of love were regressed on marital quality and for both husbands and wives romance came out to be a significant positive predictor of marital quality (See Table 53). Romance accounted for 56% of the variance $\{R^2 = .56, F(1, 306) = 394.09, p < .001\}$ for husbands. In case of wives, romance accounted for 55% of the variance $\{R^2 = .55, F(1, 306) = 376.86, p < .001\}$. On the other hand, friendship did not predict marital quality for both husbands and wives. These findings are not in line with available literature. Studies (Reik, 1944; Fisher, 2006; Mitchell, 2002) explain that over time romantic love fades and it evolves into friendship-type love. Some

researchers (Acevedo & Aron, 2009) argue that romantic love—with intensity, engagement, and sexual interest— can last. Although it does not usually include the obsessional qualities of early stage love, it does not inevitably die out or at best turn into companionate love—a warm, less intense love, devoid of attraction and sexual desire. They suggested that romantic love in its later and early stages can share the qualities of intensity, engagement, and sexual liveliness. However, for current study romance and not friendship predicted marital quality for both husbands and wives.

PHASE III
STEP II: MODELS TESTING

PHASE III

STEP II: MODEL TESTING

This phase is carried out to assess the models of relationships between different psychosocial variables and MQ of husbands and wives. Structural equation modeling is extensively utilized for research purposes in social and behavioral sciences. According to Raykov and Marcoulides (2006) structural equation modeling (SEM) gives the opportunity to fit and evaluate the fitness of well specified theoretical models for empirical data. Many software packages are available for SEM as for example AMOS, LISERAL, etc. Anderson and Gerbeing (1988) explained SEM as a comparative technique that evaluates models against other constructed models in order to find out the best possible model from the available data.

For the present study AMOS was used to test a variety of models that predicted marital quality of married couples from different psychosocial factors. Each variable was tested from two different perspectives; when wives' marital quality was predicting husbands' marital quality and also when husbands' marital quality was predicting wives' marital quality.

Objectives

1. To assess the proposed models of relationships between psychosocial factors and marital quality of married couples.
2. To assess the proposed models of relationships between the demographic variables and marital quality of married couples.

Hypothesized Structural Paths

The initial proposed attachment models were tested with the hypothesized structural paths given below:

- A path from two attachment styles of husbands to husbands' marital quality and from two attachment styles of wives to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives' marital quality to husbands' marital quality and from husbands' marital quality to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives attachment styles to husbands' attachment styles and from husbands' attachment styles to wives' attachment styles.

The initial proposed forgiveness models were tested with the hypothesized structural paths given below:

- A path from forgiveness of husbands to husbands' marital quality and from forgiveness of wives to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives' marital quality to husbands' marital quality and from husbands' marital quality to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives forgiveness to husbands' marital quality and from husbands' forgiveness to wives' marital quality.

The initial proposed styles of love models were tested with the hypothesized structural paths given below:

- A path from two love styles of husbands to husbands' marital quality and from two love styles of wives to wives' marital quality.

- A path from wives' marital quality to husbands' marital quality and from husbands' marital quality to wives' marital quality.
- A path from one love style to the other for both husbands and wives.

The initial proposed MEW models were tested with the hypothesized structural paths given below:

- A path from self and spouse MEW of husbands to husbands' marital quality and from self and spouse MEW of wives to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives' marital quality to husbands' marital quality and from husbands' marital quality to wives' marital quality.
- A path from self MEW of wives and husbands to marital quality of husbands and wives respectively.

The initial proposed communication pattern models were tested with the hypothesized structural paths given below:

- A path from three communication patterns of husbands to husbands' marital quality and from three communication patterns of wives to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives' marital quality to husbands' marital quality and from husbands' marital quality to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives communication patterns to husbands' communication patterns and from husbands' communication patterns to wives' communication patterns.
- A path from one communication pattern to the other two communication patterns for both husbands and wives.

The initial proposed commitment models were tested with the hypothesized structural paths given below:

- A path from three commitment styles of husbands to husbands' marital quality and from three commitment styles of wives to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives' marital quality to husbands' marital quality and from husbands' marital quality to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives commitment styles to husbands' commitment styles and from husbands' commitment styles to wives' commitment styles.
- A path from one commitment style to the other for both husbands and wives.
- A path from wives marital quality to husbands' commitment styles and from husbands' marital quality to wives' commitment styles.

The initial proposed conflict handling models were tested with the hypothesized structural paths given below:

- A path from four conflict handling styles of husbands to husbands' marital quality and from four conflict handling styles of wives to wives' marital quality.
- A path from wives' marital quality to husbands' marital quality and from husbands' marital quality to wives' marital quality.
- A path from one conflict handling style to the other for both husbands and wives.
- A path from wives conflict handling styles to husbands' conflict handling styles and from husbands' conflict handling styles to wives' conflict handling styles.

The initial proposed demographic variables models were tested with the hypothesized structural paths given below:

- A path from six demographic variables to both wives and husbands' marital quality.
- A path from wives' marital quality to husbands' marital quality and from husbands' marital quality to wives' marital quality.

Sample, Instruments and Procedure

The sample, instruments and procedure used for this phase were same as used in the step I of phase III.

Results

AMOS 18 was used to analyze and fit the initially identified structural models. This software gives an output with number of goodness of fit indices that determines the extent to which a model fits the data. A model fits when the data can be explained by the theorized relations between the variables in the model. Important fit indices include chi-square goodness of fit which should be greater than or equal to .05. But it tends to significant with large samples. Therefore a ratio of chi-square and degree of freedom is used which should be less than or equal to three to get a good fit. Other fit indices include CFI, NFI, TLI and RMSEA. For CFI, NFI and TLI good fit are obtained when the value is greater than or equal to .90. For RMSEA a value less than or equal to .08 indicates a good fit.

It is important to note that non-recursive models were used and error covariances were allowed in all the models which helped to improve the model fit. Model fit indices and structural paths for the proposed models of different psychosocial factors and MQ of husbands and wives are given below:

Table 54

Chi square, degree of freedom and stepwise model fit indices for a proposed model of Attachment as predictor of Marital Quality among Married Couples

Models	Chi		Fit Indices				
	Square	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
M1	50.83	7	.97	.96	.94	.14	-
M2	12.07	5	.99	.99	.98	.06	38.76
M3	17.93	6	.99	.98	.98	.08	-
M4	18.39	8	.99	.98	.98	.06	-.46

Note. M1& M2: show the relationship between attachment patterns (anxious and avoidant) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

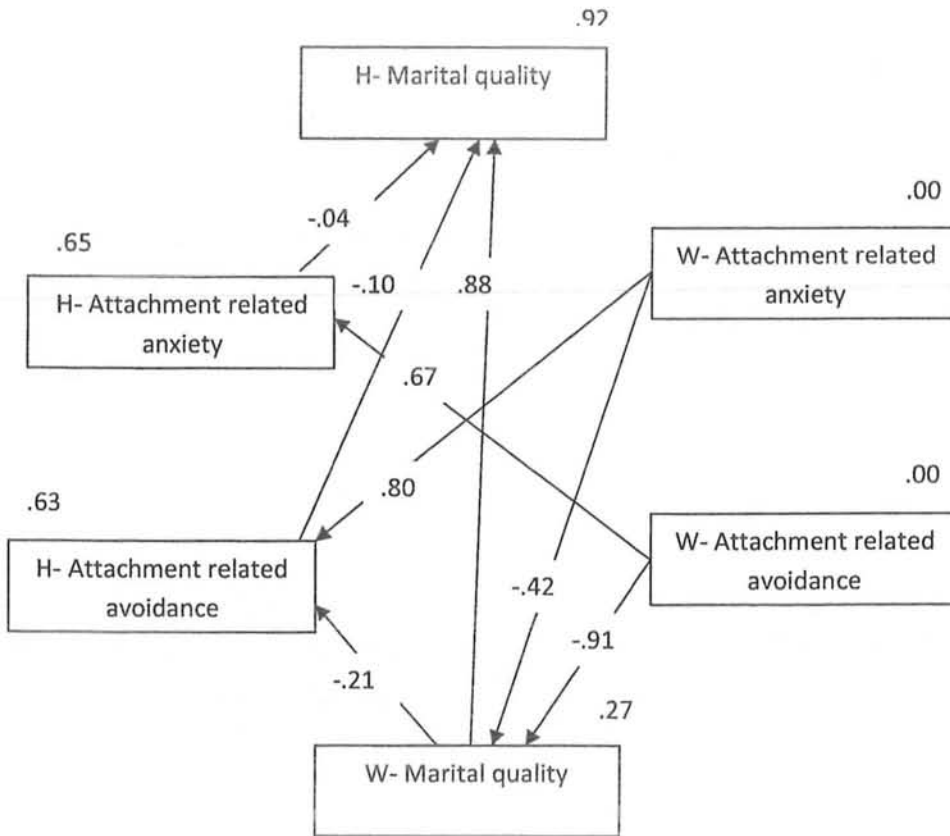
M3 & M4: show the relationship between attachment patterns (anxious and avoidant) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Table 54 shows that all the fit indices for model 2 ($\chi^2 = (5) = 12.07$, CFI=.99, NFI=.98, TLI= .98, and RMSEA= .06) and model 4 ($\chi^2 = (8) = 18.39$, CFI=.99, NFI=.98, TLI= .98, and RMSEA= .06) indicate a good fit. Thus in order to find out the best fit model for the present data AIC (M2= 44.07, M4= 44.39) and BIC (M2= 103.75, M4= 92.88) values were compared. Since there is not much of a difference

between the AIC values, BIC values helped out to give the final decision. M4 finally came out to be the best fit model as its BIC value is smaller than M2.

As going from M3 to M4 some of the non significant paths were fixed to zero in order to get the best fit model. The findings of M3 presented nonsignificant paths from wives' attachment related anxiety to wives' marital quality and wives' attachment related avoidance to wives' marital quality. On the other hand, a new path was drawn from wives' marital quality to husbands' attachment related avoidance in case of M2. These modifications improved the model fit indices for both the models. In case of M2, CFI increased to .99 from .97, NFI increased from .96 to .99, TLI increased to .98 from .94 and RMSEA changed from .14 to .06. Similarly, RMSEA value improved from .08 to .06 for M4.

It is evident from the model figures below that for married couples the attachment paths are different when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. The above table demonstrates that better model fit is attained when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. This means that when attachment styles of husbands and wives are predicting couples' marital quality, husbands' marital quality is more pertinent than wives' marital quality.

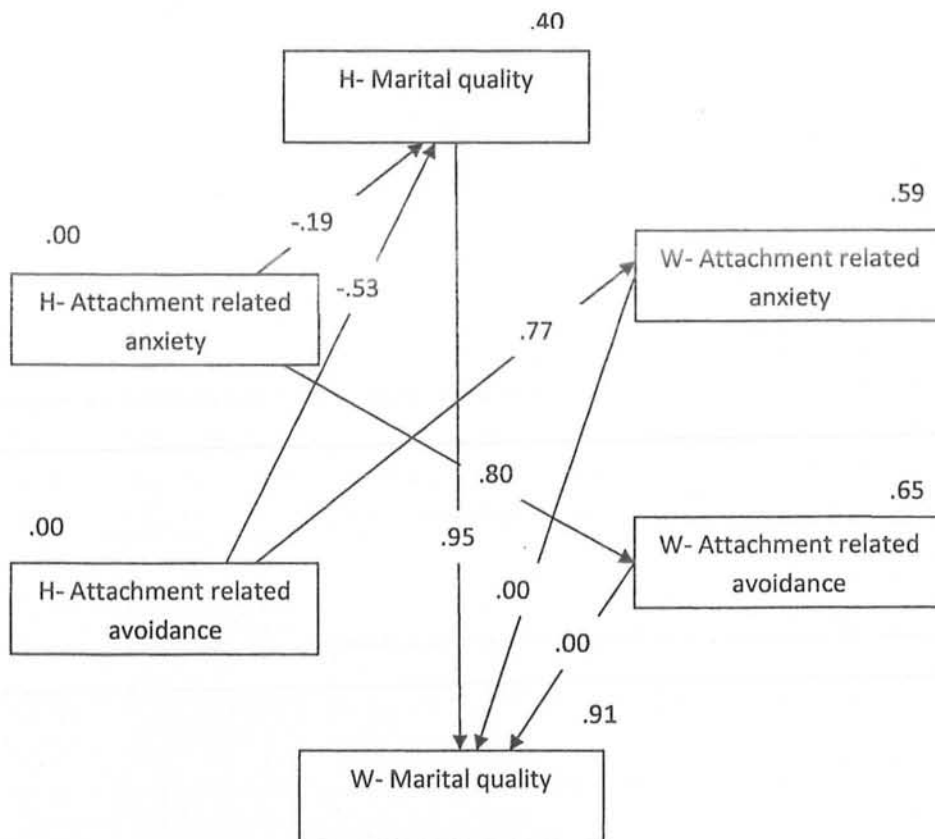


Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 1. Model representing relationship between attachment styles and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 1 showed that significant relationships exist between attachment styles and marital quality though the directions of these relationships change when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality or when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant negative prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' attachment related anxiety ($\beta = -.42, p = .001$) and avoidance ($\beta = -.19, p = .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from husbands' attachment styles to husbands' marital quality, it was found that husbands' attachment related avoidance ($\beta = -.10, p = .001$) and anxiety ($\beta = -.04, p = .05$) are significantly predicting husbands' marital quality in a negative direction. The figure also showed that wives' attachment related avoidance ($\beta = .67, p = .001$) and wives' attachment related anxiety ($\beta = .80, p = .001$) are significant positive predictors of husbands' attachment related anxiety and avoidance respectively. Over all, the model showed that wives' marital quality ($\beta = .88, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of husbands' marital quality.



H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 2. Model representing relationship between attachment styles and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Figure 2 demonstrated significant negative prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' attachment related anxiety ($\beta = -.19, p = .001$) and avoidance ($\beta = -.53, p = .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from wives' attachment styles to wives' marital quality, it was found that wives' attachment related avoidance and anxiety did not predict wives' marital quality at all. The figure also showed that husbands' attachment related avoidance ($\beta = .77, p = .001$) and anxiety ($\beta = .80, p = .001$) are significant positive predictors of wives' attachment related anxiety and avoidance respectively. Over all, the model showed that husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .91, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of wives' marital quality.

Table 55

Chi square, degree of freedom and stepwise model fit indices for a proposed model of Forgiveness as predictor of Marital Quality among Married Couples

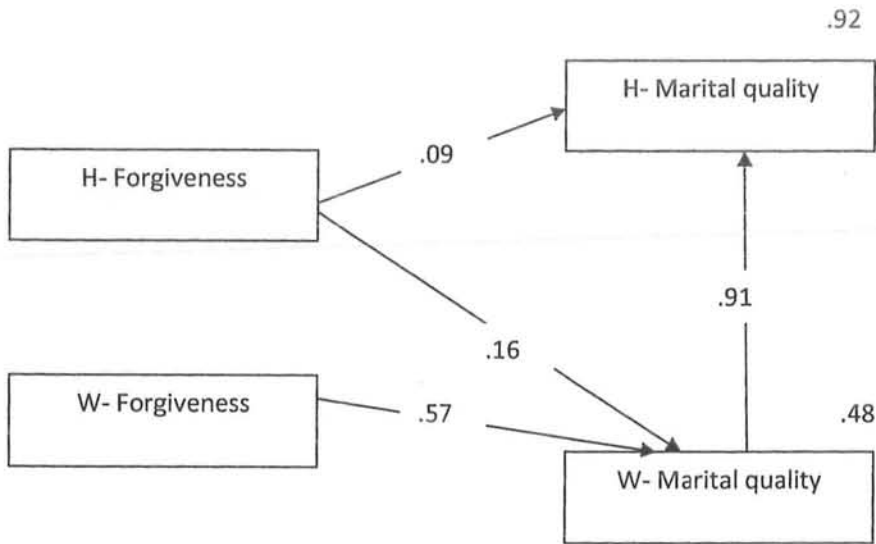
Models	Chi		Fit Indices				
	Square	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
M1	169.06	2	.85	.85	.55	.52	-
M2	4.14	1	.99	.99	.98	.10	164.65
M3	169.12	3	.85	.85	.73	.42	-
M4	4.21	2	.99	.99	.99	.06	164.91

Note. M1& M2: show the relationship between forgiveness of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

M3 & M4: show the relationship between forgiveness of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Table 55 shows that model 4 with chi square (1) = 2.50 is the best fit model. Highest values are attained for all the model fit indices (CFI=.99, NFI=.99, TLI= .99). The value for RMSEA is also improved to .06. Therefore, M4 is considered to be the best fit model for the present data as it is significantly better than the other three models. While moving from M1 to M2 and M3 to M4 a covariance was drawn between husbands' forgiveness and wives' forgiveness and it improved the model fit for both M2 and M4. Path from wives' forgiveness to wives' marital quality came out to be insignificant so this path is fixed for M4. These modifications improved the model fit indices for both the models. In case of M2, CFI increased to .99 from .85, NFI increased from .85 to .99, TLI increased to .98 from .55 and RMSEA changed from .52 to .10. In case of M4, CFI increased to .99 from .85, NFI increased from .85 to .99, TLI increased to .99 from .73 and RMSEA changed from .42 to .06.

It is evident from the model figures below that for married couples the forgiveness paths are different when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. Trait forgiveness predicts husbands' and wives marital quality. The above table demonstrates that better model fit is attained when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. This means that when trait forgiveness is predicting couples' marital quality, husbands' marital quality is more pertinent than wives' marital quality.



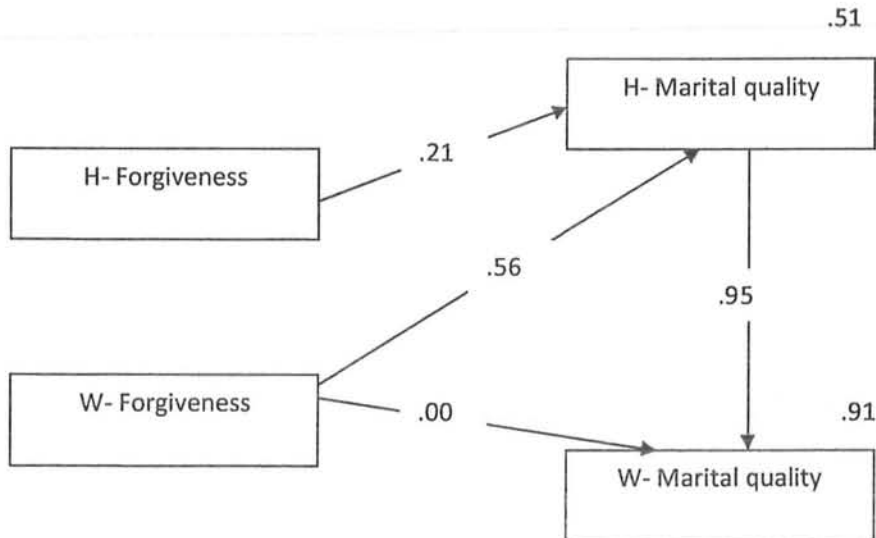
Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 3. Model representing relationship between forgiveness and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 3 showed that significant relationships exist between forgiveness and marital quality though the directions of these relationships change when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality or when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant positive prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' forgiveness trait ($\beta = .57, p = .001$). The relationship between forgiveness trait of husbands and wives suggest that wives' forgiveness is positively related to both husbands' forgiveness ($\beta = .64, p = .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from husbands' forgiveness trait to husbands' marital quality, it was found that husbands' forgiveness trait is a significant

positive predictor of both husbands' ($\beta=.09, p= .01$) and wives' ($\beta=.16, p= .001$) marital quality. Over all, the model showed that wives' marital quality ($\beta= .91, p= .001$) is a significant positive predictor of husbands' marital quality.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 4. Model representing relationship between forgiveness and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Figure 4 demonstrated significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' forgiveness trait ($\beta= .21, p= .001$). The relationship between forgiveness trait of husbands and wives suggest that wives' forgiveness is positively related to both husbands' forgiveness ($\beta= .64, p= .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from wives' forgiveness trait to wives' marital quality, it was found that wives' forgiveness trait is a significant positive

predictor of husbands' marital quality ($\beta=.56, p=.01$) but did not predict wives' marital quality at all. Over all, the model showed that husbands' marital quality ($\beta=.95, p=.001$) is a significant positive predictor of wives' marital quality.

