Predictors of Marital Satisfaction in Arranged Marriages in Saudi Arabia

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the studies reported in this thesis was to investigate marital satisfaction in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia, exploring whether the predictors of marital satisfaction that were found in the West were also predictors of marital satisfaction in Saudi Arabia. Additionally, the hypothesis that marital satisfaction and love increase with the duration of marriage among arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia was tested.

In order to investigate marital satisfaction in this context, the VSA-Model from Karney and Bradbury (1995) was adopted to organize the variables that affect marital satisfaction into three groups. The first group, Enduring Vulnerability, included Relationship Questionnaire (RQ), Experience in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R), Inclusion of Others in the Self (IOS), Love, Sexual Satisfaction, and the Big Five scales. The second group, Stressful Events, included Attitude towards Family-in-Law, Stressful Events, and Arguments scales. The third group of predictors in the VSA Model was Adaptive Processes and consisted of the Conflict Behaviour Scale (CBS), Power, and Decision Making scales. The criterion validity was assessed using Relationship Assessment Scale and Satisfaction with Life Scale.

Three studies were conducted and a total of 549 people (246 husbands, 303 wives) were recruited. Participants were chosen from private hospitals, shopping malls, banks, government schools, through friends, and from King Fahad Medical City.

All scales were translated from English to Arabic. After translation, scale reliability was examined, and principle components analyses were conducted to examine the factor structure of each translated scale.

Some predictors of marital satisfaction differed across husbands and wives. For wives, the Stressful Events scale predicted lower marital satisfaction and their ratings of their partners' PB (measured on a new subscale found through principle components analysis of scales included in this study) higher marital satisfaction. For husbands, Dismissing attachment style predicted negative marital satisfaction, and high ratings of Extraversion predicted positive marital satisfaction.

Husbands and wives shared some predictors of marital satisfaction. For both, secure attachment predicted greater marital satisfaction. The Status scale was a negative predictor of marital satisfaction for both sexes. When the status of the husband was higher than that of the wife, marital satisfaction was higher for both husbands and wives, and when the status of the husband was lower than that of the wife, marital satisfaction was lower for both husbands and wives. Finally, for both husbands and wives, their own Negative Behaviour predicted low marital satisfaction.

The relationship between marital satisfaction and marriage duration was not significant. Both husbands and wives started marriage with an average level of satisfaction. The husbands maintained an average satisfaction level, but wives' marital satisfaction, while remaining average, dropped slightly during the marriage.

Results showed that love was positively correlated with marital and life satisfaction among the Saudi arranged marriages. However, the relationship between love and marriage duration was negative but not significant. Both husbands and wives started their marriage with an average level of love, but husbands' levels of reported love, though still in range of average, decreased slightly in the duration of the marriage. Wives also maintained an average level of love through the years of marriage. However, the Love scale was not a significant predictor of marital satisfaction. The results of this study might be a starting point for further research in marital satisfaction and its predictors among arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia. The study did have limitations. This study was a cross-sectional study, with the limitations inherent to such a design. A longitudinal study would allow for examining and tracking other aspects of marital satisfaction with the duration of marriage. The sample was biased towards higher education and income, and so it may be worth replicating this study with a more typical sample to confirm that results generalize.

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis represents my own work, except where due acknowledgement is made, and that it has not been previously submitted to this university or any other institution for a degree or other award.

CHAPTER 1

MARRIAGE TYPES, MARRIAGE IN THE WEST, IN SAUDI ARABIA, AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.1 Introduction

Almost all societies adopt the social institution of marriage which can be defined as a publicly committed union between two partners, traditionally between a man and a woman, though stable unions between same-sex partners are becoming increasingly accepted in the West. However, in the current studies, the use of the term marriage refers only to heterosexual marriages.

In Western cultures, marital partnerships arise most often through the free choice of the couple, in contrast with Middle Eastern countries such as Syria, Egypt, Lebanon, and Jordan, where marital partnerships are often arranged between individuals who may be only slightly familiar with each other through family or existing non-intimate friendships. The situation in marriages in the Gulf is much more formal. In the country of this study, Saudi Arabia, the overwhelming majority of marriages are arranged by the parents and individuals entering the union of marriage do not know each other prior to the marriage. Social change is leading to rising divorce rates in Western cultures, with rates in Finland, Switzerland and Sweden reaching more than 50%. Ten years ago, in 1999, divorce rates in Western Europe ranged from 35% to 50%. In 2002, it was revealed that divorce rate is around 5 (or higher) per 1,000 married people (Gonzalez & Viitanen, 2006). The rising divorce rate has lead to a proliferation of studies on marriage, which focus on, for example, predictors of satisfaction (Levenson & Gottman, 1985), marital stability (Gottman, 1993), reasons for divorce (Gottman, 1993, 2000; Booth, 1999; Sanders, Halford & Behrens, 1999; Knoester, 2000) and consequences of divorce (Lorenz et al., 1997). However, rising divorce rates are not a purely Western phenomenon. Divorce rates in formally arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia are also rising (7.65%, including women who married more than once; Central Department of Statistics & Information, 2007). This is the percentage documented in the courts, but several divorce cases do not register at the court.

Almost all studies that identify factors such as personal vulnerabilities and quality of intrapersonal skills, which mediate and/or moderate marital outcomes, focus on Western

marriage (Karney & Bradbury, 1995) and can be categorized as physical (Peterson, 1979; Veenhoven, 1989), psychological (Eysenck & Wakefield,1981), social, economic (Cutright, 1971), and cultural (Burr, 1971; Warner & Lee,1986). This study addresses the fact that little or no work has focused on marital outcomes in arranged marriage including Muttaa and Misyar marriages (described in a later section) in Saudi Arabia. As discussed below, marriage occurs in various forms around the world.

1.2 Marriage Anthropological Types

Social anthropological and socio-biological literature distinguishes between different types of marriage that are found around the world (Turner, 1996).

One of these forms is monogamy, a social custom or condition of having only one mate in a relationship thus forming a couple. Three varieties of monogamy, including social, sexual and genetic, have been described (Reichard & Boesch, 2003). Social monogamy, which does not always involve marriage, refers to two people who live together, have sex with one another and cooperate in acquiring basic resources. Social monogamy is a term applied to an unmarried cohabiting couple. Sexual monogamy is a relationship in which two people do not have sexual partners outside of the relationship. Genetic monogamy describes two partners who have offspring only with one another. In Western culture a fourth type of monogamy, serial monogamy, is also commonly reported. Serial monogamy characterizes single individuals who have histories of multiple socially and sexually monogamous relationships (Pillsworth & Haselton, 2005).

A second form of marriage is polyandry, in which one woman is married to two or more husbands at the same time. Fraternal polyandry is a form of polyandry in which two or more brothers marry the same woman (Goldstein, 1987). These two forms of marriage serve certain social challenges, such as birth control and undivided lands, by maintaining one set of heirs per generation. Although completely banned in Islam and Judaism, polyandrous relationships are sill practiced in some societies of the Eastern and Western world such as a few rural regions in India, China and Nepal (Goldstein, 1987).

Levirate marriage is the practice in which the brother of a man who dies marries the surviving widow. This is technically not true polyandry, but serves the purpose of producing an heir to the deceased brother's inheritance (Beswick, 2001).

Polygyny refers to polygamy (or plural marriage) in which one man has two or more wives simultaneously. Polygyny is by far the most common and traditionally practiced

in Middle East and African cultures. It should be noted however, that polygamy is prohibited by law in Tunisia, Turkey and Bosnia-Herzegovina although the regions are predominantly Muslim. Notably, other major religions including Judaism, Buddhism, Hinduism and Christianity strongly discourage polygamy, but this has not always been the case. Polygamous marriage is prohibited in all Western countries (Bruce, 2003).

Bigamy occurs when people are allowed only one spouse at a time, but a legally married person "marries" a second individual (i.e., while the first spouse is still living or without divorcing the first spouse). In India and in Western cultures, the second marriage would be illegal.

Trigamy refers to the situation in which one individual has three spouses at the same time. In Middle East and African cultures, a man is legally allowed to have a maximum of four wives simultaneously, but a woman is prohibited from having more than one husband.

Prior to Islam, Arabs could have an unlimited number of wives, sometimes reaching as many as ten. The law of Islam has limited polygamy and restricted the number of wives a man may have to four. This religious law requires that all wives must be treated equally, therefore for a man to have more than one wife within traditional Muslim marriage is less common today.

1.3 Cohabitation and Western Marriage

With apparently the whole world of people to choose from, how does a Westerner choose a marriage partner? Early studies, theoretically supported by compatibility models, suggest that the process of mate selection includes flirting, courtship and possibly cohabiting in the premarital period leading up to choice marriages (Udry, 1974; Hills, Rubin & Peplau, 1976).Criteria cited for choice marriage have been mainly love, mutual attraction, social similarity, sharing same values, education level, hobbies, activities, and role preferences (Houts, Robins, & Huston, 1996; Lee & Stone, 1980; Watson, 1983). Couples are compatible based on these criteria are more likely to fall in love and more likely to move towards a decision to marry.

The process in choice marriage most often starts by steady dating for a period of time, followed by formal engagement, then marriage. In the West, the central idea underlying courtship is mate selection by couples themselves in an interpersonal process (Huston et al., 1981) free from the pressure of family, which contrasts with arranged marriages in which the

chief protagonists are the families of the couple who may not even know each other at all. However, it may be the case that parents evaluate potential marriage partners for their children using similar criteria to those used by the potential marriage partners themselves in Western culture, for instance, social similarity, education, employment, and values (Udry, 1974).

Burgess and Wallin (1944) were amongst the first to state that features of premarital relationships may predict possible patterns of marital interactions and marital satisfaction. When assessed three years after their marriage, couples who seemed had well adjusted in their engagement period were shown to be happier in their marital life. This research also suggested that compatibility in backgrounds and personality factors contributed to marital satisfaction. Moreover, Burgess and his colleague also found that length of engagement, the closeness of the relationship during engagement, i.e., "engagement success", and the length of acquaintance prior to marriage were important predictors of the subsequent happiness and stability of the relationship (Burgess & Wallin, 1944; Blood, 1969; Katz & Beach, 1997; Murstein, 1980). On the other hand, DeMaris and MacDonald (1993) found that long courtships make the transition to marriage difficult for both partners. Their research on couples having long premarital courtship and recurrent cohabiters showed fear of losing autonomy within marriage, and it also increased the likelihood of early disappointment in their later marital relationship. Tamara-Goldman (1996) concluded that a long courtship has little impact on martial satisfaction.

Judith Wallerstein (as cited in Parker, 2002) described different types of marriage, one of which she called Traditional marriage, in which the children are central to the marital relationships. The spouses are share mutual respect, are committed to long-term relationships, hold realistic discussions on disagreements, and make compromises. In Traditional marriage, the woman takes charge of the home and the family, and the man is the primary income earner (Parker, 2002). Hetherington (2003) also identified this kind of marriage as having distinctly defined roles with low divorce rate.

Although apparently Western choice marriage and Saudi arranged marriages arrive at the union of a couple by a very different process, it seems that the aim within the marriage and the ingredients for the marriage's success and the partners' satisfaction are the same. The qualities described as traditional in Western marriages by Wallerstein and Hetherington are compatible with the desires of Saudi parents seeking a successful union for their children.

1.4 Marriage in Saudi Arabia

As stated above, the processes leading to marriage in the West and in Saudi Arabia are different, and typical or conventional marriage in Saudi Arabia is described in detail in Chapter 3.4.1. In the Middle East, cohabitation is uncommon and is neither socially nor religiously acceptable. Dating does exist in some of the Middle East countries, such as Egypt and Syria, but in a more discrete way than the West. For example, in the Middle East a young person who is dating would not tell an elder that he or she was seeing someone regularly, although he or she might tell peers. Furthermore, norms and expectations vary between social levels with the lower social classes prohibiting dating.

In Saudi Arabia the marriage system is unique. Dating and cohabitating are not permitted in any social level and arranged marriage is the norm. Further details of this system will be explained in Chapter 3.4, which provides an overview on Saudi Arabia. However, for the current study it is important to understand that there are multiple forms of arranged marriage and to look at the distinctions between two other relatively common forms of arranged marriage. It is important to consider these forms of marriage in the context of this study because some of the data derived will have arisen from them, although participants are unlikely to have reported being in a Misyar or Muttaa marriage and will thus not be able to be identified.

Broadly speaking, the Muslim world is divided between Shia and Sunni communities. Each of these communities includes its own non-traditional form of marriage; despite the fact that these non-traditional forms of marriage are legal, they can be equated with extramarital affairs in Western society. Because these non-traditional marriages may impact the data in the current sample, it is important to understand them.

1.4.1 Misyar Marriage

In the Sunni community, the non-traditional marital contract is known as Misyar. Misyar means "passing by." The couple agree contractually to a marriage but often under the condition that there will be no children. This type of marriage has no time limit, and the male spouse tends to keep it secret from his current wife and in some cases secret from his family so the marriage cannot be openly declared. The female spouse is usually unmarried, widowed or divorced. The Misyar couple do not live under the same roof. Nonetheless, when the man calls to say he will be passing by, the Misyar wife will be there for him. Misyar is common in

Saudi Arabia and other Gulf countries. According to the knowledge of the researcher, both types are contractual and legally accepted.

It is unusual and not socially accepted, but a man can have more than one Misyar wife at a time. Under any type of Islamic marriage, a woman is only allowed one husband at a time. Children from previous marriages do not interfere in Misyar marriages, or in Muttaa marriages, described in the next section.

1.4.2 Muttaa Marriage

The parallel system in the Shia community is known as Muttaa marriage, which under Shia understanding of Islamic law is legal. Muttaa means "pleasurable," and it is another type of non-traditional marriage. The Muttaa is a time-bound contract between a man who may or may not be married and a woman who is not married. It is temporary within dates agreed by the couple and is a convenient relationship in which both partners separate at the end of the contract with no legal responsibility on either side. People enter this form of short-term marriage for sexual enjoyment for both the man and the woman. The woman also gains financial benefit with only minimal to moderate expense for the male partner.

As the Sunni regard Misyar marriage as legal, the Shia regards Muttaa marriage as legal. Whereas, wide spread though they may be, Western extramarital affairs have no legality.

Muttaa marriage, although accepted among the Shia, are not acceptable among the Sunni. Muttaa marriage has no validity from the Sunni's religious perspective. Muttaa marriage has a time limit, which is specified when the contract is written, but the valid time span of marriage in Islam should not be specified. Moreover, the wife in Muttaa marriage has no legal right, and she will not be divorced but she will be free by the end of her contract. In the Sunni-accepted Misyar marriage, the wife has all the legal rights guaranteed by her conventional marriage in Saudi Arabia and, for example, can inherit from her husband. In practice, she rarely exercises this right. For example, if the Misyar wife is old and wealthy enough in her own right, she will give up the inheritance for the sake of having a legal husband.

It is important to recognize the extent to which both Muttaa and Misyar marriages are legal and socially accepted within their cultures, because some of the data in the currents studies will undoubtedly be from such marriages. Thus the data derived from both husbands and wives in this study on arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia will not reveal which kind of

marriage he or she regards as affording marital satisfaction. However, because such marriages are legal in Saudi culture and not considered as extramarital, the data will still be valid. For male subjects who may have more than one marriage at the time, it was important to make clear to them that their responses should be based on just one current relationship, the currently most salient marriage.

1.5 Research Questions

As mentioned above, the majority of literature concerns marriage and its outcomes in the West. In later chapters, many cross-cultural studies are discussed.

The goal of this study is to address the lacunae in research knowledge about the success or failure of arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia. If predictors of marital satisfaction can be identified in Saudi Arabian culture, there is a greater possibility that work with couples who are having difficulties could be facilitated. Greater knowledge could also benefit the marital system as a whole. That is if predictors of marital satisfaction in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia are similar to marital satisfaction in choice marriages in the West, it might be the case that predictors of marital satisfaction are universal. This increased knowledge could be a benefit to the marital system as a whole

It is hypothesized that predictors of marital satisfaction in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia will be similar to those found in Western studies on marital satisfaction, because, as already discussed, the criteria used to select a partner are very different in Saudi Arabia. Also, the goal of satisfaction within the marriage it is likely the same in both cultures. In order to ascertain the predictors of marital satisfaction among Saudi Arabian arranged marriages, a battery of culturally modified scales in Arabic were prepared.

A second hypothesis is that marital satisfaction increases with the duration of marriage among arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia.

The third hypothesis is that love increases with the duration of marriage among the arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia.

Before discussing the details of studies that constitute this thesis, it is vital to know what constitutes "Marital Success". The literature on what constitutes Marital Success is reviewed in Chapter Two. The sub-sections in Chapter Two include the Concept, Time Course, Assessment and Predictors of Marital Satisfaction. In the section concerning predictors of marital satisfaction, the Karney and Bradbury's (1995) model is used as a guide, and the sub-sections are ordered according to this model.

In Chapter Three, I review studies concerning Marital Success across Cultures, which includes Trans-Cultural Views on Love and Arranged Marriages; Culture, Love, and Marriage; Culture and Gender-Divergence in Dismissing Attachment Style in Romantic Relationships and, finally, an Overview on Saudi Arabia.

CHAPTER 2

MARITAL SUCCESS

2.1 The Concept of Marital Success

When a marriage is intact and satisfactory to both spouses, the marriage is deemed successful, but if the marriage has ended in divorce or separation or regarded as unsatisfactory to one or both spouses, then this marriage is a failure (Glenn, 1990).

The definition of marital success should combine an assessment of quality and stability of the marriage (Glenn, 1990; Robinson & Blanton, 1993). Marital quality is distinct from marital stability (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). Marriage may continue or end regardless of the level of quality, and the quality of marriage may vary within a marriage from time to time (Glenn, 1990), as well as varying from couple to couple.

Several studies referred to marital "quality," "satisfaction" and "happiness" as interchangeable terms, while others differentiates between them. Marital quality characterises how good the marriage is from the perspective of a spouse at a specific time, or a combination of feeling and features over a specific period (Glenn, 1990). Crouse, Karlins and Schroder (1968) discuss marital satisfaction as a criterion of emotional fulfilment and psychic well-being in a successful relationship. Lively (1969) defined happiness as a high level of pleasant emotional feeling towards events, individuals or relationships. Happiness ranges from extremely happy to not happy. Many individual variables contribute to being happy, which in turn can be reflected within a marriage. However, an individual who is happy in general is not necessarily happy in the context of, or happy with, his or her marriage.

Marital stability can be defined as the absence of separation or divorce (Karney & Bradbury, 1995; Booth, Johnson, & Edwards, 1983). In a limited view, marital success could also be defined this way. However, a more comprehensive measure of marital success should take into consideration both stability and satisfaction as essential variables. The next section will elaborate on these two concepts in assessing marital success.

2.2 Time Course of Marital Success

Whether or not marital satisfaction follows a U-shaped trajectory is a debatable issue. The suggested pattern is one of early decline followed by a levelling out during the parenting years and an improvement when children leave home (Van Laningham, Johnson, & Amato, 2001). Longitudinal studies by Holahan (1984), Kelly and Conley (1987), and Weishaus and Field (1988) aimed to substantiate or refute the U-shaped curve pattern of marital satisfaction. Vaillant and Vaillant (1993) recruited couples and followed them for 40 years. A sample of 268 men was drawn from Harvard's Study of Adult Development and the men were asked to complete the Grant Study Marital Adjustment Scale (GSMAS) and Marital Life Chart. In addition to other results, this study found no evidence of a U-shaped curve. Karney and Coombs (2000) noted that marital satisfaction in their sample of wives showed an overall decline across a twenty-year period. For a substantial minority of women, satisfaction remained constant or increased across assessment intervals. However, data from earlier studies (Hackel & Ruble, 1992; Markman & Hahlweg, 1993) suggest that marital quality declines over the first few years of marriage as spouses negotiate multiple issues such as conflicts, control and power, i.e., a honeymoon-is-over effect. Currently, the presence or absence of children at any time of the life span is equivocally related to marital quality and stability.

2.3 Assessing Marital Success

A distinction should be made between marital success and individual success. As city by Lively (1969), in 1963 Kirkpatrick related personality development to personal values and, by adopting this criterion, argued that many different kinds of marital success may exist. That is, different individuals might evaluate the success of a marriage using different criteria. In order to assess marital success, specific variables should first be defined (Crouse, Karlins, & Schroder, 1968).

During the 1980s, there was an increased use of one-, two- and three-item self-report approaches as direct measures for marital satisfaction, defined as marital quality or happiness. Items tapping directly into happiness or satisfaction with the relationship reflect this concept of marital quality (Johnson, Amoloza, & Booth, 1992). Researchers collected a large pool of responses to a single item "Taking things altogether, how would you describe your marriage? Would you say that your marriage is very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?" But the problem with the one-item instrument is error of measurement. With an item

with so few response options, the analysis will show skew towards either end of the scale, either "happy" versus "not happy", due to the constraints of having only three response options (Glenn, 1990).

An alternative method of measuring marital satisfaction used a multi-dimensional scale uniting both individual evaluation and relationship aspects (Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale).This scale faced criticism on both conceptual and methodological grounds. One of the criticisms is that in these kinds of scales, components can confound each other and lead to misinterpretation (Johnson, Amoloza, & Booth, 1992). Additional variables that are easy to measure, such as number of children and number of years together, can be considered indicators of stability of marital or individual success.

Many of the scales claiming to assess marital quality contained numerous confounded variables. For example, Banmen and Vogel's (1985) report found that two of the instruments used to evaluate marital quality (Marital Communication Inventory for Bienvenu, 1970, and Dyadic Adjustment for Spanier, 1976) confounded the variable of communication itself with other issues, by for instance the question: "Do the two of you argue a lot over money?" Items such as this one, which may simultaneously tap into multiple issues within a marriage and thus confound them, do not yield clear information about participants' evaluations of marital quality. This overlap brought to light the need for a clear construct of marital quality. One solution was to produce multi-item, global evaluative judgment scales to measure marital happiness, including items asking about marital happiness broadly (e.g., "How happy are you with your marriage?"). Adopting this global evaluation approach rather than a self-report of behaviour finally resulted in establishing a standardized evaluation of marital quality (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987).

In studying marital stability, Gottman (1993) proposed a Cascade theory called "Distance and Isolation", which begins with a concept called "Flooding". This theory assumes that deterioration in marital satisfaction starts with complaining and criticizing by one of the partners, which leads to contempt and defensiveness in the other, who, as the listener, withdraws from interaction. Factors predicting Flooding can be measured by a questionnaire, in which the subject (the listener) may claim that his or her partner's negative emotions are unexpected and overwhelming. If the Flooding questionnaire reveals this type of response, Gottman's theory predicts that the partner will respond to this situation by distancing him/herself.

The other variable in Cascade theory is the perception by one of the partners of marital problems as severe. He or she thinks that it is better to work out problems alone and

have separate friends, leaving him or her lonely in the marriage. There are gender differences in Flooding, which indicate that that men experience emotional "flooding" more easily, or in response to milder negative interactions, affect and behaviours than are required for women to experience emotional flooding. For example, men require only criticism to feel flooded, but women may require contempt, which is more severe and intense, to feel flooded. Unhealthy criticism tends to lead to contempt which in turn leads to defensiveness and finally stonewalling and withdrawal from relationship.

Gottman (1993) also found evidence for a process of change in spouses' perceptions of their relationship over time, resulting in "Distance and Isolation" cascade. This occurs when one or both of the spouses reach a point at which positive feelings of love and respect are replaced by the negative ones of hurt and sadness. Then, marital satisfaction declines and becomes unstable (Gottman, 1993). This theory addresses marital conflicts that have only negative impacts on marriage. According to Cascade theory, lasting marriage results from a couple's ability to resolve the conflicts in a positive manner. Marital stability is greater when the ratio of positive to negative behaviours or interactions is at least 5:1. Marital unhappiness and dissatisfaction may result in separation and/or divorce (Gottman, 1993; Lindahl, Malik, & Bradbury, 1997). Remarkably, not all negative behaviours lead directly to marital distress and dissolution.

Gottman (1993) presented three types of stable marriages: volatile couples, validating couples, and conflict-avoiding couples. Volatile couples are the highest of the three groups in emotional expressivity. Their attempts to persuade each other or change each others' minds arise quickly in the first third of any interaction (or argument), and the related feelings remain high throughout the interaction. Validating couples compose a middle group in terms of emotional expressiveness. These couples' emotions peak in the middle third of the interaction. Conflict-Avoiding couples are the lowest in emotional expressivity and seem to never to engage in persuasion attempts. These couples can be distinguished from each other by the timing of their persuasion attempts: early, middle, and never.

Gottman (1994) hypothesized another simple Cascade model. The model suggested that couples with low marital satisfaction will consider separation or divorce, first choose separation, and then will divorce. To investigate this model, he studied a sample consisting of 73 couples who were followed longitudinally for four years. Results indicated that there is a specific cascade toward marital dissolution. Divorced individuals who marry again remain unhappily married for some time in the second marriage. They seriously consider dissolution, then actually separate and then divorce.

Unhappy couples may continue to live together for a variety of reasons, such as the presence of children and religious barriers to divorce. It is unclear whether the dissolution of marriage is part of the deterioration of marital satisfaction or whether this is an independent process (Gottman, 1994).

Many variables relate to marital stability and satisfaction (or quality or happiness) in the same way, but marital duration is different. As a marriage continues, it tends to become more stable, but spouses become less satisfied. These differences support the idea that stability and marital satisfaction (or quality or happiness) are two different constructs. Stability of marital quality may vary by marital duration with persons in longer marriages reporting more relationship stability (Johnson, Amoloza, & Booth, 1992). Individuals who marry at younger ages and those who are married for longer periods were found to report lower levels of marital quality (Booth & Edwards, 1985; Bumpass, Martin, & Sweet 1991; Rogers & Amato, 1997; Van Laningham, Johnson, & Amato, 2001). Marital satisfaction can also vary within a marriage from time to time and differ from couple to couple. Marital satisfaction has been shown to have a greater impact on marital stability than other variables (Glenn, 1990).

2.4 Predictors of Marital Satisfaction

Several theories aimed at predicting marital satisfaction or dissolution have contributed to the field of knowledge, but they have each ignored the influence of other factors, which might have confounded the results. Ideally, a theory (or study) should include a range or variety predictors in order to give more comprehensive understanding of marital happiness.

Karney and Bradbury (1995) provided a model that integrated multiple important theories (which will each be described later) with the results of empirical research into a coherent model of marital success (Figure 1). The model claims that changes over time in a couple's marriage come about through reciprocity between their ongoing adaptability and their ongoing evaluations of marital quality.

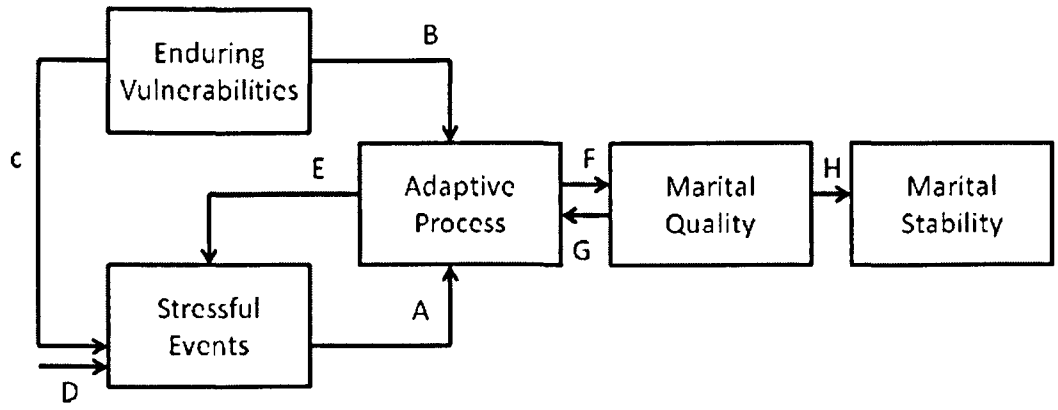


Figure 1. Karney and Bradbury's 1995 model.

According to the model, Enduring Vulnerability, Stressful Events, and Adaptive Processes are the groups of predictor variables that play a vital role in marriage outcomes. The central role is assigned to the Adaptive Processes group, which represents the Behaviour theory and includes, for example (1) Proper communication between couples, (2) Support for each other and, (3) Perception of marriage and spouse's behaviour as healthy and satisfying. Adaptive Processes are reciprocity in couples' behaviours representing their skills in coping with stressful events.

Enduring Vulnerability includes the innate traits and backgrounds of each member of the couple, along with their accumulated experiences and resolution of encountered stressful events over time. It is also includes, as a unit, the combined strengths and weaknesses.

Stressful Events are unexpected circumstances within the relationship or outside of it. The events are encountered by the couple and can adversely impact their relationship, leading to stress or tension.

In Karney and Bradbury's (1995) model, Path F indicates how the couple as individuals and as a unit adapt, by the nature of their behavioural exchanges, over time to create a particular marital quality. The resulting Path G of the model indicates how that shared marital quality, derived from Path F, is evaluated by the couple either individually or as a unit. The hypothesis is that the relationship between Adaptive Processes and Marital Quality (Paths F and G) continuously evolves to shape their marital quality.

As shown in Path A of the model, Stressful Events stimulate Adaptive Processes. That is, the spouses' behaviours within their interactions are affected by the nature of the encountered stress. For example, an extremely sad or difficult event (e.g., the loss of a child) can affect how spouses interact with each other, illustrating the indirect Path between Stressful Events and marital outcomes (i.e., Marital Stability and Marital Satisfaction in this model). Variations in the stressors spouses experience may also increase or decrease their capacity to provide social support to each other, and may shape the attributions that each partner makes for the other's behaviour and the marriage outcome.

Path B reflects how enduring vulnerabilities of an individual contribute to his or her adaptive processes, or how he or she modifies behaviour to cope with challenges and stressors. For example, if one of the spouses has a high score on neurotic personality scale, this neuroticism might negatively affect the behavioural exchanges between spouses. This, in turn, will have the effect of decreasing marital quality. Barelds (2005) showed that neurotic individuals have more difficulty in adapting to individual and marital difficulties. However, Openness has been shown to ease adaptation. So, if the personality of one spouse is characterized by Openness, it will likely be associated with higher marital quality as the individual response well to new stressors and situations. Extraverted individuals tend to be better able to cope with problems (Barelds, 2005). Path C shows the relationship from Enduring Vulnerabilities to Stressful Events and includes personality traits that are stressful for the individual or both. For example, a person who is depressive may generate and maintain a chronically depressed environment, which creates stress for the individual and the couple. Neurotic individuals experience more stress than individuals who are highly emotionally stable, and extraverted individuals also tend to experience lower levels of stress (Barelds, 2005).

Of course, not all stressful events that impact individuals and couples come from within their personalities or even from within the relationship. External stressors are brought into the model through Path D. This pathway is simply the external changes which have nothing to do with personality or individual differences, for example, moving houses, financial crises, or death in the family.

Path E shows that adaptive processes can actually generate new stressful events. That is to say, poor adaptation increases stress, which makes it more difficult for couples to adapt effectively. However, good adaptability eases stress and strengthening the couple's adaptation, giving them motivation and confidence to meet challenges and have a satisfying marriage. The ongoing continuous relationship in the process is represented by Path A.

The outcome of the adaptation processes define the couples' marital quality and is represented by Path F. Couples' reciprocal behaviours when dealing with problems determine the subsequent positive or negative quality of their marriage.

Implicit in this Path F are efforts that couples make to maintain the unity of the marriage even when there are a lot of negative behaviours in the relationship. This means that underlying the group Adaptive Processes are concepts from behavioural learning theory and social learning theory. For example, cost-benefit processes that affect subsequent interactions may be included. The couple will learn to avoid undesired topics or to overcome stressful events by using their newly developed skills (Christensen & Heavey, 1990).

Path G shows how marital quality itself affects individuals' adaptive processes. In this process, their individual perceptions of marital quality are expected to lessen or enhance their ability to engage in an effective marital problem-solving and to provide emotional support for each other in adapting to stressful events.

Finally, Path H establishes a relationship between Marital Quality and Marital Stability. The Adaptive Processes is the governor in which repeated failures to adapt negatively impacts Marital Quality through Path F and then, through Path H, the probability of marital instability increases. On the other hand, successful adaptive processes result in improved marital quality, which will in turn ensure greater marital stability.

This model provides a link between marital quality and marital stability. It suggests that couples with effective adaptive processes, those who encounter relatively few stressful events and who individually have few enduring vulnerabilities will experience a satisfying and stable marriage. On the other hand, couples with ineffective adaptive processes, those challenged by many stressful events and those who have many enduring vulnerabilities will experience declining marital quality, which may end in separation or divorce. Couples faced with a moderate number of challenges are expected to experience marital satisfaction between the two extremes.

One implication of this framework is that the relationship between any two of these three modular groups (Enduring Vulnerability, Stressful Events, and Adaptive Processes) will be imperfectly understood without information about the third. For example, all else being equal, couples with many enduring vulnerabilities should have a weaker capacity to adapt to stressful events and so should experience poorer marital outcomes. However, couples in which spouses have relatively high level of enduring vulnerability may still maintain marital stability and satisfaction, if the couple has a high capacity to adapt, but maintenance of quality may be poor. Similarly, couples with average enduring vulnerability

and adaptive processes but high stress levels may experience poor marital quality and generally poor marital outcomes.

The Vulnerability-Stress-Adaptation (VSA) model has much strength. First, it meets the three criteria proposed by Karney and Bradbury (1995) for a developmental theory of marriage. That is, (a) it includes multiple possible predictors that could affect marital outcome, and it demonstrated links between different levels of analysis, (b) it specifies different means for changes within marriage, and (c) it shows that different marital outcomes result from differences within couples and differences between couples. Second, the model links broad and specific levels of interaction. Third, placing the Adaptive Processes as mediator between the effects of stress and vulnerability on marital outcomes, the model suggests specific mechanisms through which stress and individuals' enduring vulnerabilities lead to changes in marriage. Fourth, by focusing on the interaction between stress and vulnerability in their effect on Adaptive Processes, the model can account for variations in marital outcomes both between and within couples. In this way, the proposal accounts for both change and stability in marital satisfaction. It also predicts when those changes are most likely to occur. Fifth, the organization of the model provides opportunities for repeated testing for further validation. And finally, the interactions proposed by the model are important because they provide a simple means of testing additional contributions which go beyond previous theories of marriage.

In the following sections I will review the empirical literature on determinants of marital success. This vast material will be ordered following the structure of Karney and Bradbury's model starting with Enduring Vulnerability, followed by Stressful Events, and finally ending with Adaptive Processes groups. Each group comprises its own organization of relevant theory and/or predictors, providing a framework with which to systematize this literature review.

2.4.1 Enduring Vulnerability

2.4.1.1 Attachment

Attachment theory primarily focuses on the styles of infants' attachment to the mother or other primary caregivers, often assessed through behaviour displayed when children are in a stressful situation. According to Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Wall (1978), major infant attachments styles are Secure, Anxious-Ambivalent, and Avoidant. Following initial research developing attachment theory in the context of infant-caregiver

relationships, these attachment styles were applied later to adult romantic relationships. Romantic relationships between adults have indeed been shown to reflect enduring styles of attachment developed in infancy and early childhood (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). In adult relationships, Avoidant attachment has been further divided into Fearful and Dismissive attachment styles (Bartholomew, 1990).

Bowlby (1969) laid the foundation of attachment theory by studying infant-mother behaviours, concluding that early separation of infants from their mothers had severe negative effects on children's emotional and intellectual development. He described attachment behaviour, which develops during the first year of life, as resulting from the maintenance or loss of physical contact between the mother and the child when the child is distressed. Attachment to parents who are available to the infant for emotional support during distress gives infants a feeling of security and a good sense of themselves and others. This results in the development of good "internal working models".

Bowlby (1988) called internal working models of the self and of significant individuals in the world around us the "building blocks" of communication. The quality of the building blocks manifests itself in the individual's significant relationships and tends to crystallize in adolescence and early adulthood. However, the most controversial assumption of Attachment theory is that internal working models of attachment are an unconscious structure operating outside the realm of conscious awareness (Bowlby, 1973; Bretherton & Munholland, 1999; Marvin & Brittner, 1999; Maier, Bernier, Pekrun, Zimmermann, & Grossmann, 2004).

Ainsworth (1972) expanded on Bowlby's observations and described three separate stages of attachment development, which she called "pre-attachment," "attachment in the making" and "clear-cut attachment".

Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Wall (1978) also discussed a threefold infant typology of attachment in a strange situation, again including Secure, Avoidant, and Anxious-Ambivalent attachment styles (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Ainsworth, 1985). Ainsworth (1989) developed the idea that parents, peers, siblings, sexual partners and acquaintances may all operate as attachment figures over the course of the life span. According to Ainsworth and colleagues (1978), Secure attachment facilitates a "secure base" from which to engage in independent exploration. They also suggested that attachment styles are linked to infants' expectations about whether the caregiver is emotionally available and responsive and whether the infant himself or herself is worthy of love and care. Ainsworth and

colleagues (1978) also developed a love experience questionnaire for tapping several domains of romantic relationships.

Many cultural differences have previously been implicated as moderators of childhood attachment behaviours. The basic needs for an attachment figure are the same across cultures, but what differs is the way of expressing these needs and expectations and under what particular circumstances the needs are evoked (Ainsworth & Marvin, 1995).

Infant attachment styles and internal working models also shape adult personality development and are more precise to relationships in human life (Kenny & La Voie, 1984; Cook, 2000). Styles of attachment and internal working models continue to persist actively throughout the life cycle, and vary in their influence. They may be active, quiescent, reconstructed or upgraded. Attachment and internal working models are affected by several factors, especially interpersonal resources (Bowlby, 1973, 1988; Bretherton, 1985; Crittenden & Ainsworth, 1989; Oppenheim & Water, 1995; Cook, 2000; Owens, Crowell, Pan, Treboux, O'Connor, & Waters, 1995). Notably, the process of updating the functioning of internal working models is considered essential to healthy relationships and their modification may be cause by external events (Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Cook, 2000). Conversely, Owens et al. (1995) found only partial support for the idea that the working models that are formed in a child's interactions with his or her primary caregiver subsequently serve as the framework for understanding all later love relationships. Representations of early attachment experience had only a modest effect on conceptualizations of current relationships. The results of this research further suggested that romantic partners co-construct their conceptualizations of their shared relationship (Owens et al., 1995).

The age 5 to13 years old, 81 % referred to the parents as their secure base as they are for the age group of 8 to 10 years old. Proximity-seeking to peers was the choice of 61% of this younger group. The study's results indicated, overall, that children between 5 and10 years of age preferred to spend time with peers but not to be separated from parents. By age 11, children begin to seek out peers for emotional support and comfort. At age 17, individuals who do not have romantic partners, close friends who are peers serve as safe havens and are sought out for comfort, although parents continue to act as a secure base. Until children reach high school, parents will continue to represent the secure base for the majority of children. Attachment styles shown by individuals in their relationships with their peers during late adolescence shape their later adult attachment styles (Shaver & Hazan, 1993).

A Securely attached infant does not always become a secure child. A change might occur if a previously empathetic and supportive parent becomes distressed or deeply depressed (Bowlby, 1973; Bretherton & Munholland, 1999). The parent is perceived as threatening to abandon the child and the child's confidence in that there is a "secure base" (Ainsworth, 1985) will be shaken. This leads the child to reconstructing his or her working models of parent and self, and underlies the concept of reconstruction modelling in attachment issues. On the other hand, when life circumstances improve or effective support from others becomes available, this will lead the child to construct revised working models of self as valued and of the parent as caring.

Shaver and Hazan reported the results of several studies (e.g., Grossmann & Grossman, 1991; Sroufe, 1983) which show that patterns of attachment are generally stable over the first several years of the child's development if the family is stable. If the family social's circumstances changed, the pattern of the child's attachment thus will likely change (Shaver & Hazan, 1993). Moreover, Shaver and Hazan (1993) presented the results of Hazan et al. (1991), consistent with Bowlby's claim, showing that attachment working models tend to be stable. Increases in security of attachment were more likely than decreases in security of attachment. If an individual begins with an insecure attachment style, he or she will likely move from the less secure Avoidant style to the more secure Preoccupied style. Finally, research showed working models of relationships will change in the context of discomforting experiences (Shaver & Hazan, 1993).

The normative hypothesis posits that Secure attachment is the most common form of parent-child attachment across cultures. This hypothesis is supported by the prevalence of Secure attachment across cultures (Rothbaum, Pott, Azuma, Miyake & Weisz, 2000). Studies suggest that secure parent-child attachment is the most common form in Westernized cultures (Ainsworth, 1991), and several studies reported by Van Ijzendoorn and Sagi (1999) have documented the preponderance of secure parent-child attachment in non-Western cultures including in Uganda (57%), China (68%) and Japan (68%). Notably, Campos, Barrett, Lamb, Goldsmith and Stenberg (1983) reviewed American studies of the three types of attachment styles in infants and concluded that 62% are Secure, 23% are Avoidant, and 15% are Ambivalent.

Adults' attachment and romantic relationships. Hazan and Shaver (1987, 1988) and Shaver, Hazan and Bradshaw (1988) focused on love relationships in adulthood and suggested that infant attachment styles and internal working models strongly influence

romantic relationships across the lifespan. Hazan and Diamond (2000) also proposed that, unlike children who primarily turn to their parents for emotional support and other roles, adolescents and adults tend to look to their peers, such as close friends or romantic partners. However, some researchers have identified Hazan and Shaver's (1987, 1988) use of categories of attachment style (i.e., Secure, Avoidant, and Ambivalent) as a weakness It is claimed that each attachment type seems to be a discrete category independent from the others, with no gradual change between them. The categorical nature of the variable does not allow attachment style to be described in terms of degree, and it also leads to error of measurement, reduction in reliability and other statistical problems (Fraley & Waller, 1998)

Mikulincer and Shaver (2003) proposed a model of control systems that integrates the theoretical writings from multiple researchers, including Bowlby, Ainsworth, Cassidy, Kobak and Main. This model describes the activation and the process of the attachment system in adulthood. Three aspects were considered: (1) Seeking proximity after the activation of the attachment system; (2) Beneficial consequences of using the strategy effectively to reach for the support of the attachment figure; and (3) Secondary strategies (Anxious-hyperactivation and Avoidant-deactivation) when the attachment figure is un-available or un-responsive. The model also includes goals of the primary and secondary attachment strategies, such as associated beliefs and expectations about self and others and associated rules for managing distress and interpersonal relations. In addition, the model explains what happens when secondary strategies fail to accomplish their aim.

The model can be divided into three components, which the authors call "blocks." The first component is the evaluation and monitoring of threatening events or triggers, both external and internal. The perception of threat depends on the individual's evaluation (conscious or unconscious), not on the actual existence of threat. The second component is the monitoring and evaluation of the availability of the attachment figure, which is related to individual differences in feelings of security. Monitoring and evaluation can happen in two different ways, by searching for the current existing attachment figure in reality or by recalling saved thoughts and memories relating to the comfort and support that the primary attachments figure provided in the past. These memories and saved thoughts are called "security-based self-representations". The availability of the attachment figure strengthens the use of proximity seeking as a coping strategy in times of need and fosters what Fredrickson (2001) called a "broaden-and-build" cycle of attachment. It is responsible for shaping closeness and comfort in relying on others, which influence emotional well-being, and is responsible for a secure working model of self and other. Notably, the repeated

presence of the attachment figure leads to a healthy beneficial strategy of trust and open communication. And finally, the third component is that Anxious people have a hyperactivated bias towards perceptions predicting denial. For example, they may not notice the presences of the attachment figure or may think that the attachment figure is not sufficiently available. They focus on signs of disinterest, distance and rejection. People with very anxious attachment styles frequently demand a lot of protection, care and attention from their partners. To achieve this, anxiously attached individuals use exaggerated behaviours to make excessive demands for attention, care, and emotional and physical closeness. Such tactics may result in or include disturbed and aggressive behaviours towards the partner, discomfort, dissatisfaction, and eventually rejection by the partner. When people with Anxious attachment styles employ such strategies, they are likely to damage their own self-image by emphasizing helplessness and vulnerability to rejection. Displaying such attention- and care-seeking behaviours also elicits negative evaluation from others. People with Avoidant attachment styles use deactivating strategies including behaving dismissively towards the attachment figure. They habitually deactivate their attachment system when they are near the attachment figure, seeing attachment or support-seeking as dangerous or not allowed. Their behaviours include denying attachment needs and dismissing threats. The goal is to have needs met while maintaining distance and control. People showing Avoidant attachment styles attempt to avoid emotional states that might activate a need (i.e., for support). As a result, they ignore not just their own need for the attachment figure, but also important information about actual threats. People with Avoidant attachment styles are usually defensive, over-estimate their capacity to feel invulnerable, and are less interested in relying on a partner they see as unworthy. They perceive their relationship as unsatisfying and dismiss their own needs, while also degrading their partner. They can escape, or leave the relationship, if it becomes too intimate or demanding.

For Anxious and Avoidant individuals, the distortion of the attachment system causes two kinds of suffering. One is distress caused by failing to achieve or maintain proximity to the attachment figure. The second is the sense of helplessness caused by the evaluation of self as alone and vulnerable. The severity of the pain experienced by the person depends on individual differences and the particular situation. As a result, adaptation strategies will differ as well. Remarkably, Avoidant and Anxious individuals' doubts about attachment figure availability can be affected positively, over time, by the actual repeated presence of a responsive attachment figure.

Finally, Fearful-t subjects have trouble choosing between Anxious and Avoidant strategies, or do not behave consistently. Sometimes they behave similarly to Dismissive-Avoidant individuals, coping by withdrawing and distancing themselves from their attachment figure, the relationship partner. However, they may also deny the need for support and then contrarily experience anxiety, ambivalence and a desire for the partners' love and support.

Bartholomew (1990) proposed a four-group attachment model of adult attachment and described the characteristics of people with each attachment style. Bartholomew was interested in conceptualizing the avoidance of close relationships in adulthood. Avoidance may stem from fear of intimacy or from lack of interest in becoming close to or intimate with others. So, Bartholomew hypothesized two distinct styles of avoidance of attachment: desire for intimacy with others that is avoided because of fears of rejection, and the claimed lack of desire to become intimately close to others. Bartholomew divided Avoidant attachment into Fearful and Dismissive attachment, resulting in her theory of four attachment styles: Secure, Preoccupied, Fearful, and Dismissing .

On the basis of empirical study, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) found that models of self and others can be arranged in orthogonal positions and viewed as a positive or negative model of self and other. Those two dimensions jointly define Bartholomew's four attachment styles (Figure 2).

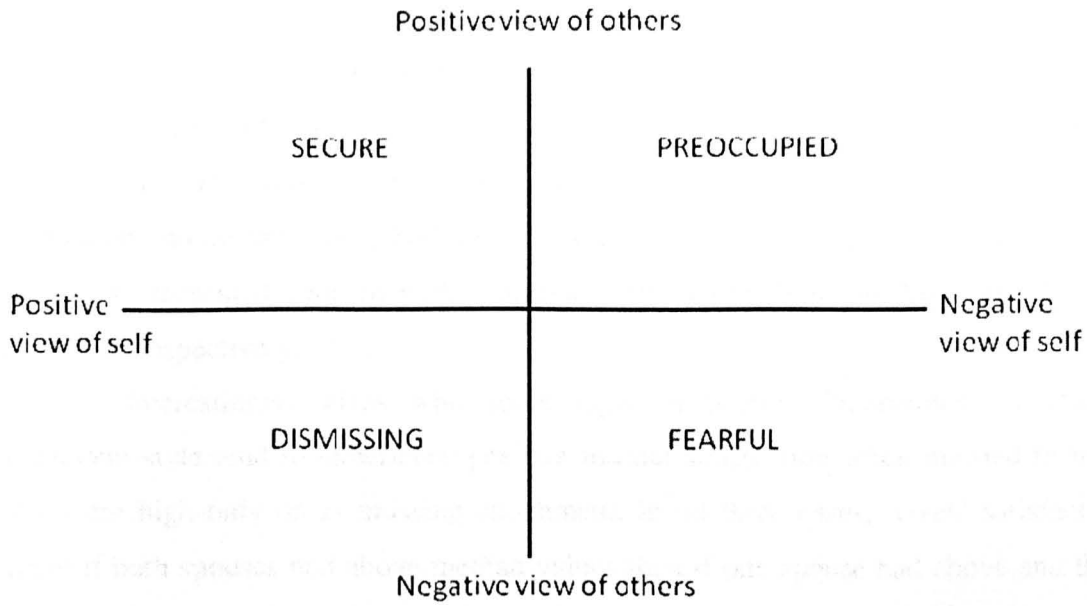


Figure 2. The four prototype attachment model (Bartholomew, 1990)

In Secure attachment, people view themselves as worthy and lovable and view others as trustworthy and available. Individuals who have a Dismissing attachment style emphasize achievement and self-reliance with a sense of self-worth at the expense of intimacy. On the other hand, individuals who have a Fearful attachment style desire intimacy but distrust others and avoid close involvement, because close involvement could lead to loss or rejection. In the Preoccupied style, people blame themselves for perceived rejections by others, which enable them to maintain a positive view of others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Owens et al. (1995) found only partial support for the four prototypes and the idea that a working model, formed in a child's interactions with his or her primary caregiver, subsequently serves as the framework for understanding all later love relationships. They suggest that early attachment experience had only a modest effect on current relationships. The results of this research also suggested that romantic partners re-construct their shared relationship (Owens et al., 1995). In contrast, several authors have found strong empirical support for the reliability and validity of this model, with its four prototype attachments and two dimensions model of self and others (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). In addition, studies have also shown a correlation between theses four prototypes and various aspects of marital

relationships. Banse (2004) examined all four attachment prototypes and found, overall, that Secure attachment was positively and insecure attachment negatively related to relationship satisfaction for both the individual and his or her partner. Except for the case of husbands with Dismissing attachment styles, all attachment styles were predictive of marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives. Secure attachment showed a positive, and Fearful, Preoccupied, and (wives') Dismissing attachment a negative relationship with marital satisfaction. Wives who score high on Secure or Fearful attachment tend to experience low marital satisfaction if coupled with a husband who scores high on Preoccupied or Secure attachment respectively.

