ATTACHMENT STYLES AND CONFLICT MANAGEMENT
AMONG MARRIED COUPLES

BY

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2007

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

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A dissertation submitted to the

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In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

DEGREE OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
PSYCHOLOGY
2007

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Certified that M. Phil Dissertation titled "**Attachment Styles and Conflict Management among Married Couples**" prepared by Miss. Nazia Iqbal has been approved for submission to Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad.

Dr. Night Gilani
Supervisor

Dedicated to

My Mother
Who gave me my identity
&
My Husband
For his encouragement and support

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

The present study was designed to explore the Attachment styles and Conflict Management among married couples. It was also aimed to explore the gender differences in attachment styles and conflict management. Demographic variables of age, length of relationship, family income, and education were also explored. The study consisted of three phases. Phase-I comprised of translation and adaptation of three questionnaires, The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) Questionnaire (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000), which measures the attachment styles of couples; The Disagreement Scale-When We Disagree, this scale measures the conflict management styles used by partners in a conflicting situation, and When We Disagree: Outcome by Camara and Resnik, 1989 which measures the participant's feelings after the conflict was over. Pre-testing of all three scales was also carried out in phase-I. In Phase–II a pilot study was carried out to test whether the scales were reliable measures of the above mentioned variables. Phase–III was the main study that was aimed at fulfilling of the objectives. Sample of 260 individuals' i.e.130 husbands and 130 wives was taken, who were married for the past 5-20 years. The data was collected from different cities of Pakistan i.e. Islamabad, Rawalpindi and Faisalabad. Convenience sampling technique was used and data was collected on the three scales along with a demographic data sheet. The findings indicated satisfactory alpha reliability coefficients of all three scales. Results showed that secure individuals use compromising conflict management techniques whereas, fearful individuals avoid conflicting situations. Furthermore, young individuals were more secure and compromising and they reported increased intimacy after conflict resolution. High education and low income was also found to be highly correlated with secure and compromising individuals. The sample demonstrated non-significant gender differences on ECR-R Questionnaire, The Disagreement Scale-When We Disagree and The Disagreement scale: outcome. The study concluded that there exists a relationship between attachment and conflict management among married couples. Findings of the study could be utilized in marital counseling and training programs to maintain healthy marital relationships.

Marriage is an empty box,
It remains empty unless
you put in more
than you take out.

(H. Jackson Brown, JR.)

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

People engage in different social roles, each of which is based on concept of reciprocity. A reciprocal relationship involves an exchange of something like an expression of love and it creates a bond between two people. If the desired exchange does not take place, conflict may eventually emerge to disrupt the relationship. Conflict in close relationships (e.g. married couples) happens every where. How partner deals and manage that conflict is dependent upon many factors.

The present research aims at looking into these factors closely. Ideally, intimate relationships are supportive and loving, providing each member of the couple with a protective and safe environment. However, when two individuals with different expectations, goals, preferences, and beliefs about the world and their relationship interact with one another over time, it is to be expected that their relationship will encounter some degree of disagreement, lack of consensus on some issues, and potential conflict between them. Intimate relationships present multiple opportunities for differences of needs and opinions between partners, and thus a potential for conflict (Canary & Messman, 2000).

It has been suggested that attachment theory may be a useful framework for studying and understanding interactions within conflictual intimate relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Rholes, Simpson, & Stevens, 1998). Growing empirical evidence supports the connection between conflict management patterns and attachment styles (Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Simpson, Rholes, & Phillips, 1996). Researchers have noticed that individuals tend to use the same conflict resolution styles in various settings and circumstances (Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000; Rahim, 1983). Researchers concluded that this consistency in responses to conflict may constitute general styles, or individuals' general orientation to intimate relationships (Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000).

According to attachment theory, an infant forms an internal working model, a mental representation of the relationship between the self and others (Bowlby, 1969). The internal working model can be a secure attached relationship model where the faith and trust in the self and others are deeply rooted or an insecure attachment relationship

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model where uncertainty and a lack of trust are planted. Based on various models one secure and three insecure attachment styles are identified (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). It has also been observed that the relation between attachment styles and conflict management is very strong and there are certain attachment styles which always go with a particular conflict management styles. In marital relationships these factors play an important role in building the relationship and marital satisfaction and a long happy marriage is considered to be dependent on the attachment as well as effective management of conflicts and disagreements.

Outline of Thesis

The thesis is divided into three parts. *Part one* deals with the theoretical and conceptual analysis of variables. Chapter one is mainly focusing on the attachment and attachment styles, and chapter two covers conflict management in detail. In depth analysis of constructs along with relevant literature review is available in each chapter.

Part two of the thesis i.e., chapters three and four will be devoted to the methodological aspects of the research. It includes research design and methodology adopted for the present research. Chapter three is devoted to the objectives of the thesis, hypotheses of the study, operational definitions of the variables under study and the research design. Chapter four is divided into three phases phase I is about translation of questionnaire, Phase II is covering the pilot study as well as the reliability of the scales, and Phase III is dealing with main study. Chapter five covers the results of the presents study.

The *third part (i.e., chapter 6)* of the thesis is about the discussion of the results, the conclusion drawn from it and the limitations along with implication of the research. Some suggestions are also proposed for the future researchers who intended to work in similar areas.

ATTACHMENT

ATTACHMENT

Attachment refers to affectional bond to an object; usually a loved one (Bowlby, 1977). Attachment is defined as an affectional tie to one's caregivers that elicit care, protection, and investment (Goldberg, 2000). Attachment is also an affectional bond build during infancy and child hood with primary and secondary care givers on the basis of treatment which the child receive from the caregivers. The history of a child's experience of interpersonal relations constitutes a distinct attachment style that continues to be manifested in individual's adult relationships throughout his/her life span (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Most of the researches in the area of adult close relationships are based on attachment theory (Ainsworth et. al, 1978; Bowlby, 1969, 1973, 1980). One central tenet of this theory is that close relationships are regulated by internal working models that organize relationship-related thoughts, affects, and behaviors relevant to one's partner (e.g., is the partner available, caring, and responsive?), and to one's self (e.g., am I worthy of care, love, and attention?).

Theory of Attachment

The theory of attachment was originally developed by John Bowlby (1907-1990), a British psychoanalyst who was attempting to understand the intense distress experienced by infants who had been separated from their parents. It is a landmark three-volume exploration of attachment, separation and loss by Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1980) provided an in-depth understanding of the varying styles of unidirectional attachment which occur from the infant to the mother. Bowlby observed that separated infants would go to extraordinary lengths (e.g., crying, clinging, and frantically searching) to either prevent separation from their parents or to reestablish proximity to a missing parent. At the time, psychoanalytic writers held that these expressions were manifestations of immature defense mechanisms that were operating to repress emotional pain, but Bowlby noted that such expressions are common to a wide variety of mammalian species, and speculated that these behaviors may serve an evolutionary function.

Bowlby (1979) believed that attachment is an important component of human experience "from the cradle to the grave" (p. 129). He viewed attachment relationships as playing a powerful role in adults' emotional lives. He states, "Many of the most intense emotions arise during the formation, the maintenance, the disruption and the renewal of attachment relationships. The formation of a bond is described as falling in love, maintaining a bond as loving and losing a partner as grieving over someone. Similarly, threat of loss arouses anxiety and actual loss gives rise to sorrow while each of these situations is likely to arouse anger. The unchallenged maintenance of a bond is experienced as a source of security and the renewal of a bond as a source of joy. Because such emotions are usually a reflection of the state of a person's affectional bonds, the psychology and psychopathology of emotion is found to be in large part the psychology and psychopathology of affectional bonds" (Bowlby, 1980, p. 40).

Along with Bowlby, Ainsworth (1964, 1978, 1990) is considered to be another predominate figure in the development of the attachment theory. Ainsworth furthered attachment theory with her studies in laboratory conditions (Ainsworth et al., 1978) and with first multicultural comparisons of infants' attachment behaviors. Along with her colleagues, Ainsworth was the first researcher to identify attachment orientations, which she delineated as three category model i.e. secure, avoidant and anxious ambivalent (Ainsworth et al., 1978). These researchers used laboratory (Strange Situation) observations through a standardized procedure (Ainsworth et al., 1978). The procedure was consisted of two separations and reunions between infants and their caregivers. Infants' behaviors following separations and reunions were carefully recorded and significant individual differences found were classified into three distinct styles of attachment; secure, anxious-ambivalent, and avoidant. Moreover, Ainsworth and colleagues (1978) confirmed these laboratory findings with their home-observations of infants and caregivers (Goldberg, Muir, & Kerr, 1995).

Attachment theory looks at this availability based on the notion of secure base (Ainsworth, 1989). The term secure base is one of the key concepts in attachment theory. It was originally defined as an infant's perceived availability of the caregiver as a safe haven to return to in the face of distress or danger. Perceiving family and friends as a secure base to return to it for reassurance and support might be of significant

importance in developing young adults' normative risk taking behavior and exploration in various areas of their lives, such as academic, social, and personal etc.

The secure infants were more likely to use the mother as a secure base for exploration. They showed signs of missing the caregiver upon reunion and actively sought contact and comfort from the caregiver. Avoidant infants were characterized with readily having exploratory behavior independent of the caregivers' presence. They also seemed to have little display of affect or secure base behavior. These infants did not show signs of distress when caregiver departed nor did they show much interest in the caregiver's return. Finally, the anxious-ambivalent infants did not display much exploratory behavior, and appeared passive. Upon separation from the parent they displayed distress. However, when the parent returned these infants often displayed signs of anger and tantrums, and seemed to have difficulty finding comfort in the parent.

Attachment theorists view a perceived secure base to also have indirect contributions to one's development and experience in college. Such contributions are thought to be through internal working models of the self and other. Bowlby (1980) argued that when the attachment figure is available, responsive and reliable, the child will form an image/representation of self as good, worthy, and lovable. Attachment theory also maintains that such a person will have an internal model of other as trustworthy, responsive and reliable. Thus it is assumed that individuals with such representations will be more likely to establish and utilize supportive interpersonal relations.

Attachment theory has been applied to college experience in a variety of ways. For instance, some researchers have examined adjustment to college and perceived parental availability (Hazan & Shaver, 1990).

Adult Attachment

Sperling and Berman (1992) define adult attachment as "the stable tendency of an individual to make substantial efforts to seek and maintain proximity to and contact with one or a few specific individuals who provide the subjective potential for physical and/or psychological safety and security"

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Although Bowlby primarily focused on understanding the nature of the infant-caregiver relationship, he believed that attachment characterized human experience from "the cradle to the grave."(Bowlby, 1980). It was not until the mid-1980, however, that researchers began to take seriously the possibility that attachment processes may play out in adulthood. Hazan and Shaver (1987) were two of the first researchers to explore Bowlby's ideas in the context of romantic relationships.

According to Hazan and Shaver (1987), the emotional bond that develops between adult romantic partners is partly a function of the same motivational system (the attachment behavioral system) that gives rise to the emotional bond between infants and their caregivers. For example, secure child tends to believe that others will be there for him or her because previous experiences have led him or her to this conclusion. Once a child has developed such expectations, he or she will tend to seek out relational experiences that are consistent with those expectations and perceive others in a way that is colored by those beliefs. According to Bowlby, (1973) this kind of process should promote continuity in attachment patterns over the life course, although it is possible that a person's attachment pattern will change if his or her relational experiences are inconsistent with his or her expectations. In short, if we assume that adult relationships are attachment relationships, it is possible that children who are secure as children will grow up to be secure in their romantic relationships

Hazan and Shaver (1987) proposed that adult romantic relationships can be conceptualized as attachment relationships. They pointed out a number of similarities between infant-caregiver attachment and adult romantic love (Shaver & Brennen, 1992). For example, distress at separation and proximity seeking when frightened or sick are attachment behaviors displayed both by children toward their caregivers and by adults toward their romantic partners. Furthermore, both the parent and romantic partner provide care and protection (a safe haven) and a secure base from which to approach the world. At the same time, Shaver and Hazan acknowledge several notable differences between adult love and infant attachment. Specifically, adult love involves sexual behavior and reciprocal care giving, two components that are nonexistent in infant-caregiver attachment. Thus, they conceptualize adult romantic love as the integration of three behavioral systems; attachment, care giving, and sexuality (Shaver & Brennen, 1992). At some places a forth behavioral system called affiliative behavioral system is also involved. The addition of this fourth system is needed to account for the similarities

between friendships and romantic relationships as well as for the influence of peer relationships on development.

Four Category Model of Adult Attachment

Researchers suggest that early attachment patterns remain influential in an individual's life well past infancy (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Hazan and Shaver (1987) argue that the initial bond one develops during infancy can have great bearing on one's attachment style in adult romantic relationships. Research suggests that there are two underlying dimensions; Avoidance and Anxiety that can be used to describe adult attachment style (Ainsworth et al, 1978; Bartholomew, 1990; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Brennan et al., 1998). *Avoidance* refers to the extent to which individuals attempt to remain autonomous from their romantic partner in terms of emotional intimacy (Ainsworth et al, 1978). *Anxiety* is the extent to which individuals worry about the availability or supportiveness of their partner during times of need.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) proposed four different adult attachment patterns based on an individual's level of avoidance and anxiety (as shown in Table-1). Table shows two dimensional model of attachment which includes four attachment styles.

Table 1

Four –Category Model of Adult Attachment (Bartholomew et al., 1991)

		Model Of Self	
		Positive	Negative
Model Of Others	Positive	SECURE (Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy)	PREOCCUPIED (Overly dependent)
	Negative	DISMISSING (Denial of attachment)	FEARFUL/AVOIDANT (Fear of attachment)

i.   *Secure attachment style*: Secure attachment is the type of interpersonal relationship in which the subject has a positive view of self as well as positive view of others. Securely attached person demonstrates close emotional intimacy, trust and reciprocal dependence within a relationship (Barthalomew & Horowitz, 1991). Secure attachment style refers to a sense of worthiness as well as a perception of others being generally responsive and accepting. Secure individuals experience low anxiety and low avoidance, indicating comfort with intimacy and autonomy. Simpson found that those who exhibit a secure attachment style are more likely than insecure people to report trust in partners, higher levels of interdependence, commitment and overall relationship satisfaction (as cited in Steuber, 2005).

ii. *Fearful attachment styles*: A fearful attachment style is a type of interpersonal relationships that is characterized by negative view of self as well as negative view of others. *Fearful-avoidant style* refers to both a feeling of unworthiness as well as a distrust of intimacy. Experiencing high anxiety and avoidance, fearful individuals feel that by avoiding intimacy with others, they are protected from the rejection they anticipate in close relationships (Barthalomew & Horowitz, 1991).

iii. *Preoccupied attachment styles*: This is a type of interpersonal relationship that is characterized by a positive view of others and a negative view of self. Individuals who report low avoidance and high anxiety and view themselves as being unworthy of love. Preoccupied people tend to base their self-worth on whether significant people in their lives accept them (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

iv. *Dismissing attachment styles*: This is a type of interpersonal relationship that is characterized by a positive view of self and a negative view of others (Barthalomew & Horowitz, 1991). Dismissive people are described as having high avoidance and low anxiety in adult romantic relationships. The *dismissive style* describes a self-love combined with negative perception of others' trustworthiness and responsiveness. According to Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991), dismissive individuals protect themselves against disappointment by avoiding close relationships and maintaining a sense of independence and invulnerability.

The last three styles, *preoccupied, fearful-avoidant and dismissive- avoidant attachment style*, are insecure styles of attachment. Those exhibiting any of the three insecure styles are likely to report feeling distrust in their partners, low levels of

interdependence, problems with commitment and an overall low level of relationship satisfaction (Barthalomew & Horowitz, 1991). Feeny, Noller and Roberts (2000) found that a cluster analysis always produced two primary clusters of secure and insecure subjects, with the insecure groups with further clustering. In other words there is only one way of being secure and many ways of being insecure. For example those who would generally be classified as anxious/ambivalent seemed to share the discomfort with closeness usually associated with avoidant attachment.

Kelly Brennan and her colleagues collected a number of statements (e.g., "I believe that others will be there for me when I need them") and studied the way these statements "hang together" statistically (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). Brennan's findings suggested that there are two fundamental dimensions with respect to adult attachment patterns (Figure 1).

Figure 1

The two-dimensional model of individual differences in adult attachment.
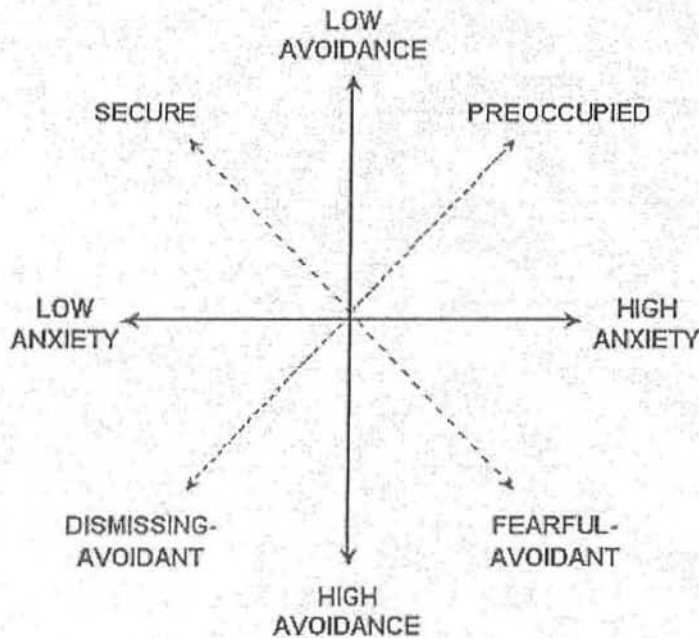
One critical variable has been labeled *attachment-related anxiety*. People who score high on this variable tend to worry whether their partner is available, responsive, attentive, etc. People who score on the low end of this variable are more secure in the perceived responsiveness of their partners. The other critical variable is called *attachment-related avoidance*. People on the high end of this dimension prefer not to rely on others or open up to others. People on the low end of this dimension are more comfortable being intimate with others and are more secure depending upon and having others depend upon them. A prototypical secure adult is low on both of these dimensions.

Brennan's findings are critical because recent analyses of the statistical patterning of behavior among infants in the strange situation reveal two functionally similar dimensions: one that captures variability in the anxiety and resistance of the child and another that captures variability in the child's willingness to use the parent as a safe haven for support (Fraley & Spieker, 2003). Functionally, these dimensions are similar to the two-dimensions uncovered among adults, suggesting that similar patterns of attachment exist at different points in the life span. In light of Brennan's findings, as well as research published by Fraley and Waller (1998), most researchers currently conceptualize and measure individual differences in attachment dimensionally rather than categorically. The most popular measures of adult attachment style are Brennan, Clark, and Shaver's (1998) ECR and Fraley, Waller, and Brennan's (2000) ECR-R a revised version of the ECR.

In a study with Israeli college students, Mikulincer and Florian (1999) looked at the correspondence between parents and their offspring's attachment styles. The researchers found that parents' and children's attachment styles did in fact match. However, this match was more significant with gender matching. In other words, such a correspondence was more visible between same-sex parents-children dyads.

It is observed that attachment patterns in infancy significantly predict a child's later social behaviors with peers, family members, teachers, and so on. As children grow and develop, they use their attachment figures as "secure bases" throughout life (Ainsworth, 1991; Byng-Hall, 1995a). As they grow older, most individuals take on more of the responsibility for managing their attachment relationships and eventually

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new attachment relationships are formed as they establish intimate bonds other than those that they have established with their parents and/or caregivers (Byng-Hall, 1995).

Shaver and Clark (1996) provide a detailed account of the research done with the three-category model of Hazan, and Shaver (1987). Adults with avoidant attachment described their parents as rejecting and nonaffectionate, reported having poor relationships with their parents during college years (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Furthermore, individuals with avoidant style expressed a lack of interest in developing intimate relationships (Shaver & Brennan, 1992); they were pessimistic about having long-term relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987); compared to the secure ones who were more likely to have break ups (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Shaver & Brennan, 1992); and were less likely to grieve after a break up (Simpson, 1990). In their work environments, avoidant individuals preferred to work alone and used work to avoid close relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1990).

Shaver and Clark (1996) summarize research findings on adults who were classified as anxious-ambivalent as these individuals referred to their parents as intrusive and unfair (Hazan & Shaver, 1987); they expressed longing for romantic relationships (Hazan & Hutt, 1993); showed more obsessive behavior toward their partners and suffered from extreme jealousy, were argumentative, intrusive and overly controlling (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). These persons were also more likely than the other two groups to have break ups and to get back together with the same partner (Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994). They preferred working with others but felt unappreciated and misunderstood (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Research findings of the *secure* group suggested that such individuals describe their parents in favorable ways and maintain positive relationships with them during their college years (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). In addition, these persons are highly invested in their relationships (Collins & Read, 1990) and they tend to choose conflict resolution strategies that are satisfactory to them and to others (Pistole, 1989a). They were more likely to have long lasting-stable and mutually satisfying relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994). In their work environment they feel that they are liked by coworkers (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Attachment theory maintains that attachments, affectional ties to one's caregivers that elicit care,

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protection, and investment (Goldberg, 2000), are of primary importance in stressful situations. Secure attachments provide a person with a sense of belonging and support and with a means to evaluate and cope with the anxiety. Secure attachment refers to a relationship in which a person is relatively unambivalent about the wish for contact with the caregiver, seems to view oneself as basically good and loveable, and views the other person as basically trustworthy and responsive (Bowlby, 1973). Secure attachment is also thought to promote emotional regulation, such that a person is able to manage anxiety, depression, and anger during periods of stress and when others are temporarily unavailable (Kobak, Cole, Ferenz-Gillies, Fleming, & Gamble, 1993; Lopez & Brennan, 2000).

According to many researchers (Feeney & Collin, 2001; Hazan & Shaver, 1987) people with colder and/or rejecting early attachment experiences continue to have some degree of difficulty with romantic bonding during adult life. They may be less comfortable with closeness and trust, find it difficult to depend on others or be depended upon. On average their relationships last about half as long as those with the more secure style. Those whose early attachments were particularly unreliable tend to be preoccupied and obsessive in relationships, needy and vulnerable, and experience difficulty getting as close to others as they would like. They bond easily but their relationships are the least durable. All of the attachment styles are considered normal. But the less secure styles are prone to experiences of jealousy and loneliness. They also tend toward defensiveness and blame and have difficulty getting their needs met.

Attachment and Gender

Researchers like Belenky et al. (1986) and Gilligan (1982) have recommended that compared to males, females tend to have a more relational orientation. Kenny et al. (1998) reported that cross-sectional studies have found significant gender differences in adolescents' parental attachment. These researchers found that adolescent boys perceived less stability in their parental attachment than did girls. Furthermore, changes in the level of perceived parental attachment was more influential on boys' well-being. Therefore, Kenny et al. (1998) concluded that boys were more vulnerable to psychological distress while experiencing trouble in close relationships because their relationships are less stable or secure. In their work with college students Springer et al.

(1998) found no significant differences between males and females' scores on dependence. Volling, Notaro, and Larsen (1998) found that in general women were more likely to report depressive affect than their husbands. Avoidant husbands married to secure wives were more depressed than secure husbands- regardless of whether the secure husbands were married to secure or avoidant wives.

Kobak (1994) studied attachment, eating disorders and depression in women. They found that when eating disorders and depression were reported together women tended to have hyperactivating strategies (preoccupied attachment style). On the other hand, when they presented with eating disorders, deactivating strategies (dismissing attachment style) were more prevalent. When women reported eating disorders, and depression, they had the most extreme levels of symptomatology. As noted by the researchers these findings might be due to the attachment classification system they used. They indicate that if they had utilized a four-category classification perhaps these women would have unresolved attachment classification as opposed to the preoccupied one.

Kobak et al. (1991) assert that along with insecure attachment, gender could be one of the variables that could add to risk factors for adolescent depressiveness. Their findings did indeed confirm that females were at greater risk for depressive symptomatology than males. They also found that female adolescents were at greater risk to experience depression than their male peers. The researchers propose that this might be due to females' tendency to adopt preoccupied attachment orientation. Perhaps males and females respond differently to normative frustrations and distress at given developmental stages. In other words, females might be more likely to respond to distress with strategies of internalization while males are likely to use externalization. Consequently, high levels of distress might predispose females for depression and males for conduct related problems.

Kirkpatrick and Davis (1994) found significantly high occurrence of pairing between anxious (preoccupied) and avoidant (dismissing) individuals. Furthermore, this frequency was more distinct when the female partner was avoidant and male partner anxious. On the other hand, non-avoidant males indicated a preference for non-anxious females and non-anxious females reported a preference for non-avoidant males. The

authors observed pairing of secure males and avoidant females to rank second in frequency. These findings could be viewed as supportive of stereotypical male tendency for independence and female tendency for relatedness. Partners' relationship ratings showed that persons' ratings were more influenced by their own attachment status than their partners'.

Kirkpatrick and Davis (1994) also looked at relationship stability based upon attachment style. Females did not show any significant differences in stability based on their attachment status. On the contrary, anxious males showed the lowest degree of relationship stability. Furthermore, the researchers reason that relationships involving avoidant women, who are not sufficiently skilled in relationships, would show the highest breakup rates. Relationships involving anxious women, for whom relationships are very important, would show greatest stability.