Table 56

Chi square, degree of freedom and stepwise model fit indices for a proposed model of Styles of Love as predictor of Marital Quality among Married Couples

Models	Chi		Fit Indices				
	Square	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
M1	79.46	6	.96	.96	.91	.20	-
M2	13.52	5	.99	.99	.98	.07	65.94
M3	27.04	5	.98	.98	.96	.12	-
M4	17.63	6	.99	.99	.98	.07	9.41

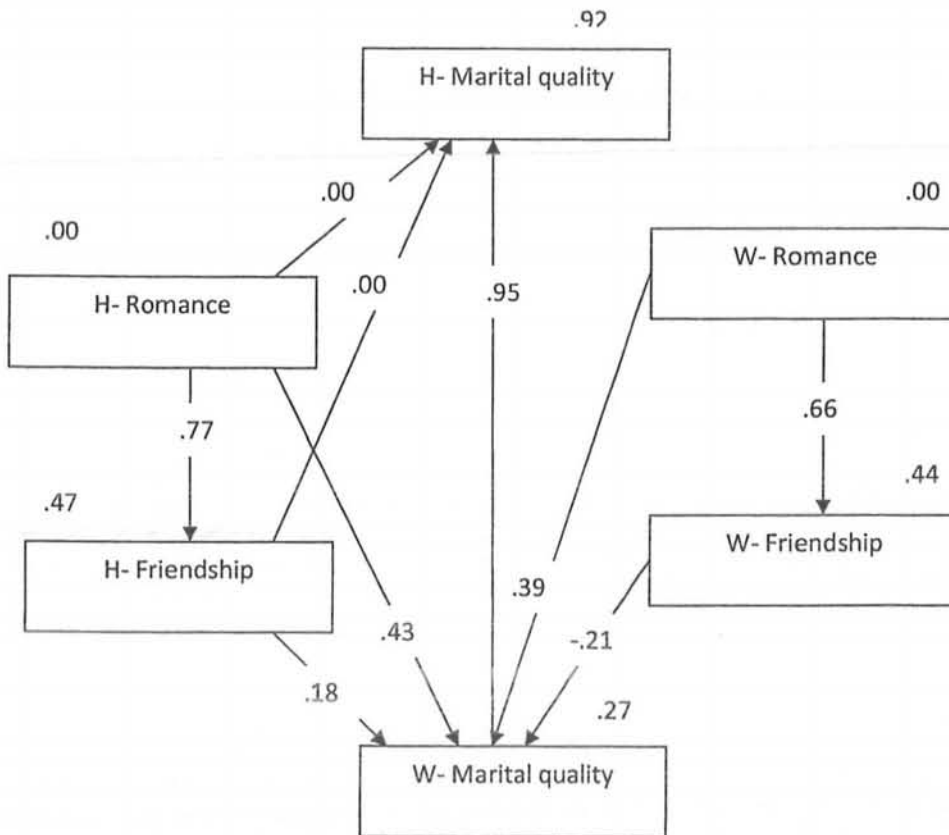
Note. M1& M2: show the relationship between styles of love (eros and storge) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

M3 & M4: show the relationship between styles of love (eros and storge) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Table 56 shows that all the fit indices for model 2 ($\chi^2 = (5) = 13.52$, CFI=.99, NFI=.98, TLI= .98, and RMSEA= .07) and model 4 ($\chi^2 = (6) = 17.63$, CFI=.99, NFI=.99, TLI= .98, and RMSEA= .07) indicate a good fit. Thus in order to find out the best fit model for the present data AIC (M2= 46.63, M4= 45.52) values were compared. M4 finally came out to be the best fit model as its AIC value is smaller than M2.

As going from M3 to M4 some of the non significant paths were fixed to zero in order to get the best fit model. The findings of M3 presented nonsignificant paths from husbands' storge to husbands' marital quality and wives' storge to wives' marital quality. On the other hand, two new paths were drawn from husbands' eros to wives' marital quality and from husbands' storge to wives' marital quality in case of M2. More over, a path from husbands' storge to husbands' marital quality and another from husbands' eros to husbands' marital quality were also removed. These modifications improved the model fit indices for both the models. In case of M2, CFI increased to .99 from .96, NFI increased from .96 to .99, TLI increased to .98 from .91 and RMSEA changed from .20 to .07.

It is evident from the model figures below that for married couples the paths of styles of love are different when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. The above table demonstrates that better model fit is attained when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. This means that when styles of love of husbands and wives are predicting couples' marital quality, wives' marital quality is more pertinent than husbands' marital quality.



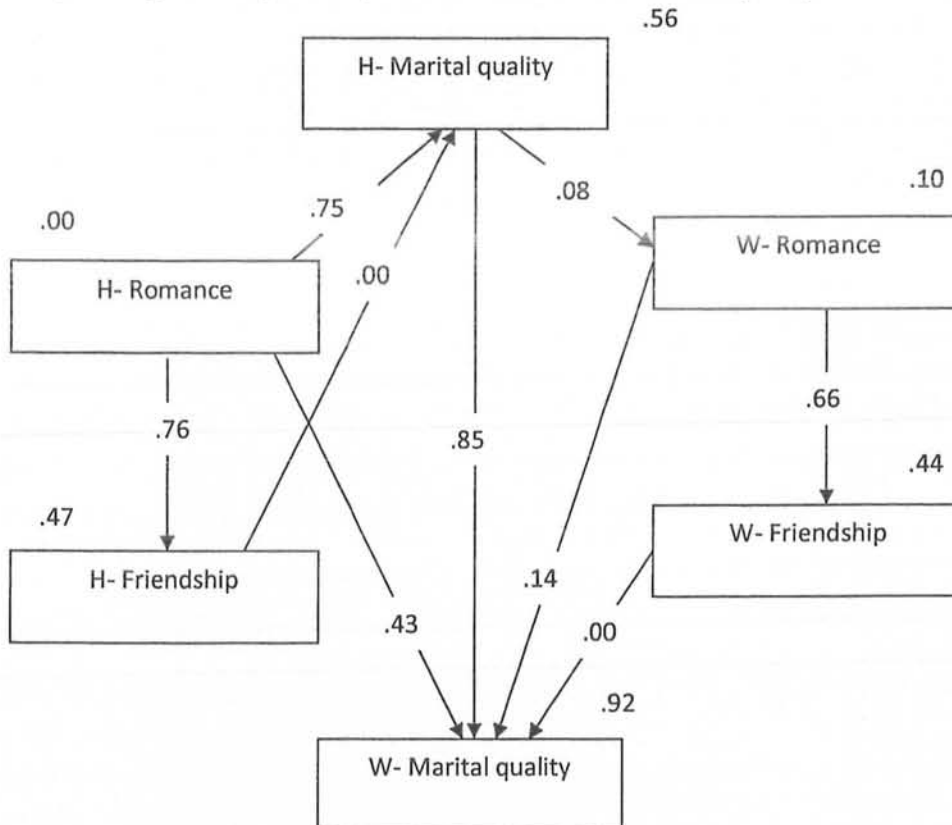
Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 5. Model representing relationship between styles of love and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 5 showed that significant relationships exist between love styles and marital quality though the directions of these relationships change when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality or when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant positive and negative prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' romance ($\beta = .39, p = .001$)

and friendship ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$). The figure also demonstrates that romance is significant positive predictor of friendship for both husbands ($\beta = .77, p = .001$) and wives ($\beta = .66, p = .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from husbands' love styles to husbands' marital quality, it was found that husbands' romance and friendship are not directly predicting husbands' marital quality. It is also found that husbands' romance ($\beta = .43, p = .001$) and friendship ($\beta = .18, p = .001$) are significant positive predictors of wives' marital quality. Over all, the model showed that wives' marital quality ($\beta = .95, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of husbands' marital quality.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 6. Model representing relationship between styles of love and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Figure 6 showed significant positive prediction of wives' marital quality from husbands' romance ($\beta = .75, p = .001$). Contrary to that husbands' friendship did not predict husbands' marital quality at all. The figure also demonstrates that romance is significant positive predictor of friendship for both husbands ($\beta = .77, p = .001$) and wives ($\beta = .66, p = .001$). Moreover, husbands' marital quality positively predicted wives' romance ($\beta = .08, p = .05$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from wives' love styles to wives' marital quality, it is found that wives' romance ($\beta = .14, p = .001$) predicted wives' marital quality but friendship did not predict wives' marital quality at all. Over all, the model showed that husbands' MQ ($\beta = .85, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of wives' marital quality.

Table 57

Chi square, degree of freedom and stepwise model fit indices for a proposed model of Marital Emotion Work as predictor of Marital Quality among Married Couples

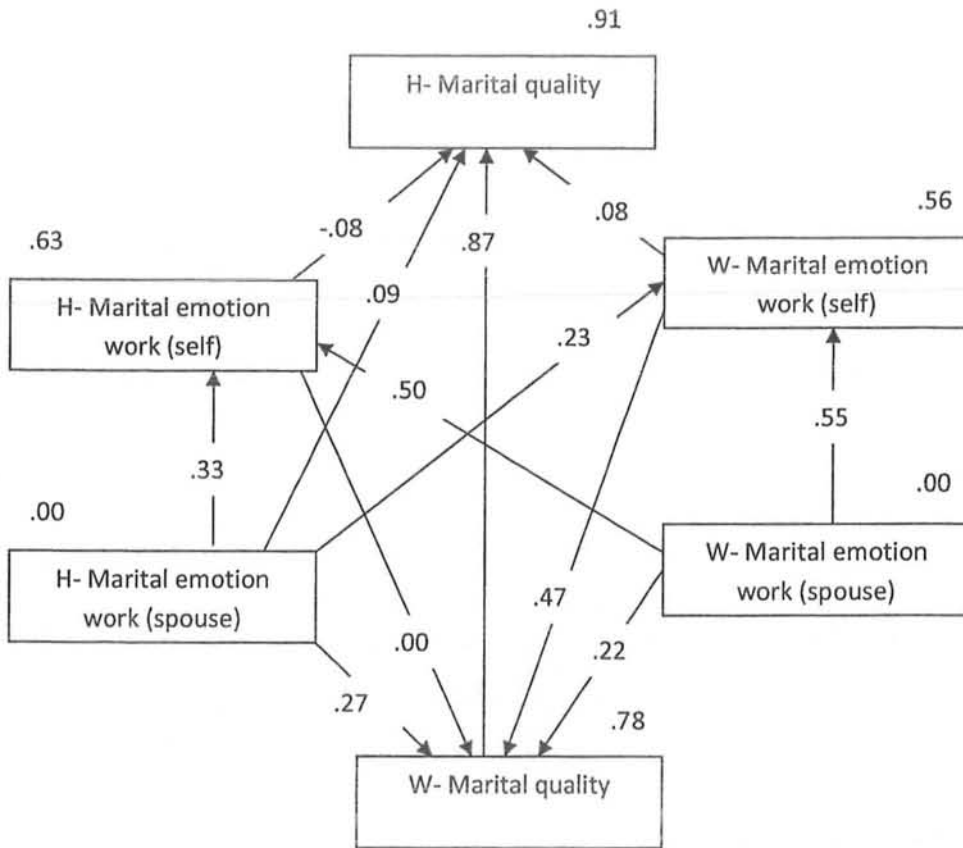
Models	Chi		Fit Indices				
	Square	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
M1	110.36	3	.95	.95	.75	.34	-
M2	2.33	2	.99	.99	.99	.02	108.03
M3	18.68	1	.99	.99	.87	.24	-
M4	10.30	3	.99	.99	.98	.08	8.38

Note. M1& M2: show the relationship between marital emotion work (self and spouse) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality
M3 & M4: show the relationship between marital emotion work (self and spouse) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

The above table shows that model 2 with chi square (2) = 2.33 is the best fit model. Highest values are attained for all the model fit indices (CFI=.99, NFI=.99, TLI= .99). The value for RMSEA is also improved to .02. Therefore, M2 is considered to be the best fit model for the present data as it is significantly better than the other three models. While moving from M1 to M2 and M3 to M4 few paths were removed and few paths were added which improved the model fit for both M2 and M4.

The findings of M3 presented nonsignificant paths from husbands' MEW (self) to husbands' MQ, husbands' MEW (spouse) to wives' MQ and wives' MEW (spouse) to wives' MQ. A new path was added from wives MEW (spouse) to husbands' MQ. In case of M2, two new paths were drawn from husbands' MEW (spouse) to wives' MEW (self) and from wives' MEW (spouse) to husbands' MEW (self). Moreover, a path from husbands' MEW (self) to wives' MQ was removed. These modifications improved the model fit indices for both the models. RMSEA values improved from .24 to .08 and .34 to .02 for M4 and M2 respectively.

It is evident from the model figures below that for married couples the MEW paths are different when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. The above table demonstrates that better model fit is attained when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. This means that when MEW is predicting couples' marital quality, wives' marital quality is more pertinent than husbands' marital quality.

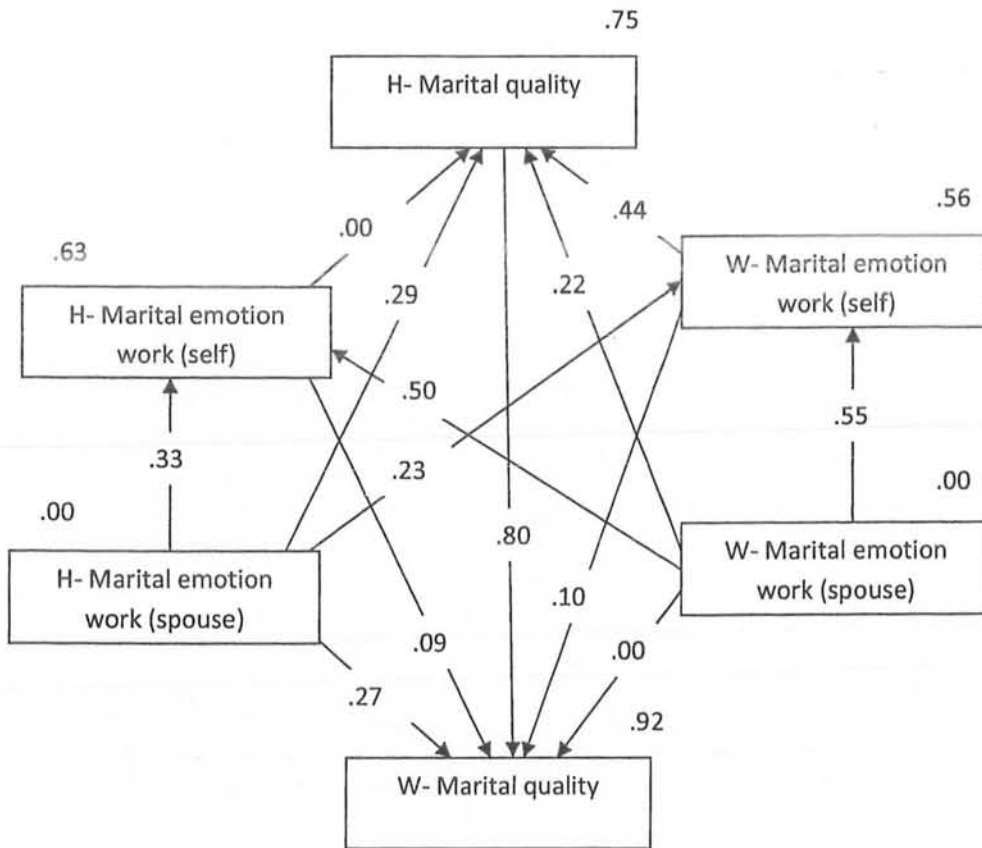


Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 7. Model representing relationship between MEW and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 7 showed that significant relationships exist between MEW and marital quality though the directions of these relationships change when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality or when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant positive prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' MEW self ($\beta = .47, p = .001$) and spouse ($\beta = .22, p = .001$) and also from husbands' MEW spouse ($\beta = .27, p = .001$). Whereas husbands' MEW self did not predict wives' marital quality at all. The figure also demonstrates that MEW spouse is significant positive predictor of MEW self for both husbands ($\beta = .33, p = .001$) and wives ($\beta = .55, p = .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from husbands' MEW to husbands' marital quality, it was found that husbands' MEW self ($\beta = -.08, p = .05$) and spouse ($\beta = .09, p = .01$) are negatively and positively predicting husbands' marital quality. It is also found that husbands' MEW spouse is a significant positive predictor of wives' MEW self ($\beta = .23, p = .001$). In the similar manner wives' MEW spouse is a significant positive predictor of husbands' MEW self ($\beta = .50, p = .001$). Over all, the model showed that wives' marital quality ($\beta = .87, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of husbands' marital quality.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 8. Model representing relationship between MEW and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Figure 8 showed significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from wives' MEW self ($\beta = .44, p = .001$) and spouse ($\beta = .10, p = .001$) and also from husbands' MEW spouse ($\beta = .29, p = .001$). Whereas husbands' MEW self did not predict husbands' marital quality at all. The figure also demonstrates that MEW spouse is significant positive predictor of MEW self for both husbands ($\beta = .33, p = .001$) and wives ($\beta = .55, p = .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from wives' MEW to wives' marital quality, it was found that for wives MEW self ($\beta = .10, p = .001$) is positively predicting where as MEW spouse did not predict wives' marital quality. It is also found that wives' MEW spouse is a significant positive predictor of husbands' MEW self ($\beta = .50, p = .001$) and marital quality ($\beta = .22, p = .001$). On the contrary husbands' MEW spouse is a significant positive predictor of wives' MEW self ($\beta = .23, p = .001$) but did not predict wives' marital quality. Over all, the model showed that husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .82, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of wives' marital quality.

Table 58

Chi square, degree of freedom and stepwise model fit indices for a proposed model of Communication Patterns as predictor of Marital Quality among Married Couples

Models	Chi		Fit Indices				
	Square	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
M1	86.52	12	.97	.97	.94	.14	-
M2	15.07	12	.99	.99	.99	.02	71.45
M3	84.03	10	.97	.97	.93	.15	-
M4	15.29	11	.99	.99	.99	.03	68.74

Note. M1& M2: show the relationship between communication patterns (mutual constructive, demand-withdrawal and mutual avoidance and withdrawal) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

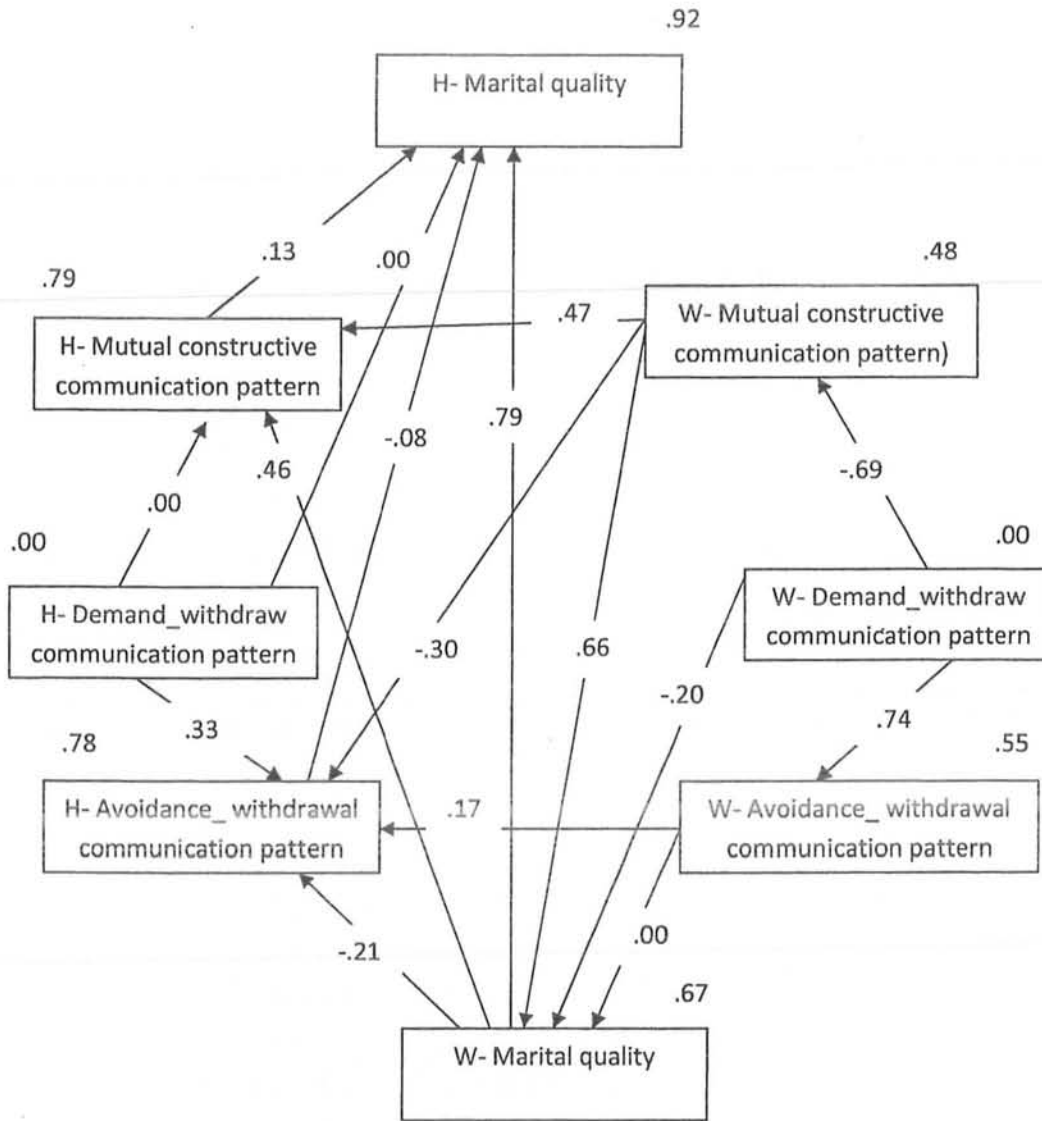
M3 & M4: show the relationship between communication patterns (mutual constructive, demand-withdrawal and mutual avoidance and withdrawal) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Table 58 shows that model 2 with chi square (12) = 15.07 is the best fit model. Highest values are attained for all the model fit indices (CFI=.99, NFI=.99, TLI= .99). The value for RMSEA is also improved to .02. Therefore, M2 is considered to be the best fit model for the present data as it is significantly better than the other three models. While moving from M1 to M2 and M3 to M4 few paths were removed and few paths were removed which improved the model fit for both M2 and M4.