Interestingly, wives who score high on Secure, Preoccupied or Dismissing attachment style tend to experience positive marital satisfaction when married to husbands who score high only on Dismissing attachment. In all three cases, wives' satisfaction was higher if both spouses had above median values than if one spouse had above and the other below median vales on the attachment items.

Husbands who scored high on Secure or Dismissing attachment style, if paired with wives who had scored high on Secure attachment style, tended to experience more marital satisfaction. In contrast, husbands who have high scores on Preoccupied attachment and are coupled with wives who have high scores on Secure attachment, experience lower marital satisfaction.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) evaluated the four attachment style prototypes as individual differences using the two underlying dimensions of internal working models, the self as positive and negative and others as positive and negative. The results showed that the two dimensions are separated and orthogonal, and the four attachment styles are organized along the two dimensions. Secure attachment is characterized by a positive view of self and others. Fearful attachment is characterized by a negative view of self and others. Dismissing attachment is characterized by a positive view of self but a negative view of others. And, finally, Preoccupied attachment is characterized by has a negative view of self and a positive view of others. These results were confirmed by several others studies (e.g., Sibley, Fischer, & Liu, 2005).

As mentioned above, the process of updating the functioning of internal working models is considered essential to healthy relationships and such modification of working models is affected by external events (Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Cook, 2000). Because so many studies support Bartholomew's 1990 prototypes, her scales were selected as an appropriate method for collecting data from the Saudi Arabia sample.

Weiss (1982) differentiated between childhood and adult attachment with respect to the caregiver. The caregiver in children's attachment relationships typically gives but not receives care, whereas in the adult attachment, care is reciprocal between both partners. In the adult's attachment, the mother is replaced by a peer and usually a sexual or the romantic partner. As cited by Cozzarelli, Karafa, Collins and Tagler (2003), a study conducted by Hazan, Hutt and Markus (1991) on a group of children and adolescents (aged 5 to 17 years) in comparison to adults. The aim of the study was to follow the attachment figure transference through development. The vast majority (90%) of adults chose time with a romantic relationship partner, but only 4% preferred the company of their parent as a source of comfort and support.

Secure attachment is thought to be the ideal and describes parents who are available for their children, and Ambivalent attachment describes parents who are inconsistently responsive to their infants, with the infants consequently both craving and resenting the caregiver. Avoidant attachment describes parents who are not responsive to their infants; the infants, as a result, avoid contact with the caregiver and do not show apparent distressed by separations. Several studies have investigated the application of Attachment theory to adult romantic relationships, including interaction between marriage partners, which, as discussed later, are influenced by their attachment styles. This perspective suggests that individuals' early experiences in close relationships shape the nature of their subsequent relationships in adulthood. These adult relationships are important sources for satisfying several needs, notably, comfort, care and sexual gratification.

Hazan and Diamond's (2000) found that, compared with adults reporting Secure attachment, adults with either two insecure form of attachment reported more negative experiences and beliefs about love, had a history of shorter romantic relationships, and provided less favourable descriptions of their childhood relationship with their parents. Overall, enduring love relationships are probably the most important attachment relationships in adult life and, for most individuals, the marital relationship is the primary source of social support in adulthood.

An overview of relevant literature guided researchers (Gottman, 1994; Gottman Coan, Carrère, & Swanson, 1998) to suggest that little research in marital interaction had been done to explore the relationship between adult attachment and interactive behaviour identified as problematic. This subject has been the focus of a comprehensive, prospective longitudinal study (Banse, 2001) of marital success involving married couples over three years. The author contacted 2,000 cohabiting couples living in West-Berlin, requesting that

the couples complete questionnaires for the study. Some couples (333, or 16.7%) sent in completed questionnaires for both partners. Out of this group of 333 couples, the author selected 50 couples (25% of the most satisfied) and 150 couples (75% of the least satisfied) for a laboratory study. The purpose of this study was to assess behaviours indicative of adult attachment styles and relate them to the success of romantic relationships. Three years later, 46 of the 50 "more satisfied" couples took part in a follow-up study.

Results showed that negative main effects of insecure attachment on marital satisfaction could be partially compensated for specific combinations of attachment styles within the couple. That is, the situation was better if both partners showed insecure attachment, or if one partner was insecure and the other one secure attachment. For wives' marital satisfaction, positive interaction effects were found specifically for the Dismissing-Dismissing and Dismissing-Preoccupied combinations. According to this study, the combinations of Dismissing or Preoccupied women with Dismissing men were associated with greater satisfaction than other combinations. Dismissing attachment in men seemed to cause fewer problems for their own and their partner's satisfaction, and the negative effect of men's Dismissing attachment style could be compensated for if they were in a relationship with women who had any attachment style other than Fearful attachment. Husbands with Preoccupied Attachment were associated with low relationship satisfaction for the couple with no apparent possibility of compensation, not even with a securely attached wife. In the laboratory study, results showed that self-reported adult attachment was related to concurrent marital satisfaction, concurrent behaviour and marital success over three years. Communication styles and expression of contempt were related to both attachment style and to relationship quality and stability. They were considered mediators of adult attachment in marital success (for more detailed results, see Banse 2001).

Banse's (2001) comprehensive study did not find support for Kirkpatrick and Davis's (1994) hypothesis that pairings of insecure individuals of the same type are rare, whereas pairings of the opposite type are more frequent. Instead, Banse's results suggested the opposite trend. Securely attached individuals were more often paired with securely attached partners and less often with insecurely attached partners than expected based on the marginal frequencies. Individuals with Dismissing attachment styles were significantly more frequently paired with partners who also had Dismissing attachment styles and less often with partners who had a Secure attachment style.

Hollist and Miller (2005) studied the marriages of 429 couples (ages 40 to 50 years), for Attachment styles and marital quality. Findings indicated that insecure attachment

styles were associated with low marital quality, whereas Secure Attachment was not (Feeney, Noller & Callan, 1994; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). These results corroborated Banse's (2004) findings that Secure Attachment correlated with higher marital satisfaction and whereas insecure attachment correlated negatively with marital satisfaction. Marital satisfaction could be predicted by the individual's own attachment and the interaction between spouses. Both Kobak (1991) and Cohen (1991) found evidence indicating that marital relationships involving at least one secure partner are better functioning than relationships involving two insecure partners.

The implication is that marital success or failure will be affected by enduring aspects of each partner's relationship history and family of origin (Busby, Gardner, & Taniguchi, 2005). In a study of 35 marriages of short duration, Feeney and colleagues (1994) found that Secure Attachment was related to husbands' relationship satisfaction and constructive communication processes. Anxiety over abandonment was consistently associated with low relationship satisfaction and with negative responses to conflict, and it predicted later negative conflict patterns for wives and later low relationship satisfaction for husbands. Later attachment ratings were predicted by earlier relationship satisfaction and communication variables for husbands only. Longitudinal research has shown that, in dating couples, relationship stability is higher for avoidantly attached men than for anxiously attached men, but higher for anxiously attached women than for securely and avoidantly attached women (Kirkpatrick & Davis 1994).

Collins_and Read (1990) found a small but significant correlation between Secure attachment and stability in dating relationships, but these results failed to replicate in research by Brennan and Shaver (1991). Also, Shaver and Hazan (1993) did not find the pattern of anxious/anxious couple. In contrast, Simpson (1990) did not find a correlation between Secure attachment and stable relationships. Attachment styles do influence relationship development (Shaver & Hazan, 1993)

Overall, husbands who have Secure Attachment styles, with positive communication patterns, tend to be effective at resolving marital conflicts. Anxiously attached women tend to experience low marital satisfaction and start more marital conflicts, holding the marriage intact by eliciting attention and affection. Anxiously attached men, in contrast, may be seen as violating sex-role stereotypes by being clingy and dependent (Feeney, Noller, & Callan, 1994).

Shaver and Brennan (1992) examined the relationship between their three attachment styles (Secure, Anxious, and Avoidant) and personality traits as measured using

the Big Five Inventory from Costa and McCrae (1985). Results showed that individuals who had a Secure attachment style tended to be more extraverted and less neurotic than those with insecure attachment styles. Secure subjects were more agreeable than Avoidant subjects. After a longitudinal follow-up for eight months of dating relationships, results supported the effectiveness of attachment styles as predictors of dating relationship quality (Shaver & Brennan, 1992).

Although adult attachment styles have been shown to be influenced by early childhood experience and early attachment styles, attachment styles have also been shown to be dynamic. That is, a person's attachment style is modified as the individual gains more experience (i.e., an individual might learn what to expect in terms responses and support from specific relationship partners). As a consequence, one individual's attachment styles may differ from relationship to relationship, depending the type of relationship and on characteristics of each relationship partner. Clearly, different relationship partners affect attachment quality in different ways. Partner attachment is relationship-specific, not a stable personality trait, and it is related to the continuity and discontinuity of relationships (Lehnart & Neyer, 2006).

Attachment methodology. The different branches of attachment theories have developed different measures of attachment styles. Theoretical differences between the developmental psychology and the social psychology traditions of attachment theory are intricately linked to methodological differences, as discussed in this section.

Because a very young child's response to any evocative stimulus is behavioural rather than verbal (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Waters & Deane, 1985), it is easier to assess by observation, whether in a natural environment or a laboratory. In contrast, assessing adult attachment style by observation in a natural environment is very difficult, making interview and self-report measures more appropriate (Hazan & Shaver, 1994).

Bowlby's first empirical study was based on a case study and notes for 44 patients with a history of stealing. He concluded that such behaviour is a reflection of historical maternal deficiency and separation. Bowlby presented three phases of separation responses, and working models of self and others (Goldberg, 2000).

In order to test Bowlby's ideas empirically, Ainsworth introduced new methodology that also helped in expanding the theory itself. She started her work on the security theory, which assumes that the child needs to develop secure dependence on parents before he will be ready to deal with life. In her earlier research, Ainsworth (1978) compared

28 children in the laboratory (using the now classic, "strange situation" test) with 25 children in their natural environments. She took personal notes of her observations in order to investigate the development of the attachment between a mother and infant throughout the first year. At that time, Ainsworth's methodology was unique because it utilized qualitative methods (e.g., interview and behavioural observation) rather than quantitative methods (e.g., behavioural frequencies). As later summarized by Goldberg (2000), Ainsworth formalized three Attachment types extended from Bowlby's Attachment theory: Secure, Anxious-Ambivalent and Anxious-Avoidant.

In the 1980s, two lines of research methodology emerged to assess attachment patterns in adulthood: 1) Assessing parent-child attachment, and 2) Assessing romantic close relationship attachment. Main and her colleagues focused on the internal working models of parent-child attachment style and came up with the Adult Attachment Interview (AAI; George, Kaplan, & Main, 1985). Using this assessment, a child whose parents have a Dismissing Attachment style will be identified as Avoidant. The Anxious child is one whose parents have a Preoccupied Attachment style. Parents of a child with a Secure attachment style are free and independent.

The second method of assessing adult attachment style focused on adult romantic relationships and is represented by the work of Hazan and Shaver (1987). They believed that Attachment theory could be applied to adult romantic relationships and developed a simple self-report questionnaire for adults, based on Ainsworth's three patterns of childhood Attachment style.

From that point on, the debate regarding the validity of information obtained through self-report of attachment style, as with all self-reports, has been continuous. Self-reports afford several advantages over observation and interview, including ease of collecting large samples and the likelihood of generalisation. This was disputed by the pioneers of attachment theory who, with small sample sizes, claimed that generalisation is unlikely, and continued to follow interview and behavioural observation methods instead of using self-reports in their clinical practice. One of their strongest arguments against self-report measures is that the self-report questionnaire does not allow researchers to observe and code the essential behaviours that occur during an interview. In addition, there is the possibility of errors in the self-report measures which may not be related to the real behaviour (Goldberg, 2000). A researcher's understanding of the attachment process and attachment style will depend on which of the assessment methods is used.

Despite the potential drawbacks, social psychologists and scientists who focused on adult relationships and who were interested in researching larger samples with generalisable results constructed self-report questionnaires to measure adult attachment. In 1990, Bartholomew used a newly developed self-report measure from Hazan and Shaver (1987) alongside two interview from George et al.'s (1985) Adult Attachment Interview. She found that the AAI focuses on the memory and past experiences, whereas the self-report questionnaire focuses on feelings and behaviours specific to close relationships. Drawing from this research, Bartholomew combined the two different assessment methods (interviews and self-reports) in proposing four types of Attachment styles (Bartholomew& Horwitz, 1991).

Several studies using self-report measures (Feeney & Noller, 1991; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991; Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan, 1992) showed a significant but not strong correlation (average of $r = .27$) between the self-report measures and AAI methodology (Crowell, Fraley, & Shaver, 1999). However, in a study conducted by Bartholomew and Shaver (1998) using two separate samples, a moderate correlation between different methods of assessing attachment was found. Participants' adult attachment style was assessed using three different measures. On the first, a brief self-report measure, the participants rated themselves on one of the four Bartholomew prototypes, RQ. In the second, participants were interviewed using the Peer Attachment Interview, which concentrates on friendship as well as past and recent romantic relationships. And in the third, participants were interviewed using the Family attachment Interview, an interview focusing on images of childhood experiences with the family. Results indicated a moderate correlation across the three methods and the correlations would be stronger if both methods were based on interview or focused on the same context (e.g., both on peer relationships). These finding were supported by later research (e.g., Bellg, 1996; O'Hearn & Davis, 1997; Saunders 1992), as cited in Bartholomew and Shaver (1998).

Bartholomew's measures have been empirically shown to be related to the AAI and to Hazan and Shaver's romantic attachment measures (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998). To compare clinical interviews and the self-report questionnaire used by Bartholomew (1994), Bartholomew and Shaver (1998) conducted a study with 30 bereaved women. The interviews concentrated on the subjects' relationship with the deceased and their response to the loss. The interview was not constructed as an attachment interview, and the sample size was small. However, findings indicated a strong correlation of attachment style as measured through the interview and the self-report (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998).

Even though measures of adult attachment differ in terms of fields (family, peer and romantic relationships), methods (interview, q-sort or self-report), dimensionality and categorical systems, the methods show convergence.

A researcher's selection of assessment method depends on the researcher's aim, perspective on attachment, and on the aim of the assessment. For example, if the researcher's goal is to assess individual differences in the quality of romantic attachment, a multi-item questionnaire will be an appropriate assessment choice. If the researcher's aim is to assess styles of attachment, a categorical scale will be more suitable. Clearly, more information is garnered by using self-report and interview measures, but there are challenges to conducting interviews, making their use more difficult, particularly with respect to collecting a large sample of data (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998). Although the questionnaire might not measure the exact same constructs as measured through an interview, the questionnaire used by Bartholomew has been shown to be valid for assessing adults' romantic attachment style. Given that it is not feasible to conduct interviews with an extremely large sample (i.e., due to time constraints and resource constraints), the questionnaire developed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) has been selected for use in this study.

Bartholomew's (1991) four-group adult attachment model drew some critiques (Schmitt et al., 2004).A primary issue is that the model may be constrained to Western cultures. Follow-up studies of the model have been largely limited to Western cultures (Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998; Bartholomew, 1994; Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1994; Schmitt et al., 2004). The core assumptions of attachment theory are biased toward Western ways of thinking (Rothbaum, Weisz, Pott, Miyake, & Morelli, 2000). And finally, even the broader the two-dimension, four-category model of romantic attachment has not been widely examined in non-Western cultures (Sumer & Gungor, 1999). Hence it remains unclear whether this model of adult romantic attachment is a universal feature of human psychology or whether some important differences exist across diverse cultures.

As discussed, Bartholomew's prototypes were based on Western adults and all studies were conducted in Western cultures. Determining the validity of the constructs in a sample from Saudi Arabia – a very different culture with different social constructs and language – will add to the research-based understanding of universality of the attachment constructs. Attachment theory has both strengths and weaknesses. Strengths include its inclusion of links between levels of analysis that are absent from social exchange and behavioural theories, and its stressing of the importance of personal history in determining the marital relationship needs of each partner. However, a weakness of Attachment theory is

that it does not address how personal histories and individual differences affect the development of a marriage from beginning to the end, starting when two people with different relationship needs come together, nor does it address how needs change over time, or how and when unmet needs cause the dissolution of a marriage.

2.4.1.2 Personality

Another contributor to the Enduring Vulnerability group in Karney and Bradbury's (1995) model is personality. According to their review, positive attitude and compatibility between the spouses' personalities predict greater marital satisfaction and stability. However, Karney and Bradbury (1995) cautioned over-extending these results; it is possible that compatibility itself does not affect marital outcomes beyond initial levels of particular variables. In the following section, I discuss studies that relate to this finding.

Other researchers reported that personality characteristics such as hostility and neuroticism (Kurdek, 1993), temperament (Caspi, 1987) and attitudes (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978) are important predictors of marital quality. Neuroticism-related traits, measured at the beginning of a marriage, have been found to be predictive of later marital satisfaction and divorce (Kelly & Conley, 1987). Generalized anxiety disorders have been found to be associated with poor marital quality (Mcleod, 1994).

In another study (Eysenck & Wakefield. 1981), 566 couples who had been married from 0 to 40 years completed questionnaires addressing five categories of variables: personality (Psychoticism-P, Extraversion-E, Neuroticism-N and Lie-L), background (e.g., age, gender, income, parental divorce, number of marriages), social attitudes (tender-mindedness versus tough-mindedness, radicalism versus conservatism and marital satisfaction), sexual attitudes (libido and sexual satisfaction), and sexual behaviour (frequency of sexual intercourse per month, refusal of intercourse, premarital intercourse, duration of intercourse). The results revealed that, when taken in combination, the variables accounted for over two-thirds of the variance of Marital Satisfaction (MS); background and personality contributed moderately. The authors suggested that much of the satisfaction a person derives from his or her marriage is contributed by his or her personality. Stable, low-P individuals who do not have too high of libido are likely to be satisfied in their marriage almost regardless of whom they marry, but unstable, high-P individuals with high libido are likely to be dissatisfied. In general, when the man is higher on P than his wife and when the wives are higher on N than their husbands, they are less satisfied in their marriage. A

possible explanation is that this situation is a reversal of expected sex-linked characteristics. Men may expect women to be more neurotic than they are, and women might expect men to score higher on Psychoticism (masculine and tough-minded). The conclusion of this study should not be taken to extremes, and could be of use in working with married couples in difficulty. In a longitudinal study by Schneewind and Gehard (2002) on 180 couples in Germany, Neuroticism was related to marital satisfaction, but only in the beginning of the marriage. Their explanation for this is that as the marriage progresses, a growing knowledge of the spouse's personality diminishes the effect of personality on marital satisfaction, and the influence of other factors increases.

Women have more influence on marital stability, according to Cramer (1993) who interviewed 9,003 British adults, of whom 6,522 also completed the Eysenck Personality Inventory. Although the correlation was small, marital stability among divorced and separated couples seemed related to the personality of the wives rather than the husbands. In this study, Neuroticism and Extraversion were higher among divorced or separated couples than among couples who remained married. However, these results could be confounded by the divorce itself.

A study conducted by Barelds (2005), using two different, randomly selected Dutch subjects used two different measures of personality to examine whether similarity or dissimilarity between spouses' personalities is associated with better marital quality. The researcher expected that, with a long period of marriage, the spouses' personalities will become more similar, and that this increase in similarity will affect the marital quality positively. The mean age of the two samples was in the mid-forties, and the mean length of the marriage was about 20 years. Most of the subjects in the study had children. The results showed that the partners' personalities were similar in measures of firmness, hostility, and selfishness, but there was almost no relationship between partner similarity and marital quality. In addition, differences in personality did not relate to marital quality. Furthermore, no differences between men and women with regard to the effects of personality characteristics on intimate relationship were found (Barelds, 2005). This study focused on personality effect at the couple rather than the individual level. In both studies, findings indicated that Neuroticism in each partner related negatively to marital quality, whereas, high-self esteem and Extraversion in both partners related to marital quality positively. Moreover, an interactive effect was found for self-esteem; two partners high in self-esteem reported higher marital quality (Barelds, 2005).

In general, an individual's own personality seemed to have a greater effect than one's partners' personality on marital quality. Relationship experiences are more influenced by a person's own personality than by his or her partner's personality. For example, personality characteristics such as Neuroticism may predispose an individual to negatively distorted relationship experiences. However, there are also clear partner effects, suggesting that it is not just a person's own personality that determines the quality of the relationship. People's characteristics or behaviours, arguably driven by personality, might elicit behaviours from their partner that also contribute to their own relationship dissatisfaction (Barelds, 2005).

Results for both Neuroticism and Extraversion are consistent with the VSA model. Neurotic individuals experience more stress and have more difficulty in adapting to individual and marital difficulties, whereas extraverted individuals experience lower levels of stress and are better able to cope with problems (Barelds, 2005).

Robins, Caspi and Moffitt (2000) interviewed 260 couples separately and jointly, asking them about the positive and negative aspects of their relationship. The couples were also given a multidimensional personality questionnaire. Results showed that a woman's happiness in her relationship was predicted by her husband's low negative emotions or (Neuroticism according to the researcher report), high positive emotions and ability to control his impulses. A possible explanation is that women are more likely to express problems and criticism in the relationship, so men's ability to comfort, use humour and absorb anger is crucial (Gottman, 1994). Men high on positive emotionality express a stronger need for close relationships and work harder to achieve harmony, particularly when their wives are dissatisfied (Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996).

As cited in Kelly and Conley (1987), several longitudinal studies of marital success, used self-report measures of Neuroticism. Adam (1946) had 100 couples complete a personality inventory before and after marriage, and gave self-report measures of marital adjustment. Results indicated that emotional stability and irritability before marriage were predictors of poor marital adjustment. Terman and Oden (1947), as cited in Kelly and Conley (1987), found that marital stability predicted marital happiness, even 18 years later, for both sexes. Burgess and Wallin (1953) found a low but significant correlation between the scores on the Thurston Neurotic Inventory before marriage and a follow-up on marital adjustment. Uhr (1957), as cited in Kelly and Conley (1987), found that Neuroticism scores taken before marriage were significantly related to men's marital happiness but only after 18 years of marriage. Sears's (1977) Marital-Aptitudes Scores instrument contains items of social and

family background in addition to a focus on Neuroticism. In a longitudinal study following 77 newlywed couples over a four year period, Bentler and Newcomb (1978) found that emotional stability and objectivity in women were predictive of marital satisfaction, whereas deliberateness and an introverted personality type in men were predictive of marital satisfaction.

Robins, Caspi, and Moffitt (2002) aimed to understand how personality traits influence romantic relationships, and to test whether the influence of personality is consistent over time and across relationships partners. A sample of 712 representative individuals were involved in a longitudinal study in which their personality and relationships experiences were assessed at two points during young adulthood, at ages 18 and 26 years old. Four percent of the participants were married at age 21, 22% were married at age 26, and 2% were married at both assessments, with all but one individual in these 2% married to the same partner. The first assessment of personality was at age 18 and the first assessment of the relationships experiences was at the age of 21. Results showed that individuals who were happy and non-abusive at age 21 remained happy and non-abusive in their relationships at age 26, despite the fact that some were not in the same relationship at both points in time. As for the effect of personality on relationships, people who had aggressive, stress-reactive and alienated personalities had maladaptive intimate relationships, and their relationships grew progressively worse over time. In contrast, people high in positive emotionality had relatively happy, non-abusive relationships and tended to show improvement over time in some aspects of the relationship. Overall, personality in young adulthood was found to predict the nature and the course of intimate relationships during young adulthood. Moreover, the experience of being dissatisfied in an abusive relationship can lead to an individual becoming a more anxious and angry person. Remaining in an abusive relationship for a long time can also make a person cautious and restrained in his or her thoughts, feelings and behaviours. Furthermore, the main effect showed that relationships generally improved over time during young adulthood, with increase in quality and decline in conflict and abuse. Thus a relationship experience in young adulthood can nurture personality change. The results showed no difference between men and women.

Another longitudinal study, conducted over a period of eight years by Lehnart and Neyer (2006), followed 253 German young adults who were in a relationship for at least 6 months prior to the assessment. The study aimed to assess personality and attachment variables at three different times, with a four years gap between assessments. The authors split the sample into "continuers," who remained with the same partner over the whole study

period, and "relationship changers," who split up with a partner but found a new partner, either once or even several times, though most "relationship changers" only changed their partner once or twice.

This study showed that Neuroticism was not a predictor of marital stability, but dissatisfaction with the relationship lead to separation. Some specific features of relationships are more important in predicting its continuation than personality traits. The "continuers" and "changers" differed remarkably with regard to change in Agreeableness and relationship satisfaction across time. "Continuers" followed the normative pattern of increasing Agreeableness, but Agreeableness in "changers" did not change at all. Normative change in Agreeableness seems to be more related to stable, continuing relationship experiences in partnerships. Additionally, in unstable relationships, extraverted individuals seemed to be more independent from their partners, possibly because they were more interested in meeting other people, maybe even including potential partners. In stable relationships, on the other hand, more agreeable individuals were more dependent on their partners. Being dependent on the partner in a stable relationship was associated with avoiding arguments or fights (Lehnart & Neyer, 2006).

Moreover, the study confirmed a slight decline of relationship satisfaction in the "continuer" group and an increase in relationship satisfaction among the "changers". However, the decline in satisfaction among "continuers" was small, whereas the increase in "changers" was larger. The authors showed that the slight decline of relationship satisfaction is not restricted to married couples, but is a general effect in long-term couples. Furthermore, ending a relationship and entering into a new one might have different implications for different individuals. Some people may find it relieving to leave a partnership, whereas others may find it frightening to leave or be left by their partner, resulting in decreasing or increasing Neuroticism. Neuroticism is the personality trait which is most vulnerable to environmental conditions (Lehnart & Neyer, 2006).

In a conclusion, these studies show that, over time, personality dispositions predict the experience and behaviours of both men and women in their intimate relationships. Moreover, it seems from this overview of studies that there is a strong relationship between personality and marital satisfaction. Would personality still have such a strong influence on marital outcome for marriage in a very different culture, with a very different approach to marriage? To address this question, the personalities of married individual subjects will be considered as a part of the following study of Saudi Arabian arranged marriages.

2.4.1.3 Attitudes

By examining happy, long-term marriages lasting more than 20 years, Mackey and O' Brien (1995) empirically identified five factors that appeared to be important to marital longevity: (1) Containment of conflict, (2) Mutuality of decision-making, (3) Quality of communication, (4) Positive attitude represented by relational values of trust, respect, understanding and equity, and (5) Sexual and psychological intimacy. The authors further reported that the average length of the waiting period between divorce and remarriage seems to be decreasing from five to three years. Unfortunately, of those who remarry, 60% are likely to divorce again (Martin & Bumpass, 1989), suggesting that, even in their remarriages, people are unable to achieve sufficient marital satisfaction. Using a modified Delphi technique (a consensus-building technique), Fenell (1993) narrowed down a large list of marital characteristics to the 10 most important for long-term successful marriages. The method employed a panel of individuals with expert knowledge of the subject, who engaged in a three-round process of elimination to arrive at consensus. The 10 most important characteristics, in order from most to least important, were identified as (1) lifetime commitment to marriage, (2) loyalty to spouse, (3) strong moral values, (4) attitude of respect for spouse as a friend, (5) attitude of commitment to sexual fidelity, (6) desire to be a good parent, (7) faith in God and spiritual commitment, (8) prioritizing pleasing and supporting the spouse, (9) being a good companion to spouse, and (10) willingness to forgive and be forgiven.

In a study of adults' attachment, relationship satisfaction, and psychological well-being as an outcome of relationship quality, Banse and Kowalick (2007) investigated how implicit attitudes towards romantic partners are related to explicit attitudes. Their sample consisted of a) women who had recently fallen in love and were in new relationships, b) women abused and living in refuge, c) women hospitalized due to complication in pregnancy and d) a control group of female college students who were currently in relationships at least six months in duration. Results showed that the group of abused women showed the most negative implicit and explicit attitudes towards their ex-partners, whereas the women who had recently fallen in love showed most positive implicit and explicit attitudes toward their partners. Differences were significant in relation to the control group only for the explicit attitudes. The explicit attitudes toward partners correlated positively with psychological well-being for women who were hospitalized and for women in the control group. Overall, the implicit attitudes of the romantic partner may serve as coping techniques in stressful events.

Eysenck and Wakefield (1981) looked at social attitudes (tender-mindedness versus tough-mindedness, radicalism versus conservatism) and sexual attitudes (libido, sexual motivation and sexual thoughts, feelings and interest, sexual satisfaction), among other variables, in a study to assess marital satisfaction in 566 couples. . The findings reviled that sexual attitude variables contributed most heavily, and social attitudes contributed minimally, to marital satisfaction.

If attribution is considered as a facet of attitude, based on the concept that a person's thoughts and beliefs influence his or her attempts to control important life events (Peterson & Stunkard, 1989), then Graham's (2003) study can provide additional insight into the impact of attitudes on marriage. The aim of Graham's study was to examine the couples' negative or positive attributions in stressful events and how these attributions may be reflected in marital quality. Findings showed that people who make an effort to improve their marital quality by interpreting or making positive attributions to account for their spouses' negative behaviour (i.e., the spouse might be not feeling well, and that's why he or she said something hurtful) are less negatively affected by stress than those who make negative attributions.

Husbands with traits of hostility coupled with overt hostile behaviour and attributions of blame with negative intentions and cognitions (Smith, Sanders, & Alexander, 1990; Fincham & Bradbury, 1993) negatively affect their wives (Gealick, Bodenhausen, & Wyesr, 1985). Sharlin, Florence and Hammerschmidt (2000) found that marital satisfaction was related to a number of couple-level qualities, such as mutuality of trust, respect, support, give and take, sharing of values, beliefs, interests, philosophies, fun and humour. These findings were consistent across cultures (United States, Canada, Israel, Chile, Germany, Netherlands, Sweden, and South Africa.

It is self evident that the attitudes of people entering an arranged marriage are likely to be rather different from those of individuals who freely enter into a choice marriage. Therefore, a scale focused on assessing attitude towards arranged marriages was included in this study of Saudi Arabian individuals.

2.4.1.4 Love and Sexuality

Love and sexuality can go together to affect marital outcome positively, but, if there exists within the couple a quality or enduring vulnerability that might interfere with their capacity for loving sex, it may ultimately negatively affect marital satisfaction.

Conversely, if the couple is able to use effective and smooth adaptive processes to cope with challenges to a healthy and loving sexual relationship, that will reflect positively on the marital outcome. Therefore, I have placed the topic of love and sexuality in the Enduring Vulnerability group within the VSA model, although love and sexuality can also be considered as marital outcomes in the Marital Quality group.

In a cross-cultural study, which included subjects from eight countries (United States, Canada, Israel, Chile, Germany, Netherlands, Sweden, and South Africa), Sharlin, Florence and Hammershmidt (2000) examined a total of 610 couples who had been married or living together for between 20 and 46 years. Almost all couples were from middle to upper-middle class populations within their own countries, and were over the age of 45 years at the time of the study and were approaching the empty-nest years and/or retirement. They completed an extensive battery of questionnaires covering family background, relationship history, parental and marital relationships, marital adjustment, problem solving, communication, reason for staying married, and requirements for marital satisfaction. Love, mutuality and sharing emerged as bases of the respondents' long-term marital satisfaction.

Children play a role in warding off divorce when couples are unhappy; lifestyle and love play less of a role. Extremely happy couples stay together firmly because of their love for each other; for them, love is very important. Children, lifestyle and love are all salient motivations for very happy couples. Overall, marital satisfaction was predicted by a range of relationship quality variables, such as closeness, communication, affection and expression, whereas life satisfaction was predicted by employment, length of marriage, health, economic status and closeness (Sharlin, Florence, & Hammershmidt, 2000). Notably, closeness is a predictor of both marital and overall life satisfaction.

Other researchers found that mutual love and equality in marriage were associated with a higher level of marital satisfaction (Israeli & Tabory, 1988). Conversely, it was also noted that marital conflicts were more frequent in couples in which the women are highly educated. The highly educated women demand equality and mutual love within the relationship, which leads to conflicts if the husband does not share her view, and ultimately leads to the husbands being less satisfied (Burke & Weir, 1976).

Drawing on attachment theory, researchers have begun to form a theoretical framework for understanding the functional meaning of sex within romantic relationships (Birnbaum, Reis, Mikulincer, Gillath, & Orpaz, 2006). In this study, research showed that the association between sexual experiences and relationship interaction varied as a function of attachment style. Anxiety attachment was associated with anxiety about sexual experience,

such as seeking to be in love and desire for partner involvement during sexual intercourse. Anxious attachment amplified the effects of positive and negative sexual experiences on relationship interactions. People rely heavily on sexual interactions and sexual relationships to fulfil their attachment needs. Highly anxious women tend to confound sexual and other relationship qualities. In contrast, Avoidant attachment was associated with aversive sexual feelings and cognitions. Avoidantly attached people suppressed the effect of sexual experiences on daily relationship interaction and are less likely to enjoy sex. Moreover, they may be uncomfortable with intimacy, and with the relational needs imposed by sexual interaction. Avoidantly attached individuals tend to decouple sex from other relationship qualities.

Women are more likely than men to rely on sexual experiences as a means of relationship and partner evaluation. Women may react to the positive and negative feelings during sexual activity with a matching increase or decrease in perceived relationship quality and partner suitability for a long-term romantic relationship (Birnbaum & Reis, 2006).

Lanvine (1988) defines sexual desire as the motivation to seek out, initiate or respond to sexual stimulation. According to this definition, sexual desire involves cognitive and emotional wishes and motivation to engage in sexual fantasy and activity. As cited in Brezsnyak and Whisman (2004), LoPiccolo and Friedman (1988) explained sexual desire as both a determinant and an outcome of marital satisfaction. When marital satisfaction is low, one consequence will be that sexual desire will also be low.

Sexual satisfaction contributes to relationship satisfaction and stability (Sprecher & Cate, 2004). Marital distress can reduce sexual intimacy, and lack of sexual desire over time produces frustration. Brezsnyak and Whisman (2004) recruited 57 married couples take part in a study to examine the correlation between marital satisfaction and sexual desire, also investigating whether or not the relationship between these variables is moderated by marital power. No moderating effects for marital power were found. However, results showed that men who perceived themselves as powerful were likely to also have a high desire for sex. More equality in power within the marriage was correlated with a higher level of sexual desire for both husbands and wives.

According to Hassebrauck and Fehr (2002), intimacy, agreement, independence and sexuality represent the four core dimensions of relationship quality and thus substantiate the claims of Fletcher, Simpson and Thomas (2000) that marital quality is a multidimensional construct. Glenn (1998) proposed two dimensions of relationship quality – positive and negative. In the positive dimension, marital satisfaction is reflected in marital

harmony and spousal emotional support. The negative dimension is reflected in stress, conflicts and strains. Sexuality and independence were the weaker factors for predicting a satisfying relationship, as compared to the intimacy and agreement dimensions of relationship quality (Glenn, 1998). Conversely, Eysenck and Wakefield (1981) found that sexual behaviour contributes heavily to marital satisfaction. They identify high and low levels of libido as predictive of marital satisfaction, especially if correlated with personality type. They found that men's sexual satisfaction was related to their female partners' libido. Another study found that the quality of sexual relationship was a significantly stronger predictor compared to other domains of marital satisfaction only for husbands (Lawrence, Pederson, Bunde, Barry, Brock, Fazioet al., 2008). Eysenck and Wakefield (1981) found a similar sex difference in that women's sexual satisfaction did not depend on their male partners' libido. Overall, lower male libido or high female libido correlated positively with marital satisfaction, and similarity in libido between partners within a marriage also was also highly and positively correlated with marital satisfaction (Eysenck & Wakefield, 1981).

2.4.2 Stressful Events

2.4.2.1 Crisis Theory

This theory presumes that, apart from marital dissatisfaction, separation or divorce reflect failures to recover from crisis. Stressful Events can lead to negative marital outcomes, though the negative outcomes could be prevented if the couple's level of resources, definition of events, ongoing interaction with their external world, and their adaptive negotiations were adequate. If couples are not able to adequately respond to potential Stressful Events, Crisis Theory predicts that decline in marital satisfaction or stability is likely to occur (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). McCubbin and Paterson (1982) focus on how families react successfully to cope with stress. Successful reactions to stressful events depend on the nature of the events, available concrete resources, and interpretation of events (i.e., as slightly stressful to extremely stressful) Successful recovery involves the preservation of family unity with enhancement of the family system, together with the growth and development of individual members. Most responses to an event develop over time and such responses may have implication for responses to both similar and different future events (McCubbin & Patterson, 1982).

The transition to parenthood, particularly after the birth of the first child, is considered to be a crisis event affecting couples as individuals and impacting their marital

outcome. Russell (1974) and Daniel and Hobbs, (1968) both found no relationship between the babies' age and degree of crises that was being experienced within the couple. In contrast, Dyer (1963) found a negative relationship between the age of babies and crisis, indicating that crisis decreases over time or as children mature. Results from study of 511 couples indicated that transition to parenthood is moderately stressful, even though partners individually experienced fulfilment in becoming a parent (Russell, 1974). He also found that parents with babies who were less than one year old reported more crisis, or higher crisis scores, than those who had older children. These results suggest a negative relationship between babies' ages and their parents' struggling to adjust after having their first child (Russell, 1974).

Other factors that have been studied and considered as crisis variables are getting married at an early age, violence in the family of origin, and particular patterns of negative interaction and attribution that have been repeatedly shown to be important to marriage and relationship outcomes (Lindahl, Clements, & Markman, 1998).

Crisis theory has limitations, including a failure to specify mechanisms of change in marital satisfaction and failure to identify specific coping responses that lead to either adaptation or mal-adaptation. Crisis theory also fails to specify internal or external concrete sources that could help couples to overcome their crisis.

2.4.2.2 External Stressors

A variety of important variables that have been studied longitudinally as potential predictors of both marital stability and marital satisfaction were found to impact both in the same way, either increasing or decreasing, but did not show the same effects marital duration. Only few variables affect marital satisfaction and marital stability differently. As described above, marital stability is defined as the absence of divorce, separation or consideration of separation or divorce, and marital satisfaction is defined by no reported thoughts of separation or divorce (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). According to a review by Karney and Bradbury (1995), marriages tend to become more stable but less satisfying with time, which supports the idea that marital stability and marital satisfaction are not interchangeable outcomes, though they are clearly related.

Some of the eternal variables that have been seen as a stressful to marital outcomes are income and employment (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). These two variables have been shown to have opposite effects within marriages. Husbands' employment correlates

positively and wives' employment negatively with relationship satisfaction. In predicting marital stability, stable financial resources were more important than total income of a couple. However, social security as a source of stable income predicted slight declines in marital stability. Of all variables studied, marital satisfaction showed the strongest effect on marital stability. Undoubtedly, an unstable marriage is often marked by dissatisfaction, but the experience of dissatisfaction is not a strong predictor of instability. This means that knowing a couple's initial perceptions of their marriage alone is insufficient to predict eventual stability. With the exception of parenthood stress, stressful life events predicted lower marital stability and less satisfaction over time.

In an early study of adult respondents who were currently married and living with their spouses, Renne (1970) reported that African Americans who had low income or little education were more likely than Caucasian Americans of similar income and education levels to be dissatisfied with their marriages. Couples currently raising children were more likely to be dissatisfied with their marriages than people who had never had children or whose children had left home, regardless of race, age or income level.

In an extensive review of literature on economic circumstances and family outcomes, White and Rogers (2000) reported that the joint income of two partners is associated with marital happiness, child well-being and marital dissolution.
They identified avenues for further research, including measurement tools, and other variables to examine, including reciprocal relations between family structure, economic well-being, race and gender effects, suggesting that all variables might have strong long-term influence on marriage. Parker (2002) identified other important factors, including greater financial and social independence for women, and a greater proportion of women working outside the home than not. They also found evidence that observing and modelling parental divorce and divorce of peers' parents has contributed to the observed decline in both marriage and birth rates.

Marital changes for couples may relate to the onset of child rearing (Lindahl, Clements, & Markman, 1998). Several studies have linked raising children and the transition to parenthood with negative marital satisfaction. Conversely, child rearing has also been linked to warding off divorce when couples are unhappy (Belsky, Lang, & Rovine, 1985; Bodenmann et al., 2006; Renne, 1970; Sharlin et al., 2000). A study on women in Germany, Italy and Switzerland suggested that having children and financial strain were variables acting as barriers to divorce (Bodenmann et al., 2006). A study by Gottman and Levenson (2000) with the goal of predicting the timing of divorce and the survival of marriages found

that, if couples had to resolve conflicts arising from multiple sources during the first seven years of marriage, there were negative effects that were then associated with divorce for 50% of the group. Apart from conflict in the first seven years, low marital satisfaction was found during the period between the first child's birth and the child's reaching age 14.

Studies of physical illnesses and their symptoms, disability, low morale, isolation, depression or heavy drinking and having few intimate associates or friends suggest that these variables correlated with high dissatisfaction within marriage. When looking at marital dissolution, improved marital quality is one of the reasons that couples in troubled marriages stay together. Other proposed factors preventing divorce are financial constraints, the presence of young children in the home, or religious beliefs, all of which may keep persistently troubled marriages intact (Knoester & Booth 2000).

It seems clear that marital quality is not stable across the course of marriage. Marital quality indicative of marital satisfaction and marital happiness is one of the important determinants of human well-being (Murphy, Glaser, & Grundy, 1997). Findings from Burman and Margolin (1992) and from Gove, Hughes and Style (1983) suggest that unhappy and distressed couples are at greater risk of poor mental and physical health than their happily married counterparts.

The hypothesis that marital quality is more important to women's mental health than to men's, but simply being married is more important to men's mental health than to women's (Gove et al., 1983) has its proponents (e.g., Simon, 1995) as well as opponents (e.g., Barnett, Brennan, Raudenbush, & Marshall, 1994). The latter researchers found that, like marital status and marital transition, marital quality has similar effects on men's and women's well-being (Barnett et al., 1994; Williams, 2003). Some qualitative research suggests that having a supportive spousal relationship is more important to men's well-being than to women's (Simon, 1995). Williams (2003) further reported on data from an analysis of three waves (1986, 1989 and 1994) of a nationally representative survey by House (1986). Williams' analysis indicated that an unsatisfactory marriage undermines psychological well-being for men and women equally. In some cases an unsatisfying marriage is associated with worse psychological well-being than leaving the marriage or remaining unmarried. Remarriage after divorce is associated with a decline in depression and an increase in life satisfaction for men only. However, among women with poor marital quality, the transition to widowhood is associated with increased life satisfaction.

Another variable that has received little attention in the West but that is known to have an influence marital outcomes in non-Western cultures is the spouses' relationships

with the family-in-law. Baker, in his 1979 book *Chinese Family and Kinship*, states that the affectionate relationship between a mother and her son can be threatened by his marriage and the arrival of his bride. If the mother is selfish, she will be jealous of the young wife, which raises many problems. In China before the 19th century, a daughter-in-law could be readily divorced if she was regarded as irresponsible and negligent toward her parents-in-law, or for infertility, garrulousness, theft, jealousy, or having an incurable disease. On the other hand, the daughter-in-law would not be divorced if she mourned for three years for either of her parents-in-law, if she had no home to return to, or if, by good luck, her husband's family became wealthy after her marriage to their son. In China, a divorced woman is unlikely to remarry and her own family would be unlikely to welcome her back. The options for her would be to become a nun, prostitute or beggar, or to commit suicide. Such potential consequences would be extremely stressful.

Just as few psychological studies have addressed the relationship between attitudes towards family-in-laws and marital satisfaction, the relationship between mother-in-law and daughter-in-law has received little attention, despite the impact it has on marriage outcomes. This inattention might be due to the confidentiality and sensitivity surrounding this relationship. As cited in (Chung & Crawford, 1996), conflict with mothers-in-law was reported as a major contributor to mental illness 34% of female Korean psychiatric patients (Kim & Nam, 1978; Lee, 1981; Park, 1987; Yoo, 1976; Ko, 1989), but this result should be accepted with caution. Chung, Crawford and Fisher (1996) found that conflict in a woman's relationship with her mother-in-law is associated with the woman experiencing lower marital satisfaction.

Very few studies have investigated the relationship between husbands and their in-laws, or the impact of this relationship on the husbands' and couples' marital satisfaction. One four-year longitudinal study followed rural, Caucasian couples who lived in the American Midwest and had been married for an average of 20 years, examining the relationship between the husbands and wives with both sets of in-laws. The results showed that, for wives, conflict with the parents-in-law was a predictor of the wives' later evaluation and perception of their marital relationships. However, for husbands, only discord with their father-in-law impacted their later perception of their marital relationship. Conversely, satisfaction in marital life predicted less discord with family-in-law members, but only for husbands. The study concludes that conflicts with family-in-law members will affect marital stability, satisfaction and commitment over time. Finally, despite the fact that most participants considered accumulation of everyday stresses as a central trigger for divorce,

general stress was not shown to influence individuals' decisions to divorce (Bryant, Conger, & Meehan, 2001).

Based on evidence indicating that multiple stress-related or potentially stress-inducing variables impact marital outcome, a scale was included to measure some stressful event and their impact on the Saudi Arabian sample. A scale to assess relationships with the family-in-law will also be developed and included, as family-in-law relationships may be important in Saudi Arabian culture.

2.4.3 Adaptive Processes

2.4.3.1 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (Levinger, 1965) states that marital success or failure will depend on a cost-benefit assessment of being in a relationship. Rewards can be viewed as emotional security, sexual fulfilment and social status. The costs or negativities within the relationship can be seen in terms of social, financial and religious constraints, which may keep the person in the relationship. A further cost is the presence of attractive alternatives outside the relationship, such as potential extra-marital partners who might evoke a desire to escape from the current relationship and to have more freedom and less strain. It is likely marriages end when the attraction of the relationship is low, the barriers to leaving the relationship are weak and the alternatives to the relationship are tempting.

According to Lewis and Spanier (1982), a marital relationship that has marital satisfaction coupled with marital stability, reflecting two orthogonal dimensions, can have four typologies: (1) satisfied and stable, (2) satisfied but unstable, (3) unsatisfied but stable, or (4) unsatisfied and unstable. Van Yperen and Buunk (1994) found that women who felt they over-benefited from their relationship, as compared to their partner, are less satisfied in their relationships and feel more guilt than men who felt they over-benefited from the relationship. Many variables in the relationship could be viewed as either a cost or a benefit. For example, sexual satisfaction serves as reward which contributes positively to the couple's evaluation of their marriage (Karney & Bradbury, 1995; Sprecher & Cate, 2004). In another study, Andersen (2000) considered marital satisfaction as an exchange relationship. He hypothesized that financial problems serve as a cost, affect the stability and satisfaction of the relationship and can be the main cause for divorce, but his results showed no meaningful relationship between financial problems and divorce.