The Four category adult attachment measures have revealed some interesting gender differences. In response to the categorical four-group adult attachment measure (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), males were more likely than female to endorse the Dismissing style (one of the two Avoidant styles), while females were more likely than males to endorse the Fearful style one of the other Avoidant style (Brennan, Shaver, & Tobey, 1991). Studies using the continuous four-category attachment measure revealed that males reported higher mean ratings of dismissing attachment, whereas females reported higher mean ratings of Preoccupied attachment (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Attachment Patterns and Partner Selection

When examining attachment within couple relationships, two questions have been raised by researchers that seem to be significant: Is there a 'pair matching' in terms of particular match-ups of attachment characteristics of members of couples? And, is relationship functioning predicted by the combination of the attachment styles of both partners involved in the relationship? (Feeney, Noller, & Roberts, 2000).

The question "Who chooses whom and why?" has been a major topic of research on couple relationships in researchers' efforts to understand the choices that people

make in selecting a life partner (Chappell & Davis, 1998). When individuals select their partners, it is expected that they would look for someone who is attentive, warm, and sensitive. However, all of these characteristics describe a partner with a secure attachment pattern who is seeking a similarly secure partner, but from literature review the distribution of attachment styles in the general population this certainly is not always the case. Researchers have examined three broad categories of couples, Secure (in which both partners see themselves as securely attached), Insecure (in which both partners see themselves as insecurely attached), and Mixed or Secure/Insecure (in which one partner sees himself/herself securely attached, while the other partner sees himself/herself insecurely attached).

Researchers have found that people who were comfortable with closeness were more likely to find partners who were also comfortable with closeness, and partners who were comfortable with depending on their partners were more likely to select partners who are comfortable with having others depend on them and comfortable with depending on others. Those individuals who were secure and comfortable with closeness and able to depend on others chose partners who were not afraid of closeness and were comfortable with depending on others. (Collins & Read, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Nordling, 1992). Secure-secure and insecure-insecure pairings involve matches between partners, but what happens when a secure individual is involved in a relationship with an insecure individual? It has been suggested that by associating with a secure partner, insecure individuals will be able to cope better with their insecurity and engage in more balanced and healthy interactions. In other words, such a relationship can provide insecure individuals with a sense of security, a comfortable base from which to develop more stable relationships (Fisher & Crandell, 2001). On the other hand, it is also possible that an insecurely attached individual may reduce the attachment security of the secure partner negatively, unbalancing the couple system and creating conflict and tension within the relationship (Fisher & Crandell. 2001).

In their study of newlywed couples, Senchak and Leonard (1992) found that secure couples showed better adjustment than insecure couples, in terms of self-reports of intimacy, relationship functioning, and partners' responses to conflict. Couples in which both partners exhibit secure attachment patterns were found to be able to allow each other to be dependent on each other, to seek support from each other, and to

provide support and nurturance to each other. Partners in such relationships show respect and appreciation for one another's thoughts and feelings. Neither one of the partners is afraid to expresses a need for comfort and contact. It has also been suggested that there is not only a balance between the partners' needs and desires; but there is also a symmetry within the relationship system, which allows the partners to be aware of the experiences that each one of them encounters while moving back and forth from the position of being dependent on the partner to having the partner depend on them (Fisher & Crandell, 2001). Thus, when such couples experience conflict in their intimate relationship, it can be assumed that they would use more of the constructive conflict management behaviors rather than resorting to psychologically abusive ones. On the other hand, as it has been suggested earlier, abusive behavior in a relationship develops from partners' frustrated attachment needs and is used to regain proximity to or to increase distance from the attachment figure (Haslem & Erdman, 2003).

A couple consisting of two partners with different attachment styles and associated strategies for relationship maintenance may experience significant difficulty in resolving their conflicts due to their different styles of conflict resolution, possibly leading to abusive behavior. For example, one partner in a couple who has an avoidant attachment pattern may use abusive behavior to increase distance from the partner, while his or her partner with a preoccupied attachment style may use abuse to assert power and to prevent the other person from separating further (Mayseless, 1991). Hence, both persons' attachment styles need to be considered in relation to one another in order to understand the couple's interaction pattern (Bartholomew, Henderson, & Dutton, 2001).

Criticism on Attachment Theory

Morelli and Tronick (1991) raised some concerns about the Strange Situation procedure. They point out that there have been various cross cultural studies with non-US populations that found differing proportions of infants falling into the original three attachment categories. Considering culture specific child rearing practices, differing values about independence, self-reliance, and meanings attributed to children's interactions with strangers, these findings are not surprising.

Perhaps it would better encompass the complexity of the conditions in which human babies are being raised if developmental models such as attachment theory were to assume an ecological-contextual view in identifying the safety, desirability and growth adaptability fostering of a given developmental environment. This would not necessarily undermine the crucial role of those who are in close contact with infants, including the primary caregiver(s). Bartholomew and Thomson (1995) specifically emphasize that attachment is only a key aspect of relational behavior in a narrow subset of relationships, notably parent-child relationships and long-term sexual relationships. Thus the authors concern against the indiscriminate extension of attachment concepts to all social relationships.

Some researchers have criticized attachment theory for proposing a deterministic viewpoint on human development (Morelli & Tronick, 1991). Such analysis views attachment theory's emphasis on the impact of early development as defective. However, attachment theorists such as Bowlby (1988) view impacts of early experiences from a developmental pathway model. A pathway model does give an essential role to the relative stability of internal working models once they are developed. In the mean time, such a perspective provides sufficient room for modification and alteration of internal working models. Accordingly, such a model acknowledges that through greater self understanding, interpersonal relationships, and many other factors, some individuals with insecure internal working models could develop more adaptive functioning, whereas some with secure internal working models could demonstrate significant adjustment difficulties (Kenny & Rice, 1995).

A number of researchers have studied the degree to which attachment theory's basic tenets apply to other cultures. Cultural groups vary in the extent to which they emphasize certain emotional expressions and behaviors as favorable and others to be avoided (Harwood et al., 1995). Such cultural meaning systems function as conceptual frame of references with which individuals interpret their emotional experiences. For instance, in Turkish culture being nice and well mannered is a highlighted construct. On the other hand, in American culture self-sufficiency is highly valued. Therefore, individuals from these two cultures would attribute different degrees of importance to personal adequacy versus their own public images. It is essential to note that such frameworks are not merely guides for individuals to interpret and attribute meaning to

their experiences and behaviors but they also function in the same manner in perceiving others.

Morelli and Tronick (1991) criticize attachment theory for attempting to identify a universal optimum of human development. They furthermore, propose that it is not feasible to identify a universal process for social and emotional development. Infantcaregiver relationship cannot be seen as the sole determining factor in human development. For instance, the mutuality embedded in infant-caregiver interactions must be taken into account. Also, due to the complex nature of the contexts in which the development of human babies takes place, there are various other factors to be considered. For example, individuals other than the caretaker might also influence development. Indeed, there are communities and especially in collectivistic cultures where caretaking is done by multiple individuals.

In all close relationships conflicts are likely to occur. It would be interesting to observe how people specially couples with different attachment styles handle interpersonal conflicts. This issue will be discussed in detail in the next section.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Conflict is defined as a disagreement when two or more people oppose one another because their needs, wants, goals, or values are different. Conflict is almost always accompanied by feelings of anger, frustration, hurt, anxiety, or fear (Gottman, 1994a). More specifically Conflict is the confrontation between differing expectations, purposes, goals, values, or desires; and/or the competition for limited resources.

The presence of conflict not indicates that a relationship is unhealthy or in trouble, although how partners manage conflict does influence relational health. Most close relationships contain some level of conflict. In fact, Argyle and Furnham (1983) found that relational closeness and conflict were positively associated. In their study people rated different relationships in terms of how much confli
ct the participants had and how they are emotionally close. Argyle and Furnham found that most conflict occurred in closest relationships. Thus, spouses reported the most closeness and the most conflict. Family relationships, such as parents and children or siblings were also relatively high in both conflict and closeness. Conversely, relationships between neighbors were low in both conflict and closeness.

In another study, Lloyd and Cate (1985a) found that conflict increased as relational partners became more committed and interdependent. These studies make an important point that conflict by itself is not associated with relational dissatisfaction. When people are in close relationships, they not only have more opportunities for conflict but also feel free to express disagreement. Therefore, if some one is living with siblings, parents, a spouse, or a roommate, there has been an increased opportunity to disagree with these people. Although conflict is a part of many different types of relationships, most research has focused on conflict between parents and children or between romantic partners. Some research has also looked at conflict in friendships and sibling relationships.

Types of Conflict

All conflicts are not alike. Not only are some based on communication difficulties and others not, but they also differ in intensity, emotional investment, and more important, the issues at risk. The kinds of issues greatly influence the options available. Deetz and Stevenson (1986) categorized conflicts in to four different types; i.e., differing opinions, incompatible roles, incompatible goals, and competition for limited resources. According to them managing conflict requires identification of the issues giving rise to the conflict. Misjudging what caused the conflict leads to frustration, wasted effort, and the raising of issues unrelated to the initial conflict.

1.   *Differing Opinions*

Many common conflicts are based on differing opinions, different information, or different bodies of knowledge. Here is the simplest case of disagreement. As long as the conflict can be kept at this level, management is relatively easy. The goal is to keep the interaction as focused and specific as possible, confirming areas of agreement and isolating the areas of greatest and most important disagreement. Many conflicts can be partially resolved by agreeing on the means of acquiring necessary information. Others, particularly where, there-are great value and belief differences, can be kept more limited by identifying areas where the values and beliefs are relevant and not allowing the discussion to spread to other areas. Poor conflict resolution results from inadequate communication skills (Bradbury & Karney, 1993).

2.   *Incompatible Roles*

Deetz and Stevenson (1986) suggested that conflicts arising from incompatible roles are more difficult to manage. Relational conflicts are often disguised as content disagreements. A normal effort to respond to the disagreement with new and more complete information frequently aggravates the relational misalignment. Frustration arises from the inability to solve the pseudo-content issue and, subsequently, undermines feelings of goodwill in the interaction. This type of conflict arises whenever (whether known or not) individual roles in the interaction cannot be played because each requires a complementary role that the other is not playing. Conflict continues until they either directly or indirectly negotiate aligned roles. Management of this interaction conflict is difficult, since alignment at some level is essential for the interaction to be understandable at all.

3. *Incompatible Goals*

Incompatible goal conflicts arise in situations where, for example, two people want to do something together but each wants to do something different. Other examples include situations where one person's goal accomplishment is based on the other person's doing something first or where goal accomplishment is based on mutual effort. Initially in these cases it appears impossible for both persons to have what they want. Many natural responses in these situations, for example, arguing for the mutual desirability of self-goals, set up a competitive, antagonist relationship where winning becomes more important than the initial goals. Long arguments between partners in a relationship regarding whether they should go out or spend a quite evening at home can easily lead to a long noisy evening at home leaving them unhappy.

4. *Limited resources*

Conflicts over limited resources are similar to those over incompatible goals. One person acquisition of the resources rule out the other's gaining the resources. Sometimes such resource limits are real. Communication skills are important to identify resource needs and expend the resource base, particularly in case of apparent limited resources.

Conflict is not in itself a bad thing. There are many reasons why it is a necessary part of the growth and development of individuals, families, communities, and societies. Conflict can help build community, define and balance people's needs as individuals with their needs as participants in larger systems, and help them face and address in a clear and conscious way the many difficult choices that life brings to them. Working through a conflict can be an important bonding and growth producing experience. The strength of social systems lies partly in how they prevent serious conflicts and, when conflicts do arise, how they address them so as to maintain system integrity and preserve the wellbeing of their members. By facing major conflicts, addressing them, reorganizing as necessary to deal with them, and moving on, social organizations adapt to changes in their environment. Understanding the dynamics of conflict therefore provides conflict revolvers and related professionals with a basic tool for addressing the essential forces that shape the development of individuals and social entities.

Theories of Conflict Management

Conflict management is the practice of identifying and handling conflict in a sensible, fair, and efficient manner. Conflict management requires such skills as effective communicating, problem solving, and negotiating with a focus on interests.

Over the time different theories have been developed to understand conflict management. Equity theory and social exchange theory have been used to help describe conflict management in married and dating couples. These two theories were originally developed to explain the success of economical relationships between two or more businesses. Adams (1963) used his equity theory to describe the workplace. Walster (1978) was a social psychologist who wanted to know if Adams (1963) concepts could be adapted to explain personal relationships. His theory helped begin research on the success of intimate, personal relationships among couples.

In the following section these theories will be explained in detailed:

1. *Adams' Equity Theory*

Adams (1963) developed the Theory of Equity which dealt with employees in the workplace and their motivation to work. Adams described job equity as a need to balance one's inputs and out puts. People form their own perception about what is fair and unfair. Friends, partners, co-workers, and anyone in a social setting help influence this perception of fairness.

A person achieves equity when his or her outcomes divided by his or her inputs are equal to someone else's outcomes over inputs. Inputs include loyalty, hard work, personal sacrifice, and tolerance. Outputs include finances, recognition, thanks, and a sense of achievement. When a person's outputs and inputs are perceived as equitable, he or she is happier at the workplace and is motivated to work harder. When the input is perceived to be greater than the output, a person becomes less motivated to work and tension becomes apparent with other workers. When this occurs, people are motivated to reduce the tension. In a workplace, for there to be equity, a person's inputs and outputs must equal other Worker's inputs and outputs. A person can see if a relationship is equitable by placing the workers outcomes and inputs into a simple equation.

The equation is: Outcomes A /Inputs A = Outcomes / Inputs B.

When these two are equal, the relationship within the workplace is perceived as equitable and the people working are motivated to work harder. This theory relates to the current study because people strive for equity or a sense of fairness in romantic relationships. When individuals are not satisfied with their relationship, they are not as motivated to work to restore the satisfaction. Dissatisfaction tends to occur when people believe they are putting more into the relationship than what they are getting out of it. This can lead to conflict that needs to be managed before the relationship dissolves.

2. *Walster's Equity Theory*

Walster's (1978) took Adams' concept and applied it to personal relationships. He along with Berscheid (1978) applied equity theory to close relationships (e.g. husbands and wives) and came up with four points concerning equity and personal relationships.

i. In interpersonal relationships, people try to maximize their outputs.
ii. People can develop systems so that equity can be maximized. People who behave in an equitable manner are reward and those who behave in an inequitable manner are punished.
iii. When people are in an inequitable relationship, it is stressful to them.
iv. People will try to do what is necessary to reduce the stress.

Walster et al. (1978) stated that people in close relationships want to maintain equity among them. According to them people compare their inputs and outputs to their partner's inputs and outputs. Inputs are also described as contributions. They can be positive or negative. A positive input would be love or understanding. A negative input would be not helping around the house or being critical of one's partner. Outputs are the consequences of one's actions. These can also be positive or negative. A positive output would be appreciation or praise for something completed. A negative output would be having less money to spend on oneself because the person is spending money on his or her partner. Walster et al. also stated that equity was based on a person's perception of the relationship. People want to see if what they put into the relationship compares to what they get out of the relationship. People tend to seek out relationships that will benefit them. They want to be satisfied with their partner. When people view the

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relationship as fair, they reward their partners by expressing love. If the relationship is viewed as inequitable, they experience tension. This tension can lead to dissatisfaction with a partner or with the relationship in general. They suggested that it is important for couples to develop conflict management strategies that can help to reduce tension. When tension is reduced, satisfaction with a partner can start to increase.

Other theorists have added their own viewpoints on equity theory. Some state that equity theory implies that people are most content with a relationship when the ratio between what they get out of the relationship and what they put into it are similar for both partners (Brehm, Kassin, & Fein, 1999). The term Equity and equality do not have the same connotations. Isaacs (1998) helps distinguish between equality and equity. He defined equality as "Everyone receiving an equal share regardless of the contribution." Equity can be defined as "giving rewards in proportion to those received or expected to be received" Isaacs (1998). Equity implies balance. One person can contribute more to the relationship and the relationship can still be equitable as long as that person benefits more from the relationship than his or her partner.

Who decides when a relationship is equitable? According to Burgess and Huston (1979), "Equity is in the eye of the beholder." As long as the people in the relationship view it as equitable, they will be more satisfied with a relationship. The more satisfied a person is in a romantic relationship, the more likely he or she will stay in the relationship for a longer time period. This satisfaction will likely make the relationship more stable over time. It has been stated by Burgess and Huston that the more equitable a dating relationship is and the more equitable it remains over time, the more likely the couple will get married. Therefore, relationships should become more equitable as greater commitment is made between the couple.

According to Burgess and Huston (1979), when a relationship is perceived as inequitable, one or both partners may experience distress. When distress emerges, the person will try to restore equity. This need for balance (equity) may be real or psychological. To help reduce this distress the person can do one of three things. First, the person can work to make the relationship more equitable. Second, the person can convince himself or herself that the relationship is more equitable than he/she actually sees it. Third, the person can end the relationship.

Burgess and Huston (1979) also think that equity does not have to matter if couples truly love one another. To them, a truly satisfying relationship is one where both individuals stop counting the rewards. Also, both individuals care for the other person's pleasure as much as they do for their own pleasure. They also claim partners will love one other no matter how one of them behaves in the relationship. It has been noted that as two people become more intimate in a relationship, the bond goes beyond simple exchange. Partners become more concerned with what they can do for one another instead of what they can get from one another. Based of these ideas, studies attempts to see which conflict management strategies are perceived as more effective. Do people use strategies that are more equitable or do they tend to use strategies that are the most beneficial to them.

3.   *Social Exchange Theory*

Social behavior is an exchange of valuable rewards (Homans, 1961). Burgess and Huston (1979) defined social exchange as a form of interaction where two or more people provide each other with services or activities each finds rewarding. According to Rahim (1990) people bring expectations into interactions with others about their desired outcomes and how these expectations can be obtained. A person is attracted to another person if he or she expects the association with the other person to be rewarding. The people within the exchange develop interconnected relationships because each person has something the other person wants or needs. This interaction allows each person to profit from the association.

Heath (1976) stated that trust is required from the people making the social exchange. The individuals trust the relationship will be rewarding. When a person makes a response, he or she is rewarded or punished by the other person's response to the exchange. As long as the exchange remains rewarding, the relationship will continue to develop. Adequate rewards depend upon people's expectations about the relationship (Secord, Backman, & Slavitt, 1976).

Homans (1961) was one of the founding fathers of exchange theory. A central theme to his theory is a combination of psychological and economical needs. According to Homans (1961), a person strives to gain rewards from a relationship while avoiding costs and punishment in a relationship. He developed five concepts about social exchange. First, if past activities have been rewarded, the more similar the current

activity is to the past, the more likely a person will engage in the current activity. Second, the more a person's activity rewards another, the more the other person will engage in the activity. Third, the more a person is reinforced by the activity of another, the more he or she will engage in the activity. Fourth, the more often a person is rewarded from the activity of another, the less valuable the activity becomes over time. Fifth, the less justice that occurs within the relationship, the more anger is displayed.

Homans (1961) stated no exchange would continue to take place unless both parties were making a profit. A profit is equal to the rewards in the relationship minus the costs of the relationship. When the exchange becomes unprofitable, the person who deems it so may withdraw from the relationship. The relationship may become unprofitable because the costs outweigh the rewards. Punishment can be the same as costs. The punishment could be psychological. One or both of the people in the relationship is being deprived of the rewards of the relationship.

Heath (1976) stated that social exchange theory implies people are motivated to increase the benefits and to decrease the costs of maintaining relationships with others. Benefits include love, companionship, gratification, and consolation. Costs include the amount of work it takes to maintain the relationship, conflict, compromise, and the sacrifice of other opportunities. People try to select techniques that are least costly to them. According to Ekeh and Noller (1990), social exchange evolves as a slow process and it is about trusting other people. The exchange takes place only when both people believe the relationship will be beneficial. Each side can bring something to the relationship that the other person wants. If people expect an association to be rewarding, they become attracted to one another. The exchange should only take place without either person placing guilt or blame.

Burgess and Huston (1979) make several assumptions about why couples enter into relationships and they base them on social exchange theory. First, a reward in a relationship satisfies a person's needs or goals. The more rewarding a relationship is, the more couples report being satisfied with their partners. Second, people in relationships try to maximize the rewards and minimize the losses. If this can be accomplished, relationship satisfaction increases. Third, the other person with whom one engages with has something valuable to him or her. When there no longer is value

in the relationship the couple may terminate it. Fourth, for the relationship to be satisfying there must be a mutual exchange of rewarding behaviors.

When people are satisfied with a relationship, they are not overly concerned if the exchange in the relationship is equal. Ekeh (1974) stated the sense of equality in an exchange relationship is needed for the continuity of the social interaction. A break in this equality can lead to an emotional reaction which can result in conflict. How a couple deals with these emotional reactions that result in conflict can greatly affect the future of their relationship. Research has been and is still being conducted to test the success of these conflict management behaviors and how they affect a couple's relationship satisfaction.

Conflict in marital relationship

It is essential to maintain a functional relationship in a successful marriage where two people live together and it involves the ability of the two people to adapt to compatible role situation. In marriages where two people live together having two unique personalities each with certain set of beliefs, values and expectations have to accommodate each other. Disagreement appears to be quite common in romantic relationships. Canary et al. (1995) summarized several studies that examined the frequency with which conflict occurs in dating and marital relationships. These studies suggest that most romantic couples have somewhere between 1 and 3 disagreements per week, with 1 or 2 disagreements per month being particularly unpleasant. Couples who are dissatisfied often experience much more conflict; one study found that distressed couples reported having 5 to 4 conflicts over a 5-day period (Canary et al., 1995).

Research suggests that the most serious disagreements are related to the fair division of household labor, jealousy and possessiveness, sex, money and possessions, the social network (including in-laws), and children (Gottman, 1994). Of course, some of these issues are more relevant to married couples and cohabiting couples than to dating partners who live apart. The fair division of household labor can be a particularly contentious issue for women in heterosexual relationships, given that working women still do about two thirds of the household work. Issues related to jealousy and possessiveness includes conflict over spending time with a third party, not spending enough time together, and engaging in emotional or sexual infidelity (Gottman, 1994).

Conflict is an inevitable part of close relationships; however, it does not necessarily have a negative effect on relationships. In fact, Gottman's (1994) research suggests that satisfied couples are actually more likely to discuss issues of disagreement, whereas dissatisfied couples are more likely to minimize or avoid conflict. By confronting issues of disagreement, relational partners can manage their differences in ways that enhance closeness and relational stability (Braiker & Kelley, 1979; Canary, Cupach, & Messman, 1995; Lloyd & Cate, 1985 b).

Braiker and Kelley (1979) discussed four levels of conflict. *First*, couples argue about specific, real behaviors such as whether to roll up the toothpaste container or how to properly clean the kitchen. *Second*, couples argue about relational rules and norms, such as forgetting someone's birthday or working late without informing the partner. *Third*, couples argue about personality traits. Perhaps person A thinks that person B is too old-fashioned and set in her ways, and person B thinks person A is flighty and irresponsible. *Finally*, couples argue about the process of conflict itself, which can be a source of conflict. People might accuse their partner of pouting, nagging, throwing a temper tantrum, not listening to them, fighting unfairly, and so forth.

Marital conflicts can be about virtually anything. Couples complain about sources of conflict ranging from verbal and physical abusiveness to personal characteristics and behaviors. Perceived inequity in a couple's division of labor is associated with marital conflict and with a tendency for the male to withdraw in response to conflict. Conflict over power is also strongly related to marital dissatisfaction. Spouse reports of conflict over extramarital relationships, problematic lifestyle, being jealous and spending money foolishly etc. According to Frank, Greater problem severity increases the probability of divorce. Even though it is often not reported to be a problem by couples, violence among newlyweds is a predictor of divorce, as is psychological aggression, verbal aggression and nonverbal aggressive behaviors that are not directed at the partner's body (as cited in Kottak, 2004))

There are gender differences among men and women in dealing with conflict as, Hojjat (2000) and Mackey and O'Brien (1998), seem to contradict this traditional viewpoint. They have stated that women are more confrontational in relationships and men are more avoiding or compliant. Women seem to spend more time on conflict management. Maccoby (1966) stated women tend to be more verbally aggressive than

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men. Women like to talk about their conflicts because they believe it helps maintain a relationship while men believe discussing conflict could hinder a relationship (Beck, 1988). Hendrick and Hendrick (2000) agree that men like to avoid conflict.

Conflict Management Styles

Based on the conceptualizations of Follett (1940), Blake and Mouton (1964), and Thomas (1976), Rahim and Bonoma (1979) differentiated the styles of handling interpersonal conflict on two basic dimensions, *concern for self and for others*. Some of the research addresses conflict styles within organizations (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Putnam & Wilson, 1982; Rahim, 1986; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979) other research addresses conflict strategies used in relationships between friends, lovers, and roommates (Sillars, 1980; Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000).

Whether disagreement occurs within organizations or relationships, research suggests that conflict styles can be distinguished based on two dimensions: (1) *concern for others* and (2) *concern for self*. Concern for others involves wanting to get along with the partner and attempting to satisfy the partner's needs.

The degree to which a person is (or is not) concerned with others can be defined in terms of a cooperative versus uncooperative dimension. That is, those who are highly concerned with the partner's interests are likely to be cooperative, whereas those who are not concerned with the partner's interests are likely to be uncooperative. Concern for self, by contrast, involves wanting to satisfy one's own interests. This concern is defined in part by an assertive versus passive dimension. To get what they want, individuals often have to be direct and assertive. But when people do not care about personal concerns, they can be indirect or passive without incurring costs. Of course, some people want to take control and achieve personal goals but find it difficult to speak up and be assertive. In such cases their concern for self is not manifested in their behavior.

When people's concerns for self and others are considered together, five conflict styles emerge (Kilmann & Thomas, 1977; Rahim, 1986, 2001). These five styles are related to different patterns of attributions and outcomes (see table 2).