The findings of M3 presented nonsignificant paths from wives' demand-withdrawal pattern to wives' marital quality, wives' mutual avoidance and withdrawal pattern to wives' marital quality and husbands' demand-withdrawal pattern to husbands' marital quality. In case of M2, paths from husbands' demand-withdrawal

pattern to husbands' mutual constructive pattern and wives' mutual avoidance and withdrawal pattern to wives' marital quality were removed. These modifications improved the model fit indices for both the models. RMSEA values improved from .15 to .03 and .14 to .02 for M4 and M2 respectively.

It is evident from the model figures below that for married couples the communication paths are different when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' v is predicting wives' marital quality. The above table demonstrates that better model fit is attained when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' v. This means that when communication patterns are predicting couples' marital quality, wives' marital quality is more pertinent than husbands' marital quality.



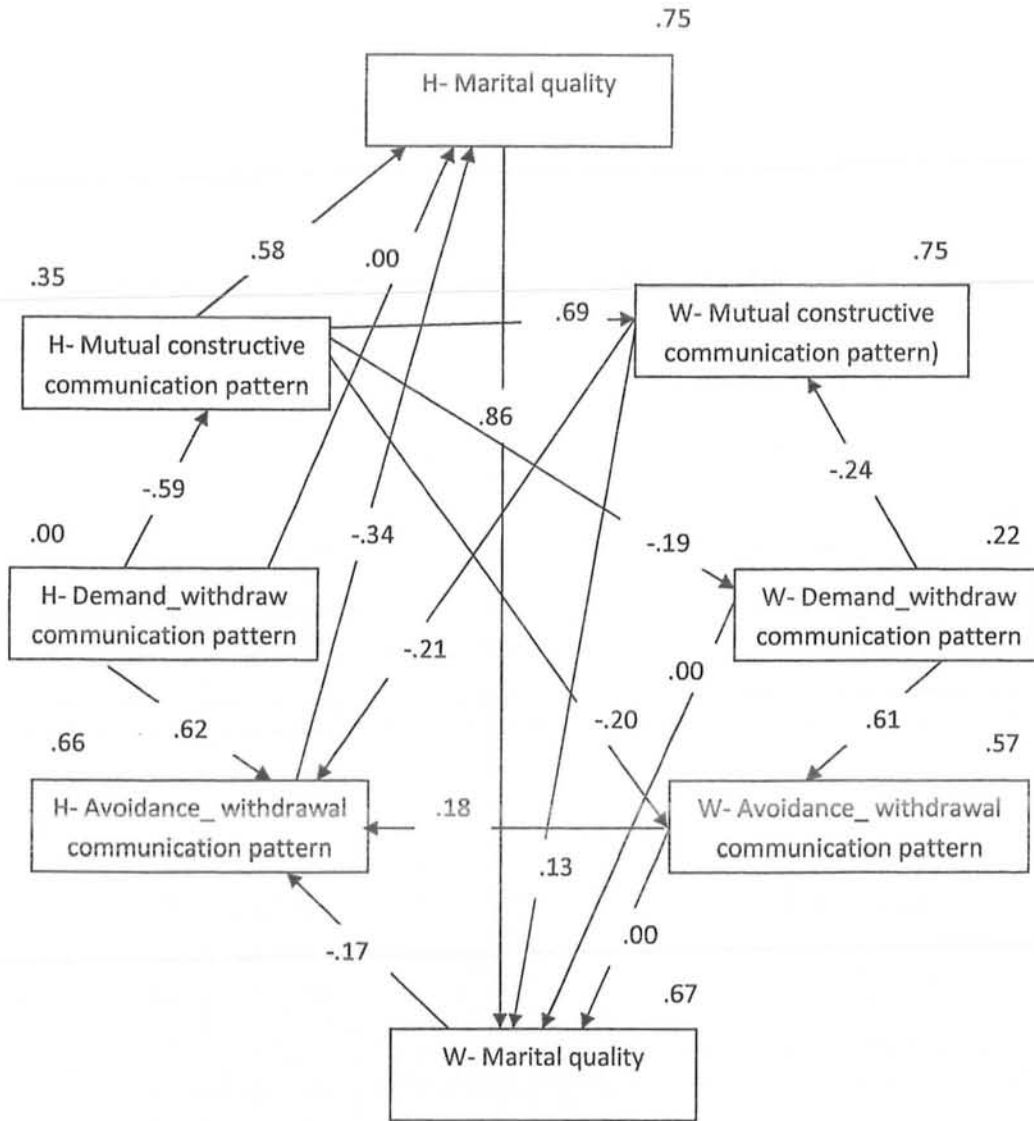
Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 9. Model representing relationship between communication patterns and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 9 showed that significant relationships exist between communication patterns and marital quality though the directions of these relationships change when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality or when wives' marital

quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant positive and negative prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .66, p = .001$) and demand withdraw pattern ($\beta = .20, p = .001$) whereas avoidance withdrawal pattern did not predict. The figure also demonstrates that for wives demand withdraw pattern is a significant positive and negative predictor of avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .74, p = .001$) and mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = -.69, p = .001$) respectively. It is also evident that wives' mutual constructive pattern and avoidance withdrawal pattern positively predict husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .47, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .17, p = .001$) respectively.

Regarding the assumptions of paths from husbands' communication patterns to husbands' marital quality, findings demonstrated significant positive and negative prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = -.08, p = .001$) whereas demand withdraw pattern did not predict. The figure also demonstrates that for husbands demand withdraw pattern is a significant positive predictor of avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .33, p = .001$) but did not predict mutual constructive pattern at all. It is also evident that wives' marital quality is a significant positive and negative predictor of husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .46, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$) respectively. Over all, the model showed that wives' marital quality ($\beta = .79, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of husbands' marital quality.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 10. Model representing relationship between communication patterns and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Figure 10 demonstrated significant positive and negative prediction of husbands' MQ from husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .58, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = -.34, p = .001$) whereas demand withdraw pattern did not predict. The figure also demonstrates that for husbands, demand withdraw pattern is a significant positive and negative predictor of avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .62, p = .001$) and mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = -.59, p = .001$) respectively. It is also evident that wives' mutual constructive pattern and avoidance withdrawal pattern negatively ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$) and positively ($\beta = .17, p = .001$) predict husbands' avoidance withdrawal pattern respectively. Moreover husbands' mutual constructive pattern positively predicted wives' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .69, p = .001$). On the other hand, husbands' mutual constructive pattern negatively predicted wives' demand withdraw pattern ($\beta = -.19, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = -.20, p = .001$) respectively.

Regarding the assumptions of paths from wives' communication patterns to wives' marital quality, findings demonstrated significant positive and negative prediction of wives' marital quality from husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) whereas demand withdraw pattern and avoidance withdrawal pattern did not predict wives' marital quality at all. The figure also demonstrates that for wives, demand withdraw pattern is a significant positive and negative predictor of avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .61, p = .001$) and mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = -.24, p = .001$) respectively. It is also evident that wives' avoidance withdrawal pattern is a significant positive predictor of husbands' avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = -.18, p = .001$). Over all, the model showed that husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .86, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of wives' marital quality.

Table 59

Chi square, degree of freedom and stepwise model fit indices for a proposed model of Commitment as predictor of Marital Quality among Married Couples

Models	Chi		Fit Indices				
	Square	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
M1	50.87	9	.97	.97	.93	.12	-
M2	33.55	9	.98	.98	.96	.09	17.32
M3	97.81	9	.95	.95	.85	.17	-
M4	15.60	10	.99	.99	.99	.04	82.21

Note. M1& M3: show the relationship between commitment (commitment to spouse, commitment to marriage and feelings of entrapment) of husbands' and wives' and MQ

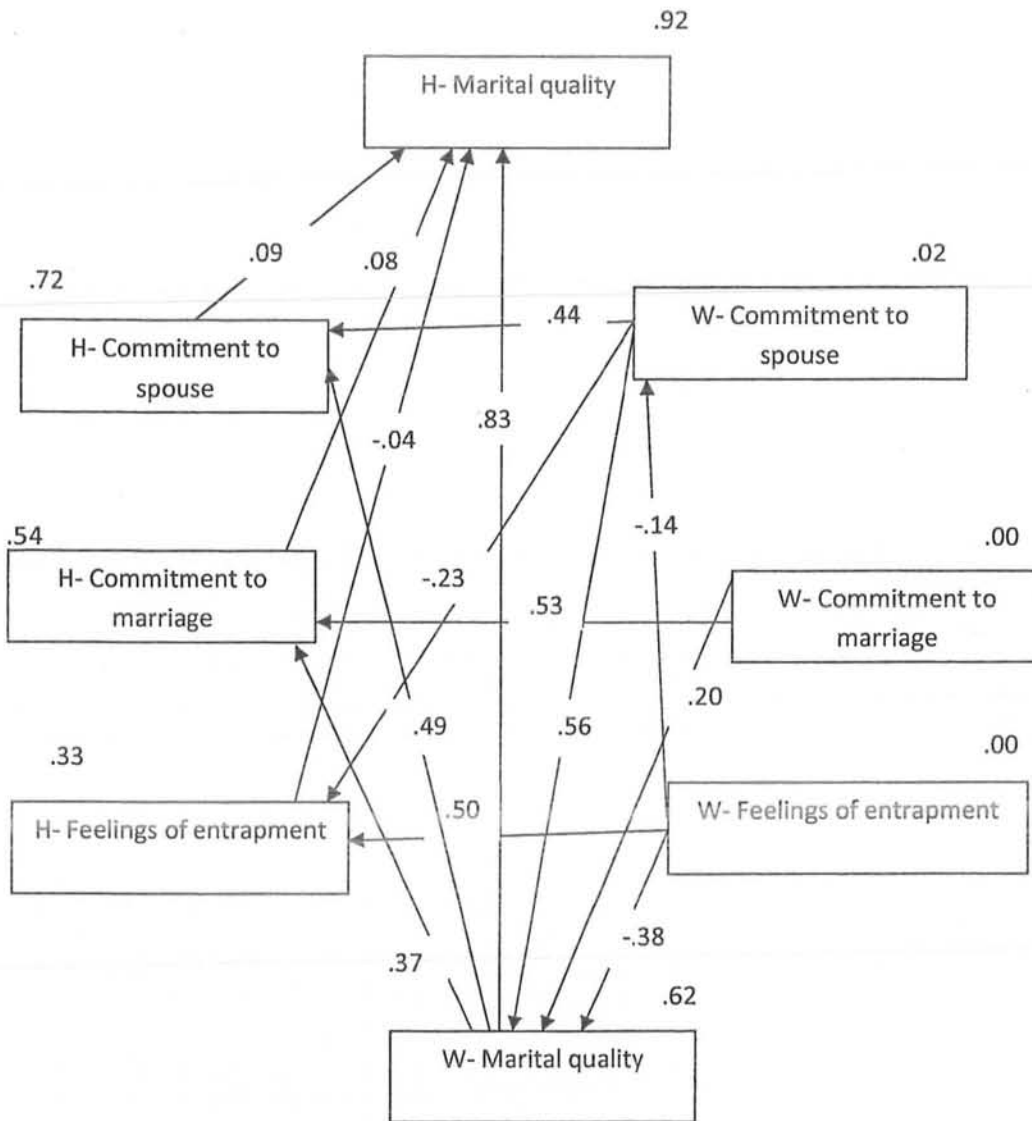
M2 & M4: show the relationship between commitment (commitment to spouse, commitment to marriage and feelings of entrapment) of husbands' and wives' and MQ when husbands' MQ is predicting wives' MQ

Table 59 shows that model 4 with chi square (10) = 15.60 is the best fit model. Highest values are attained for all the model fit indices (CFI=.99, NFI=.99, TLI= .99). The value for RMSEA is also improved to .04. Therefore, M4 is considered to be the best fit model for the present data as it is significantly better than the other three models. While moving from M1 to M2 and M3 to M4 few paths were removed and few paths were added which improved the model fit for both M2 and M4.

The findings of M3 presented nonsignificant paths from wives' commitment to spouse to wives' marital quality, wives' commitment to marriage to wives' marital quality, and wives' feeling of entrapment to wives' marital quality. Two new paths from, husbands' marital quality to wives' feeling of entrapment and husbands' commitment to spouse to wives' marital quality were added. In case of M2, a path

from husbands' feeling of entrapment to husbands' MQ was removed and a path from wives feeling of entrapment to husbands' marital quality was added. These modifications improved the model fit indices for both the models. RMSEA values improved from .12 to .09 and .17 to .04 for M2 and M4 respectively.

It is evident from the model figures below that for married couples the commitment paths are different when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. The above table demonstrates that better model fit is attained when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. This means that when commitment is predicting couples' marital quality, husbands' marital quality is more pertinent than wives' marital quality.



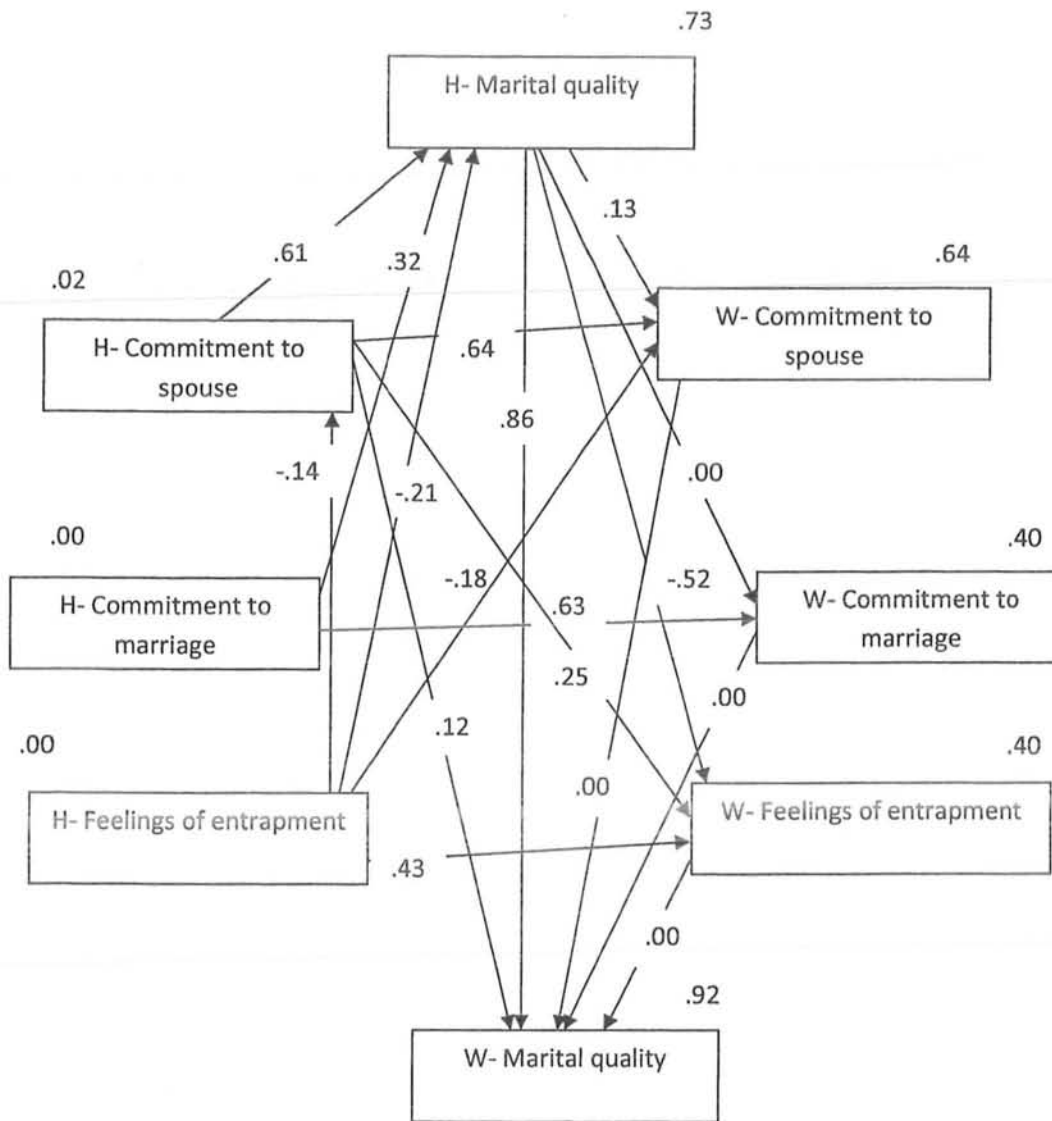
Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 11. Model representing relationship between commitment and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 11 showed that significant relationships exist between commitment and marital quality though the directions of these relationships change when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality or when wives' marital quality is

predicting husbands' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant positive prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .56, p = .001$) and marriage ($\beta = .24, p = .001$) whereas feelings of entrapment predict ($\beta = -.38, p = .001$) marital quality negatively. It is also evident that wives' commitment to spouse, marriage and feelings of entrapment positively predict husbands' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .44, p = .001$), marriage ($\beta = .53, p = .001$) and feelings of entrapment ($\beta = .50, p = .001$) respectively. Wives' feelings of entrapment negatively predicted wives' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .14, p = .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from husbands' commitment patterns to husbands' marital quality, findings demonstrated husbands' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .09, p = .001$) and marriage ($\beta = .08, p = .001$) predicted positively whereas feelings of entrapment predict ($\beta = -.04, p = .001$) husbands' marital quality negatively. Significant positive prediction of husbands' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .49, p = .001$) and marriage ($\beta = .37, p = .001$). Over all, the model showed that wives' marital quality ($\beta = .83, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of husbands' marital quality.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 12. Model representing relationship between commitment and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Figure 12 showed significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .61, p = .001$) and marriage ($\beta = .32, p = .001$) whereas feelings of entrapment predict ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$) marital quality negatively. It is also evident that husbands' commitment to spouse, marriage and

feelings of entrapment positively predict wives' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .64, p = .001$), marriage ($\beta = .63, p = .001$) and feelings of entrapment ($\beta = .43, p = .001$) respectively. Husbands' feelings of entrapment negatively predicted both husbands' ($\beta = -.14, p = .001$) and wives' commitment to spouse ($\beta = -.18, p = .001$). Husbands' commitment to spouse positively predicted wives' marital quality ($\beta = .13, p = .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from wives' commitment patterns to wives' marital quality, findings demonstrated that wives' commitment to spouse, marriage and feelings of entrapment did not predict wives' marital quality directly. Figure also showed significant positive prediction of wives' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) from husbands' marital quality. Over all, the model showed that husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .86, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of wives' marital quality.