Social exchange theory has both weaknesses and strengths in the context of understanding marriage and marital outcomes. It lacks clear and precise concepts of cost and benefits. It may be the case that costs and benefits are largely determined by individual perception. Variables that play these roles are likely to change when the individual's evaluation of the relationship changes. Moreover, change in marital relationship occurs with change in intrapersonal relationships, which is not taking into account in social exchange theory. The strengths of the theory are that it incorporates many variables, accounts for a variety of marital outcomes and distinguishes marital satisfaction from marital stability.

2.4.3.2 Behavioural Theory

Unlike social exchange theory, behavioural concepts of marriage focus on overt interpersonal behaviours, rewards and costs, behaviours exchanged during problem-solving discussions, attributions that spouses make for their partners' behaviours and cognitive responses that affect marriage by their influence on subsequent interactions.

Research evidence has shown that long-married couples are better able to regulate their emotions without distress and have greater marital satisfaction than younger or middle-aged couples (Carstensen, Graff, Levenson, & Gottman, 1996). The authors attributed this ability to learned techniques for softening conflict with positive affection, but also pointed out that some conflicts either resolve automatically or lose their power to threaten or arouse strong emotions. Moreover, the need to resolve every conflict encountered in a relationship may diminish over the course of a marriage, as spouses' priorities shift in the light of approaching old age.

Principles of learning theory mainly developed by Ivan Pavlov (e.g., classical conditioning) and B. F. Skinner (e.g., operant conditioning) are used in the modification of undesired behaviours, a treatment modality commonly referred to as Behaviour Therapy or Behaviour Modification. The work of Wolpe, Eysenck, Shapiro and Skinner made major contributions to the initial application of behaviour therapy in human clinical settings (Weiner, 2003). Early on, Thorndike and Watson rejected introspective methods and sought to restrict psychology to quantitative methods. Overall, behavioural principles focus mainly on the overt symptoms and conditioned maladapted behaviours rather than underlying, internal processes (Sheldon, 2005). However, some schools of behaviourism have moved to include internal processes and accept the use of modern biotechnological techniques to measure physiological processes that were previously unobservable and unmeasureable

(Thorpe & Olson, 1990). Behaviour theory now focuses on perceptual and motor models of behaviour and on systems theory.

In relation to marriage, the main underlying hypothesis of behaviour theory is that rewarding or positive behaviours tend to enhance global evaluations of the marriage, but punishing or negative behaviours do harm. Accordingly, an accumulation of divergent experiences during and after interactions is thought to gradually influence spouses' judgments of marital quality. The strength of the behavioural model is that it suggests a mechanism to explain how judgments of marital satisfaction change over time and holds a strong focus on differential interactions. Its weaknesses lie in its exclusion of both day-to-day interaction patterns and macro-level interaction variables, and its provision of explanations for only a limited range of the marital outcomes that are possible (Karney & Bradbury, 1995).

Fitzpatrick's (1988) presented three types of couples: (1) stable couples, (2) hostile couples, and (3) hostile/detached couples. These three types are similar to Gottman's (1993) types of couples: volatile, validating and conflict-avoiding. The couple types can also be distinguished based on different variables, including problem-solving behaviour and persuasion attempts. Volatile couples begin their persuasion in the first third of the interaction when feelings are first being expressed and remain high throughout the interaction, validating couples peak in the middle third of the argument phase, and conflict-avoiding couples seem never to engage in persuasion attempts (Gottman, 1979).

In a quasi-experimental study of 60 newlywed couples recruited through newspaper advertisement, Johnson and Bradbury (1999) used cumulative point graphs to investigate marital interaction longitudinally. This research method was meant to overcome the limitations of previous longitudinal research (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). In the study, Johnson and Bradbury (1999) attempted to identify types of newlywed couples' interactions by using judges who were expected to reliably identify the (a) symmetrical positive interactions in which both husband and wife were either positive or negative or both were mixed; (b) asymmetric "early–break" interactions in which one spouse was increasingly positive while the partner was increasingly negative, representing a demand/withdraw pattern; and (c) asymmetric "late-break" interactions in which one partner is slow to respond during the interaction in an attempt to lessen the intensity of the conflict. In this specific study, only symmetrically negative and mixed interactions were expected, because the focus was on newlywed couples who tend to show negative interactions coupled high marital satisfaction. The researchers also examined the relationship between marital satisfaction with

different patterns of interaction concurrently and over time. The authors presumed that greater positivity would be associated with greater marital satisfaction. Conversely, the asymmetrical interaction patterns are expected to be associated with lower marital satisfaction and early separation, reflecting inadequate interaction skills. According to this research, the most surprising finding was that spouses who appeared to react negatively and positively in an interaction right from the start did not seem to be differentially at risk compared with couples in which spouses remained positive throughout the interaction. Other researchers (Geiss & O'Leary, 1981) have suggested that this quasi-experimental study had several limitations, including a small sample, limited between-couple variability, failure to examine reliability of behavioural coding results across different evaluation systems, the weighting of the different codes reflecting merely one of many alternatives due to lack of ranking on an interval scale, and failure to address the consistency of discussion patterns across time because only one interaction was observed.

2.4.3.3 Dyadic Coping

Dyadic stress is defined as a specifically encountered stress that affects both partners either directly or indirectly and that activates the coping efforts of both partners (Revenson, Kayser, & Bodenmann, 2005). According to Revenson and colleagues, one partner will evaluate the stress and communicate it to the other partner, who will receive, interpret and decode these signals, then respond with a kind of dyadic coping, ranging from ignoring to active response. Dyadic coping assumes that three elements--the interdependence of the spouses, their common concerns, and their mutual goals--stimulate a joint problem-solving process. The concept of dyadic coping was first developed with regard to strategies for coping with daily troubles, but was later extended to try to understand coping critical life events and chronic stress in everyday life,.

Dyadic coping has both positive and negative types. The positive supportive dyad copes in active ways, such as helping with daily tasks, giving advice and providing empathic understanding. In symmetrical dyadic coping, both partners contribute equally to the process in order to handle a problem. They use strategies such as joint problem-solving, joint information seeking, sharing of feelings and mutual commitment. In contrast, supportive dyadic coping means that one partner helps the other to deal with his or her unilateral stress. In common dyadic coping, both partners experience the stress and try to manage the situation by coping jointly, but one of the partners takes over responsibilities that reduce the stress

experienced by the other. Common dyadic coping is most commonly used in response to stressors (Bodenmann, 2000).

Conversely, a negative type of hostile dyadic coping involves support that is accompanied by criticism, disaffection or disinterest. What the supporting partner provides is done in a negative way. Ambivalent dyadic coping is when one partner supports the other, but does so unwillingly. Superficial dyadic coping occurs when a partner provides support that is dishonest with no empathy (Bodenmann, 2000).

A study conducted on 663 German married couples, revealed significant correlations between marital satisfaction and dyadic coping processes (Wunderer & Schneewind, 2008). Wives marital satisfaction appears to depend more on or be more strongly impacted by their spouses' supportive behaviours than husbands' marital satisfaction is. Sabourin, Laporte and Wright (1990) found that explicit coping skills are more important than problem-solving in predicting marital satisfaction. In a study investigating the relationship between marital quality and dyadic coping over a period of two years, a sample of 90 couples showed that, for women, a woman's own and her partner's dyadic coping skills were significant predictors of marital satisfaction, whereas, for men only, their own dyadic coping skills were predictive (Bodenmann, Pihet, & Kayser, 2006).

Gottman (1994) also sought to identify factors which lead to separation and divorce by comparing the interactive behaviour of distressed and non-distressed couples. Using the paradigm of observing the couple's interaction style by creating conflict situations, couples were asked to discuss and resolve a moderately important problem in their relationship. The authors then identified specific critical behaviours that discriminate between happy and unhappy relationships, and that predict later separation (Gottman, 1994: Gottman et al., 1998). The stability of marriage lies on the balance between positive and negative behaviour. The non-regulated couple (couple in which at least one of the spouses shows negative behaviour) is more likely to show a pattern of relationship cascade early in the relationship, and to quickly reach the final stage of separation. Gender differences were also shown. Wives were more capable of maintaining a balance of affection and kept better control of problem-solving tasks (Gottman, 1994).

In a longitudinal study conducted by Lawrence et al. (2008), the researchers recruited 101 newlywed couples who had been married for between three months and three years. The study aimed to assess types of dyadic interaction styles in relation to marital satisfaction. They identified five types of interaction styles. The first interaction style was *communication and conflict management,* which included variables such as the frequency

and length of arguments; verbal, psychological and physical aggression during arguments; withdrawal during arguments; emotions and behaviours before, during, and after arguments; and conflict resolution strategies. Second was *interspousal support,* which includes four more specific subtypes of behaviour that occur when one spouse has had a bad day, is feeling down, or has a problem. The four subtype are (a) emotional support, which includes talking and listening to each other, offering physical support, showing understanding; (b) direct or indirect tangible support, in which "direct" support is one partner helping to solve the other's problem or make the situation better; and "indirect" support is one partner providing time or resources so that the other is better able to solve the problem him, or herself; (c) informational support, which includes giving advice, providing information, helping spouse think about a problem in a new way; and (d) esteem support, which is one partner showing confidence in the other's ability to handle things. The third type of interaction the researchers found was *emotional closeness and intimacy,* in which emotional closeness is defined as warmth, affection and interdependence between partners, and the relationship includes demonstrations of love and affection. The fourth interaction type is *sensuality and sexuality,* includes assessment of the the quality of the sexual relationship (frequency of sexual activity, satisfaction, negative emotions, sexual difficulties) and sensuality within the relationship. And the fifth interaction type is *decision making and relational control,* which includes asymmetry in decision-making across a variety of areas, spouses' satisfaction with the division of responsibilities, and a couple's ability to negotiate control across a variety of areas (e.g., controlling money). Overall results showed that interactional skills at the time of marriage uniquely predicted initial marital satisfaction for couples, such that higher levels of dyadic functioning were associated with higher levels of initial marital satisfaction (Lawrence et al., 2008).

Among many variables that can be included in dyadic coping are power and decision-making. Power is the ability to influence the behaviour of others and resist their influence (Brehm, Miller, Perlman, & Campbell, 2002). Studies by Gray-Little and Burks (1983) and by Huston (1983) both suggested that these variables (decision-making and power) are associated with marital satisfaction in the expected directions. Both studies showed that couples who share power are generally more satisfied than couples whose power balance is asymmetrical. Related to this, spouses in satisfied marriages reported feeling less controlled (i.e., they feel they participate in decision-making, have the freedom to have relationships with family and friends, and have the freedom to plan activities independently)

than spouses in distressed marriages (Ehrensaft, Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Heyman, O'Leary, & Lawrence, 1999).

There is evidence that equality between spouses increases after the man retires (Kulik, 2002). Kulik proposed that this levelling of equality might be due to the opportunity to redistribute household responsibilities. This argument is consistent with Gottman (1977), who argued that there is a shift in gender roles such that men and women become more similar in their tasks as they grow older. Blood and Woolf (1960) were the first to propose a theory explaining how power relations vary in different stages of the family life cycle. They saw that in the early stage of marriage, the husband enjoys a moderate level of power, which increases after the birth of the first child, until this child enters school. Subsequently, his power steadily declines until the oldest child reaches the pre-adolescence stage. A sharp decline is observed when the oldest child leaves home, and the man's power declines further after he retires. According to Blood and Woolf (1960), the reason behind the decline of the man's power is the fluctuation of his resources, such as income, social contacts and authority. Commensurate with the man's declining power, the women gains power.

A study by Kulik (1999) compared 167 traditional men with gender-role ideologies to 162 liberal or modern men, categorized based on their median score on the attitude to gender roles. The results indicated a significant difference between these two groups in terms of perceived power relations. The traditional men were more likely to perceive themselves as having a power advantage and greater economic resources compared to their wives. This is because economic and social resources are among the factors that define the men's status, and consequently influence marital power. However, the greater the emotional commitment of the traditional husband to his wife, the more he expects to become dependent on her in the future to satisfy his emotional needs, increasing the chances that he will perceive her as possessing power in the present. Modern men see power as a residing in social and psychological resources, such as emotional support, social contact, even when their wives possessed more of those resources than they did.

Another study conducted by Kulik (2002) examined 469 Israeli adults, 20% of whom were married, 57% of whom were retired, and 43% of whom had not yet retired. The results showed that both men and women share more egalitarian responsibility for key decisions within the household after both spouses' retirement, and the performance of the traditionally feminine household tasks becomes more equal after retirement. However, the masculine tasks remain the husbands' responsibility even after retirement. These results hold when both men and women are retired, but, when only one of the spouses retires and he or

she has more free time, usually that spouse assumes responsibility for general tasks in order to ease the burden for the working partner. In general, in late adulthood, equality is the accepted norm among retired and pre-retired couples only in feminine tasks, but male participation in feminine tasks does not assure greater satisfaction, especially when masculine tasks are completed only by men. When women participate in masculine tasks, it reflects a greater bond of partnership and influences the couple's satisfaction with life and marriage. It is worth noting again that these balance of power findings concern only retired couples (Kulik, 2002).

Rodman (1972) found that power is affected by norms of gender roles and by resources possessed by the spouse. He saw in Germany, the United States and Denmark that the wife has greater power advantages than her husband, whereas the case is different in Greece and Yugoslavia, where the man has more power. Moreover, he saw that power is different not only between cultures but between traditional and modern families within the same society.

One tool of decision making skills is divorce, or using the threat of divorce as a means of maintaining the family homeostasis. Shamai, Sharlin and Smolinski (1995) undertook a study focused on marital conflict and examined 40 Families with Extreme Distress (FED) from two different towns in Israel. Within the sample, the average age of the husbands was 40 years old and 34 for the wives. The average education level was at the seventh or eighth grade level, and half of the individuals were unemployed. Fifty percent of the sample was diagnosed as having physical or mental health problems. The marriage duration averaged 15 years and couples had an average of six children. All the couples had several periods of separation, after which they reunited. One of the spouses, often the wife, would threaten to apply for divorce, but the true fact was that neither of the spouses really intended to divorce. It seems they used the threat of divorce as a game or game tactic understood by both spouses.

Shamai, Sharlin and Smolinski (1995) analyzed three reasons for threat to divorce in FED. First was a lack of clear boundary definition between members of the family. The threat of divorce occurred as a reaction to feeling the loss of identity, boundaries or roles within the family, in addition to Anxious attachment needs. By threatening to divorce the boundaries and identity become clear, especially if serious action was taken to go public. This was a way to regain family stability. The second reason was excitement. The FED find opportunities to promote excitement through acts committed against society, such as drinking, drug abuse or threatening to divorce. This threat encourages behaviour that can

reunite the couple, providing warmth and love that was hidden under anger. To prevent the use of this kind of excitement in the marriage, the anger needs to be dealt with. The third reason to divorce was the power struggle within the couples. An unresolved power struggle between members of a couple is one of the main reasons for divorce among the FED; threatening divorce results in improving the power position of the spouse making the threat. Other families do not see divorce is a solution for power struggles. Furthermore, the result of this project showed that the women were mainly the ones who threatened divorce and who took the threat into the public domain. The reason that women use the threat or divorce is that the women are the ones who raised the children, ran the household, and made connections with the community. Some of the women were even holding jobs and were the family's sole provider. The reason for not implementing divorce is to maintain family homeostasis, as divorce will take apart the family unit (Shamai, Sharlin &Smolinski, 1995).

Conflict behaviour in marital life starts when one of the spouses behaves in a disturbing way towards the other, which arouses other potentially direct and constructive discussion. In a positive dyadic exchange, the couple express their viewpoints until they reach mutual agreement and an understanding to do things differently in the future (Gottman, 1979). Or, responses during conflict can be negative, such as when the disturbing behaviour evokes complaint and criticism which can lead to withdrawing and passivity. Several researchers (Buysse et al., 2000; Jacobson & Christensen, 1996; Jones & Burdette, 1994) have consistently shown that avoidance is a frequent response to relational conflict and is coupled with variable outcomes that depend on the extent to which the conflict threatens the relationship. Research have found that husbands avoid confronting problems more than wives do, which has been claimed to be caused by cognitive information-processing and motivational mechanisms common to men. Pistol (1989) presented a result referring to the strategies used by individuals with Secure attachment styles in resolving conflicts. These strategies are comprised of compromise and the gathering of different ideas or tools in order to solve a conflict (Pistol, 1989).

Through behavioural and social learning, couples develop insights into how to avoid certain topics (Christensen & Heavey, 1990) and how to avoid negative interactions. . Notably, unrealistic expectations or dysfunctional patterns of communication may increase the likelihood of relationship problems and decline in satisfaction over time (Olsen & Fowers, 1986; Sanders, Halford, & Behrens, 1999).

Markman and Hahlweg (1993) found that relationship satisfaction is highest prior to marriage, declines during the first two and a half years, and stabilizes after approximately

four years. Notably, in the first few months of marriage, associations between marital quality and the variety of conflictual interactions that the spouses experience is insignificant or small in magnitude (Huston et al., 1986; Huston & Vangelisti, 1991). Marital satisfaction tends to decrease significantly over the next five years of marriage showing a "sleeper effect" (Markman, 1981). However, Huston et al. (1986) and Markman and Hahlweg (1993) carried out cross-sectional and observational studies to determine which factors maintain and promote intimacy in the first 6-years of marital life. They concluded that, particularly for husbands, poor conflict management skills led to failure in maintaining and promoting intimacy. Finally, studies aiming to predict relationship breakdown often focus on conflict management behaviours rather than on the affective dimensions of relationships, but both are important determinants of marital instability (Houston, Caughlin, Smith, & George, 2001).

Gottman (1993) described how not all negativity is equally corrosive. Anger was not predictive of separation or divorce, but the husband's defensiveness, contempt and stonewalling were predictive of divorce. The wife's criticism was predictive of separation, and her criticism, defensiveness and contempt were predictive of divorce. The wife's contempt and disgust, as measured using a global specific emotions coding system, were reported to be particularly predictive of marital separation. Similarly, the frequency of the wife's facial expressions of disgust, as assessed by Emotion Facial Action Coding System (EMFACS), predicted with separation and divorce within four years.

Discussing certain topics, including jealousy (Epstein, Baucom, & Rankin, 1993), sexual intercourse in an extramarital affair or wanting to date others (Metts, 1994), autonomy/dependency (Epstein & Baucom, 1993), closeness/distance (Jacobson & Christensen, 1996), lies and betrayed confidence (Metts, 1994), and lack of support (Jones & Burdette, 1994) tend to threaten the relationship. For practical purposes, these topics should be treated by both partners positively with openness, understanding and constructive attitudes for the sake of maintaining and promoting a positive healthy relationship. Regulation of negative affect and conflict resolution are good predictors of stable premarital and parent-child relationships that further herald successful marriages and parenthood (Lindahl & Markman, 1990).

Lawrence et al. (2008) found that only communication and conflict management for wives uniquely predicted changes in marital satisfaction, and that conflict management was a significantly stronger predictor. That the dyadic communication/conflict management skills in marriage were a particularly strong predictor for wives' trajectories of marital satisfaction is consistent with the strong and replicated finding in the marital literature

linking conflict behaviours to marital distress (Bradbury & Karney, 1995; Weiss & Heyman, 1997). These results were significantly stronger for wives' satisfaction slopes compared to husbands' satisfaction slopes and were also consistent with prior literature (e.g., Karney & Bradbury, 1997), even after controlling for other dyadic behaviours such as support, emotional intimacy and decision-making (Lawrence et al., 2008).

It is clear from Western studies how strongly marital satisfaction relies on dyadic conflict resolution. To examine the effective conflict resolution patterns among married Saudis and to determine whether positive patterns of conflict resolution predict marital satisfaction in Saudi marriages in the same was as has been shown by numerous Western researches.

2.4.3.4 Abuse

In a cross-sectional study of 407 women, Wagner and Mongan (1998) differentiated between minor and severe abuse and sought to define what can be considered as abuse. The researchers used interview techniques and examined the women's medical records. In the interview, these women answered an open question as to whether they had been emotionally or physically abused; they also completed an Abuse Risk Inventory (ARI) and measurement on the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS). Results indicated that examples of minor abuse are insults, abusive swearing and saying something to spite another person. Severe abuse is slapping, kicking, biting or hitting another person with or without an object.

Numerous studies (Axinn & Yabiku, 2001; Ghimire, Axinn, Yabiku, & Thornton, 2006; Thornton & Lin, 1994) found that individuals with higher levels of education reported higher levels of love for their spouses, higher levels of communication about producing children, and a lower likelihood of being a victim of domestic violence. However, women who have been previously married and then divorced, have significantly increased likelihood of being beaten by a new spouse. In rural Nepal, having a marriage that was arranged exclusively by parents significantly increased the likelihood of experiencing domestic violence by men but without effect on any of the other marital dynamics. The presence of children increased the level of criticism and disagreement that occurred, but also increased the level of communication about issues relating to children. Marriages of longer duration were associated with someone lower discussion of issues related to having a child and also reduced levels of criticism and disagreements from women. The number and sex of the

children may be just as important for marital quality as the presence of children per se (Ghimire et al. 2006).

One important outcome of declining marital satisfaction and quality is marital dissolution (Kurdek, 1993). In a study of 53 married couples, Newton and Kiecolt-Glaser (1995) also reported other determinants of marital quality, including higher rates hostile behaviours from husbands than from wives and wives who were more neurotic than husbands. During the early years of marriage, husbands' hostility was associated with significant linear decrease in their own and their wives' perception of marital quality. In Hetherington's (2003) longitudinal study of 144 couples, half of whom were divorced and half of whom were not divorced, a quarter of the wives cited their husbands' alcoholism, physical abuse or extramarital sex as contributors to the breakup of their marriage. Both physical and abuse have negative effects on marital satisfaction. Often, psychological abuse proceeds physical abuse, but physical abuse is more common in marriage and long term relationships (O'Leary, 1999). Finally, Rogge and Bradbury (1999) measured communication and aggression among 56 newlywed couples in a four-year longitudinal study. The findings showed that aggression was a predictor differentiating between couples that were separated or divorced couples and those who were satisfactorily married.

Abuse is clearly a very important predictor of marital dissatisfaction, and could be expected to have the same impact across-cultures. To test this hypothesis, abusive behaviour will be assessed in the Saudi Arabian sample taking part in the studies presented later.

2.4.3.5 Communication Style

Verbal communication is an important part of close relationships and is extensively involved in the development of intimacy in the first place (Sprecher & Duck, 1994). The more the spouses disclose to each other, the more happily married they tend to be (Hendrick, 1981). Women are more likely than men to discuss their feelings about their close relationships and other personal aspects of their lives (Clark, 1998), are more likely to be critical of other people and draw more negative conclusions than positive ones (Leaper & Holliday, 1995). Alternatively, men stick to more impersonal matters, seeking more laughter than support and counsel (Clark, 1998). Notwithstanding, these differences depend on the nature of the relationship (Miller, 1990).

Numerous empirical studies on marital couples found that problems in communication and problem-solving skill deficits (Christensen, 1987; Rhoades & Stocker,

2006), negative behaviour escalation in premarital couples and established marriages (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989; Bradbury & Karney, 1993; Julien, Markman, & Lindahl, 1989) and higher disengagement in problem-solving discussions (Smith, Vivian, & O'Leary, 1990) were related to marital distress and lower marital satisfaction.

In another retrospective study or individuals in Germany, Italy and Switzerland, Bodenmann and colleagues (2007) addressed the role of stress in divorce as reported by divorced individuals (N = 662). Low commitment and deficits in interpersonal competencies, including communication, problem solving and coping deficits, were more likely to be perceived as reasons for divorce than stress was. Snyder (1979) found that measures of communication are predictive of global marital satisfaction. The quality of communication, including both positive and negative communication between couples, was linked repeatedly to marital satisfaction (Snyder, 1979). Marital satisfaction and stability were related to the quality of communication. This relationship was demonstrated in cross-sectional and longitudinal studies (Karney & Bradbury, 1995).

Christensen, Eldridge, Catta-Prets, Lim and Santagata (2006) recruited 408 individuals in four different countries: Brazil, Italy, Taiwan, and the United States. Subjects completed a Communication Patterns Questionnaire (CPQ) and a relationship satisfaction scale to complete. This study provided evidence that, cross-culturally, the demand/withdraw interaction pattern is associated with relationship dissatisfaction. The common pattern of communication was the demand/withdraw interaction. This pattern is defined as one in which one of the spouses demands more from the relationship, such as more time together and more expressions of affection, but the other is satisfied with the current situation. The partner who asks more from the relationship is faced directly or indirectly with the need for confrontation. The unsatisfied partner attempt to discuss the matter, complain about the other partner's behaviour or pressure the other partner. The respondent partner, who is satisfied with the current situation, may do nothing about it and avoid or withdraw from the discussion, because discussion may lead to argument or a need to change his or her own behaviour. If the partners do not resolve these differences, there is a negative impact on marital satisfaction. The finding that women are the demanding partners and men the withdrawing partners was not consistent across cultures.

This chapter presented different theories and empirical studies in order to illustrate what constitutes marital success. The concept of marital success combined two dimensions, marital quality and stability. Marital quality may refer to happiness or satisfaction, terms that are sometimes used interchangeably but might have slightly different meanings. In the

studies that compose this thesis, a broad definition encompassing quality, happiness and satisfaction and treating the terms as interchangeable was adopted.

Moreover, this chapter also reviewed the methods of assessing marital success as the combination of marital satisfaction and stability, from a simple attempt to assess marital satisfaction to a more complicated method. Different variables affect marital satisfaction. These variables were presented in a particular order, as guided by the framework of Karney and Bradbury's (1995) VSA model, which groups Enduring Vulnerability, Stressful Events, and Adaptive Behaviours.

Enduring Vulnerability includes the history of the individual that carries on to his intimate relationship. It includes but is not limited to, attachment style, personality, attitudes, love and sexuality. Stressful Events include the internal stressors and external stressors. Finally, Adaptive Behaviours includes social exchange and behaviour theory, dyadic coping skills, abuse and communication.

The next chapter will review marital success across cultures and examine the research evidence regarding marital satisfaction among arranged marriages versus choice marriages.

CHAPTER 3

MARITAL SUCCESS ACROSS CULTURES

3.1 Cross-Cultural Views on Arranged Versus Choice Marriage

Clinical and research wisdom suggests that cultural contexts are not only a reflection of individual attitudes, beliefs and values, but they are also instantiated in policies, practices, symbols and social institutions or situations (Markus, 2004). Furthermore, individuals are not separate from their cultural context, because the context moulds their behaviours, creating a society in which individuals' behaviours and cultural norms are reciprocal. That is to say, the existing culture of the society guides behaviours and behaviour reinforces the cultural norms. Cultural models also tend to moderate and also possibly mediate the mechanisms underpinning several forms of marriages.

It is commonly said that that "love matches start out hot and grow cold, while the arranged marriages start out cold and grow hot" (Blood, 1967). Accordingly, love matches (also known as choice matches or choice marriages) typically involve a very intense romantic involvement, accompanied by idealization of the partner and fantasies about wedded bliss, during the hot phase. After the wedding, reality sets in, and a combination of domestic chores, childcare, financial anxieties and ordinary life seems less than ideal. Idealization is blunted by reality, which leads to an inevitable decline in romantic feelings and marital satisfaction over the years – the cold phase, as evidenced by both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies in Western societies.

In contrast, arranged marriages begin with two people who do not know each other well and may not know each other at all. Because they do not have any romantic feelings for one another prior to the marriage, the partners in an arranged marriage "have nowhere to go but up" (Xiaohe & Whyte, 1990, p. 710). After the marriage, the couple will have the opportunity to get to know one another and build a relationship. As this process proceeds, compatibility and mutual concerns are likely to lead to a mature form of love, perhaps never as "hot" as the premarital emotions experienced in a love match, but possibly a more realistic and durable bond that can survive the test of time and family difficulties (Xiaohe & Whyte, 1990).

Proponents of arranged marriages point to the high divorce rates in modern societies, characterized by freedom of mate choice, as evidence of the problems inherent in love matches. This trend has been the focus of many cultural studies. In an early survey which compared love matches with arranged marriage in Tokyo, Blood (1959) recruited 444 Japanese couples in which the wives were 40 years old or younger. The study found no pattern of starting cold and heating up with time in arranged marriages. Rather, Blood reported that, for both types of marriage, the long-term trajectory was downward, toward less expression of love and lower marital satisfaction. In arranged marriages, the husbands' decline was more gradual than for husbands in choice marriages, so that in later stages of marriage the men in arranged marriages were more satisfied and expressed more feelings of love. However, for wives the trend was the opposite, with women from arranged marriages eventually being much more dissatisfied and expressing much less love than their counterparts in love matches (Blood, 1967).

In a study of 586 married women from the People's Republic of China, researchers examined retrospectively the transition from arranged to free choice marriages in the society, and found that the role of parents has declined sharply and young people take the lead in spouse selection (Xiaohe & Whyte, 1990). The study also refuted the generalised belief that "love matches start out hot and grow cold, while arranged marriages start out cold and grow hot". In contrast to Blood's (1967) findings, Xiaohe and Whyte (1990) found that wives in love matches are more satisfied with their marital relationships than their counterparts in arranged marriages. The authors further noted that this effect held true regardless of the length of the marriage and other background factors that differentiate women in love matches versus women in arranged marriages. Furthermore, marital quality in love matches was found to be higher than in arranged marriages.

Fox (1975) examined two forms of mate selection in Ankara, Turkey. Subjects were selected by use of a 1965 survey from the Turkish State Institute of Statistics (TSIS), which listed households containing married Turkish couples. Interviews were completed for 99% of the eligible listed households. To eliminate the possible contamination of relationships introduced by second or later marriage, only those respondents whose first marriage was still intact were included in the study. This reduced the sample from 803 to 754. The author reported that love matches were common among the more modernized segments of the population, who were exposed to the "modern world of modern ideas" (Fox, 1975, p. 184), but arranged marriages were found among traditional segments. Only 27.6% of the respondents reported having a choice marriage, with higher education and age predicting

love matches. No evidence was found to support the argument that mate choice based on love was disruptive to existing cultural patterns of homogeneity within marriages. When assessed using four spousal status variables, age, education, father's education for both spouses, and urban background history over two generations, love-match (or choice) marriages and arranged marriages were equally homogenous.

In another Turkish study of 430 couples at various stages of urban family life, Hortacsu (2007) examined several aspects of family- versus couple-initiated marriages. The author found that, in comparison to family-initiated marriages, which were traditional within the culture, couple-initiated marriages, also called choice marriages, choice) were more emotionally laden, less enmeshed with families, more egalitarian and involved fewer conflicts. Over successive stages of marriage, conflict declined in family-initiated marriages, and division of labour became less egalitarian in couple-initiated marriages. In both types of marriage, wives were more influential in making decisions related to family and children than their husbands. Couples in later stages of marriage showed lower emotional involvement and less equal division of labour. Although effects of modernization on several aspects of marriage are pervasive in urban Turkish society, traditional marriage is still considered a preferred choice.

These two Turkish studies cast an interesting light on a society that falls between two powerful cultural pressures, the education and modern life of the West and the traditional ways of the Middle East. Moreover, it sheds some light on the progression of and dynamics within arranged marriages.

In an Indian study involving 16 choice marriages in West Bengal, Corwin (1977) examined two marriages that were endogamous (between individuals of similar caste ranks) and 14 that were inter-cast (between individuals of distinctively different caste rank). The inter-cast marriages appeared to be socially accepted. The introduction of registration of marriage without parental consent and increased social and financial mobility through employment opportunities have cause an increase in choice marriage. The trend towards choice marriage has weakened traditionally strong family ties, serving to further sanction choice marriage.

The findings regarding the social impact of family in the Indian and Turkish societies are similar and suggest that, in formerly traditional societies in which arranged marriage is the cultural norm, the trend towards choice marriage is increasing. In Rajasthan, India, Gupta and Singh (1982) studied the two types of marriage (specified as love and arranged) and how the duration of and sex in these marriages affects the quality of love and

liking between members of the couples. It should be noted that one weakness of this study is that the authors fail to not specify the sex variable as quality of sex, frequency of sex or both. In discussing each of these studies, the type of marriage is described using the term originally selected by the authors. The terms "love match," "love marriage" and "choice marriage" are interchangeable.

The sample of 50 couples was divided into two equally sized groups, each of which represented one of the marriage types. With regard to each group, they were divided into 5 categories on the basis of duration of marriage (e.g., those married less than one year, 1-2 years, 2-5 years, 5-10 years, or more than 10 years), education, graduation, and nuclear family type. The authors used Rubin's Love and Liking scale for the assessment of the participants. Results indicated that type of marriage had a significant impact on love, but not on liking. In couples in choice marriages showed a decrease in mean scores of love associated with longer marriage, but couples in arranged marriages showed an increase in mean scores of love in association with longer marriage. So, love was found to be related to marriage duration. According to this study, only sex is related to liking, unless interaction between type and duration of the marriage is taken into account, in which case the relationship between sex and liking becomes insignificant. Sex, type and duration of marriage interact to significantly impact both love and liking. Accordingly, love and liking are two distinct dimensions in marriage and are affected uniquely by duration and other factors.

This research by Gupta and Singh (1982) has been widely cited in other studies, and the results showing a positive relationship between love and duration of marriage, particularly in arranged marriages, is of interest to the current set of studies in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia. However, the study by Gupta and Singh is not without drawbacks. One major drawback is their very small sample size. In the three studies of Saudi Arabian samples to be presented in this thesis, the Rubin's Love scale was used with a much larger sample of husbands and wives in arranged marriages.

Srinivasan and Lee (2004) explored women's attitudes and social change with regard to the dowry system in Northern India. According to their survey, nearly 67% of married women disapproved of the dowry system. However, there is resistance to changing the system, which has always brought material benefits, though typically to the male partner. Still, policy makers in India are concerned by an increasing prevalence of cases in which women who had difficulties paying a dowry were burned to death.

Chowdhury (2004) examined the reasons underlying child marriages (marriages of individuals before the age of 18) in Bangladesh, and found that the main force driving these marriages is the receipt of financial benefits to the parents of the bride. This benefit to the parents of the bride may occur, however, at the cost of the couple who may be very young.

With regard to choice or arranged marriage and their qualities, there are many definite reasons for divergent opinions across diverse cultures. In a Chinese study of a large, representative sample of urban couples, the author examined the quality of marriage by using a multidimensional measure (Pimentel, 2000). According to this study, the importance of parental approval of mates and the importance of marriage type, two priorities in Chinese culture, continue to exert a strong impact on the pattern of marriage quality (Pimentel, 2000). However, results also supported that attitudes and egalitarian division of chores and decision-making strongly influence marriage quality, but sometimes in different ways for men and women. As in the West, Chinese couples with children report lower marriage quality, partly due to increasing domestic inequality, but only in certain types of marriage.

In Latin America, marriage is also central to social life; it is an important cultural institution that counters the instability and changes in the economy. In Latin America, people tend to marry at young ages, and marriages persist because of the survival of household strategies including women's roles within families (Fussell & Palloni, 2004). Whatever the motives and reasons for marriage in the West, just as in Eastern cultures, early marriages still exist even in the midst of apocalyptic social and economic change.

In another cross-cultural study, researchers looked at couples in the United States and in India (Myers, Madathil, & Tingle, 2005). A convenience sample of 45 individuals was examined in the study. The researchers examined marital satisfaction and wellness in couples who were in choice marriages and living in the United States, and in individuals who were in arranged marriages and living in Kerala, India. The couples completed the Characteristics of Marriage Inventory, which required subjects to rate the relative importance of each of five characteristics, and the Wellness Evaluation of Life Style. No support was found for differences in marital satisfaction or wellness in relation to arranged marriages. However, some differences were found in the importance of nine of the 18 items on the scale.

In some of the cross-sectional studies cited here, investigators examined the trend of arranged marriages to start cold, with members of the couple not knowing each other and so not having strong feelings for each other, and become hot, or passionate and loving. The question of whether Saudi Arabian arranged marriages might be described as starting out cold and getting hotter will be examine in the original work presented within this thesis. In

the above studies, showed that education and employment mobility were influential variables causing a change in attitude in favour of choice rather than arranged marriages. A trend towards higher education and employment mobility is also occurring in Saudi Arabia, so these variables will be examined for their effect on arranged marriage.

3.2 Culture, Love, and Marriage

The literature includes relatively few empirical studies. However, many theories have been developed to attempt to explain how love leads to marriage. An overview of the relevant literature and its connectedness to marital development follows.

A Triangular theory of love has three components, Intimacy, Passions and Commitment/Decision, which are further divided into sub-categories of Non-Love, Liking, Infatuated love, Empty love, Romantic love, Companionate love, Fatuous love, and Consummate love (Sternberg, 1986). Pragmatic love (Kelley, 1983) and Altruistic love (Clark & Mills, 1979) have also been described in the literature. Intimacy, derived from emotional investment, refers to those aspects of love that lead to feelings of warmth in love relationships. The Passion component, which includes sources for strong feelings, includes the passion within love relationships. The Commitment/Decision component is derived from cognitive processes and includes decision-making elements regarding the existence of and long-term commitment to love relationships. The functional importance and commonality of each of the three components of love differs across short-term or long-term love relationships. The Intimacy component is reported to be at the core of many loving relationships (Sternberg & Grajek, 1984), and the Passion component is more highly dependent on psycho-physiological involvement than the other two components. Passion is especially coupled with romantic relationships, whereas Commitment can be highly variable across the different kinds of loving relationships (Sternberg, 1986). Using Self-perception theory, Bem (1967) suggested that the three components of Love are expressed in different behaviours. For example, some of the ways in which a person might express the Intimacy component are by communicating inner feelings; promoting the friend or partner's well-being; sharing one's possessions, time, and self; expressing empathy for the other; and offering emotional and material support to the other. Some ways of expressing the Passion element includes kissing, hugging, gazing, touching and making love. Some ways of expressing the Commitment component include pledging, fidelity, staying in a relationship through hard times, engagement and marriage. Of course, the actions that express a particular

component of love can differ somewhat from one person to another, from one relationship to another, and from one situation to another. Nevertheless, it is important to consider the triangle of love as it is expressed through behaviour, because behaviour has so many effects on a relationship.

Behaviours can affect the levels of the three components in the love triangle. First, the way people act shapes the way they feel and think, and the way they feel and think shapes the way they act. Second, certain behaviours may lead to impactful reactions. In other words, behaving in certain ways may provoke sequential acts and build up a network of action and reaction. When someone expresses his or her love through action, this can lead to expressions of love from his or her partner, whereas failure of self-expression can lead to further failure of this kind. Third, an individual's behaviour is likely to affect others feel and their thinking about themselves. In other words, one's actions can be expected to influence the other's triangle of love. Fourth and finally, the behaviour of one will almost certainly have an effect on the behaviour of the other, thereby leading to a mutually reinforcing series or cycle of paired action sequences.

Different things can sustain each of the three components of love in close relationships. The worst enemy of the Intimacy component of love is stagnation (Sternberg, 1986). Hence, it is necessary to always introduce some elements of change and variation to keep the relationship growing. There are different ways in which change and growth might take place, such as vacations, developing new mutual interests and experimenting with new behavioural patterns in the relationship (i.e., changing the weekend routine). Passion is probably the most difficult component of love to sustain, because it is least subject to conscious control and most subject to habituation. Perhaps the best way to maximize the Passion component of love over the long term is, first, to analyze the needs the relationship is fulfilling and to do what one can to make sure that these needs continue to be fulfilled and, second, to analyze what needs the relationship is not fulfilling and to try to correct this appropriately. The quality of the Passion component probably differs somewhat from one relationship to another. The Commitment component is the component for which intervention is easiest because it is most subject to conscious control. The best way to maintain commitment in a relationship is probably to maintain the importance of the relationship in the couple's lives and to maximize the happiness achieved through the relationship. This requires consistently working on the Intimacy and Passion components of love and expressing these components as well as one's commitment to the relationship through action (Sternberg, 1986). Other theoretical underpinnings of love and its typologies

have been described in multiple studies (e.g., Blau, 1964; Lee, 1976; Clark & Mills, 1979; Kelley, 1983; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986); these studies will be reviewed briefly.

Blau (1964) proposed an exchange theory of love that characterized the development of love as requiring a nicely balanced degree of mutuality and the consistent exchange of rewards between partners. Clark and Mills (1979) attempted to differentiate "exchange" relationships from "communal" relationships by showing that a tit-for-tat approach may be accepted in an exchange relationship, but may actually damage a communal relationship.

Berscheid and Walster (1974) proposed an approach to love which described romantic, passionate love as physiological arousal accompanied by appropriate cognitive cues. Walster and Walster (1978) proposed two general kinds of love, Passionate Love and Companionate Love, with the former nearly always evolving into the latter in enduring close relationships. Though love is often seen as multidimensional, Sternberg and Grajek (1984) proposed that there is a general factor of love which is quite consistent across romantic, familial and friendships relationships. Kelley (1983) introduced a model for what he called "Pragmatic Love" while still recognizing Passionate Love (Walster & Walster, 1978) and Altruistic Love (e.g., Clark & Mills, 1979). Pragmatic Love emphasizes trust and tolerance and develops with greater deliberation and self-control than do other types of love. As Kelley (1983) concluded, love is multidimensional, and it tends take on different combinations of types or forms.

One of the more interesting theories of love was proposed by Lee (1973/1976) who identified three primary types of love styles, Eros (romantic, passionate love), Ludus (game-playing love), Storge (friendship love), and three main secondary love styles, Mania (possessive, dependent love), Pragma (logical, "shopping list" love) and Agape (all-giving, selfless love). The love styles are reflections of both innate and learned characteristics of a person and vary in emotional intensity. Eros is high in emotion, or passionate love; Agape is average; and Ludus, Storge and Pragma are all low in terms of passion. Furthermore ethnic and gender differences in love styles suggest different effects of socialization.

Sex differences in love attitudes parallel male-female differences in attitude toward sexuality (Mercer & Kohn, 1979; Medora & Woodward, 1982). In general, men are more permissive, less restrained and instrumental in their sexual attitudes (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), a result consistent with men being more playful in an aimless way in their love styles. Traditionally, women have held more conservative sexual attitudes, and their conservatism partially stems from the socially accepted view that sex is a precious

commodity that must be guarded (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986). Also, women have historically been under social pressure to marry both a love partner and a potential provider. With women in such a state of dependence on men, it would be surprising if women were not considered more Eros in their love styles than men. The same social pressure may also account for more Manic love styles from women, although this observation might be due to an artefact, namely that women report more symptoms in general than men. Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) reported that love styles are not independent from people's current love situations, or, for that matter, from their past love relationships.

The constructs within these theories of love are interesting, thus it is worth considering studies which investigate the validity of such constructs. Rubin (1970, 1974) was one of the first researchers to study the similarities and differences between loving and liking. Rubin viewed the two as conceptually distinct though linked phenomena, and he developed the Love and Liking Scale to measure the two constructs. The Loving and Liking Scale have since been used in multiple studies (e.g., Hill, Rubin, & Peplau, 1976; Dermer & Pyszczynski, 1978). In a conceptual analysis, Kelley (1983) identified four components of Rubin's Love scale: needing, caring, trust and tolerance. Kelley also suggested that the Liking factor on the scale might better have been named as a measure of respect.

Theodorson (1965) hypothesized that, despite the global impact of industrialization, urbanization, western education, disintegration of traditional family system, sexual frustrations resulting from delayed marriage combined with premarital sexual taboos, and concomitant changes and pressures accompanying these forces, no differences would be found between Indian, Burmese, Singapore Chinese, and American students' attitudes regarding the idea of a romantic orientation toward marriage. To test this hypothesis, the author recruited students from four different cultures and found that Indian, Burmese, and Singapore Chinese respondents have maintained contractual value-orientation toward marriage, basically rejecting the ideals of romantic orientation. However, romanticism may function to promote a greater motivation to marry then does contractualism during a period of rapid social change, a trend that was found among American respondents. Individuals from all three Eastern cultures consistently showed no acceptance of the American type of romantic orientation to marriage. It would appear that, for the American respondents, romance is steadily taking the upper hand to maintain high motivation to marry despite the decline of traditional sources of motivation such as parental respect, dowry, and family and religious values.

Within a sample of Israeli Arabs, with the sample divided by religious groups (Muslims, Roman Catholics, and Druze), Lev-Wiesel and Al-Krenawi (1999) examined the effects of several variables considered influences on marital satisfaction: mate selection, power, levels of education, attitudes towards love and expectations regarding marriage. The results reflected that a greater degree of autonomy in mate selection was correlated with good marital quality, and arranged marriages were associated with lower marital satisfaction. Furthermore, marital quality was higher among Druze and Catholics than among Muslims. Power contributed to marital quality in all religious groups, but levels of education affected marital quality among Muslims and Christians but not Druze. This study supported the modern view that choice marriages afforded greater marital satisfaction than arranged marriages.

The marital developmental change from contractualism to romanticism was shown in three different surveys conducted in the United States (Kephart, 1967; Simpson et al., 1976, 1984). Kephart's (1967) findings indicated that love was compulsory to enter the marriage for men but not for women. Simpson and colleagues (1976, 1984) replicated Kephart's (1967) study and found that romantic love was essential to establish and maintain marriage for both men and women. The loss of love would be a valid reason to terminate the marriage. Additional, related findings were reported by Levine et al (1995), who compared the responses of college student from 11 different developed and under-developed Eastern and Western countries. They used the questions about love and marriage tailored by Simpson et al. (1976, 1984) with a new sample of 497 men and 673 women enrolled in undergraduate courses at universities in the 11 countries. The aim was to examine the cross-cultural generality of the importance placed on romantic love in marriage decisions and to identify predictors and consequences of these differences. According to this study, love tended to be viewed as most important for establishing and maintaining marriage in highly developed nations, but the least importance in the four under-developed Eastern nations, India, Pakistan, Thailand and the Philippines. The two most economically developed of the Eastern countries, Japan and Hong Kong, fell in the middle. There were considerable sex differences in views regarding sex roles within many of these countries, though the differences (and roles) vary greatly from country to country. The beliefs about the importance of love in leading to the decision to marry tended to come mainly from developed nations with higher marriage rates, lower fertility rates and higher divorce rates. The authors also found that divorce rates were much higher in countries where respondents agreed with the statement that the disappearance of love warrants making a clean break from the marriage. Implications of this study were that

marriage made in cultures that place great importance on love would be less likely to continue without love. Choice marriages are less likely to produce children, which may reduce the pressure to remain together after love disappears.

In a study of gender role differences in Egypt among adolescents, Mench et al. (2003), found that preferred characteristics in a spouse reflected strong gender differentiation. Girls ranked a strong character, good-nature, wealth, good job and good treatment of the partner as the most important characteristics in a spouse. Boys, on the other hand, ranked religion, being well-mannered, having a good family background and virtue as most important. This reflects a society with strong traditional gender roles. About one fourth of both boys and girls indicated wanting a spouse to "loves and understands" them. To summarise, it appears from the forgoing studies that the importance of love varies before and within marriage between cultures. Culture itself influences choice of partner and the steps towards marriage and within marriage. The studies suggest that arranged marriage can endure for reasons other than love, but the duration of choice marriages may be depend on the duration of love.

3.3 Culture and Gender-Divergence in Dismissive Attachment in Romantic Relationships

Because the attachment scale is used in the original studies presented in this thesis, even though most of the existing studies using the scale are of Western cultures, a review of the few cross-cultural studies using the same attachment styles might be informative.

Application of Hazan and Shaver's (1987) measures outside the United States by Feeny and Noller (1990) in Australia and by Mikulincer and Nachshon, (1991) in Israel revealed approximately the same proportion of attachment types in each culture. Secure attachment was the most frequent, followed by Avoidance and finally the Anxious/Ambivalent attachment. In a wider cultural context, Schmitt and colleagues (2003) critically evaluated whether men are universally more likely to have a Dismissing attachment style than women by testing for sex differences in Dismissing attachment in romantic relationships across many regions. Their study included 62 cultures of 56 separate nations, Western and non-Western. Another objective in this study was to explore possible socio-cultural moderators, e.g., sexuality and fertility rate, reproductively high stressful environments, physical differences and masculinity. They also examined whether there was a sex difference in tendency towards Dismissing attachment style, and how the attachment style related to the political and economic empowerment of women. In addition, the authors

addressed how well social role and evolutionary psychological theories of human sexuality explained gender differentiated patterns of Dismissing attachment in romantic relationships across cultures.

In this very large study, Schmitt et al. (2003) reported that men with Dismissing attachment style in romantic relationships were more dismissing than women with a similar attachment style across Western cultures, but the difference was small. A similar trend was also revealed in non-Western cultures. Conversely, in some African and oceanic countries, including Ethiopia, Tanzania, Botswana, Zimbabwe and Fiji, women were slightly more dismissing than men. Researchers suggested that this result could be because, in regions with reproductively high-stress environments, such as the men and women's Dismissing attachment styles converged.