Table 2

Rahim Conflict Management Style Model (1983)

		CONCERN FOR SELF	
		High	Low
CONCERNS FOR OTHERS	High	Integrating	Obliging
			Compromising
	Low	Dominating	Avoiding

1.   Integrating or collaborating (high concern for self and others)

This style involves openness, exchange of information, and examination of differences to reach an effective solution acceptable to both parties. It is associated with problem solving, which may lead to creative solutions.

When people use the integrating or (collaborating) style, they have dual concerns for themselves and for others (Rahim, 1986; Sillars, 1980), they are solution oriented and problem solving. As these labels suggest, the collaborating style focuses on cooperative problem solving that leads to a win-win situation. Individuals using this style are assertive and try to find new and creative solutions to problems by focusing on both their own needs and the needs of their partners. The collaborating style opens lines of communication, increases information seeking and sharing, and helps keep the relationship intact for future interaction (Hocker & Wilmot, 1991).

Papa and Canary (1995) suggested that in a disagreement situation a couple needs to stay open-minded and to look for good point in each other's opinions and suggestions. Rather than focusing on adopting one person's discipline plan over the others, they should consider creative options that will satisfy both of them. Because collaboration leads to a win-win outcome, it makes sense that people using the collaborating style are seen as highly competent. Indeed, Papa and Canary (1995) also stated that people who use the collaborating style engage in an optimal response to conflict.

Thus, the collaborating style is both effective and appropriate in managing conflicts (Canary & Spitzberg, 1987, 1989). Gross and Guerrero (2000) argued that the collaborating style is competent because it gives each individual access to the partner's

perceptions of incompatible goals, which allows disputants to reach an understanding and to co-construct meaning. When such understanding occurs, problems can be defined, and a solution that integrates the goals and needs of both parties can be reached

Despite the effectiveness and appropriateness of collaborating strategies, research suggests that collaboration is used less often than competition or avoidance (Canary et al., 1995; Sillars, 1980). Why would this be the case? There are at least five possibilities. First, once one partner uses a negative tactic, the natural tendency is for the other person to follow suit. In fact, researchers have found that people find it very difficult to engage in cooperative tactics once their partners become competitive (Gottman, 1994). Second, it takes two people to collaborate. If one person is unwilling or unable to collaborate, the other person's attempts at collaboration will eventually fail, often leading to frustration (Hocker & Wilmot, 1991). Third, sometimes collaboration is not possible. For example, if a couple is arguing about whether to have children, there may not be a creative solution that satisfies both partners' needs. Fourth, collaboration is only possible when people have considerable time and energy to devote to problem solving (Hocker & Wilmot, 1998). Fifth, attribution biases may push people away from collaboration. Sillars (1980) found that, when people blamed their roommates for the conflict, they were unlikely to use the collaborating style. This was especially true when they perceived the cause of the conflict to be based on stable personality factors, such as laziness, ignorance, or rudeness. Because individuals tend to blame other people more than themselves, collaboration is less likely than other strategies. Yet the research overwhelmingly indicates that the collaborating style is the most effective way to manage conflict.

2. *Obliging or accommodating* (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. Like the collaborating style the accommodating style is cooperative, but unlike the collaborating style the accommodating style is indirect and passive (Blake & Mouton, 1964). Thus, the accommodating style is based on having a stronger concern for others than for oneself (Kilmann & Thomas, 1977). This style has also been labeled obliging (Rahim, 1986). Papa and Canary (1995) called the accommodating style a sufficing response to conflict. This type of response is adequate and comfortable; it does not cause further

disagreement or escalations in conflict. However, the accommodating style involves glossing over differences, playing down disagreements, and indifferent conflict, which makes effective conflict management difficult.

Hocker and Wilmot (1998) described several specific types of accommodating tactics, including putting aside one's own needs to please the partner, passively accepting the decisions the partner makes, making conciliatory statements, denying or failing to express one's needs, and explicitly promoting harmony and cooperation in a conflict episode.

Cloven and Roloff (1993) found that people are likely to avoid voicing their opinions and complaints when they feel powerless or fear that their partner will act aggressively toward them. Because accommodation occurs for different reasons, it can be perceived as both competent and incompetent. Accommodating behaviors may be cooperative and appropriate when one person feels strongly about an issue and the other person does not. It cases such as this, it is appropriate for the person who feels less strongly to give in to her or his partner's wishes. Accommodating is also an appropriate strategy when two people cannot agree but a decision needs to be made.

Most research suggests that, although the accommodating style is sometimes appreciated by one's partner, it is generally ineffective (Papa & Canary, 1995; Gross & Guerrero, 2000). People who use the accommodating style are unlikely to reach their personal goals, which could put a strain on their relationship. According to Hocker and Wilmot (1998), people who use the accommodating style sacrifice their own needs for the needs of the partner, which puts them in a powerless position. Along the same lines, Cloven and Roloff (1993) discussed the "chilling effect," which occurs when there is a power imbalance in a relationship. The person who is less powerful may withhold expressing criticism because he or she is worried about negative relational consequences. Specifically, Cloven and Roloff found that people who are dependent on their relationships and/or who worry that their partners might respond with aggression are likely to withhold complaints. When this happens, problems are likely to remain unsolved.

Moreover, when one partner uses accommodation, the decision-making process is one-sided, which reduces the possibility of developing a creative collaborative solution

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or compromise? Thus, on the surface it might seem that the accommodating style leads to a lose-win situation, with the accommodating person "losing" and the partner "winning." However, in the long run accommodation can lead to a lose-lose situation.

3.   Dominating or competing (high concern for self and low concern for others)

When people use the competing style, they are more concerned with their own interests than their partner's interests (Kilmann & Thomas, 1977). The competing style is assertive and uncooperative (Blake & Mouton, 1964). This style has also been called distributive (Sillars, 1980), dominating (Rahim, 1986), controlling (Putnam & Wilson, 1982), and contentious. As these labels suggest, people using the competing style try to control the interaction so that they have more power than their partner.

They attempt to achieve a win-lose situation, wherein they win and their partner loses. Indeed, Papa and Canary (1995) framed the competing style as the maximizing response to conflict, because competition maximizes the importance of one's own needs at the cost (or minimization) of the other person's needs. In their attempts to achieve dominance, individuals using the competing style might make confrontational remarks, blame, criticize, threaten, and make antagonistic jokes. Other competitive tactics include name-calling, trying to prove that one partner is right and the other is wrong, and denying responsibility for any wrongdoing (Hocker & Wilmot, 1998).

The competing style is usually associated with low levels of communication (Canary & Spitzberg, 1987, Gross & Guerrero, 2000; Sillars, 1980). People who use the competing style typically are ineffective in meeting their goals and inappropriate in their treatment of their partner. There are some exceptions to this, however. In relationships in which a power differential exists, such as those between managers and employees or between parents and children, certain competing strategies might be effective. For instance, if a manager needs her employees to work overtime to meet an important deadline, she might tell them that if they do not put in the work they risk losing their jobs. Similarly, if a father wants to prevent his son from engaging in dangerous behavior, he might force him to stay home while his friends attend a party. Thus, the competing style is sometimes useful when immediate compliance is necessary (Hocker & Wilmot, 1991). In most cases, however, the competing style leads to an escalation of conflict and only harms relationships. Despite the fact that the competing style usually

is ineffective and inappropriate, studies suggest that people use it more frequently than cooperative styles (Canary et al., 1995; Sillars, 1980). This might be because of negative spirals whereby aggression begets more aggression; that is, once one person uses a competitive tactic, the other person is likely to follow suit.

People might also be prone to using the competing style because of attribution biases. Attributions are the cognitive explanations that people have for their own behavior and the behavior of others. These attributions include deter mining why people engage in certain behaviors and who is to blame for negative behavior. In a study of college roommates, Sillars (1980) found that people's attributions were related to the types of conflict strategies they used. Individuals were especially likely to use the competing style when they saw their roommate as uncooperative and when they perceived the conflict to be mostly their roommate's fault. Given that people tend to overestimate the extent to which their partners are to blame for conflict (in comparison to themselves), it is not surprising that the competing style is used frequently. It is also important to note that, when two people blame each other for a given problem, both are likely to use competing strategies, and both are likely to cling inflexibly to the belief that they are right and their partner is wrong.

4.   *Avoiding* (low concern for self and others)

This style has been associated with withdrawal, or sidestepping situations. The avoiding style is based on having little or no concern for oneself or others (Kilmann & Thomas, 1977). As such, it is uncooperative and indirect (Blake & Mouton, 1964). This style has also been called nonconfrontation (Putnam & Wilson, 1982), inaction (Klein & Johnson, 1997; Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993), and withdrawal (Hocker & Wilmot, 1998; Gottman, 1994). Avoiding occurs when people physically or psychologically remove themselves from the conflict scene, refrain from arguing, and refuse to confront their partners in any meaningful way.

Papa and Canary (1995) called the avoiding style a minimizing response to conflict, because avoidance diminishes the importance of the conflict and the interests of both parties. People who use the avoiding style engage in behavior such as denying the conflict, being indirect and ambiguous, changing and/or avoiding topics, acting as if they don't care, making irrelevant remarks, and joking as a way to avoid dealing with

the conflict (Hocker & Wilmot, 1998). Some avoiding behaviors are even more uncooperative. For instance, people might purposefully ignore the partner, hold a grudge, or administer the silent treatment (Guerrero, 1994). It is more likely, however, that one of the spouses will want to discuss the issue and the other will try to avoid it.

Research has shown that women are more likely to confront conflict issues, and men are more likely to withdraw (Gottman, 1994). Indeed, researchers have discussed a conflict sequence called the demand withdraw interaction pattern (Gottman, 1994; Gottman & Levenson, 1988). This type of sequence occurs when one person wants to engage in conflict and the other wants to avoid it. This interaction pattern often escalates, with both partners experiencing considerable negative affect. Conflict engagers increase their demands for discussion as they become more desperate to confront and solve problems. At the same time, conflict avoiders become increasingly stubborn in their efforts to dodge discussion and to withdraw from an interaction that they perceive to be unpleasant and/or unnecessary. The demand-withdraw pattern of interaction is generally seen as a highly incompetent form of dyadic communication (Christensen & Shenk, 1991; Gottman & Levenson, 1988).

Several studies have shown that the avoiding style is inappropriate and ineffective (Canary & Spitzberg, 1987, 1989, 1990; Gross & Guerrero, 2000). Despite the general ineffectiveness of avoidance, Sillars (1980) found that roommates reported using the avoiding style most frequently in their conflicts. Similarly (Guerrero, 1994) found that 63% of college students reported withholding at least one complaint from their dating partners.

According to Hockey and Wilmot (1998), there are some situations in which avoidance is appropriate, for example, suppose two brothers always disagree on political issues, because one brother is staunchly conservative and the other is extremely liberal. The brothers might "agree to disagree" and decide to avoid any future discussion of politics since it is useless to argue about their opposing views. Thus, in some situations the avoiding style can be used to acknowledge that a relationship is more important than a particular issue. This type of situation, however, is the exception. In most cases, avoidance is an ineffective and inappropriate conflict strategy.

5. *Compromising* (intermediate in concern for self and others)

This style involves give-and-take whereby both parties give up something to make a mutually acceptable decision. The compromising style is somewhat focused on the self and somewhat focused on others (Kilmann & Thomas, 1977; Rahim, 1986). As such, the compromising style is characterized by moderate levels of both cooperation and assertiveness (Blake & Mouton, 1964). When people compromise they search for an intermediate position that satisfies some of their own needs and some of their partner's needs. However, compromise leaves some of both people's needs unmet, leading to a part-win/part-lose situation, or even a lose-lose situation. Indeed, people who compromise talk about splitting the difference and meeting the partner halfway. The idea here is that people need to give up some of their own desires and goals in order to reach a solution that will meet at least some of their expectations.

According to Hocker and Wilmot (1998), compromising behaviors include appealing to fairness, suggesting a trade-off, maximizing wins while minimizing losses, and offering a quick, short-term resolution to the conflict at hand. Compromising usually involves modifying preexisting solutions, whereas collaborating involves creating new solutions.

The available research suggests that the compromising style is generally perceived to be moderately appropriate and effective (Gross & Guerrero, 2000). Although this style is not as effective or appropriate as collaborating, there are situations in which compromising is the best choice available. For example, if people have radically different goals and no practical solution exists that will satisfy both partners' needs, compromise might be a good choice (Gross & Guerrero, 2000). Similarly, when people are unable to come up with a creative new solution to a problem, compromise is a good alternative. Suppose a couple is arguing over whom to ask to be godparents for their son. The husband wants his sister and brother to be godparents, while the wife prefers her favorite aunt and uncle, assuming that they want only two godparents for their son, the couple might decide to put names in a hat, with one slip of paper appointing the aunt and brother as godparents and the other slip designating the sister and uncle. Such a compromise is likely to be seen as fair by all parties.

As Hocker and Wilmot (1998) described, most people perceive compromising to be a reasonable, fair, and efficient strategy for managing conflict, even though it requires some level of sacrifice and hampers the development of creative alternatives to determine one's own conflict style. It has been suggested by Prein (1976) and Thomas (1976) that further insights into the five styles of handling interpersonal conflict may be obtained by organizing them according to the integrative and distributive dimensions of labor–management bargaining suggested by Walton and McKersie (1965). Figure-2 shows the five styles of handling interpersonal conflict and their reclassifications into the integrative and distributive dimensions.

Figure 2

The Dual Concern Model: Styles of Handling Interpersonal Conflict (Rahim, 2001)
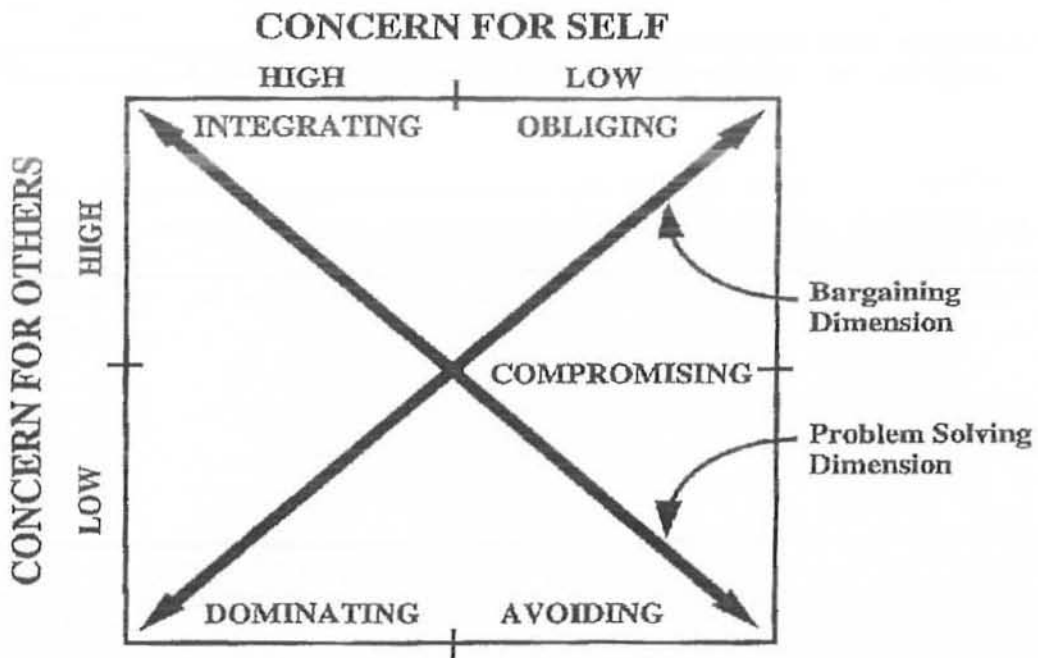
The integrative dimension "integrating style *minus* avoiding style" represents a party's concern (high–low) for self and others. The distributive dimension "Dominating style *minus* Obliging style" represents a party's concern (high–low) for self or others. These two dimensions represent the *problem solving* and *bargaining* styles for handling conflict, respectively. A problem solving style represents a party's pursuit of own *and* others' concerns, whereas the bargaining style represents a party's pursuit of own *or* others' concerns. A High–High use of the problem solving style indicates attempts to

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increase the satisfaction of concerns of both parties by finding unique solutions to the problems acceptable to them. A Low–Low use of this style indicates reduction of satisfaction of the concerns of both parties as a result of their failure to confront and solve their problems. A High–Low use of the bargaining style indicates attempts to obtain high satisfaction of concerns of self and providing low satisfaction of concerns of others. A Low–High use of this style indicates attempts to obtain the opposite. Compromising is the point of intersection of the two dimensions, that is, a middle ground position where a party has an intermediate level of concerns for own and others.

Himes (1980) refers to conflict as a struggle over claims to status, and power in which the aims of the conflicting parties are not only to gain the desired values, but also to neutralize, or eliminate their rivals. Borisoff and Victor (1989) propose five steps to conflict management. The first step is *assessment*. This happens when the couple looks at the problem situation and decides on how to deal with it. The second step is *acknowledgment*. Partners need to recognize the other person's perspective. The third step is *attitude*. People need to have a supportive attitude and willingness to manage conflict. The fourth step is *action*. The couple needs to know how to reduce conflict. The fifth and final step is *analysis*. Couples need to review the success of their decision and action in managing conflict. These steps to conflict management become useful because there seems to be common areas of conflict all couples experience in their relationships.

Rahim (1990) contributes two areas of conflict between couples. The first area mentioned is the *lack of or poor communication*. Sometimes people spend time together and expect their partners to know how they feel and what they are trying to say. They fail to explain their thoughts, feelings, and expectations effectively to their partner. When their partner misinterprets these thoughts, feelings, and expectations, conflict can occur. The second area of conflict is *differences in personality*. When the personalities of couples clash, conflict may follow. For example, one partner may be outgoing and very open about his or her feelings while the other partner enjoys staying at home and does not feel comfortable discussing his or her feelings.

Outcome of Conflict

As discussed earlier, conflict is a foreseeable part of human relationships. It is, in and of itself, not a negative phenomenon, but how we manage conflict is what shapes its outcomes. According to Ting-Toomey (1994) conflict is the perceived and/or actual incompatibility of values, expectations, processes, or outcomes between two or more parties over substantive and/or relational issues. The conflict process produces antagonistic sentiments between the parties over an issue, relationship, or the process itself.

Although using strategies such as collaboration and compromise can help people deal with conflict more effectively, often conflict escalates into a negative spiral with both partners becoming increasingly angry. Several types of negative spirals can occur (Gottman, 1994; Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Pike & Sillars, 1985; Sillars & Wilmot, 1994). One of these spirals, the demand-withdrawal sequence, in this sequence one partner wants to talk about the conflict issue, while the other partner continually withdraws. This leads to a vicious cycle, with one partner becoming more disturbed because he or she cannot talk about the issue, vent frustration, and ultimately solve the problem, and the other partner becoming more irritated because he or she is continually being nagged about an issue that is perceived to be unimportant or unpleasant. Other couples engage in double withdrawal sequences, with both partners practicing aggressive avoidance.

During conflict situations negative emotions may become so intense that people automatically resort to the fight-or-flight response. Gottman (1994) discussed the concept of flooding, which occurs when people become "surprised, overwhelmed, and disorganized" by their partner's "expressions of negative emotion". When this happens, people typically experience high levels of physiological arousal (including increased heart rate and higher blood pressure), have difficulty processing new information, rely on stereotyped thoughts and behaviors, and respond with aggression (fight) or withdrawal (flight). Thus, flooding contributes to negative spirals that involve both negative behavior and avoidance. Several behaviors are associated with flooding. According to Gottman's (1994), if one's partner becomes defensive, stubborn, angry, or whiny, the person is likely to experience emotional flooding. Other behaviors act as buffers against emotional flooding. Specifically, if the partner expresses joy, affection,

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or humor during the course of a conflict interaction, the persons is less likely to experience emotional flooding. Situational variables may also play a role.

According to Khalid and Kausar (2003), relationship between conflict resolution strategies and perceived marital adjustment shows that well adjusted couples did not differ significantly in the use of positive conflict resolution strategies i.e. there is a positive relationship between well adjustment and positive conflict resolution strategies. Members of many couples have never learned how to deal with conflict and anger in a helpful, even intimacy-enhancing way. They have learned instead to use a variety of less than helpful and even abusive strategies to attempt to resolve conflict. Individuals who tend to avoid conflict or do not know how to deal with it successfully can harm their relationships irreparably (Markman, 1991). In contrast, individuals who have learned and have been able to deal with conflict successfully have been found to be able to move through the feelings of anger to experience a sense of mastery in being able to compromise and negotiate an agreement that benefits both partners, allowing each of them to understand and take into account the other's point of view (Weeks & Hof, 1994). It would be unrealistic to expect that every single conflict can have a win-win solution (although this can happen far more frequently than we expect). Indeed, there are circumstances when it may be more effective to apply alternate conflict resolution strategies:

When to Collaborate (WIN-WIN) – One should collaborate when one need to gain the commitment and cooperation of others, when both viewpoints are too important to be compromised, when the goal is to assess one's own viewpoints and/or better understand the perspectives of others, and when you can more effectively solve a problem by merging insights from people with different perspectives.

When to Dominate (WIN-LOSE) - Domination may be effective when quick action is needed, when ones viewpoint is more important to others than the viewpoint of the other person is to them (in other words, the issue is a bigger deal to you then it is to them), when the relationship itself is not particularly important, and when you don't need to gain the commitment and cooperation of others.

When to Accommodate (LOSE-WIN) - Accommodation may be effective when quick action is needed, when the viewpoint of the other person is more important to you (in other words, the issue is a bigger deal to others than it is to you), and when the relationship is more important than the content of the conflict.

When to Avoid (LOSE-LOSE) - Avoidance may be effective when the conflict does not need immediate resolution, when the conflict is relatively insignificant, when the parties decide it is necessary to include another party (e.g., a mediator), when the potential damage of confrontation outweighs the benefits of resolution, when the conflict is entirely relationship focused instead of content focused (e.g., the cause of the conflict is that the parties just don't like each other), and when there is no chance of getting what you are seeking.

Principles of Constructive Conflict Management

Sillars and Weisberg (1987) had suggested that conflict is not necessarily detrimental to relationships. In fact, conflict can help couples solve problems and grow closer. What is important, however, is that couples handle conflict in a constructive manner, which can be difficult to do. In addition, constructive conflict management requires considerable social skill. Relational partners must be able to adapt their conflict behaviors to a given situation. In some cases it may be best to confront conflict, and in other cases it may be better to avoid conflict or accommodate. There are six interrelated principles of constructive conflict management, given by Sillars & Weisberg (1987).

Principle 1: Stick to the Topic

One of the most important principles of "fair fighting" is to stick to the current topic without bringing up past conflict issues or attacking the person. Researchers coined the term gunny sacking to describe the process whereby people store up old grievances and then bring them all up during conflict situations (Sillars and Weisberg, 1987). For example, roommates may be upset with each other on a daily basis for a number of minor infractions, such as leaving the air conditioner on with the windows open, eating each other's food without asking, or forgetting to give each other phone messages. Rather than discussing each of these issues when they surface, the roommates might place them in their "gunnysacks." Eventually, their gunnysacks might become so

heavy that they overflow-usually during a conflict about another issue. So, although roommates start arguing about the phone bill, they might soon get off track by moving old issues out of their gunnysacks.

Related to the idea of gunnysacking is the idea of kitchen-sinking (Bach & Wyden, 1970). When people "throw everything but the kitchens sink" into their arguments, the conflict usually escalates and the original issue remains unsolved.Kitchen-sinking often occurs when people experience emotional flooding or when they think they are losing an argument. When people get emotional during conflict situations, they sometimes think about all the negative, hurtful things that have happened in their relationships, and so they lash out at their partner. Similarly, when people think that they are losing an argument, they will sometimes shift to an issue that they know they can "win." Sometimes gunnysacking and kitchen-sinking go hand in hand.

Principle 2: Don't Bring Other People into the Conflict

It is also important to refrain from bringing other people into arguments unless it is absolutely necessary. Sometimes the conflict issue revolves around other people, such as when friends or in-laws are interfering with a married couple's relationship or when children are involved. In these cases other people are integral to the conflict. However, people often get brought into a conflict even when they are not part of the problem. If you are angry or bothered by something, talk about the way you feel rather than bringing other people's feelings and opinions into the argument. Individuals bring third parties into their conflicts in at least three other ways. First, sometimes people badmouth the partner's friends or family by making comments such as "I guess your inconsistent behavior shouldn't surprise me-your whole family acts that way" Statements like this make people particularly defensive. Not only do people have to defend themselves, but now they also have to defend their friends and/or family.

Second, individuals sometimes claim that other people would act in more positive ways than their partners. For instance, a boy might compare his girl friend to his ex-girlfriend by saying, "Sana would never act this way," or Amna might tell her best friend that she is acting less mature than her 3-year-old daughter. Not only do these types of tactics bring other people into the argument, but they tend to push buttons and

get the conflict off track. Third, some people discuss their conflict with biased third parties, such as a best friend or family member. These friends and family members usually will be supportive of the person, perhaps assuring them that the problem is the partner's fault and not theirs. The drawback; however is that talking to others about ones' relationship problems can cause irreversible damage to the social network.

Principle 3: Don't Say Things You Don't Mean

In the heat of conflict, people often say and do things they do not really mean, especially when the situation is emotionally charged. People sometimes call each other names and make statements such as "I hate you" or "I wish I never met you." At the moment such statements may seem true because people are filled with so much negative emotion. However, when they calm down, they realize that they actually care deeply for each other. Other times people make these kinds of statements to get revenge. They know that they don't really hate the partner, but by saying "I hate you," they hope to hurt the partner the way they themselves feel hurt, if you threaten to leave your partner when you do not really intend to, you could actually be planting the seed for relationship termination. Some research suggests that people go through a cognitive process of psychological separation before terminating close, interdependent relationships. Empty relational threats are more likely to backfire than to solve problems.