Table 60

Chi square, degree of freedom and stepwise model fit indices for a proposed model of Conflict Handling as predictor of Marital Quality among Married Couples

Models	Chi		Fit Indices				$\Delta\chi^2$
	Square	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	
M1	99.69	21	.96	.96	.93	.10	-
M2	48.17	22	.99	.98	.97	.06	51.52
M3	69.54	18	.98	.97	.94	.09	-
M4	36.28	19	.99	.98	.98	.05	33.28

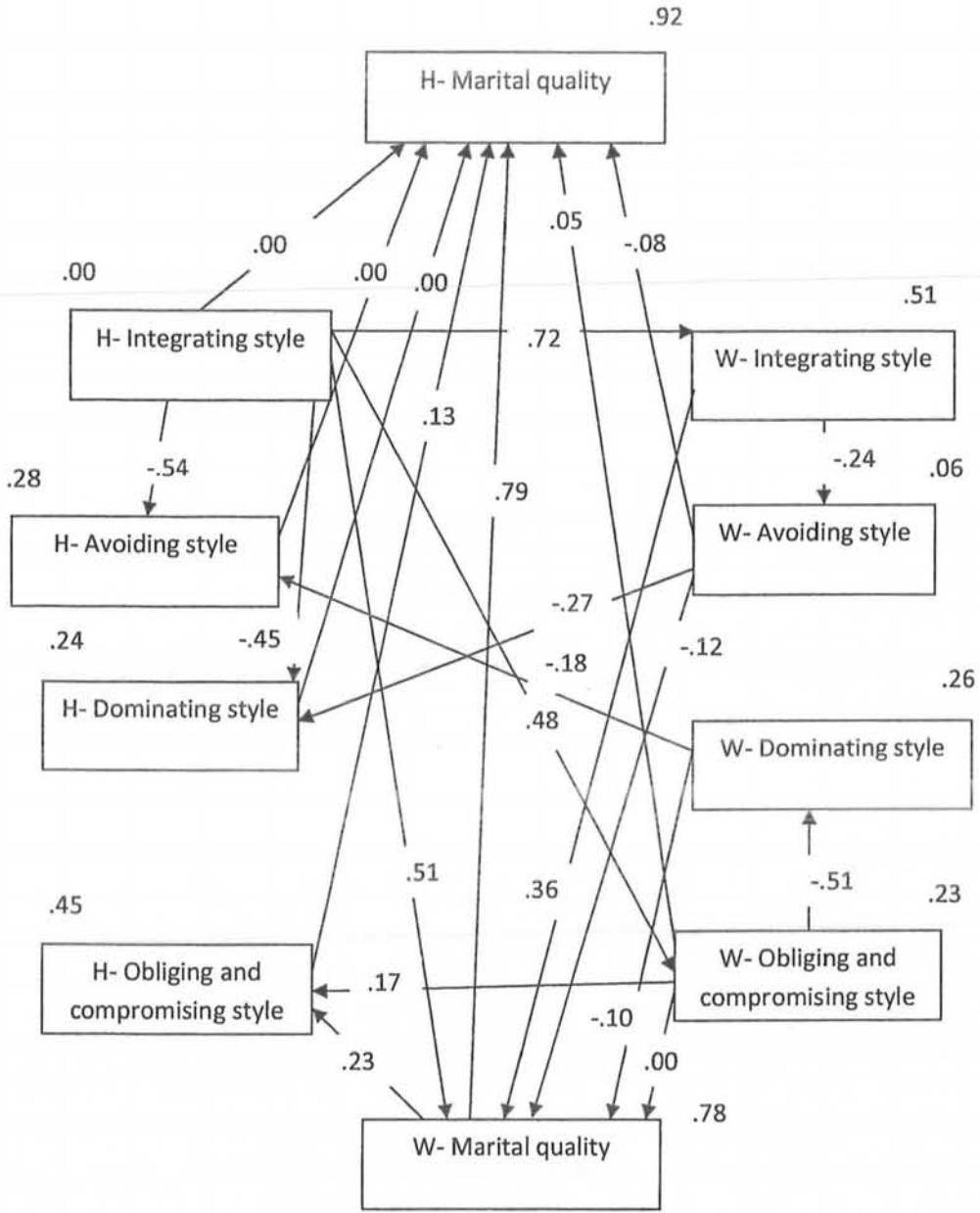
Note. M1& M2: show the relationship between conflict handling styles (integrating, avoiding, dominating and obliging and compromising) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

M3 & M4: show the relationship between conflict handling styles (integrating, avoiding, dominating and obliging and compromising) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Table 60 shows that model 4 with chi square (19) = 36.28 is the best fit model. Highest values are attained for all the model fit indices (CFI=.99, NFI=.98, TLI= .98). The value for RMSEA is also improved to .05. Therefore, M4 is considered to be the best fit model for the present data as it is significantly better than the other three models. While moving from M1 to M2 and M3 to M4 few paths were removed which improved the model fit for both M2 and M4.

The findings of M3 presented nonsignificant paths from wives' avoiding style to wives' marital quality, husbands' dominating style to husbands' marital quality and husbands' avoiding style to husbands' marital quality. In case of M2, four paths were removed; husbands' integrating style to husbands' marital quality, husbands' avoiding style to husbands' marital quality, husbands' dominating style to husbands' marital quality, and wives' obliging and compromising style to wives' marital quality. These modifications improved the model fit indices for both the models. RMSEA values improved from .10 to .06 and .09 to .05 for M2 and M4 respectively.

It is evident from the model figures below that for married couples the conflict handling styles are different when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. The above table demonstrates that better model fit is attained when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. This means that when conflict handling is predicting couples' marital quality, husbands' marital quality is more pertinent than wives' marital quality.

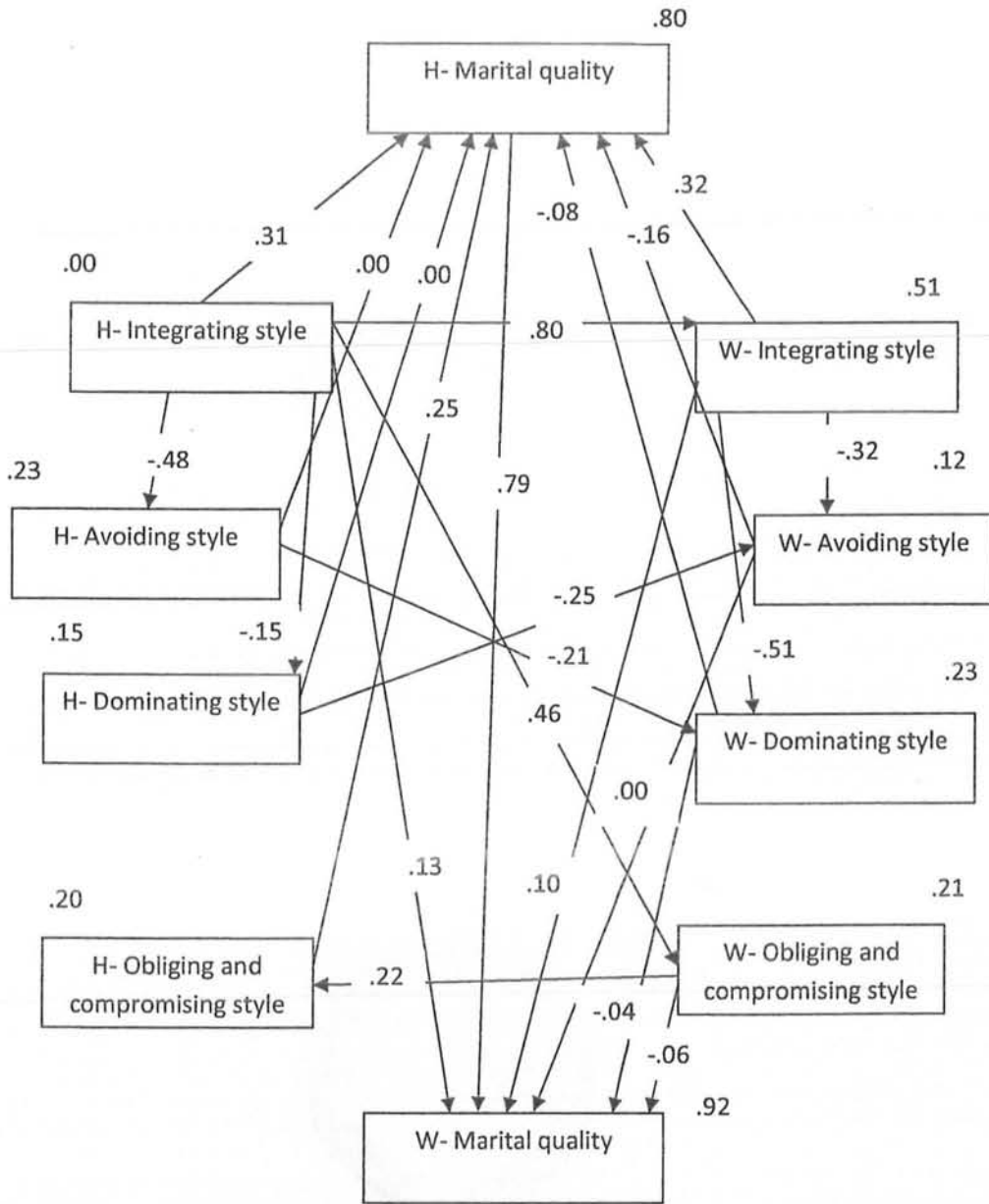


Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 13. Model representing relationship between conflict handling and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 13 showed that significant relationships exist between conflict handling and marital quality though the directions of these relationships change when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality or when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant positive prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' integrating style ($\beta = .36, p = .001$) whereas obliging and compromising style did not predict wives' marital quality at all. On the other hand wives' avoiding ($\beta = -.13, p = .001$) and dominating style ($\beta = -.10, p = .001$) predicted wives' marital quality negatively. It is also evident that wives' obliging compromising style positively predicted husbands' obliging compromising style ($\beta = .17, p = .001$). Wives' obliging and compromising and integrating style negatively predicted wives' dominating ($\beta = -.26, p = .001$) and avoiding styles ($\beta = -.23, p = .001$) respectively. Wives' avoiding and dominating style negatively predicted husbands' dominating ($\beta = -.26, p = .001$), avoiding styles ($\beta = -.18, p = .001$) and marital quality ($\beta = -.33, p = .001$) respectively.

Regarding the assumptions of paths from husbands' conflict handling patterns to husbands' marital quality, findings demonstrated husbands' obliging and compromising style ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) positively predicted husbands' marital quality whereas integrating, dominating and avoiding styles did not predict it at all. Husbands' integrating style positively predicted wives' integrating style ($\beta = .72, p = .001$). Over all, the model showed that wives' marital quality ($\beta = .79, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of husbands' marital quality.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 14. Model representing relationship between conflict handling and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Figure 14 showed significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' integrating style ($\beta = .31, p = .001$) and obliging and compromising styles ($\beta = .25, p = .001$). On the other hand husbands' avoiding and dominating styles did not predict husbands' marital quality at all. Husbands' integrating style positively predicted wives' integrating ($\beta = .80, p = .001$), obliging and compromising styles ($\beta =$

.46, $p = .001$) and wives' marital quality ($\beta = .13$, $p = .001$). Husbands' integrating style negatively predicted husbands' avoiding ($\beta = -.48$, $p = .001$) and dominating styles ($\beta = -.51$, $p = .001$). It is also evident that wives' obliging compromising style positively predicted husbands' obliging compromising style ($\beta = .22$, $p = .001$). Husbands' avoiding and dominating style negatively predicted wives' dominating ($\beta = -.21$, $p = .001$), avoiding styles ($\beta = -.24$, $p = .001$) respectively.

Regarding the assumptions of paths from wives' conflict handling patterns to wives' marital quality, findings demonstrated wives' integrating style ($\beta = .13$, $p = .001$) positively predicted wives' marital quality. Obliging and compromising ($\beta = -.04$, $p = .001$) and dominating styles ($\beta = -.06$, $p = .001$) negatively predicted wives' marital quality. Whereas avoiding style did not predict it at all. Wives' integrating style positively predicted husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .32$, $p = .001$). Wives' dominating ($\beta = -.08$, $p = .001$) and avoiding styles ($\beta = -.16$, $p = .001$) negatively predicted husbands' marital quality. Over all, the model showed that husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .79$, $p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of wives' marital quality.

Table 61

Chi square, degree of freedom and stepwise model fit indices for a proposed model of Demographic variables as predictor of Marital Quality among Married Couples

Models	Chi		Fit Indices				$\Delta\chi^2$
	Square	<i>df</i>	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	
M1	38.22	7	.97	.97	.90	.12	-
M2	15.13	11	.99	.98	.99	.03	23.09
M3	60.71	10	.96	.95	.89	.13	-
M4	11.80	10	.99	.99	.99	.02	48.91

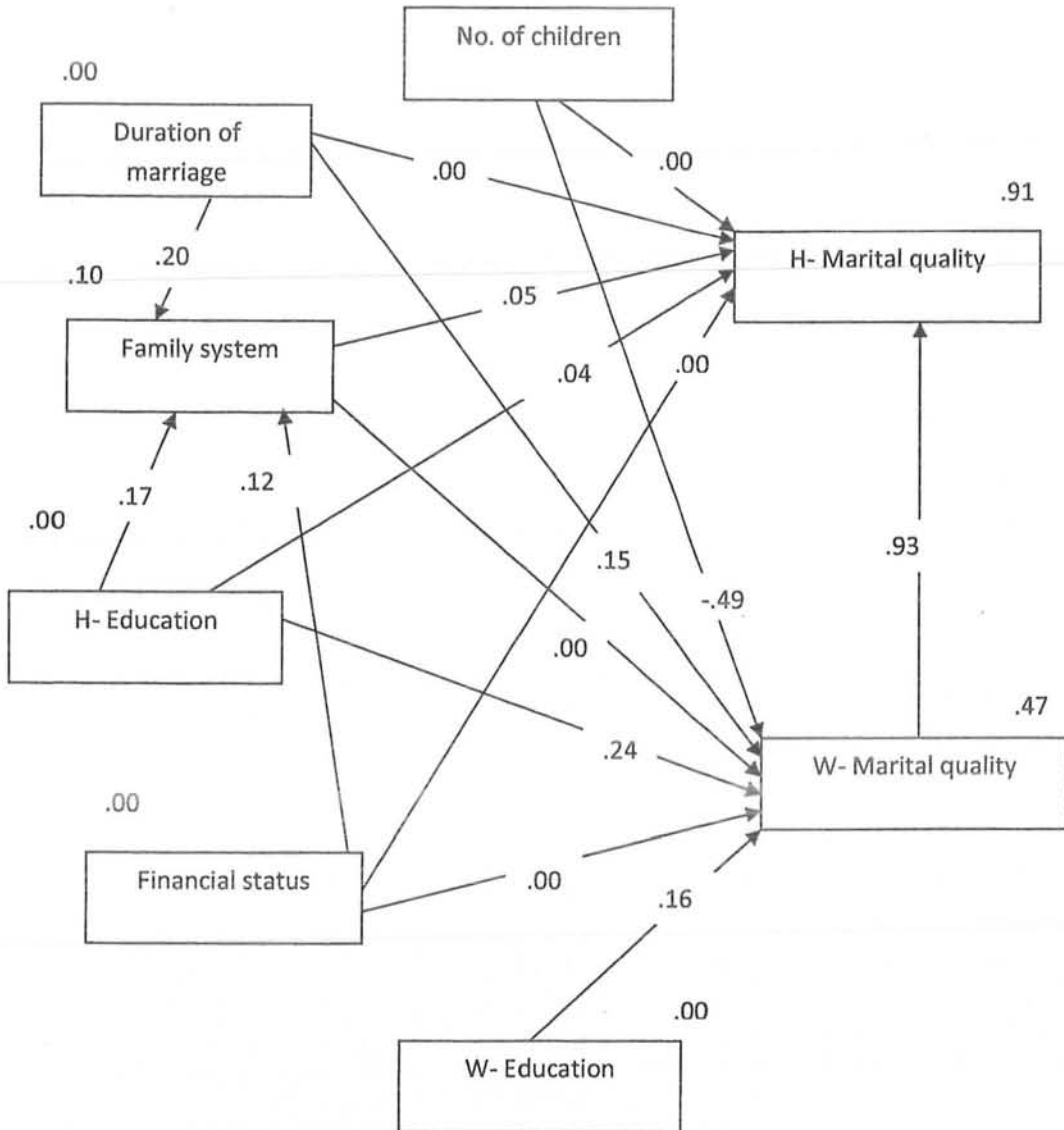
Note. M1& M2: show the relationship between demographic variables (number of children, duration of marriage, family system, financial status, and education) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

M2 & M4: show the relationship between demographic variables (number of children, duration of marriage, family system, financial status, and education) of husbands' and wives' and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Table 61 shows that model 4 with chi square (10) = 11.80 is the best fit model. Highest values are attained for all the model fit indices (CFI=.99, NFI=.99, TLI= .99). The value for RMSEA is also improved to .02. Therefore, M4 is considered to be the best fit model for the present data as it is better than the other three models. While moving from M1 to M2 and M3 to M4 few paths were removed which improved the model fit for both M2 and M4.

The findings of M3 presented nonsignificant paths from years of married life, number of children, and financial status to wives' marital quality. In case of M2, five paths were removed; number of children and years of married life to husbands' marital quality, and family system, financial status and financial status to wives' marital quality. These modifications improved the model fit indices for both the models. RMSEA values improved from .13 to .02 and .12 to .03 for M4 and M2 respectively.

It is evident from the model figures below that for married couples the demographic variables are different when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. The above table demonstrates that better model fit is attained when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. This means that when demographic variables are predicting couples' marital quality, husbands' marital quality is more pertinent than wives' marital quality.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 15. Model representing relationship between demographic variables and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 15 showed that significant relationships exist between demographic variables and marital quality though the directions of these relationships change when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality or when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant positive prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' education ($\beta = .16, p = .01$),

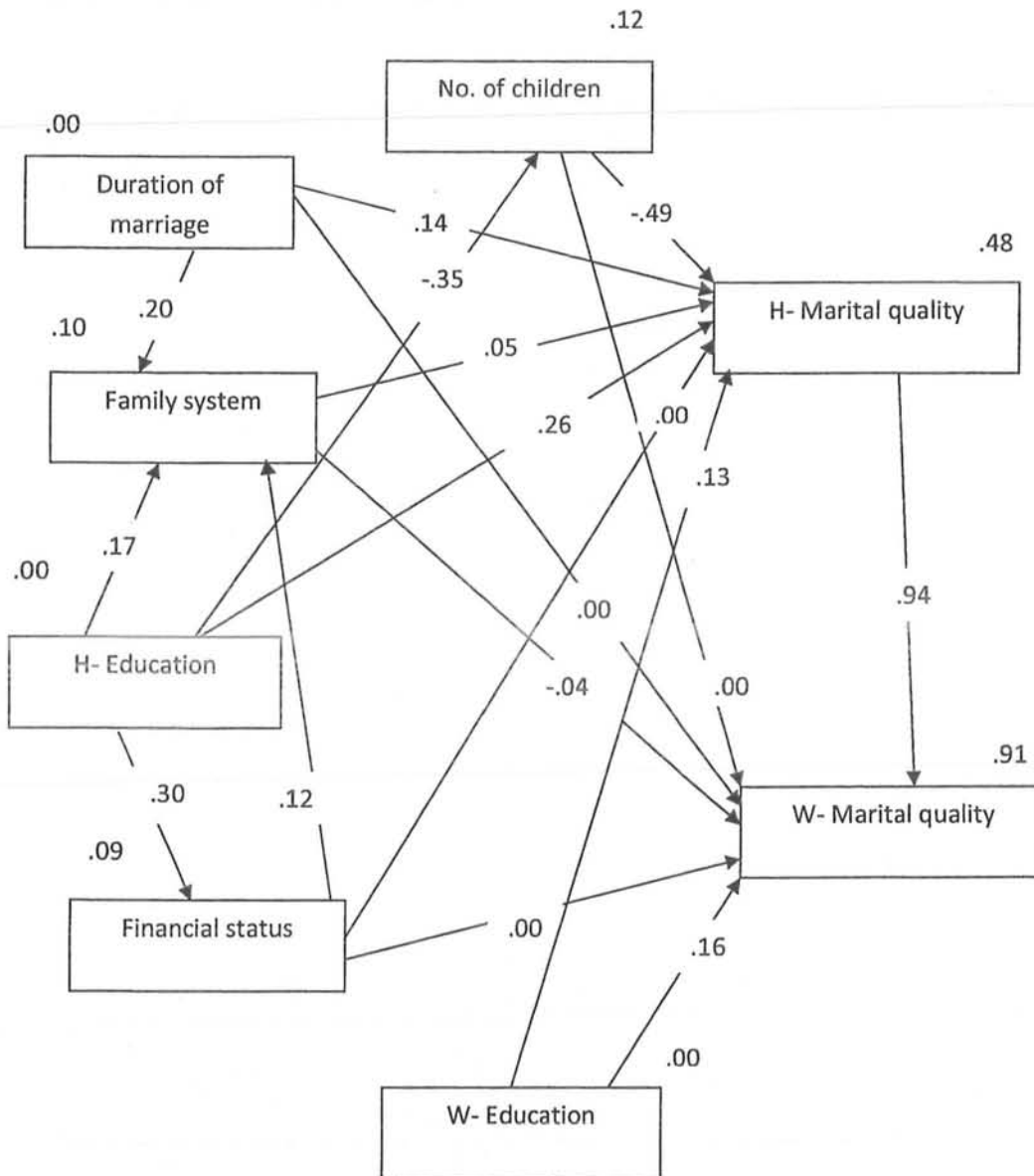
years of married life ($\beta = .15, p = .01$) and husbands' education ($\beta = .24, p = .001$). Family system and financial status did not predict wives' marital quality whereas number of children ($\beta = -.49, p = .01$) predicted it negatively. Financial status ($\beta = .12, p = .05$), years of married life ($\beta = .20, p = .001$) and husbands' education ($\beta = .17, p = .01$) positively predict family system.

Regarding the assumptions of paths from demographic variables to husbands' marital quality, findings demonstrated that husbands' education ($\beta = .05, p = .05$) and family system ($\beta = .05, p = .01$) positively predicted husbands' marital quality. On the other hand, number of children, financial status and years of married life did not predict husbands' marital quality at all. Over all, the model showed that wives' marital quality ($\beta = .93, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of husbands' marital quality.