These findings are compatible with the hypothesis that gender differences in Dismissing attachment in romantic relationships should be smaller in cultures with high-stress environments. This concept is based, in part, on the notion that reproductively stressful environments trigger women's tendency toward short-term mating including the adaptive desire for briefly mating with men likely to possess "good genes". Notably, high rates of Dismissing attachment are indicative of short-term mating tendencies. Men are typically more oriented toward short-term mating via indiscriminate sex than women are. Hence women's levels of Dismissing attachment should become more similar to men's in cultures with reproductively high-stress environments, or cultures in which women might adopt short-term mating strategies (Schmitt et al., 2003).

Greater political and economic equality was associated with larger gender differences in Dismissing attachment styles across cultures. Schmitt et al. (2003) also found that variation in gender differences across cultures is associated with several socio-cultural characteristics. Men and women are more similar in cultures with higher mortality, fewer resources and higher fertility rates (Schmitt et al., 2003). Furthermore, the hypothesis that the gender differences in Dismissing attachment style are unrelated to cultural masculinity levels received little empirical support in this study. However, the research did provided partial empirical support for the hypothesis that gender differences in Dismissing romantic attachment style would be smaller in cultures with modern or progressive sex-roles ideologies, i.e., when women are neither expected nor forced to take on the role or nurturer. Overall, these findings suggest that the social role variables are relatively poor predictors of gender differences in Dismissing romantic attachments (Schmitt et al., 2003). The authors suggested more investigation to examine factors that might mediate deactivation and

reactivation, reconstruction and updating of internal working models for maintaining security and persistence of trust and effective positive communication patterns in adult close relationships (see Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Cook, 2000). Such studies across diverse cultures could have many implications, possibly shaping clinical work in remedial marital counselling.

To conclude, different cultures showed gender differences with regard to Dismissing attachment style. In the West, men were more dismissing than women, whereas, in Africa, women were slightly more dismissing than men. In high-stress environments, the difference between men and women converged. None of the studies focused on Dismissing attachment among the Saudi people. The original studies reported in the following chapters may be the first to assess the degree of Dismissing attachment that exists, if it is exists at all, in Saudi men and women and how it compares with other cultures.

In sharp contrast to the Western world, there is a lack of data on marriage from the developing world, especially Arabian Gulf countries, and more specifically Saudi Arabia. Although old information on marriage is available in religious books and personal reflections, empirical data through scientific investigations of marriage are lacking for this part of the world. Changes in marital development are obvious all around the world and could be captured only by conducting continuing research on marriage. To my knowledge, there are no empirical studies on marriage in Saudi Arabia from the psychological perspective. The Saudi Arabian sample of individuals in arranged marriages and the design of the studies presented within this thesis have been selected with specific and identified goals. However, prior to beginning discussion of the studies themselves, I will place the studies and arranged marriage itself within the Saudi Arabian context by providing an overview of the country. The goal of this overview is to familiarize the reader with the culture, procedures towards marriage and social systems currently prevalent in Saudi Arabia.

3.4 Overview on Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia has been characterised as largely collectivist in the sense that the family and the community takes priority over an individual himself (Al-Namlah et al., 2006). Saudi Arabia is one of the most economically and politically important countries in the Arab peninsula. Saudi Arabia has passed through massive and rapid changes and development since the discovery of oil within the country, which transformed the country's economy from simple to a modern industrial economy (Al-Ghamdi, 1991). Saudi Arabia is divided into five

main provinces, North, South, East, West, and the Middle province, with Riyadh as the capital city in which 22.87% of the country's population lives (Central Department of Statistics and Information, 2007). Each one of these provinces is under the charge of an Emir (Royal Prince). The government is ruled and run by the Saudi Royal family, making it a kingdom (not a democracy).

Saudi Arabia is the centre of attention for all Muslims people who direct themselves to the Holy Mosque in *Makah* five times a day, and millions of Muslims visit the Holy Cities *Makah* and *Al Madenah* every year. Saudi Arabia is a conservative Islamic country, and Islam is the source of all legislation and regulation of the entire country. The kingdom has attracted attention because of its wealth and is one of the richest countries in the world (Al-Ghamdi, 1991). The population of Saudi Arabia in 2007 was 17,493,364, 50.4 % male and 49.6% female. Saudi society is tribal, and each tribe has its own leader and its own customs. Despite the separate tribes, the Saudi society is considered homogenous; all the Saudis speak one language (Arabic), all people believe in one religion (Islam) and most of the people have tribal backgrounds (Al-Ghamdi, 1991).

The first primary school was opened in Saudi Arabia in 1960, and in 1963 it was followed by intermediate and elementary schools. The first college for girls opened in Riyadh in 1970, and the first university opened in 1976 at King Saud University. The first university had a separate campus for women. All schools and universities for women are surrounded with a high fence. There is evidence that girls from more influential families had higher levels of education, often abroad (Altorki, 1977). The focus of teaching in schools is mostly on learning Arabic and religious texts (Simmons & Simmons, 1994) and emphasizing and supporting values which regard the family as the main source of social support particularly the parents (Al-Hariri, 1987). Therefore, the Saudi educational system is designed to strengthen family life, supporting traditional Islamic principles. Now education has spread massively and the competition between men and women for higher degrees is very active (Table 1).

Traditionally, Saudi women are viewed as powerless; they are considered to be dominated and lead by men within their families (Altorki, 1977). It is the social norm for women to be submissive to men and to take care of the family (Mench et al. 2003). Women are required to stay at home, trained to look after the children and do the housework (Simmons & Simmons, 1994). However, within Saudi Arabia families, women hold power, especially when it comes to arranged marriages. Altorki (1977) argues that, since Saudi Arabian women are viewed as less influential in public life (i.e., women are not allowed to

vote), but experience a reversal of roles within the home, because, at home women are more powerful.

Table 1
Education Percentages from Age 10 Years and Above in Riyadh

Education level	Percentage
Illiterate	9.86
Able to read and write	13.92
Primary	19.68
Intermediate	19.33
Secondary	21.18
Pre-Un. Diploma	3.93
University	11.20
Master's degree	0.68
PhD	0.21

The ways in which boys and girls are treated in Saudi society differs. Boys are party to important family decisions, but girls are typically exempt (Barakat, 1993). Furthermore, families are segregated by sex, with boys spending much of their time with men, and girls spending much of their time with women (Albers, 1989). Boys in traditional societies have been encouraged to be more assertive and independent to become future breadwinners, and girls are encouraged to be obedient and nurturing. Therefore, if a girl favours higher educational goals over marriage and child rearing, she will not be encouraged (Adams, Coltrane, & Parke, 2007). Despite the fact, that some have found changes in social practices brought about by contact with the West (e.g., Al-Saif, 2003), the role of parents in children's social behaviour remains strong (Al-Namlah et al., 2006). Saudi Arabian women face a challenge as to how to deal with gender inequalities. Saudi Arabia is a conservative country, and a number of women are unwilling to challenge gender inequality due to their dependence on men; it is thought to be to their advantage for men to maintain gender inequality (Amin & Al-Bassusi, 2004).

Saudi family is a male-dominant institution with all the important decisions made by men. Men have more authority in the decision of marriage, in controlling the family budget, deciding when and where to move to a new house, choosing children's education and in choosing children's names (especially the boys' names). Decisions affecting work for a man and for his wife are made by the man. In spite of the participation of women in the labour market, many working women regard their work as secondary to their husband's and agree that their salaries are not as important. In Saudi Arabian culture, the husband is

regarded as the one who is responsible for the family, and is therefore the primary breadwinner (Al-Saif, 2003: Altorki, 1977). These values and the norms of regarding men as the workers are derived from the Arab tradition. Although some women go out to work and get paid, they are still not accepted as the dominant breadwinner. However, education, female employment and the breakdown of the extended family system have raised women's status in the family and given them more power in family decision making, particularly in the upper-middle and upper classes. Traditionally, however, men's increasing interest in their business gives them less time to spend with their families, and leaves the responsibility of the household and children in the hands of women. Women have more power in buying domestic equipment, and in anything relating to their children (other than names and education), such as their clothes, coaching them and choosing their friends. Women are responsible for family visits and invitations.

Women's power in the family varies according to her family status, family wealth and her education. Education might affect women's power in the family decision making. Saudi women get most of their power from their family status, which is sometimes more influential than female education and employment. Women from rich families tend to have more power than women from poor families. If a woman has more power, she uses different strategies to manipulate her husband, and affect his decision-making, by convincing him of her ideas, by using her sexuality to persuade him to do what she wants, by asking support from her family or her in-laws if she has a good relationship with them, and by using children as a source of pressure to get what she wants (Al-Kateeb, 1987).

There is lack of opportunities for women in employment, with opportunities mainly existing in the educational and health system (Alnasser, 2008). Saudi Arabian families who hold on to their customs, ethnic values and religion are less likely to allow their women to go into paid work, particularly in contexts in which men and women work together (e.g., hospitals). In some societies families are even concerned with the effect on the morality of women that occurs because of work outside of the home (Al-Rawaf & Simmons, 1991) or working in a semi-mixed work environment like hospitals (see Table 2). These women therefore have less influence on the financial and economic decisions of the family (Ghazal, 2002). This is also true for families in other countries where strong ethnic values and a stronger connection to religion are in place (Ghazal, 2002).

Table 2
Saudi Arabia and Riyadh Labour Percentages, Female and Male, Age 15 Years and Above

Variables	Riyadh	Saudi Arabia
Population in labour in	39.15	36.30
Male labour from the whole male only	63.88	60.97
Female labour from the whole female	13.27	11.50

3.4.1 Typical Marriage

Marriage in Saudi Arabia and specifically marriage within an individual's own family is viewed differently from the West. Women are not regarded as victims for marrying within the same family, or someone the family helps to choose, rather it is considered as strengthening the sense of unity between friends and family members of society. Relationships between families become more active and close when the son or daughter marries into a new family (Altorki, 1977).

Marriage to relatives even as close as cousins has been considered very desirable and used to be the most common type in the country, because it was considered to be a guarantee of good stock, ensured immaculate conduct for both groom and bride, and served to maintain family unity, keeping strong intimate relationships between members of the family. Marriage within the family is preferred over marrying an unfamiliar spouse from outside the family, as the unfamiliar spouse might not adjust and become a loyally supportive member of the family (Al-Ghamdi, 1991). Choice marriages were assumed to be unsuccessful because of the great expectations from both individuals within the couple early in the relationship, followed by the disappointment they face later on.

Saudi Arabia, as a collectivistic culture, emphasises the importance of pleasing the family and the general community (Al-Namlah, 2006). Lev-Wiesel and Al-Krenawi (1999) argue that, in collectivist societies, the reputation of the individual is, by its nature, connected with that of the family. It could be argued that Saudis, keenly aware of the long-term implications of their choice of mate on their own families, will actively seek a mate of the same background and religion, and with a good family background. Indeed, Lev-Wiesel and Al-Krenawi (1999) argue that, if traditional values are not followed, complete social exclusion may result, which makes it very important for individuals to take into account and follow family choices. Individuals in collectivist societies, relying on others for material and social resources, cannot afford to make a spouse choice their family will not approve. In Saudi Arabia, people choose marriage partners with characteristics such as a good reputation, because the reputation of the wife or husband is intimately linked to the partner's reputation.

Since they see themselves as an extension of their community, Saudi Arabians follow the religious and social authority of the clerics, and the general community, even in such matters as the characteristics desirable in a potential spouse (Altorki, 1977).

3.4.1.1 Process towards Marriage

In Saudi Arabian culture, choosing a spouse is heavily influenced by the family. When a man is ready to marry, he expresses his desire to his family. The man's interest in his future wife regards her family's status, her family's wealth, and also the bride's beauty, personality, religion and education. The husband's parents and his siblings consider and discuss the appropriate and descent family from a range of families from which they choose a bride. After they have chosen the family, and because of the sex segregation rules and the veiling, women play an important role in choosing a suitable bride for their brothers or sons. Usually the mother's or the sister's responsibility is to find a suitable wife, looking up information and telephoning the girl's family (Altorki, 1977). After finding a girl they consider suitable, the women make approaches to find out the bride's and her mother's opinion.

The second step is the engagement. The groom's father or guardian has to go to the bride's family and ask for her hand. Before the final approval is made, the guardian of the bride has to investigate the background of the groom and his family. If all is satisfactory, then the engagement takes place. Being engaged does not give the right for the couple to date or see one another; engagement simply means that the bride is promised to the person. The couple will be given the chance to meet each other before the wedding, though under the supervision of their families. Some families do not allow their daughter to call the fiancé.

The third step is writing the marriage contract, called the *Melkah, Katb-al-Ketab.* When the marriage contract is written, the couple is formally married and the groom should pay the *Mahar* to the bride (Al-Kateeb, 1987).

Marriage is considered a civil contract and is a mutual agreement between the groom and the bride or their families. The validity of marriage in Islam is dependent upon an offer, *Ajab,* from the groom or his family and an acceptance, *Qubul,* by the bride or her family. The process of offer and acceptance must be in the presence of the *Shikh,* a religious judge, and at least two Islamic witnesses.

The amount of dowry, or *Mahar,* might be mentioned in the marriage contract. It is paid by the husband to his wife and is a significant part of all marriages. It is a sum of

money or any other property the groom or his family agree to pay to the bride or her family. In Islam it is a necessary step before the marriage can occur and it should be agreed on by both parties. The *Quran*, the Islamic Holy Book, commands husbands to pay a dowry to their wives. The dowry in Islam is not like a women's price, but is a gift from the groom to his bride to cheer her up because she is going to leave her family and move into another house. The dowry belongs solely to the wife and she has freedom to do whatever she wants with it, including deciding whether to accept it or return it to the husband. The *Mahar* is paid at the time when the marriage contract is written, payment can be deferred so that it will occur if separation or divorce occurs, or the payment can be broken up into two parts – one paid at the marriage and other paid only if the couple separates. The practice of paying the *Mahar* in two payments is common among most of the Muslim countries because it is prudent to financially assure the continuation of the marriage.

Maher was and still is operating according to Islamic teaching. There is no fixed amount thus it varies from one region to another. It is determined by factors such as the social and economic family status of both the bride and the groom and the closeness of blood relationship between spouses. Another factor that affects the amount of *Maher* that is whether it is the first or the second marriage for the bride. The *Mahar* for a woman who has not been married before will be higher than that for divorced or widowed women (Al-Ghamdi, 1991).

Men in Islam are entitled by law to marry up to four wives at one time. In the past, most Saudi men practiced this kind of marriage, which was especially prevalent among rural populations and *Bedouin* communities (desert tribes). In the past, women accepted the idea and practice of such polygamous marriage (Al-Ghamdi, 1991). These days, it is becoming less common for several reasons, one of which is economic status.

An official announcement of marriage has to be made by both parties (Al-Ghamdi, 1991). Marriage is considered to be a religious commitment. In fact, when a Muslim gets married, he or she has achieved half of his or her religious commitment. Religion thus encourages people towards marriage, enabling them to fulfil their natural duties in life (Al-Ghamdi, 1991). Any sexual contact without marriage is prohibited and it is perceived as sinful act, punishable by Islamic law.

3.4.2. Divorce

Divorce may affect the whole family and community. Islam regards divorce as

undesirable and constituting a breach of harmony (Cohen & Savaya, 1997).

In 1997, I investigated the effectiveness of Rational Emotive Therapy in couples experiencing marital discord. An open-ended question was distributed to 100 married Saudi men and women, asking about what problems may lead to divorce. The following categories of problem were listed as frequently leading to divorce: communication problems (42%), psychological problems (17.4%), problems associated with role disorder (14.1%), problems from external sources of stress (13%), and miscellaneous other problems (14.4%) including this includes financial problems, problems related to emotional and sexual relations, and problems related to traditions and habits (Al Tamimi, 1997).

It is interesting to note the different causes of divorce were given in an article in the Saudi Gazette (16/04/2007), which was informed by Al-Shamlan (the head of a research centre at King Saud College in Saudi Arabia). The article, written by Zawawi, stated that 43% of divorces in Saudi Arabia were due to violence and constant arguments, with one partner dominating the other (2007).

According to the Saudi Ministry of Justice, 65% of divorces take place in couples between the ages of 18 to 35 (see Table 3). Forty-one percent of divorced Saudi women are housewives, 40% of female divorcees holds BAs, 23% have high school diplomas, and 4% have graduated from higher education, reflecting the Saudi Arabia demographic (Zawawi, 2007). Zawawi believes that the Saudi Arabia's divorce rate would be higher, but some couples stay together for the sake of social prestige and social pressure, an important consideration in a collectivist society (Zawawi, 2007).

Table 3
Percentage of Marital Status in Riyadh and Saudi Arabia from the Age of 15 Years and Above

	Riyadh		Saudi Arabia	
Variables	Male	Female	Male	Female
Never been married	40.57	32.02	40.10	32.10
Is/has been married	57.01	61.94	58.66	60.16
Divorced	1.09	2.93	0.82	2.36
Widowed	0.04	3.11	0.42	5.39

Note. The percentage for both sexes is calculated relative to that sex, such that the percentages presented are percentages of total men and percentages of total women.

According to the ministry, the reasons given by husbands for divorce are wife's employment, family involvement and the wife being unable to take family responsibilities

(Zawawi, 2007). The reasons women gave were husbands' not taking responsibility for family and finances, and mental or psychological abuse.

3.4.3 Socio-Economic Changes

A study conducted by Al-Ghamdi (1991) examined the extent and influence of socio-economic change in Saudi Arabia, focusing particularly on marriage, the family and fertility. Conducted in Jeddah, a city on the crossroads to Makkah (the Holy city), the sample consisted of 400 respondents (200 men and 200 women). Ages ranged from 15 to 58 years old. Individuals in the sample were either currently married or had been married. The duration of marriage in the sample ranged from 0 to 4 years up to over 25 years and most of the couples had children. The majority of the participants had obtained university or college degrees. The majority of the men had married only one wife and a very small number had married more than one, or had two to four wives. The primary reasons for having more than one wife were to have more children and social pressures from family.

There was clear evidence that, by regular contacts and visits, both spouses maintained strong relationships with their own and their in-law families. Further findings indicated a shift in attitude towards individual preference by the couples themselves for exogamous marriage. That is to say, there was less emphasis on marriage within the family, but marriages were still arranged. Al-Ghamdi found that this weakening of preference for marriage within the family was related to education and occupation. However, a significant proportion of the sample still favoured parental arrangement of marriage within the family. The sample showed a sustained preference for male children, particularly among the men. For both men and women, attitudes and opinions towards women working outside the home are undergoing changes, with the majority in favour of women working outside the home. This was qualified by the condition that the women should be segregated from men in the work place. Given that the study tested attitude, and nearly the entire sample had children, it is worth noting that more of the samples was in favour of or encouraged women's working outside of the home than were against it (Al-Ghamdi, 1991).

The shift in social attitudes observed in Al-Ghamdi's (1991) study highlights variables such as education, employment (particularly women's employment), types of marriage (arranged vs. choice),marriage inside or outside of the family, the relationship with one's own and in-law family, and number of wives. In relation to this last variable, more recent statistics support Al-Ghamdi's finding that only a very small percentage of people

marry more than one wife. The percentage of people who married only once is 35.95%, twice is 3.23%, and three times is 0.85% (Central Department of Statistics and Information, 2007). All of the variables in this list may have an impact on marital satisfaction in marriages in Saudi Arabia today.

Another study, conducted by Alnasser (2008), compared British and Saudi subjects living in Britain. This study aimed to examine differences in attitudes towards marital life. The sample included 59 Saudi Arabian citizens living in Britain, 22 males and 37 females. The average age of this sample was 23.46 years (SD = 3.86), and 57.6% held a university degree. The British portion of the sample included of 93 British citizens, 31 males and 62 females. The average age of this sample was 25.10 years (SD = 4.37). The results, looking at the Saudi sample, showed that the Saudi participants believed that it is the duty of the family to choose a spouse for them (or their duty to choose a spouse of whom their family approves). Saudi Arabians are influenced by their family and community members' attitudes in finding a future mate. Alnasser's understanding of this attitude was that the individual's needs are not prioritised, but are less important than the group's well-being and interests. The Saudi Arabian respondents' answers tended to strongly agree on necessary characteristics such as "same religion" and "good family background", reflecting the collectivistic values to which they adhere. Saudi Arabian men and women are therefore influenced not just by traditional gender roles, but by traditional religious teachings. This helps to explain the tendency of the Saudis in this study (both men and women) to favour women as nurturers. The Saudi Arabians in this study also showed traditional views towards childcare. This is supported by Ghazal in his book *Challenging Myths of Muslim Women* (2002), in which he argues that both Christian and Muslim communities with strong religious ties have the same view of the more traditional roles of men and women within a marriage.

Alnasser (2008) also found that Saudi women are more likely to prefer the husband to be the one who goes out work. It is very interesting to note that, although the Saudi Arabian participants were young (M = 23.46 years, SD = 3.86), they still held a conservative view of gender roles. Saudis in this study believed that it is the husband who should have control over family finances. Financial responsibility, division of labour and child rearing, behavioural beliefs (such as the belief that the wife is the one who stays at home to look after the children while the husband is the one who goes out to work and is responsible for family finances) reflect the behavioural values of the traditional belief system.

Saudi Arabia follows Islamic Sharia Law and divorce is undesirable.

Traditionally, should a divorce be agreed upon, it is the man who initiates it. It was not surprising therefore that within Alnasser's (2008) Saudi Arabian sample, participants indicated that they strongly believed the husband should initiate the divorce and were less likely to support the idea that the wife is given the power to initiate divorce.

In her 1987 book, Al-Kateeb describes Saudi Arabians as socialised into traditional and religious norms and values that are transmitted through schooling and the family during childhood. Children observe and learn from their parents' interactions and their attitudes towards marriage to accept that the man is the one who initiates everything, and the children internalise these values and imitate these actions. Al-Kateeb considers Saudi Arabia to be a highly traditional and conservative culture and suggests that socially, Saudi Arabians are more likely to identify with the Islamic values of their childhood.

A further point she makes is that Saudi norms consider displaying love and affection a feminine trait. Saudi men tend to control their expressions of love and tend not to show their feelings to their wives or children. Most Saudis do not look upon the intimate relationship between husband and wife as something important for family existence and continuity. It is always thought that if a man is well-off financially and provides all his family needs, his wife should not ask more of him. Feelings and emotions are regarded as something or less importance than financial matters. Education, travelling abroad, and exposure to various types of mass communication (such as T.V.) have made marital relationships closer and more intimate than before (Al-Kateeb, 1987).

The women who Al-Kateeb (1987) interviewed indicated that conflict arises marital relationships as a result of different expectations between husband and wife. Many Saudi men nowadays look for educated, modern women, but they want these modern women to be like their mothers in beliefs and behaviour. Some men consider it humiliating if their wives argue with them. Women feel confusion about what their men want or expect from them. They explained this as a double standard. The man travels abroad and studies there, then when he returns to his own country, he wants to marry an educated woman who knows how to dress in modern clothes and speaks well, but at the same time he does not want her to argue or express her opinion (Al-Kateeb, 1987). In Saudi culture, a man marries because he needs a woman to cook his food, clean his house, produce children who perpetuate his name, and maintain his household affairs. In return, he is expected to look after his wife and children and fulfil their needs. A man's economic position as the breadwinner of the family gives him power over his household affairs. It is not considered appropriate for a Saudi man to cook, clean, or change his children's diapers. Domestic work is feminine work, and men

should not be involved in it. This ideology does not exist in Islamic teaching (Al-Kateeb, 1987).

To summarise, the studies discussed in this chapter illustrate that there has been a considerable focus on social and culture changes or lack of change in Saudi Arabia. However, there have been no psychological studies of the evaluation of marital quality or satisfaction within arranged marriages, particularly in the highly traditional culture of Saudi Arabia. The next chapter will present the process of developing a battery or questionnaires to assess marital satisfaction in arranged marriages.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 1: DEVELOPMENT OF ATTACHMENT AND MARITAL SATISFACTION SCALES IN ARABIC

4.1 Aim of Study 1

The aim of this Pilot Study is to develop a battery of scales assessing marital satisfaction. This battery contains two attachment scales (the Relationship-Revised Questionnaire and the Experience in Close Relationship-Revised Questionnaire), and marital and a life satisfaction scales, and will be arranged according to the model of Karney and Bradbury (1995) VSA. Developing these scales requires translating multiple scales from English to Arabic and validating the translated forms.

In this first stage, the *Enduring Vulnerability* group consist of two scales, the Relationship Questionnaire scale and Experience in Close Relationship-Revised Questionnaire will be considered. Predictors belonging to the other two groups *Stressful Events and Adaptive Processes* groups are to be considered for the second study. As a measure of criterion validity, scores on these two scales will be used to predict scores on The Relationship Assessment Scale, which will be placed in the Marital Quality box in the model of Karney and Bradbury (1995). Overall satisfaction with life is a broader emotional and cognitive view of the quality of life. Life satisfaction comprises several components, such as the subject's well-being, socio-economic status, social participation, health, job, and romantic relationships (Sirgy, Michalos, Ferriss, Easterlin, Patrick, & Pavot, 2006). People who are satisfied with their life tend to be satisfied in their relationships. Although overall life satisfaction and romantic relationship satisfaction tend to be strongly correlated, romantic relationship satisfaction alone is not sufficient to provide life satisfaction (Diener & Seligman, 2002). This is why the Satisfaction with Lifestyle scale was included in this study. In addition, because reporting on low relationship quality is a sensitive issue, and it may be particularly sensitive for Saudi-Arabians, the authenticity of the participants' responses may have been reduced by socially desirable responding. Therefore, the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding scale, BIDR, was included in the present study to explore to what extent measures of relationship quality might be contaminated through individual differences in socially desirable responding.

The present study is part of a larger cross-cultural project to compare the determinants of relationship satisfaction in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia and India. Although at present the results of the two studies are not compared, certain decisions were made and procedures were selected taken so that the results of the two studies can be compared later.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Participants

One hundred and thirty-three participants were recruited for this Pilot Study (65 husbands, 68 wives), none of whom were married to each other. All participants were Saudi citizens living in Riyadh, and married to Saudi partners. They were chosen randomly from a private hospital, shopping mall, banks, government schools, and through friends. All participants were of Muslim faith, the only practised religion in Saudi Arabia.

The participants in the sample were between 23 and 67 years (M = 36.51, SD = 9.38 for the husbands; M = 38.52, SD = 7.89 for the wives). Marriage duration, presented in Figure 3, revealed that a large proportion of the sample was within the first ten years of marriage. Over 90% of the samples were in their first marriage, but 5.9% of the husbands and 9.2% of the wives had been married prior to their current marriages. More than 90% of the sample was married through arranged marriages, 2.9% of the husbands and 7.7% of the wives did not marry through arranged marriage. Individuals in arranged marriages did not always have any contact with their spouses prior to marriage. Only 42% of the husbands had been able to meet their wives alone before marriage, and 60% of the wives said that they only talked to their husbands over the phone prior to marriage. Most of the participants, 69.1% of the husbands and 58.5% of the wives, had between one and four children.

With respect to education, 61.8% of the husbands and 53.8% of the wives had earned an undergraduate degree (e.g., a Bachelors' degree). More than half of the sample, 58.8% of the husbands and 52.3% of the wives, indicated that they earned the highest level of individual income possible on the scale provided, earning between 10,000-50,000 SR per month (£1839- £9148). This was a clear indication that the sample was biased towards a higher socio-economic class (Figure 4). There is no demographic information showing the percentage of individuals who are in this high income bracket in Riyadh. However, if the proportion of individuals with undergraduate degrees may serve as an indication of the proportion of individuals with higher income, then it would be possible to estimate the

percentage of the higher income population of Riyadh. In Riyadh, 1.54% of men and 0.10% of women have postgraduate degree (e.g., a Master's degree, Ph.D.). There is no statistical information, however, showing the percentage of postgraduates from Riyadh who are married (and still live in Riyadh). However, the very low percentage of 1.54% strongly suggests that the population of married Saudi Arabians who hold postgraduate degrees is much lower than the 6% of husbands and 4% of wives in the present study. This is an indication of a bias of the sample towards higher education and higher income as compared to the general population. According to the last report issued by the Central Department of Statistics and Information for the year of 2007, the average individual income is 5,000 SR per month (817£). Finally, 59% of the husbands and 51% of the wives were employed in the private sector.

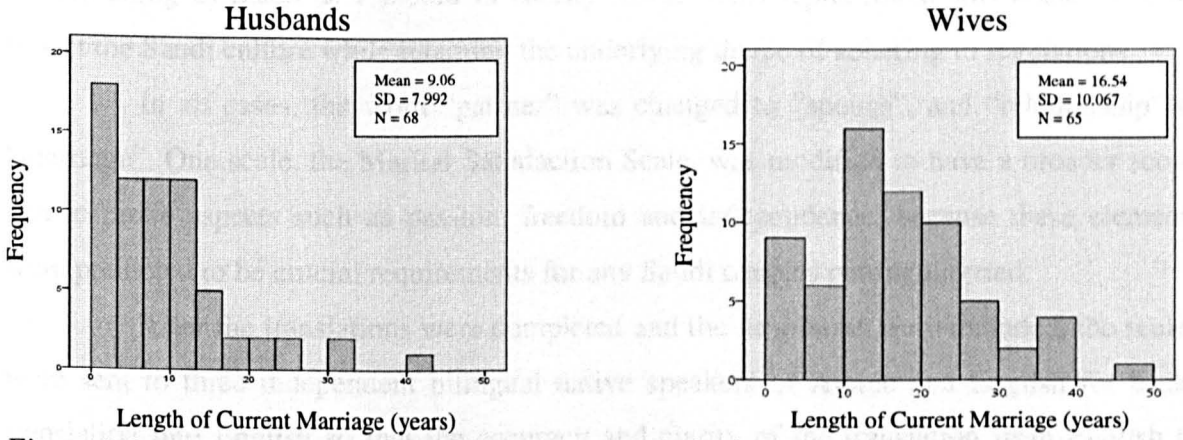


Figure 3. Length of current marriage for husbands and wives

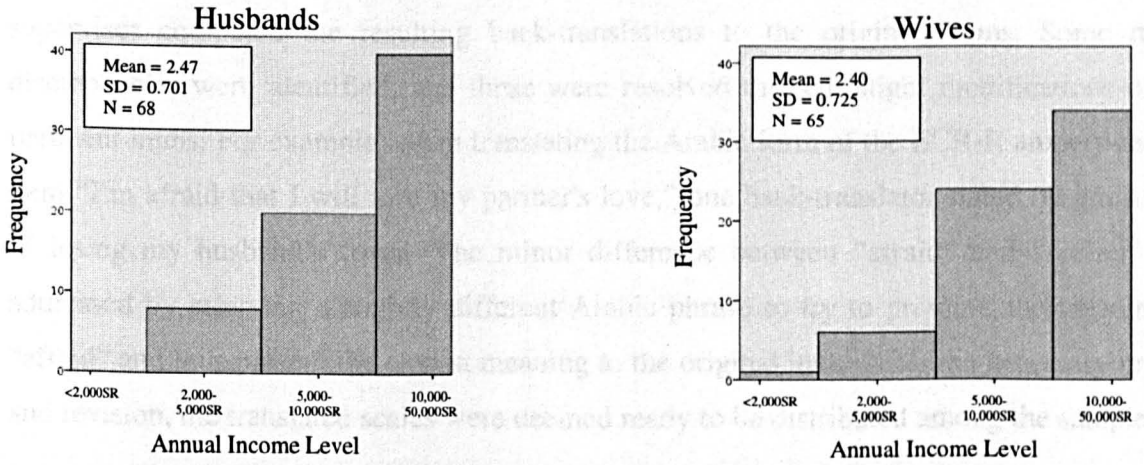


Figure 4. Annual income level for husbands and wives

4.2.2 Scale Translation

Five scales were utilized to assess attachment, social desirability, marital satisfaction and life satisfaction. Every item from each of the five scales was translated from English to Arabic by the researcher. The goal in translation was to keep the item's meaning as consistent as possible, however, some items needed to be modified to better fit the cultural dynamics of Saudi Arabia. With the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR), it was noted that some items (10, 16, 17, and 30) required more thorough explanation of the underlying meaning to facilitate comprehension by the participants. Other items (8, 13, 33, and 38) were completely replaced, because they would have been either inappropriate or inapplicable within the Saudi culture. For example, because women do not drive in Saudi Arabia, "I am not a safe driver when I exceed the speed limit," was replaced by "I'm not always doing as much as I should in charity work." This replacement was made to better reflect the Saudi culture while retaining the underlying theme of adhering to regulations.

In all cases, the word "partner" was changed to "spouse", and "relationship" to "marriage". One scale, the Marital Satisfaction Scale, was modified to have a broader scope and to probe aspects such as passion, freedom and independence, because these elements were predicted to be crucial requirements for any Saudi couples getting married.

After the translations were completed and the new items were included, the scales were sent to three independent bilingual native speakers of Arabic and English for back-translation into English so that the accuracy and clarity of the translation from English to Arabic translation could be evaluated. The principle researcher of this study and her supervisor compared the resulting back-translations to the original forms. Some minor discrepancies were identified, and those were resolved through slight modifications of the pertinent items. For example, when translating the Arabic form of the ECR-R anxiety-related item "I'm afraid that I will lose my partner's love," one back-translator stated, "I am scared of losing my husband's love." The minor difference between "afraid" and "scared" was addressed by selecting a slightly different Arabic phrase to try to preserve the meaning of "afraid" and thus present the closest meaning to the original item. After the necessary review and revision, the translated scales were deemed ready to be distributed among the sample.

4.2.3 Measures

Relationship Questionnaire (RQ). The Relationship Questionnaire (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991) consists of four items assessing the participant's romantic attachment to

his or her spouse. Each of the four items corresponds to one of the four attachment prototypes, Secure, Fearful, Preoccupied or Dismissing (see Figure 5). Participants were asked to rate their level of personal agreement with each of the four items on a 5-point Likert agreement scale, ranging from 1 ("strongly disagrees") to 5 ("strongly agree"). Unless otherwise stated, all of the scales included here and described below, if they used a 5-point Likert agreement scale followed the same parameters.

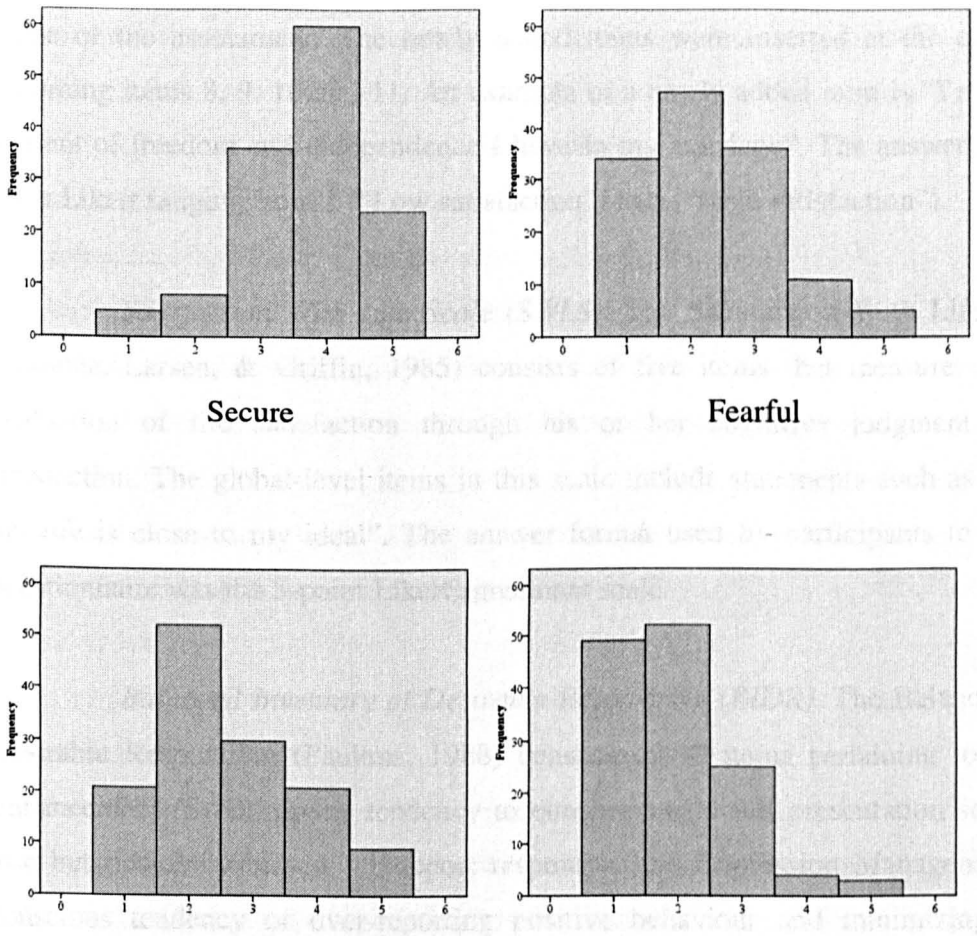


Figure 5. The distribution of Secure, Fearful, Preoccupied, and Dismissing attachment within the sample.

Experience in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R). The Experience in Close Relationship-Revised questionnaire (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000) is a 36-item self-report measure of partner attachment. The scale is divided into two subscales, one pertaining to attachment-related Anxiety (Anxiety of Abandonment) and the other pertaining to attachment-related Avoidance (Avoidance of Intimacy). Anxiety is measured though items

such as "I'm afraid that I will lose my spouse's love," and Avoidance is measured through items such as "I prefer not to show my spouse how I feel deep down". In the questionnaire, all of the Anxiety items were presented first, followed by all of the Avoidance items, and answers were provided using the 5-point Likert agreement scale, as described above.

Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS). The marital satisfaction scale (Hendrick, 1988) contains seven items. Four items aimed at assessing passion, freedom and independence were added to the scale to increase the number of items and to broaden the scope of the assessment. The newly added items were inserted at the end of the scale, becoming items 8, 9, 10 and 11. An example of a newly added item is "I'm happy with the amount of freedom and independence I have in my marriage". The answer format was a 5-point Likert ranging from 1 ("Low satisfaction") to 5 ("High satisfaction").

Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS). The Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) consists of five items that measure the participant's evaluation of life satisfaction through his or her cognitive judgment of global life satisfaction. The global-level items in this scale include statements such as "In most ways, my life is close to my ideal". The answer format used by participants to respond to this questionnaire was the 5-point Likert agreement scale.

Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR). The Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (Paulhus, 1988) consists of 40 items pertaining to Self-Deceptive Enhancement (SDE), or the tendency to enhance one's self presentation self by providing true but positively biased self-report responses, and Impression Management (IM) is the conscious tendency of over-reporting positive behaviour and minimizing the report of undesirable behaviours. In this questionnaire, some items (8, 13, 33, and 38) were completely replaced by in order to make the questionnaire suitable for the Saudi culture. For example, "The reason I vote is because my vote can make a difference" was replaced by "My participation in charity work can make a difference". As women do not vote in Saudi Arabia, this replacement was made to better reflect the Saudi culture whilst retaining the underlying theme of adhering to regulations. The answer format was the 5-point Likert agreement scale.

4.2.4 Procedure

Some wives in the sample were recruited at women's shopping mall and banks, and some wives were recruited in their places of work through a network of personal contacts and friends. One friend of the researcher recruited both husbands and wives in a hospital, a mixed-sex work environment.

Cultural rules (e.g., the unacceptability of women speaking with unfamiliar men) forbid the researcher and her female friends from recruiting men for the husband population. Therefore, the recruitment of the majority of the husband sample was performed by the researcher's brother, a male colleague of the researcher, and the husbands of the researcher's friends. The husbands in the sample were recruited either at their place of work or at social gatherings.

At the time of recruitment, all participants were provided with a one page demographic questionnaire and the five scales measuring attachment, social desirability, marital satisfaction and life satisfaction, in addition to a consent form. Participants were not required to give their names on any of the forms. Participants returned their completed forms using boxes that had been set up to ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the participants' data.

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Scale Construction

The Experience in Close Relationship-Revised (ECR-R) scale. This scale consists of 36 items, including some reverse-scored items. Seven of the reverse-coded items (numbers 9, 11, 27, 29, 31, 33 and 35) were in the Anxiety sub-scale, and the other seven (numbers 20, 22, 26, 28, 30, 34 and 36) were from the Avoidance sub-scale. Steps were taken to optimise the scale for the current study and for comparison with a sample of participants from India in a separate study outside the scope of this research. Items 9r and 11r were dropped from the Arabic version of the questionnaire because they had low factor loadings in the data collected in Saudi Arabia, and because both items refer to separation, which is not common in India.

According to Hinkin (1995), it was a common choice among researchers working to construct scales to retain items only if the items had a minimum loading on a specified factor of alpha = ±0.30. In the current study, using this very strict criterion would lead to the

exclusion of too many items. Consequently, items with a very slightly lower alpha of .31 were removed, leading to the deletion of items 21 and 32.

Items were categorized as double loading if the difference between the two primary factor loadings was .1 or less. As a result, item numbers one and ten were identified as a double-loading item, indicating that it did not clearly measure any one single factor, and was dropped from the following analysis. Finally, item 23 was deleted because of low item-total correlation.

The factor structure of the ECR-R was examined by conducting a Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The scree plot (see Figure 6) showed a distinct bend or elbow between two and three factors, suggesting a two-factor solution.

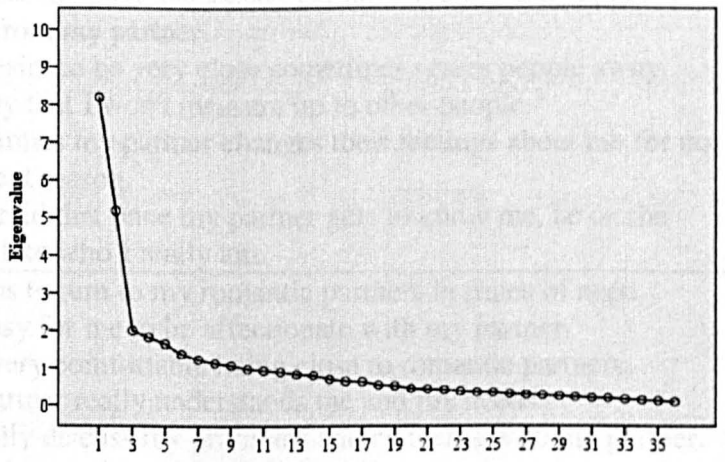


Figure 6. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the ECR-R

Although the factor structure appeared to have two factors, they were not Anxiety and Avoidance, as had been expected. Instead, the PCA showed that the items were grouped by coding. That is, the first factor consisted of items that were not reverse-coded, and this factor accounted for 19.28% of the variance. All of the reverse-coded items and a few of the others loaded onto the second factor, which accounted for 17.88% of the variance (see Table 4).

The factor loading for all of the 29 items ranged from .33 to .78. The loadings of the 14 items on factor one ranged from .45 to .74, and the loadings of the 15 items on factor two ranged from .33 to .78. Cronbach's alpha for the first factor was $\alpha = .89$, and Cronbach's alpha for the second factor was $\alpha = .88$.

Table 4

Factor Loadings for Items in the ECR-R Scale

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
6.	I worry a lot about my relationships.	**.74**	-.07
18.	My partner only seems to notice me when I'm angry.	**.72**	.24
8.	When I show my feelings for my partner, I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me.	**.70**	.18
7.	When my partner is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.	**.69**	.06
3.	I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me.	**.67**	.16
2.	I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me.	**.66**	.02
4.	I worry that my partner won't care about me as much as I care about them.	**.64**	-.00
5.	I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.	**.62**	-.14
12.	I find that my partner don't want to get as close as I would like.	**.60**	.22
16.	It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my partner.	**.60**	.04
14.	My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away.	**.59**	.05
17.	I worry that I won't measure up to other people.	**.59**	-.25
13.	Sometimes my partner changes their feelings about me for no apparent reason.	**.59**	.19
15.	I'm afraid that once my partner gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.	**.45**	-.04
29r.	It helps to turn to my romantic partners in times of need.	.02	**.78**
35r.	It's easy for me to be affectionate with my partner.	.08	**.76**
22r.	I am very comfortable being close to romantic partners.	-.01	**.74**
36r.	My partner really understands me and my needs.	.36	**.69**
28r.	I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner.	.17	**.68**
31r.	I talk things over with my partner.	.01	**.66**
30r.	I tell my partner just about everything.	-.17	**.65**
27r.	It's not difficult for me to get close to my partner.	.13	**.59**
26r.	I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner.	.15	**.56**
20r.	I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner.	-.11	**.54**
33r.	I feel comfortable depending on romantic partner.	-.03	**.53**
25.	I get uncomfortable when my partner wants to be very close.	.33	**.50**
34r.	I find it easy to depend on romantic partner.	.09	**.47**
24.	I prefer not to be too close to my partners.	.34	**.46**
19.	I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down.	.29	**.33**

Note. Reverse-scored items are indicated by "r" following the item number.
For ease of reading, a black line indicates the separation between items loadings more strongly on factor 1 and items loading more strongly on factor 2.
Loadings of items included in reliability calculations are printed in boldface.

The Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS). After a PCA was conducted, a scatter plot was generated to aid in determining the number of differentiable factors underlying the scale. This scatter plot indicates a one-factor solution is the best fit for the RAS data (see Figure 7). A factor analysis using a rotated component matrix for one factor was then executed to determine the loading of each item in relation to the factor, marital satisfaction (Table 5). The majority of the items loaded appropriately according to the original RAS. Although three items (numbers 4, 7 and 8) loaded weakly on the marital satisfaction factor, they were retained for the subsequent reliability analysis. The items loading ranged from .00 to .85.

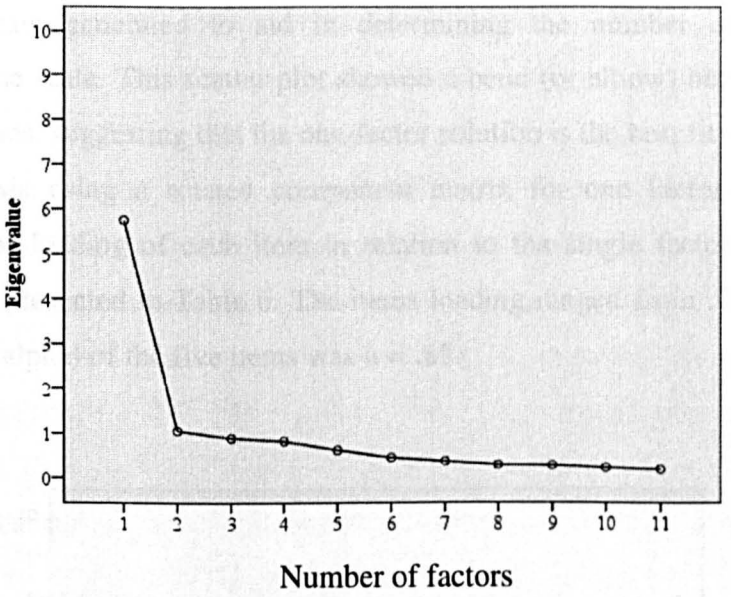


Figure 7. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the RAS

Table 5
Factor Loadings for Items in the RAS Scale

	Item	Factor 1
9.	I live in passionate relationship with my husband.	**.85**
11.	I have strong romantic feelings for my husband.	**.83**
6.	How much do you love your partner?	**.77**
10.	My husband very much cares for me.	**.74**
5.	To what extent your relationship met your original expectations?	**.72**
2.	In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?	**.71**
3.	How good is your relationship compared to most?	**.70**
1.	How much your partner meets your needs?	**.70**
8.	I am happy with the amount of freedom and independence I have in my marriage.	**.49**
4r.	How often do you wish you hadn't gotten into this relationship?	**.46**
7r.	How many problems are there in your relationship?	**.00**

Note. Reverse-scored items are indicated by "r" following the item number.

Although item number 7 had an extremely low loading (.00), it was not deleted because it is a standard item included in the questionnaire, there are no other apparent reasons to delete the item and, specifically, its deletion would not have had a significant (strong) impact on improving reliability. The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the first seven items, numbered one through seven, was $\alpha = .84$. When adding the four items pertaining to passion, freedom and independence (item numbers 8, 9, 10 and 11), the reliability of the RAS increased to ($\alpha = .90$).

The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS). After a PCA was conducted, a scatter plot was again generated to aid in determining the number of differentiable factors underlying the scale. This scatter plot showed a bend (or elbow) between the one- and two-factor solutions, suggesting that the one-factor solution is the best fit to the data (Figure 8). A factor analysis using a rotated component matrix for one factor was then executed to determine the loading of each item in relation to the single factor, life satisfaction. Item loadings are presented in Table 6. The items loading ranged from .73 to .90. The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the five items was $\alpha = .85$.