One way to prevent saying things you do not mean is to avoid engaging in conflict when your emotions are irritated. Instead, wait until both you and your partner are calm before discussing issues of disagreement.

Principle 4: Practice Active Listening

Regardless of the type of interaction, active listening can be a challenge, especially during conflict situations, when people can become defensive. Think about the last heated argument you had with someone. How carefully did you listen to what the other person had to say? If you felt attacked and/or became defensive, chances are that you did not really listen to the other person very carefully.

Instead, you were probably thinking about what you would say next. Your mind may have been racing as you thought about ways to defend yourself, and your emotions may have been so confused that you became preoccupied with your own thoughts and feelings and "tuned the other person out." Ironically, if your partner was not practice

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active listening, all the counter arguments you spent so much time thinking about would never really be heard.

Active listening requires effort and concentration. The experts on listening and negotiation give the following advice for improving your skill (Gottman, 1994).

1. Let your partner speak.
2. Put yourself in your partner's place.
3. Don't jump to conclusions.
4. Ask questions.
5. Paraphrase what your partner says.

Principle 5: Avoid the "Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse"

Gottman's extensive research on the causes of divorce suggests that four factors, which he termed the "four horsemen of the apocalypse" (Gottman, 1994). These are critical in predicting whether couples will stay together. These four factors are complaints or criticisms, contempt or disgust, defensiveness, and stonewalling. Stonewalling occurs when a person withdraws from interaction and refuses to talk to the partner. Gottman (1994) proposed that the four horsemen of the apocalypse form a sequence, with complaining and criticizing leading to contempt, "which leads to defensiveness, which leads to listener withdrawal from interaction"

- *Complaints and Criticisms*

The cascade starts when one person complains or criticizes. Gottman (1994) noted that some complaints can actually be healthy. If relational partners never complained, they would be unable to improve their relationships by changing problematic behavior. However, if complaints continue over long periods or if they turn into criticisms, Gottman's research suggests that the partner will start to feel contempt. The least threatening types of complaints are specific and focus on behaviors. Once complaints start to focus on aspects of a person's character, they turn into criticisms and are likely to lead to contempt.

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- *Contempt and Disgust*

According to Gottman, complaints about a partner's personal characteristics or other types of criticism lead to contempt and disgust. These feelings are usually communicated to the partner. As Gottman (1994) put it, "Disgust typically is communicated by sounding fed up, sickened, and repulsed" For example, you might say, "I've had enough" or "I'm not going to take it anymore." When people who have been criticized feel disgust, they may be particularly prone to making both real and empty relational threats, such as threatening to leave the partner.

- *Defensiveness*

People become defensive when they feel a need to defend them and ward off personal attacks. Gottman listed several communicative behaviors that are related to defensiveness, including denying responsibility for a problem, issuing countercomplaints, whining, making accusations, and reading minds. According to Gottman (1994), when a person begins mind-reading, this is a particularly good clue that he or she is becoming defensive. Mind-reading occurs when people assume that they know their partner's feelings, motives, and behaviors. Gottman (1994) gave the following examples to illustrate mind-reading: "You don't care about how we live," "You get tense in situations like this one," and "You have to spend whatever we save". Gottman also noted that mind-reading statements often include words like "always" or "never." As such, mind-reading violates two principles of fair fighting: (1) It often is based on jumping to conclusions, and (2) it usually is based on overgeneralizations.

- *Stonewalling*

Stonewalling falls at the end of Gottman's cascade of negative conflict behavior. After people have been attacked, experienced contempt, and tried (often unsuccessfully) to defend themselves, they often stonewall, or withdraw from the interaction. At this point interaction seems useless. Partners no longer are trying to work problems out, as disagreements escalate into negative conflict interactions, and both partners are hurt and defensive. As mentioned previously, however, men tend to stonewall more frequently than women (Gottman, 1994). This often leads to the demand-withdrawal cycle discussed earlier, with wives insisting on talking about problems and husbands refusing to engage in such a dialogue. If stonewalling persists, Gottman's research suggests, relationships become stagnant and couples are likely to break up.

Principle 6: Respond with Positive, Validating Messages

Finally, it is important for partners to either prevent or close down the escalation of conflict by limiting the number of negative statements they make. In fact, according to Gottman's (1994) research, partners in happy relationships counterbalance every negative statement they make with around five positive statements. He suggested that satisfied partners are better able to regulate their interaction. Successful regulation requires the effort of both partners each must have the ability to respond to complaints and criticisms with more positive than negative messages. Dissatisfied partners, by contrast, find it difficult to regulate conflict interaction. One or both partners become emotionally flooded, and they respond to most statements negatively. Indeed, Alberts and Driscoll (1992) found that individuals in dissatisfying relationships were twice as likely as individuals in satisfying relationships to respond to complaints by denying the validity of the complaint or by escalating the hostility level of the interaction.

Attachment Styles and Conflict Management

Growing evidence suggested that attachment does influence conflict management styles i.e. Studies report a connection between attachment styles and problem solving in relations to married couples (Cowan & Cowan, 2005).

Attachment style is most likely to be activated in stressful situations such as conflictual interaction in romantic relationships, which emphasize the importance of maintaining a cooperative partnership and the need for psychological support from partners (Kobak & Duemmler, 1994). Partners with a secure attachment are more likely to use integrating and compromising strategies (Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000; Pistole, 1989), and are less likely to engage in withdrawal and verbal aggression (Creasey, Kershaw, & Boston, 1999). Feeney and Collin (2001) found that when asked to engage in a problem solving task, anxiously-ambivalently attached individuals were more likely to oblige their spouse. On the other hand according to the findings of Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, (2000) partners with an Anxious/Ambivalent (preoccupied) attachment characteristic use dominate conflict resolution style. Both husband and wives having high anxiety over the relationship said that their conflicts were distressing, coercive, and lacking in mutual negotiation. There were higher levels of conflict, lack of compromise and dissatisfaction with the relationship when compared to secure couples.

Anxiety about relationships was found to be an important predictor of behavior during a conflict.

Among the studies using this attachment conceptualization, Corcoran and Mallinckrodt (2000) chose a conflict resolution measure that parallels the two-dimensional adult attachment measure proposed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991), to make sure the conceptual stability, which is presented in the following table;

Table 3

Correspondence of Adult Attachment Styles with Conflict Styles (Corcoran and Mallinckrodt, 2000)

		CONCERN FOR SELF (Working Model Of Self)	
		High (Positive)	**Low (Negative)**
Concern For Others (Working Model Of Others)	**High (Positive)**	Integrating (Secure)	Obliging (Preoccupied)
		Compromising	
	Low (Negative)	Dominating (Dismissing)	Avoiding (Fearful)

Conflict style constructs are shown in the top row of each entry; adult attachment theory constructs are shown in parentheses on the bottom row.

According to four categories model of Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) adult attachment based on combinations of positive and negative working models of self and others. Each non secure attachment style is associated with distinct profile of interpersonal problems. In table-3 the adult attachment styles are mapped along the conflict management styles and recent studies supports the connection between the adult attachment and conflict management styles in married couples. For example individuals with a dismissing style show high levels of self confidence and hostility, and low level of emotional expressiveness, warmth and intimacy in personal relationships. On the other hand individuals with a preoccupied style show high levels of self disclosure, emotional expressiveness, reliance on other, use of others as a secure base and care giving. The fearful style involves low self confidence, assertiveness self disclosure,

intimacy, reliance on others and use of others as a secure base (Bartholomew and Horowitz, 1991).

A number of studies have explored how attachment orientation influences conflict negotiation strategies. According to Kobak and Hazan (1991) secure individuals manifest their emotions during conflict more constructively than non-Secure individuals. Additionally, securely attached teenagers remain more engaged and show less avoidance during the debate as well as display fewer spouts of dysfunctional anger compared to their non-secure counterparts (Kobak, Cole, Ferenz-Gillies, Fleming, & Gamble, 1993). In particular, it has been observed that if two secure individuals are involved in an intimate relationship, they seem to be much more comfortable than their insecure counterparts to approach each other and use constructive rather than ineffective or psychologically abusive methods of conflict resolution when they encounter disagreement within their intimate relationships (Kobak & Sceery, 1988).

Attachment style, an internal model of relationships, affects the expectations that an individual has of intimate relationships and, therefore, would influence the interactive behaviors that individual brings into the relationship substantial research analyzes the effects of interactive factors on relationship satisfaction. More specifically, a couple's conflict style correlates with the satisfaction of romantic partnerships (Gottman, 1994). Simpson, Rholes, and Phillips (1996) postulated that, "disagreements between partners test their skills at maintaining cooperative relationships, their ability to make joint plans and to work toward mutual, long-term goals". They suggested that conflict between partners promotes development of a successful relationship. When partners engage in conflict resolution, they have a chance to evaluate their relationship, re-examine their feelings and beliefs about the partner and the relationship. They have an opportunity to see another perspective on the issue, and to learn some degree of flexibility and accommodation (Simpson et al., 1996).

According to Kobak and Duemmler (1994) strong conflict within intimate relationships increases individuals' needs for support from intimate partners or attachment figures, activating their internal working models of attachment. If internal working models of attachment are activated during conflict, then it seems that they would be relevant to individuals' responses to conflict (Pistole & Arricale, 2003). It has

been suggested that attachment behaviors should be observed most clearly during stressful or conflictual situations (Kobak & Duemmler, 1994).

Pakistani Perspective

Another important factor which can influence attachment and conflict management is broadening cultural surrounding in which the couples live. Individualist cultures, such as those of the United States, United Kingdom and Australia etc emphasize personal achievement and individuals goals. On the other hand Collectivist cultures, such as those of South Asia and China emphasize family and work group goals. Research has shown that Collectivism and individualism deeply pervade cultures and People simply take their culture's stance for granted. In the U.S., everything from 'self-serve' buffet tables to corporate structure and even the cowboy movies reflects the deeply ingrained individualism.

Both collectivist and individualist cultures have their failings. People in individualist cultures are susceptible to loneliness, and people in collectivist cultures can have a strong fear of rejection. Previous studies found that members of the collectivistic culture were found to use a higher level of compromising and integrating styles to handle conflict than members of the individualistic culture (Ting-Toomey et al. 1991). In Ting-Toomey et al. (1991) research contrary to their predictions, members in collectivistic cultures opted for integrating styles more than members in individualistic cultures. Overall, the evidence suggests that members of individualistic cultures tend to prefer direct (dominating) conflict communication styles. Conversely, members of collectivistic cultures tend to prefer obliging, compromising, integrating, and conflict-avoidant styles. The latter four styles tend to emphasize the value for passive compliance to a certain degree and for maintaining relational harmony in conflict interactions (Ting-Toomey, 1991).

Ross (1993) stresses that viewing conflict as cultural behavior helps explain why disputes over seemingly similar issues can be handled so dissimilarly in different cultures. There have been numerous cross-cultural comparisons studies of different conflict management strategies, most studies utilizing a "national culture" approach.

Past literature (e.g., Canary & Spitzberg, 1987; Putnam & Wilson, 1982; Rahim, 1983) in interpersonal and organizational conflict tends to conceptualize the avoidance style as reflective of both low concern for self and other although use of avoiding style in collectivistic cultures seems to be associated positively with the other-face concern dimension (Kim & Leung, 2001; Ting-Toomey, 1991). Markus & Kitayama, (1991), examined possible links between individualistic and collectivistic cultural values and preferred conflict styles and found that are a numbers of similarities and difference among both these cultures.

In Pakistani collectivistic culture limited numbers of researches have explored attachment styles and conflict management among married couples. Gilani (2001) studied conflict management styles of adolescents in mother-daughter relationship belonging to individualistic and collectivistic cultures the findings indicated that both groups of Pakistani and British mother-daughter use avoiding style of conflict management. Although the British pair of mother-daughter used dominating style more than Pakistani group. Pakistani group did not have a conflicting relationship and they were more connected with their mothers. On the other hand British pair had more conflicting situations.

According to Khalid and Kausar (2003), there is a strong correlation between marital adjustment and conflict resolution strategies. There is a positive relationship between well adjustment and positive conflict resolution. Couples who are not rigid are willing to adopt flexible approaches in their interactions are better adjusted. They also stated that women values intimate relationships more then men and wives feels unappreciated by their spouse then do husbands.

A research conducted by Adil and Kamal (2005) exploring the Relationships between attachment styles, love styles, and narcissism among university students. The results indicated a positive relationship between preoccupied attachment style and Eros love style. A significant positive correlation was found between dismissing attachment style and narcissism. Age differences were found to be significant only in terms of attachment styles as younger group was more likely to demonstrate secure and preoccupied attachment styles than the elder group.

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Another research on conflict management styles within corporate managers conducted by Haque (2004). Suggested that the most frequently used style by both public and private sector managers is integrating or compromising, the second most preferred style is obliging. They found differences in the use of styles between public and private sector employees.

The findings reported in the cross-cultural conflict literature point to a picture that collectivists value harmonious interpersonal relationships with others, preferring indirect styles of dealing with conflict, and showing concern for face saving. While research on cross-cultural styles of handling interpersonal conflict has gained increased attention recently, two major limitations exist. First, an inherent contradiction has existed in much of the work that measures cross cultural conflict management. Conflict style, face management, etc. are assessed as individual variables not cultural norms. Then, researchers aggregate individual level preferences to form cultural measures. The self-construal is measured on the individual level. Hence, it is more logical to link self construal (as a way people in different cultures conceive of the self), rather than *cultural level* dimensions (e.g., nationality), to conflict styles of individuals.

The second limitation of the past research on cross-cultural conflict styles stems from confusions regarding conceptualizations of conflict styles (Kim & Leung, 2001). In typical studies of cross-cultural conflict styles, researchers rely heavily on either three or five-styles of conflict inventories, which were based on two dimensions (variously called "concern for production and concern for people" or "concern for self and concern for others") (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Thomas, 1976).

Rationale of the Study

The present study aims at looking into the Attachment Styles and Conflict Management of Married Couples. The literature on attachment styles and conflict management maintains that individuals classified as secure are more likely to be active problem solvers, integrative, and compromising. Similarly individuals classified as insecure are more likely to engage in the opposite behavior, and those who hold positive perceptions about self and others are more likely to adopt conflict resolution behaviors that satisfy both parties' concerns (Shi, 2003).

For the purposes of the present study adult intimate relationships are defined as the relationships between two individuals, who are married and are living together. Previous Researches confirm that attachment style is associated to relationship satisfaction and conflict resolution behaviors (e.g., Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000; Feeney & Collin, 2001). Partners having secure attachment styles disclose their feelings and positions, compromise and negotiate by seeking areas of agreement, integrate the other's opinions, and express their care and empathy during conflict resolution (Christensen & Pasch, 1993). These behaviors promote mutual understanding, enable partners to develop and deepen their relationships, help to maintain positive feelings, encourage them to select a positive manner to convey messages, and encourage the other to remain engaged during conflict management (Fowers, 1998).

Studies that have been conducted for examining patterns of interaction of couples with different attachment styles have concluded that attachment styles of each partner involved in the intimate relationship affects the way in which couples deal with conflict in their intimate relationships (Levy & Davis, 1988; Pistole, 1989).

This phenomenon has not been explored in depth in Pakistani culture. The present research has been designed to fill this gap of information to a certain extent and pave the way for future researchers to explore it in depth by keeping various aspects of married life in mind. We are interested in looking into the relationship of attachment styles with the patterns of conflict management styles among married couples. One of the important aims of this study is to find out the outcome of the conflict, that is, whether the conflict

leaves the couples to feel distant after the conflict is over or makes them feel intimate and closer than before.

This study would stimulate further research in this area and would provide a ground for other researcher interested in studying Attachment Styles and Conflict Management in different groups of people. This is a small effort to understand different dimensions of human relationships living in unique cultural surrounding.

METHOD

METHOD

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were:

1. To study adult attachment styles among married couples.
2. To study patterns of conflict management among married couples.
3. To find out gender differences in conflict management and attachment styles of married couples.
4. To find out whether demographic variables of age, length of relation, family income, and education have any relationship with the attachment styles and conflict management of marital partners.

Hypotheses of the Study

On the basis of the literature review, the following hypothesis have been formulated to achieve the above cited objectives:

1. Partners with secure attachment style will use compromising conflict management style more then Partners with insecure attachment styles.
2. Partners with preoccupied attachment style will use dominating styles of conflict management more than Partners with secure attachment style.
3. Partners with fearful attachment style will use avoiding style of conflict management more than Partners with secure attachment style.
4. Male Partners will score high on dismissing attachment style as compare to female partner.
5. Female Partners will scores high on preoccupied attachment style as compare to male Partners.

Operational Definitions of Variables

Attachment styles

In the present research attachment styles were identified with reference to two dimensions measured by Experience in Close Relationship Questionnaire -Revised (ECR-R). Partners were assign categories on the basis of their scores on ECR-R e.g., Secure (low on Anxiety and Avoidance); Fearful (high on Anxiety and Avoidance); Dismissing (low on Anxiety and high on Avoidance); and Preoccupied (high on Anxiety and low on Avoidance). Attachment styles refer to the degree of security experienced in interpersonal relations (Bowlby 1977).

Higher scores on Attachment Scale would indicate that the person has an insecure attachment style. On the other hand low score on this scale is an indication of a secure attachment style.

Conflict Management

In the present research, the respondents rated them selves and their partners on how they handle disagreements on The Disagreement Scale. The scale has three factors namely; Dominance, Avoidance and Compromise. High score on each category would mean the preference of that conflict management style by themselves and their partners.

Out Come of the Conflict

It is related to participant's feelings after the conflict was over i.e. whether they feel closer towards each other (i.e., Increased intimacy) or feel distant from each other (i.e. Escalation of conflict) after the conflict is over. Higher scores on intimacy scale would indicate that couple feels closer to each other; higher score on Escalation of Conflict would mean that there is an increase in conflict or they feel distant from each other after the conflict is over.

RESEARCH DESIGN

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research was conducted in three phases; translation and adaptation of questionnaire, pilot study and main study.

PHASE-I

Translation and Adaptation of Questionnaires

Cross cultural validity of "The Disagreement Scale" and the "The Disagreement Scale: Outcome" were already established in a research conducted by Gilani (1994, 2001) this research was conducted in Pakistani and British sample.

The scales were translated by following the guideline recommended by Brislin (1973). All three scales are translated into Urdu by three Judges who had a command over both Urdu and English languages. The best translation was chosen by a committee of three experts and the researcher herself. Committee analyzed the items with reference to the context, phrasing, grammar and wording. After the selection of best translated items they were enlisted and once again were given to another group of judges (consisting, 3 experts of bilinguals) who were asked to back translate it in to English. The accuracy of the translation was again checked by the committee, discrepancies were removed and a final translated version was chosen for the research.

PHASE-II

Pilot Study

In the second phase of the research a Pilot study was conducted, which was designed to test the psychometric properties of three scales and to test whether the scales were reliable measures of the above mentioned variables. Also, it was intend to determine the cultural relevance and comprehensibility of the items used in the scales by the respondents. Thirty couples were chosen who were approached individually and were briefed about the research. Alpha reliabilities of scales used in pilot study are 0.83

for The Disagreement Scale, 0.78 for "The Disagreement Scale: Out come" and 0.90 for ECR-R questionnaire. All these results indicated a high value of alpha coefficient.

No discrepancies were found after the analysis and instruments were found to be suitable to use for the main study. After the successful completion of pilot study the main study was conducted in the third phase of the research.

PHASE-III

Main Study

Sample

The sample was taken from different cities of Pakistan (i.e., Islamabad, Rawalpindi and Faisalabad) consisting of 260 married individuals (i.e. 130 husbands and their wives) whose years of marriage was 5-20 years and who had at least one child. Childless couples were not included. The sample was drawn on the basis of convenience purposive sampling technique. Ninety individuals were selected from Faisalabad, 74 from the Rawalpindi city and the remaining 96 were selected from Islamabad city. The minimum educational requirement for the participants was till 8th grade. In our sample educational background of husbands was;

Below to Matric = 23 (29.9 %), Intermediate = 29 (52.7 %), Graduation = 28 (59.6 %), Post Graduate = 50 (61.7 %).

On the other hand educational background of Wives was;

Matric = 54 (70.1 %), Intermediate = 26 (47.3 %), Graduation = 19 (40.4 %), Post Graduate = 31(38.3 %). The mean age of the whole sample was 36.34 years, in which mean age of wives was 33.57 years and mean age of husbands was 39.11 years.

Instruments

A set of three questionnaires and one demographic data sheet was administered to respondents.

i.   *When We Disagree Scale* (Camara & Resnik, 1989)

It measures a person's attitude and perception about his or her spouse when they disagree on some issue. Scales addressed husband and wife conflict management styles i.e. how they react to each other when they have to deal with a disagreement. This scale has two versions; one for husbands and the other for the wives. It is a four point scale that includes 20 items. The response categories ranged from very well = 4 to Not at all = 1. The maximum score by an individual on this scale is 80 and the minimum score is 20. It has three subscales:

a)   *Avoidance*: It consists of 6 items with maximum score of 24 and minimum score of 6. The alpha reliability of Avoidance Sub-Scale is 0.85. (Item number 1, 4, 7, 9, 10 and 15 measures avoidance).

b)   *Dominance*: It consists of 6 items with maximum score of 24 and minimum score of 6. The alpha reliability of Avoidance Sub-Scale is 0.91. (Item number 2, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19 and 20 measures dominance).

c)   *Compromise*: It consists of 8 items with maximum score of 32 and minimum score of 8. The alpha reliability of Compromise Sub-Scale is 0.82. (Compromise subscale measures by item number 3, 5, 6, 8, 11 and 13).

When We Disagree: Outcome Scale (Camara & Resnik, 1989)

It is a five point scale that includes 24 items. The response categories were very often = 5, fairly often = 4, once in a while = 3, almost never = 2 and never = 1. The maximum score on this scale is 120 and the minimum score is 24. This scale is a five point Likert type scale, it includes two subscales:

a)   *Escalation of conflict*: It consists of 13 items with maximum score of 65 and minimum score of 13. The alpha reliability of Escalation Sub-Scale is 0.94. In this scale item number 2, 3, 6, 8, 11, 12, 13, 16, 17, 19, 20, 23 and 24 measures escalation of conflict.

b)   *Increased intimacy*: It consists of 11 items with maximum score of 55 and minimum score of 11. The alpha reliability of increased intimacy Sub-Scale is 0.93. In this scale item number 1, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 14, 15, 18, 21 and 22 measures increased intimacy.

This scale is administered to test whether the partners experience more intimacy and relational harmony or escalation of conflict after the disagreement is over. Statements of this scale pertained to the end results or the after effects of conflict in terms of partners' feelings towards each other. That is, do they understand each other better and their intimacy increases afterwards or does the conflict escalate after the dispute is over and they feel distant afterwards.

ii.   *The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R)* **Questionnaire** (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000).

The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) questionnaire is a revised version of Brennan, Clark, and Shaver's (1998), Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR) questionnaire. It is a 36-item Likert type self-report measure of adult attachment. More specifically, it measures adult attachment within the context of romantic relationships. The questionnaire has two subscales each represented by 18 items. These subscales are:

a)   *Anxiety scale*: It consists of 18 items with maximum score of 126 and minimum score of 18.

b)   *Avoidance scale:* It consists of 18 items with maximum score of 126 and minimum score of 18.

The Anxiety scale measures one's self-reported degree of anxiety in romantic adult relationships (high scores represent high anxiety and vice versa); whereas Avoidance assesses the extent of avoidance of intimacy in such relationships (high scores represent high avoidance). The commonly used estimate of internal consistency (reliability) tends to be .90 or higher for the two ECR-R scales (i.e., Avoidance and Anxiety). Each item is rated on a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neutral, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree and 7 = strongly agree. These items 4, 5, 9, 11, 12, 17, 18, 19, 24, 26, 27, 29, 33, and 36 are "reverse items" (i.e. 7 = strongly disagree to 1 = strongly agree). The maximum score on this scale is 252 and the minimum score is 36. Similarly the maximum score for each sub-scale is 126 and minimum is 18.

The two dimensional model of attachment used in this measure categorize participants in to four styles of attachment:

1. Secure attachment style
2. Fearful attachment style
3. Preoccupied attachment style
4. Dismissing attachment style

The detailed description of the above mentioned styles is given in the introductory chapter earlier (Page no.8). The last three attachment styles (i.e. fearful, preoccupied and dismissing attachment styles) are considered insecure attachment styles.

Demographic Information Sheet

The demographic information sought from the couples including information about age, education, profession, number of children, year of marriage, area residence and monthly income (see Appendix A).

Procedure

Couples were approached individually in their respective homes. Only those couples were selected who met the criteria of selection mentioned earlier. The sample was approached individually. They were briefly told about nature of the study. They were also assured that information obtained from them will only be used for research purposes and will be kept confidential. The booklet comprising of written instructions, When We Disagree Scale, When We Disagree: Outcome Scale and The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) Questionnaire were given to them. The general instructions were printed on the title page of the questionnaire. All of them were requested to answer as honestly and accurately as they should not to leave any question unanswered. They were asked to answer all the questions again if they had left some questions unanswered. Afterwards they were thanked for their participation.

RESULTS

RESULTS

The present study aimed at exploring the attachment styles and conflict management of married couples. The sample consisted of 130 couples whose years of marriage ranged from 5 to 20 years and who had at least one child. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data. One way ANOVA, Chi Square and t-statistics were applied to evaluate the objectives of the study.