Figure 16 showed significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from wives' education ($\beta = .13, p = .05$), years of married life ($\beta = .14, p = .01$), family system ($\beta = .11, p = .05$) and husbands' education ($\beta = .26, p = .001$). Financial status did not predict husbands' marital quality at all whereas number of children ($\beta = -.49, p = .001$) predicted it negatively. Financial status ($\beta = .12, p = .05$), years of married life ($\beta = .20, p = .001$) and husbands' education ($\beta = .17, p = .01$) positively predict family system. Husbands' education positively predict financial status ($\beta = .30, p = .001$).

Regarding the assumptions of paths from demographic variables to wives' marital quality, findings demonstrated that wives' education ($\beta = .04, p = .05$) positively predicted husbands' marital quality. Family system ($\beta = -.04, p = .05$) negatively predicted husbands' marital quality. On the other hand, number of children, financial status and years of married life did not predict wives' marital

quality at all. Over all, the model showed that husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .94, p = .001$) is a significant positive predictor of wives' marital quality.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 16. Model representing relationship between demographic variables and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Table 62

Chi square, degree of freedom and stepwise model fit indices for two conclusive models of Psychosocial Determinants of Marital Quality among Married Couples

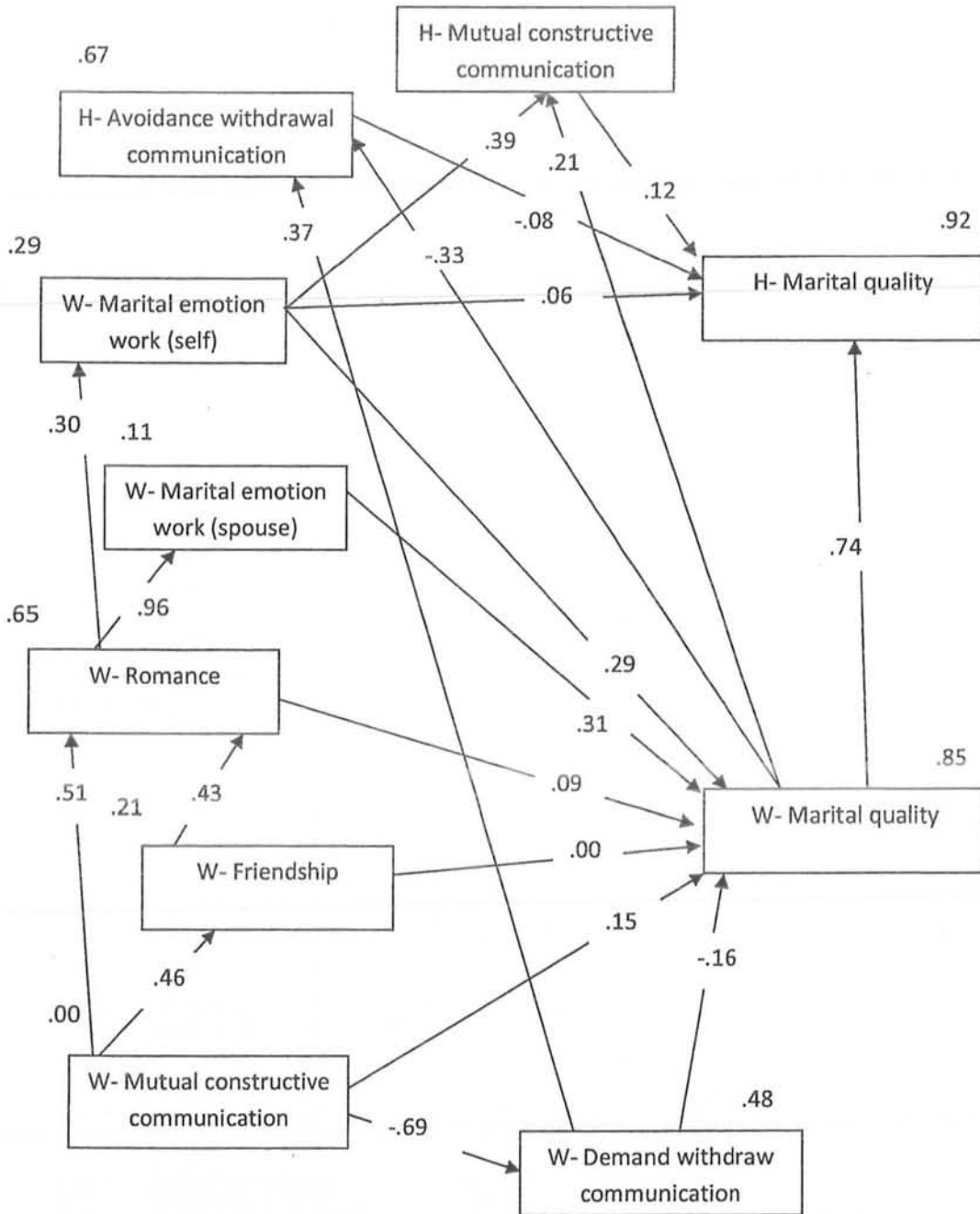
Models	Chi		Fit Indices				$\Delta\chi^2$
	Square	df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	
M1	59.34	14	.98	.93	.95	.13	-
M2	17.42	13	.99	.99	.99	.03	41.92
M3	263.01	57	.94	.92	.90	.12	-
M4	198.73	58	.96	.95	.93	.08	64.28

Note. M1 & M2: show the relationship between psychosocial determinants and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

M3 & M4: show the relationship between psychosocial determinants and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality

Table 62 shows that model 2 with chi square (13) = 1.34 and model 4 with chi square (58) = 3.42 are the two best fit conclusive models of psychosocial determinants of marital quality among married couples. Highest values are attained for all fit indices (CFI=.99, NFI=.99, TLI= .99, RMSEA= .03) in case of model 2 and in case of model 4 also highest values were attained for all fit indices (CFI=.96, NFI=.95, TLI= .93, RMSEA= .08). While moving from M1 to M2 and M3 to M4 few paths were removed and few paths were added which improved the model fit for both M2 and M4.

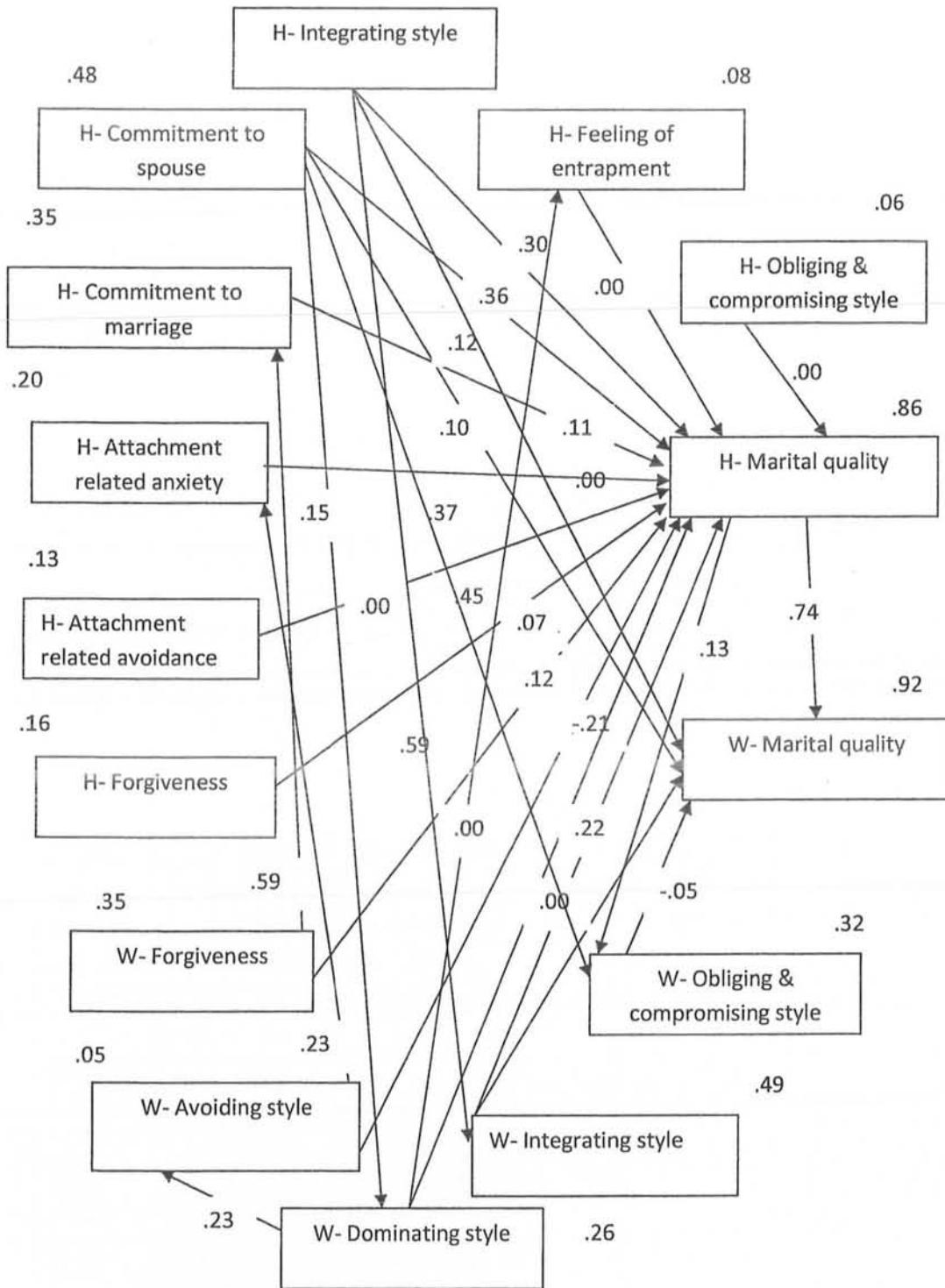
It is evident from the model figures below that for married couples, variables are different when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. This means that when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality psychosocial determinants enhancing couples' marital quality would be different than when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 17. Model representing relationship between psychosocial variables and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 17 showed that significant relationships exist between psychosocial variables and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant positive prediction of wives' marital quality from mutual constructive communication pattern ($\beta = .15, p = .01$), romance ($\beta = .18, p = .01$), marital emotion work of spouse ($\beta = .31, p = .001$) and marital emotion work of respondent ($\beta = .29, p = .001$). Whereas demand-withdraw communication pattern ($\beta = -.16, p = .01$) predicted wives' marital quality negatively. In case of husbands, mutual constructive communication pattern ($\beta = .12, p = .05$), and avoidance withdrawal communication pattern ($\beta = -.88, p = .001$) positively and negatively predicted husbands' marital quality. Moreover, wives' marital quality positively and negatively predicted mutual constructive communication pattern ($\beta = .29, p = .001$), and avoidance withdrawal communication pattern ($\beta = -.33, p = .001$) respectively. In addition, there are significant predictions within psychosocial factors related to wives and husbands.



Note. H- = husbands'; W- = wives'

Figure 18. Model representing relationship between psychosocial variables and marital quality when wives' marital quality is predicting husbands' marital quality

Figure 21 showed that significant relationships exist between psychosocial variables and marital quality when husbands' marital quality is predicting wives' marital quality. Findings demonstrated significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' integrating style ($\beta = .30$, $p = .001$), commitment to spouse ($\beta = .36$, $p = .001$), commitment to marriage ($\beta = .11$, $p = .01$), forgiveness of husbands ($\beta = .07$, $p = .05$) and wives ($\beta = .12$, $p = .05$). Whereas avoiding conflict resolution style of wives ($\beta = -.21$, $p = .01$) predicted husbands' marital quality negatively. In case of wives, integrating style ($\beta = .09$, $p = .05$), and obliging and compromising style ($\beta = .05$, $p = .05$) positively predicted wives' marital quality. In addition, there are significant predictions within psychosocial factors related to wives and husbands.

Discussion

The final step of phase III was intended to test the models of proposed relationships between psychosocial factors, demographic variables and marital quality. Each of the model explaining relationship between different research variables was investigated from two different perspectives i.e., when wives' marital quality was predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality was predicting wives' marital quality. Findings revealed that for married couples the attachment paths were different when wives' marital quality was predicting husbands' marital quality than when husbands' marital quality was predicting wives' marital quality. All the psychosocial factors were tested one by one through non-recursive models.

First psychosocial factor to be studied was attachment including two styles i.e., attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance for both husbands and wives. Path analyses demonstrated that when attachment styles of husbands and wives were predictor of marital quality among married couples, better model fit was attained when husbands' marital quality was predicting wives' marital quality (see Table 54). This means husbands' marital quality was more pertinent than wives' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. There was significant negative prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' attachment related anxiety ($\beta = -.19, p = .001$) and avoidance ($\beta = -.53, p = .001$). Over all, the model showed that when husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .91, p = .001$) was a significant positive predictor of wives' marital quality, wives' attachment styles (avoidance and anxiety) did not predict wives' MQ at all. Moreover, husbands' attachment related avoidance ($\beta = .77, p = .001$) and anxiety ($\beta = .80, p = .001$) became significant positive predictors of wives' attachment related anxiety and avoidance respectively (see Figure 2). Large body of research done on attachment has shown that avoidant men appear to be at greater risk for relationship dissatisfaction than anxious men (Campbell et al., 2005). It has often been found that males show higher avoidance and lower anxiety than females (Giudice, 2011). Feneey (2012) and Whiffen (2005) found that avoidance of closeness in husbands is associated with perceived unresponsiveness to vulnerability and attachment insecurity in wives. Anxious and avoidant individuals are vulnerable to dissatisfaction (Bartholomew & Allison, 2006). Thus findings of this study are in line with previous studies.

Second psychosocial factor to be studied was forgiveness trait of both husbands and wives. When forgiveness trait of husbands and wives was predicting

marital quality among married couples, path analyses demonstrated that better model fit was attained when husbands' marital quality was predicting wives' marital quality (see Table 55). This means husbands' marital quality was more pertinent than wives' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. Important point to note here was that model fit improved a great deal when a covariance was drawn between husbands' forgiveness and wives' forgiveness. This reflected that if both husbands and wives possess trait forgiveness there would be tremendous increase in couples' marital quality. The ability to forgive one's partner may be one of the most important factors in maintaining healthy romantic relationships (Fincham, 2009). Over all, the model showed that when husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .95, p = .001$) predicted wives' marital quality, wives' forgiveness predicted husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .56, p = .01$) but did not predict wives' marital quality at all. And husbands' forgiveness trait ($\beta = .21, p = .001$) positively predicted husbands' marital quality (see Figure 4). In couples forgiveness towards the partner is associated with restored relational closeness, satisfaction, and positive interaction following an interpersonal transgression (Gordon & Boucom, 2003; Kachadourian, Finchman & Davila, 2004). There is also evidence that forgiving partner enhances intimacy and commitment in the relationship, promotes constructive communication, and has a positive influence on marital quality over time (Paleari, Regalia, & Fincham, 2005; Tsang, McCullough, & Fincham, 2006). Studies have revealed that after controlling for concurrent socio-cognitive processes, forgiveness predicts later marital quality more strongly than marital quality predicts later forgiveness (Paleari et al., 2005). For current study also there was one directional prediction where forgiveness predicted marital quality.

Third psychosocial factor to be studied was styles of love including two styles i.e., romance and friendship for both husbands and wives. When husbands' and wives' styles of love were predicting marital quality among married couples, path analyses demonstrated that better model fit was attained when wives' marital quality was predicting husbands' marital quality (see Table 56). This means wives' marital quality was more pertinent than husbands' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. Over all, when wives' marital quality ($\beta = .95, p = .001$) predicted husbands' marital quality, there was significant positive and negative prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' romance ($\beta = .39, p = .001$) and friendship ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$). Wives' romance itself was significant positive predictor of friendship for both husbands ($\beta = .77, p = .001$) and wives ($\beta = .66, p = .001$). Husbands' romance and friendship became insignificant in predicting husbands' marital quality, though husbands' romance ($\beta = .43, p = .001$) and friendship ($\beta = .18, p = .001$) positively predicted wives' marital quality (see Figure 5). There are contradictory findings regarding the role of romance and friendship for marital quality. In contemporary Western culture, romantic love is deemed an important part of marriage. Many individuals view romantic love as a basis to marry (Dion & Dion, 1991) and its disappearance as grounds to terminate marriage (Simpson, Campbell, & Berscheid, 1986). Some have assumed that very high levels of romantic love in long term relationships might be inefficient, being metabolically costly (e.g., Fisher, 2006) and perhaps even deterring the lover from familial, work, and community obligations. Some researchers (Acevedo & Aron, 2009; Berscheid & Hatfield, 1969; Sternberg, 1986) argue that romantic love turns into companionate love. Findings of this study were contradictory as it was found that romance was predicting marital quality.

Fourth psychosocial factor to be studied was marital emotion work shown by participants and their spouses for both husbands and wives. When husbands' and wives' marital emotion work was predicting marital quality among married couples, path analyses demonstrated that better model fit was attained when wives' marital quality was predicting husbands' marital quality (see Table 57). This means wives' marital quality was more pertinent than husbands' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. Over all, when wives' marital quality ($\beta = .87, p = .001$) predicted husbands' marital quality, there was positive prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' MEW self ($\beta = .47, p = .001$) and spouse ($\beta = .22, p = .001$) and also from husbands' MEW spouse ($\beta = .27, p = .001$). But husbands' MEW self did not predict wives' marital quality at all, though MEW spouse was significant positive predictor of MEW self for both husbands ($\beta = .33, p = .001$) and wives ($\beta = .55, p = .001$). It is also found that husbands' MEW spouse predicted wives' MEW self ($\beta = .23, p = .001$) and wives' MEW spouse predicted husbands' MEW self ($\beta = .50, p = .001$). Moreover, husbands' MEW self ($\beta = -.08, p = .05$) and spouse ($\beta = .09, p = .01$) negatively and positively predicted husbands' marital quality (see Figure 7). This phenomenon is accepted all over the world that women are emotional care taker (West & Zimmerman, 1987). Erickson (2005) explained that contribution of marital emotion work is related to construction of gender and not to biological sex. Thus among men constructing gender in feminine terms increases emotion work whereas women with either feminine or masculine gender constructions perform more emotion work. In this study also the researcher found that wives were performing more marital emotion work for both husbands and wives to enhance couples' marital quality.

Fifth psychosocial factor to be studied was communication pattern including mutual constructive pattern, demand-withdraw pattern and mutual avoidance and withholding pattern of both husbands and wives. When husbands' and wives' communication patterns predicted marital quality among married couples, path analyses demonstrated that better model fit was attained when wives' marital quality was predicting husbands' marital quality (see Table 58). This means wives' marital quality was more pertinent than husbands' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. Over all, when wives' marital quality ($\beta = .79, p = .001$) predicted husbands' marital quality, there was significant positive and negative prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .66, p = .001$) and demand withdraw pattern ($\beta = .20, p = .001$) whereas avoidance withdrawal pattern did not predict marital quality at all. Moreover, for wives demand withdraw pattern was a significant positive and negative predictor of avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .74, p = .001$) and mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = -.69, p = .001$) respectively. It was also evident that wives' mutual constructive pattern and avoidance withdrawal pattern positively predicted husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .47, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .17, p = .001$) respectively. It was also found that there was significant positive and negative prediction of husbands' MQ from husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = -.08, p = .001$) whereas demand withdraw pattern did not predict marital quality at all. However, husbands demand withdraw pattern was a significant positive predictor of avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .33, p = .001$). Interestingly, wives' MQ came out to be a significant positive and negative predictor of husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .46, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = -.21, p =$

.001) respectively (see Figure 9). Many researchers support the view point that constructive communication pattern enhances couples' marital adjustment in other studies too (Heavy et al., 1995; Christensen & Shenk, 1991; Noller & White, 1990) and demanding and withdrawing patterns deteriorate relationship satisfaction over time (Heavey, Christensen, & Malamuth, 1995; Gottman & Levenson, 2000). Present study's findings were in line with existing literature depicting that wives were playing major role in enhancing couples' marital quality and constructive communication pattern was the major contributor.

Sixth psychosocial factor to be studied was commitment including commitment to spouse, commitment to marriage and feelings of entrapment for both husbands and wives. When husbands' and wives' commitment predicted marital quality among married couples, path analyses demonstrated that better model fit was attained when husbands' marital quality was predicting wives' marital quality (see Table 58). This means husbands' marital quality was more pertinent than wives' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. Over all, when husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .86, p = .001$) predicted wives' marital quality, there was significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .61, p = .001$) and marriage ($\beta = .32, p = .001$) whereas feelings of entrapment predicted ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$) marital quality negatively. It is also found that husbands' commitment to spouse, marriage and feelings of entrapment positively predicted wives' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .64, p = .001$), marriage ($\beta = .63, p = .001$) and feelings of entrapment ($\beta = .43, p = .001$) respectively. Husbands' feelings of entrapment negatively predicted both husbands' ($\beta = -.14, p = .001$) and wives' commitment to spouse ($\beta = -.18, p = .001$). Husbands' commitment to spouse also

predicted wives' marital quality ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) positively. It was interesting to note that wives' commitment to spouse, marriage and feelings of entrapment did not predict wives' marital quality directly, though husbands' marital quality positively predicted ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) wives' commitment to spouse (see Figure 10). Literature strongly supports the positive influence of shared commitment on enhancing marital quality (Adams & Jones, 1997; Johnson, Caughlin, & Huston, 1999; Noller, 1996). According to institutional model of marriage when people are strongly committed to the institution of marriage and they share their commitment to marriage with their spouses they are happier (Erickson, 2005). However, Lauer and his colleagues (Lauer, Lauer, & Kerr, 1990) explained that commitment to institution of marriage is a barrier that keeps individuals in unhappy marriages. Commitment to spouse is declared as the positive dimension and feeling of entrapment as a negative dimension (Lauer, Lauer, & Kerr, 1990).