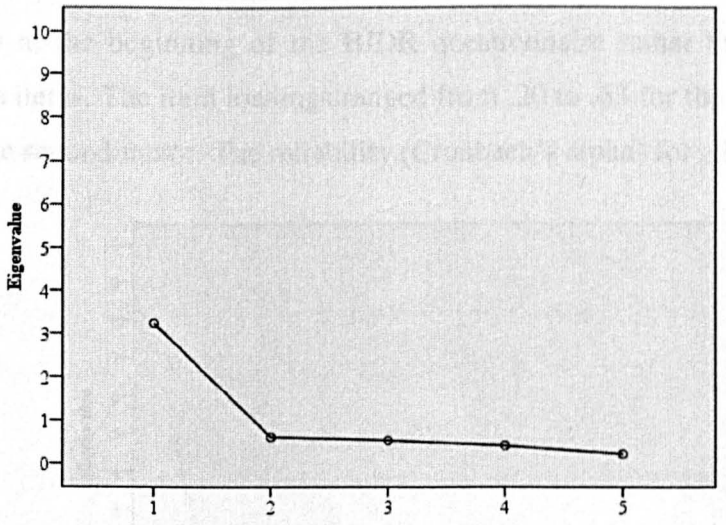


Figure 8. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the SWLS

Table 6
Factor Loading of Items in the SWLS

	Item	Factor 1
3.	I am satisfied with my life.	**.90**
2.	The conditions of my life are excellent.	**.85**
1.	In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	**.79**
5.	If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	**.75**
4.	So far I have gotten the important things I want in my life.	**.73**

The Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR). After a PCA of data collected using the BIDR was conducted, a scatter plot was again generated to aid in determining the number of differentiable factors underlying the scale. Based on the curvature of the line presented in the scree plot, the two-factor solution is the best fit to the BIDR data (see Figure 9). The two factors that were expected to appear would represent SDE and IM, the expected underlying components of the BIDR questionnaire. A principle components analysis with a rotated component matrix for two factors was executed to determine the loading of each item in relation to the two factors. Item loadings are presented in Table 7. The majority of the items did not load as expected according to the original results of the BIDR. This pattern could be due in part to an error in compiling the translated questionnaire -- items were presented in a non-randomized sequence. All revised items were presented sequentially at the beginning of the BIDR questionnaire rather than distributed randomly amongst the items. The item loadings ranged from .20 to .63 for the first factor, and from .21 to .69 for the second factor. The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for all the items was $\alpha = .77$.

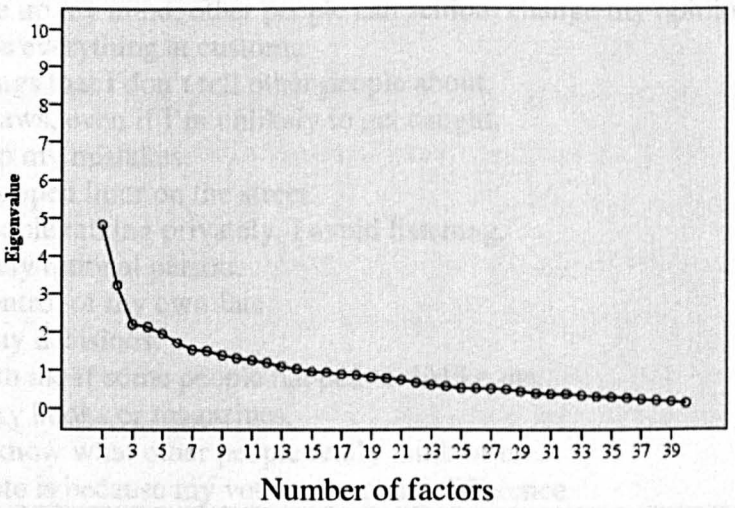


Figure 9. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the BIDR

Table 7

Factor Loading of Items in the BIDR Scale

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
18r.	I have sometimes doubted my ability as a lover.	**.63**	-.09
23r.	There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.	**.61**	.12
27r.	I have said something bad about a friend behind his or her back.	**.57**	.25
10r.	It's hard for me to shut off a disturbing thought.	**.54**	-.10
20r.	I don't always know the reasons why I do the things I do.	**.54**	.00
21r.	I sometimes tell lies if I have to.	**.53**	.08
37r.	I have taken sick-leave from work or school even though I wasn't really sick.	**.50**	.15
6r.	When my emotions are aroused, it biases my thinking.	**.48**	-.08
4r.	I have not always been honest with myself.	**.46**	.01
2r.	It would be hard for me to break any of my bad habits.	**.46**	.02
31r.	When I was young I sometimes stole things.	**.44**	.22
33r.	I sometimes drive faster than the speed limit.	**.38**	.12
39r.	I have some pretty awful habits.	**.38**	-.15
12r.	I sometimes lose out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough.	**.34**	.14
25r.	I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	**.34**	.10
24.	I never swear.	**.32**	.24
5.	I always know why I like things.	**.29**	.21
14r.	My parents were not always fair when they punished me.	**.28**	-.04
29r.	I have received too much change from a salesperson without telling him or her.	**.26**	-.17
8r.	I am not a safe driver when I exceed the speed limit.	**.26**	.01
1.	My first impressions of people usually turn out to be right.	**.20**	.19
36.	I never take things that don't belong to me.	-.01	**.69**
17.	I am very confident of my judgments.	.12	**.66**
40.	I don't gossip about other people's business.	.02	**.61**
38.	I have never damaged library book or store merchandise without reporting it.	-.04	**.51**
16r.	I rarely appreciate criticism.	-.12	**-.49**
7.	Once I've made up my mind, other people can seldom change my opinion.	.14	**.43**
30.	I always declare everything at customs.	.04	**.42**
35r.	I have done things that I don't tell other people about.	.34	**-.38**
26.	I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught.	-.02	**.36**
22.	I never cover up my mistakes.	-.05	**.36**
32.	I have never dropped litter on the street.	.01	**.34**
28.	When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.	.03	**.33**
15.	I am a completely rational person.	.25	**.33**
9.	I am fully in control of my own fate.	.16	**.33**
11.	I never regret my decisions.	.08	**.32**
19.	It's all right with me if some people happen to dislike me.	-.06	**.32**
34.	I never read sexy books or magazines.	.07	**.27**
3.	I don't care to know what other people really think of me.	.01	**.26**
13.	The reason I vote is because my vote can make a difference.	.15	**.21**

Note. Reverse-scored items are indicated by "r" following the item number.

For ease of reading, a black line indicates the separation between items loadings more strongly on factor 1 and items loading more strongly on factor 2.

Loadings of items included in reliability calculations are printed in boldface.

4.3.2 Convergent and Discriminant Validity

In an attempt to establish the convergent and discriminant validity for all scales, a correlation analysis was conducted. A scale would have convergent validity if when items or sub-scales that should, in theory, be correlated with or related to one another – such as separate items all purported to assess Anxiety – are shown to be related. A scale would have discriminant validity if items or sub-scales that should not, in theory, be correlated or related to one another are shown to be independent.

With regard to the RQ attachment scale, Table 8 shows that Secure attachment correlated negatively with Fearful and Dismissive attachment, whereas a significant correlation was not found between Secure and Preoccupied attachment. Fearful attachment did correlate positively with both Preoccupied and Dismissing attachment. Finally, Preoccupied and Dismissing attachment were not significantly correlated. If the expected underlying structure of a two-factor solution with Anxiety of Abandonment as one factor and Avoidance of Intimacy as the other had been found to underlie the data collected with the translated questionnaire in the Saudi Arabian population, then it would be expected that the two factors – Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy – would not be strongly correlated. They would show discriminant validity. However, in the current study, that factor structure was not found. Because items traditionally loading on the Anxiety of Abandonment factor and items expected to load on the Avoidance of Intimacy factor were mixed in the current factor solution, and are thus correlated with each other, it is not reasonable to expect discriminant validity between Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy scales. Indeed, a positive correlation (r = .34) was found between Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy.

With respect to convergent and discriminant validity between RQ and ECR-R, we expected a positive correlation between Preoccupied attachment measured on the RQ and Anxiety of Abandonment measured on the ECR-R. Moreover, the RQ Dismissing and Fearful attachment styles should positively correlate with ECR-R's Avoidance. Finally, we expected negative correlation between Secure attachment as measured on the RQ and both Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy as measured on the ECR-R. The results were consistent with these expectations, supporting the convergent and discriminant validity of some of these constructs. The BIDR scale was included in this study to assess the likelihood that participants' responses were impacted by tendencies to respond in socially desirable ways. There were no clear indications that results from the BIDR should correlated with any of the relationship scales, e.g., RQ, ECR-R, and RAS. None of these attachment

scales showed any correlation with SDE, which showed only a negative correlation with Anxiety of Abandonment. In addition, IM correlated only with Secure attachment.

To assess criterion validity, comparisons between scores on the RAS and attachment scores were examined. A positive correlation between Secure attachment and RAS was predicted, and negative correlations were predicted between all insecure attachment and RAS. The same pattern was expected if RAS was replaced with SWLS. Furthermore, RAS and SWLS were expected to correlate positively with each other. Consistent with these predictions, all insecure attachment scales correlated negatively with both RAS and SWLS and Secure attachment correlated positively with both RAS and SWLS. Furthermore, RAS and SWLS showed a strong positive correlation (r = .74) with each other. The specifics of these correlation analyses are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Correlations of Attachment Scales, RAS, SWLS, and BIDR

Scales	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Secure (RQ)	-.46**	-.06	-.20*	-.25 **	-.37**	.43**	.42**	.10	.19*
2. Fearful (RQ)		.42**	.47**	.43**	.51**	-.58**	-.48**	-.13	-.07
3. Preoccupied (RQ)			.16	.52**	.29**	-.28**	-.22*	-.06	.06
4. Dismissive (RQ)				.12	.56**	-.51**	-.34**	-.05	.02
5. Anxiety (ECR-R)				(.90)	.34**	-.45**	-.36**	-.30**	.09
6. Avoidance (ECR-R)					(.84)	-.78**	-.63**	-.06	-.07
7. RAS						(.90)	.74**	.10	.18*
8. SWLS							(.85)	.15	.18*
9. SDE								(.70)	.24**
10. IM									(.62)

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$.

Internal consistencies (Cronbach's α) of the scales are reported in parentheses in the main diagonal cells.

The numbers 2-10 across the top of the table correspond to the numbered scales along the left side of the table.

4.3.3 Sex Differences

A significant sex difference was found for all attachment scales with the exception of the Secure attachment scale (Table 9). For Fearful, Preoccupied and Dismissive attachment, the wives' mean scores were significantly higher than the husbands' (Fearful scale $p < .001$; Preoccupied scale $p < .05$; Dismissive scale $p < .01$). The wives also scored significantly higher for both Anxiety and Avoidance attachment, as measured on the ECR-R, than did the husbands. For both RAS and SWLS, both satisfaction scales, the husband's mean scores were significantly higher than the wives' mean scores. No significant difference was found between husbands and wives on the SDE or IM subscales of the BIDR, used to assess tendency towards socially desirable responding.

Table 9
Mean, Standard Deviation, and T-Scores for Each Scale for Husbands and Wives

Scales	Husbands		Wives		T. test
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Secure (RQ)	3.79	.96	3.56	.97	1.44
Fearful (RQ)	1.96	.87	2.64	1.12	-3.95***
Preoccupied (RQ)	2.35	1.14	2.83	1.08	-2.48*
Dismissive (RQ)	1.72	.83	2.18	1.00	-2.93**
Anxiety (ECRR)	2.41	.73	2.71	.70	-2. 4*
Avoidance (ECRR)	2.16	.54	2.40	.55	-2.5*
SWLS	3.78	.72	3.37	.83	3.0**
RAS	3.98	.61	3.62	.70	3.1**
SDE (of the BIDR)	3.29	.50	3.29	.43	.01
IM (of the BIDR)	3.35	.38	3.36	.36	-.08

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$.

4.3.4 Correlations with the Demographic Variables

The correlations in Table 10 show that among the husbands' sample, significant correlations existed between age and Fearful attachment. The direction of this relationship suggests that husbands tend to grow more fearful, at least in attachment style, as they increase in age. Years of marriage was linked to Avoidant attachment, indicating husbands become increasingly avoidant in their attachment styles with increasing marriage duration. The overall satisfaction with life scale, SWLS, yielded results that were correlated positively with the frequency of contact between members of the couples before marriage.

Interestingly, with the increase of age and years of marriage, satisfaction with marriage decreased. For husbands, Secure attachment correlated negatively with the number of marriages such that those husbands who scored high on Secure attachment tended to

marry only once. Income, which can be considered as an element of security, correlated negatively with Fearful, Preoccupied and Anxiety attachment, suggesting that it might be more difficult to be securely attached in financially straining situations. Finally, frequency of contact between members of the couples before marriage correlated negatively with Preoccupied and Avoidant attachment such that people who had more contact before marriage were lower in Preoccupied and Avoidant attachment style scores.

In the sample of wives, the only positive correlations appeared between number of children and Secure attachment, between number of children and IM, and between income and SDE.

Table 10

Correlations of All the Scales with the Demographic Variables

Variables - Husbands	Secure (RQ)	Fearful (RQ)	Preoccupied (RQ)	Dismissive (RQ)	RAS	SWLS	Anxiety ECR-R	Avoidance ECR-R	SDE (of the BIDR)	IM (of the BIDR)
Age	-.07	.27*	.11	.17	-.31**	-.16	.13	.41**	.01	.05
Years of Marriage	.01	.16	.12	.15	-.30*	-.15	.10	.41**	.11	.11
Number of marriages	-.30*	.18	.05	.20	-.16	-.07	.20	.03	.06	.00
Number of Children	.02	.10	.14	.07	-.16	.07	.05	.18	.19	.15
Total Years of education	-.05	-.11	-.13	-.06	-.08	-.04	-.09	.16	-.02	-.03
Income	.01	-.31*	-.34**	-.03	-.05	.06	-.26*	.03	.08	-.05
Marriage Type	.15	.20	.21	.15	-.14	.02	.18	.24	.11	.05
Frequency of contacts before marriage	-.11	-.22	-.34**	-.22	.19	.26*	-.21	-.39**	.25*	.04

Variables - Wives	Secure (RQ)	Fearful (RQ)	Preoccupied (RQ)	Dismissive (RQ)	RAS	SWLS	Anxiety ECR-R	Avoidance ECR-R	SDE (of the BIDR)	IM (of the BIDR)
Age	.07	-.11	-.11	.03	.10	.20	-.10	.09	.16	.21
Years of Marriage	.09	.02	.04	.15	-.02	.21	.06	.20	.15	.18
Number of marriages	-.12	.06	-.15	-.02	-.02	-.11	-.12	-.00	.05	.15
Number of Children	.28*	-.04	.22	.03	-.00	.24	.08	.04	.19	.25*
Total Years of education	-.09	-.12	-.23	-.02	-.07	-.10	-.16	.04	.07	-.11
Income	.04	-.02	-.07	.09	-.08	.01	-.24	.18	.29*	.12
Marriage Type	.17	-.14	.01	.23	-.04	.21	-.06	.08	-.01	.14
Frequency of contacts before marriage	-.02	.11	.08	-.05	-.02	-.21	-.13	-.12	.14	-.21

Note: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

4.4 Discussion

One important aim of this study was to develop an Arabic version of attachment, marital satisfaction and life satisfaction scales. Although the RQ scale differentiated between participants according to their attachment, it has not fully supported Bartholomew's model (1990). Bartholomew's (1990) model showed two orthogonal dimensions, one representing the view of the self (positive to negative) and the other representing view of others (positive to negative). These two dimensions jointly describe four prototypes of attachments. Bartholomew (1990) showed a negative correlation between Secure and Fearful attachment, and between Preoccupied and Dismissing attachment, though the view-of-self and view-of-others dimensions were shown to be orthogonal to each other.

Results from the current study, presented in Figure 10, indicate a negative correlation between Secure and Fearful attachment (r = -.46) of greater magnitude than the negative correlation between Secure and Dismissing attachment (r = -.20). These results are inconsistent with Bartholomew's model in that Secure and Dismissing attachment were correlated. Secure attachment had no relationship to Preoccupied attachment. Fearful attachment was positively correlated with both of the other insecure attachment styles, in contrast to Bartholomew's model, which predicts a no correlation between Fearful attachment and Preoccupied or Dismissing attachment. Finally, Preoccupied attachment did not correlate with Dismissing attachment negatively as was expected according to Bartholomew's model. Overall, Secure attachment had either a negative or weak and non-significant correlation with the insecure attachment styles, and all of the insecure attachment styles except Dismissing and Preoccupied attachment correlated positively with each other. This could be interpreted as indicating that Dismissing attachment and Fearful attachment are similar in that they are associated with seeing others negatively but still viewing one's self positively. Fearful attachment is associated with negatives views others but shared more traits with Preoccupied in seeing self negatively. This is why we saw that the Preoccupied and Dismissing bending closer to Fearful attachment.

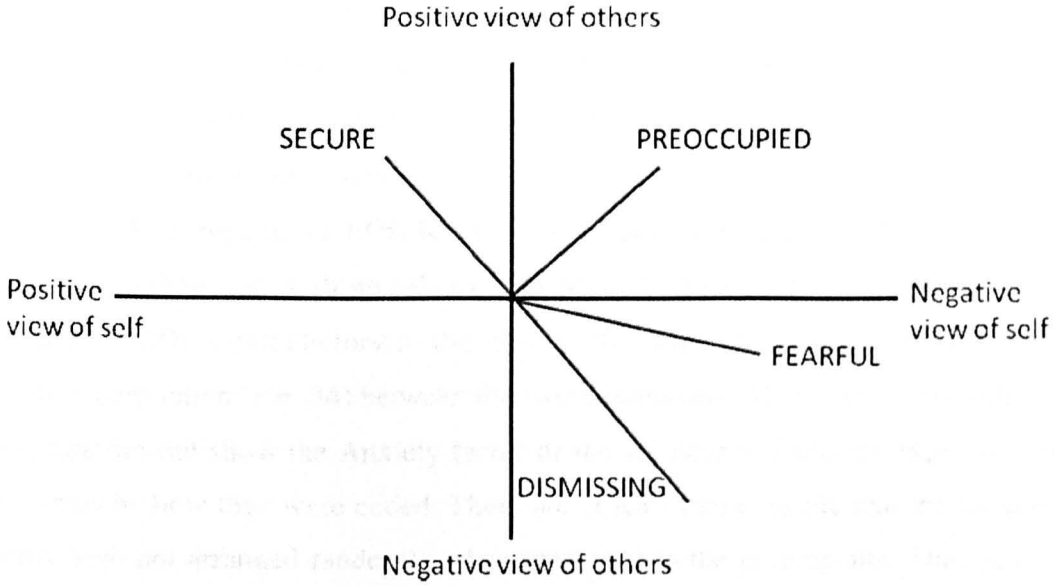


Figure 10. The correlation of secure attachment styles

The correlation relationships among attachment styles found in the current study were similar to results reported by Banse (2004) in a German sample. Banse found that Secure attachment had a negative significant correlation with Fearful attachment, but the relationship was no stronger than Secure attachment's negative correlation with Preoccupied and Dismissing attachment, which were not correlated with each other. Thus, Banse's (2001) findings also only partially supported Bartholomew's model, because Banse also found the dimensions were not orthogonal. Both Preoccupied and Dismissing attachments were found to be more similar to or related to Fearful attachment than proposed in Bartholomew's model. Banse's (2001) results showed Secure and Fearful attachment were highly negatively correlated, but there was not a significant correlation between Dismissing and Preoccupied attachment. Moreover, similar pattern of dimensions was observed in Greece by Tsagarakis, Kafetsios and Stalikas (2007). Their results showed a negative correlation between Secure and Fearful attachment that was larger than the negative correlations between Secure and Preoccupied attachment and between Secure and Dismissing attachment. Fearful attachment showed positive correlations with both Preoccupied and Dismissing attachment. Finally, Preoccupied and Dismissing attachment showed no relationship to each other. According to the results of the current study of a Saudi Arabian sample, and consistent with the previous studies (e.g., Banse, 2001; Tsagarakis, Kafetsios, & Stalikas, 2007), Bartholomew's dimensions are not likely to be fully orthogonal. The Secure-Fearful attachment dimension is not orthogonal to the Dismissive-Preoccupied dimension, but rather, most forms of insecure

attachment appear to be positively correlated with each other, and all oppose, or are negatively correlated with, Secure attachment. The findings distinguishing secure and insecure attachment styles were encouraging and gave no reason to remove the RQ scale from further analyses and studies.

With regards to ECR-R, Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy should be orthogonal, with no relationship between the two dimensions (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000). Contradictory to this theory, the results of the current study show a weak positive correlation (r = .34) between the two dimensions. Moreover, the results of the factor structure did not show the Anxiety factor or the Avoidance factor as expected, but grouped the items by how they were coded. There are at least two possible reasons for this. First, the items were not arranged randomly when presented to the participants. That is, the all of the Anxiety-related items were presented before all of the Avoidance-related items. Second, some participants indicated (in conversation with the researcher) that they had difficulty understanding and responding to the reverse-coded items, which tend to negatively worded. However, these two weaknesses of the current design are addressed in the next study, presented in Chapter 5. Despite not having two clear factors of Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy measured with the ECR-R, the Secure attachment factor assessed using the RQ correlated negatively with these both two factors.

The Avoidance dimension, defined by Hazan and Shaver (1987, 1990), was subdivided by Bartholomew into Fearful and Dismissing attachment. Our results show that the second factor of the ECR-R, which was expected to be Avoidance of Intimacy, is positively and strongly correlated with both Dismissing and Fearful attachment as measured on the RQ. This correlation consistent with the Bartholomew classification, in which the Avoidance dimension is a combination of Fearful and Dismissing attachment. Fearful attachment, but not Dismissing attachment correlated positively with the Anxiety dimension, although it was expected that neither of them would correlate.

Correlation of factor 1 derived from analysis of the ECR-R scale were somewhat as expected. Factor 1 consisted largely of items that are said to load onto the Anxiety of Abandonment dimension of the ECR-R, though none of the reverse-coded items were included in factor 1. However, factor 1 behaved as the Anxiety of Abandonment dimension would be expected to in that it was positively correlated with and Preoccupied attachment. However, Preoccupied attachment was, unexpectedly and only weakly, also correlated with Avoidance of Intimacy. Taken all together, the results of ECR-R were not entirely clear. To try to gain more insight and further examine Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of

Intimacy attachment styles using the ECR-R, the scale was used again in the next study, but the anxiety- and avoidance-related items were organized in alternating order in hopes of uncovering two clearer factors of Anxiety and Avoidance.

BIDR was included to explore whether the participants' responses were likely to be contaminated by their trying to provide social desirable answers. The results from the BIDR did not correlate with any other scales in an informative way. The SDE component of the BIDR correlated negatively with only Anxiety attachment, and the IM component of the BIDR correlated positively with Secure attachment, RAS, SWLS and SDE. This infrequent correlation could have been due to the error of administering this questionnaire with items presented in a non-randomized sequence. All the revised items were presented sequentially at the beginning of the BIDR questionnaire rather than distributed randomly amongst the other items. The absence of the correlations between BIDR with RAS, SWLS, and substantially with the attachment scales means that the participants' responses were not contaminated by social desirability, consequently, this scale was excluded from further analysis.

The RAS and SWLS both showed the expected single-factor structure. The correlation between RAS and SWLS was as expected, and was consistent with the results of Suh, Diener, Oishi and Triandis (1998). RAS was an important predictor of SWLS, possibly even more important conceptually because these results were found in a collectivist as opposed to an individualistic nation (Suh, Diener, Oishi, & Triandis, 1998).

Results and findings in Study 1 were used to inform the design and implementation for Study 2. The RQ, RAS and SWLS scales were retained for the second study; their Arabic translation and factor structure were deemed satisfactory. In the ECR-R scale, the items needed reordering to randomize items related to anxiety versus avoidance. The BIDR will not be used for the second study. Removing the BIDR allows for the addition of other important scales that are more in keeping with the VSA model but which could not otherwise be added without risk of participant fatigue from completing lengthy questionnaires.

CHAPTER 5

STUDY 2: COMPILATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMPLETE TEST BATTERY

5.1 Aim of Study 2

The aim of Study 2 is to develop a comprehensive test battery, covering the three groups of variables of the VSA-Model of Karney and Bradbury (1995) that are postulated to predict marital success and drawing on findings from Study 1. Developing this test battery requires translating more scales from English to Arabic and then examining aspect of their validity.

The results of Study 1 indicated satisfactory reliability and construct validity for the RQ, RAS and SWLS. However, the sequential presentation of first anxiety-related and then avoidance-related items in the ECR-R may have led to or contributed to inflation of the scale's internal consistency and the emergence of the two ambiguous factors found in Study 1. It was, therefore, decided that the items would be presented in a randomized, intermixed order in Study 2.

To recapitulate, this study is part of a larger cross-cultural project comparing the determinants of relationship satisfaction in Saudi Arabia and India. In a pilot study conducted in India, a ceiling effect was observed for the marital satisfaction scale RAS. Although this problem did not occur in the Saudi Arabian sample, a new answer format was developed for Study 2 in hopes of reducing the possibility of ceiling effects, with the added benefit that the new answer format might provide more generally comparable results in cross-cultural research. The answering scale was asked participants to imagine one hundred partners living in marriages like their own. At the highest end of the scale are the five people, out of all 100, who are the happiest in their relationships. At the lowest end of the scale are the five people, out of all 100, who are the least happy in their relationships. The participant was required to rate his or her happiness in his or her marriage relative to these people.

In order to comprehensively assess the three groups of variables from Karney and Bradbury's (1995) model, a number of additional scales were added in Study 2. The newly

added scales were expected to be related to Enduring Vulnerability, Stressful Events and Adaptive Processes, the groups of variables proposed within the VSA model. For the Enduring Vulnerability group, four scales were added, and the RQ and ECR-R were maintained, for a total of six scales. The first scale added was an Attitude towards Arranged Marriages scale, designed to take account of the fact that attitudes towards marriage systems could affect marital satisfaction. Second, The Inclusion of Others in the Self scale (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992) was added to assess the participants' sense of interpersonal interconnectedness. Interpersonal interconnectedness is conceptually distinct from attachment scales, but empirically it may correlate. Therefore, it could be informative in exploring different types of closeness in relationships. Third, Gupta and Singh's (1982) study on arranged and choice marriages in India used the Love and Liking scale by Rubin (1970) as a dependent variable and, drawing from their work, the love scale from Rubin's questionnaire was added to for Study 2. Finally, sexual satisfaction is an important predictor of marital satisfaction (Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000; Eysenck & Walefield, 1981), and so a number of self-report items were developed with the goal of assessing a general evaluation of intimacy/sexuality without being perceived as offensive by the respondents, in whose culture sexuality is a very sensitive issue.

Attitudes towards the Family-in-Law was identified as a potentially informative construct from the Stressful Events variable group, and so these attitudes were assessed in Study 2.Attitudes towards members of one's family-in-law were hypothesized to reflect problems between the spouse and members of the family-in-law (e.g., mother-in-law, father-in-law), which could impact the couple's marital life, particularly if the spouse lives with the family-in-law. Living with the family-in-law is more typical for Indian families than for Saudi Arabian, but relationship problems with in-laws may still be an important stressor in Arabian culture. With regard to Adaptive Processes, a review of the literature showed that no single scale covered the full range of possible conflict behaviours. For example, the Rusbult Problem Solving Scale measures the participants' self-reported tendencies to engage in four different conflict behaviours (labelled Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect), but it does not cover physically or mentally abusive behaviour (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986). The Conflict Tactics Scale by Straus (1979) assesses Reasoning, Verbal Aggression, and Violent behaviours. Items from each of these two scales were selected and combined into a more comprehensive Conflict Behaviour Scale (CBS). The answer format of the Conflict Tactics Scale requires the participant to report his or her own behaviour as well as that of the partner. This format was adapted in our CBS, because conflict behaviour is dyadic by definition.

5.1.1 Statistical Analysis

In line with the Pilot Study (Study 1), all scales were translated from English to Arabic, keeping the meaning of each item as close to the original item as possible.\. After data collection, the factor structures of the translated scales were investigated using Principle Components and Factor Analysis. The development of a comprehensive test battery in Arabic required a series of statistical analyses to ensure satisfactory psychometric properties and various aspects of validity of the Arabic version of these scales. The factor structure is particularly important if original scales feature several subscales, as is the case with the ECR-R and CBS.

5.1.2 Convergent and Discriminant Validity

A correlation analysis will be performed to investigate the convergent and discriminant validity of the scales included in the test battery. In accordance with the two orthogonal dimensions and four attachment types in Bartholomew's (1990) model of attachment, three hypotheses were derived. First, Secure attachment will correlate negatively with Fearful attachment. Second, Preoccupied attachment will correlate negatively with Dismissing attachment. Third, zero-correlations are expected between Secure and Fearful attachment and between Preoccupied and Dismissing attachment.

With regard to the ECR-R, a minimal correlation is expected between the subscales Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy, because they are postulated to be orthogonal. In addition, it is hypothesized that ECR-R Avoidance of Intimacy will correlate positively with RQ Dismissing and Fearful attachment, and negatively with RQ Secure and Preoccupied attachment. ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment is hypothesized to correlate positively with RQ Preoccupied and Fearful attachment, and negatively with RQ Secure and Dismissing attachment.

Based on general considerations about the relationship between adult attachment and other variables, it is expected that RQ Secure attachment will have a negative correlation with Negative Conflict Behaviour, (NB) and a positive correlation with Positive Conflict Behaviour, (PB). That is, people who have a Secure attachment style are predicted to be able to deal with conflict in a more constructive and healthy way. Conversely, it is hypothesized that the three insecure attachment scales will correlate positively with NB and negatively with PB. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that a positive correlation between RQ Secure attachment and the Love scale, the Inclusion of Others in the Self scale, and the Sexual

Satisfaction scale. On the other hand, a negative correlation between these scales and all three insecure attachment styles is hypothesized.

With respect to discriminant validity, it is hypothesized that the attachment scales will not correlate significantly, and will correlate only weakly, with attitudes towards the mother-in-law and father-in-law and towards arranged marriages.

The ultimate criterion for including a measure in this test battery is its potential ability to predict marital and life satisfaction. It is expected that RQ Secure attachment, the Love scale, the Inclusion of Others in the Self scale and the Sexual Satisfaction scale will correlate positively with marital and life satisfaction. Furthermore, NB is expected to correlate negatively with marital and life satisfaction. Finally, Attitude towards Arranged Marriages is expected to be positively correlated with marital and life satisfaction.

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Participants

One hundred participants (50 husbands, 50 wives), none of whom were married to each other, took part in this study. Participants were recruited among outpatients and employees of King Fahad Medical City. All participants were Saudi citizens, and their ages ranged from 19 to 58 years (M = 30.42, SD = 5.02 for husbands; M = 29.36, SD = 6.37 for wives). A large proportion of the spouses were within their first five years of marriage (see the distribution of marriage duration, presented in Figure 11. Over 90% of the sample were in their first marriage and had never been divorced. A total of 86% of the wives were the first wife for their husbands, and 100% of the husbands were married to only one wife. Including both husbands and wives, 60% of the sample had between one and four children.

With regard to educational level, 54% of the husbands and 50% of the wives held a Bachelor's degree. The individual income level indicates that 60% of the husbands and 48% of the wives earned between 5000-10000 SR per month (£650-£1300). This level of income indicates that the sample was biased towards the upper-middle class, because the average individual income in Saudi Arabia is 5000 SR per month (Central Department of Statistics and Information, for the year of 2007). The vast majority of the participants (88% of the husbands, 84% of the wives) were married through arranged marriages, and 82% of the sample lived by themselves, not with either spouse's family. A large proportion of the participants (70% of the husbands, 78% of the wives) had no contact with their spouses prior

to their engagement or marriage. Having no contact prior to engagement or marriage would be seen by all of the participants as consistent with cultural norms and traditions. As defined by participants, having contact means cousins or relatives seeing or talking to each other occasionally.

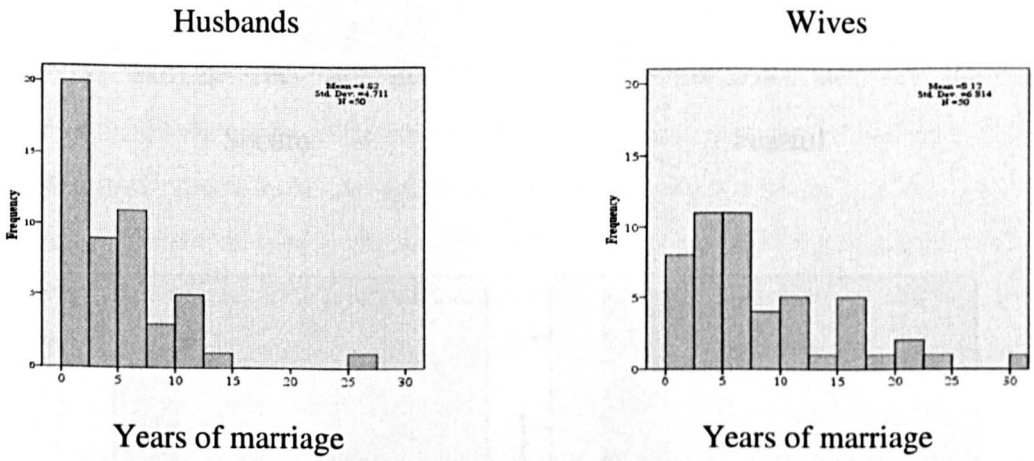
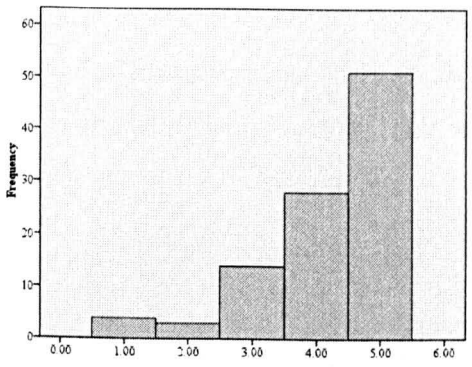


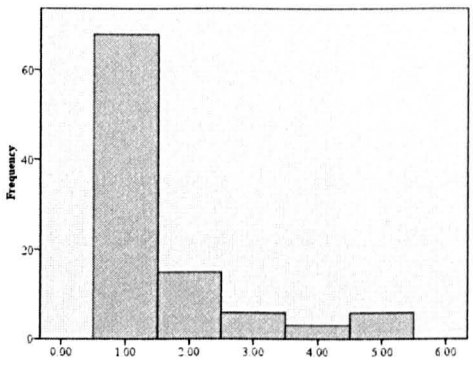
Figure 11. Length of current marriage for husbands and wives

5.2.2 Measures

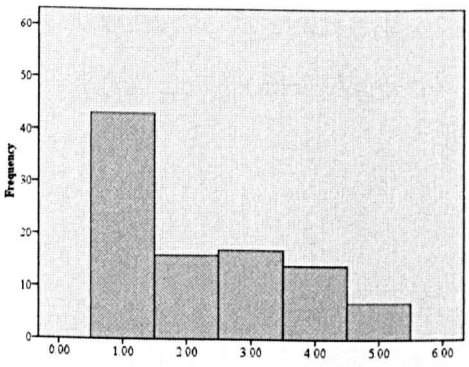
The Relationship Questionnaire, Relationship Assessment Scale and the Satisfaction With Life Scale. All of these three scales had been introduced in Study 1 and were retained for Study 2. The frequency of each type of attachment style found in the current sample is reported in Figure 12.



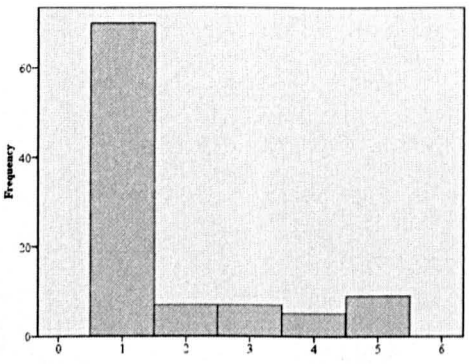
Secure



Fearful



Preoccupied



Dismissing

Figure 12. The sample distribution of Secure, Fearful, Preoccupied and Dismissing attachment

The Experience in Close Relationship-Revised (ECR-R) scale. This is the same scale that was described in Study 1, though the item order was changed for Study 2. The items were presented in alternating order, such that each anxiety item was followed by an avoidance item.

Attitudes towards Arranged Marriages. This scale was developed for the purpose of this study. It consists of seven items. The answer format for the first three items was binary; participants selected either arranged or choice marriages. For example, "I would prefer my children to get married through..." The answer format for the other four items was a 5-point Likert agreement scale. One example of these items is: "There are some positive aspects to choice marriage". Items 4 and 7 were reversed coded.

Inclusion of Others in the Self (IOS) scale. This one-item scale consists of one Venn-like diagram (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992) describing the closeness between couples in a close relationship with reference to their feelings and behaviours. The diagram shows pairs of circles representing the self and partner. At one end of the spectrum, the circles are entirely separate; they do not overlap at all, indicating that the self and partner is entirely separate. At the other extreme, the seventh and final pair of circles overlap almost entirely (95%), indicating that the self and partner are as close as possible. Between the two extremes are pairs of circles with sequentially increasing overlapping or shared area. The participants are asked to choose the diagram that best represents the closeness they feel in their relationships with their spouses. There is a series of seven pairs of circles in this scale, and, for representation in the histogram presented in Figure 13, each circle has been assigned a number; the numbers range from 1 (least close, entirely separate circles in the picture scale) to 7 (closest, 95% overlapping circles).

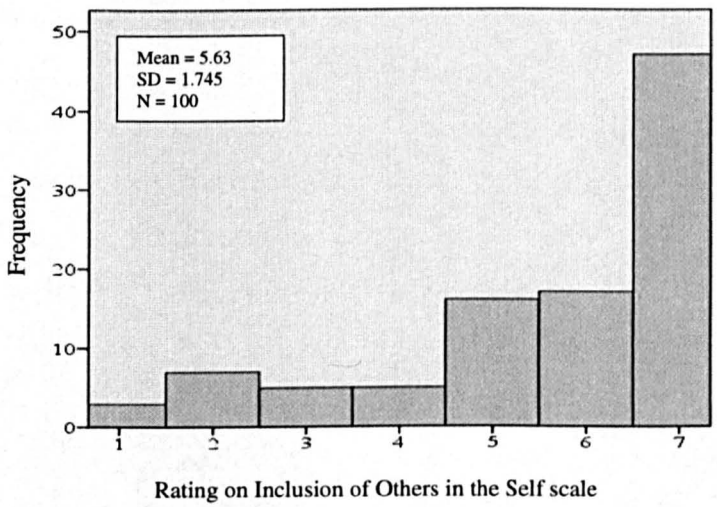


Figure 13. Frequency histogram of responses to the Inclusion of Others in the Self scale

Love scale. The Love and Liking scale (Rubin, 1970) contains 13 items in each of the two sub-scales. For the present study, only the Love subscale was used. The Love scale (Rubin, 1970) assesses three factors of love: (1) affiliative and dependent need, which describes love as sublimated sexuality with attachment behaviour; (2) predisposition to help, which represents care, responsibility, respect, and acknowledgment; and (3) exclusiveness and absorption, which incorporates mutual intimacy and how much one person is absorbed

into the other. An example item from the Love scale is, "It would be hard for me to get along without him". The answer format was a 5-point Likert agreement scale.

Sexual Satisfaction scale. This scale consists of three items, which were generated specifically for this study and to tap into sexual satisfaction. In order to avoid offensive language, the word "intimacy" was used instead of a more overt or explicit term. The three items were placed within the RAS scale so that sexual satisfaction items could be included with the relationship satisfaction items, reducing the likelihood of the items causing embarrassment (as they might if presented as a separate scale). The items addressed sexual satisfaction, being open in discussing sexual issues, and satisfaction with the frequency of sex. A sample item is "How satisfied are you with your intimate relationship?" The answer format was the RAS key answers, asking the participants to imagine one hundred partners living in a marriage like their own. The highest end of the scale represents the five of these 100 people who are happiest in their relationships. The lowest end of the scale represents the five of these 100 people who are least happy in their relationships. The participant was required to rate his or her satisfaction relative to these people.

Attitude towards Family-in-Law. New items were generated with the goal of tapping into the participants' relationships with their mother-in-law, father-in-law and two additional family members who may have an influence on the couple's relationship (e.g., an older brother or sister), making 12 items in total. The items assessed liking, closeness and frequency of problems. The answer format was a 5-point Likert agreement scale.

Conflict Behaviour Scale (CBS). The Conflict Behaviour Scale is a combination of the Rusbult Problem Solving scale (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986) and the Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979). Nine items were chosen from the Conflict Tactics Scale and 19 items were chosen from the Rusbult Problem Solving scale. The items that described very extreme behaviours, such as shooting and stabbing with a knife, were excluded. A shorter scale that reflected the conflict behaviours that were more likely to occur in a Saudi sample was formed. The items were arranged in order of severity, starting with minimally problematic behaviours and increasing to more disruptive or problematic behaviours. An example of a more extreme behaviours is "Hit or tried to hit with something".

The Rusbult Problem Solving scale (Rusbult et al., 1986) measures participants' self-reported tendencies to engage in four categories of behaviours – Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect behaviours. These four characteristics describe a participant's response to

solving a specific problem in his or her relationship. Exit behaviours are defined as active responses that may be constructive in solving problems but are destructive for the relationship. Exit behaviours are distinguished by separation or physical abuse for the partner. Voice behaviours are when the participant actively and constructively attempts to improve the conditions of the relationship by way of discussion and compromise. Neglect behaviours include passively allowing one's relationship to deteriorate, ignoring the problem and not talking to, or ignoring, the partner. Loyalty behaviours are exhibited when a partner passively but optimistically waits for the conditions to improve, trying to resolve problems by hoping, waiting or wishing. Voice and Loyalty are considered constructive responses, whereas Exit and Neglect are considered to be destructive or dysfunctional and detrimental to the relationship.

The Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979) assesses explicit actions in response to a conflict. These actions are divided into three categories: Reasoning, Verbal Aggression and Violence. The Reasoning scale emphasizes rational discussion and the logical approach towards a dispute. The Verbal Aggression scale stresses the verbal and non-verbal acts that could hurt or threaten the other person. The Violence scale highlights the use of force against another person in order to resolve conflict. For this study, nine items, from the latter two categories, were selected. One example of these items is "Insulted or swore at the partner"

Because conflict behaviour is dyadic, the answer format of the Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979) was adopted. The participant responds to all of the items twice, once ratings his or her own behaviour, and once rating his or her spouse's behaviour.

5.2.3 Procedure

The researcher is an employee of King Fahad Medical City. This medical city consists of four major hospitals, including The Obstetrics and Gynaecology Hospital in which the questionnaire was distributed. This hospital is only for female patients. Men in this hospital are professional employees only. The researcher chose this hospital to distribute the questionnaire for two reasons. First, it is more likely to have a representative sample, as it is a governmental hospital where all Saudis receive treatment for free. Second, there would be almost no chance for male and female participants to answer the questionnaire jointly in such a hospital.

After getting the approval from the ethical committee of the University of York and the hospital's administration to distribute the questionnaire, the researcher recruited the

participants. The researcher chose the female participants from the waiting area at the out-patient clinic. She approached them one by one, explaining the aim of the study and that participation is voluntarily, information is confidential and will only be used for research purposes. The researcher gave brief instructions on how to complete the questionnaires. Later on, the participants were left alone to fill in the questionnaire and the researcher sat aside waiting for their completed copies. The researcher gave the participants the choice of either handing the questionnaire in or leaving it on their seat to be collected later.

Male participants in the study were either hospital employees or the husbands, brothers, fathers or sons of women who were visiting the clinic. Care was taken so that none of the husbands who participated in the study were married to women who also participated in the study, and vice versa. The procedures for recruiting male participants for the study were necessarily different from recruiting the female participants. It is both unacceptable and uncommon for a woman to talk to any male stranger. The researcher, with her official position as a hospital employee, was given some restricted flexibility to approach the men in the waiting area. In the waiting area, which was located outside the women's hospital, the researcher stood at the entrance and talked to all the men together. The researcher presented herself as a hospital employee and said that she was conducting research in the hospital for which she had approval from the hospital administration. The goal of the research and the questionnaire was explained to the men and it was made clear that their participation should be voluntarily and confidentiality was guaranteed. The researcher instructed the male participants as to where they should leave the completed questionnaires and told them that she would return at various times to answer any of their concerns or questions. Not all of the men and women agreed to participate in this study.

5.3 Results

5.3.1 Scale Construction

In the following section, the factor structure and reliability of each scale will be reported separately.

The Experience in Close Relationship-Revised (ECR-R) scale. To calculate scores on the ECR-R, the reverse-scored items were recoded. Two of these items (9 and 11) were from the Anxiety of Abandonment sub-scale, and the remainder (4, 8, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 28,

30, 32, 34 and 36) were from the Avoidance of Intimacy sub-scale. A decision was made to drop items 9r, 11r, and 19 because these items refer to separation, which is not common in India. The Saudi participants indicated difficulty understanding and responding to some of the items (i.e., 5, 17, 18, 21, 23, 26, 29, 32 and 33). This was especially problematic with negatively phrased items, for example "It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my partner". Participants seemed confused as to whether "strongly disagree" would indicate their acceptance or rejection of these items.

The factor structure of the ECR-R was examined by conducting PCA. Examination of the scree plot, which shows a bend between the two- and three-factor solutions, suggested a two-factor solution (see Figure 14).

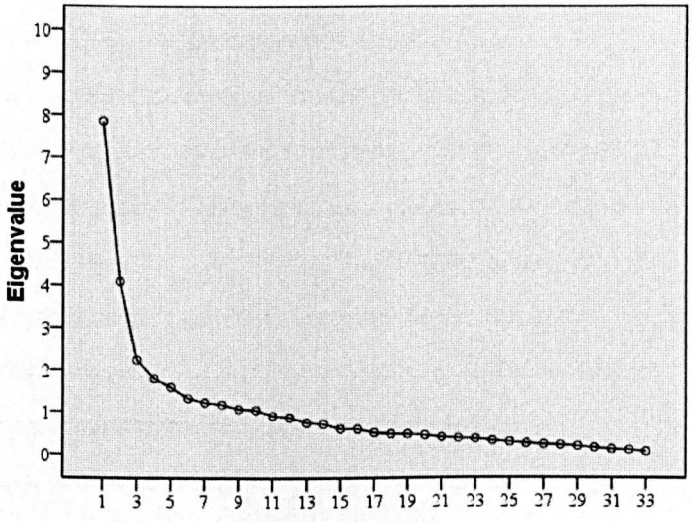


Figure 14. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the ECR-R

PCA was used to extract two factors, which, when combined, accounted for 36.20% of the variance within the data. The first factor consisted of most of the Anxiety of Abandonment items and accounted for 21.26% of the variance, and the second factor consisted of most of the Avoidance of Intimacy items and accounted for 14.94% of the variance. The factor loadings of the 14 retained Anxiety of Abandonment items ranged from .38 to .77(see Table 11). The factor loadings of the 11 retained Avoidance of Intimacy items ranged from .41 to .69.

The four items (2, 10, 12 28) that assessed Avoidance of Intimacy in the original questionnaire but, in the current data, loaded more strongly with the Anxiety of

Abandonment items were disregarded. One Anxiety of Abandonment item (5) was also disregarded because its stronger loading was on the Avoidance of Intimacy factor. Items that loaded on both factors with a difference between loadings of .14 or less (items 14, 16r and 6) were also disregarded. Cronbach's alpha, calculated using the remaining items, was $\alpha = .86$ for the Anxiety of Abandonment scale and $\alpha = .83$ for the Avoidance of Intimacy scale.

In summary, the ECR-R was shown to have two underlying factors. Factor 1 is the Anxiety of Abandonment factor, which consisted of 14 items that all load onto the Anxiety of Abandonment factor in the original questionnaire and all of which were formulated with positive wording. Factor 2 is the Avoidance of Intimacy factor, which consisted of 11 items that all load onto the Avoidance of Intimacy factor in the original questionnaire, and all of which were reverse coded.