Table 4

Demographic details of the data (N=260)

Variables	Frequencies
Age	
below-31	88
32-41	109
42-above	63
Gender	
Husband	130
Wife	130
Education	
Matric	77
Intermediate	55
Graduate	47
Post Graduate	81
Years of Marriage	
5-10	138
10-15	48
15-20	74

Continued...

Variables	Frequencies
Number of children	
1	44
2	58
3	72
4	58
5	16
6	12
Residence	
Own house	180
Rental house	80
Family's Monthly income	
below -10000	72
11000-20000	68
21000-30000	66
31000-above	54

Figure 3

Graphic representation of the distribution of sample on the bases of Age

(42-above), 63

(Below-31), 88

(32-41), 109

☑ (Below-31) ■ (32-41) ☐ (42-above)
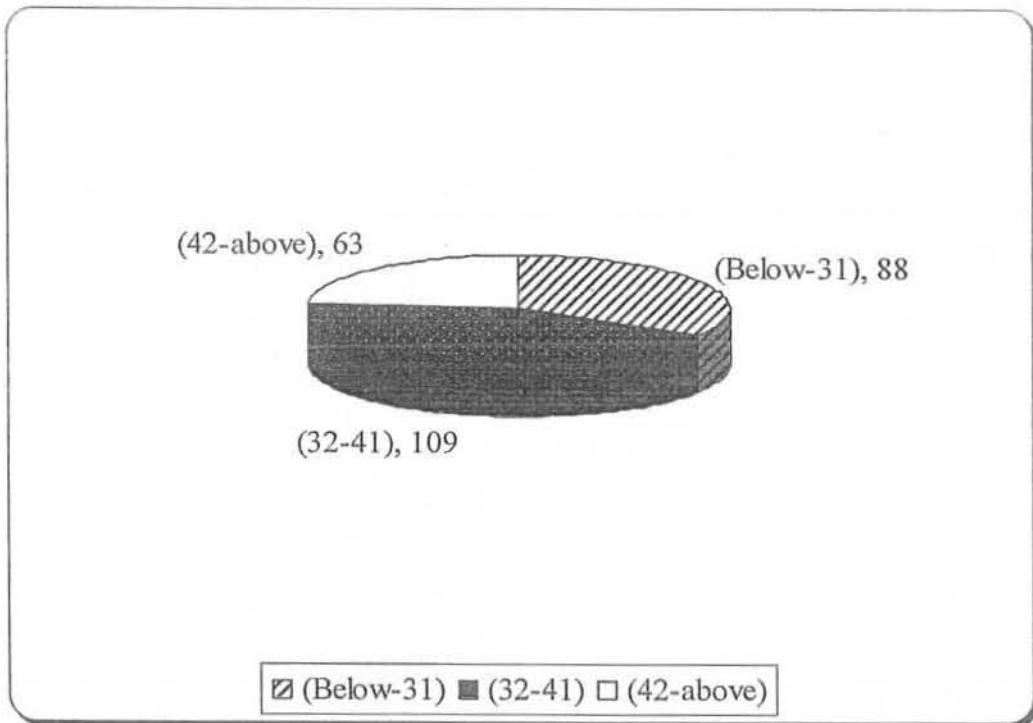
Figure 4

Graphic representation of the distribution of sample on the bases of Education

Post Graduate, 81

Matric, 77

Graduate, 47

Intermediate, 55

▦ Matric ⊟ Intermediate ◲ Graduate ▤ Post Graduate
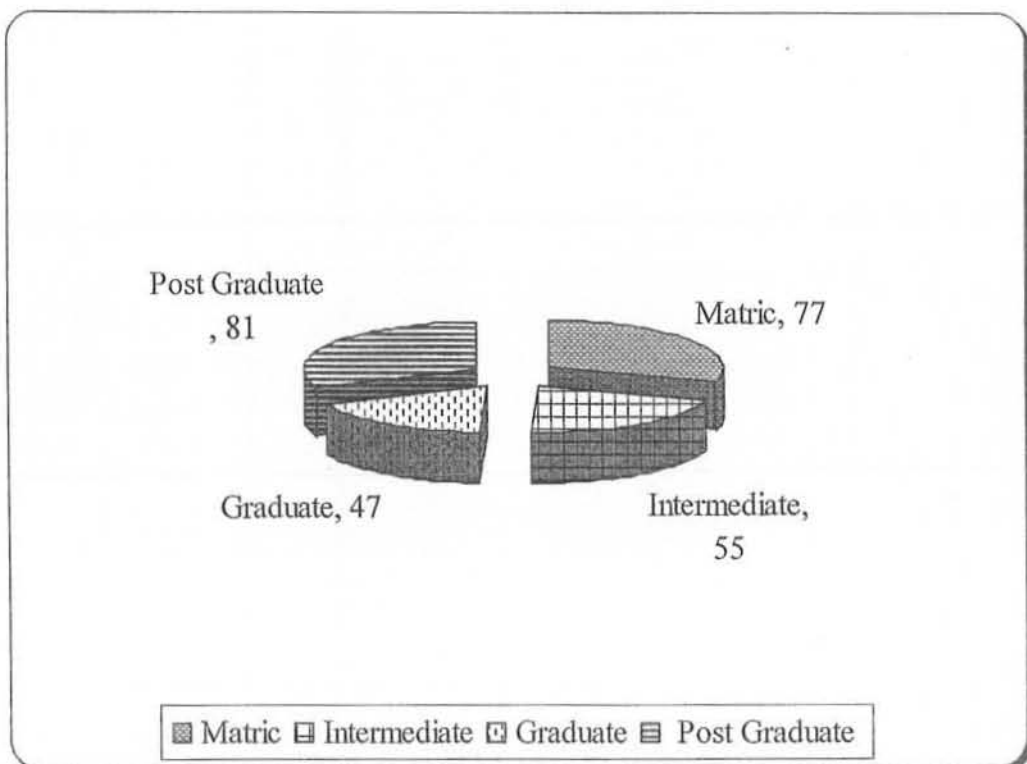
Figure 5

Graphic representation of the distribution of sample on the bases of Years of marriage

(15 to 20), 74

(5 to 10), 138

(10 to 15), 48

■ (5 to 10) ▩ (10 to 15) ▨ (15 to 20)
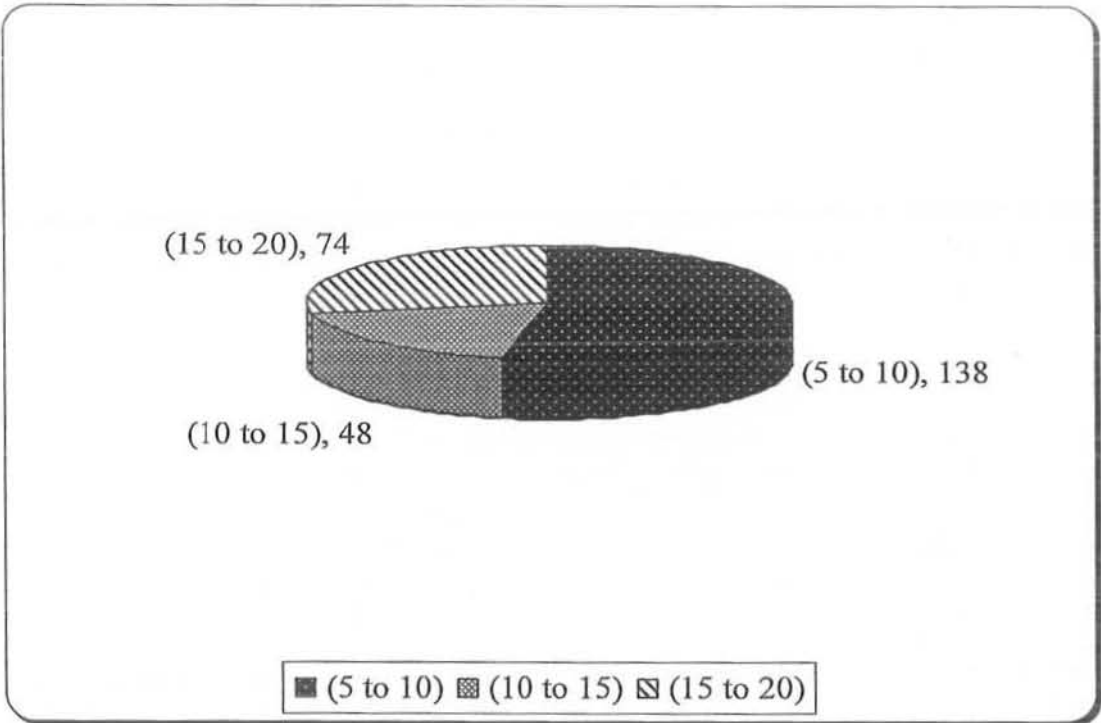
Figure 6

Graphic representation of the distribution of sample on the bases of Family income

(31000-above), 54

(below - 10000), 72

(21000-30000), 66

(11000-20000), 68

▩ (below -10000) ▣ (11000-20000) ■ (21000-30000) ▨ (31000-above)
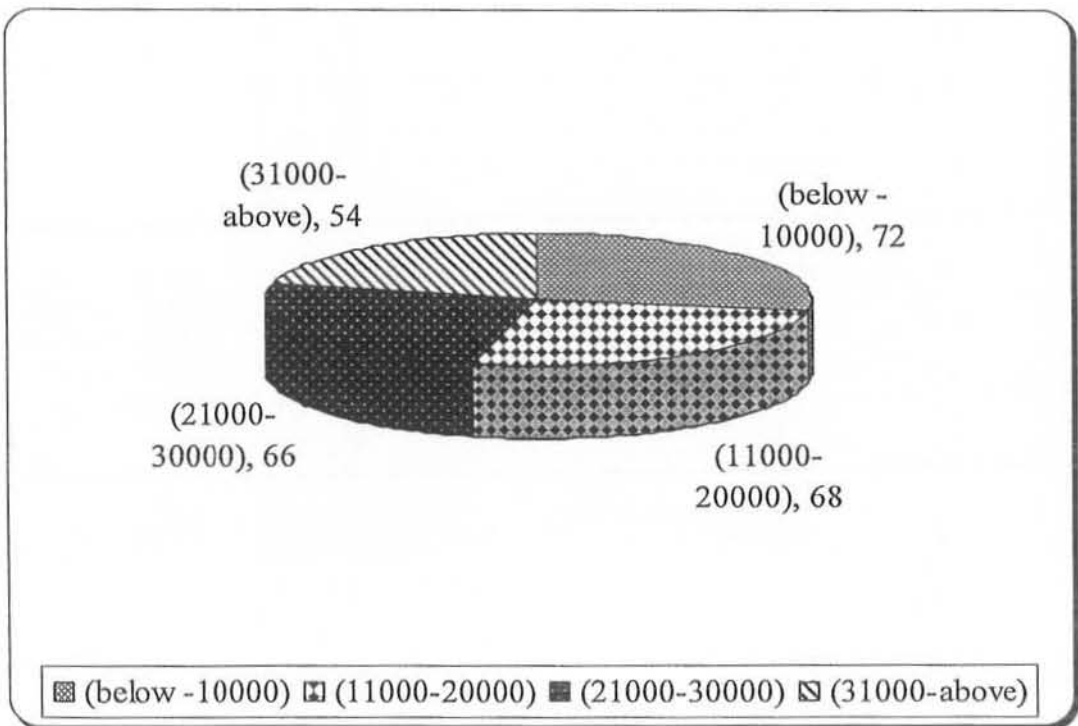
Table 5

Demographic details of the husbands in the sample (N =130)

Variables	Frequencies
Age	
22-31	31
32-41	52
42-above	47
Education	
Matric	23
Intermediate	29
Graduate	28
Post Graduate	50

Table 6

Demographic details of the wives in the sample (N=130)

Variables	Frequencies
Age	
22-31	57
32-41	57
42-above	16
Education	
Matric	54
Intermediate	26
Graduate	19
Post Graduate	31

Reliabilities and Correlations

Table 7

Alpha reliabilities of total as well as the two subscale of the Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) questionnaire (N= 260)

Scales	No of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Anxiety	18	0.83
Avoidance	18	0.88
Whole Scale	36	0.90

Table 7 shows the alpha reliabilities of the whole scale and the subscales of Experiences In Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) questionnaire, which are from .83 to .90, indicating a high value of alpha coefficient.

Table 8

Inter-scale correlation coefficient for total scores on Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) questionnaire and its sub scales (N=260)

Subscales	Anxiety	Avoidance
Anxiety		
Avoidance	.62**	
Total	.90**	.89**

**$p< .01$

Table 8 indicates the inter scale correlation of total and subscales of scale of *ECR-R* which is from .62 to .90, indicating high inter scale correlation which specify that the traits measured in the scale are related to each other.

Table 9

Alpha Reliabilities for Subscale of The Disagreement Scales (N= 260)

Subscales	Alpha Coefficient
Avoidance	.85
Dominance	.91
Compromise	.82

Table 9 shows the alpha reliabilities of the subscales of Disagreement Scales. The subscale reliabilities are from .82 to .91, which shows that sub-scales of the disagreement scale was reliable measures.

Table 10

Inter-scale correlation coefficient for sub-scales on The Disagreement Scales (N=260)

Subscales	Avoidance	Dominance	Compromise
Avoidance			
Dominance	.52**		
Compromise	-.32**	-.43**	
Total	.34**	.41**	-.39**

**p< .01

Table 10 indicates the inter-scale correlation of the subscales and the total of Disagreement Scales which are from -.43 to .52, indicating that each sub scale measure different dimension.

Table 11

Alpha Reliabilities for Subscale of The Disagreement Scale: Outcome (N= 260)

Subscales	No of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Increased intimacy	11	.94
Escalation of conflict	13	.93

Table 11 shows the alpha reliabilities of the total and the subscales of out come of Disagreement Scales. The reliabilities are from .93 to .94

Table 12

Inter-scale correlation coefficient for The Disagreement Scale: Outcome and its sub scales (N=260)

Out come sub-scales	Increased intimacy	Escalation of conflict
Increased Intimacy		
Escalation of Conflict	-.28**	
Total	.57**	.62**

**p< .01

Table 12 indicates the inter scale correlation of the subscales and the Outcome of Disagreement Scale indicating that each sub scale measure different dimension and there is an inverse correlation among the sub-scales.

Table 13

Correlation Coefficient for the Attachment Scale and Disagreement Scale (N=260)

Attachment scale	Correlation coefficient
Disagreement scale	.347**

**p< .01

Table 13 indicates that correlation of the two main scales, Disagreement Scale and attachment scale (ECR-R) is positively related to each other.

Table 14

Inter- scale correlation coefficient for The Disagreement Scale and The Disagreement Scale: Outcome (N=260)

Subscales of Disagreement Out come sub-scales	Increased Intimacy	Escalation of Conflict
Avoidance	-.24**	.45**
Dominance	-.28**	.42**
Compromise	.42**	-.15*

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

Table 14 shows that there is a high correlation among the disagreement scale and the outcome of disagreement scale which indicates that intimacy of individuals increases when their conflict management style is compromising. On the other hand individuals who use avoidance or dominance style of conflict management show high correlation on escalation of conflict.

Table 15

Frequencies and percentages of the individuals with different attachment styles on ECR-R scale (N = 260)

Attachment styles	Frequency	Percentage %
Secure	111	42.7
Preoccupied	42	16.2
Dismissing	36	13.8
Fearful	71	27.3
Total	260	100

This table 15 and figure 7 shows that most individuals in our sample fall in to secure style of attachment and only 13.8 % of individuals fall in to the dismissing category.

Figure 7

Graphic representation of the Frequencies of the individuals with different attachment styles
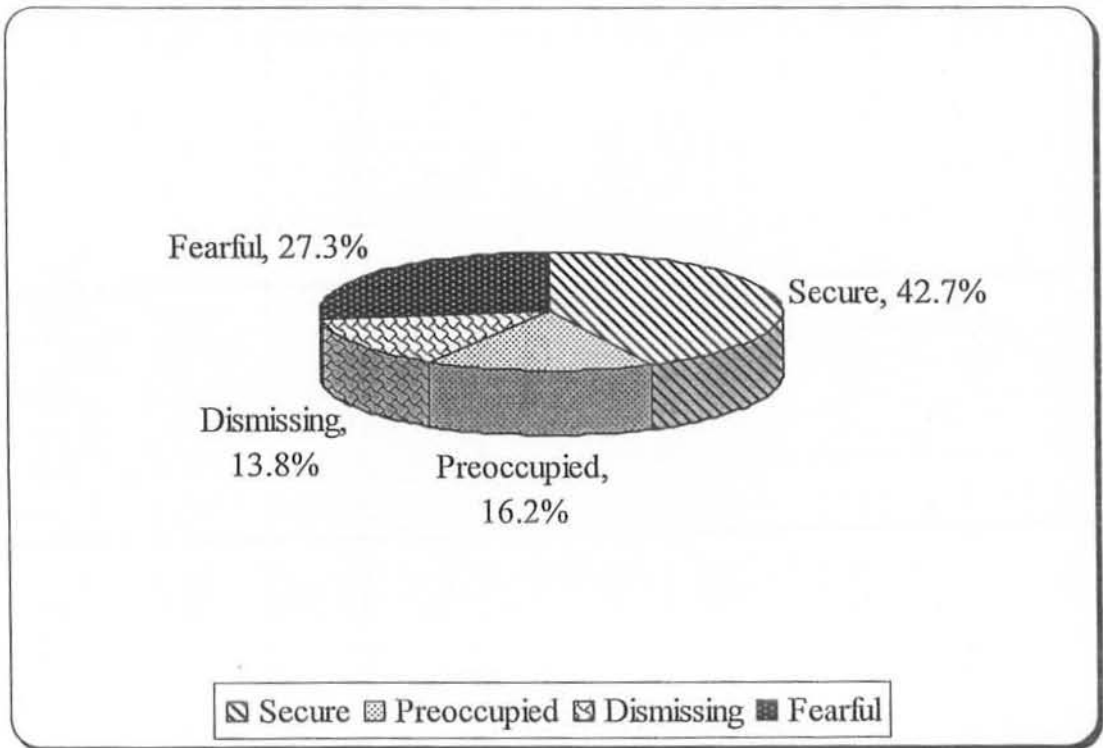
Table 16

Means, Standard Deviations and F values of individuals having different Attachment Styles with The Disagreement Scale (N=260)

Sub-scale	Secure (n = 111)		Preoccupied (n = 42)		Dismissing (n = 36)		Fearful (n = 71)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Avoidance	10.8	2.7	12.5	3.5	12.6	3.4	13.6	2.9	13.39**
Dominance	11.2	2.9	13.4	4.2	11.9	3.9	14.9	4.4	14.92**
Compromise	18.9	2.9	17.2	3.3	16.9	3.6	15.4	2.9	19.32**

$df = (3, 256), p** < .001$

Table 16 and figure 8 indicates the mean scores and standard deviations along with F values of the individuals with different attachment styles with The Disagreement Scale, One Way Analyses of variance (ANOVA) was computed to check the significance of differences on mean scores. An analysis of variance on Avoidance is significant, $F = (3, 256) = 13.394$, $p < .000$. Mean difference of secure ($M = 10.8$, $SD = 2.7$) and other three insecure attachment styles i.e. for Preoccupied ($M = 12.5$, $SD = 3.5$), for Dismissing ($M = 12.6$, $SD = 3.3$), and for Fearful ($M = 13.58$, $SD = 2.88$), indicates that those individuals who are secure scored lowest on Avoidance On the other hand the fearful scored highest on Avoidance.

Individuals with fearful attachment styles have higher mean ($M = 14.9$, $SD = 4.4$) then other groups on Dominance scale, $F (3, 256) = 14.92$, $p = .000$. The difference is significant between Secure ($M = 11.2$, $SD = 2.9$), Preoccupied ($M = 13.4$, $SD = 4.2$), and fearful ($M = 14.9$, $SD = 4.4$) individuals, which means Fearful partners are more Dominating as compared to others. On the sub-scale of Compromise the difference is significant between secure ($M = 18.89$, $SD = 2.9$) and other three insecure attachment styles, $F (3, 256) = 19.319$, $p = .000$. i.e. for preoccupied ($M = 17.19$, $SD = 3.32$), for dismissing ($M = 16.9$, $SD = 3.6$), and for fearful ($M = 15.4$, $SD = 2.9$), i.e. Secure partners are more Compromising then insecure partners.

Figure 8

Graphic representation of the Means values of individuals having different Attachment Styles with The Disagreement Scale
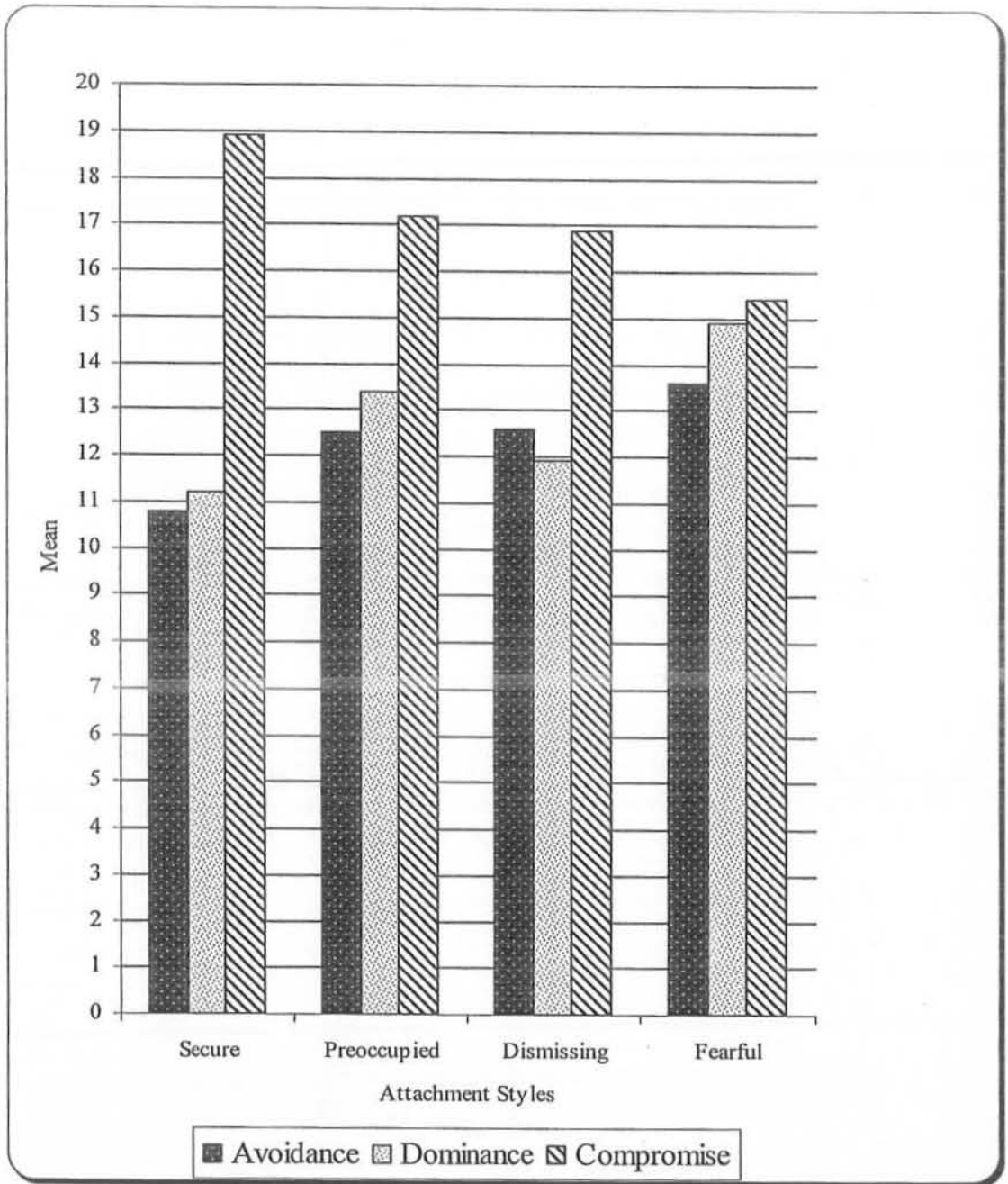
Table 17

Means, Standard Deviations and F values of individuals having different Attachment Styles on The Disagreement Scale: Outcome (N=260)

Scale	Secure (n = 111)		Preoccupied (n = 42)		Dismissing (n = 36)		Fearful (n = 71)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Intimacy	39.5	6.8	37.1	6.7	37.2	9.1	31.3	6.0	20.18**
Escalation	30.9	8.2	36.0	7.7	35.3	8.3	37.9	5.1	14.27**

df = (3 , 256), *p***<.001

Table 17 and figure 9 shows that the intimacy of the secure partners increases (*M* = 39.5, S.D = 6.8) after the conflict. On the other hand fearful partners scored high (*M* = 37.9, S.D = 5.1) on the sub-scale of escalation of conflict as compared to the other three groups.