Seventh psychosocial factor to be studied was conflict handling including four styles namely obliging and compromising, integrating, dominating and avoiding for both husbands and wives. When husbands' and wives' conflict handling styles predicted marital quality among married couples, path analyses demonstrated that better model fit was attained when husbands' marital quality was predicting wives' marital quality (see Table 59). This means husbands' marital quality was more pertinent than wives' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. Over all, when husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .79, p = .001$) predicted wives' marital quality there was significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' integrating style ($\beta = .31, p = .001$) and obliging and compromising styles ($\beta = .25, p = .001$) but husbands' avoiding and dominating styles did not predict husbands' marital

quality at all. Husbands' integrating style positively predicted wives' integrating ($\beta = .80, p = .001$), obliging and compromising styles ($\beta = .46, p = .001$) and wives' marital quality ($\beta = .13, p = .001$). Husbands' integrating style negatively predicted husbands' avoiding ($\beta = -.48, p = .001$) and dominating styles ($\beta = -.51, p = .001$). It was also evident that wives' obliging compromising style positively predicted husbands' obliging compromising style ($\beta = .22, p = .001$). Husbands' avoiding and dominating style negatively predicted wives' dominating ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$), avoiding styles ($\beta = -.24, p = .001$) respectively. Wives' integrating style ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) came out to be positive predictor of wives' marital quality, where as obliging and compromising ($\beta = -.04, p = .001$) and dominating styles ($\beta = -.06, p = .001$) negatively predicted wives' marital quality. Wives' integrating style positively predicted husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .32, p = .001$). Wives' dominating ($\beta = -.08, p = .001$) and avoiding styles ($\beta = -.16, p = .001$) negatively predicted husbands' marital quality (see Figure 12). There is conflicting evidence about which gender uses more positive conflict resolution style; some saying women are more confronting and emotionally expressive than men (Gottman & Levenson, 1988; Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Carstensen et al., 1995) others saying women use more positive conflict resolution strategies than men (Sakalli-Uğurlu & Glick, 2003). Regarding conflict management styles, studies have found that individualistic cultures prefer integrating style the most, followed by compromising, obliging, dominating styles. On the other hand collectivists prefer less confrontational approaches like compromising and obliging style the most followed by avoiding style (Liu, 2012; Leung & Wu, 1990; Ohbuchi, Fukushima, & Tedeschi, 1999; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). It has also been found that women use integrating style more than men, whereas men use dominating style more than women

(Offerman & Beil, 1992; Papa & Natalie, 1989; Sorenson et al., 1995). Present study revealed mixed findings integrating style was playing significant positive role, but surprisingly compromising and obliging style was important for husbands and not for wives in enhancing couples' marital quality. One explanation for this finding may be that women of collectivist culture are use compromising and obliging style to such an extent that it is not a reason for enhancing their marital quality.

Finally, demographic variables including number of children, duration of marriage, family system, financial status, and education were studied. When demographic variables predicted marital quality among married couples, path analyses demonstrated that better model fit was attained when husbands' marital quality was predicting wives' marital quality (see Table 60). This means husbands' marital quality was more pertinent than wives' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. Over all, when husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .94, p = .001$) was predicting wives' marital quality, there was significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from wives' education ($\beta = .13, p = .05$), years of married life ($\beta = .14, p = .01$), family system ($\beta = .11, p = .05$) and husbands' education ($\beta = .26, p = .001$). Financial status did not predict husbands' marital quality at all whereas number of children ($\beta = -.49, p = .001$) predicted it negatively. Financial status ($\beta = .12, p = .05$), years of married life ($\beta = .20, p = .001$) and husbands' education ($\beta = .17, p = .01$) positively predicted family system. Husbands' education positively predicted financial status ($\beta = .30, p = .001$). Moreover, wives' education ($\beta = .04, p = .05$) positively predicted husbands' marital quality. Family system ($\beta = -.04, p = .05$) negatively predicted husbands' marital quality. On the other hand, number of children, financial status and years of married life did not predict wives' marital

quality at all (see Figure 14). Several studies reinforce that when men and women residing with older in-laws or have less financial resources marital satisfaction decreases (Bloom et al., 2001; Mumtaz & Salway, 2005; Allendorf, 2007; Jejeebhoy & Sathar, 2001). Demographic characteristics such as age, income, education, length of marriage have been linked to marital satisfaction (Knox & Schacht, 2000). Greater levels of education and income also predict greater marital satisfaction (Johnson & Booth, 1990). Children are associated with lower marital quality (Belsky & Rovine, 1990; Bradbury et al., 2000). Western studies generally find that marital quality declines over time, possibly because couples become less compatible or bored with each other over time (Umberson & Liu, 2005; VanLaningham et al., 2001). However, in case of cultures where arrange marriages are common, marital quality fluctuates in an irregular manner over time (Blood, 1967; Xu & Whyte, 1990).

In conclusion, psychosocial factors and demographic variables play important role in enhancing couples' marital quality. Path analyses demonstrated that forgiveness, attachment, commitment, conflict handling or demographic variables were predictors; husbands' marital quality was more pertinent than wives' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. On the other hand when love, marital emotion work or communication patterns were predictors; wives' marital quality was more pertinent than husbands' marital quality to enhance couples marital quality. In the end, two conclusive models were presented by combining the best fit models. It was found that different set of psychosocial variables enhance couples' marital quality when husbands' marital quality predict wives' marital quality or when wives' marital quality predict husbands' marital quality.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

GENERAL DISCUSSION (OVERVIEW OF STUDY)

Marriage has been portrayed as the most important and fundamental human relationship because it provides the main structure for establishing families and rearing the next generation (Larson & Holman, 1994). Implications of marriage in the life of an individual are also immense and researchers have explained that a good marriage gives meaning to individuals' lives, enhances well being, improves self rated health and helps them achieve desired goals (Umberson, et al., 2006; Aldous, 1996; Williams, 2003). A variety of studies have demonstrated that people are generally happier and healthier when they are married (Gottman, 1994; Kelly & Conley, 1987; Orbuch & Custer, 1995; White, 1994). Researchers have tried to number out factors that determine marital quality. Most consistent determinants have been outlined as communication pattern, marital emotion work, commitment, attachment, conflict handling, forgiveness, friendship and romance (Gottman, 1979; Gottman, 1994; Erickson, 2005; Dainton & Aylor, 2002; Stafford, Dainton, & Haas, 2000; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Rahim, 2002; Exline et al., 2004; McCullough & Fincham, 2006; Aron & Acevedo, 2009; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1992; Hatfield & Rapson, 1993). Despite the fact that bulk of literature exists, there is no research available that has attempted to include all the vital variables in one study. Thus the current investigation was carried out with the aim to include all these variables in one study and thoroughly examine the role of each factor in enhancing the marital quality of married individuals in general and couples in particular.

Participants of the current study were couples who had been married for more than one to twenty five years. Huston, McHale, and Crouter (1986) found that changes in couple's relationship begin in the first year of marriage. These changes reflect the realities of intimate living in a complex society. Most couples still feel positively about their marriage but they are not as euphoric as they were at the time of their wedding. The positive feelings are still there but they have moderated. Honeymoon phase of marriage tends to fade away. Behavior and activities tend to change. Spouses report a diminished amount of joint household and leisure activities. Household and other kinds of work activities increase and there is a decrease of about 20 percent in joint leisure activity. This decline in leisure and increase in work activity is particularly strong if the couple has a baby during the first year (Lauer and Lauer, 1997). It is important to note that all pleasurable activities do not just vanish; it is just that they become less frequent after a year. The overall amount of companionship does not change much, but it becomes more instrumental, more task oriented, and less focused on romance and affection (Huston, McHale, & Crouter, 1986). In other words, by the end of first year, couples are well on their way to a realistic mode of living together. Their time and energy are devoted not only to one another but to beginning of a family and perhaps building careers. However, it is important to keep in mind that the exhilaration of honeymoon can be periodically recaptured in a long term relationship (Lauer & Lauer, 1997). Thus, the researcher also considered that findings would be more reliable if those couples are studied who had been married for more than one year and who were well on their way to the realistic mode of living together. Gottman's (1999) found that length of marriage is also a major predictor for marital happiness and marital conflict. He categorized two critical time periods of susceptibility in the marital course, with the majority of couples breaking up within the first seven years of marriage. Couples' who break up

within the first seven years of marriage have relationships regarded as having high levels of marital conflict. On the contrary, a second susceptible time period for the marital course is 16 to 24 years of marriage. This is the next most probable time frame for couples to end marriage. These relationships are regarded as spending little time together, a lack of conflict expression and lack of communication. Thus the researcher also preferred not to include those couples who had been married for more than twenty five years because that generally reflected that husbands and wives have accepted each other as they are and are no longer giving attention to enhancing their marital quality.

The study was completed in three phases. The first phase focused on understanding the definition of marital quality and identifying its determinants. Extensive literature review was done to identify the definition and determinants of marital quality in the existing literature and after wards four focus groups were conducted to find out the definition and determinants of marital quality in Pakistan. Participants of focus groups defined marital quality as a subjective phenomenon that shows how happy and satisfied one is in one's marital relationship. Several factors identified through focus group included commitment, forgiveness, communication patterns, marital emotion work, conflict handling, attachment, friendship, romance, education, children, financial status, duration of marriage, and family system. It was stimulating to note that these factors were also considered essential by western literature (Spanier & Lewis, 1980; Gottman, 1994; Erickson, 2005; Dainton & Aylor, 2002; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Rahim, 2002; McCullough & Fincham, 2006; Aron & Acevedo, 2009)

Next step of phase I was identification and try out of instruments. Eight scales were identified which included Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Dimensions of Commitment Inventory, Trait Forgivingness Scale, Communication Patterns

Questionnaire, and Husbands' and Wives' Emotion Work Scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire, Eros and Storge sub-scales of the short form of the Love Attitude Scale. After the try out it was found that all the items are culturally relevant but few items were not easily understandable because words in these items were pointed out by the sample as difficult. Thus modification and finalization of instruments was done through committee approach and it was decided that none of the items will be deleted but literal meaning of difficult words would be written within the parenthesis along with the difficult word. This facilitated the participants to understand the items easily.

Though all the instruments used in the present study were already developed and standardized scales the researcher still considered it essential to find out the factor structure for Pakistani culture. This helped to provide important information about culture specific aspects of marital quality and its determinants. Thus it was significant to see how well the existing structure of scales was confirmed and validated for the present study. The data was analyzed through CFA using AMOS 18. Researcher considered widely used model fit indices (CMIN/df, CFI, NFI, TLI, and RMSEA) and factor loadings (.40 and above) as criterion to test the validity of the test items. Results of CFA indicate a good fit to the data for Trait Forgiveness Scale (CMIN/df=1.62, CFI=.99, NFI=.98, TLI= .98, and RMSEA= .05), Communication Pattern Questionnaire: short form (CMIN/df=3.12, CFI=.95, NFI=.93, TLI= .94 and RMSEA= .09), Husband Wife Emotion Work Scale: Self (CMIN/df=1.92, CFI=.98, NFI=.96, TLI= .97, and RMSEA= .06), Husband Wife Emotion Work Scale: Spouse (CMIN/df=1.94, CFI=.98, NFI=.96, TLI= .97, and RMSEA= .06), Love Attitude Scale (CMIN/df=2.9, CFI=.98, NFI=.97, TLI= .96 and RMSEA= .09). and Dimensions of Commitment Inventory (CMIN/df=3.9, CFI=.90, NFI=.85, TLI= .85 and RMSEA= .10). Thus according to the criterion set by Bentler (1990), Hu &

Bentler (1999), Bentler and Bonett (1980), Browne and Cudeck (1992), Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan (1999), MacCallum et al. (1996) and Steiger (1990) analyses indicated acceptable model fit. Construct validity was established for these scales and they were ready to be used for the main study. However, following the criterion explained by Matsunaga (2010), Bernard (1998), Costello and Osborne (2005), Raubenheimer (2004) and Walker and Maddan (2012), few items of DCI and TFS were not retained.

On the other hand, results of CFA did not confirm the factor structure for Dyadic Adjustment Scale (CFI= .84, TLI=.81, and RMSEA= .11), Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (CFI=.80, NFI=.76, TLI= .77, and RMSEA= .12), and The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire ((CMIN/df=5.39, CFI=.85, NFI=.82, TLI= .80, and RMSEA= .14)). Thus according to the criterion set by Bentler (1990), Hu and Bentler (1999), Bentler and Bonett (1980), Browne and Cudeck (1992), Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan (1999), MacCallum et al. (1996) and Steiger (1990) analyses indicated unacceptable model fit for these scales and suggested that exploratory factor analyses should be carried out to find out the factor structure that exists for Pakistani sample.

Principal Component Analysis with Direct Oblimin Method and Scree plot were used to explore the factor structure of DAS. The factor analysis results revealed that 30 out of 32 items in DAS explained maximum variance (see Table 20). Scree plot also revealed that the large variance is explained by only one factor. The unifactor solution of the scale was consistent with previous studies (Kazak, Jarmas, & Snitzer, 1988; Spanier, 1988; Sharpley & Cross, 1982; Thompson, 1988; Antill & Cotton, 1982; Spanier & Thompson, 1982). For ROCI-II and ECR-R varimax rotation method was used. In case of ROCI-II, four factor solution revealed best results (see Table 22). The different factor structure found in this study could be

explained in light of other research findings. Regarding conflict management styles, studies have found that collectivists prefer less confrontational approaches like compromising and obliging style the most followed by avoiding style (Liu, 2012; Leung & Wu, 1990; Ohbuchi, Fukushima, & Tedeschi, 1999; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). Thus the change in factor structure was accepted keeping in mind the cultural differences as a reason behind it. Two-factor solution came out for ECR-R which was same as the original measure. However, following the criterion explained by Matsunaga (2010), Bernard (1998), Costello and Osborne (2005), Walker and Maddan (2012), few items were not retained for the final version. The two factors explained 70.720% of the variance (see Table 24). All the changes suggested by EFA for the three instruments were finalized through committee approach.

The modified versions of instruments including a uni-dimensional Dyadic Adjustment Scale with 30 items, a Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory with 30 items having four conflict resolution styles (*obliging and compromising, avoiding, integrating, and dominating*), and The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire with 32 items having two attachment styles (*attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance*) were factor analysed using an independent sample of 125 married couples to confirm the dimensionality of the scales as proposed by EFA. Good model fit indices were obtained for the three scales which were then found to be statistically valid. Finally alpha coefficients for the eight scales and their subscales were calculated. It was found that all the alpha values are acceptable and fall within high range (see Table 31). Item total correlations were also calculated in order to see whether all the items were significantly measuring their respective constructs. All items identified through factor analysis were correlated with their respective scale or sub-scale total. It was found that items for which high factor loadings were obtained through factor analysis had significant positive correlation

with the total score as well. This clearly indicated that the scales were internally consistent and that all items had their due contribution in the measurement of their respective constructs. Researcher then progressed towards the third phase.

Instruments finalized in phase II were used in third phase. 308 married couples participated in this phase of the study. Skewness and kurtosis values explained normal distribution of data. The correlation matrix was determined to find the associations between the study variables (see Table 41). Generally, direction of relationships between variables appears to be same for both husbands and wives but the strength of relationship varied. This means all those variables that had positive relationship for husbands also had positive relationship for wives in enhancing marital quality. These findings were in line with previous studies which showed that gender difference is not significant when husbands and wives are reporting marital adjustment (Demir & Fışiloğlu, 1999; Hünler, 2000; Uğurlu, 2003; Rands et al., 1981). Findings also revealed that there was a significant difference in marital quality for husbands and wives living in joint or nuclear family systems. It was found that husbands and wives had higher marital quality when living in nuclear family system as compared to those living in joint family system (see Table 42). Also, both husbands and wives reported that they had higher marital quality when both the spouses were working rather than when only one spouse was working (see Table 43).

Several studies reinforce that when men and women residing with older in-laws or have less financial resources marital satisfaction decreases (Bloom et al., 2001; Mumtaz & Salway, 2005; Allendorf, 2007; Jejeebhoy & Sathar, 2001). The potential bond between husbands and wives is seen as a threat to the survival of the joint family unit. To control this potential threat, the relations between husbands and wives are supposed to be characterized by respect and avoidance. For example, Derne noted that men in Varanasi culture did not speak with their wives in front of

their parents in observance of this norm. Bennett (1983) explained that within the joint family system, women obtain the supremacy as mothers-in-law. As mothers-in-law they have recognized their worth and security by progressing the family line through having sons and have their daughters-in-law to take charge of.

When Paired t-test was used to see if there was any difference in the respondents' contribution of and their perception of their spouses' contribution of marital emotion work (see Table 45). Results showed that both husbands and wives thought that wives were emotionally more contributing than the husbands. Previous researchers have also found that being the family's emotional care taker is viewed as something women are rather than something women do (Hochschild, 1983; West & Zimmerman, 1987). Even when the socialization processes of females and males are considered, females are generally acknowledged as being relationship oriented, and hence are more likely to develop interpersonal skills such as sensitivity, emotional expressiveness, empathy, and nurturance (Mackey & O'Brien, 1998). Erickson (1993, 2005) found that the performance of emotion work was significantly influenced by construction of gender, rather than by biological sex. Findings of the present study could be interpreted as presenting Pakistani married women as constructing their gender in feminine terms and consequently as being more nurturing, sensitive and emotionally expressive.

Moreover, number of children came out to be a significant negative predictor of marital quality as accounting for 30% of the variance $\{R^2 = .30, F(306) = 133.43, p < .001\}$ for husbands and wives $\{R^2 = .30, F(306) = 133.68, p < .001\}$ and as a result research findings supported hypothesis 12. Most of the studies found that children had negative effects on marital adjustment (Ozen, 2006; Hurley & Palonen, 1967; Ryder, 1973; White, Booth, & Edwards, 1986). In case of husbands and wives, education came out to be a significant positive predictor of marital quality as accounting for

28% and 23 % of the variance for husbands and wives respectively. As a result research findings supported a part of hypothesis 11. Lower levels of education and family income are correlated and are associated with a higher probability of marital disruption (Bramlett & Mosher, 2001). Whereas duration of marriage did not predict marital quality at all for both husbands and wives (see Table 46). As a result research findings supported the part of hypothesis 11 that duration of marriage will positively predict marital quality.

Predictive relationships between different psychosocial factors and marital quality were also tested. Obliging and compromising style, integrating style, and dominating style came as significant positive predictor of marital quality for husbands. In case of wives, integrating came as positive where as avoiding style dominating style as significant but negative predictors of marital quality (see Table 47). Thus, reflecting that husbands who were employing obliging and compromising, integrating and dominating styles had higher marital quality. Whereas, wives who were employing more of integrating style and less of avoiding and dominating styles had higher marital quality. Interesting difference to note here was that husbands who were employing more of and wives who were employing less of dominating style had higher marital quality. Previous studies have also shown that when conflict is handled in a constructive way, marital satisfaction and relationship stability will increase; on the other hand if conflict is handled in a destructive way, the couple is doomed to bear a relatively unsatisfactory relationship (Brehm, 1992; Cramer, 2000; Fincham, 2003; Gottman, 1993; Gotman et al., 1977; Gottman & Krokoff, 1989; Greeff & Bruyne, 2000; Heavey et al., 1993; Kurdek, 1995; Straus, 1979). Over all present research supported hypothesis 1 showing that integrating, obliging and compromising conflict handling styles positively predicted marital quality. Whereas hypothesis 2 was not

accepted as dominating style positively predicted and avoiding conflict handling style did not predict marital quality for husbands.

Different types of commitments were also regressed on marital quality (see Table 48). It was found that for husbands; commitment to spouse, commitment to marriage positively predicted where as feelings of entrapment negatively predicted marital quality. Similarly for wives commitment to spouse and commitment to marriage positively predicted where as feelings of entrapment negatively predicted marital quality. Thus hypotheses were supported and in line with previous findings as many studies showed that commitment between spouses lead to stable and satisfying marriages and feeling of entrapment is a negative dimension (Adams & Jones, 1997; Lauer, Lauer, & Kerr, 1990; Johnson, Caughlin, & Huston, 1999; Noller, 1996). However, some studies have even presented commitment to marriage also as a negative aspect of marriage but it came out as positive predictor in present study. Thus explaining how culture influenced perception of Pakistani married individuals regarding commitment.