Table 11

Factor Loading of Items on the ECR-R Scale

		Item	Factor	
			ANX	AVO
Anxiety of Abandonment	7.	When my partner is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.	**.77**	.03
	3.	I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me.	**.75**	-.01
	25.	When I show my feelings for my partner, I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me.	**.72**	.01
	27.	My partner makes me doubt myself.	**.71**	.15
	15.	I'm afraid that once my partner gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.	**.67**	.30
	13.	Sometimes my partner changes their feelings about me for no apparent reason.	**.64**	.15
	31.	My desire to be very close sometimes scares my partner away.	**.64**	.21
	21.	I worry that my partner won't care about me as much as I care about them.	**.56**	-.03
	29.	I find that my partner don't want to get as close as I would like.	**.55**	.15
	33.	It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my partner.	**.55**	-.31
	35.	My partner only seems to notice me when I'm angry.	**.55**	.29
	23.	I worry a lot about my relationship.	**.53**	-.10
	1.	I'm afraid that I will lose my partner's love.	**.51**	-.19
	17.	I worry that I won't measure up to my partner's expectations.	**.38**	.05
Avoidance of Intimacy	26r.	I talk things over with my partner.	.21	**.69**
	24r.	I tell my partner just about everything.	.10	**.66**
	30r.	I feel comfortable depending on my partners.	.06	**.66**
	4r.	I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner.	.08	**.65**
	8r.	I am very comfortable being close to my partner.	<.01	**.65**
	36r.	My partner really understands me and my needs.	.21	**.64**
	22r.	It helps to turn to my partner in times of need.	-.03	**.56**
	20r.	I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my Partner.	.08	**.55**
	18r.	It's not difficult for me to get close to my partner.	.08	**.48**
	32r.	I find it easy to depend on my partners.	.08	**.43**
	34r.	It's easy for me to be affectionate with my partner.	.08	**.41**

Note. Reverse-scored items are indicated by "r" following the item number.
For ease of reading, a black line indicates the separation between items loadings more strongly on factor 1 and items loading more strongly on factor 2.
Loadings of items included in reliability calculations are printed in boldface.

The Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS). The factor structure of the RAS was examined through PCA. Examination of a scree plot of the eigenvalues generated through the PCA suggested a one-factor solution (see Figure 15). This factor accounted for 53.48% of the variance. All of the item loadings ranged from .32 to .89 (see Table 12). Results of the internal consistency analysis were satisfactory ($\alpha = .90$).

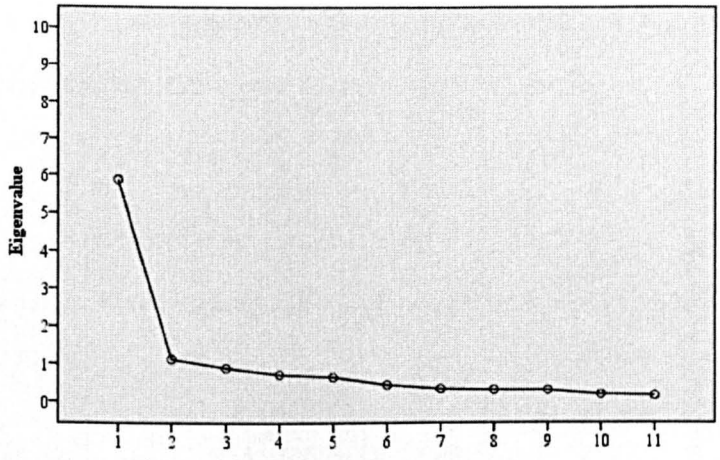


Figure 15. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the date from the RAS

Table 12
Factor Loading of Items on the RAS

	Item	Factor 1
9.	How passionate is your relationship with your partner?	.89
6.	How much do you love your partner?	.85
2.	In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?	.84
1.	How much your partner meets your needs?	.79
5.	To what extent your relationship met your original expectations?	.79
11.	How romantic is your relationship?	.79
10.	How much does your partner cares for you?	.76
3.	How good is your relationship compared to most?	.74
8.	How happy are you with the amount of freedom and independence you have in your marriage?	.64
7r.	How many problems are there in your relationship?	.41
4r.	How often do you wish you hadn't gotten into this relationship?	.32

Note. Reverse-scored items are indicated by "r" following the item number.

The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS). The factor structure of the SWLS was examined through PCA. Examination of the scree plot suggested a one-factor solution (see Figure 16). The one factor underlying the SWLS accounted for 64.63% of the variance, and all item loadings ranged from .64 to .88 (see Table 13). Internal consistency was $\alpha = .86$.

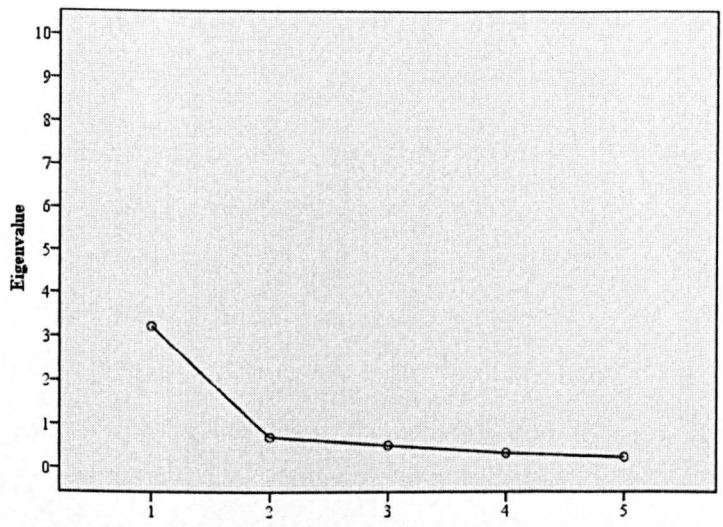


Figure 16. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the SWLS

Table 13
Factor Loading of Items on the SWLS

	Item	Factor 1
3.	I am satisfied with my life.	.88
2.	The conditions of my life are excellent.	.87
4.	So far I have gotten the important things I want in my life.	.83
5.	If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	.78
1.	In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	.64

Attitude towards Arranged Marriages. In order to calculate scores on the Attitudes towards Arranged Marriages scale, the reverse-scored items (4 and 7) were recoded. Items 1, 2 and 3 were dichotomously scored between arranged and choice marriages. Items 4-7 had a 5-point Likert agreement scale format but were converted to a dichotomy answer format by using the formula (x-1)/4. The factor structure of the scale was examined using PCA. Examination of the scree plot suggested a one-factor solution (see Figure 17). The one factor explained 59.45% of the variance. Item loadings ranged from .44 to .91 (see Table 14).

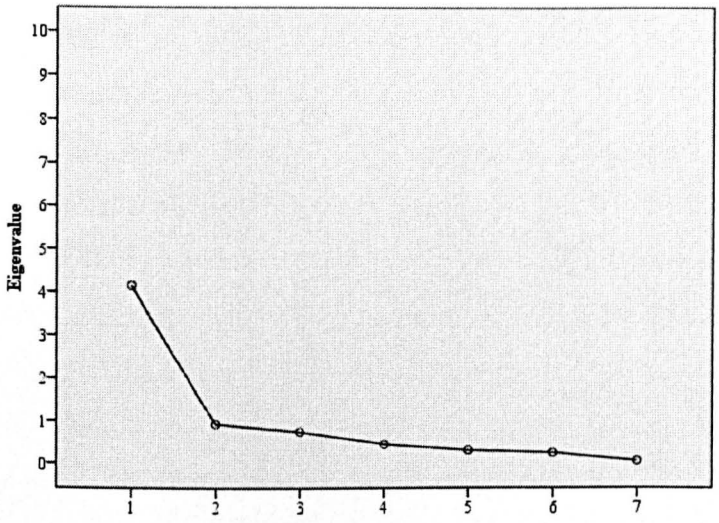


Figure 17. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Attitude towards Arranged Marriages scale

Table 14 *Factor Loading of Items on the Attitudes towards Arranged Marriages Scale*

	Item	Factor 1
1.	If I have the chance to choose what type of marriage I would have It will be?	.91
2.	I would prefer my children to get married through?	.89
3.	Who do you think are happier in their marriage, couples who are married through?	.86
7r.	The traditional marriage system is superior to any other.	.77
6.	Couples who marry by love marriage are happier in the long run.	.74
5.	There are some positive aspects to choice marriage.	.68
4r.	If my spouse had all the other qualities I desired, I would marry this person if I was not in love with him.	.44

Love scale. The factor structure of the Love scale was examined using PCA. Examination of the scree plot suggested a single factor (see Figure 18) which accounted for 36.17% of the variance. The item loadings ranged from .31 to .82 (see Table 15). The results of the internal consistency analysis for the Love scale were satisfactory ($\alpha = .83$).

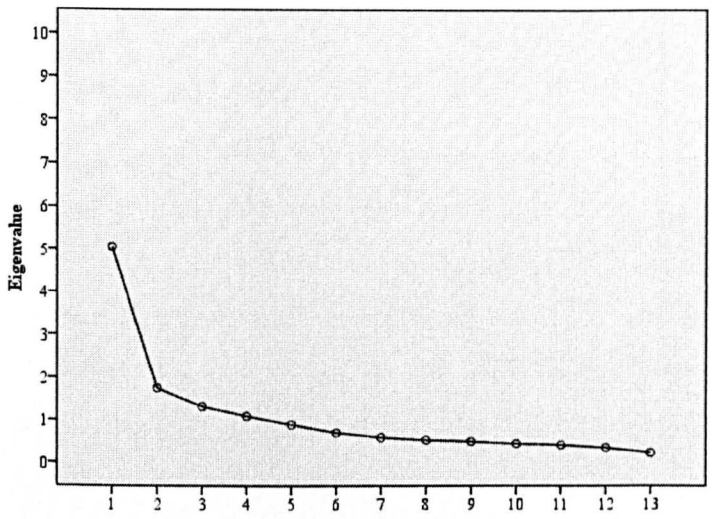


Figure 18. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Love scale

Table 15
Factor Loading of Items on the Love Scale

	Item	Factor 1
7.	If I were lonely, my first thought would be to seek him/her out.	.82
8.	One of my primary concerns is his/her welfare.	.70
10.	I feel responsible for his/her wellbeing.	.70
6.	If I could never be with him/her, I would feel miserable.	.70
1.	If my partner was feeling badly, my first duty would be to cheer him/her up.	.66
13.	It would be hard for me to get along without him/her.	.60
4.	I would do almost anything for him/her.	.60
12.	I would greatly enjoy being confided in by him/her.	.57
2.	I feel that I can confide in him/her about virtually everything.	.53
9.	I would forgive him/her for practically anything.	.53
11.	When I am with him/her, I spend a good deal of time just looking at him/her.	.44
5.	I feel very possessive towards him/her.	.40
3.	I find it easy to ignore his/her faults.	.31

Sexual Satisfaction scale. The results of the internal consistency analysis for the three-item Sexual Satisfaction scale were satisfactory ($\alpha = .84$).

Attitude towards Family-in-Law. Only the scales referring to the mother-in-law and father-in-law were analyzed. The other two scales relating to the other two members of

the family-in-law were omitted because the response frequencies were very low. Additionally, from the mother-in-law and father-in-law items, the third item "How many problems do you have with your mother/father-in-law" was dropped due to low item-total correlation. Cronbach's alpha for the two remaining items was .80 for mother-in-law and .72 for father-in-law.

Conflict Behaviour Scale, (CBS). The factor structure of the CBS, which included separate forms for respondent to rate himself or herself and his or her partner, was examined by using PCA. Examination of the scree plot suggested a four-factor solution for the participant's own behaviours, but a three-factor structure for the partners' behaviours (see Figure 19). Given that the items included for rating one's own behaviour and one's partner's behaviour were identical except for the target (own or partner's behaviour), it had been predicted that the same number of factors would underlie both.

The four factor solution was further examined for both scales (own and partner). PCA was used to extract the four factors, but the items loading on each of the factors were not consistent with the original scales (see Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986; Straus, 1979). For example, items for the Exit factor loaded with items on the Neglect and Voice factors, and Voice items loaded with items on the Neglect factor. In addition, these items were not the same for the Own and Partner versions. A four-factor solution was therefore deemed inappropriate.

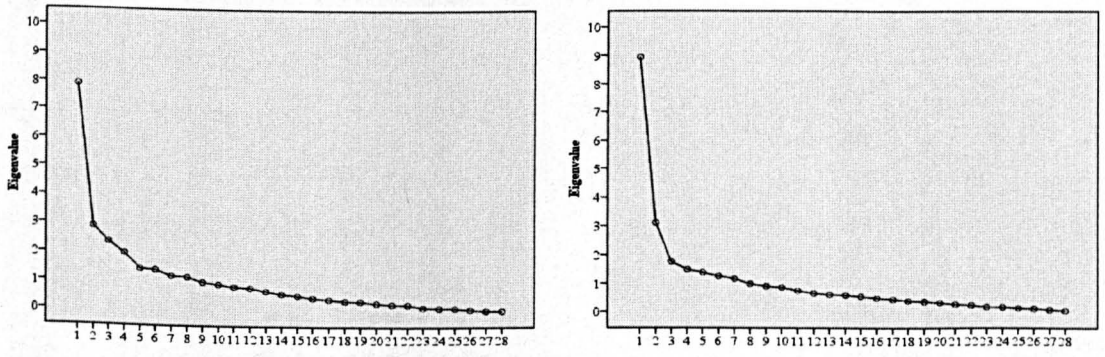


Figure 19. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Conflict Behaviour Scales (Own and Partner)

A reasonable, well-organized and meaningful solution using the PCA followed by Principal Axis analysis was obtained with a three-factor structure, with the factors labelled as Abuse, Positive Behaviour and Negative Behaviour. The item loadings were different from predicted based on the original scales, but the three-factor solution was meaningful and interpretable. The Abuse factor includes the items assessing abusive behaviours and item number 5 from the Exit scale. The Positive Behaviour factor gathered three items from the Voice scale and three items from the Loyalty scale. The Negative Behaviour factor consisted of three items from Exit, four items from Neglect and one item from the Abuse factor. Item 8 was excluded because it loaded on the Positive Behaviour factor for the CBS Own (on which participants rated their own behaviour), but on the Negative Behaviour factor for the CBS Partner version (on which they rated their partners' behaviour). Item 2 was also excluded because it loaded on three different factors for the partner version, but it loaded weakly on the Negative Behaviour factor for the Own behaviour version. Item 17 loaded weakly on the Negative Behaviour factor for both versions and was deleted because of its weak loading. Finally, item 18 loaded very weakly for the Own and also loaded weakly on all three factors in the Partner version, and so item 18 was also deleted. After deleting these four items, the Own and Partner versions of the CBS still consisted of identical items, which would not have been likely to occur if a four-, five-, or six- factor solution had been selected.

For the participants' ratings of their own behaviour on the CBS, the three factors accounted for a total of 47.07% of the variance. The first factor accounted for 28.24% of the variance, the second factor for10.30%, and the third factor for 8.44% (see Table 16). These factors were named Abuse (9 items, loadings ranging from .59 to .96), Positive Behaviour (6 items, loadings ranging from .36 to .71) and Negative Behaviour (8 items, loadings ranging from .48 to .62). A reliability test indicated satisfactory internal consistency with α = .91for the Own-Abuse, α = .58 for Own-Positive Behaviour, and α = .75 for Own-Negative Behaviour.

For the Partner's Conflict Behaviour Scale, the three factors accounted for a total variance of 49.24 %. The first factor accounted for 31.91% of the variance, the second factor for11.06%, and the third factor for 6.26% (see Table 16). The items and factors were the same for the Own and Partner versions. For the Abuse factor, item loadings ranged from .49 to .93; for the Positive Behaviour factor, item loadings ranged from .31 to .74; and for the Negative Behaviour factor, item loadings ranged from .41 to .63.

Subsequently, a reliability analysis was conducted, revealing satisfactory internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha was $\alpha = .91$ for Partner-Abuse, $\alpha = .65$ for Partner-Positive Behaviour, and $\alpha = .84$ for Partner-Negative Behaviour.

Table 16

Factor Loading of Items on the Own and Partner-CBS

	Item	CBS - Own			CBS - Partner		
		Factor			Factor		
		Positive	Negative	Abuse	Positive	Negative	Abuse
12.	Giving things some time to cool off on their own rather than taking any actions.	**.71**			**.74**		
10.	Suggesting a compromise solution.	**.60**			**.58**		
16.	Accepting partner's faults and weakness and not trying to change the partner.	**.54**			**.43**		
6.	Suggesting changing things in the relationship in order to solve the problem.	**.48**			**.60**		
19.	Giving partner, the benefit of the doubt and forgetting about it.	**.47**			**.48**		
14.	Consider getting advice from someone else (Friends, counsellor, parents).	**.36**			**.31**		
9.	To do things to drive the partner away.		**-.62**			**-.67**	
7.	Criticizing the partner for things that are unrelated to the real problem.		**-.61**			**-.67**	
1.	Thinking about ending the relationship		**-.59**			**-.70**	
21.	Stomped out of the room/house.		**-.56**			**-.34**	
3.	Sulking rather than confronting the issue		**-.50**			**-.69**	
15.	Spending less time with the partner (e.g., I spend more time with friends, watch a lot of television, work longer hours, etc.)		**-.49**			**-.45**	
11.	Ignoring the partner for a while.		**-.49**			**-.69**	
13.	Talk to the partner about breaking up.		**-.48**			**-.41**	
27.	Beat up the partner.			**.96**			**.81**
26.	Hit or tried to hit with something.			**.95**			**.93**
25.	Slapped the partner.			**.95**			**.87**
24.	Pushed, grabbed, or shoved the partner			**.83**			**.89**
22.	Threatened to hit or throw something at the partner.			**.83**			**.79**
23.	Threw or smashed or hit or kicked something.			**.78**			**.74**
28.	Threatened with an object that could hurt			**.76**			**.82**
20.	Insulted or swore at the partner.			**.60**			**.55**
5.	Discussing to end the relationship.			**.59**			**.49**

5.3.2 Convergent and Discriminant Validity

In order to establish the convergent validity of all scales, a correlation analysis was conducted (see Table 17). With regard to RQ attachment, it was expected that the pattern of correlations would be consistent with Bartholomew's (1990) attachment model. Secure attachment was expected to correlate negatively with Fearful attachment, and both were hypothesized to have no significant correlation with either Dismissing or Preoccupied attachment. Furthermore, Dismissing attachment was expected to correlate negatively with Preoccupied attachment. As expected, Secure attachment showed a negative correlation with Fearful attachment, and it did not correlate with either Preoccupied or Dismissing attachment. However, Fearful attachment correlated positively with both Preoccupied and Dismissing attachment, in conflict with the hypothesis that it this correlation would be near zero. Additionally, Preoccupied attachment correlated positively with Dismissing attachment, thought it was expected to correlate negatively.

The ECR-R results showed that the Anxiety of Abandonment scale did not correlate significantly with the Avoidance of Intimacy scale (r = .15, n.s.). This finding replicated previous studies (e.g., Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000), which found that the Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy scales were orthogonal.

With regard to the correlations between the RQ and ECR-R scales, it was expected that ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment would correlate positively with RQ Preoccupied attachment, and that ECR-R Avoidance of Intimacy would correlate positively with RQ Dismissing attachment. Moreover, both the ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy scales were expected to show a negative correlation with RQ Secure attachment. Results confirmed the hypotheses regarding the correlation between ECR-R Avoidance of Intimacy and RQ Dismissing attachment, and ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment with RQ Preoccupied attachment. However, refuting the hypothesis, the ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment scale correlated positively with RQ Dismissing attachment. In addition, the ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment scale did not show a significant correlation with RQ Secure attachment, whereas the Avoidance of Intimacy scale showed a negative correlation with RQ Secure attachment. This contradicted the hypothesis that both ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy should correlate negatively with RQ Secure attachment. Finally, both ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy showed a positive correlation with RQ Fearful attachment, which is consistent with the findings of Tsagarakis, Kafetsios and Stalikas (2007), who found that both the ECR-R

Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy scales correlated positively with RQ Fearful attachment.

Overall, the ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment scale correlated positively with all RQ insecure attachments types, and there were no significant correlations with RQ Secure attachment. The ECR-R Avoidance of Intimacy scale showed positive correlations with RQ Fearful and Dismissing attachment, which was originally a split from Avoidance of Intimacy attachment (Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1990). Preoccupied attachment did not correlate with the ECR-R Avoidance of Intimacy scale, but it did correlate positively with the Anxiety of Abandonment scale.

With respect to the correlation between the RQ and CBS scales, the hypothesis was that RQ Secure attachment would show a negative correlation with the NB scale and a positive correlation with the PB scale. However, the results showed that RQ Secure attachment did not correlate with either Negative or PB.

Additionally, it was hypothesized that insecure attachment would correlate positively with NB (which includes Negative Behaviour and Abuse) and negatively with PB. The findings showed that insecure attachment correlated positively with all NB except for Own-Negative Behaviour, which correlated positively with only the ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment scale. Furthermore, the Own-Abuse CBS did not correlated significantly with Fearful attachment. With regard to the PB scale, none of the insecure attachments showed any significant correlations.

Moreover, it was hypothesized that the Love scale, the IOS and the Sexual Satisfaction scale would correlate positively with RQ Secure attachment and negatively with all three forms of insecure attachment. RQ Secure attachment was found to be positively correlated with the Love and Sexual Satisfaction scales, but not with the IOS scale (see Table 18). The Love scale did not show a significant correlation with RQ insecure attachment styles Preoccupied or Dismissing attachment, nor with the ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment scale, although it correlated negatively with RQ Fearful attachment and the ECR-R Avoidance of Intimacy scale. The IOS showed negative correlations with all insecure attachment scales except for Dismissing attachment, which showed no significant relationship with the IOS. The Sexual Satisfaction scale showed negative correlations with all of the insecure attachment scales except for RQ Preoccupied attachment, and that showed no relation to the Sexual Satisfaction scale.

Table 17
Correlations between all Scales

Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1.Secure attachment (RQ)		-.23*	.01	-.20	-.11	-.45**	.26**	.17	.37**	.02	-.01	.02	-.00	.10	-.09	-.08	.15	.11
2.Fearful attachment (RQ)			.26*	.23*	.24*	.38**	-.24*	-.23*	-.34**	.16	-.02	.02	.22*	-.12	.22*	.08	-.24*	.07
3.Preoccupied attachment (RQ)				.26*	.54**	.15	-.01	-.27**	-.13	.24*	.10	.14	.33**	.08	.31**	-.03	.01	.17
4.Dismissive attachment (RQ)					.21*	.29**	-.14	-.14	-.22*	.25*	.10	.15	.28**	.01	.23*	.02	-.17	-.16
5.Anx attachment (ECR-R)						.15	.03	-.30**	-.22*	.29**	.15	.46**	.50**	.11	.54**	.03	-.06	.10
6.Avo attachment (ECR-R)							-.65**	-.35**	-.63**	.23*	.02	.14	.24*	-.14	.27**	.02	-.13	-.09
7.Love scale								.31**	.65**	-.19	.06	-.20*	-.27**	.18	-.19	-.06	.16	.15
8.Inclusion of Others in Self									.46**	-.05	-.06	-.21*	-.21*	.06	-.27**	-.02	.16	.10
9.Sexual Satisfaction scale										-.15	-.00	-.22*	-.27**	.10	-.31**	-.08	.19	.02
10. Own-Abuse CBS											.10	.46**	.67**	.18	.57**	-.05	.05	.12
11. Own–Positive CBS												.21*	.14	.74**	.26**	.02	.02	-.04
12. Own-Negative CBS													.49**	.25*	.72**	.12	-.03	.18
13. P-Abuse CBS														.10	.74**	-.06	.00	.14
14. P-Positive CBS															.24*	-.03	.05	.06
15. P-Negative CBS																-.04	-.05	.18
16. Marriage Attitude scale																	-.15	.11
17. Mother-in-Law scale																		.42**
18. Father-in-Law scale																		
19. Mean	4.19	1.61	2.24	1.73	2.4	2.04	4.02	5.63	5.14	1.52	3.77	2.52	1.58	3.73	2.53	.36	3.72	3.61
20. SD	1.05	1.14	1.34	1.33	.84	.79	.69	1.74	1.61	.98	1.30	1.11	1.08	1.33	1.33	.32	1.20	1.19

Note: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

There is no theoretical reason to expect a relationship between the attachment scales and the Attitudes towards Family-in-Law or the Attitudes towards Arranged Marriages. Therefore, if the results showed a zero correlation, this would be considered as evidence for discriminant validity. Only the RQ Fearful attachment scale showed a small negative correlation with Attitudes towards the Mother-in-Law. All of the other attachment scales showed no significant correlations with Attitudes towards the Family-in-Law or Attitudes towards Arranged Marriages.

5.3.3 Criterion Validity

In line with our reasoning that life satisfaction is a global outcome variable to which relationship satisfaction is a contributor, there was a significant correlation between RAS and SWLS ($r = .54$). To investigate the criterion validity of all scales in the test battery, the correlations between all of the scales in the test battery with RAS and SWLS were computed (see Table 18).

Table 18
Correlation with Marital and Life Satisfaction Scales

Scale	RAS	SWLS
Secure attachment (RQ)	.29**	.29**
Fearful attachment (RQ)	-.31**	-.08
Preoccupied attachment (RQ)	-.17	.06
Dismissive attachment (RQ)	-.31**	-.10
Anxiety of Abandonment attachment (ECR-R)	-.39**	-.18
Avoidance of Intimacy attachment (ECR-R)	-.59**	-.54**
Love scale	.50**	.53**
IOSS1 Inclusion of Others in the Self	.52**	.21*
Sexual Satisfaction scale	.75**	.49**
Own-Abuse (CBS)	-.30**	-.16
Own-Positive Behaviour (CBS)	-.13	-.08
Own-Negative Behaviour (CBS)	-.45**	-.38**
Partner-Abuse (CBS)	-.35**	-.10
Partner-Positive Behaviour (CBS)	-.05	.10
Partner-Negative Behaviour (CBS)	-.47**	-.20*
Marriage Attitude	-.12	-.22*
Mother-in-Law scale	.25*	.09
Father-in-Law scale	-.02	.02
RAS-satisfaction with marital relationship	1	.54**
SWLS-Satisfaction With Life Scale	.54**	1

Note: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

Almost all of the scales showed significant correlations in the expected direction with at least one of the outcome variables (RAS and/or SWLS). The exceptions were Preoccupied attachment, Own-Positive Behaviour, Partner-Positive Behaviour and Attitudes towards Father-in-Law. These showed no significant relationship with either the RAS or SWLS.

5.4 Discussion

The aim of Study 2 was to create a comprehensive test battery that covers the three groups of variables that predict marital and life satisfaction in the VSA model proposed by Karney and Bradbury (1995). Several steps have been taken to reach this aim. First, specific scales intended to meet the goals of this study were chosen and translated. The translation and back-translation process revealed no major problems in establishing an Arabic version of the original scales on a linguistic level.

The test battery was distributed in King Fahad Medical City, a hospital located in Riyadh, which is funded by the Saudi Arabian ministry of health. All of the patients at the hospital were Saudis, and the fact that the hospital is government-run means that it is open to everyone and could provide opportunity to collect data from a representative sample of the Saudi population. Unfortunately, the sample was biased towards higher-than-average education and income levels. The overall percentages of men and women in the Saudi population in the city of Riyadh who have Bachelors' degrees were 13% (men) and 16% (women). It is unknown how many of the degree-holding individuals are married; if there is a correlation between degree-holding and marriage, it could help explain why so many of the individuals in Study 2 (a married sample) have degrees. In Study 2, 54% of the husbands and 50% of the wives had a Bachelor's degree. With regards to income, according to the Central Department of Statistics and information for the year 2007, the average income for the Saudi individual is 5000 SR monthly, whereas 60% of the husbands and 48% of the wives in Study 2 earned between 5000 and 10000 SR monthly. Compared to the general or average population, Study 2's sample is biased towards higher education and higher levels of income.

The majority of the wives who took part in Study 2 were follow-up patients recruited from the Women Specialist sub-hospital. All participants were approached by the researcher herself. Some difficulties were faced because of Saudi social constraints. This was particularly evident when recruiting the male sample. It is highly unusual and not allowed by social norms for a woman to approach a man who is not her relative. In order to be accepted and taken seriously by the males in the waiting area, the female researcher presented herself

in a professional context. This allowed the social constraints to be cautiously relaxed, and ensured that the approach was not considered inappropriate by the participants. Consequently most of the men agreed to take part in the study.

In this study, marital and life satisfaction were found to correlate strongly ($r = .54$, $p < 0.01$). Relationship satisfaction has been shown to be an important predictor of life satisfaction. Williams (2003) reported that, for men and women equally, an unsatisfactory marriage undermines psychological well-being. Sharlin, Florence and Hammershmidt (2000) found that length of marriage was a positive predictor of life satisfaction. A study investigating the quality of life in adulthood (Coles & McCall, 1979) focused specifically on predictors of life satisfaction. Age and sex did not appear to be related to life satisfaction, but being married was significantly positively related to with greater life satisfaction. Moreover, marital satisfaction has been seen to change over time, and overall life satisfaction goes up with increased marital satisfaction (Heller, Watson, & Ilies, 2006). To determine whether the relationship between life satisfaction and marital satisfaction might occur cross-culturally, we can look to the Saudi Arabian sample in the current study. In Study 2, it was revealed that the Saudi Arabian sample actually showed a higher positive correlation between marital and life satisfaction than is typically found in the West.

The next step was to check the factor structure, reliability and validity of the newly developed scales. Starting with RQ scale, the pattern of correlations did not fully confirm the two orthogonal dimensions underlying the four attachment prototypes proposed by Bartholomew (1990). This result is consistent with the pilot study's results and with the results of previous studies (e.g., Banse, 2004; Schmitt et al., 2004), in which a similar pattern of correlations appeared. The three insecure attachment scales were inter-correlated, skewed towards Fearful attachment, and neither Preoccupied nor Dismissing attachment were orthogonal to Secure attachment. This is inconsistent with Bartholomew's (1990) model, which postulates that Secure attachment is negatively correlated with Fearful attachment. In Study 2, Dismissing attachment correlated negatively with Preoccupied attachment. Finally, Secure and Fearful attachment did not correlate with Dismissing and Preoccupied attachment. The results indicate that the RQ was able to measure the different types of attachment (e.g., secure and insecure), and able to discriminate between different types of insecure attachment, though the insecure attachment types were more inter-correlated than expected based on Bartholomew (1990).

For the ECR-R scale, participants in the study had difficulty using the Likert agreement scale with some of the negatively worded items. These complaints alerted the

researcher to the possibility that the items were classified as negative and positive items and, consequently, as positive and negative factors rather than Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy factors. Despite this confusion, the scale showed two orthogonal scales (Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy). This result supports the original theory by Fraley, Waller and Brennan (2000), and is consistent with previous studies that attempted to translate the scale to other languages, including Greek and Spanish (e.g., Tsagarakis, Kafetsios, & Stalikas, 2007; Alonso-Arbiol, Balluerka, Shaver, & Gillath, 2008). Additionally, RQ attachment showed convergent validity with the ECR-R scale.

The RQ attachment and ECR-R Arabic scales were transposed successfully. Both of them showed the expected psychometric properties. Correlations between the RQ and the ECR-R showed satisfactory convergent validity. Both scales were assessing attachment types, and the reliability for each of these scales was acceptable. In summary, the Arabic version of the RQ and ECR-R are both adequate for use among the Saudi population. Despite this, it is important to check the factor structure of the ECR-R in the main study and also the items' classification, whether the items were classified truly according to Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy items, according to positively and negatively worded items, or even according to the coding of the items. This consideration was taken into account in the main study by rewording some of the negatively worded items to a positive, and hopefully more easily interpreted and answered, format.

The Conflict Behaviour Scale, i.e., the combination of two conflict behaviour scales, The Rusbult Problem Solving (Rusbult et al., 1986) and The Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979), did not establish the same clear five factors as in the two, separate, original scales (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986; Straus, 1979). After evaluating several statistical procedures, a three-factor solution was selected. Prior to deciding to accept and proceed with a three-factor solution, an online survey was conducted to gather responses from more Saudi husbands and wives. The online sample provided a similar pattern of responses and suggested the three-factor solution for the CBS was acceptable. With this additional support, the CBS scale was retained in further studies and the three-factor structure was used.

The three-factor solution was interpretable, theoretically meaningful and consistent across the Own and Partner Conflict Behaviour Scales, with the three factors being labelled as Abuse, NB and PB. Even though these factors are different from those proposed by Rusbult, Johnson and Morrow (1986) and Straus (1979), the three-factor solution was chosen because it provided the same factors and items for both the Own and Partner versions of the scale. This CBS was able to differentiate between different types of conflict

behaviours used by the Saudi sample, and the results of convergent and discriminant validity indicated that the Rational approach was related to marital and life satisfaction. The Own- and Partner-Abuse sub-scales correlated negatively with marital satisfaction, RAS, but did not correlate with life satisfaction, SWLS, whereas the Negative Behaviours scale correlated with both marital and life satisfaction. This finding suggests that some variables are related to marital but not life satisfaction, and vice versa. Surprisingly, the Own- and Partner-Positive Behaviour sub-scales did not correlate with either marital or life satisfaction, or with Secure attachment It could be that this particular PB is not dysfunctional. Individuals with low scores may have few relationship problems and people with higher scores may have more problems but relatively constructive ways of dealing with them. Due to this, individual differences in this variable may be unrelated to Secure attachment or relationship quality. This needs future investigation, and a larger sample will be required before further analysis can be undertaken.

All the remaining scales that assess single constructs showed the expected factor structures. Furthermore, the Love scale, Sexual Satisfaction scale, Attitudes towards Family-in-law, Attitudes towards Arranged Marriages, IOS, RAS and SWLS showed satisfactory reliability.

The present study showed that positive variables (Love, Sexual Satisfaction, IOS) correlated with both marital and life satisfaction. Variables such as love, sexual satisfaction, and feeling close to one's partner are not direct measures of relationship or marital satisfaction, but do appear to be predictors of how a relationship progresses and how satisfying the partners feel the relationship is. In the main study presented here, these positive variables were found to predict marital satisfaction. In addition, NB was found to have an inverse relationship with both marital and life satisfaction.

Overall, the scales in the test battery correlated with either or both of the martial and life satisfaction scales (RAS, SWLS) in the expected direction. The inter-correlations were relatively low to moderate, but all were related to the criteria (i.e., marital and life satisfaction). These results suggest a broad range of distinct scales or functions of marital and life satisfaction. Some scales correlated to marital but not life satisfaction, which means that this scale assesses a construct that may have a role in relationship satisfaction but not in life satisfaction. For example, having a Fearful attachment style has a negative influence on marital satisfaction but does not correlate with or appear to affect life satisfaction. It could be that unhappy partners cope with their dissatisfaction with their relationship by lowering its

importance. The overall results indicated that the establishing of the test battery was successful.

CHAPTER 6

MAIN STUDY: INVESTIGATING PREDICTORS OF MARITAL SATISFACTION

6.1 Aim of the Main Study

The aim of this study is to investigate marital satisfaction in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia, exploring whether the predictors to marital satisfaction that were found in the West are also predictors of marital satisfaction in Saudi Arabia. To our knowledge, this kind of study has never been conducted among couples in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia. This research is important because it will broaden the scope of scientific knowledge regarding marital relationships and satisfaction by drawing on a culture that it is different from Western culture and in which marriage is very different from that in the Western world. A broad goal of the current research was to determine whether marital satisfaction has the same predictors across different cultures (e.g., collective versus individualistic) and in different types of marriages (e.g., choice versus arranged). To provide a theoretically based structure to this research, I adopted the VSA model from Karney and Bradbury (1995). This model, as was described in detail in Chapter 2.4, organizes variables that affect marital satisfaction into three groups.

In following this model, I sought to assess variables that fall into these three groups. For the group, called Enduring Vulnerability, the RQ, ECR-R, IOS, Love, and Sexual Satisfaction scales were included; these scales were tested in the Saudi population in Studies 1 and 2, as reported in Chapters 4 and 5. The Big Five Inventory (BFI) of personality as also included in this set of questionnaires for the current study, because previous research has shown that areas of personality, particularly Neuroticism, negatively correlated with marital satisfaction. According to a previous study, individuals who are highly neurotic have more difficulty adapting to marital difficulties, but individuals who score high on Openness have an easier time adapting to marital difficulties, which is reflected in higher marital quality (Barelds, 2005). Personality characteristics, such as Neuroticism (Kurdek, 1993), temperament (Caspi, 1987) and attitudes (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978) are important predictors of marital quality in the Western cultures in which they have been studied.

Whether these personality characteristics are also predictive of marital satisfaction in Saudi Arabia will be tested.

To attempt to clarify the structure of the ECR-R, used in Studies 1 and 2 and again in the current study, I will investigate whether the items were divided into positively and negatively worded item groups (i.e., not reverse-coded and reverse coded) or into anxiety- and avoidance-related item groups. To better address the issue of positive and negative wording, some of the negatively worded items (i.e., those including "not") and some of the positively worded items were rephrased so that the anxiety-related and avoidance-related item sets contained approximately equal proportions of positively and negatively worded items. The details of these reformulations are provided below.

The second group, Stressful Events in accordance with the VSA model, included the scale of Attitude towards Family-in-Law retained from Study 2, and also the Stressful Events scale and Arguments scale. The Stressful Events scale includes of items describing events that are not specifically related to the marital relationship between couples, but are life events that could negatively affect marital satisfaction. Some stressful life events that can occur outside of the couple's relationship include physical illness and being distressed. Unhappy and distressed couples have been observed to be at greater risk of poor mental and physical health than their happily married counterparts (Burman & Margolin, 1992; Gove, Hughes, & Style, 1983). Another stressful life event, having and raising children, has received wide research attention. Changes in couples' marital relationships may be related to the onset of child rearing (Lindahl, Clements, & Markman, 1998). Several studies have linked raising children and the transition to parenthood with low marital satisfaction (e.g., Belsky, Lang, & Rovine, 1985; Bodenmann et al., 2006; Renne, 1970; Sharlin et al., 2000). Consequently, a negative correlation is expected between the Stressful Events scale and the relationship satisfaction, as measured with the RAS, and between Attitude towards Family-in-Law and relationship satisfaction.

Moreover, the frequency and length of arguments, including verbal, psychological and physical aggression during arguments, and withdrawal during arguments, has been shown to be associated with lower levels of marital satisfaction (Lawrence et al., 2008). Bodenmann and colleagues (2007) suggested that communication, problem solving and coping were more likely than stress to be perceived as reasons for divorce. Zawawi (2007) stated that 43% of divorces in Saudi Arabia were due to violence and constant arguments, with one partner dominating the other. Apparently, arguing has been shown to be an influential factor leading to lower marital satisfaction. How are power and decision making

shared in marital relationships in Saudi Arabia, a county dominated by male power, where marriage might also seen as dominated by men? And, how is this reflected in marital satisfaction? In this study, a negative correlation between the variables in the Stressful Events group and overall marital satisfaction was expected. The third group of predictors in the VSA model is Adaptive Processes, which consists of, in addition to the CBS retained from Study 2, the Power scale and Decision Making scale. These two scales were used to investigate how power and decision making is shared between members of couples and how this division affects marital satisfaction. Studies have shown that asymmetrical power and decision making is associated with lower marital satisfaction. According to Gray-Little and Burks (1983) and Huston (1983), couples who share power, generally, are more satisfied than couples whose power balance is asymmetrical. Kulik (1999) showed that traditional men were more likely than modern men to perceive themselves as having a power advantage and greater economic resources over their wives. This is because economic and social resources are among the traditional factors that define a man's status in society, and are thus likely to influence marital power as well. The results of Lawrence et al. (2008) showed that interactional skills, such as equal sharing in decision making across a variety of areas and the ability to negotiate control across a variety of areas at the time of marriage, uniquely predicted initial marital satisfaction, and that higher levels of dyadic functioning were associated with higher levels of initial marital satisfaction.

The main aim of this study is to identify the predictors of marital satisfaction amongst arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia. It is hypothesized that predictors of marital satisfaction in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia will be similar to those found in Western studies of marital satisfaction. In order to ascertain the predictors of marital satisfaction among Saudi Arabian arranged marriages, a battery of scales were translated and modified to be culturally appropriate (as described in Studies 1 and 2). It was also hypothesised that marital satisfaction increases with the duration of marriage among arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia. The final hypothesis was that love increases with the duration of marriage among the arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia.

6.2 Method

6.2.1 Participants

A Total of 316 married participants (185 wives, 131 husbands) were recruited. The researcher approached each female patient waiting at the outpatients' clinic and males

waiting at the waiting area for women they had accompanied to the clinic at King Fahad Medical City, in addition to some employees who agreed to participate in the study. All participants were Saudi citizens, and their ages ranged from 19 to 55 years (M = 34.35 years, SD = 6.48 for husbands; M = 29.18 years, SD = 6.28 for wives). The distribution of years of marriage are presented in Figure 20, showing that a large proportion of the husbands and wives were within their first ten years of marriage (M = 8.05 years, SD = 6.92 for husbands; M = 7.01 years, SD = 6.35 for wives). In this sample, 9.2% of husbands and 7.1% of wives had been previously married and were divorced. The corresponding percentages in the general population of Riyadh are 1.83% for husbands and 4.3% for wives (Ministry of Economy and Planning: General Department of Statistic and Information, 2007, 2008). In conclusion, the sample can be seen as relatively representative to the Riyadh population with regard to frequency of divorce. A total of 95.1% of the wives indicated they were their husbands' first wife. Similarly, 97.7% of husbands indicated they had had only one wife (i.e., had not been married before). In the current study, husbands who had been married once formed 90.1% of the sample and those married twice formed 9.9%, whereas wives who had been married once formed 92% of the sample and those married twice were 3.8% of the sample, married three times .5%, and four times .5%. In comparison to the population of all of Saudi Arabia (Table 19), the results show that the proportion of those having second and third marriages in the sample is comparable to the proportion in the general population.

Table 19

Saudi Arabian Percentages for Number of Marriages

Marriage	Once	Two times	Three times
Husbands	82.85	3.47	3.91
Wives	95.82	3.65	.53

Just over forty-three percent (43.1%) of the sample had between one and two children. A Bachelor's degree was held by 50.4% of the husbands and 62.2% of the wives. With more than half of the husbands and the wives having Bachelor's degrees, the sample had a strong bias towards higher education as compared to the general population in Riyadh (see Table 20).

Table 20

Percentage of Husbands and Wives in Riyadh Who Attained Various Levels of Education

Education	Primary	Secondary	Undergraduate	Postgraduate
Husbands	19.22	24.48	20.40	1.8
Wives	15.92	26.69	21.45	.46

Individual income levels indicated that 51.1% of the husbands and 50.8% of the wives earned between 5000-10000 SR per month (£650-£1300). This again showed a bias of the sample towards the average upper-middle class. The vast majority of the participants were married through arranged marriages (93.1% of the husbands, 93% of the wives) and 74.1% of the sample lived by themselves, not with either spouse's family. Regarding the status or reputation level of participants and their spouses, there seems to be no sex difference in the frequency of marrying a partner of higher or lower family status/reputation (Table 21). This indicates that the vast majority of the husbands and wives were from families with similar levels of status or reputations.

Table 21

The Sample Reputation Ratings by Percentage

	My family's reputation is much higher than my spouse's family reputation	My family's reputation is a little higher than my spouse's family reputation	My family's reputation is equal to my spouse's family reputation	My family's reputation is slightly lower than my spouse's family reputation	My family's reputation is much lower than my spouse's family reputation
Husbands	.8	13.7	77.1	4.6	1.5
Wives	14.6	20.0	56.8	6.5	1.1

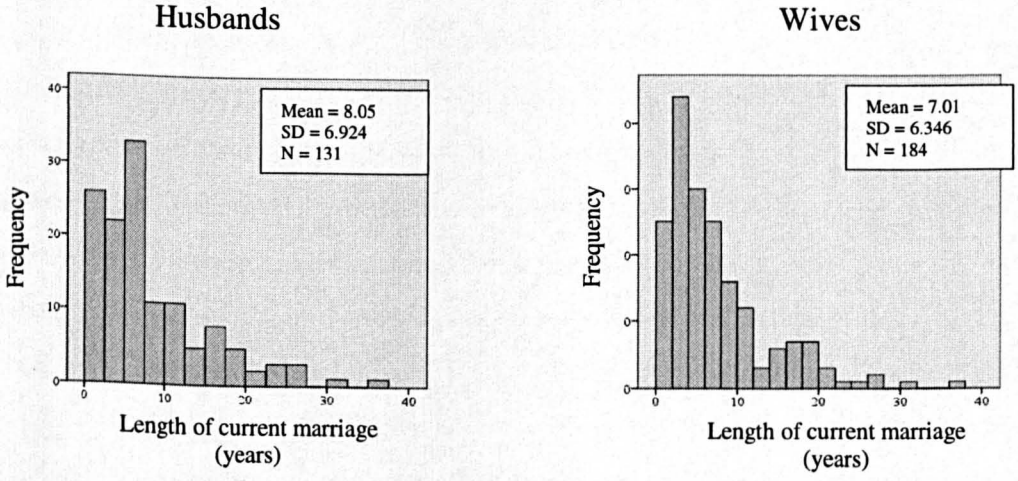


Figure 20. Length of current marriage for husbands and wives

6.2.2 Measures

The Relationship Questionnaire (RQ), Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS) and Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) were introduced in Study 1 (see Chapter 4), and Inclusion of Others in the Self (IOS) scale, Conflict Behaviour Scale (CBS), Love scale and Sexual Satisfaction scale in Study 2 (see Chapter 5).

The Experience in Close Relationship-Revised (ECR-R) scale. The Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy items were presented in alternating order; Anxiety of Abandonment items were followed by Avoidance of Intimacy items. Nine items were modified to create an approximately equal number of negatively and positively worded items to attempt to assess Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy. The reworded items were numbers 5, 17, 21, 23, 29 and 33 from the Anxiety of Abandonment items, and 18, 26 and 32 from the Avoidance of Intimacy items. Items 23, 26 and 32 were changed from a positive to a negative formulation and the remaining items were changed from a negative to a positive formulation and reverse-coded. In the final, modified form of the ECR-R, 8 of 18 Anxiety of Abandonment were reverse-coded, and 9 of 18 Avoidance of Intimacy items were reverse-coded.

Attitude towards Family-in-Law. Only items that assessed relationships with mothers-in-law and fathers-in-law were retained in this questionnaire; items assessing relationships with other in-laws were omitted due to low response rates in Study 2.

Power scale. This scale consists of six items. Five items were chosen from the Power scale (Ramu, 1988) and one item was created specifically for this study. The scale by Ramu (1988) concerns intra-spousal authoritative attitudes or behaviour, as represented by perceptions and dominant behaviour of the spouses. It consists of 10 topics that are commonly disagreed upon among couples, and concerns power and control between the spouses. Out of these 10 topics, five items were chosen because they were expected to be common in Saudi Arabian culture. This scale was introduced by saying, "In a married couple, each partner exerts some influence over the other. At times, your partner may object or forbid you to behave in ways that he/she might consider inappropriate." One example in this list is "Have friends that your partner dislikes". The answer format was a 5-point Likert frequency scale, ranging from 1 ("Never been forbidden") to 5 ("Often forbidden").

Decision Making scale. The Decision Making scale (Ramu, 1988) assesses another facet of power-related behaviour. Religious teaching, cultural norms and the man's position in relation to the woman may each lead to topics of conflict in which each spouse's power in the relationship becomes pertinent. There are, of course, multiple topics over which couples are likely to argue. Ramu's (1988) work presents three specific topic areas, financial, social and family matters, each with various sub-topics. For the current study, eight items were formulated to correspond with each of the topic areas and subtopics presented by Ramu (1988). One example items is argument about "Number of children to have". The scale was presented in terms of how much of a role each spouse participates in the decision pertinent to each item. . The answer format was a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Always myself"), to 3 ("Both equally") to 5 ("Always my partner"). In later analysis of the data, a new variable that quantified the joint or shared aspect of decision making was created. The new variable was labelled "Equality of Decision Making".

Stressful Events scale. The Stressful Events scale (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) consists of 43 events derived from clinical experience from which 10 items were chosen for the current study. These 10 items were events related to personal injuries, problems concerning job, children, financial matters, problems with in-laws and problems related to living conditions. The other events were disregarded because they had been mentioned in other scales in this study. For example, problems between spouses were referred to in the Argument scale, and problems related to relationships with friends were mentioned in the Power scale. Since these critical life events may induce different levels of stress, each item was paired with a stress scale. If the participant had experienced any of these life events within the last twelve months, he or she was asked to circle the resulting level of stress. The answer format was a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 ("Not stressful at all") to 5 ("Very stressful").