Figure 9

Graphic representation of the Means values of individuals having different Attachment Styles with The Disagreement: Outcome
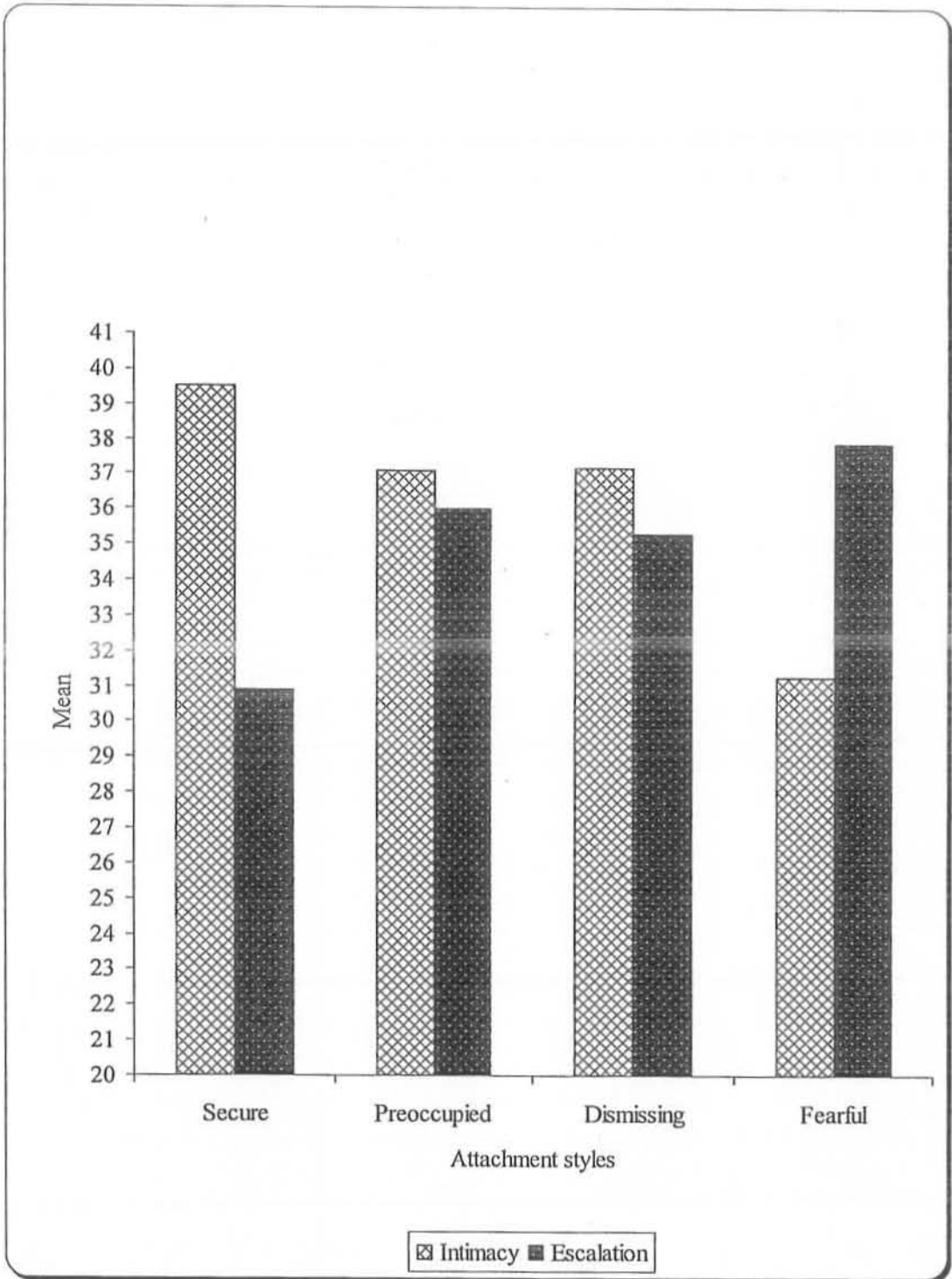
Table 18

Means, Standard Deviations, t-values and correlation between the Husbands and their Wives scores and their perceptions on "The Disagreement Scale" (N=260)

	Mean	SD	t	r
Husband own score	42.05	5.815	2.028	.308**
Wife's perception about the husband	43.29	6.017		
Wife's own score	42.22	5.640	1.677	.425**
Husband's perception about the wife	43.09	5.482		

**p<.01

Table 18 indicates the mean and standard deviations of the combination of responses on The Disagreement Scale along with their correlation coefficients. Similarly there is a positive correlation between husband's perceptions about them regarding those ways of handling conflict.

Gender Differences

Table 19

Frequencies and percentages of husbands and wives with different attachment styles on ECR-R scale (N=260)

	Attachment Styles				Total
	Secure	Preoccupied	Dismissing	Fearful	
Husbands	58	20	17	35	130
	44.6%	15.4%	13.1%	26.9%	
Wives	53	22	19	36	130
	40.8%	16.9%	14.6%	27.7%	
Total	111	42	36	71	260
	42.7%	16.2%	13.8%	27.3%	

$\chi 2 \ (3, N = 260) = .93, p = n.s$

Table 19 and figure 10 shows the value of chi square ($\chi 2$) indicates that there are non significant gender differences between the husbands and wives on overall attachment styles.

Figure 10

Graphic representation of Frequencies of husbands and wives with different attachment styles on ECR-R Scale
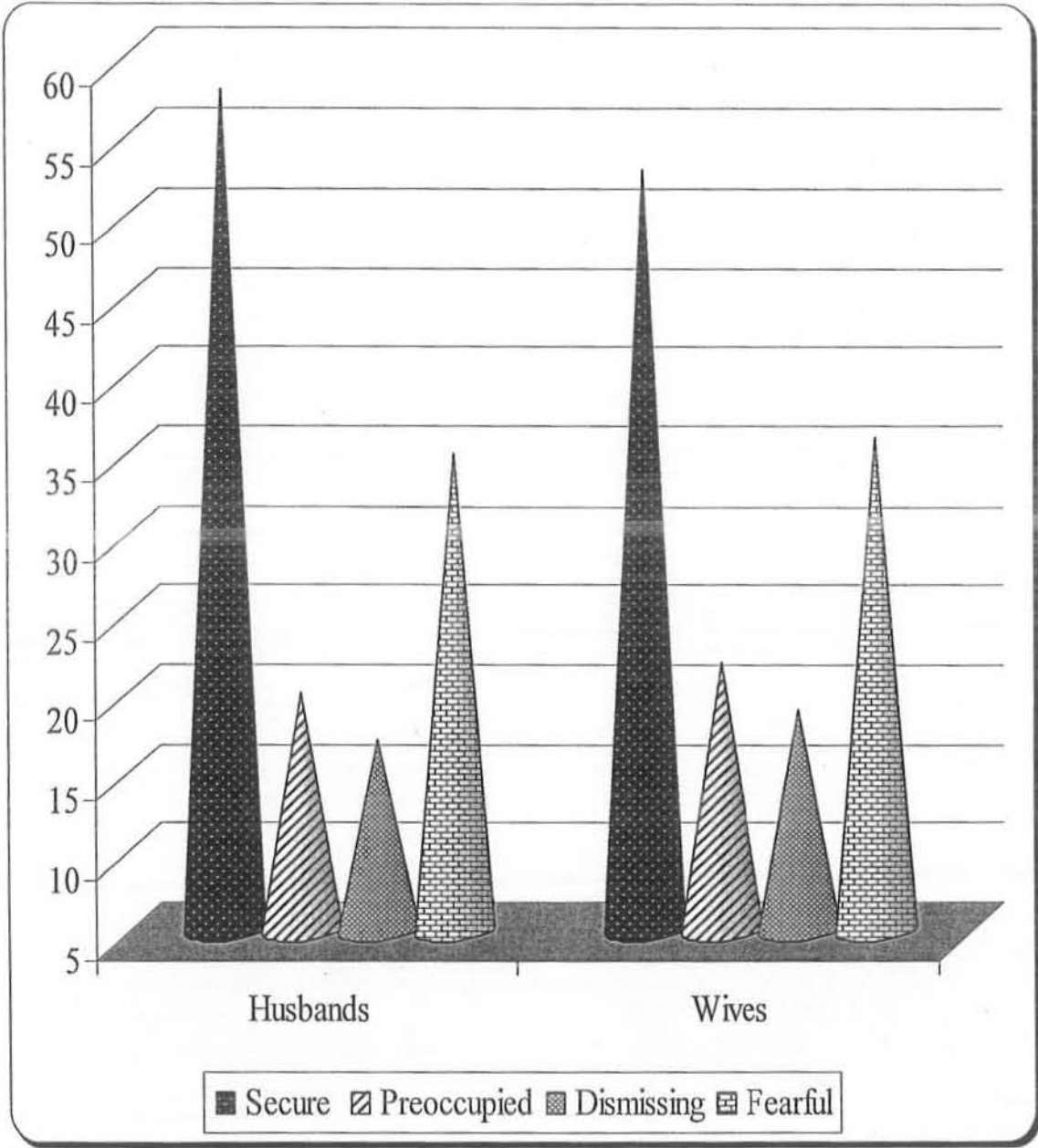
Table 20

Mean, standard deviation and t-value of husbands and wives on The Disagreement Scale (N=260)

Sub-scales of The Disagreement Scale	Husbands (n = 130)		Wives (n = 130)		
	M	SD	M	SD	t
Avoidance	11.8	3.4	12.4	3.1	1.35
Dominance	12.9	4.2	12.4	3.8	1.23
Compromise	17.3	3.5	17.5	3.3	.56

df = 258, *p* = n.s

Table 20 and figure 11 indicates the mean for husbands and wives on the sub-scales of The Disagreement Scale. Mean score on avoidance is slightly higher for wives 12.4 than the scores of husbands 11.8, but it is not statistically significant which shows that there are no significant differences among husbands and wives on measure of Avoidance. Similar results are seen on the dominance and compromise sub-scales of The Disagreement scale.

Figure 11

Graphic representation of Mean of husbands and wives on The Disagreement Scale
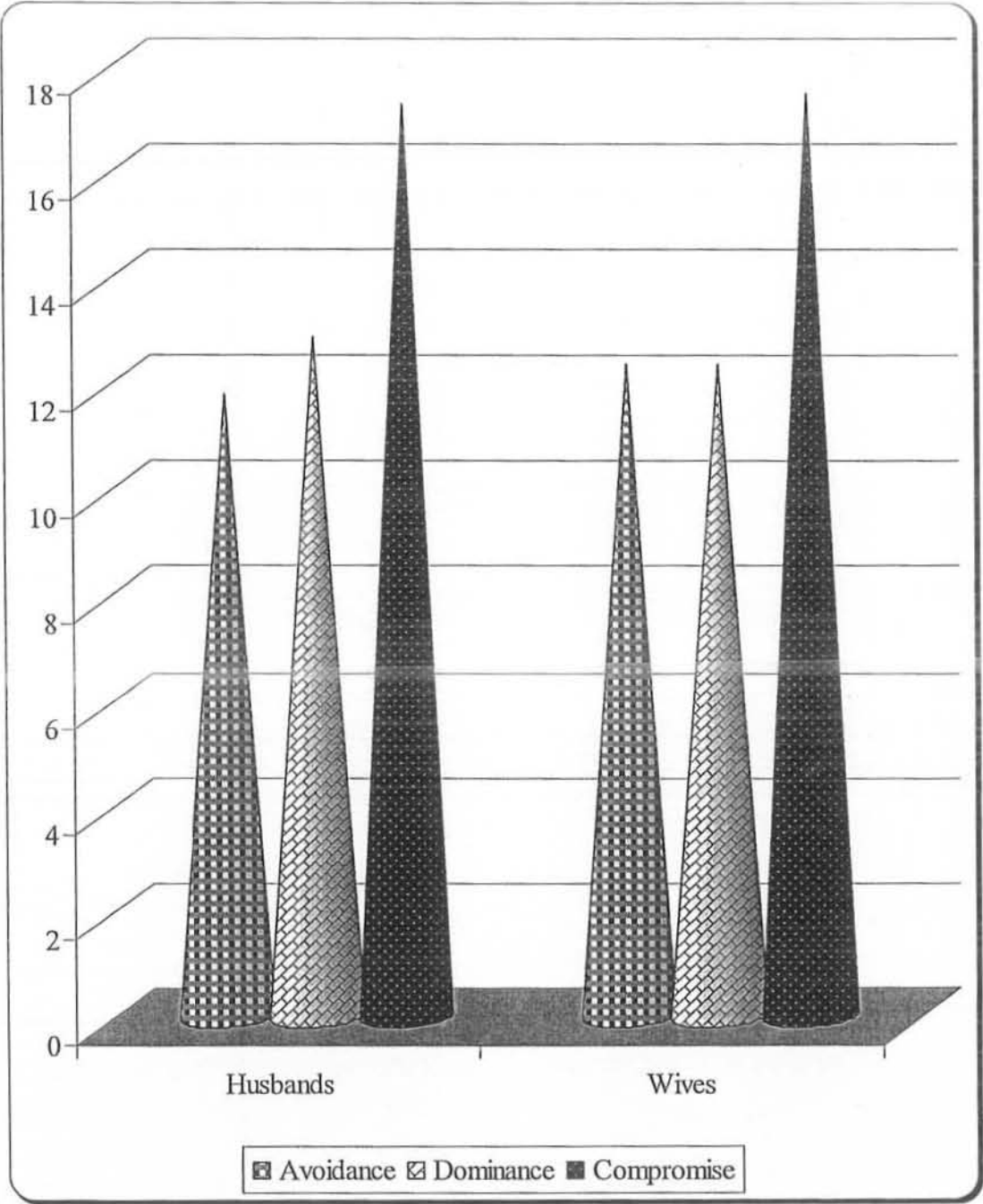
Table 21

Mean, standard deviation and t-value husbands and wives on The Disagreement scale: Outcome (N=260)

Sub-scales The Disagreement scale: Outcome	Husbands (n = 130)		Wives (n = 130)		
	M	SD	M	SD	t
Increase intimacy	36.4	7.3	36.7	8.2	.33
Escalation of conflict	33.5	7.8	35.2	8.2	1.6

df = 258, *p* = n.s

Table 21 and figure 12 shows that the differences for increased intimacy and Escalation of conflict are not statistically significant as p > .05 for both subscales of increased intimacy and escalation of conflict.

Figure 12

Graphic representation of Mean of husbands and wives on the subscales of The Disagreement Scale
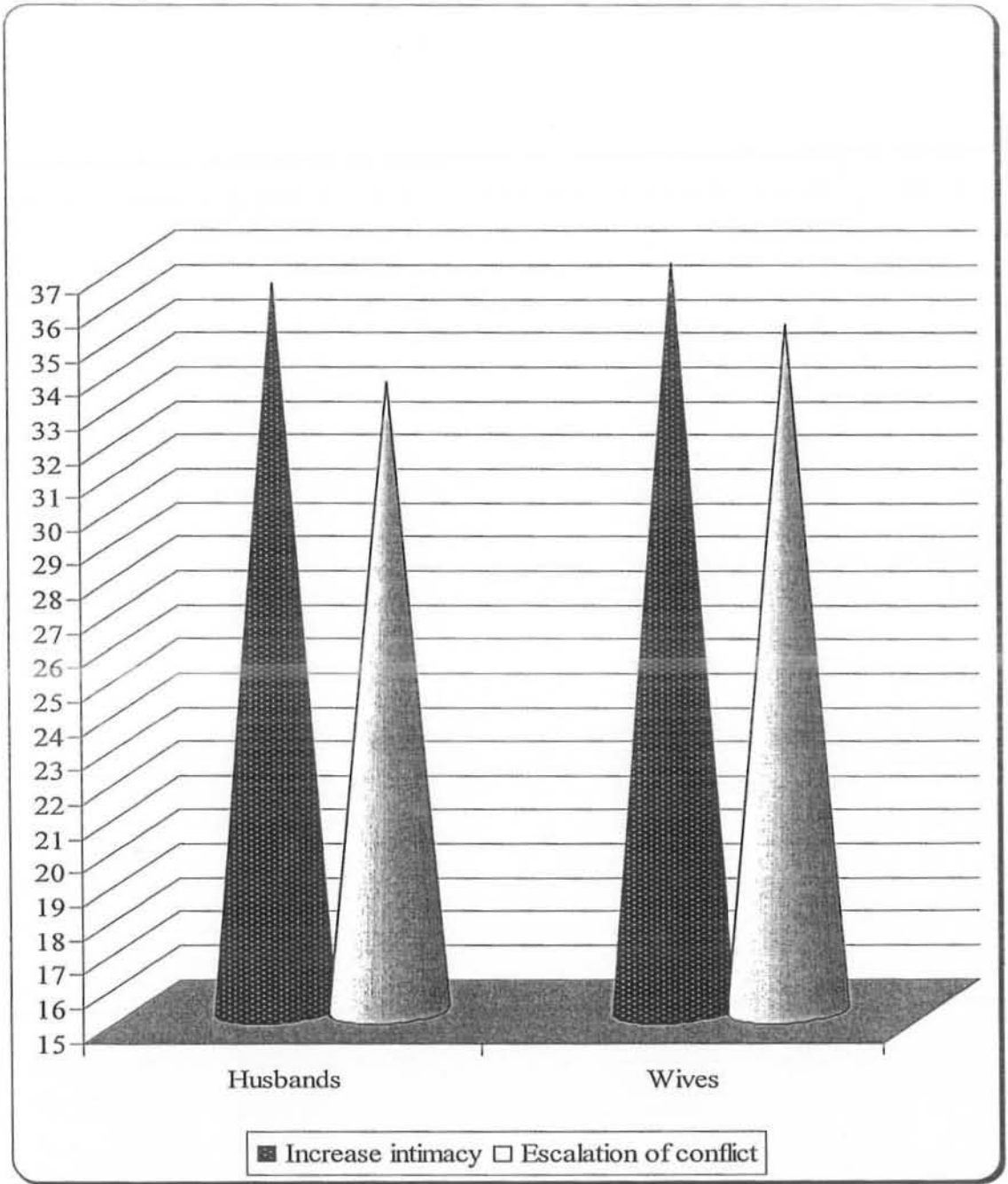
Age of Respondents

Table 22

Frequencies and percentages of partners having different attachment styles along with their age (N=260)

Age	Attachment styles				Total
	Secure	Preoccupied	Dismissing	Fearful	
Below-31 years	26	25	12	25	88
	29.5%	28.4%	13.6%	28.2%	
32-41 years	63	12	12	22	109
	57.8%	11.0%	11.0%	20.2%	
42-above years	22	42	36	24	63
	34.9%	16.2%	13.8%	38.1%	
Total	111	42	36	71	260

$\chi2$ *(3, N = 260) =29.498, p < 0.5*

Table 22 indicates the value of chi square ($\chi2$) it shows that there are significant differences between ages of the partners with attachment styles. For example partner's age ranges from 32 to 41 years were more secure (57.8 %) than other two groups.

Table 23

Means, Standards Deviations and F values for Age of partners with their scores on The Disagreement Scale (N=260)

Sub-scale	21-31 years (n = 88)		32-41 years (n =109)		42-above years (n = 63)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Avoidance	12.8	3.1	11.4	2.8	12.2	3.6	4.8**
Dominance	12.5	3.6	12.4	4.1	13.3	4.4	.966
Compromise	17.4	3.3	18.1	3.2	16.1	3.6	6.24**

*df = (2 , 257), p**<.001*

Table 23 indicates significant differences on Avoidance and Compromise scales, for example couples whose ages are from 21 to 31 years, using avoiding conflict

management strategies more then the other two groups. Elder couples and middle aged couples are more compromising than the others but there are non-significant differences on Dominance Scale.

Table 24

Means, Standards Deviations and F values for the Age of partners and their scores on The Disagreement Scale: Out come (N=260)

Sub-scale	21-31 (n = 88)		32-41 (n =109)		42-above (n = 63)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Intimacy	12.8	3.1	11.4	2.8	12.2	3.6	4.8**
Escalation	12.5	3.6	12.4	4.1	13.3	4.4	.966

$df = (2, 257), p** < .001$

Table 24 shows that the intimacy of the young couples increases after the conflict as compared to the other two elder groups.

Year of Marriage

Table 25

Frequencies and percentages of partners having different attachment styles along with their year of marriage (N=260)

Years of marriage	Attachment styles				Row total (n)
	Secure	Preoccupied	Dismissing	Fearful	
5-10 years	61	34	19	24	138
	43.9%	24.5%	13.7%	18%	
11-15 years	22	5	4	17	48
	45.8%	10.4%	8.3%	35.4%	
16-20 years	28	3	13	30	74
	38.4%	4.1%	17.8%	39.7%	
Total	111	42	36	71	260

$\chi 2$ (3, N = 260) =25. 53, p < 0.5

The value of chi square ($\chi 2$) in table 25 indicates that there are significant differences between the years of marriage and their attachment styles. The highest number of individual's falls into secure category is those with 5 to 10 years of marriage. This shows that young couples are more secure as compared to the other two groups. Similarly the lowest scores on secure attachment style are those with 11 to 15 years of marriage.

Table 26

Means, Standard Deviations and F values for year of marriage along with The Disagreement Scale (N=260)

Sub-scale	5-10 (n = 138)		11-15 (n = 48)		16-20 (n = 74)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Avoidance	12.1	3.2	12.6	3.3	11.9	3.3	.670
Dominance	12.5	3.9	12.5	4.2	13.2	4.2	1.17
Compromise	17.8	3.5	18.3	3.1	15.9	3.1	10.1**

*df = (2 , 257), p**<.001*

Table 26 indicates non significant differences between year of marriage and avoidance and dominance scale of disagreement. But there are significant differences on compromise sub-scales. It indicate that couples are using compromising style more whose year of marriage is from 11 to 15 years.

Table 27

Means, Standard Deviations and F values for year of marriage along with The Disagreement Scale: Outcome (N=260)

Scale	5-10 (n = 138)		11-15 (n = 48)		16-20 (n = 74)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Intimacy	38.7	7.3	35.9	7.8	32.9	6.9	16.03**
Escalation	34.60	7.6	35.8	7.6	32.6	8.8	2.49

*df = (2 , 257), **p < .001*

The above table 27 differentiates between three groups, based on results on the Disagreement scale: outcome. This indicated that the intimacy of the individuals, whose year of marriage is less, increases after the conflict is over.

Family Income

Table 28

Frequencies and percentages of partners having different Attachment styles along with family income (N=260)

Income in rupees	Attachment styles				Total
	Secure	Preoccupied	Dismissing	Fearful	
Below- 10,000	32 44.4%	18 25 %	8 11.1%	14 19.4%	72
11,000- 20,000	29 42%	15 21.7%	14 20.3%	11 15.9%	69
21,000- 30,000	31 47%	7 21.7%	5 7.6%	23 34.8%	66
31,000- above	19 35.8%	2 3.8%	9 17%	23 43.4%	66
Total	111	42	36	71	260

$\chi 2$ *(3, N = 260) =28.031, p < 0.5*

The value of $\chi 2$ indicates that there are significant differences among the individuals with different income groups and their attachment styles. Those with income below 10,000 scored high on secure attachment style. It shows that most secure couples are those whose income is below 10000.

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Table 29

Means, Standard Deviations and F values for family income on The Disagreement Scale (N=260)

Sub-Scale	Below-10,000 (n =72)		11,000-20,000 (n = 69)		21,000-30,000 (n = 66)		31,000- above (n = 71)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Avoidance	12.1	3.2	11.8	3.1	12.2	3.3	12.3	3.2	.216
Dominance	12.6	3.6	12.3	4.1	12.6	3.9	13.3	4.7	.628
Compromise	18.3	3.3	17.5	3.4	16.8	3.3	16.6	3.4	3.46**

df = (3 , 256), *p*** <.001

Table 29 indicates that there are significant differences among groups based on monthly income on compromising sub-scale of the Disagreement scale, indicating that low income group couples are more compromising ($M = 18.3$, $SD = 3.3$), than other three high income groups. There are no mean differences on other two sub-scales, of avoidance and dominance.

Table 30

Means, Standards Deviations and F values for family income on The Disagreement Scale: Out come (N=260)

Scale	Below-10,000 (n =72)		11,000-20,000 (n = 69)		21,000-30,000 (n = 66)		31,000- above (n = 71)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Intimacy	39.1	6.9	37.8	7.8	33.7	7.6	35.1	7.2	7.469**
Escalation	33.9	6.8	33.7	9.3	34.2	8.3	35.5	7.6	.587

df = (3 , 256), *p*** <.001

Table 30 indicates that when the conflict is over low income group's intimacy increases ($M = 39.1$, $SD = 6.9$). There are non significant differences on escalation of conflict among all four income groups.

Education

Table 31

Frequencies and percentages of partners with different attachment styles with education (N=260)

Education	Attachment styles				Total
	Secure	Preoccupied	Dismissing	Fearful	
Matric	34	11	8	24	77
	44.2%	14.3%	10.4%	31.2%	
Intermediate	23	8	8	16	55
	41.8%	14.5%	14.5%	29.1%	
Graduate	17	12	9	9	47
	36.2%	25.5%	19.1%	19.1%	
Postgraduate	37	11	11	22	81
	45.7%	13.6%	13.6%	27.2%	
Total	111	42	36	71	260

$\chi2\ (3,\ N = 256) = 7.105,\ p < 0.5$

The value of $\chi2$ indicates that there are significant differences on Education of partners and attachment styles. The frequencies and percentages are given partners with post graduation level of education level has secure attachment styles.

Table 32

Means, Standard Deviation and F values for education on the Disagreement Scale (N=260)

Sub-Scale	Matric (n =77)		Intermediate (n = 55)		Graduate (n = 47)		Post Graduate (n = 81)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Avoidance	12.08	2.9	12.07	2.7	13.19	3.4	11.48	3.4	2.894**
Dominance	12.8	4.2	12.1	3.4	13.6	4.1	12.4	4.0	1.51
Compromising	17.9	3.1	17.3	3.6	17.1	3.3	17.0	3.5	.278

df = (3 , 256), *p***<.001

Table 32 indicated that graduate partners score significantly higher on avoidance, then the other three educational groups. There are non-significant differences on other two sub-scales of dominance and compromise.