Researcher hypothesized that forgiveness will positively predict marital quality and results supported it as for husbands and wives forgiveness positively predicted marital quality. This finding reinforced previous studies (Entezar, 2011; Fincham et al, 2007). When different types of communication patterns were regressed on marital quality, mutual constructive pattern positively predicted and mutual avoidance and withholding pattern negatively predicted marital quality for husbands. In case of wives, first mutual constructive pattern positively predicted and man demand woman withdraw pattern negatively predicted marital quality. Thus hypotheses were supported and in line with previous findings as many researchers have found that constructive communication enhances marital happiness and

demanding and withdrawing patterns decline relationship satisfaction (Heavy et al., 1996; Gottman & Levenson, 2000).

In addition, marital emotion work emerged as significant positive predictor of marital quality (see Table 51). In case of husbands, marital emotion work of spouse and marital emotion work by respondent positively predicted marital quality. Similarly, for wives, marital emotion work by respondent and marital emotion work of spouse positively predicted marital quality. Thus it was quite obvious that husbands' marital emotion work is predicting wives' marital quality and wives' marital emotion work is predicting husbands' marital quality and that both husbands and wives reported that wives' contribution of marital emotion work was more than husbands'. Once again, hypotheses were supported and in line with previous findings (Erickson, 2005; West & Zimmerman, 1987).

When attachment was regressed on marital quality (see Table 52), for husbands, attachment-related avoidance and attachment-related anxiety and for wives also attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance negatively predicted marital quality. This reflected that for husbands, attachment related avoidance was more detrimental whereas in case of wives attachment related anxiety was injurious for marital quality. Overall research findings supported hypotheses as decrease in attachment related anxiety and avoidance enhanced marital quality. Existing literature also supports the findings (Giudice, 2011; Bartholomew & Allison, 2006). Then, styles of love were regressed on marital quality and for both husbands and wives romance came out to be a significant positive predictor of marital quality (see Table 53). Whereas, friendship did not predict marital quality for both husbands and wives. These findings were not in line with available literature (Fisher, 2006; Mitchell, 2002; Acevedo & Aron, 2009). This indicated that Pakistani couples do not

give importance to friendship as significant predictor of marital quality thus adding in the existing body of literature.

In addition, non-recursive models were used to test psychosocial factors one by one. Each model explained predictive relationship between different variables related to one psychosocial factor and marital quality of husbands and wives. Path analyses demonstrated that when attachment styles of husbands and wives were predictor of marital quality among married couples, better model fit was attained when husbands' marital quality was predicting wives' marital quality (see Table 54). There was significant negative prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' attachment related anxiety ($\beta = -.19, p = .001$) and avoidance ($\beta = -.53, p = .001$). Wives' attachment styles (avoidance and anxiety) did not predict wives' MQ, though husbands' attachment related avoidance ($\beta = .77, p = .001$) and anxiety ($\beta = .80, p = .001$) positively predicted wives' attachment related anxiety and avoidance respectively (see Figure 2). Overall the model explained that when husbands' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples' marital quality, factors directly predicting wives' marital quality became insignificant, while husbands' marital quality increased when they showed less anxiety and avoidance. It was also found that husbands' anxiety would stimulate avoidance in wives and husbands' avoidance would stimulate anxiety in wives. Findings of this study were aligned with previous studies (Whiffen, 2005; Bartholomew & Allison, 2006; Giudice, 2011; Feneey, 2012).

In case of forgiveness also path analyses explained that husbands' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples' marital quality (see Table 55). Incredible increase in couples' marital quality was observed when both husbands and wives held trait forgiveness. Over all, the model showed that wives' forgiveness ($\beta = .56, p = .01$) and husbands' forgiveness ($\beta = .21, p = .001$) positively predicted husbands' marital quality (see Figure 4). Forgiveness trait directly predicting wives'

marital quality became insignificant. Findings of this study were aligned with previous studies (Paleari et al., 2005; Tsang, McCullough, & Fincham, 2006; Fincham, 2009).

When path analyses demonstrated predictive relationships between styles of love and marital quality, wives' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples' marital quality (see Table 56). Over all, there was significant positive and negative prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' romance ($\beta = .39, p = .001$) and friendship ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$). Wives' romance itself was significant positive predictor of friendship for both husbands ($\beta = .77, p = .001$) and wives ($\beta = .66, p = .001$). Factors directly predicting husbands' marital quality became insignificant, though husbands' romance ($\beta = .43, p = .001$) and friendship ($\beta = .18, p = .001$) positively predicted wives' marital quality (see Figure 8). These findings depicted that romance shown by husbands and wives increased wives' marital quality which in turn enhanced the couples' marital quality. Interesting point to note was that friendship experienced by wives in their marital relationship had a negative impact on their marital quality, but friendship experienced by husbands in their marital relationship had a positive impact on wives' marital quality which in turn enhanced the couples' marital quality. Results were not aligned with previous literature (Acevedo & Aron, 2009; Fisher, 2006; Sternberg, 1986), thus hinted towards interesting relationships between romance, friendship and couples' marital quality and opened new horizons for future researchers to explore.

In case of marital emotion work also path analyses explained that wives' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples' marital quality (see Table 57). Overall, there was positive prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' MEW self ($\beta = .47, p = .001$) and spouse ($\beta = .22, p = .001$) and also from husbands' MEW spouse ($\beta = .27, p = .001$). Husbands' MEW spouse positively predicted MEW

self for both husbands ($\beta = .33, p = .001$) and wives ($\beta = .55, p = .001$). It is also found that husbands' MEW spouse predicted wives' MEW self ($\beta = .23, p = .001$) and wives' MEW spouse predicted husbands' MEW self ($\beta = .50, p = .001$). Moreover, husbands' MEW self ($\beta = -.08, p = .05$) and spouse ($\beta = .09, p = .01$) negatively and positively predicted husbands' marital quality (see Figure 10). One could easily interpret from these findings that marital emotion work shown by one spouse or perception that one's spouse is showing marital emotion work not only stimulates the other spouse to show and perceive it but also enhances the overall couples' marital quality. It was also obvious that none of the factors directly predicting husbands' or wives marital quality became insignificant. These findings were aligned with previous studies (West & Zimmerman, 1987; Erickson, 2005).

In case of communication patterns too path analyses clarified that wives' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples' marital quality (see Table 58). Over all, there was significant positive and negative prediction of wives' marital quality from wives' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .66, p = .001$) and demand withdraw pattern ($\beta = .20, p = .001$). Moreover, for wives demand withdraw pattern positively and negatively predicted avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .74, p = .001$) and mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = -.69, p = .001$) respectively. It was also evident that wives' mutual constructive pattern and avoidance withdrawal pattern positively predicted husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .47, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .17, p = .001$) respectively. In case of husbands, there was significant positive and negative prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = -.08, p = .001$). However, husbands demand withdraw pattern was a significant positive predictor of avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = .33, p = .001$). Interestingly, wives' MQ came out to be a significant positive and negative predictor

of husbands' mutual constructive pattern ($\beta = .46, p = .001$) and avoidance withdrawal pattern ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$) respectively (see Figure 9). It could be interpreted from these findings that positive communication by one spouse is inculcating positive communication in the other spouse and thus enhancing the overall couple's marital quality. Similarly negative communication by one spouse is inculcating negative communication in the other spouse and thus decreasing the overall couple's marital quality. These results of the current study were aligned with previous literature (Heavey, Christensen, & Malamuth, 1995; Gottman & Levenson, 2000).

In case of commitment path analyses explained that husbands' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples' marital quality (see Table 59). Overall, there was significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .61, p = .001$) and marriage ($\beta = .32, p = .001$) whereas feelings of entrapment predicted ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$) marital quality negatively. It is also found that husbands' commitment to spouse, marriage and feelings of entrapment positively predicted wives' commitment to spouse ($\beta = .64, p = .001$), marriage ($\beta = .63, p = .001$) and feelings of entrapment ($\beta = .43, p = .001$) respectively. Husbands' feelings of entrapment negatively predicted both husbands' ($\beta = -.14, p = .001$) and wives' commitment to spouse ($\beta = -.18, p = .001$). Husbands' commitment to spouse also predicted wives' marital quality ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) positively. It was interesting to note that factors related to wives that directly predicted wives' marital quality became insignificant (see Figure 10). It could be interpreted from these findings that positive commitment by husbands was inducing positive commitment in wives and thus enhancing the overall couple's marital quality. Similarly negative commitment by husbands was inducing negative commitment in wives and thus decreasing the overall couple's marital quality. Literature strongly supports research findings (Adams & Jones, 1997; Johnson, Caughlin, & Huston, 1999; Erickson, 2005).

In case of conflict handling also path analyses explained that husbands' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples' marital quality (see Table 60). Overall, there was significant positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from husbands' integrating style ($\beta = .31, p = .001$) and obliging and compromising styles ($\beta = .25, p = .001$). Husbands' integrating style positively predicted wives' integrating ($\beta = .80, p = .001$), obliging and compromising styles ($\beta = .46, p = .001$) and wives' marital quality ($\beta = .13, p = .001$). Husbands' integrating style negatively predicted husbands' avoiding ($\beta = -.48, p = .001$) and dominating styles ($\beta = -.51, p = .001$). It was also evident that wives' obliging compromising style positively predicted husbands' obliging compromising style ($\beta = .22, p = .001$). Husbands' avoiding and dominating style negatively predicted wives' dominating ($\beta = -.21, p = .001$), avoiding styles ($\beta = -.24, p = .001$) respectively. Wives' integrating style ($\beta = .13, p = .001$) came out to be positive predictor of wives' marital quality, where as obliging and compromising ($\beta = -.04, p = .001$) and dominating styles ($\beta = -.06, p = .001$) negatively predicted wives' marital quality. Wives' integrating style positively predicted husbands' marital quality ($\beta = .32, p = .001$). Wives' dominating ($\beta = -.08, p = .001$) and avoiding styles ($\beta = -.16, p = .001$) negatively predicted husbands' marital quality (see Figure 12). It could be interpreted from these findings that positive communication by one spouse was inducing positive communication in the other spouse and minimizing negative communication for the same spouse and thus enhancing the overall couple's marital quality. Similarly negative communication by one spouse was inducing negative communication in the other spouse and decreasing positive communication for the same spouse and thus decreasing the overall couple's marital quality. Husbands' avoidance predicted that wives would engage in more dominating communication and husbands' dominating communication predicted that wives would engage in more avoidance

communication. Literature also supports the fact that positive communication increases marital satisfaction, though there are inconclusive findings regarding styles of communication preferably used by husbands and wives (Liu, 2012; Ohbuchi, Fukushima, & Tedeschi, 1999; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001)

In case of demographic variables too path analyses explained that husbands' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples' marital quality. Overall, there was positive prediction of husbands' marital quality from wives' education ($\beta = .13, p = .05$), years of married life ($\beta = .14, p = .01$), family system ($\beta = .11, p = .05$) and husbands' education ($\beta = .26, p = .001$) whereas number of children ($\beta = -.49, p = .001$) predicted it negatively. Financial status ($\beta = .12, p = .05$), years of married life ($\beta = .20, p = .001$) and husbands' education ($\beta = .17, p = .01$) positively predicted family system. Husbands' education positively predicted financial status ($\beta = .30, p = .001$). Moreover, wives' education ($\beta = .04, p = .05$) positively predicted wives' marital quality. On the other hand, many factors directly predicting wives' marital quality became insignificant (see Figure 14). Thus it could be interpreted that demographic variables directly or indirectly were playing their part in enhancing couples' marital quality. Several studies reinforce these findings (Allendorf 2007; Knox & Schacht, 2000).

In conclusion, path analyses demonstrated that when forgiveness, attachment, commitment, conflict handling or demographic variables were predictors; husbands' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples marital quality. On the other hand when love, marital emotion work or communication patterns were predictors; wives' marital quality was playing major role in enhancing couples marital quality. So both husbands and wives contributed in enhancing the overall couples'

marital quality. It was also found out that marital quality was not only predicted by psychosocial factors but also became the predictor in enhancing the overall couples' marital quality. . In the end, two conclusive models were presented by combining the best fit models. It was found that different set of psychosocial variables enhance couples' marital quality when husbands' marital quality predict wives' marital quality or when wives' marital quality predict husbands' marital quality. It was interesting to note that many psychosocial variables that significantly predicted marital quality became insignificant when they were seen in combination with all other significant predictors.

Thus couple's marital quality is a complex phenomenon and this study has provided empirical evidence for better understanding of how different factors related to husbands and wives guide to enhance the couple's marital quality. As a result the findings have opened new horizons for future researchers and can help researchers, counsellors, husbands and wives a lot in developing a better understanding of this fascinating phenomenon.

Implications of the Study

Over all this research add to enhance comprehension of psychosocial determinants of marital quality among married couples and identify several personal variables as predictors of couples' marital quality. It has several implications:

Current investigation contributed to estimate psychometric feasibility of different measures using study variables for married couples living in Pakistan. This made this study an indigenized one to further use the validated measures (Dyadic

Adjustment Scale, Dimensions of Commitment Inventory, Trait Forgivingness Scale, Communication Patterns Questionnaire; short form, and Husbands 'And Wives' Emotion Work Scale, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire, Eros and Storge sub-scales of the short form of the Love Attitude Scale) for married couples. The study also provided empirical evidence for establishing relationship between marital quality and psychosocial factors like commitment, forgivingness, communication patterns, marital emotion work, conflict handling, romance and friendship. Thus it contributed to existing literature by confirming and extending past literature regarding predictive relationship between various psychosocial variables and marital quality. This investigation pointed out towards the need to consider multiple factors related to both husbands and wives for enhancing marital quality among married couples. It provided baseline for future researchers to design possible interventions in the context of enhancing marital quality among married couples.

In addition to testing various hypotheses concerning relationship between research variables another implication was to broaden current understanding for development and testing of various comprehensive models of relationship between psychosocial variables and marital quality among married couples. Researcher purposely used step wise regression method because various previous studies have independently identified factors that enhance marital quality but there is no known theory that would explain the hierarchical framework for all the research variables. Consequently, present study is a step toward establishing a framework and it could be tested by future researchers.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

To comprehend the applicability of findings of study within the frame work of research design, it is essential to acknowledge the limitations of study. Current investigation aimed to find out psychosocial determinants of marital quality among married couples, for which initially researcher used focus groups to find out important determinants for Pakistani married individuals but in depth information regarding components of each determinant was not gathered. As the factors pointed out, were in line with western findings so already available standardized measures were used. And despite the fact that identified measures were pretested, it only ensured comprehension and cultural relevance to a large extent and not fully. This could be a potential reason behind getting a border line model fit in case of Dimensions of Commitment Inventory. Thus future researchers might benefit from focusing on elaborative qualitative approach at this stage as it will enable them to learn about the intricacies involved in different aspects determining marital quality. In this way future studies might reveal how individuals respond to different dimensions of commitment in our culture.

Moderating and mediating role of different variables might become centre of attention for future researchers as current study focused on finding out one way or two way predictive relationships between study variables. In addition, systematic examination of each factor enhancing couples' marital quality had been done but this information was not used to design program for effective dealing with problems in marital relationship. Thus, intervention based studies might be planned using the information gathered in this investigation. For meticulous explanation, diagnosis and

intervention of issues surrounding marital quality, future studies might focus on case study research designs.

Data was collected from two cities of Pakistan and it was ensured that the participants held at least bachelors degree, which limits the generalizability of the findings. In addition, researcher has selected a cross sectional data and it cannot ensure prediction that can be generalized. Future researchers need to focus on nation-wide sample. Moreover, including less educated couples will also help to enhance generalizability of the findings. Current study like many other researches in social science researches used self report scales which might be considered a limitation. Literature suggests that self report instruments reveal overstatement of relationships among variables. Thus it might be suggested for future research that other ways of getting information could be included to get an improved picture.

As a first step, researcher found out determinants of marital quality as explained by western researchers e.g., marital emotion work, romance, friendship. These concepts would have been new for an eastern society. Thus an educated urban sample was best suited for it was assumed that they would be in a better position to explain what these terms mean to them. Now that it is established what are determinants of marital quality among Pakistani married couples, future researchers can select various samples and test the findings of present research. Also, factors like arrange marriage, unavailability of divorce, patriarchy could also be studied to see how they affect marital quality. In addition, instruments of the current study could be validated on larger and more diverse sample which would also help to increase generalizability of findings. Future researchers can study all these variables on different samples as for example by selecting less educated or illiterate couples.

Scales modified in the present research offer a useful construct to explore possible useful consequences of understanding marital quality in eastern cultural context. Thus the study adds to marital relationship literature.

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APPENDICES

Appendix- A

Dyadic Adjustment Scale

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

Always disagree	Almost always disagree	Frequently disagree	Occasionally disagree	Almost always agree	Always agree
0	1	2	3	4	5

1	Handling family finances	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	Matters of recreation	0	1	2	3	4	5
3	Religious matters	0	1	2	3	4	5
4	Demonstrations of affection	0	1	2	3	4	5
5	Friends	0	1	2	3	4	5
6	Sex relations	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)	0	1	2	3	4	5
8	Philosophy of life	0	1	2	3	4	5
9	Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws	0	1	2	3	4	5
10	Aims, goals and things believed important	0	1	2	3	4	5
11	Amount of time spent together	0	1	2	3	4	5
12	Making major decisions	0	1	2	3	4	5
13	Household tasks	0	1	2	3	4	5
14	Leisure time interests and activities	0	1	2	3	4	5
15	Career decisions	0	1	2	3	4	5

Answer the following questions using a 6-point response continuum:

All the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
0	1	2	3	4	5

16	How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	0	1	2	3	4	5
17	How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	0	1	2	3	4	5
18	In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	0	1	2	3	4	5
19	Do you confide in your mate?	0	1	2	3	4	5
20	Do you ever regret that you married (or lived together)?	0	1	2	3	4	5
21	How often do you and your partner quarrel?	0	1	2	3	4	5
22	How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	0	1	2	3	4	5

Answer the following question using a 5-point response continuum:

		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Almost every day	Every day
23	Do you kiss your mate?	0	1	2	3	4

Answer the following question using the following response continuum:

		None of them	Very few of them	Some of them	Most of them	All of them
24	Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	0	1	2	3	4

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

Never Less than Once or Once or twice Once a day More often
 once a month twice a a week
 month
 0 1 2 3 4 5

25	Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	0	1	2	3	4	5
26	Laugh together	0	1	2	3	4	5
27	Calmly discuss something	0	1	2	3	4	5
28	Work together on a project	0	1	2	3	4	5

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

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

31. The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy" represents the degree of happiness in most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered of your relationship.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.
Extremely unhappy	Fairly unhappy	A little unhappy	Happy	Very happy	Extremely happy	Perfect

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?

- I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.
- I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.
- I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.
- It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed.
- It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
- My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

Appendix-B

Dimensions of Commitment Inventory

Instructions. Please respond to the items below, using the following scale:

5	4	3	2	1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

1	I am dedicated to my marriage as fulfilling as it can be.	5	4	3	2	1
2	A divorce would ruin my reputation.	5	4	3	2	1
3	It is morally wrong to divorce your spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
4	No matter what, my spouse knows that I will always be there for him/her.	5	4	3	2	1
5	I have to stay married to my spouse or else my family will think badly of me.	5	4	3	2	1
6	I was raised to believe that once one gets married, one doesn't get divorced, no matter how unsatisfying the marriage may be.	5	4	3	2	1
7	It would be humiliating if my spouse and I divorced.	5	4	3	2	1
8	I am completely devoted to my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
9	Marriages are supposed to last forever.	5	4	3	2	1
10	Even if I wanted to, it would be impossible for me to leave my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
11	When things go wrong in my marriage, I consider getting a divorce.	5	4	3	2	1
12	I would not be embarrassed to get a divorce.	5	4	3	2	1
13	I truly believe that spouses should remain devoted to one another "for better or for worse".	5	4	3	2	1
14	There is nothing that I would not sacrifice for my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
15	My family would strongly disapprove if I divorced my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
16	I don't feel obliged to remain married to my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
17	I have spent so much money on my relationship with my	5	4	3	2	1

	spouse that I could never divorce him/her.					
18	I want to grow old with my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
19	I would be shattered if my spouse and I divorced.	5	4	3	2	1
20	My friends would disapprove if I ended my marriage.	5	4	3	2	1
21	I could never leave my spouse because it would go against everything I believe in.	5	4	3	2	1
22	I believe in the sanctity of marriage.	5	4	3	2	1
23	A marriage should be protected at all costs.	5	4	3	2	1
24	If there are too many problems in a marriage, it's OK to get a divorce.	5	4	3	2	1
25	I like knowing that my spouse and I form an inseparable unit.	5	4	3	2	1
26	When I imagine what my life will be like in the future, I always see my spouse standing next to me.	5	4	3	2	1
27	Under no circumstances should the marriage bond be broken.	5	4	3	2	1
28	I frequently daydream about what it would like to be married to someone other than my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
29	I am not very devoted to my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
30	I feel free to divorce my spouse if I so desire.	5	4	3	2	1
31	I can imagine several situations in which marriage bond should be broken.	5	4	3	2	1
32	When my spouse and I promised "to have and to hold," we knew that it meant forever.	5	4	3	2	1
33	I often think that my spouse and I have too many irreconcilable differences.	5	4	3	2	1
34	I don't think I could handle the shame of being divorced.	5	4	3	2	1
35	I don't think it's morally wrong to divorce your spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
36	I don't believe that marriages should last for ever.	5	4	3	2	1
37	I am not confident that my marriage will last for ever.	5	4	3	2	1
38	My spouse and I remain together because we value the institution of marriage.	5	4	3	2	1
39	I often think about what it would like to be romantically	5	4	3	2	1

	involved with someone other than my spouse.					
40	It would be shameful if my spouse and I divorced or separated.	5	4	3	2	1
41	I could never leave my spouse; I have too much invested in him/her.	5	4	3	2	1
42	I believe that marriage is for life, regardless of what happens.	5	4	3	2	1
43	I am afraid that if I were to leave my spouse, God would punish me.	5	4	3	2	1
44	It would be practically hard on my family and friends if my spouse and I divorced.	5	4	3	2	1
45	My future plans do not include my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix-C

Trait Forgivingness Scale

Directions: Using a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *mildly disagree*, 3 = *agree and disagree equally*, 4 = *mildly agree*, 5 = *strongly agree*), please circle the number indicating your agreement or disagreement with each statement below.