Arguments scale. This scale was inspired by the problems list commonly used in marital interaction research (e.g., Hahlweg, Schindler, & Revenstorf, 1990). Of the list, spouses indicate how often they argue about each topic and in which topic area they wish to improve their relationship. For example, one question is "How often do you argue about education?" Out of the 17 topics included in the original scale, nine topics were chosen to be included in this study. In addition, one topic that might be important in Saudi culture "arguments about religion and its practices," was added to the list. The selected items were

expected to be common topics of argument among Saudi couples, and other topics were disregarded because they were mentioned in other scales. For example, "ways of talking to each other" was mentioned in CBS. The complete, revised scale consisted of 10 items preceded by the following introduction: "Every couple has arguments or disputes related to subjects such as job, children, friends, habits, etc. In the statements given below, please indicate how often a disagreement arises between you and your partner." The answer format was a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1("Never") to 5 ("Often").

The Big Five Inventory. The BFI (Benet-Martinez & John, 1998) consists of 44 items assessing the personality traits Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism and Openness. The shortened version of this scale, consisting of 21 items, that was used in this study was adapted from Rammstedt and John (2005). Only 20 of the items were included and thus translated. The excluded item related to artistic skills, which are restricted and not common in Saudi Arabia. For example, acting or playing music are not generally practiced in Saudi Arabia, particularly by women. The answer format was a 5-point Likert agreement scale.

6.2.3 Procedure

The first two pages of the questionnaire packet completed by participants included consent and demographic information. For this study, additional items were added to the demographic information section, including the number of male and female children in the family, partner's education level and current job, whether the spouses were living alone or with the family of one spouse, and, finally, whether the status of the spouse's family matched the status of the participant's family. The definition of status, or social reputation, that was adopted for this study is from Comer (1978), who stated that a family's or an individual's social class determines degrees or ease of access to resources and rewards, which, in turn, turns shapes a lifestyles and experience.

The process of recruiting participants and distributing the questionnaires was the same as in Study 2 (see Chapter 5)

6.3 Results

6.3.1 Scale Construction

In the following section, each new scale's factor structure and reliability will be reported separately, in addition to reports on the ECR-R. The ECR-R did not show two clear factors in Study 1 and 2, therefore the questionnaire was slightly modified (as discussed above) and data collected using the newly modified form are examined. For scales that were developed in Studies 1 and/or 2, only the reliability and item-total correlations are presented.

The Experience in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) scale. In the newly revised ECR-R, the Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy items were presented in alternating order. The PCA revealed two underlying factors (see Table 22), but they consisted again of items that were positively worded on one factor and items that were and negatively worded on the other.

Table 22

Factor Loadings for Items on the ECR-R Scale

	Item	Factor	
		Negative	Positive
Anx 8r.	I am very comfortable being close to my partner.	**.78**	.15
Avo 22r.	It helps to turn to my partner in times of need.	**.77**	.16
Avo 36r.	My partner really understands me and my needs.	**.76**	.22
Avo 4r.	I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner.	**.73**	.01
Anx 21r.	My partner cares about me as much as I care about him.	**.72**	.22
Anx 29r.	My partner wants the same level of closeness as I.	**.69**	.15
Anx 33r.	I get the affection and support I need from my partner.	**.69**	.27
Avo 24r.	I tell my partner just about everything.	**.67**	.08
Anx 17r.	I measure up to my partner's expectation.	**.64**	.23
Avo 30r.	I feel comfortable depending on my partner.	**.64**	.17
Avo 16r.	I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner.	**.62**	.20
Avo 34r.	It's easy for me to be affectionate with my partner.	**.58**	.02
Anx 5r.	My partner's feelings for me are as strong as my feelings for him.	**.55**	.29
Avo 20r.	I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner.	**.51**	.04
Avo 14.	I get uncomfortable when my partner wants to be very close.	**.42**	.32
Anx 23r.	I don't worry a lot about my relationship.	**.38**	.29
Avo 6.	I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my partner.	**.35**	.30
Anx 9r.	I rarely worry about my partner leaving me.	.16	.01
Anx 3.	I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me.	.03	**.69**
Anx 19.	I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me.	.11	**.69**
Anx 27.	My partner makes me doubt myself.	.23	**.66**
Anx 13.	Sometimes my partner changes his feelings about me for no apparent reason.	.03	**.65**
Anx 7.	When my partner is out of sight, I worry that he might become interested in someone else.	-.07	**.65**
Anx 25.	When I show my feelings for my partner, I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me.	.09	**.60**
Avo 2.	I prefer not to show my partner how I feel deep down.	.29	**.52**
Avo 28.	I am nervous when partner get too close to me.	.18	**.50**
Avo 18.	It's difficult for me to get close to my partner	.45	**.49**
Anx 15.	I'm afraid that once my partner gets to know me, he won't like who I really am.	.23	**.49**
Anx 1.	I'm afraid that I will lose my partner's love.	-.31	**.49**
Avo 32.	I find it difficult to depend on my partner.	.38	**.47**
Anx 35.	My partner only seems to notice me when I'm angry.	.26	**.45**
Anx 31.	My desire to be very close sometimes scares my partner away.	.25	**.44**
Avo 12.	I prefer not to be too close to my partner.	.19	**.37**
Avo 26.	I rarely talk things over with my partner.	.32	**.35**
Avo 10.	I don't feel comfortable opening up to my partner.	.29	**.35**
Anx 11r.	I do not often worry about being abandoned.	.00	.03

Note. Reverse-scored items are indicated by "r" following the item number.
"Anx" and "Avo" are abbreviation of Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy, respectively, and are used to specify which factor on the original ECR the item on that line is associated with.
For ease of reading, a black line indicates the separation between items loadings more strongly on factor 1 (Negative) and items loading more strongly on factor 2 (Positive).
Loadings of items included in reliability calculations are printed in boldface.

Several attempts were made to determine whether two separate, clear factors of grouping items associated with Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy could underlay the data. One factor analysis was conducted using positively keyed Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy items, and the other using negatively keyed Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy items. The results clearly showed two factors related to the wording of the items and did not differentiate between the Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy items (see Table 23).

Table 23

Factor Loadings of Positively Worded Items on the ECR-R Scale

Original Factor		Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
Avoidance of Intimacy	26.	I rarely talk things over with my partner.	**.63**	-.01
	32.	I find it difficult to depend on my partner.	**.62**	.07
	28.	I am nervous when partner get too close to me.	**.55**	.23
	14.	I get uncomfortable when my partner wants to be very close.	**.52**	.21
	10.	I don't feel comfortable opening up to my partner.	**.52**	.06
	6.	I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my partner.	**.51**	.11
	18.	It's difficult for me to get close to my partner.	**.47**	.37
	12.	I prefer not to be too close to my partner.	**.47**	.19
	2.	I prefer not to show my partner how I feel deep down.	**.42**	.39
Anxiety of Abandonment	27.	My partner makes me doubt myself.	**.58**	.37
	25.	When I show my feelings for my partner, I'm afraid they will not feel the same about me.	**.55**	.25
	31.	My desire to be very close sometimes scares my partner away.	**.54**	.07
	35.	My partner only seems to notice me when I'm angry.	**.53**	.08
	15.	I'm afraid that once my partner gets to know me, he won't like who I really am.	**.49**	.32
	1.	I'm afraid that I will lose my partner's love.	-.20	**.71**
	3.	I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me.	.21	**.75**
	13.	Sometimes my partner changes his feelings about me for no apparent reason.	.21	**.67**
	7.	When my partner is out of sight, I worry that he might become interested in someone else.	.18	**.65**
	19.	I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me.	.30	**.64**

Note. None of the items in this table were reverse-scored.
For ease of reading, a single horizontal line indicates the separation between items loadings more strongly on factor 1 and items loading more strongly on factor 2.
A double horizontal line separates the items that load on the Anxiety of Abandonment and the Avoidance of Intimacy components of the original ECR.
Loadings of items included in reliability calculations are printed in boldface.

Further analyses were conducted to differentiate between positively and negatively worded (or keyed) items of Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy, respectively. A correlation analysis was run between positively and negatively worded

Anxiety of Abandonment items with positive and negative Avoidance of Intimacy items. The results showed significant correlations between all four pairs of item groups (Table 24). The correlation between the positively worded items expected to be associated with Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy was strong (r = .62), and the correlation between negatively worded Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy items was even stronger (r = .70).

Table 24
The Correlation between Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy

Item	1	2	3	4
Positively Worded				
1. Anxiety of Abandonment	1	.62***	.36***	.27***
2. Avoidance of Intimacy		1	.39***	.51***
Negatively Worded				
3. Anxiety of Abandonment			1	.70***
4. Avoidance of Intimacy				1

Note. *** = $p < .001$.

Finally, the convergent and discriminant validity between the results of the ECR-R and the RQ, the measure of attachment style, were assessed. Correlations were calculated between positively worded and negatively worded Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy items from the ECR-R with RQ. The results showed correlations between all four groups of ECR-R items with all RQ Attachment styles (see Table 25).

Table 25
The Correlation between Four Groups of Items from the ECR-R with the Attachment Style Scores from the RQ

Items	Secure	Fearful	Preoccupied	Dismissing
Positively Worded				
Anxiety of Abandonment	-.19**	.41***	**.40*** **	.34***
Avoidance of Intimacy	-.26***	.47***	**.39*** **	.46***
Negatively Worded				
Anxiety of Abandonment	-.40***	.35***	**.32*** **	.29***
Avoidance of Intimacy	-.45***	.41***	**.29*** **	.40***

Note. ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$.

The correlation between Preoccupied attachment style assessed on the RQ and positively worded Anxiety of Abandonment items is r = .40, and between Preoccupied attachment style assessed on the RQ and positively worded Avoidance of Intimacy items was

r = .39. This contradicted the expectation that there would be a higher correlation between Preoccupied attachment and Anxiety of Abandonment than between Preoccupied attachment and Avoidance of Intimacy. Due to the lack of discriminant validity and the unclear, difficult to interpret factor structure, the ECR-R scale was dropped from further analysis.

For the *RAS,* the item-total correlations ranged from .40 to .80 and the associated reliability was α = .90. For the SWLS, the item-total correlations ranged from .58 to .69, with the associated reliability results of α = .84. The Love scale had item-total correlations ranging from .31 to .76 and a reliability of α = .87. The Sexual Satisfaction scale had item-total correlations ranging from .69 to .80 and a reliability of α = .87. Finally, regarding the Attitude towards Family-in-Law questionnaire, the item-total correlations ranged from .50 to .73 for the Mother-in-Law scale and from .53 to .69 for the Father-in-Law scale. The reliability results of the Mother- and Father-in-Law scales were α = .78, α = .77, respectively.

Attitude towards Family-in-Law. There was an error misleading the participants' answers, caused by accidental double labelling of the numbers that were in the answer key for the Attitude towards Family-in-Law scales. The possible answers (numbers) were presented with descriptive labels appearing both above and to the side of the numbers so that it was ambiguous which label was correct. Because many of the participants asked questions about this aspect of the questionnaire and how they should respond to the items, it is believed that the participants were confused by the error. The participants also expressed their confusion by choosing to write their responses in by hand instead of circling the appropriate number in the answer key for each item. The error in the questionnaire was called to the researcher's attention because an unexpected, negative correlation was found between having a good relationship with one's mother- and father-in-law and RAS. To compensate for this issue, participants who wrote explanations instead of circling their answer on the scale were removed, and the correlation was re-run. However, negative correlations with RAS were obtained again. Because of problems participants had with interpretation and application of answer key for this questionnaire, and because it cannot be determined whether participants who did circle their answer on the answer key (instead of writing the answers in by hand) applied the scale correctly, the scale was removed from further analysis.

The Conflict Behaviour Scale (CBS). The CBS was expected to have an underlying three-factor structure, as had been revealed in Study 2's use of the scale. The expected

factors were Abuse, Positive Behaviour and Negative Behaviour for both the Own and Partner versions of the scale. In support of these expectations, the scree plot of both the Own and the Partner version showed a bend between the three-factor and four-factor solution eigenvalues, suggesting a three-factor solution to be the best fit (see Figure 21).

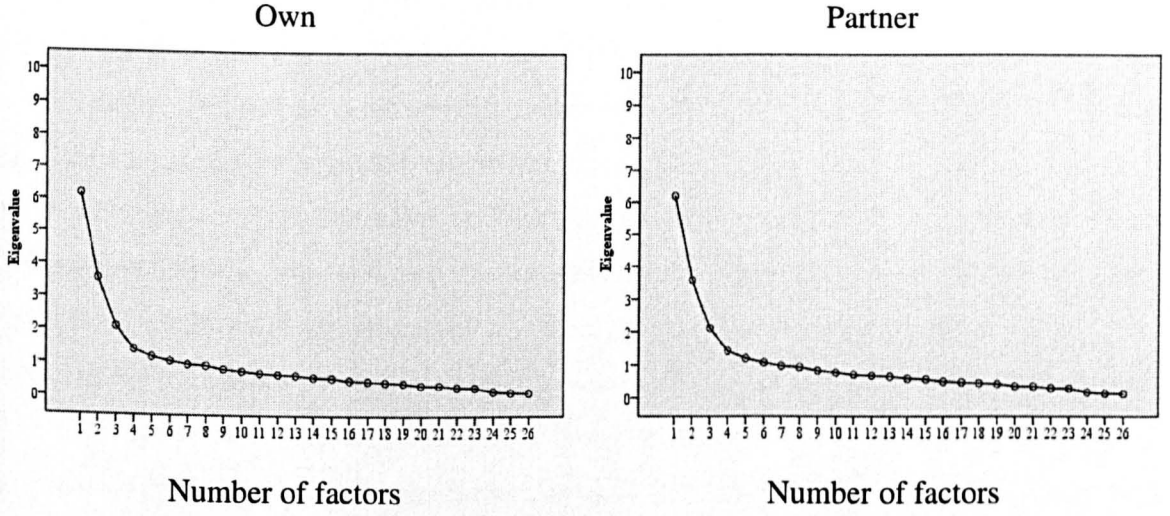


Figure 21. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Conflict Behaviour Scale for the Own and Partner version

For the Own version of the CBS, the three factor solution accounted for 50.12% of the variance in the data. The item loadings for the first factor, which was labelled (PB), ranged from .35 to .75. However, item numbers 2 and 6 loaded similarly, or showed double loadings, on both PB and the second factor in the solution, Negative Conflict Behaviour (NB). To facilitate versions of the Own and Partner scales with items distributed in the same way on both scales, items 2 and 6 were included under PB instead of NB (see Table 26). As a result, the PB factor consisted of five Loyalty behaviour items and five Voice behaviour items (which were originally drawn from Rusbult, Johnson and Morrow's [1986] Rusbult Problem Solving Scale, as discussed in Chapter 5).

The NB factor consisted of eight items, four items from the Exit behaviour group and four items from the Neglect behaviour group (also originally drawn from the Rusbult Problem Solving Scale; Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986). The item loadings ranged from .45 to .72. The final factor, labelled Abuse, consisted of eight items that all assessed abusive behaviour and were all originally drawn from the Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979). The item loadings ranged from .63 to .89.

A reliability analysis was executed determine the new scale's internal consistency with this new sample. Items 18 and 21 were dropped because of their low total-item correlation. The PB factor, with ten items total, had a reliability of $\alpha = .77$ and total-item correlations ranging from .37 to .55. The NB factor, with eight items, had a reliability of $\alpha = .80$, and item-total correlations ranging from .46 to .59. Last, the Abuse factor consisted of eight items, had a reliability of $\alpha = .90$ and had item-total correlations ranging from .55 to .81.

With regard to the Partner version of CBS, PCA and a scree plot of the eigenvalues associated with each factor solution suggested a three-factor solution (see Figure 22), as was also identified in Study 2. These three factors explained 45.64% of the variance. The item loadings for the first factor, PB, ranged from .51 to .69 (see Table 26); item loading for the second factor, NB, ranged from .47 to .71; and item loadings for the final factor, Abuse, ranged from .56 to .90.

The reliability analysis was performed after dropping items 18 and 21 from the Partner version so that the scale would be comparable to the Own version. The PB factor of the Partner version of the CBS, with ten items total, had a reliability of $\alpha = .77$ and total-item correlations ranging from .27 to .51. The NB factor, with eight items, had a reliability of $\alpha = .79$, and item-total correlations ranging from .42 to .66. Last, the Abuse factor consisted of eight items, had a reliability of $\alpha = .89$ and had item-total correlations ranging from .54 to .79. Taken together, the results of Study 2 and the current study have shown the same three-factor solution for CBS for both the Own and the Partner versions.

Table 26

Factor Loading for Items on the Own and Partner version of the CBS

	Item	CBS - Own			CBS - Partner		
		Factor			Factor		
		Positive	Negative	Abuse	Positive	Negative	Abuse
19.	Giving partner, the benefit of the doubt and forgetting about it	**.75**			**.69**		
10.	Suggesting a compromise solution.	**.63**			**.64**		
12.	Giving things some time to cool off on their own rather than taking any action.	**.62**			**.64**		
8.	Saying nothing and simply forgiving the partner.	**.62**			**.61**		
4.	Patiently waiting for things to improve.	**.62**			**.58**		
16.	Accepting partner's faults and weakness and not trying to change the partner.	**.51**			**.55**		
17.	Telling the partner what's bothering.	**.49**			**.55**		
14.	Consider getting advice from someone else (friends, parents, counsellor).	**.38**			**.34**		
2.	Talking about what's upsetting.	**.37**	.49		**.53**	.31	
6.	Suggesting changing things in the relationship in order to solve the problem.	**.35**	.54		**.51**	.25	
13.	Talk to the partner about breaking up.		**.72**			**.62**	
5.	Discussing to end the relationship.		**.71**			**.63**	
1.	Thinking about ending the relationship.		**.70**			**.71**	
11.	Ignoring the partner for a while.		**.65**			**.50**	
7.	Criticizing the partner for things that are unrelated to the real problem.		**.59**			**.67**	
3.	Sulking rather than confronting the issue.		**.59**			**.66**	
15.	Spending less time with the partner (e.g., I spend more time with friends, watch a lot of television, work longer hours, etc.)		**.51**			**.47**	
9.	To do things to drive the partner away.		**.45**			**.59**	
27.	Beat up the partner.			**.89**			**.83**
26.	Hit or tried to hit with something.			**.88**			**.86**
22.	Threatened to hit or throw something at the partner.			**.86**			**.73**
24.	Pushed, grabbed, or shoved the partner.			**.84**			**.81**
25.	Slapped the partner.			**.80**			**.90**
23.	Threw or smashed or hit or kicked something.			**.79**			**.62**
28.	Threatened with an object that could hurt.			**.65**			**.66**
20.	Insulted or swore at the partner.			**.63**			**.56**

The Power scale. This six-item scale had a reliability of α = .75 and item-total correlations varying from .46 to .52. A PCA was performed, and the scree plot showed a bend between the one- and two-factor solution eigenvalues, suggesting a one-factor solution (see Figure 22). The factor explained 45.40% of the variance. The factor loading of the six items on the Power scale ranged from .62 to .71 (see Table 27).

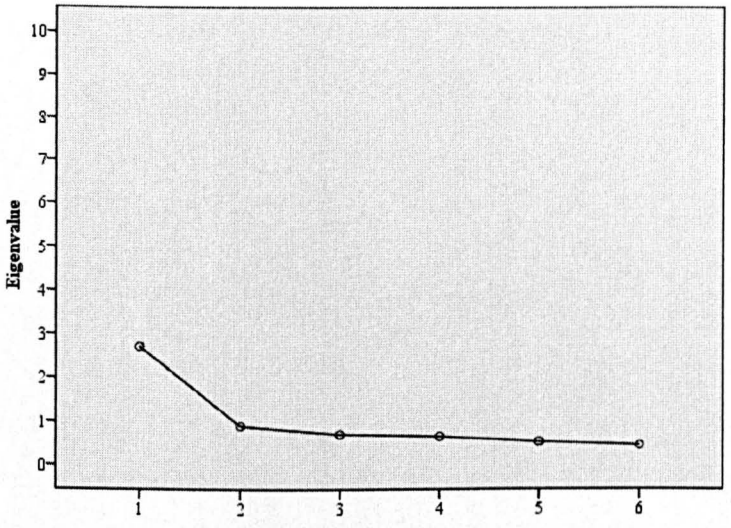


Figure 22. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Power scale

Table 27
Factor Loading of Items on the Power Scale

Item	Factor 1
5. To wear modern clothes.	.71
2. Going out alone for late night shopping, parties etc.	.69
4. Sending monthly allowance to parents/relatives.	.69
1. Have friends that your partner dislikes.	.68
6. To have a career without your partner's permission	.65
3. Smoking/Playing cards.	.62

Decision Making Scale. A PCA was performed, and a scree plot of the associated eigenvalues was plotted (see Figure 23). The scree plot showed a break between the one-factor and two-factor solutions, suggesting the one-factor solution to be the best fit to the data. The factor accounted for 39.86% of the variance shown in the data. The item loadings ranged from .47 to 77 (see Table 28). The reliability of this scale was α = .72 for the whole

scale, but item 8 had a low item-total correlation of r =.13. When item 8 was deleted, the overall reliability increased to α = .74, and the item-total correlations of the remaining seven items ranged from .30 to .57.

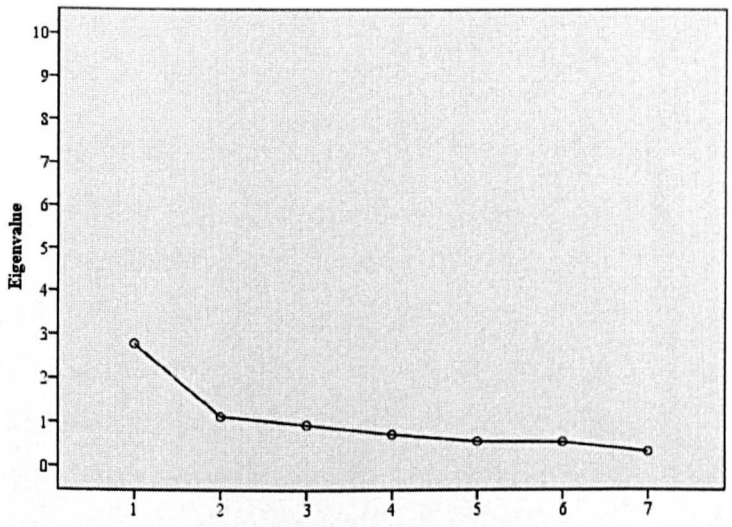


Figure 23. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Decision Making Scale

Table 28
Factor Loading of Items on the Decision Making Scale

Item	Factor 1
3. Having an individual savings account.	.77
4. Household budgeting from the family income.	.77
2. Buying an expensive home appliance (e.g., fridge).	.70
5. Kind of leisure activity (e.g., holidays, picnics) for the couple.	.67
6. Accepting or rejecting a family invitation to parties.	.48
1. Buying everyday groceries.	.47
7. People I can be friends with.	.47

A new variable, called Equality in Decision Making, was created. This variable was used as a measure of joint decision-making process shared by spouses. In order to create the variable, the participants' answers to the Decision Making scale were recoded so that the score indicating joint decision making (3), was the highest score. That is, the scores were recoded so that 1=1, 2=2, 3=3, 4=2 and 5=1.

After the participants answers were rescored, a PCA was conducted on the newly recoded data and the associated scree plot (see Figure 24) was examined. The scree plot suggested a one-factor solution. For this one factor, item loadings ranged from .39 to .76. The reliability was $\alpha = .67$ and item-total correlation ranged from .23 to .54 (see Table 29).

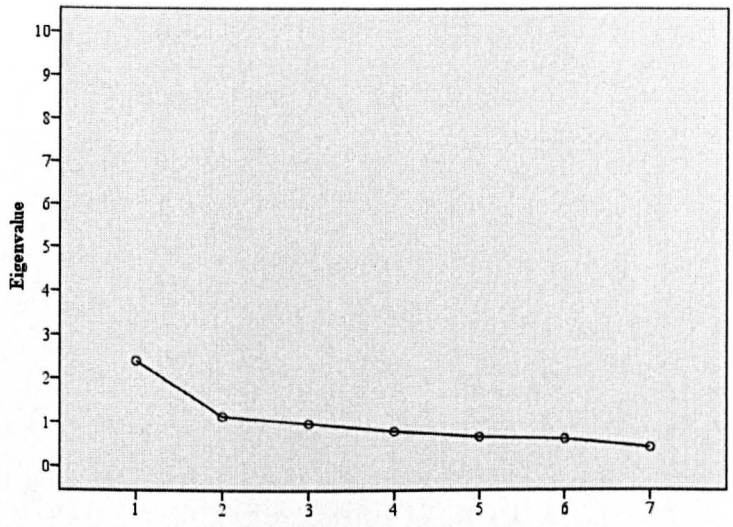


Figure 24. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Equality in decision making scale

Table 29
Factor Loading of Items on the Equality in Decision Making Scale

	Item	Factor 1
4r.	Household budgeting from the family income.	.76
3r.	Having an individual savings account.	.73
2r.	Buying an expensive home appliance (e.g., fridge).	.60
1r.	Buying everyday groceries.	.58
5r.	Kind of leisure activity (e.g., holidays, picnics) for the couple	.55
7r.	People I can be friends with.	.39
6r.	Accepting or rejecting a family invitation to parties.	.39

The Stressful Events scale. A PCA of the data collected on the Stressful Events scale was conducted and the resultant eigenvalues were examined on a scree plot, which suggested a one-factor solution to underlie the data (see Figure 25). The single factor accounted for 30.83% of the variance seen in the data. The item loadings with respect to the factor ranged from .43 to .67 (see Table 30). The Stressful Events scale showed a reliability of $\alpha = .75$ with item-total correlations ranging from .32 to .52. The associated scale on which

participants rated how stressful each stressful event felt had a reliability of α = .72 and item-total correlations ranging from .30 to .47.

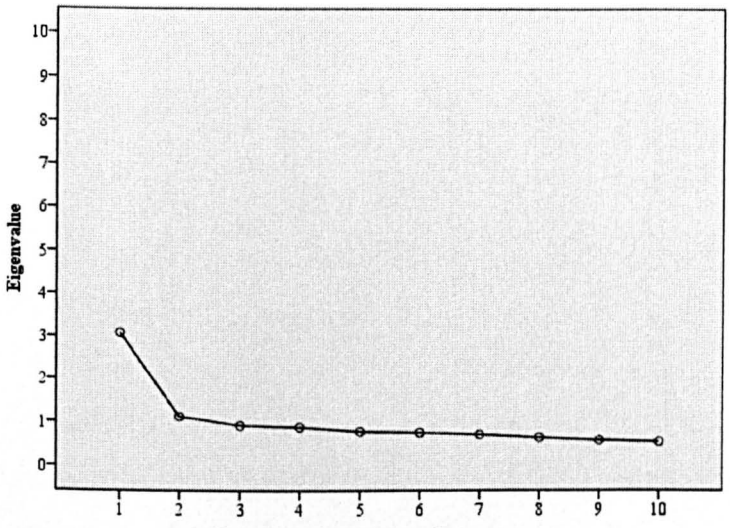


Figure 25. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Events scale

Table 30
Factor Loading of Items on the Stressful Events Scale

	Item	Factor 1
9.	Unwanted change in working hours or conditions.	.67
10.	Taking on a major loan.	.64
4.	Major financial problems.	.63
2.	Major problems with tasks relating to job or housework.	.56
7.	Major problems in living conditions (e.g., deterioration of house).	.53
6.	Major problems concerning work colleagues or neighbours.	.53
8.	Health or behaviour problems with a family member.	.51
3.	Major problems regarding school or behaviour of your children.	.51
5.	Troubles with in-laws.	.50
1.	Major personal injury or illness.	.43

The Arguments scale. A PCA of the data from the Arguments scale was conducted, and a scree plot (Figure 26) of the generated eigenvalues was examined. The scree plot, through the appearance of a distinct elbow after the one-factor solution, suggested a one-factor solution was the best fit for the data. This one factor explained 43.37% of the variance. The item loadings ranged from .45 to .74 (see Table 31). The scale reliability was α = .86 with item-total correlations ranging from .36 to .64.

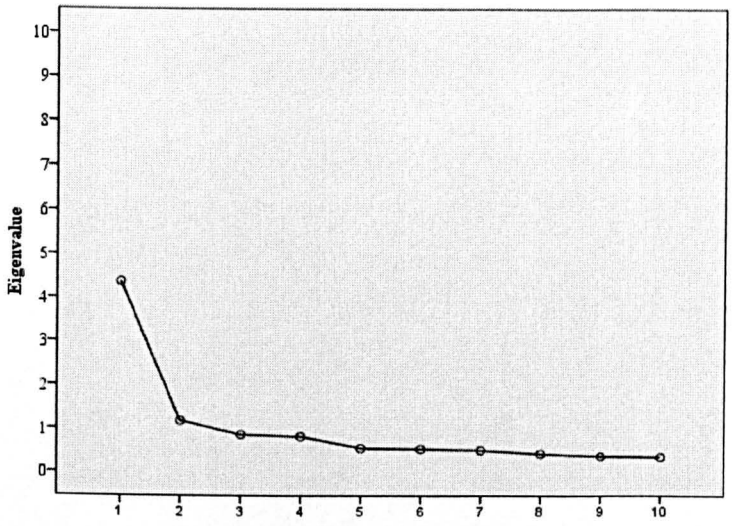


Figure 26. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Arguments scale

Table 31
Factor Loading of Items on the Arguments Scale

	Item	Factor 1
8.	Personal habits.	.74
9.	Household responsibilities.	.73
7.	Ways of dealing with other family members.	.71
6.	Distribution of family income.	.70
2.	Way to spend the leisure time together.	.69
4.	Personal freedom.	.68
10.	Ways of expressing love towards the partner.	.65
5.	Religion.	.62
3.	Amount of contact with your friends.	.60
1.	Education of your children.	.45

The Big Five Inventory. The results of the PCA (illustrated through the scree plot) were consistent with the traditional five-factor solution for the BFI (see Figure 27). The total five factors explained 65.85% of the variance. The item loadings ranged from .73 to .84 for the first factor, labelled as Conscientious; from .75 to .83 for the second factor, labelled as Neuroticism; from 81 to .87 for the third factor, labelled as Openness; from .80 to .84 for the fourth factor, labelled as Extraversion; and .64 to .81 for the final factor, labelled as Agreeableness (see Table 32).

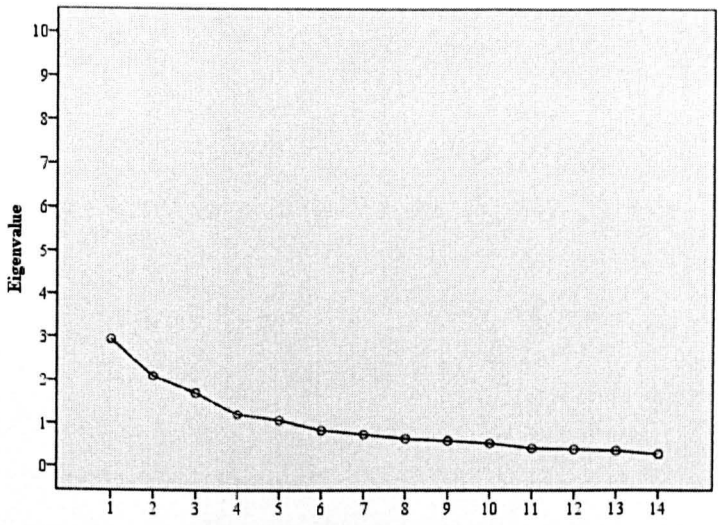


Figure 27. Scree plot of eigenvalues generated from PCA of the data from the Big Five Inventory

The reliability of Conscientious factor was initially α = .58, but item 12r loaded weakly on the factor and was deleted, with a subsequent increase in the factor's reliability to α =.75. The reliability of the Neuroticism factor was α = .64, but again an item (16r) that loaded weakly onto the factor was deleted, increasing the reliability to α = .70. The reliability of the Openness factor was α = .38, but two weakly loading items (19 and 20) were deleted from this factor, leading to an increase in reliability to α = .76.The reliability the Extraversion factor was α =.27, but two items (3r and 4r) were deleted from the factor due to weak loadings, and the reliability subsequently rose to α =.71. Finally, examination the reliability of the Agreeableness factor revealed α = .37. Again, a weakly loading item (5) was removed and the reliability rose to α =.51.

Table 32
Factor Loading of Items on the BFI

	Item	Factor				
		C	N	O	E	A
9.	I do a thorough job.	**.83**	-.01	.05	.10	-.02
10.	I do things efficiently.	**.84**	.03	.10	.15	.11
11.	I make plans, follow through with them.	**.73**	.05	.19	.09	.08
14.	I get nervous easily.	.01	**.83**	-.10	-.10	-.07
15.	I can be moody.	-.06	**.76**	.12	.10	-.17
13.	I worry a lot.	.10	**.75**	-.11	-.01	.01
17.	I am inventive.	.14	-.04	**.87**	.03	-.01
18.	I am original, come up with new ideas.	.26	.00	**.81**	.10	-.07
2.	I am talkative.	.13	.06	.09	**.84**	-.05
1.	I am outgoing, sociable.	.29	-.00	.01	**.80**	.11
8r.	I am sometimes rude to others.	-.05	-.00	-.01	.01	**.81**
7r.	I start quarrels with others.	.13	-.04	-.13	.05	**.68**
6r.	I tend to find fault with others.	.06	-.14	.07	-.03	**.64**

Note. Reverse-scored items are indicated by "r" following the item number.
For ease of reading, a black line indicates the separates items that load most strongly onto each factor. Loadings of items included in reliability calculations are printed in boldface.
C = Conscientiousness, N = Neuroticism, O = Openness, E = Extraversion, and A = Agreeableness.

6.3.2 Correlations with Relationship Assessment Scale and Satisfaction With Life Scale by Sex

A positive correlation was expected between the most demographic variables and the assessment of marital satisfaction (RAS) and the assessment of life satisfaction (SWLS), though a negative correlation was expected between divorce, number of divorces, number of marriages age and both RAS and SWLS.

As predicted, the correlation between divorce and age with marital satisfaction (RAS) and with life satisfaction (SWLS) was negative for wives, though it should be noted that only 17 of the 185 wives in the sample had been divorced. Unexpectedly, for husbands' age correlated positively with life satisfaction, indicating that older husbands were more satisfied with their lives. Interestingly, the number of divorces correlated positively with marital satisfaction among women such that women who had been divorced before their current marriage also reported higher marital satisfaction. When the duration of the marriage was controlled for, this correlation decreased and became non-significant.

For the wives only, the partner's educational level, status, and equality of status correlated positively with both marital and life satisfaction scales. When wives' husbands were more educated, had higher status, and when the wife reported that they were of similar

status or came from families of similar status, the women tended to report higher marital and life satisfaction. Whether the wives' husbands were employed also positively predicted the wives' life satisfaction.

Based on Gupta and Singh's (1982) findings that love increases with the duration of marriage for the arranged marriages, we hypothesised that Love would correlate positively with marriage duration, and accordingly that RAS would correlate positively with marriage duration. The correlation between love and marriage duration in the current data, however, was negative but not significant (see Table 33).

Table 33
Correlations between the Love and Marriage Duration

Variables	Husbands		Wives	
	Marriage duration (years)	Love	Marriage duration (years)	Love
Marriage duration (years)	1	-.14	1	-.02
Love	-.14	1	-.02	1

Furthermore, as shown in Figure 27, both husbands and wives start marriage with an average level of love but, with the duration of marriage, the husbands' love decreases whereas the wives maintain this level of love.

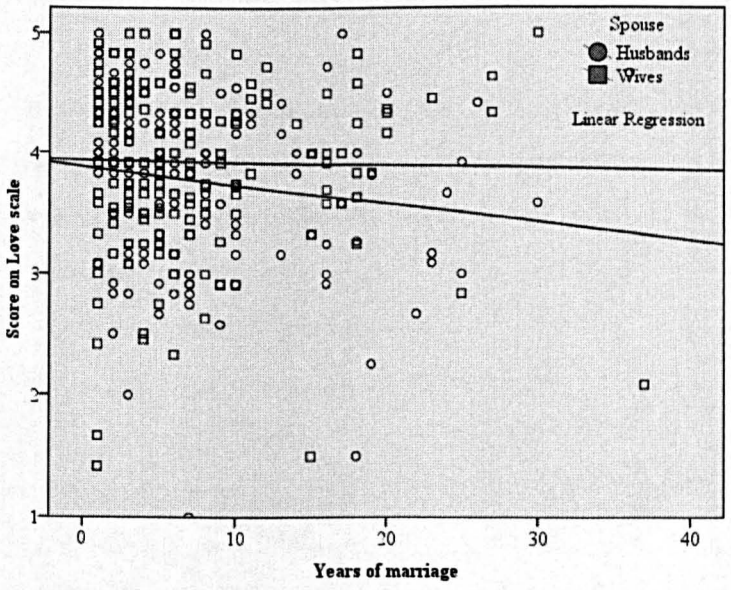


Figure 28. The correlation between love with the duration of marriage

Neither husbands' nor wives' marital satisfaction (scores on the RAS) correlated significantly with the duration of their marriage. To further explore this finding, the relationship between marital satisfaction and duration of marriage was plotted (see Figure 29). The figure shows that both husbands and wives start their marriage with an average level of satisfaction and roughly sustain this level throughout the duration of the marriage.

Additionally, a positive correlation was found between ratings of sexual satisfaction and RAS and between ratings of sexual satisfaction and SWLS.

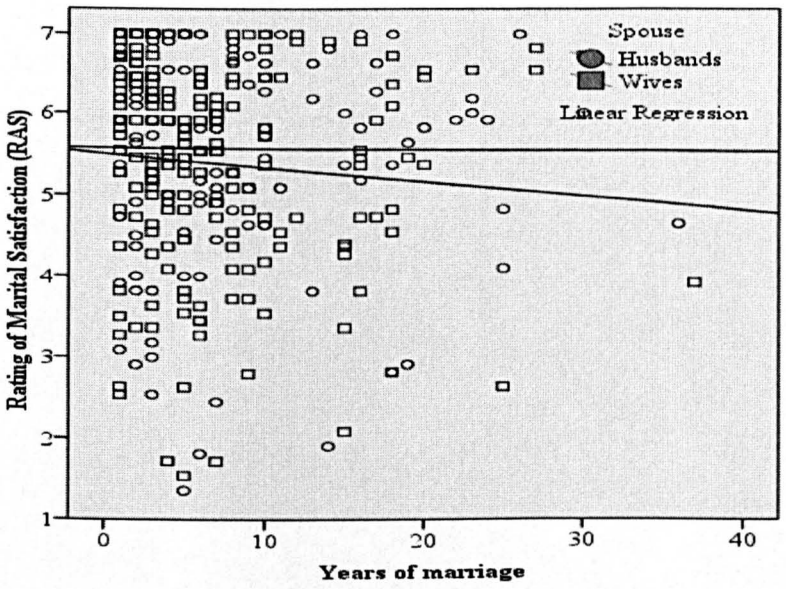


Figure 29. The correlation between marital satisfaction and duration of marriage

The results of correlations among the scales used in the test battery are presented in Table 34; they are organised according to the variable grouping proposed by the VSA model (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). The Enduring Vulnerability group consisted of the RQ assessment of attachment style and the BFI of personality. It was expected that the RQ-measured Secure attachment style would correlate positively and all three insecure attachment scales would correlate negatively with both marital (RAS) and life satisfaction (SWLS). Furthermore, Neuroticism, as assessed in the BFI, was expected to correlate negatively with both RAS and SWLS.

The results were consistent with the expectations with one exception: the Neuroticism result was limited to the husbands only. That is, wives' Neuroticism levels were not positively correlated with their marital and life satisfaction levels. Scores on the Conscientiousness factor were also positively correlated with RAS for husbands only.

Moreover, husbands' high scores on the Extraversion scale correlated positively with RAS and SWLS. Finally, scores on the Openness scale correlated positively with life satisfaction only for the wives, but not with marital satisfaction, and not for husbands.

With respect to the Stressful Events group, we hypothesised that rating on the Stressful Events, Stress Level and Arguments scales to correlate negatively with marital and life satisfaction. These hypotheses were supported.

Adaptive Processes were the third group of variables in the VSA model. It was predicted that high levels of NB and/or Abuse from either partner, and an imbalance of Power and Decision Making, would correlate negatively with RAS and SWLS. In addition, Equality in Decision Making and PB were predicted to correlate positively with RAS and SWLS. The results were partially in line with the expectations. Participants' own Negative Behaviour, their partners' Negative Behaviour, and partners' Abuse – all evaluated using the conflict behaviour assessment (CBS) – were negatively correlated with scores on the RAS and the SWLS.

However, scores on the scale assessing participants' own abusive behaviour during conflicts (Abuse-Own on the CBS) correlated negatively with RAS and SWLS for husbands and negatively only with SWLS for the wives. For wives, scoring high on the Power scale, or having more power within the relationship, actually correlated negatively with RAS. Finally, the Equality in Decision Making scale correlated positively with both RAS and SWLS for the wives, and only with the SWLS for husbands, indicating that having more equal roles in decision making is associated with greater marital and life satisfaction for wives, but only greater life satisfaction for husbands.

Table 34

Correlations of Demographic Variables and other Predictor Variables with RAS and SWLS, by Sex

VSA group	Husbands		Wives	
Variable or Scale	RAS	SWLS	RAS	SWLS
Divorced	.17	.12	**-.17***	**-.15***
Number of divorces	a	a	**.56***	.27
Age	.03	**.22***	**-.16***	**-.16***
Marriage duration (years)	-.01	.15	-.09	-.05
Number of children	.00	.15	-.10	.06
Marriage number	.13	.16	-.08	-.07
Education level	.07	-.05	.06	.01
Education level of the partner	-.02	-.08	**.21****	**.23****
Income	-.09	-.04	.08	.11
Job	-.15	-.10	-.10	-.09
Job of partner	-.06	-.13	.12	**.20****
Status	-.10	-.06	**.19***	**.19***
Status equality	-.04	-.05	**.15***	**.20****
Marriage	-.01	.07	-.01	.06
Love scale	**.58****	**.48****	**.60****	**.53****
Sexual satisfaction	**.69****	**.63****	**.63****	**.44****
Enduring Vulnerability				
Secure attachment (RQ)	**.35*****	**.38*****	**.46*****	**.36*****
Fearful attachment (RQ)	**-.20***	**-.25****	**-.47*****	**-.37*****
Preoccupied attachment (RQ)	**-.26****	**-.27****	**-.42*****	**-.30*****
Dismissing attachment (RQ)	**-.45*****	**-.33*****	**-.38*****	**-.37*****
Extraversion (BFI)	**.39*****	**.28****	-.00	-.01
Agreeableness (BFI)	.09	.08	-.05	-.10
Conscientiousness (BFI)	**.21***	.15	.07	.06
Neuroticism (BFI)	**-.24****	**-.22****	-.12	-.14
Openness (BFI)	.17	.02	.13	**.21****
Stressful Events				
Stressful Events	**-.27****	**-.34*****	**-.34*****	**-.15***
Stress Level	**-.23****	**-.32*****	**-.39*****	**-.21****
Argument	**-.28*****	**-.38*****	**-.47*****	**-.38*****
Adaptive Processes				
Positive Behaviour-Own (CBS)	-.16	-.06	-.11	-.09
Negative Behaviour-Own (CBS)	**-.54*****	**-.38*****	**-.40*****	**-.32*****
Abuse-Own (CBS)	**-.31*****	**-.28****	-.08	**-.15***
Positive Behaviour-Partner (CBS)	-.07	.01	.04	.11
Negative Behaviour-Partner (CBS)	**-.50*****	**-.39*****	**-.30*****	**-.33*****
Abuse-Partner (CBS)	**-.26****	**-.18***	**-.17***	**-.19***
Power	-.13	-.03	**-.20****	-.11
Decision Making	.14	.06	.04	.14
Equality in Decision Making	.16	**.20***	**.18***	**.24****

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$.

6.3.3 Sex Differences across All Variables

An analysis of sex difference was conducted for all variables (see Table 35). With regard to the demographic variables, as was expected to be seen among the Saudi arranged marriage sample, the Education of Partner was reported to be higher for wives than for the husbands, reflecting a higher education level for males. Similarly, husbands were reported to have higher income, were more likely to have jobs and had higher status than the wives in the sample. Husbands indicated a higher satisfaction with their life than the wives. However, wives scored higher on the Love scale, indicating that the wives felt more love.

We expected husbands to show more Dismissing attachment than wives, but the results showed no significant sex differences for Dismissing or any other insecure attachment style. However, wives scored significantly higher than the husbands only on the Secure attachment scale.

Results showed that wives scored higher on the Arguments and Stress level scales than the husbands, indicating that the women reported being in more arguments and experiencing higher stress levels than the men did.

Finally, in the Adaptive Processes variable group, wives scored higher on the Power and Decision Making scale, indicating that they (the wives) were more powerful and took a more dominant role in decision making in their marriage. This result was surprising because, in line with the views of Saudi husbands being more influential and dominant in relationships, it was expected that men would score higher on the Power and Decision Making scales than the wives. Interestingly, husbands scored higher on the Abuse scale of the CBS, whereas wives reported more Negative Behaviour and Abuse from their partners during conflicts. Overall, women in the sample also scored higher on Neuroticism and Agreeableness than men did.

Table 35

Effect Size and Significance of Sex Differences for All Variables

Variables	Husbands (Mean)	SD	Wives (Mean)	SD	F	Cohen's *d*
Divorce	.08	.28	.07	.25	.29	.38
Age	**34.34**	6.12	29.05	5.85	52.15***	.88
Marriage duration (years)	7.87	6.53	6.84	5.79	1.80	.17
Number of children	2.10	2.23	1.77	1.99	1.54	.16
Education level	2.66	.67	2.64	.62	.09	.03
Education level of partner	2.32	.77	**2.64**	.73	5.53*	-.43
Income	**2.13**	.72	1.83	.74	11.12*	.41
Job	**.98**	.14	.36	.48	170.42***	1.75
Partner's employment	.24	.43	**.97**	.17	394.87***	-2.23
Status	**2.93**	.50	2.61	.86	11.81*	.45
Equality of the status	**2.78**	.46	2.44	.76	18.37***	.54
Arranged Marriage	.94	.25	.93	.26	.05	.04
Love scale	3.75	.73	**3.94**	.64	5.16*	-.28
Sexual satisfaction	4.04	1.06	3.80	1.08	3.34	.22
Secure attachment (RQ)	3.51	1.33	**3.86**	1.12	5.36*	-.28
Fearful attachment (RQ)	1.87	1.32	1.98	1.30	.42	-.08
Preoccupied attachment(RQ)	2.29	1.43	2.42	1.45	.46	.03
Dismissing attachment (RQ)	1.73	1.11	1.71	1.18	.02	.02
RAS	5.61	1.25	5.38	1.28	2.15	.18
IOS	5.54	1.67	5.34	1.75	.91	.12
SWLS	**3.79**	.86	3.50	.98	6.44*	.31
Power	1.94	.86	**2.78**	.94	57.55***	-.93
Decision Making	2.53	.73	**3.03**	.76	29.76***	-.67
Equality in Decision Making	2.07	.54	2.02	.50	.72	.10
Stressful Events	3.06	2.59	3.45	2.37	1.65	-.16
Stress Level	9.88	8.55	**12.28**	9.24	4.72*	-.27
Arguments	2.14	.81	**2.36**	.84	4.58*	-.27
Positive Behaviour-Own (CBS)	3.53	1.10	3.71	1.28	1.61	-.05
Negative Behaviour-Own (CBS)	2.24	1.7	2.37	1.14	.94	-.09
Abuse-Own (CBS)	**1.58**	1.00	1.33	.73	5.70*	.29
Positive Behaviour-Partner (CBS)	3.45	1.15	3.46	1.21	.01	-.01
Negative Behaviour-Partner (CBS)	2.15	1.08	**2.50**	1.06	6.86*	-.33
Abuse-Partner (CBS)	1.27	.68	**1.59**	.97	9.29**	-.38
Extraversion (BFI)	4.01	.83	4.04	.86	.04	-.04
Agreeableness (BFI)	3.75	.82	**4.12**	.77	14.48***	-.47
Conscientiousness (BFI)	4.17	.79	4.09	.89	.62	.01
Neuroticism (BFI)	3.18	1.07	**3.52**	1.02	6.95*	-.33
Openness (BFI)	3.56	.93	3.33	1.03	1.06	.23

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$.

6.3.4 The Regression Analysis

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted, including all variables for the wives and the husbands independently using the enter method.