Table 33

Means, Standard Deviation and F values for education on The Disagreement Scale: Out come (N=260)

Scale	Matric (n =77)		Intermediate (n = 55)		Graduate (n = 47)		Post Graduate (n = 81)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Intimacy	36.4	8.4	35.5	7.1	37.6	7.4	36.7	7.4	.624
Escalation	34.9	7.2	33.4	6.9	35.2	9.1	33.7	8.7	.694

df = (3 , 256), *p* = n.s.

Results of the above table 33 indicate that partner's education make no differences as far as the out come of conflict is concerned.

DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

The present research was intended to investigate Attachment Styles and Conflict Management among Married Couples. The main purpose of the present study was to determine which type of conflict management strategies married individuals use with different attachment styles. Further more, the relationship of gender, length of marriage, education and family income of couples with different attachment styles and conflict management strategies were observed. The following section of the research deals with the discussion of the results and conclusion of the findings. Present study was conducted on couples with length of relationship from 5-20 years having at least one child, childless couples were not included in the study as having no child may be a potential issue among them.

In the present research three scales were used. To measure conflict management strategies and its outcome, two scales were used, "The Disagreement scale" and "The Disagreement Scale: Out Come" (Camara & Resnik, 1989). To assess attachment styles "The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) Questionnaire" (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000) was used. The first phase of the study aimed at translating the scales into Urdu and their pre-testing. The second phase comprised of the pilot study and third phase was about the main study with a sample of 260 participants.

The reliabilities of the scales were found out. The value of alpha coefficients for The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) questionnaire was from 0.83 to 0.90 (see table 7), indicating a high value of alpha coefficient. Similarly the alpha coefficient for The Disagreement scale and its sub-scales was from 0.82 to 0.91 (see table 9) and for The Disagreement scale: Out come was from .93 to .94 (see table 11). Table 8, 10, 12, showed higher correlations among sub-scales and among all three main scales. Table 15 shows the frequencies and percentages of the individuals with different attachment styles. Majority of the sample in the study had secured attachment style i.e., 43 % that included 44.6% of the husbands and 40.8 % of the wives. The percentages of Preoccupied, Dismissing, and Fearful were 16.2 %, 13.8 %, 27.3 % respectively.

The purpose of the study was also to explore the relationship of the adult attachment styles with their conflict management strategies. Adult attachment styles are theorized to reflect an individual's beliefs about social relationships where as conflict management techniques indicates individuals' conflict management in socially distressing situations. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare all three conflict management styles i.e., Avoidance, Compromise and Dominance, with four attachment styles i.e. Secure, Fearful, Dismissing, and Preoccupied. The results have supported several previous findings and have extended them in a number of important ways.

The first hypothesis i.e. *Partners with secure attachment style will use compromising conflict management style more then Partners with insecure attachment styles,* is supported by the results and indicates that the individuals with secure attachment style use compromising style more (M =18.9, SD = 2.9) then individuals with any other insecure attachment styles (see table 16). The results exhibits that secure attachments leads to compromising style which is mutually focused conflict management style and arises from positive working model of self and positive model of others. Such people find a solution to a problem in a way that satisfies both parties' concerns. These results are similar with some of the previous findings (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) which also explains that secure individuals experience low anxiety and low avoidance. They tend to involve in a relationship characterized by higher level of inter dependence, trust, commitment and satisfaction. This further supports the notion that people who classify themselves as securely attached have been found to deal with interpersonal conflicts in close relationships by compromising and integrating their own and their partner's positions, (Levy & Davis, 1988; Pistole, 1989), openly discussing the problem, and resolving the conflict (Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1995; Simpson, Rholes, & Phillips, 1996).

In a more recent study Corcoran and Mallinckrodt (2000) found that partner with secure attachment styles were more likely to use integrating and compromising conflict management styles. Studies looked at three categories model of attachment (Levy & Davis, 1988; Pistole, 1989; Van Leeuwen, 1992) suggested that securely attached individuals were more likely then insecurely attached to employ Integrating and Compromising Styles of conflict resolution during problem solving tasks. The review of

literature and the supporting results of the present research lead to the conclusion that having secured attachment during adulthood might be attributed to the secure, nourishing, warm and stable environment during childhood. With the passage of time when a secure individual engages in a marital relationship he/she tries to be constructive in relationship building and regulating physical and emotional proximity to the partner. As it was said that attachment styles remain stable across life span development; so it is assumed that an individual with secure attachment style in childhood will have secure attachment with marital partner. These types of persons always have high concerns for self and high concerns for others, and are better able to explore the perspectives of their partners and possibilities for novel solutions to the conflict.

According to second hypothesis, *Partners with preoccupied attachment style will use dominating styles of conflict management more than partners with secure attachment style*, is supported by the results and indicates that individuals with preoccupied attachment style use more dominance in their conflict management style ($M = 13.4$, $SD = 4.2$) then secure individuals ($M = 11.2$, $SD = 2.9$).

The above mentioned results were supported by many previous findings. Corcoran and Mallinckrodt (2000) and Shi (2003) found that preoccupied adults tend to exercise pressure on their partners and dominate their partner during conflict in their efforts to get closer or prevent the partner from further separation. In the present study use of dominating style might be due to the dissatisfaction with the degree of intimacy, being emotionally confused and holding a feeling of resentment. Because of having dissatisfied and emotionally confused attachment styles, preoccupied individuals becomes more dominating in their conflict management then individuals with secure and dismissing attachment styles.

Furthermore the results also show that individuals with fearful attachment styles have scored highest on dominance ($M = 14.9$, $SD = 4.4$) then individuals with other attachment styles. It is evident from these findings that fearful individuals use dominating conflict management strategy more often then individuals with preoccupied, dismissing and secure attachment styles, that might be attributed to there efforts to overcome there fears and anxiety.

The third hypothesis i.e. *Partners with fearful attachment style will use avoiding style of conflict management more than Partners with secure attachment style,* is supported by the results and significant mean differences have been found among the individuals with fearful attachment styles ($M = 13.6$. $SD = 2.9$) and secure attachment styles ($M = 10.8$ $SD = 2.7$) on avoidance dimension which shows that fearful individuals use avoidance as a conflict management technique. These results are in line with the findings of Creasey, Kershaw, and Boston (1999), who concluded that partners with fearful attachment tend to withdraw from conflict resolution and show less confidence regulating negative moods. It is also been said that avoidance of intimate attachment is associated with avoidance of conflict management (Levy & Davis, 1988; Pistole, 1989). The avoidance of conflict instead of resolving it might show their fear and anxiety of loosing their own concern, and fear of facing conflictual situations. Moreover, the avoidance can also be attributed to the cultural values in Pakistan which discourage open discussion among family members to resolve certain conflict. Furthermore, research has suggested that the working models of highly anxious and fearful individuals also influence the way in which they perceive their romantic partners and relationships. It has been investigated that a secure partner scores low on anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment measures, while an insecure individual with fearful attachment style scores high on both these dimensions.

In the present research the results have also indicated that individuals who were fearful not only score high on avoidance but also on dominance dimension of conflict management but it may not reflect the same underlying mechanism i.e. individuals with fearful attachment styles may use avoidance style as a way to keep away from deeper and more intimate interactions in order to protect themselves from further discussion on the conflictual issue, such individuals are uncomfortable with closeness, and are unreasonably self-reliant so have a greater disadvantage in generating win–win solutions. On the other hand individuals with fearful style may also use dominating style of conflict management in certain situations where they try to satisfy themselves as being the decision makers and to keep their loved once close to them by force, also to ensure their partners' availability.

The researcher was also interested to find the outcome of conflict (increased intimacy or escalation of conflict) after the conflict is over. It is noticed that after the

conflict the intimacy of the secure individuals' increases (M = 39.5, SD = 6.8). On the other hand it is observed that conflict escalates among those who had fearful attachment style after the conflict was over (M = 37.9, SD = 5.1). The increased intimacy between secure partners might show their capabilities of understanding each other high concern regarding partner's feelings and positive image of the partners themselves. When asked to imagine their partners behaving negatively toward them (e.g., "your partner does not comfort you when you are feeling down"), highly anxious individuals make more negative attributions about their partners' behavior (e.g., "my partner is rejecting my desire for closeness/intimacy"). They believe that their partners are selfish and deliberately unresponsive to their needs, question their partners' love, feel less secure about the relationship, and feel greater anger toward their partners than do less anxious individuals (Collins, 2000). These results are supported by the previous findings of Camara and Resnick (1989) who suggested that after the conflict the intimacy of the individuals with compromising or integrating style of conflict management increases and they understand each others concerns. Fearful individuals show negative model of self and others and that's why the escalation among fearful individual's increase after the conflict.

In the present study both the partners (i.e., husbands and wives) were given the two versions of The Disagreement Scales i.e. their own perception about their reactions during and after the disagreement, and their perception about their partner's reactions (see table 18). Interestingly, high correlation has been found out between partners scores (husbands, r = .308 and wives, r = .425). These high correlations might be attributed to the social desirability among partners, who In order to give a promising picture, may have denied the actual facts.

Fourth and fifth hypothesis was about the gender differences in attachment styles i.e. *Male partners will score high on dismissing attachment style as compared to female partner* and *Female partners will score high on preoccupied attachment style as compared to male partners.* A Chi square analysis was done to compare the gender differences among married couples on attachment styles. No significant differences have been found out across gender (See table 19). These non significant results regarding gender differences might be due to the changing socio-cultural values and gender egalitarianism.

Results suggest that going through similar life experiences in terms of physical and emotional availability of attachment figures, equal opportunities, technical facilities, educational and job openings for both males and females might have diminished the gender differences regarding attachment styles and conflict management strategies. These results are contrary to the studies using the continuous four-category attachment measures which revealed that males reported higher mean ratings of dismissing (avoidant) attachment, whereas females reported higher mean ratings of preoccupied attachment (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). In other researches (Feeney & Noller, 1996; Robertson, N., 2000) it was observed that males in their sample were more likely than females to exhibit a dismissive-avoidant attachment style, whereas females were more likely than males to exhibit a fearful-avoidant style of attachment. These differences may be explained by a common difference between males' and females' general approaches to intimate relationships, with males exhibiting a general tendency to seek more autonomy and females showing a tendency to seek closeness in relationships. But present study is in line with the research done by Shi (2003) indicated no gender differences in attachment styles who assumes that attachment styles is more powerful than gender in shaping conflict resolution patterns.

Some of the participants willingly agreed to discuss the results with the researcher. This was done to get an in depth understanding and insight about the conflicts and attachment in marital relationship. According to some couples using compromising style is more effective in most of the situations as it would calm down the conflictual situation quickly and satisfies both partiers' concerns.

Demographic variables of age, length of relation, family income, and education are also kept in perspective to see if they have any relationship with the attachment styles and conflict management of the marital partners. When we compared individuals having different attachment styles with the age of the participants, it was found that 57.8% of the individuals (i.e., 32-41 years) showed more secure attachment style and were more compromising as compared to the younger group (31-below years) and older individuals (42– above years). These results indicated the cultural impact an attachment and use of conflict management strategies. In Pakistani culture the individuals with this age mostly become settled and financially sound. These are the factors that might have strong effects on marital relationships and in turn on conflict management. Research

also indicates that younger individuals (below to 31) exhibited increased intimacy as compared to the other category of age. The possible explanation might be the short period of their marital life. Usually newly married couples are in phase of exploration and face less conflicts and other marital problems and if they have they readily solve them to keep each other happy.

Three groups were formed on the basis of the year of marriage (i.e. 5-10 years, 11-15 years, and 16-20 years). Years of marriage was compared with the attachment styles and the results indicates that most (43.9 %) of the individuals belonging to the first group (5-10) had secure attachment styles while individuals of second category (11-15 years) were more compromising. Table 27 also shows that intimacy of couples belonging to first young groups increased after the conflict was over. The reason may be the same as mentioned above. There are non significant differences on avoidance and dominance sub-scales of conflict management.

Individuals were divided into four groups on the basis of their family income including monthly income of both husband and wife if it was a dual career couple. Family income was compared with the attachment styles. The results indicated that the majority (i.e. 44.4 %) of the individuals belonging to the lower income group had secure attachments (M = 18.3 & SD = 3.3). It was also observed that these individuals scored high on compromising style of conflict management. These findings further supported the first hypothesis which suggests that securely attached individuals show compromising conflict management. Table 30 shows that the intimacy of the group earning below Rs.10, 000 monthly increases after the conflict. Therefore it is concluded that people belonging to lower income group are more compromising and have secure attachment styles. The possible reason for this may be that couples having low income not only face financial difficulties but also residential problems and family conflicts more then high income families. So the best possible way to resolve a conflict is to compromise in many conflictual situations. In Pakistani society marital partners act as the sole source of comfort and consolation for each other. Therefore in conflictual situations they only depend upon one another and compromise to get marital satisfaction. One the other hand it was also observed that couples belonging to higher income group showed significant differences in fearful attachment style. The possible

reason for their insecurity may be the high income itself that may give rise to fear and anxiety about their asserts

There were four educational groups on the bases of which, we compared the level of education with the attachment styles, and the results indicates that the educated individuals reported secure attachment styles (see table 31). On the other hand individuals who had fearful attachment style were less educated (Matric or below). It can be assumed that education is a source of knowledge, awareness and provide methods to deal with conflict that in turn increases personal security. No significant ($p = $ n.s.) differences were found on the outcome of conflict in relation to the educational levels.

Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship of attachment styles and conflict management among married couples. Along with this we tried to explore their association with different variables like age, length of relation, family income, and education.

In the light of findings and discussion it can be concluded that individuals having secure attachment style manage conflicts in a healthy way. On the basis of review and in the light of the present research it is concluded that length of marriage, age, education and financial status play a very important role in developing and maintaining attachment styles of an individual as well as in determining the conflict management strategies and how they can be modified. Securely attached partners continue to develop secure attachment in their later life. Furthermore their education helps them to maintain their styles, thus secure style in turn make them to manage conflicts in a constructive way. Their intimacy also increases after the conflict is over. Similarly the individuals who avoid conflict and fall in the category of fearful attachment style face escalation of conflict as an out come of the disagreement which leads to the conclusion that there is a strong relationship between attachment styles and conflict management; looking at the attachment patterns of a person their conflict management strategy can be presumed. Results showed no gender differences among the partners in their attachment styles and

conflict management strategies. So it can be concluded that there were no preferred style of conflict management and attachment in husbands and wives.

This study will be helpful in the field of family and marriage relationships, personality and social psychology to understand the attachment patterns and conflict management styles in couples. It will be helpful for social workers, counselors and therapists to understand how attachment patterns are associated with the conflict management styles. This study also raises a great deal of questions that requires future investigation into the attachment styles and their predicative value, e.g. Does the individuals' attachment style change over time, and what are the other factors involve in determining their conflict management strategies.

Limitations

Although the study was clearly conceptualized and carefully conducted there were certain limitations of the present research which are:

1. Due to time constrains the sample included in present research covered only three cities, i.e. Islamabad, Rawalpindi, and Fasilabad representative of the couples of Pakistan. The number of participants from each city also varied.
2. Socioeconomic status was not assessed thoroughly by using different measures to have a clearer picture of the socio economic status of the participants.
3. In the present study as with all other studies that use self-reports measures, recall bias for giving socially desirable responds may have skewed the data.
4. The categorical classification method assess an individual's standing on only one attachment styles despite the fact that some adults may be using two or more styles.
5. Sufficient empirical evidence was not available from Pakistani or Asian culture for the concepts studied in the present research as in Pakistan present research was the first of its kind.

Suggestions and Recommendations

For future researchers, following suggestions are recommended:

1. The sample of the study can be representative and large enough and can include couples from different cities.
2. A longitudinal study can be done to check the stability of attachment styles with the passage of time.
3. It is also vital to know attachment styles of couples in their childhood with their parents, in order to get a picture of attachment styles in close relationship.
4. Disagreement and conflict management can be studied separately with other measures to get a better view of couples's conflict management styles.

Implications

1. It will add to the knowledge and insight of marriage counselors as many divorcing couples seek mediations because they are unable to manage their conflicts without assistance. A large number of individual clients can be helped to meet their counseling goals by improving their ability to effectively manage interpersonal conflict.
2. Attachment styles are difficult to change through counseling, but clients can still be helped to learn more effective methods of conflict resolution by changing cognitive templates of those individuals seeking therapy.
3. Marriage and family counselors should pay attention to attachment issues in marital relationship. One way to achieve this is if the counselor helps the spouse of an avoidant partner to responds in a way that challenges their negative models of the self and others and then assists the avoidant partner to responds to the new input positively.
4. Counselors working with distressed couples may focus intervention efforts on helping individuals with insecure attachment styles to revise their working models or social relationships, perhaps through the use of different cognitive behavioral therapy.

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APPENDIXES

Questionnaire

<u>WHEN WE DISAGREE</u>

How well does each of the following statements describe your **husband /wife** when you two disagree about something and which is important to both of you?
Please circle the appropriate number.

1 = NOT AT ALL
2 = NOT TOO WELL
3 = FAIRLY WELL
4 = VERY WELL

1. S/He tries to avoid talking about it	1	2	3	4
2. S/He gets really wound up and starts shouting	1	2	3	4
3. S/He tries to reason with me	1	2	3	4
4. S/He become a sarcastic	1	2	3	4
5. S/He tries to smooth things over	1	2	3	4
6. S/He listen to what I have to say and tries to understand how I really feel	1	2	3	4
7. S/he clams up, holds in his/her feelings	1	2	3	4
8. S/he tries to work out a compromise	1	2	3	4
9. S/He become cool and distant, gives me the cold shoulder	1	2	3	4
10. S/He gets wound up and walks away	1	2	3	4
11. S/He is very direct and tells me exactly how s/he is feeling	1	2	3	4

12. S/he says or does some thing to hurt my feelings	1	2	3	4
13. S/he does something to let me know S/he really cares about me even if we disagree	1	2	3	4
14. The more we talk the more wound up s/he becomes	1	2	3	4
15. S/he takes a long time to get over feeling wound up	1	2	3	4
16. S/He gets really angry and hits me	1	2	3	4
17. S/He gets really wound up and throws things	1	2	3	4
18. S/He does not listen to my arguments and tells me to shut up	1	2	3	4
19. S/He does not give me much chance to explain	1	2	3	4
20. S/He says that I should not cross the limits of obedience and respect	1	2	3	4

Questionnaire

WHEN WE DISAGREE

How well does each of the following statements describe your **Describe You** when you two disagree about something and which is important to both of you?

Please circle the appropriate number.

1 = NOT AT ALL

2 = NOT TOO WELL

3 = FAIRLY WELL

4 = VERY WELL

1. I tries to avoid talking about it	1	2	3	4
2. I gets really wound up and starts shouting	1	2	3	4
3. I tries to reason with him/her	1	2	3	4
4. I become a sarcastic	1	2	3	4
5. I tries to smooth things over	1	2	3	4
6. I listen to what s/he have to say and tries to understand how s/he really feel	1	2	3	4
7. I clams up, holds in his/her feelings	1	2	3	4
8. I tries to work out a compromise	1	2	3	4
9. I become cool and distant, gives s/he the cold shoulder	1	2	3	4
10. I gets wound up and walks away	1	2	3	4
11. I am very direct and tells him/her exactly how I is feeling	1	2	3	4

12. I says or does some thing to hurt his/her feelings	1	2	3	4
13. I does something to let me know I really cares about him/her even if we disagree	1	2	3	4
14. The more we talk the more wound up I becomes	1	2	3	4
15. I takes a long time to get over feeling wound up	1	2	3	4
16. I gets really angry and hit him/her	1	2	3	4
17. I gets really wound up and throws things	1	2	3	4
18. I do not listen to his/her arguments and tells him/her to shut up	1	2	3	4
19. I does not give him/her much chance to explain	1	2	3	4
20. I says that s/he should not cross the limits of obedience and respect	1	2	3	4

Questionnaire

WHEN WE DISAGREE (Out come)

Different things can happen when two people have a serious disagreement. How often do each of these things happen when you or your partner disagree about something which is important to both of you? Please circle the appropriate number:

1 = Never
2 = Almost never
3 = Once in a while
4 = Fairly often
5 = Very often

1	I end up going along with what s/he wants	1	2	3	4	5
2	I end up feeling annoyed or angry	1	2	3	4	5
3	I feel as though talking about it was a waste of time	1	2	3	4	5
4	Afterwards I feel closer to him/her	1	2	3	4	5
5	We end up agreeing that it is ok to disagree	1	2	3	4	5
6	I end up feeling hurt	1	2	3	4	5
7	Both of us give in to the other a bit	1	2	3	4	5
8	S/he agrees to change but never does	1	2	3	4	5
9	I end up feeling sorry for what I said	1	2	3	4	5
10	After wards I feel closer to him/her	1	2	3	4	5
11	Later s/he uses what I had said, against me	1	2	3	4	5

12	We start out disagreeing about one thing and end up arguing about lots of things.	1	2	3	4	5
13	After wars s/he goes a head and does what s/he wants any way	1	2	3	4	5
14	We have fun making up	1	2	3	4	5
15	S/he ends up going alone with what I want	1	2	3	4	5
16	S/he feeling annoyed or angry	1	2	3	4	5
17	S/he feels as though talking about it was a waste of time	1	2	3	4	5
18	Afterwards s/he feels closer to me	1	2	3	4	5
19	S/he ends up feeling hurt	1	2	3	4	5
20	I agree to change but never do	1	2	3	4	5
21	S/he ends up feeling sorry for what s/he said	1	2	3	4	5
22	Afterwards s/he feels that s/he understand me better then before	1	2	3	4	5
23	Later I use what s/he said against him/her	1	2	3	4	5
24	Afterwards I go ahead and do what I want anyway	1	2	3	4	5

THE EXPERIENCES IN CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS QUESTIONNAIRE- REVISED

The following statements concern how you feel in romantic relationships. We are interested in how you generally experience relationships, not just in what is happening in a current relationship. Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Write the number in the space provided, using the following rating scale:

Sample Items:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral/Mixed	Agree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I'm afraid that I will lose my partner's love.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. I worry that romantic partners won't care about me as much as I care about them.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. I worry a lot about my relationships.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. When my partner is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. When I show my feelings for romantic partners, I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. My romantic partner makes me doubt myself.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. I do not often worry about being abandoned.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. I find that my partner(s) don't want to get as close as I would like.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

13. Sometimes romantic partners change their feelings about me for no apparent reason.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

14. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

15. I'm afraid that once a romantic partner gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

16. It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my partner.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

17. I worry that I won't measure up to other people.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

18. My partner only seems to notice me when I'm angry.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

19. I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

20. I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

21. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on romantic partners.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

22. I am very comfortable being close to romantic partners.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

23. I don't feel comfortable opening up to romantic partners.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

24. I prefer not to be too close to romantic partners.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

25. I get uncomfortable when a romantic partner wants to be very close.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

26. I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

27.	It's not difficult for me to get close to my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	It helps to turn to my romantic partner in times of need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I tell my partner just about everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	I talk things over with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	I am nervous when partners get too close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	I feel comfortable depending on romantic partners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	I find it easy to depend on romantic partners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	It's easy for me to be affectionate with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	My partner really understands me and my needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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ہدایات

میں قومی ادارۂ نفسیات، قائد اعظم یونیورسٹی، اسلام آباد کی طالبہ ہوں اور ایک ریسرچ کر رہی ہوں۔ یہ ایک ایسا ادارہ ہے جو تدریس و تعلیم کے ساتھ ساتھ انسانی اور معاشرتی مسائل پر ریسرچ بھی کرتا ہے۔ موجودہ ریسرچ اسی سلسلے کی ایک کڑی ہے، جس کے لئے ہمیں آپ کا تعاون درکار ہے۔

آپ کی خدمت میں کچھ سوال نامے پیش کئے جا رہے ہیں۔ آپ سے درخواست ہے کہ سوال نامے کے ساتھ دی گئی ہدایات کو غور سے پڑھیں اور ان کی روشنی میں جوابات دیں۔ آپ کو یقین دلایا جاتا ہے کہ آپ سے لی گئی معلومات کو صیغہ راز میں رکھا جائے گا اور صرف تحقیقی مقاصد کے لئے استعمال کی جائیں گی۔ براہ مہربانی کوئی بھی بیان خالی نہ چھوڑیں اور تمام بیانات سے متعلق اپنے جواب کا اظہار ضرور کریں۔ آپ کا تعاون تحقیق میں مددگار ہو گا۔ شکریہ!