	Statement					
1	People close to me probably think I hold a grudge too long.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I can forgive a friend for almost anything.	1	2	3	4	5
3	If someone treats me badly, I treat him or her the same.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I try to forgive others even when they don't feel guilty for what they did.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I can usually forgive and forget an insult.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I feel bitter about many of my relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Even after I forgive someone, things often come back to me that I resent.	1	2	3	4	5
8	There are some things for which I could never forgive even a loved one.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I have always forgiven those who have hurt me.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I am a forgiving person.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix- D

Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory

Part of being in a relationship with another person is how you solve problems. For the following group of questions, please try to answer how you **generally** handle conflict with your partner. The following statements concern how you deal with disagreements in your marital relationship with your spouse. Please respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with:

5	4	3	2	1
Strongly agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	Agree	nor Disagree		

1.	I try to investigate an issue with my partner to find a solution acceptable to us.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	I generally try to satisfy the needs of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	I attempt to avoid being "put on the spot" and try to keep my conflict with my partner to myself.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	I try to integrate my ideas with those of my partner's to come up with a decision jointly.	5	4	3	2	1
5.	I give some to get some.	5	4	3	2	1
6.	I try to work with my partner to find solutions to a problem which satisfy our expectations.	5	4	3	2	1
7.	I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
8.	I usually hold on to my solution to a problem.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.	5	4	3	2	1
10.	I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.	5	4	3	2	1
11.	I use my authority to make a decision in my favor.	5	4	3	2	1
12.	I usually accommodate the wishes of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1

13.	I give in to the wishes of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
14.	I win some and I lose some.	5	4	3	2	1
15.	I exchange accurate information with my partner to solve a problem together.	5	4	3	2	1
16.	I sometimes help my partner to make a decision in his/her favor.	5	4	3	2	1
17.	I usually allow concessions to partner.	5	4	3	2	1
18.	I argue my case with my partner to show the merits of my position.	5	4	3	2	1
19.	I try to play down our differences to reach a compromise.	5	4	3	2	1
20.	I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.	5	4	3	2	1
21.	I negotiate with my partner so that a compromise can be reached.	5	4	3	2	1
22.	I try to stay away from disagreement with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
23.	I avoid an encounter with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
24.	I use my expertise to make a decision in my favor.	5	4	3	2	1
25.	I often go along with the suggestions of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
26.	I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.	5	4	3	2	1
27.	I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue.	5	4	3	2	1
28.	I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.	5	4	3	2	1
29.	I collaborate with my partner to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	5	4	3	2	1
30.	I try to satisfy the expectations of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
31.	I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.	5	4	3	2	1
32.	I try to keep my disagreement with my partner to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.	5	4	3	2	1
33.	I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
34.	I generally avoid an argument with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
35.	I try to work with my partner for a proper understanding of a problem.	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix- E

The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire

The following statements concern how you feel in your marital relationship. We are interested in what is happening currently in your relationship. Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Respond by using the following rating scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Occasionally Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Occasionally Agree	Strongly Agree

Part I

1.	I'm afraid that I will lose my spouse's love.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I often worry that my spouse will not want to stay with me.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I often worry that my spouse doesn't really love me.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I worry that my spouse won't care about me as much as I care about him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I often wish that my spouse's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I worry a lot about my marital relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	When my spouse is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	When I show my feelings for my spouse, I'm afraid he/she will not feel the same about me.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I rarely worry about my spouse leaving me.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	My spouse makes me doubt myself.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I do not often worry about being abandoned.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I find that my spouse doesn't want to get as close as I would like.	1	2	3	4	5

13.	Sometimes my spouse changes his/her feelings about me for no apparent reason.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	My desire to be very close sometimes scares my spouse away.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I'm afraid that once my spouse gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I worry that I won't measure up to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	My spouse only seems to notice me when I'm angry.	1	2	3	4	5

Part II

19.	I prefer not to show my spouse how I feel deep down.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I am very comfortable being close to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I don't feel comfortable opening up to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I prefer not to be too close to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I get uncomfortable when my spouse wants to be very close.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I find it relatively easy to get close to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	It's not difficult for me to get close to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	It helps to turn to my spouse in times of need.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I tell my spouse just about everything.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I talk things over with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	I am nervous when my spouse gets too close to me.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	I feel comfortable depending on my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	I find it easy to depend on my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	It's easy for me to be affectionate with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	My spouse really understands me and my needs.	1	2	3	4	5

Husbands' and Wives' Emotion Work (Self)

Please indicate "How often do you engage in each of the following toward your partner"? by using the scale given below:

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Always
 1 2 3 4 5

1	Confide innermost thoughts and feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Initiate talking things over.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Tries to bring him/her out of a feeling of restlessness, boredom, or depression.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Let him/her know that you have faith in him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Sense that he/she is disturbed about something.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Offer him/her encouragement.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Give him/her compliments.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Stick by him/her in times of trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Offer him/her advice when he/she is faced with a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Respect him/her point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Act affectionately toward him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Express concern for him/her well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Communicate your feelings about the future of your relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Are a good friend.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Do favors for him/her without being asked.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix- F2

Husbands' and Wives' Emotion Work (Spouse)

Please indicate "How often would you say your partner engages in each of the following"? by using the scale given below:

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Always
 1 2 3 4 5

1	Confides innermost thoughts and feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Initiates talking things over.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Tries to bring me out of a feeling of restlessness, boredom, or depression.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Lets me know that he/she has faith in me.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Senses that I am disturbed about something.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Offers me encouragement.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Gives me compliments.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Sticks by me in times of trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Offers me advice when I am faced with a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Respects my point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Acts affectionately toward me.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Expresses concern for my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Communicates his/her feelings about the future of our relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Is a good friend.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Does favors for me without being asked.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix-G

Communication Patterns Questionnaire: Short form

Directions: We are interested in how you and your partner typically deal with problems in your relationship. Please rate each item using the following scale:

Very unlikely	Occasionally unlikely	Uncertain	Occasionally likely	Very likely
1	2	3	4	5

A. WHEN SOME PROBLEM IN THE RELATIONSHIP ARISES,

1	Both members avoid discussing the problem.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Both members try to discuss the problem.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Man tries to start a discussion while Woman tries to avoid a discussion.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Woman tries to start a discussion while Man tries to avoid a discussion.	1	2	3	4	5

B. DURING A DISCUSSION OF A RELATIONSHIP PROBLEM,

5	Both members express their feelings to each other.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Both members suggest possible solutions and compromises.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Man nags and demands while Woman withdraws, becomes silent, or refuses to discuss the matter further.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Woman nags and demands while Man withdraws, becomes silent, or refuses to discuss the matter further.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Man criticizes while Woman defends herself.	1	2	3	4	5

10	Woman criticizes while man defends himself.	1	2	3	4	5
----	---	---	---	---	---	---

C. AFTER A DISCUSSION OF A RELATIONSHIP PROBLEM,

11	Both feel each other has understood his/her position.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Both withdraw from each other after the discussion.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Both feel that the problem has been solved.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Neither partner is giving to the other after the discussion.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix- H

Eros and Storge ; Subscales of Short form of Love Attitude Scale

Instructions: Please answer the following items as honestly and accurately as possible. Answer the questions with your current partner in mind.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1.	My partner and I have the right physical "chemistry" between us.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I feel that my partner and I were meant for each other.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My partner and I really understand each other.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	My partner fits my ideal standards of physical beauty/handsomeness.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I expect to always be friends with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Our love is the best kind because it grew out of a long friendship.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Our friendship merged gradually into love over time.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Our love is really a deep friendship, not a mysterious mystical emotion.	1	2	3	4	5

INSTRUCTIONS:

- I am a Ph D student at NIP (National Institute of Psychology) Quaid-I-Azam University. I am doing research on exploring different psychosocial factors of marital quality. Marital quality is defined as “an overall evaluation of the functioning of the marriage.” Generally it explains how happy and satisfied you are in your marital relationship. I would be measuring my research variables using 8 different questionnaires.
- These questionnaires are about different aspects of marital relationship; for example, how people deal with different disagreements in their marital relationship, how they generally handle conflict with their spouse, how they communicate and relate with each other, how committed they are to their spouse and relationship, and how forgiving they are as a person.
- There are no right or wrong answers and you are to respond each item with whatever first comes in your mind. Some of the questions might point towards personal information of your life. You are requested to answer all items honestly as it would make my research findings more authentic.
- **I assure you that your provided information will be kept confidential and will only be used for research purposes.**

Thank you

Sadaf Muneer

Demographic Information Data Sheet

- Age: _____
- Gender : Male/Female
- Years of Education: _____
- Duration of Marriage: _____
- No. of Children: _____
- Family System: Nuclear/Joint
- Financial Status: Both spouses working/ One spouse working

Thank you very much for participating in this study.

Revised Trait Forgiveness Scale

Directions: Using a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *mildly disagree*, 3 = *agree and disagree equally*, 4 = *mildly agree*, 5 = *strongly agree*), please circle the number indicating your agreement or disagreement with each statement below.

	Statement					
1	People close to me probably think I hold a grudge too long.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I can forgive a friend for almost anything.	1	2	3	4	5
3	If someone treats me badly, I treat him or her the same.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I try to forgive others even when they don't feel guilty for what they did.	1	2	3	4	5
5*	I can usually forgive and forget an insult.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I feel bitter about many of my relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Even after I forgive someone, things often come back to me that I resent.	1	2	3	4	5
8	There are some things for which I could never forgive even a loved one.	1	2	3	4	5
9*	I have always forgiven those who have hurt me.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I am a forgiving person.	1	2	3	4	5

Note: Items with (*) were excluded for Pakistani sample on the basis of Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Appendix-K

Revised Dimensions of Commitment Inventory

Instructions. Please respond to the items below, using the following scale:

5	4	3	2	1
Strongly	Agree	Neither Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Agree		nor Disagree		

1	I am dedicated to my marriage as fulfilling as it can be.	5	4	3	2	1
2	A divorce would ruin my reputation.	5	4	3	2	1
3	It is morally wrong to divorce your spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
4	No matter what, my spouse knows that I will always be there for him/her.	5	4	3	2	1
5*	I have to stay married to my spouse or else my family will think badly of me.	5	4	3	2	1
6	I was raised to believe that once one gets married, one doesn't get divorced, no matter how unsatisfying the marriage may be.	5	4	3	2	1
7	It would be humiliating if my spouse and I divorced.	5	4	3	2	1
8	I am completely devoted to my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
9	Marriages are supposed to last forever.	5	4	3	2	1
10*	Even if I wanted to, it would be impossible for me to leave my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
11*	When things go wrong in my marriage, I consider getting a divorce.	5	4	3	2	1
12	I would not be embarrassed to get a divorce.	5	4	3	2	1
13*	I truly believe that spouses should remain devoted to one another "for better or for worse".	5	4	3	2	1
14	There is nothing that I would not sacrifice for my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
15*	My family would strongly disapprove if I divorced my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
16	I don't feel obliged to remain married to my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1

17*	I have spent so much money on my relationship with my spouse that I could never divorce him/her.	5	4	3	2	1
18	I want to grow old with my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
19*	I would be shattered if my spouse and I divorced.	5	4	3	2	1
20	My friends would disapprove if I ended my marriage.	5	4	3	2	1
21*	I could never leave my spouse because it would go against everything I believe in.	5	4	3	2	1
22	I believe in the sanctity of marriage.	5	4	3	2	1
23	A marriage should be protected at all costs.	5	4	3	2	1
24	If there are too many problems in a marriage, it's OK to get a divorce.	5	4	3	2	1
25	I like knowing that my spouse and I form an inseparable unit.	5	4	3	2	1
26	When I imagine what my life will be like in the future, I always see my spouse standing next to me.	5	4	3	2	1
27*	Under no circumstances should the marriage bond be broken.	5	4	3	2	1
28	I frequently daydream about what it would like to be married to someone other than my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
29*	I am not very devoted to my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
30*	I feel free to divorce my spouse if I so desire.	5	4	3	2	1
31*	I can imagine several situations in which marriage bond should be broken.	5	4	3	2	1
32*	When my spouse and I promised "to have and to hold," we knew that it meant forever.	5	4	3	2	1
33*	I often think that my spouse and I have too many irreconcilable differences.	5	4	3	2	1
34*	I don't think I could handle the shame of being divorced.	5	4	3	2	1
35	I don't think it's morally wrong to divorce your spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
36	I don't believe that marriages should last for ever.	5	4	3	2	1
37*	I am not confident that my marriage will last for ever.	5	4	3	2	1
38	My spouse and I remain together because we value the institution of marriage.	5	4	3	2	1

39	I often think about what it would like to be romantically involved with someone other than my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1
40*	It would be shameful if my spouse and I divorced or separated.	5	4	3	2	1
41*	I could never leave my spouse; I have too much invested in him/her.	5	4	3	2	1
42*	I believe that marriage is for life, regardless of what happens.	5	4	3	2	1
43*	I am afraid that if I were to leave my spouse, God would punish me.	5	4	3	2	1
44*	It would be practically hard on my family and friends if my spouse and I divorced.	5	4	3	2	1
45	My future plans do not include my spouse.	5	4	3	2	1

Note: Items with () were excluded for Pakistani sample on the basis of Confirmatory Factor Analysis.*

Appendix- L

Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale

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

Always disagree	Almost always disagree	Frequently disagree	Occasionally disagree	Almost always agree	Always agree
0	1	2	3	4	5

1	Handling family finances	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	Matters of recreation	0	1	2	3	4	5
3*	Religious matters	0	1	2	3	4	5
4	Demonstrations of affection	0	1	2	3	4	5
5	Friends	0	1	2	3	4	5
6	Sex relations	0	1	2	3	4	5
7*	Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)	0	1	2	3	4	5
8	Philosophy of life	0	1	2	3	4	5
9**	Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws	0	1	2	3	4	5
10	Aims, goals and things believed important	0	1	2	3	4	5
11	Amount of time spent together	0	1	2	3	4	5
12	Making major decisions	0	1	2	3	4	5
13	Household tasks	0	1	2	3	4	5
14	Leisure time interests and activities	0	1	2	3	4	5
15	Career decisions	0	1	2	3	4	5

Answer the following questions using a 5-point response continuum:

All the time	Most of the time	More often than not	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
0	1	2	3	4	5

16	How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?	0	1	2	3	4	5
17	How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?	0	1	2	3	4	5
18	In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?	0	1	2	3	4	5
19	Do you confide in your mate?	0	1	2	3	4	5
20	Do you ever regret that you married (or lived together)?	0	1	2	3	4	5
21	How often do you and your partner quarrel?	0	1	2	3	4	5
22	How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"	0	1	2	3	4	5

Answer the following question using a 5-point response continuum:

		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Almost every day	Every day
23	Do you kiss your mate?	0	1	2	3	4

Answer the following question using the following response continuum:

		None of them	Very few of them	Some of them	Most of them	All of them
24	Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?	0	1	2	3	4

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

Never	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Once a day	More often
0	1	2	3	4	5

25	Have a stimulating exchange of ideas	0	1	2	3	4	5
26	Laugh together	0	1	2	3	4	5
27	Calmly discuss something	0	1	2	3	4	5
28	Work together on a project	0	1	2	3	4	5

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

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

31. The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy" represents the degree of happiness in most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered of your relationship.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.
Extremely unhappy	Fairly unhappy	A little unhappy	Happy	Very happy	Extremely happy	Perfect

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?

- I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.
- I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.
- I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.
- It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed.
- It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
- My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

Note: Items with () were excluded for Pakistani sample on the basis of Factor Analysis.*

Appendix- M

Revised Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory

Part of being in a relationship with another person is how you solve problems. For the following group of questions, please try to answer how you **generally** handle conflict with your partner. The following statements concern how you deal with disagreements in your marital relationship with your spouse. Please respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with:

5	4	3	2	1
Strongly agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Agree nor Disagree				

1.	I try to investigate an issue with my partner to find a solution acceptable to us.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	I generally try to satisfy the needs of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	I attempt to avoid being "put on the spot" and try to keep my conflict with my partner to myself.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	I try to integrate my ideas with those of my partner's to come up with a decision jointly.	5	4	3	2	1
5.	I give some to get some.	5	4	3	2	1
6.	I try to work with my partner to find solutions to a problem which satisfy our expectations.	5	4	3	2	1
7.	I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
8.	I usually hold on to my solution to a problem.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.	5	4	3	2	1
10.	I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.	5	4	3	2	1
11.	I use my authority to make a decision in my favor.	5	4	3	2	1
12.	I usually accommodate the wishes of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
13.	I give in to the wishes of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1

14.	I win some and I lose some.	5	4	3	2	1
15.	I exchange accurate information with my partner to solve a problem together.	5	4	3	2	1
16.	I sometimes help my partner to make a decision in his/her favor.	5	4	3	2	1
17.	I usually allow concessions to partner.	5	4	3	2	1
18.*	I argue my case with my partner to show the merits of my position.	5	4	3	2	1
19.	I try to play down our differences to reach a compromise.	5	4	3	2	1
20.*	I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.	5	4	3	2	1
21.	I negotiate with my partner so that a compromise can be reached.	5	4	3	2	1
22.*	I try to stay away from disagreement with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
23.	I avoid an encounter with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
24.*	I use my expertise to make a decision in my favor.	5	4	3	2	1
25.	I often go along with the suggestions of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
26.	I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.	5	4	3	2	1
27.	I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue.	5	4	3	2	1
28.*	I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.	5	4	3	2	1
29.	I collaborate with my partner to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	5	4	3	2	1
30.	I try to satisfy the expectations of my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
31.	I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.	5	4	3	2	1
32.	I try to keep my disagreement with my partner to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.	5	4	3	2	1
33.	I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
34.	I generally avoid an argument with my partner.	5	4	3	2	1
35.	I try to work with my partner for a proper understanding of a problem.	5	4	3	2	1

Note: Items with (*) were excluded for Pakistani sample on the basis of Exploratory Factor Analysis.

Appendix- N

Revised - The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Questionnaire

The following statements concern how you feel in your marital relationship. We are interested in what is happening currently in your relationship. Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Respond by using the following rating scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Occasionally Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Occasionally Agree	Strongly Agree

Part I

1.	I'm afraid that I will lose my spouse's love.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I often worry that my spouse will not want to stay with me.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I often worry that my spouse doesn't really love me.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I worry that my spouse won't care about me as much as I care about him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I often wish that my spouse's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I worry a lot about my marital relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	When my spouse is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	When I show my feelings for my spouse, I'm afraid he/she will not feel the same about me.	1	2	3	4	5
9.*	I rarely worry about my spouse leaving me.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	My spouse makes me doubt myself.	1	2	3	4	5
11.*	I do not often worry about being abandoned.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I find that my spouse doesn't want to get as close as I would like.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Sometimes my spouse changes his/her feelings about me for	1	2	3	4	5

	no apparent reason.					
14.	My desire to be very close sometimes scares my spouse away.	1	2	3	4	5
15.*	I'm afraid that once my spouse gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I worry that I won't measure up to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	My spouse only seems to notice me when I'm angry.	1	2	3	4	5

Part II

19.	I prefer not to show my spouse how I feel deep down.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I am very comfortable being close to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I don't feel comfortable opening up to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I prefer not to be too close to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I get uncomfortable when my spouse wants to be very close.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I find it relatively easy to get close to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	It's not difficult for me to get close to my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	It helps to turn to my spouse in times of need.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I tell my spouse just about everything.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I talk things over with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
32.*	I am nervous when my spouse gets too close to me.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	I feel comfortable depending on my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	I find it easy to depend on my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	It's easy for me to be affectionate with my spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	My spouse really understands me and my needs.	1	2	3	4	5

Note: Items with (*) were excluded for Pakistani sample on the basis of Exploratory Factor Analysis.