کوائف:

نام : _____

جنس : مرد _____ عورت _____

عمر : _____

تعلیم : _____

پیشہ : _____

بچوں کی تعداد : _____

شادی کو کتنا عرصہ گزر چکا ہے؟ : _____

رہائش : ذاتی _____ کرائے پر _____

خاندان کی ماہانہ آمدنی : _____

آمدنی کا کوئی اور ذریعہ : _____

</div>

سوالنامہ (ا۔شوہر)

جب ہم میں اختلاف ہوتا ہے

مندرجہ ذیل ہر بیان کتنی اچھائی سے آپ کی بیوی کے بارے میں بتاتا ہے۔ جب آپ دونوں کسی ایسی بات پر متفق نہ ہوں، جو آپ دونوں کے لئے اہم ہو۔ براہ کرم مناسب بیان پر صحیح کا (✓) نشان لگائیں۔

4	3	2	1		
بالکل صحیح	کافی حد تک	کسی حد تک	بالکل نہیں	بیانات	نمبر شمار
				وہ اس موضوع پر بات کرنے سے گریز کرتی ہے۔	1
				وہ دل برداشتہ ہو جاتی ہے اور چلانا شروع کر دیتی ہے۔	2
				وہ میرے ساتھ بحث کرنے کی کوشش کرتی ہے۔	3
				وہ طنزیہ انداز اپنا لیتی ہے۔	4
				وہ معاملات کو سلجھانے کی کوشش کرتی ہے۔	5
				وہ مجھے سنتی ہے اور سمجھنے کی کوشش کرتی ہے کہ میں کیا محسوس کرتا ہوں۔	6
				وہ خاموش ہو جاتی ہے اور اپنے احساسات چھپا لیتی ہے۔	7
				وہ سمجھوتے کے لئے کوشش کرتی ہے۔	8
				اس کے مزاج میں سرد مہری آ جاتی ہے اور وہ بے رخی سے پیش آتی ہے۔	9
				وہ دل برداشتہ ہو کر چل دیتی ہے۔	10
				وہ بہت صاف گو ہے اور جو کچھ محسوس کرتی ہے، مجھ سے کھل کر کہہ دیتی ہے۔	11
				وہ کسی بات یا حرکت سے میرے جذبات کو ٹھیس پہنچاتی ہے۔	12
				اختلاف کے باوجود وہ ایسا کام کرتی ہے، جس سے اندازہ ہو کہ وہ میرا خیال رکھتی ہے۔	13
				جتنا زیادہ ہم اس موضوع پر بات کرتے ہیں، وہ اتنا ہی زیادہ دل برداشتہ ہو جاتی ہے۔	14
				وہ اپنے مجروح جذبات پر قابو پانے میں کافی وقت لیتی ہے۔	15
				وہ انتہائی غصے میں آ جاتی ہے اور مجھے مارتی ہے۔	16
				وہ انتہائی بپھر جاتی ہے اور چیزیں پھینکتی ہے۔	17
				وہ میری بات نہیں سنتی اور مجھے منہ بند رکھنے کو کہتی ہے۔	18
				وہ مجھے صفائی پیش کرنے کا موقع نہیں دیتی۔	19
				وہ کہتی ہے کہ مجھے تمیز اور عزت کی حدود کو پھلانگنا نہیں چاہئے۔	20

سوالنامہ (ب – شوہر)

جب ہم میں اختلاف ہوتا ہے

مندرجہ ذیل ہر بیان کتنی اچھائی سے آپ کے اپنے بارے میں بتاتے ہیں، جب آپ دونوں کسی ایسی بات پر متفق نہ ہوں جو آپ دونوں (شوہر، بیوی) کے لئے اہم ہو- براہ کرم مناسب بیان پر صحیح (✓) کا نشان لگائیں-

4	3	2	1		
بالکل صحیح	کافی حد تک	کسی حد تک	بالکل نہیں	بیانات	نمبر شمار
				میں اس موضوع پر بات کرنے سے گریز کرتا ہوں-	1
				میں دل برداشتہ ہو جاتا ہوں اور چلانا شروع کر دیتا ہوں-	2
				میں اس کے ساتھ بحث کرنے کی کوشش کرتا ہوں-	3
				میں طنزیہ انداز اپنا لیتا ہوں-	4
				میں معاملات کو سلجھانے کی کوشش کرتا ہوں-	5
				میں اسے سنتا ہوں اور سمجھنے کی کوشش کرتا ہوں کہ وہ کیا محسوس کرتی ہے-	6
				میں خاموش ہو جاتا ہوں اور اپنے احساسات کو چھپا لیتا ہوں-	7
				میں سمجھوتہ کرنے کی کوشش کرتا ہوں-	8
				میرے مزاج میں سرد مہری آ جاتی ہے اور میں بے رخی سے پیش آتا ہوں-	9
				میں دل برداشتہ ہو کر چل دیتا ہوں-	10
				میں بہت صاف گو ہوں اور جو کچھ محسوس کرتا ہوں، اس سے کھل کر کہہ دیتا ہوں-	11
				میں کسی بات یا حرکت سے اس کے جذبات کو ٹھیس پہنچاتا ہوں-	12
				اختلاف کے باوجود میں ایسا کام بھی کرتا ہوں، جس سے اندازہ ہو کہ میں اس کا خیال رکھتا ہوں-	13
				جتنا زیادہ ہم اس موضوع پر بات کرتے ہیں، اتنا ہی زیادہ میں دل برداشتہ ہو جاتا ہوں-	14
				میں اپنے مجروح جذبات پر قابو پانے میں کافی وقت لیتا ہوں-	15
				میں انتہائی غصے میں آ جاتا ہوں اور اسے مارتا ہوں-	16
				میں انتہائی بپھر جاتا ہوں اور چیزوں کو پھینکتا ہوں-	17
				میں اس کی بات نہیں سنتا اور اسے منہ بند رکھنے کو کہتا ہوں-	18
				میں اسے صفائی پیش کرنے کا موقع نہیں دیتا-	19
				میں کہتا ہوں کہ اسے تمیز اور عزت کی حدود کو پھلانگنا نہیں چاہیے-	20

سوالنامہ (ج- شوہر)

جب دولوگوں میں صحیح معنوں میں اختلاف ہو، تو مختلف چیزیں ہوسکتی ہیں۔ نیچے دیئے گئے بیانات کس قدر آپ اور آپ کے شریک حیات کے بارے میں بتاتے ہیں، جب آپ ایک دوسرے سے اختلاف کریں اور جو آپ دونوں کے لئے اہم ہو۔ براہ کرم مناسب بیان پر صحیح (✓) کا نشان لگائیں۔

	5	4	3	2	1		
	بہت دفعہ	اکثر اوقات	کبھی کبھار	تقریباً کبھی نہیں	کبھی نہیں	بیانات	نمبر شمار
						میں بالآخر وہی کرتا ہوں، جو وہ چاہتی ہے۔	1
						میں آخرکار غصہ اور چڑچڑاہٹ محسوس کرتا ہوں۔	2
						مجھے لگتا ہے جیسے اس کے متعلق گفتگو کرنا وقت کا ضیاع تھا۔	3
						بعد میں، میں خود کو اس کے زیادہ قریب محسوس کرتا ہوں۔	4
						آخرکار ہم اس بات پر متفق ہو جاتے ہیں کہ اختلاف کرنا کوئی بری بات نہیں۔	5
						میرے جذبات مجروح ہو جاتے ہیں۔	6
						کسی حد تک، ہم دونوں ہار مان لیتے ہیں۔	7
						وہ تبدیلی پر آمادہ تو ہو جاتی ہے، مگر کبھی بھی ایسا کرتی نہیں۔	8
						مجھے بالآخر اپنے کہے پر افسوس ہوتا ہے۔	9
						بعد ازاں مجھے محسوس ہوتا ہے کہ میں اسے پہلے سے بہتر سمجھتا ہوں۔	10
						بعد میں وہ میری کہی ہوئی بات کو میرے ہی خلاف استعمال کرتی ہے۔	11
						ہم ایک چیز کے بارے میں اختلاف سے شروع کرتے ہیں اور اختتام بے شمار چیزوں پر بحث کرتے ہوئے ہوتا ہے۔	12
						آخرکار وہ وہی کرتی ہے، جو وہ چاہتی ہے۔	13
						ہمیں لڑائی کے بعد دوستی کرنے میں مزا آتا ہے۔	14
						بالآخر وہ میری مرضی کے مطابق چلتی ہے۔	15
						وہ آخرکار غصہ اور چڑچڑاہٹ محسوس کرتی ہے۔	16
						اسے لگتا ہے کہ اس کے متعلق بات کرنا وقت کا ضیاع تھا۔	17
						بعد ازاں وہ خود کو میرے زیادہ قریب محسوس کرتی ہے۔	18
						اس کے جذبات مجروح ہو جاتے ہیں۔	19
						میں تبدیلی پر آمادہ تو ہو جاتا ہوں، مگر کبھی بھی ایسا کرتا نہیں۔	20
						اسے بالآخر اس کے کہے پر افسوس ہوتا ہے۔	21
						بعد ازاں اسے محسوس ہوتا ہے کہ وہ مجھے پہلے سے بہتر سمجھتی ہے۔	22
						بعد میں، میں اس کی کہی ہوئی بات کو اس کے خلاف استعمال کرتا ہوں۔	23
						آخرکار میں وہی کرتا ہوں، جو میں چاہتا ہوں۔	24

قریبی تعلقات کے تجربات پر ایک ترمیم شدہ سوالنامہ (شوہر)

درج ذیل بیانات ان احساسات کے متعلق ہیں جو آپ قریبی تعلقات میں محسوس کرتے ہیں۔ ہم یہ جاننے میں دلچسپی رکھتے ہیں کہ آپ کو عام طور پر قریبی تعلقات کا کیسا تجربہ ہوتا ہے۔ ہر بیان کے سامنے صحیح (✓) کا نشان لگا کر بتائیں کہ آپ کس حد تک اس سے متفق ہیں؟

7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
بالکل متفق	متفق	کسی حد تک متفق	غیر جانب دار	کسی حد تک غیر متفق	غیر متفق	بالکل غیر متفق	بیانات	نمبر شمار
							میری پریشانی یہ ہے کہ میری شریک حیات میرا اتنا خیال نہیں رکھتی، جتنا کہ میں اس کا خیال رکھتا ہوں۔	1
							مجھے خوف ہے کہ میں اپنی شریک حیات کی محبت سے محروم ہو جاؤں گا۔	2
							جب میں اپنی شریک حیات کے لئے اپنے جذبات کا اظہار کرتا ہوں، تو مجھے ڈر ہوتا ہے کہ وہ میرے بارے میں ویسا ہی محسوس نہیں کرے گی۔	3
							ضرورت کے وقت شریک حیات کے پاس جانا مددگار ثابت ہوتا ہے۔	4
							میں اپنی شریک حیات پر انحصار کرنے میں آسانی پاتا ہوں۔	5
							میں اکثر پریشان ہوتا ہوں کہ میری شریک حیات میرے ساتھ نہیں رہنا چاہے گی۔	6
							میں محسوس کرتا ہوں کہ میری شریک حیات میرے اتنا نزدیک نہیں ہونا چاہتی، جتنا کہ میں چاہتا ہوں۔	7
							میں اکثر خواہش کرتا ہوں کہ کاش میرے شریک حیات کے جذبات میرے لئے اتنے ہی شدید ہوتے، جتنے کہ میرے جذبات اس کے لئے ہیں۔	8
							میں اپنی شریک حیات کے قریب آنے میں سکون محسوس کرتا ہوں۔	9
							جب میری شریک حیات بہت زیادہ قربت چاہتی ہے، تو میں مشکل محسوس کرتا ہوں۔	10
							میری شریک حیات مجھے اور میری ضروریات کو واقعی سمجھتی ہے۔	11
							میں اپنی شریک حیات سے چیزوں کے بارے میں بات کرتا ہوں۔	12
							یہ بات مجھے پاگل کر دیتی ہے کہ مجھے اپنی شریک حیات سے وہ محبت اور سہارا نہیں ملتا، جو میں چاہتا ہوں۔	13
							میں اپنے تعلقات کے بارے میں اکثر پریشان رہتا ہوں۔	14

7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
بالکل متفق	متفق	کسی حد تک متفق	غیرجانب دار	کسی حد تک غیر متفق	غیر متفق	بالکل غیر متفق	بیانات	نمبرشار
							میری شریک حیات صرف تب ہی مجھے توجہ دیتی ہے، جب میں غصہ میں ہوتا ہوں۔	15
							جب میری شریک حیات میری نظروں سے اوجھل ہو، تو میں پریشان ہوتا ہوں کہ کہیں وہ کسی اور دلچسپی نہ لینے لگے۔	16
							میں اپنے احساسات و جذبات اپنے شریک حیات کو بتا کر بہت پرسکون محسوس کرتا ہوں۔	17
							میں اپنی شریک حیات پر انحصار کرنے میں سکون محسوس کرتا ہوں۔	18
							میرے لئے اپنی شریک حیات کے قریب رہنا مشکل نہیں ہے۔	19
							میں اپنی اندرونی کیفیات کو اپنی شریک حیات پر ظاہر کرنے کو ترجیح نہیں دیتا۔	20
							مجھے اپنی شریک حیات پر انحصار کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔	21
							میں اپنی شریک حیات کے ساتھ بہت زیادہ قربت کو ترجیح نہیں دیتا۔	22
							مجھے اپنی شریک حیات سے کھل کر بات کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔	23
							میں اپنی شریک حیات کے ساتھ شفقت سے پیش آنے میں آسانی محسوس کرتا ہوں۔	24
							بعض اوقات میری شریک حیات بغیر کسی ظاہری وجہ کے، مجھ سے بدل جاتی ہے۔	25
							مجھے اپنی شریک حیات کی وجہ سے خود پر شک ہونے لگتا ہے۔	26
							مجھے اگر چھوڑ دیا جائے تو میں اس پر زیادہ پریشان نہیں ہوتا۔	27
							میں اپنی شریک حیات کے زیادہ قریب ہونے پر گھبرا جاتا ہوں۔	28
							میں اپنی شریک حیات کے ساتھ قربت کو نسبتا آسان محسوس کرتا ہوں۔	29
							میں پریشان ہوتا ہوں کہ میں دوسروں کے معیار پر پورا نہیں اتروں گا۔	30
							مجھے خوف ہے کہ میری شریک حیات جب مجھے جان لے گی، تو وہ مجھے پسند نہیں کرے گی۔	31
							کئی دفعہ میرے بہت قریب ہونے کی خواہش لوگوں کو مجھ سے دور کر دیتی ہے۔	32
							میں عام طور پر اپنی شریک حیات سے اپنے مسائل اور ترجیحات پر بات کرتا ہوں۔	33
			؟				میں اکثر پریشان ہوتا ہوں کہ میری شریک حیات مجھ سے درحقیقت محبت نہیں کرتی۔	34
							میری شریک حیات مجھے میرے بارے میں شک میں ڈال دیتی ہے۔	35
							میں اپنے شریک حیات کو سب باتیں بتا دیتا ہوں۔	36

سوالنامہ (ا - بیوی)

جب ہم میں اختلاف ہوتا ہے

مندرجہ ذیل ہر بیان کتنی اچھائی سے آپ کے شوہر کے بارے میں بتاتا ہے- جب آپ دونوں کسی ایسی بات پر متفق نہ ہوں، جو آپ دونوں کے لئے اہم ہو- براہ کرم مناسب بیان پر صحیح (✓) لگائیں۔

ہالکل صحیح	کافی حد تک	کسی حد تک	بالکل نہیں	بیانات	نمبر شمار
4	3	2	1		
				وہ اس موضوع پر بات کرنے سے گریز کرتا ہے۔	1
				وہ دل برداشتہ ہوجاتا رہتا ہے اور چلنا شروع کر دیتا ہے۔	2
				وہ میرے ساتھ بحث کرنے کی کوشش کرتا ہے۔	3
				وہ طنزیہ انداز اپنا لیتا ہے۔	4
				وہ معاملات کو سلجھانے کی کوشش کرتا ہے۔	5
				وہ مجھے سنتا ہے اور سمجھنے کی کوشش کرتا ہے کہ میں کیا محسوس کرتی ہوں۔	6
				وہ خاموش ہوجاتا ہے اور اپنے احساسات چھپا لیتا ہے۔	7
				وہ سمجھوتے کے لئے کوشش کرتا ہے۔	8
				اس کے مزاج میں سردمہری آجاتی ہے اور وہ بےرخی سے پیش آتا ہے۔	9
				وہ دل برداشتہ ہوکر چل دیتا ہے۔	10
				وہ بہت صاف گو ہے اور جو کچھ محسوس کرتا ہے، مجھ سے کھل کر کہہ دیتا ہے۔	11
				وہ کسی بات یا حرکت سے میرے جذبات کو ٹھیس پہنچاتا ہے۔	12
				اختلاف کے باوجود وہ ایسا کام کرتا ہے، جس سے اندازہ ہوکہ وہ میرا خیال رکھتا ہے۔	13
				جتنا زیادہ ہم اس موضوع پر بات کرتے ہیں، وہ اتنا زیادہ دل برداشتہ ہوجاتا ہے۔	14
				وہ اپنے مجروح جذبات پر قابو پانے میں کافی وقت لیتا ہے۔	15
				وہ انتہائی غصے میں آجاتا ہے اور مجھے مارتا ہے۔	16
				وہ انتہائی بپھر جاتا ہے اور چیزیں پھینکتا ہے۔	17
				وہ میری بات نہیں سنتا اور مجھے منہ بند کرنے کو کہتا ہے۔	18
				وہ مجھے صفائی پیش کرنے کا موقع نہیں دیتا۔	19
				وہ کہتا ہے کہ مجھے تمیز اور عزت کی حدود کو پھلانگنا نہیں چاہئے۔	20

سوالنامہ (ب – بیوی)

جب ہم میں اختلاف ہوتا ہے

مندرجہ ذیل ہر بیان کتنی اچھائی سے آپ کے اپنے بارے میں بتاتے ہیں، جب آپ دونوں کسی ایسی بات پر متفق نہ ہوں جو آپ دونوں (شوہر بیوی) کے لئے اہم ہو۔ براہ کرم مناسب بیان پر صحیح (✓) کا نشان لگائیں۔

4	3	2	1		
بالکل صحیح	کافی حد تک	کسی حد تک	بالکل نہیں	بیانات	نمبر شمار
				میں اس موضوع پر بات کرنے سے گریز کرتی ہوں۔	1
				میں دل برداشتہ ہو جاتی ہوں اور چلانا شروع کر دیتی ہوں۔	2
				میں اس کے ساتھ بحث کرنے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں۔	3
				میں طنزیہ انداز اپنا لیتی ہوں۔	4
				میں معاملات کو سلجھانے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں۔	5
				میں اسے سنتی ہوں اور سمجھنے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں کہ وہ کیا محسوس کرتا ہے۔	6
				میں خاموش ہو جاتی ہوں اور اپنے احساسات کو چھپا لیتی ہوں۔	7
				میں سمجھوتہ کرنے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں۔	8
				میرے مزاج میں سرد مہری آ جاتی ہے اور میں بے رخی سے پیش آتی ہوں۔	9
				میں دل برداشتہ ہو کر چل دیتی ہوں۔	10
				میں بہت صاف گو ہوں اور جو کچھ محسوس کرتی ہوں، اس سے کھل کر کہہ دیتی ہوں۔	11
				میں کسی بات یا حرکت سے اس کے جذبات کو ٹھیس پہنچاتی ہوں۔	12
				اختلاف کے بعد بھی میں ایسا کام بھی کرتی ہوں، جس سے اندازہ ہو کہ میں اس کا خیال رکھتی ہوں۔	13
				جتنا زیادہ ہم اس موضوع پر بات کرتے ہیں، اتنا ہی زیادہ میں دل برداشتہ ہو جاتی ہوں۔	14
				میں اپنے مجروح جذبات پر قابو پانے میں کافی وقت لیتی ہوں۔	15
				میں انتہائی غصے میں آ جاتی ہوں اور اسے مارتی ہوں۔	16
				میں انتہائی بپھر جاتی ہوں اور چیزوں کو پھینکتی ہوں۔	17
				میں اس کی بات نہیں سنتی اور اسے منہ بند رکھنے کو کہتی ہوں۔	18
				میں اسے صفائی پیش کرنے کا موقع نہیں دیتی۔	19
				میں کہتی ہوں کہ اسے تمیز اور عزت کی حدود کو پھلانگنا نہیں چاہیئے۔	20

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سوالنامہ (ج- بیوی)

جب دو لوگوں میں صحیح معنوں میں اختلاف ہو، تو مختلف چیزیں ہوسکتی ہیں۔ نیچے دیئے گئے بیانات کس قدر آپ اور آپ کے شریک حیات کے بارے میں بتاتے ہیں، جب آپ ایک دوسرے سے اختلاف کریں اور جو آپ دونوں کے لئے اہم ہو۔ براہ کرم مناسب بیان پر صحیح (✓) کا نشان لگائیں۔

5	4	3	2	1		
بہت دفعہ	اکثر اوقات	کبھی کبھار	تقریباً کبھی نہیں	کبھی نہیں	بیانات	نمبر شمار
					میں بالآخر وہی کرتی ہوں، جو وہ چاہتا ہے۔	1
					میں آخر کار غصہ اور چڑچڑاہٹ محسوس کرتی ہوں۔	2
					مجھے لگتا ہے جیسے اس کے متعلق گفتگو کرنا وقت کا ضیاع تھا۔	3
					بعد میں، میں خود کو اس کے زیادہ قریب محسوس کرتی ہوں۔	4
					آخر کار ہم اس بات پر متفق ہو جاتے ہیں کہ اختلاف کرنا کوئی بری بات نہیں۔	5
					میرے جذبات مجروح ہو جاتے ہیں۔	6
					کسی حد تک، ہم دونوں ہار مان لیتے ہیں۔	7
					وہ تبدیلی پر آمادہ تو ہو جاتا ہے، مگر کبھی بھی ایسا نہیں کرتا۔	8
					مجھے بالآخر اپنے کہے پر افسوس ہوتا ہے۔	9
					بعد ازاں مجھے محسوس ہوتا ہے کہ میں اسے پہلے سے بہتر سمجھتی ہوں۔	10
					بعد میں وہ میری کہی ہوئی بات کو میرے ہی خلاف استعمال کرتا ہے۔	11
					ہم ایک چیز کے بارے میں اختلاف سے شروع کرتے ہیں اور اختتام بے شمار چیزوں پر بحث کرتے ہوئے ہوتا ہے۔	12
					آخر کار وہ وہی کرتا ہے، جو وہ چاہتا ہے۔	13
					ہمیں لڑائی کے بعد دوستی کرنے میں مزا آتا ہے۔	14
					بالآخر میری مرضی کے مطابق چلتا ہے۔	15
					وہ آخر کار غصہ اور چڑچڑاہٹ محسوس کرتا ہے۔	16
					اسے لگتا ہے کہ اس کے متعلق بات کرنا وقت کا ضیاع تھا۔	17
					بعد ازاں وہ خود کو میرے زیادہ قریب محسوس کرتا ہے۔	18
					اس کے جذبات مجروح ہو جاتے ہیں۔	19
					میں تبدیلی پر آمادہ تو ہو جاتی ہوں، مگر کبھی بھی ایسا کرتی نہیں۔	20
					اسے بالآخر اس کے کہنے پر افسوس ہوتا ہے۔	21
					بعد ازاں اسے محسوس ہوتا ہے کہ وہ مجھے پہلے سے بہتر سمجھتا ہے۔	22
					بعد میں، میں اس کی کہی ہوئی بات کو اس کے خلاف استعمال کرتی ہوں۔	23
					آخر کار میں وہی کرتی ہوں، جو میں چاہتی ہوں۔	24

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Appendix-M

نمبر شمار	تفصیل	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								
6								
7								
8								
9								
10								
11								
12								
13								
14								

7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
بالکل متفق	متفق	کسی حد تک متفق	غیر جانب دار	کسی حد تک غیر متفق	غیر متفق	بالکل غیر متفق	بیانات	نمبر شمار
							میرا شریک حیات صرف تب ہی مجھے توجہ دیتا ہے، جب میں غصہ میں ہوتی ہوں۔	15
							جب میرا شریک حیات میری نظروں سے اوجھل ہو، تو میں پریشان ہوتی ہوں کہ کہیں وہ کسی اور میں دلچسپی نہ لینے لگے۔	16
							میں اپنے احساسات و جذبات اپنے شریک حیات کو بتا کر بہت پرسکون محسوس کرتی ہوں۔	17
							میں اپنے شریک حیات پر انحصار کرنے میں سکون محسوس کرتی ہوں۔	18
							میرے لئے اپنے شریک حیات کے قریب رہنا مشکل نہیں ہے۔	19
							میں اپنی اندرونی کیفیات کو اپنے شریک حیات پر ظاہر کرنے کو ترجیح نہیں دیتی۔	20
							مجھے اپنے شریک حیات پر انحصار کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔	21
							میں اپنے شریک حیات کے ساتھ بہت زیادہ قربت کو ترجیح نہیں دیتی۔	22
							مجھے اپنے شریک حیات سے کھل کر بات کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔	23
							میں اپنے شریک حیات کے ساتھ شفقت سے پیش آنے میں آسانی محسوس کرتی ہوں۔	24
							بعض اوقات میرا شریک حیات بغیر کسی ظاہری وجہ کے، مجھ سے بد دل ہو جاتا ہے۔	25
							مجھے اپنے شریک حیات کی وجہ سے خود پر شک ہونے لگتا ہے۔	26
							مجھے اگر چھوڑ دیا جائے تو میں اس پر زیادہ پریشان نہیں ہوتی۔	27
							میں اپنے شریک حیات کے زیادہ قریب ہونے پر گھبرا جاتی ہوں۔	28
							میں اپنے شریک حیات کے ساتھ قربت کو نسبتاً آسان محسوس کرتی ہوں۔	29
							میں پریشان ہوتی ہوں کہ میں دوسروں کے معیار پر پورا نہیں اتروں گی۔	30
							مجھے خوف ہے کہ میرا شریک حیات جب مجھے جان لے گا، تو وہ مجھے پسند نہیں کرے گا۔	31
							کئی دفعہ میرے بہت قریب ہونے کی خواہش لوگوں کو مجھ سے دور کر دیتی ہے۔	32
							میں عام طور پر اپنے شریک حیات سے اپنے مسائل اور ترجیحات پر بات کرتی ہوں۔	33
							میں اکثر پریشان ہوتی ہوں کہ میرا شریک حیات مجھ سے درحقیقت محبت نہیں کرتا۔	34
							میرا شریک حیات مجھے میرے بارے میں شک میں ڈال دیتا ہے۔	35
							میں اپنے شریک حیات کو سب باتیں بتا دیتی ہوں۔	36