6.3.4.1 Data Preparation

The general aim of the multiple regression analysis was to identify independent predictors of marital satisfaction. Due to the large number of potential predictors and the problem of multicollinearity, it was necessary to first reduce the number of variables for the regression analysis and to identify highly correlated variables that cause multicollinearity in a regression analysis. A correlation analysis was conducted between predictors to inspect and identify highly correlated variables so that the appropriate variables could be selected. The aim was also to preserve a limited set of variables from each main variable group of the VSA model (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). To achieve these goals, correlation analyses were conducted separately for each group of variables. Next, separate regression analyses were conducted for each variable group to further reduce the number of variables by identifying predictors of marital satisfaction that independently accounted for variance in marital satisfaction. All of these correlations were done for husbands and wives separately.

In addition to the variable groups associated with the VSA model, correlation analyses were run between all the demographic variables. The results showed multicollinearity for the age variable. The age variable correlated significantly with duration of marriage, number of children, education level of partner, income, job and partner's job variables, so the age variable was excluded from the regression analysis.

A correlation analysis was performed to examine all of the variables within the Enduring Vulnerability group, including the RQ attachment assessment and the BFI. Results indicated no multicollinearity of variables among this group.

Another correlation analysis was conducted on the variables within the Stressful Events group, including Stressful Events, Stress Level and Arguments scales. The results showed multicollinearity for the Stress Level scale, and so it was excluded.

The final correlation analysis was conducted to examine variables within the Adaptive Processes group, including the CBS's separate scales – Positive Behaviour, Negative Behaviour, and Abuse for the Own and the Partner assessment. The result showed no additional multicollinearity of variables. Consequently, only the Stress Level scale and the demographic variable of age were excluded from the regression analyses.

Three pairs of regression analyses were conducted, with analyses conducted separately for husbands and wives. Each regression analysis included different variables, but the steps were the same. These different regression analyses aimed to represent the three groups of the VSA model (Enduring Vulnerabilities, Stressful Events and Adaptive Processes). For all three analyses, variables were added to the regression equations stepwise, and the dependent variable was marital satisfaction (scored on the RAS). The first regression analysis was of variables in the Enduring Vulnerability group. The regression analysis included the RQ and BFI, in addition to some of the demographic variables, because previous research had shown that they had a significant correlation with an effect on marital satisfaction. For husbands, the following variables from the Enduring Vulnerabilities group were significant predictors of RAS: Dismissing attachment (β = -.22, $t(107)$ = -6.36, p < .001), Extraversion (β = .23, $t(107)$ = 3.42, p < .001), Status (β = -.21, $t(107)$ = -2.89, p < .005), Secure attachment (β = .21, $t(107)$ = 2.80, p < .001). For wives, the following variables from the Enduring Vulnerabilities group were significant predictors of RAS: Status (β = .14, $t(169)$ = 2.26, p < .05), Secure attachment (β = .32, $t(169)$ = 4.80, p < .01), Fearful Attachment (β = -.25, $t(169)$ = - 3.53, p < .01), Preoccupied attachment (β = -. 19, $t(169)$ = - 2.88, p < .006), and Partner's education level (β = .13, $t(169)$ = 2.09, p < .05). These results, in addition to those presented below, appear in Table 36.

A second regression equation was used in determining variables from the Stressful Events group in the VSA model that predict marital satisfaction (RAS). This regression included the Stressful Events and Arguments scales as potential predictor variables. For husbands, the both Arguments (β = -.22, $t(128)$ = -2.47, p < .05) and Stressful events (β = -.20, $t(128)$ = -2.26, p < .05) were significant predictors of RAS. Both Arguments (β = -.39, $t(182)$ = -5.46, p < .001) and Stressful events (β = -.17, $t(182)$ = -2.37, p < .05) were also significant predictors of RAS for wives.

A third regression examined variables from the Adaptive Processes group as potential predictors of marital satisfaction. This analysis gathered the Power, Equality in Decision Making, the CBS's separate scales – Positive Behaviour, Negative Behaviour, and Abuse for the Own and the Partner assessment. For husbands, only Negative Behaviour-Own, (β = -.66, t (128) = -8.02, p < .001) and Positive Behaviour-Partner (β =.25, $t(128)$ = 3.09, p < .01) were significant predictors of RAS. For wives, Negative Behaviour-Own (β = -.37, $t(179)$ = -4.44, p < .001), Positive Behaviour-Partner (β = .26, $t(179)$ = 3.64, p < .001),

and Negative Behaviour-Partner (β = -.24, $t(179)$ = -3.02, $p < .01$) were significant predictors of RAS.

6.3.4.2 The Main Regression Analysis

The main, combined regression analysis included all the significant variables resulted from the previous pairs of analyses, with predictors that were significant for husbands used only in the main regression for husbands, and predictors that were significant for wives used only in the main regression for wives. . This regression used the enter method, and independent predictors identified in the previous regression analyses were used to predict scores on RAS. This regression analysis was run separately for husbands and wives.

As discussed above, the regression model indicated different potential predictor variables for husbands and wives. The regression model accounted for 58% of the variance for the husbands (F (12.33) = 9.50, p < .001) with Secure attachment, Status, their own Negative Behaviour during conflict, Dismissing attachment, Extraversion and partners' Negative Behaviour during conflict as significant predictors. For wives, the model accounted for 51% of the variance (F (14.64) = 12.60, p < .001) and the significant predictors were Secure attachment, Status, their own Negative Behaviour during conflict, Stressful Events and partners' Positive Behaviour during conflict. The predictors Secure attachment, Status and own Negative Behaviour during conflict were significant predictors of both husbands' and wives' marital satisfaction (see Table 36).

Table 36

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for Predictors to RAS

Husbands			
Variable Group	Variables	Beta	
Enduring Vulnerability			
	Secure attachment (RQ)	.17	**2.48***
	Fearful Attachment (RQ)	.15	1.92
	Preoccupied attachment (RQ)	-.15	-1.94
	Dismissing attachment (RQ)	-.37	**-5.03*****
	Status	-.14	**-2.03***
	Education level of partner	-.07	-1.02
	Extraversion	.24	**3.50****
Stressful Events			
	Argument	.14	1.86
	Stressful Events	.02	.26
Adaptive Processes			
	Negative Behaviour-Own (CBS)	-.26	**-1.99***
	Positive Behaviour-Partner (CBS)	.09	1.06
	Negative Behaviour-Partner (CBS)	-.25	**-2.15***
Wives			
Variable Group	Variables	Beta	T
Enduring Vulnerability			
	Secure attachment (RQ)	.24	**3.92*****
	Fearful Attachment (RQ)	-.12	-1.66
	Preoccupied attachment (RQ)	-.12	-1.76
	Dismissing attachment (RQ)	-.08	-1.30
	Status	.14	**2.48***
	Education level of partner	.11	1.84
	Extraversion	.01	.11
Stressful Events			
	Argument	-.11	-1.51
	Stressful Events	-.21	**-3.34****
Adaptive Processes			
	Negative Behaviour-Own (CBS)	-.16	**-2.09***
	Positive Behaviour –Partner (CBS)	.19	**3.02****
	Negative Behaviour –Partner (CBS)	-.06	-.86

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$;*** = $p < .001$.

6.4 Discussion

This study had several objectives. First, to complete the test battery and evaluate the final set of additional measures; second, to investigate the predictors of marital satisfaction in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia; and third, investigate the relationship between marital satisfaction and love with the duration of marriage

6.4.1 Scales Construct

All the scales that were used in Study 2 and were included in the main study (RAS, SWLS, Love, CBS, Sexual Satisfaction) showed the same factor structure in both studies. The reliability for these scales was acceptable, ranging from $\alpha = .70$ to .90.

Factor structure, reliability and construct validity of each of the newly developed scales (Power, Decision making, Equality, Stressful Events, Arguments) a factor consistent with the original scales and also showed acceptable reliability. The BFI of personality showed the same five-factor structure as the original scale, and, after weakly loading items were removed, had good reliability. The Family-in-Law scale had to be dropped due to an error in presentation that resulted in data that were not likely to be valid.

Some items in the ECR-R were reformulated in order to investigate whether the two-factor that had been found in Studies 1 and 2 was attributable to the content of Avoidance of Intimacy and Anxiety of Abandonment items, or rather to a method artefact related to positive and negative wording of the items. The two-factor structure resulting from the PCA showed the positively worded items loading on one factor and negatively worded items loading on the second factor. Moreover, the correlation analysis showed a high correlation between the positive Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy items and even higher correlation between the negative items of Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy.

A correlation analysis of scores on the RQ and ECR-R was conducted as a final probe to decide whether to include or exclude the ECR-R. The correlation analysis failed to show convergent or discriminant validity. Furthermore, we expected to see no or a low correlation between ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy. However, the correlations between ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment and RQ-Preoccupied were the same as the correlation between ECR-R Avoidance of Intimacy and RQ-Preoccupied attachment. Furthermore, opposite our expectations, we found a strong correlation between ECR-R Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy ($r = .60$). The lack of construct

validity for the ECR-R urged us to drop the ECR-R from further analysis. Despite the fact that the Arabic ECR-R did not perform as expected when used with the Saudi sample, other translations of the ECR-R to different languages have been successful (Tsagarakis, Kafetsios, & Stalikas, 2007; Sibley, Fischer , & Liu, 2008; Lee, Grossman, & Krishnan, 2008). The ECR-R was found to have the expected two-factor structure in cultures with languages other than English, such as Greek, Spanish and Korean. However, all of these studies used undergraduate student samples and, in one study, the undergraduate students were from a Psychology department (Alonso-Arbiol, Balluerka, Shaver, & Gillath, 2008). University students might be more able, due to practice or other aspects of education, to understand complex sentences and to deal with negatively worded items that caused trouble and confusion for the Saudi Arabian sample in this study. The problem of negatively worded items has been identified elsewhere as a potential challenge that can lead to differences in item and response interpretation across cultures (Schmitt et al., 2008).

6.4.2 Sex Differences

Results showed that the husbands' education, income, status, life satisfaction (SWLS) and employment variables were significantly higher than that of the wives. This is a reflection of the country's overall demographic statistics as of 2008, which state that 83.44% of males and 15.55% of females are in the labour market (Central Department of Statistic and Information, 2008). In addition, consistent with the results of Haring, Stock and Okun (1984), men scored higher on life satisfaction (measured using the SWLS) than women.

We anticipated seeing husbands have more Dismissing attachment styles than wives. The findings showed no sex difference in Dismissing attachment style or either of the other two insecure attachment styles, though wives scored significantly higher in Secure attachment than husbands. Our results contradicted Schmitt's (2001, 2003) results that men would score higher on Dismissing attachment than the women. Schmitt's (2001, 2003) results indicated that Dismissing attachment style can be observed across many cultures. In Western cultures, men were higher on Dismissing attachment than women, but in non-Western cultures, African and Oceanic cultures, women showed slighting more Dismissing attachment styles than men.

Contrary to our expectations, the wives' mean scores on the Power and Decision making scale were higher than those of the husbands. This could be interpreted, as Atorki

(1977) suggested, as indicating that, in Saudi Arabia, despite the fact that women are less influential in public life, at home they are more likely to possess power.

Furthermore, the sex difference results showed that the wives were experiencing higher levels of Stress, Argument and Negative Behaviour and Abuse during conflict from their partners than the husbands. These findings could be related to several factors in Saudi culture. Men in Saudi Arabia are in power and enjoy more freedom than the women; consequently, the woman is always under the authority of the man. Whether it is her father, brother, husband or son, a man will always be in power and dominate the woman. It might be the case that, if the male guardian were more flexible and egalitarian, the woman under his authority would be in a better situation. Further research in this domain is needed to further support this interpretation.

Our finding is also consistent with the finding that there are a large number of abused women in countries worldwide, such as Western cultures (Levinson, 1989), including the United States (Straus & Gelles, 1989; Steinmetz, 1987), and Non-Western cultures, including Bangkok and Thailand (Hoffma, Demo, & Edwars, 1994), Central Africa, Middle East, India, China and Korea (Heise, 1993) . On the other hand, the mean score of the husbands who rated their own Abuse in conflict situations on the CBS was higher than the wives. It is important to realize that abuse is a critical and sensitive topic, and that it is difficult to define abuse and to tap into the causes of abuse. It may be particularly challenging to understand or study abuse in a conservative country like Saudi Arabia where so many restraints prevent the abused person from seeking help.

Finally, the wives' scores on Agreeableness and Neuroticism were higher, and husbands did not show any effect of personality traits as assessed on the BFI of. With regards to women, this result was consistent with the findings reported by Costa, Terracciano and McCrae (2001). Data from 26 cultures showed a small difference between the sexes, with women scoring higher on Neuroticism and Agreeableness, and men scoring higher on Assertiveness and Openness; these sex differences were most pronounced in European and American cultures, in which traditional sex roles are minimized (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001).

6.4.3 Marital Satisfaction and Demographic Variables

We assumed that age would be negatively related to marital and life satisfaction. In contrast to expectation, age correlated positively with life satisfaction for the husbands.

Further investigation into the correlation between age and marital and life satisfaction showed that wives aged less than 40 years (N = 166) showed a negative correlation between age and marital satisfaction, (r = - .18, p > 0.5) and age and life satisfaction (r = -.23, p <.01). No significant correlation was obtained with between age and marital and life satisfaction for the husbands below age 40. On the other hand, for wives in this sample with an age of 40 or above (N = 13), there was no significant correlation between age and marital or life satisfaction. In contrast, a positive correlation was found between age and life satisfaction for the husbands of age 40 and above (N = 24, r = .55, p < .001). In general, every year the wife grows older, her marital and life satisfaction decrease. This negative correlation between age with marital and life satisfaction for women can be explained by the general perception of women in Saudi culture. For married women, the feeling of insecurity increases with age due to the gradual loss of youth and beauty, and a woman might fear her husband will marrying again. The case seems different for husbands; only once they have reached age 40 do they seem to start enjoying life, though their marital satisfaction does not increase with age.

We also predicted that past divorces would be negatively correlated with satisfaction within the current marriage and with overall life satisfaction. For men, the relationship between divorce and satisfaction could not be assessed because none of the men in the sample had been divorced prior to their current marriage. The sample of wives who had been divorced was very small, but their marital and life satisfaction was shown to be lower than wives who had not been divorced previously, a finding which is consistent with the hypothesis and with previous research. Specifically, Gottman (1994) found that people marrying for the second time have a higher risk of being less satisfied in the marriage and more often consider separation, and that people who have remarried actually separate and divorce more often than those who have married only once. Longitudinal studies support the negative correlation between divorce and well-being, with increased depression symptoms, misery and a decrease in happiness (Hope, Power, & Rodgers, 1999). The way people view and enter into marriage affects how divorce impacts their well-being. That is, people who had seen their marriage as a lifelong commitment, suffer from more stress after divorce (Bianchi, Simon, & Marcussen, 1999). Similar results have been shown for Japan, Mexico, Germany, Britain, France and Italy, with divorce correlating negatively with psychological well-being in all cases (Mastekaasa, 1994). The finding that previously divorced wives in the current sample suggests that this finding might also extend to Saudi Arabia, even in women who have remarried, though further research with a larger sample would be needed to corroborate this finding. It was also expected that education, job and income would correlate positively

with RAS and SWLS. Our findings indicated a positive correlation between partner's education with RAS and SWLS for women only. In addition, the husband's employment correlated positively with the wife's life satisfaction, but not with her marital satisfaction. This could be interpreted in the context of the wife seeing the husband's role as a provider, particularly if a good level of education guaranteed him a suitable job for her life security. According to earlier studies by Liem and Liem (1988) and by Binns and Mars (1984), unemployed husbands may resist their wives' attempts to find a job because the wives' possibly working threatens their masculine role as bread-winner and might alter who maintained the household and children's activities. In addition, Dew, Bromet and Schulberg (1987) found that unemployed husbands' psychological stress strongly predicted the wives' level of stress. Moreover, Morries (1992) showed that, although unemployed husbands are present more in the house and they help marginally more with the household responsibilities, this reflected negatively on their wives' satisfaction.

Our results indicated positive marital and life satisfaction when the status of the husband was equal or higher than that of the wife. Consistent with Rodman's (1972) argument that fully patriarchal societies, in which the man is the head of the family or tribe and that have not been influenced by egalitarian norms, marriages will be almost entirely husband-dominated regardless of either the husband or the wife's resources. In these situations, wives cannot influence marital decisions because the norms prevent them from doing so. Furthermore, Perry-Jenkins and Folk (1994) found that, among middle-class wives, perceptions of equality strongly affected marital conflict, but for working class wives, perceptions of equality were less important. In Saudi Arabia, the social status of the husbands is expected to be equal to or higher than, but not lower than the wife's status.

Non-industrial societies differ from Western societies. In non-industrialized societies, it was found that relationship structure and family organization patterns have a considerable impact on a wife's power in a marriage (Warner, Lee, & Lee, 1986). Cross-cultural studies have linked status with authoritative power. Interestingly, they showed divergence between cultures. According to Rodman's (1972) theory, the effect of resources on power is different in different cultures. Accordingly he showed that resources are positively related to power in relatively egalitarian cultures and negatively related in "modified patriarchal" cultures, or cultures in which norms are undergoing change from patriarchal to egalitarian. Rodman pointed to some of these modified patriarchal cultures, such as the cultures of Greece, Yugoslavia, Turkey and Japan (Rodman, 1972). In Greece and Yugoslavia, the higher the husbands' social status, the less authoritative he will be, and

so the families become more egalitarian. However, in France and the United States, results showed that the higher the social position or status of the husband, the greater his authority within the family (Buric & Zecevic, 1967), which seems similar to the situation in Saudi Arabia.

One important hypothesis is that marital satisfaction will increase with the duration of marriage as well as with love. Interestingly, the correlation between RAS and marriage duration was negative but not significant in the current study. The correlation showed that 53.4% of the husbands and 50.2% of the wives who valued their marital satisfaction more than average (i.e., at a rating or 4 or 5 on a 5-point Likert scale), roughly maintain this level with the duration of years. Glenn (1998), in his cross section study results, showed a pattern of decline in marital success over time. A recent study by Madathil and Benshoff (2008), compared the marital satisfaction of three different groups. The first group was individuals in arranged marriages amongst Indians living in India (AI-India). The second group was individuals in arranged marriages amongst Indians living in the US (AI-US). The third group was individuals in choice marriages in the United States (C-US). Results indicated that the AI-US group were significantly more satisfied with their marriages than the other two groups, AI-India and C-US, and there was no sex difference between husbands and wives (Madathil & Benshoff, 2008). This result could be interpreted as a result of the positive influence of an open, modern culture on arranged marriages. Furthermore, the result of this study showed no sex difference in marital satisfaction, contradicting Jose and Alfons' (2007) suggestion that men tend to show a higher level of marital satisfaction than women.

With respect to love, once again our results contradicted Gupta and Singh's (1982). The results of this study showed a negative relationship between love and marriage duration, but the relationship was not significant. Furthermore, a sex difference emerged between husbands and wives in love. Our results showed that 44.3% of the husbands and 47.6% of the wives scored high on the Love scale, but husbands who had been married longer reported lower levels of love, while wives levels of love did not vary as a function of marriage duration. Levine, et al. (1995) compared the results of 11 countries, including Western and Non-Western nations, and showed that people in Western and Westernized nations (the United States, Brazil, England, and Australia) placed high importance on love as a prerequisite to marriage and for maintaining the marriage, whereas people in India, Pakistan, Thailand, and the Philippines placed less importance on love as a reason to marry or to divorce (Levine, Sato, Hashimoto, & Verma, 1995). Moreover, particularly in collectivistic cultures, a high importance is place on the extended family and its network and

not on the individual and his or her needs, which seems to be the case as well in marriages in Saudi Arabia.

Satisfaction with life is a broader emotional and cognitive evaluation of the quality of life. Life satisfaction comprises, among others, several components, such as the subject's well-being, health, and romantic relationships (Sirgy et al., 2006). In the results of our study, a strong relationship linked love, marital and sexual satisfaction with overall life satisfaction. There is a significant association between marital satisfaction and well-being (Burman & Margolin, 1992); marital satisfaction appears to affect well-being (O'Rourke, 2006). Married people are healthiest, followed by those who are single, then those who are widowed and, last, those who are separated or divorced (Verbrugge, 1979; Swanson, Belle, & Santarino, 1985). Satisfaction with life and marriage differ across cultures. In wealthy countries, life satisfaction is associated particularly strongly with love and the need for high self-esteem. More than people in collectivist nations do, people in individualistic nations tend to strongly link satisfaction to one's freedom and self-esteem to their sense of global life satisfaction (Oishi, Diener, Lucas, & Suh, 1999). Litzinger and Gordon (2005) found that sexual satisfaction predicted marital satisfaction, and that sexual satisfaction may partially compensate for the negative effects of poor communication on marital satisfaction. Consistent with the previous findings, the results of our study showed a strong positive correlation between Sexual Satisfaction and both RAS and SWLS.

From the literature provided above, most of the investigations and conclusions were from Western cultures and amongst choice marriages. Little has been done regarding arranged marriages that are non-Western. To broaden knowledge of marriage, divorce, and even well-being, more research needs to be done in diverse cultures and marriages, including arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia.

6.4.4 Marital Satisfaction as Represented by Karney and Bradbury's Model (1995)

The following sections discuss the relationship between marital satisfaction and the three groups of predictors of marital happiness postulated by the VSA model (Karney & Bradbury, 1995).

6.4.4.1 Enduring Vulnerability

The Enduring Vulnerability group consisted of RQ, ECR-R, IOS, Love, Sexual Satisfaction and the BFI scales. As was predicted, Secure attachment correlated positively and insecure attachment correlated negatively with marital and life satisfaction. In the sample of wives, Secure attachment correlated more strongly with marital satisfaction than life satisfaction, whereas husbands showed a stronger correlation between Secure attachment and life satisfaction.

Participants who scored high on Fearful or Preoccupied attachment scored lower in marital and life satisfaction. This correlation was stronger amongst the wives' sample than the husbands' sample. Husbands and wives with Dismissing attachment showed negative correlations with both marital and life satisfaction. However, husbands with Dismissing attachment styles were less satisfied with their marriage, and the correlation between Dismissing attachment style and marital satisfaction was stronger for husbands than for wives. In contrast, the correlation between Dismissing attachment and life satisfaction was stronger amongst the wives than the husbands' sample. The results were consistent with Hollist and Miller (2005), who reported that individuals with insecure attachments were lower in their love and marital satisfaction than those with Secure attachment. Individuals who scored high on Secure attachment also scored high in marital satisfaction and showed better marital adjustment (Banse, 2004; Kobak & Hazan, 1991).

With regard to personality and its relationship to marital and life satisfaction, Neuroticism was expected to correlate negatively with marital satisfaction. In this study, husbands high in Neuroticism lower levels of marital and life satisfaction. This finding was in line with the results of Kosek (1998), who reported that Neuroticism was negatively correlated with marital satisfaction. Neuroticism has also been described as a risk factor for marital relationships (Hubbard & Wiese, 2000). Karney and Bradbury (1995, 1997) pointed to Neuroticism strong predictor of divorce. Recent studies have shown that individuals high in Neuroticism experience greater stress in their daily lives, partly because they react poorly to stressful situations (Bolger & Schilling, 1991; Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995).

Furthermore, a positive correlation between Extraversion and both marital and life satisfaction was expected. Findings showed that husbands who scored high on Extraversion also had higher marital and life satisfaction, but no significant effect was found for wives. Bolger (1990) and Costa and McCrae (1980) found that scoring high on Extraversion is associated with more positive emotions, more problem-focused coping and greater reported well-being. Therefore, it appears that though Neuroticism negatively affects marital quality,

and Extraversion positively affects marital quality because it has a positive impact on spouses' reactions and adaptation to stressful situations they may encounter.

Finally, Openness was predicted to correlate positively with marital and life satisfaction. The results of this study showed that wives who scored high on Openness had higher life satisfaction, but no significant correlation was seen between Openness and marital or life satisfaction among the husbands. Shackelford and Buss (2000) showed that marital satisfaction was positively associated with Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability (the other end of the Neuroticism spectrum) and Openness. Similarly, Botwln, Buss and Shackelforda (1997) reported that low scores on Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability and Openness correlated with low scores on marital and sexual happiness for both sexes. Finally, it was shown that people with high levels of Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness are more likely to experience moderately stable levels of positive and negative life events and, consequently, experience fairly stable levels of life satisfaction (Headey & Wearing, 1989).

6.4.4.2 The Adaptive Processes

Several scales included in this study were used to assess variables categorized as Adaptive Processes within the VSA model. These scales were the Power, Decision Making, and CBS. Equality in Decision Making was computed as an additional variable. Power, Negative Behaviour (from the CBS) and Abuse (from the CBS) were found to be negatively related to marital and life satisfaction. Furthermore, positive relationships between Positive Behaviour and both marital and life satisfaction were hypothesised, and supported by the results of this study.

The Power scale (Ramu, 1988), which explores authority distribution between spouses, particularly in situations related to personal freedom, choice of friends or even distribution of the family money, correlated negatively with the wives' marital satisfaction. That is, wives with low power were less satisfied. In contrast, no relationship between scores on the Power scale and satisfaction levels was found for the husbands. This was expected in a culture where the man is dominant, in control and benefits from authoritative power. This negative correlation appears only with the wives' marital satisfaction, not with general life satisfaction. This could be interpreted as the ability of women to separate their marital life from their general life and to develop coping techniques, whether positive or negative. This interpretation is supported by the positive correlation between marital satisfaction and

Equality of Decision making (r = .18) and between life satisfaction and Equality of Decision Making (r = .24).

For husbands, however, results of the Equality of Decision Making scale correlated positively only with life satisfaction and not with marital satisfaction. Overall, husbands' marital satisfaction did not showed a significant correlation with being in a powerful position or in shared decision making. These findings are in line with previous research showing that an imbalance in marital power correlated with depression in women (Kaslow & Carter, 1991). On the other hand, Gray-Little and Burks (1983), Huston (1983) and Epstein(1991) have all shown that equality in decision making, sharing power and fewer boundaries between the spouses correlated with high marital satisfaction. Ehrensaft, Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Heyman, O'Leary and Lawrence (1999) found that having less freedom to have relationships with family and friends and planning activities independently correlated positively with less competence and self respect in distressed marriages.

Some studies investigated the dyadic behaviours between couples based on the assumption that marital satisfaction is related to dyadic behaviours (Bodenmann, Pihet, & Kayser, 2006). However, an individual's behaviour within a dyad is still considered as an individual behaviour and thus measured as an individual variable for both partners separately (Bodenmann, Pihet, & Kayser, 2006). In the current study, participants reported their own behaviour and their partners' behaviour. A positive correlations between Positive Behaviour during conflict (as measured on the CBS) and both marital and life satisfaction were predicted. Negative correlations between Negative Behaviour during conflict (as measured on the CBS) and Abuse (measured on the CBS) and both marital and life satisfaction were expected.

The correlation results did not show a significant relationship between Positive Behaviour and either marital or life satisfaction. In a scatter plot of the correlation between the Positive Behaviour-Own and Positive Behaviour-Partner, it was apparent that most individuals scored a three or higher on a five-point scale, with five indicating the most positive behaviour. The distribution can be interpreted as meaning either that the participants did not experience many problems or the problems they faced were constructively resolved.

With regard to the Negative Behaviour scale, the results were as expected. A significant negative correlation between one's own and one's partner's Negative Behaviour and both marital and life satisfaction. This result is in line with Gottman's (1994) and Weiss and Heyman's (1997) findings that negative communication, such as being critical, authoritarian, violence and withdrawing, predict poor marital functioning and are associated

with a higher risk of divorce. Moreover, the current findings showed that the husbands' ratings of their own behaviour on the Negative Behaviour scale were strongly related to their marital and life satisfaction. The findings of this study agreed with Bodenmann, Pihet and Kayser's (2006) results that the negative behaviour of the men appeared to be strongly related to marital quality as reported by both sexes. Furthermore, previous studies (Gottman, Coan, Carrere, & Swanson, 1998; Gottman & Krokoff, 1989) emphasize that the women's negative behaviour was not destructive for marriage. Conversely, the husbands in this study who indicated that their wives display a lot of Negative Behaviour tended to have lower marital and life satisfaction. This effect was also found for wives in the study who indicated their husbands' negative behaviour, but the effect was weaker.

Interestingly, Negative Behaviour was more strongly related to marital and life satisfaction than Abuse was. It might be that the probability of encountering an abusive behaviour is less than the probability of encountering negative behaviour.

Furthermore, in Study 2 the correlation between ratings on the Own and Partner forms of the Conflict Behaviour Scale was strong, indicating that both the participant rated both partners as behaving in the same way when in conflict. The two versions of the Positive Behaviour scale correlated at $r = .74$, the Negative Behaviour scale at $r = .72$, and the Abuse behaviour scale at $r = .67$. Consequently, future studies might be able to obtain as much information but decrease the burden on the participant by having the participant complete only one version of the CBS – own or partner.

6.4.4.3 Stressful Events

A negative relationship between Stressful Events and both marital and life satisfaction was expected. Indeed, negative life events correlated negatively with marital and life satisfaction for both husbands and wives. This finding is consistent with Bloom, Asher and White's (1978) finding that life events and mental health problems were important predictors of marital quality. Moreover, stressful life events were predictors of lower marital stability and less satisfaction over time in research by Karney and Bradbury (1995). These previous research findings are consistent with the results of the current study. All the components of the Stressful Events group, including the Stressful Events scale, the Arguments scale, and the Stress level scale, showed a negative correlation with both marital and life satisfaction.

Although the Argument process could be considered as an interaction style, it could also be considered as a stressful event, particularly if issues such as the frequency and style of the arguments, and whether they include verbal or physical abuse, are considered. Therefore, the Argument scale was included in the Stressful Events group. Consistent with the finding that scores on the Argument scale negatively and significantly correlate with marital and life satisfaction for both sexes in the Saudi Arabian sample, Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler and Wethington (1989) have linked stressful conditions with arguments. They showed that stressful conditions were associated with a higher incidence of negative communication/arguments between partners, which related to the level of marital conflict. Furthermore, arguments may be caused by and then complicate or lead to alcohol abuse, infidelity and irrational behaviours, among other things, which may in turn increase the negative social behaviour that leads to marital dissatisfaction (Kelly & Conly, 1987). In one study, couples who show marital problems and divorce described their communication as dysfunctional because the emotional resolution of their conflicts was unsatisfactory (Markman, Hahlweg 1993). Unfortunately, no comparison can be made with cross-cultural studies, because no cross-cultural research into marital arguments was found.

6.4.5 Husbands' and Wives' Shared and Unshared Predictors of Marital Satisfaction

One central goal of this study was to identify a set of independent predictors, for husbands versus wives, of marital satisfaction and to determine whether those predictors are the same in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia and choice marriages in Western cultures. A regression analysis showed some common variables for husbands and wives that predicted marital satisfaction, in addition to some variables that were unique to only husbands and others that were unique to only wives.

The common variables that predicted marital satisfaction for the whole sample were Secure attachment, Status and the participant's own Negative Behaviour. Secure attachment predicted higher marital satisfaction, which is consistent with Kobak (1991) and Cohen's (1991) findings that a better functioning marital relationship involves at least one secure partner (Shaver & Hazan, 1993).

Status was a significant predictor of marital satisfaction. When the status of the husband was higher than that of the wife, this resulted in a positive marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives. However, if the status of the husband was lower than that of the wife, both spouses were less satisfied in the marriage. This finding is consistent with

Tichenor's (1999) finding that husbands whose status is lower than their wives' are less satisfied with their marriage, particularly when compared with husbands whose status is higher than their wives'.

Finally, participants' own Negative Behaviour, for both husbands and wives, predicted low marital satisfaction. Much research had shown interactive behaviour between spouses predicts marital satisfaction, and dyadic coping skills correlate with marital quality for husbands and wives (Kayser, Bodenmann, & Pichet, 2006). Problem solving and coping techniques were identified as the reason for divorce (Bodenmann et al., 2007).

The partner's Positive and Negative Behaviour predicted both husbands' and wives' marital satisfaction for wives and husbands. Negative Behaviour correlated strongly and negatively with marital satisfaction (r = -.54), as did followed by Abuse (r = -.31), though the relationship between marital satisfaction and Positive Behaviour (r = -.16) was weak and not significant. It may be the case that negative behaviour occurs more frequently than abuse. In contrast, Positive Behaviour was not a significant predictor of satisfaction, which could be because people with Positive Behaviour were encountering fewer problems or the problems they encountered were solved constructively.

Some predictors of marital satisfaction differed between husbands and wives. Dismissing attachment style, a variable within the Enduring Vulnerability group in the VSA model, predicted low marital satisfaction in husbands, but Extraversion predicted high marital satisfaction in husbands. This finding corroborated previous results emphasizing the relationship of Dismissing attachment and Extraversion personality to marital satisfaction (Schmitt, 2003, 2004; Barelds, 2005). In addition, the Stressful Events scale, a variable within the Stressful Events group, predicted lower marital satisfaction for wives such that more stressful events were associated with less satisfaction.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The major aim of this study was to identify the predictors of marital satisfaction in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia. In order to achieve this aim, a battery of scales was developed. This battery consisted of three groups of scales, which were chosen to correspond to groups of predictor variables proposed in Karney and Bradbury's (1995) VAS model of VSA. The VSA model strives to explain marital outcome, which is breaks down into marital satisfaction and marital stability, though the functioning of the three groups of variables (Enduring Vulnerability, Stressful Events and Adaptive Processes).

The scales used in the studies presented in this thesis were translated, validated, culturally modified, and tested to determine if they had good psychometrical properties and adequate reliability. Four scales failed to meet these requirements and were dropped from analyses.

Despite the fact that the BIDR scale showed an acceptable factor structure and reliability, it was also dropped from further analysis. The results of the BIDR were not correlated with the RAS, SWLS, or, to a great extent, with the attachment scales. This lack of correlation indicated that the participants' responses were not contaminated by a tendency towards socially desirable responding, and the scale dropped from the studies.

The Attitudes towards Arranged Marriages scale was also dropped. This scale did not correlate with any of the other scales, except for the SWLS. The correlation between attitude towards arranged marriage and life satisfaction was negative. Individuals with more positive attitudes towards arranged marriages reported lower life satisfaction and individuals with more negative attitudes towards arranged marriages reported higher life satisfaction. Given that the participants in this study were in arranged marriages and live in a culture that supports arranged marriage, the negative correlation between attitude towards arranged marriage and life satisfaction is surprising. It might be the case that there is a third variable that affects the relationship between attitude towards choice marriage and its relationship with life satisfaction – the power of social tradition. It is not acceptable within the social traditions of Saudi Arabia to engage in choice marriages or to have romantic or dating relationships prior to marriage. The only permitted way to marry in Saudi Arabia is through an arranged marriage that is set up by relatives. People who are to be married may wish to have the chance to meet and get to know each other before marriage in order to be totally

convinced that the person to whom they will be married is the person they want to marry, but they do not have this opportunity. Despite the fact that there is a choice of accepting or refusing the nominated person for marriage based on initial impressions of each other, if the family allows this choice, the length of the initial meeting on which people must form their first impressions is very brief. They do not have time to get to know each other. Accordingly, it might seem that chances of disappointment or satisfaction after marriage are based on chance.

The third scale that was dropped was the Attitude towards the Family-in-Law scale. This scale was used in Study 2 and the Main Study. In Study 2, attitude towards mother-in-law correlated negatively with Fearful attachment style and positively with RAS, but no further correlation could be shown with attitude towards mother- or father-in-law in the main study. Because of a printing error that occurred in the main study, the scale's answer labels were repeated, which may have been the cause of very weak psychometric properties. Ultimately, the scale was excluded from further analysis. The final scale that was dropped was the ECR-R, which was dropped because the original factor structure could not be duplicated in the translated versions of the questionnaire. The scale did not show the expected Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy factors. Instead, two factors that grouped items with respect to their wording with one group of positively worded items that wore positively keyed and a second group that were negatively worded items that were reverse-coded. It is possible that the translation process was not successful, though the ECR-R has been successfully translated to other languages (e.g., Greek, Spanish). It is also possible that the participants in the sample were not able to answer the items appropriately due to lack of experience with negatively worded items and Likert scales, which was suggested by the participants' reported confusion over how to respond to the items. What would it mean to strongly disagree with a negative statement? This may not have been an issue in previous samples, which have often included college students who might be well-versed in responding to these types of item formulations. In addition, the participants in previous studies may have actually been different from the participants in the current study in terms of commitment to their relationships, income, and education level in addition to culture. Previous studies have often used participants who were mainly in dating relationships and not married, which might shape what the participants were looking for and expected from their romantic relationships, and how committed they were to their relationships. In addition, participants in the current study might not be representative of the general population because they were recruited on a volunteer basis. According to Rosenthal

and Rosnow (1975), individuals who volunteer to take part in studies tend to be from a higher education and income, and are more sociable and motivated to seek approval than individuals who do not volunteer.

Sex Differences

There was a significant sex difference related to some variables. Women scored higher on partner's education, love, Secure attachment, Stress level, Arguments, Negative Behaviour and Abuse from the partner, Agreeableness and Neuroticism. However, the effect sizes for these differences were small and not significant (Cohen's *d* ranged from = - .27 to - .47). There were also significant differences between the sexes' score on whether their spouses were employed, and the balance of Power and Decision Making in their relationships, with women also scoring higher on these variables. These higher scores indicate that wives' spouses were more likely to be employed, and that wives indicated they had more power and decision-making authority with domestic issues and within their relationships than husbands did. This magnitude of the difference between the husbands' and wives' scores on these variables was large and significant, with the effect size (Cohen's *d*) ranging from = -.67 to -2.23.

It is not surprising to see that more of the wives' reported their husbands being employed than the husbands' reported their wives' were being employed. It is the cultural expectation in Saudi Arabia that the husbands will be employed and have an income adequate to support his wife and family. The man is the breadwinner for the family and this is what his wife and his culture expects him to be. Furthermore, a husband's employment is likely to have large effect on his wife's satisfaction.

As for Power and Decision Making, women do not traditionally have power or play a dominant or sharing role in decision making, unless their husbands permit and enable them to. Women enjoy a limited amount of power and control, which is restricted to decision making only in the domestic arena.

The sample of husbands' and the sample of wives' also showed differences in their mean scores on Income, Status, SWLS, and their own Abuse behaviour such that these were higher among the husbands than among the wives, but the effect sizes were small for all of these variables, with Cohen's *d* ranging from .29 to .45. The husbands also reported a higher rate of Equality of Status in their marriages, but the effect size was medium, with Cohen's d = .54. This effect is as expected, with more equality of status leading to greater satisfaction. Finally, Age and rate of employment were higher among the husbands, and these

effect sizes were large with Cohen's d = .88 and 1.75, respectively. As mentioned above, it is essential within Saudi Arabian culture for the husband to be earning enough money to adequately support his family, and so it is expected that men who are employed will be happier and more satisfied.

Which Variables Correlated with Marital Satisfaction?

The next step was to investigate which variables were correlated with RAS (marital satisfaction) and SWLS (life satisfaction). Most of the variables included in the study were correlated with RAS and SWLS for both husbands and wives. However, some variables showed only correlations for wives, some others only for husbands.

With respect to the demographic variables, divorce and age correlated negatively with marital and life satisfaction. The number of divorces correlated positively only with marital satisfaction, and this was limited to the wives only. This finding agrees with the general trends amongst the women in Saudi Arabia. Older wives or previously divorced wives are not as happy as younger wives. Older women have to deal with several issues relating to their age, including the fear is that their husbands will want to marry a younger wife. Moreover, it seems that when women grow older, and their children have left home because of marriage or a job, they find themselves dealing with marriage issues that they were not aware of when they were newly married. When a woman marries, she becomes busy building a family, having children and raising them. She remains busy with the children and family until the children leave home. Once the children leave, the wife finds herself alone with a husband with whom she has lived with for more than twenty years. Perhaps, she discovers that she is not happy with him because of old issues between them, such as certain attitudes, or mistakes and faults he has had in the past, but she has to forgive him because she doesn't have a choice.

The education level of the partner and social status of the partner are both positively correlated with wives' marital and life satisfaction. The wife might be more satisfied because her husband's higher level of education his social status will secure social status for her family and children, or perhaps she will be more flexible, less dominant and more egalitarian, which will affect her marital and life satisfaction positively. However, women's husbands' employment has a positive impact only on her life satisfaction, perhaps because better employment is more likely to ensure for her a satisfactory level of living. The husband's employment does not seem to be related to the wife's marital situation.

Finally, as was expected, Love and Sexual Satisfaction were strong positive predictors of marital and life satisfaction for both husbands and wives.

The Enduring Vulnerability variable group included the attachment and personality scales. All the attachment scales correlated with RAS and SWLS for both husbands and wives and showed the expected pattern. Secure attachment related positively, and insecure attachment negatively, to RAS and SWLS. As predicted, more extraverted husbands experienced high levels of marital and life satisfaction, and more neurotic husbands experienced lower marital and life satisfaction. Husbands' scores on the Conscientiousness scale correlated positively only with their RAS, or marital satisfaction, scores. Finally, for the wives, the Openness scale correlated positively with SWLS only. Having an open personality does not necessarily, according to these data, increase or decrease marital satisfaction. It would be interesting to explore the lack of correlation between Openness and marital satisfaction.

In the Stressful Events group, which included Stressful Events, Stressful level and Argument scales, scores on all of the scales were negatively correlated with marital and life satisfaction. This finding is as predicted and may have been found because experiencing stressful events and the level of stress have their own negative influence on marital and life satisfaction. The Argument scale, another measure of a stressful variable, included frequency, tension, and possible aggression or violence involved in argument. Results on this scale showed a negative relationship with both RAS and SWLS.

With regard to the Adaptive Processes group, which included CBS, Power, Decision Making and Equality in Decision Making scales, results were mixed. The Power scale correlated negatively with RAS, but only for the wives. This is not surprising to see in a male dominated culture, where the wife has to deal with the greater and perhaps domineering power of her husband in her life and marital relationship. According to the results of this study, when there is more equality in decision making, wives have greater marital and life satisfaction. Equality in Decision Making was not shown to impact husbands' marital relationships, but husbands' who shared more equality in making decisions did have high levels of overall life satisfaction.

The CBS showed no large differences when used to assess the participants' report of their own versus their report of their partners' behavior. Therefore, in the future it might be adequate to use only one of the versions. Moreover, the Negative Behavior was most strongly correlated with marital and life satisfaction, followed by the Abuse scale and, finally, by the Positive Behaviour scale. It could be the case that people experience or deal

with negative behavior more frequently than they experience Abuse, but it might also be the case that reporting abuse is not easy to do and it is very difficult to encourage the abused person to admit need and ask for help. Regarding the Positive behaviour, the lack of significance could be because couples are not dealing with many problems or their problems are adequately and positively resolved. This scale could be more informative if it was used among clinically depressed couples or couples who are at risk of divorce.

Marital Satisfaction and Love as Related to Duration of Marriage

With regards to marital satisfaction and marriage duration, the hypothesis was that marital satisfaction increases with the duration of marriage among individuals in arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia. This is a cross-sectional study and not a longitudinal one, but looking at different individuals who have been married for different periods, can give insight into the relationship between marital satisfaction and marriage duration. The relationship between these two variables was negative but not significant. Both husbands and wives were seen to start marriage, according to their self reports, with an average level of satisfaction. The husbands maintained this average, but wives' marital satisfaction slightly dropped (but remained within range of average). Overall, marital satisfaction was shown to remain roughly stable. Based in part on Gupta and Singh's (1982) work showing that love increases with duration of marriage in arranged marriage, another hypothesis in the current set of studies was that love will increase with the duration of marriage among arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia. To see if these results would replicate in the Saudi Arabian sample in the current studies, the Love scale was used to measure love in the Saudi Arabian arranged marriage sample. Results showed that the love variable related to marital duration negatively but not significantly. Both husbands and wives start their marriage with an average level of love but, with the duration of marriage, the husbands' love decreases (remaining within range of average), but the wives' love remains stable. So, results of the current study of Saudi Arabian arranged marriages contradict Gupta and Singh's (1982) results According to the findings of this study, it cannot be concluded that arranged marriages showed better marital satisfaction or stronger love than choice marriages. It may be the case that arranged and choice marriages are similar in how love and marital satisfaction progress through the course of the marriage. A longitudinal study could be conducted to determine the similarity or the differences between these two marriage systems.

Predictors of Marital Satisfaction

This study identified numerous predictors of marital satisfaction. Regardless of type of marriage, whether choice or arranged marriage, and apart from the cultural differences between the West and Saudi Arabia, the variables that affected marital satisfaction were the same. Variables that have been shown in Western literature to affect marital satisfaction were also shown to be related to marital satisfaction in Saudi Arabia. Culture differences could be seen in some variables that have not been studied yet in the West, such as relationship with family-in-law. Taking into consideration that Saudi Arabia is a collectivistic culture and the West is an individualistic culture, relationship with in-laws could affect marital satisfaction in Saudi Arabia, but it may be the case that it has little or no impact on marriages in the West. Relationships with mothers-in-law have been studied in Chinese, Korean, and Indian marriages (Baker, 1979; Kim & Nam, 1978; Lee, 1981; Park, 1987; Yoo, 1976; Ko, 1989). This variable is worth investigating in the West to see if it has an influence on marriage.

Another difference that arose in this study came from use of the CBS in the Saudi sample. The Exit, Loyal, Voice and Neglect typology of problem solving, from the original questionnaire, were not found. Instead, PCA revealed three more general types of behaviour – Negative, Positive and Abuse Behaviour. For example, when the sentence "Talking about what's upsetting" was translated and used, participants asked how it was intended. Did it mean talking in a calm way or intense way? The Positive Behaviour factor on the CBS mainly describes a passive way of dealing with things, e.g., suggesting, talking, considering taking advice, accepting partner's faults, patiently waiting, giving partner the benefit of the doubt.

Limitations and Applications

This study has its own limitations. First, it is a cross-sectional study, and it might be more powerful to examine long-term issues, such as marital satisfaction over the course of marriage, using a longitudinal design. It is not common to recruit samples in Saudi Arabia through public announcements or advertisements. So, participants in this study were recruited through a private and a professional sector that had the potential to include a range of people, allowing for a representative sample of the population. Unfortunately, the sample included in the studies presented in this thesis was biased towards a high level of economic wealth and education, which may have, in turn, may have affected the results. A more ideal sample would be more representative of the general population. All the scales that were used

in this study were informative, but the loss of the Attitude towards Family-in-Law scale caused a loss of information. The results of Study 2 showed that there was a positive correlation between the Attitudes towards Mother-in-Law scale and RAS, but there was no significant correlation between the Attitudes towards Father-in-Law scale and RAS. If the scale had been able to be retained in the main study and was shown to be valid, it might have contributed valuable information. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, the concept of attitudes towards and relationships with in-laws has been neglected from research in the West. It could be interesting to see the scale used in the context of choice marriages in Western culture, and then to compare between the Saudi Arabian sample and a more individualistic Western culture. The scale should be modified and developed through future studies, with the goals of examining its psychometric properties, its relationship with marital satisfaction and whether it has a predictive power.

Furthermore, no firm conclusions about the ECR-R and the attachment styles it has been used to measure in other samples can be drawn from the current study. To determine whether Anxiety of Abandonment and Avoidance of Intimacy exist as measurable constructs in Saudi Arabian culture, or whether the results of the ECR-R in the current study were caused by translation of methodological problems, it would be necessary to conduct more research using the ECR-R in Saudi Arabia and perhaps in other Arabic-speaking countries. One possible starting point would be to use the translated ECR-R with a sample of students (who might be more accustomed to the negative working and Likert scale) in Saudi Arabia. If the Anxiety and Abandonment factors are uncovered, then using the students sample would imply that the problem with the scale is due to the more general Saudi Arabian sample having difficulty interpreting the items.

The results of the series of studies presented here might serve as a starting point for further research in marital satisfaction and its predictors among arranged marriages in Saudi Arabia or other countries. The results of this study might inform the development of plans for couples in therapy, advising teaching new conflict skills for wives, for example, whose husbands complain of negative conflict behaviours. Moreover, if a therapist or a couple know that they are dealing with at least one spouse with Secure attachment or Extraversion, they might have a better prognosis for the process of the therapy, because those characteristics are linked to greater marital satisfaction. Conversely, when the personality of the husband or the wife scores high on the Neuroticism scale, this can complicate the therapy, and diverts the aim of the therapy to dealing and working on the personality instead of the behaviours.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Introduction for the battery of scales used in the main study (Arabic)

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الزواج في المملكة العربية السعودية

إن وظيفة الزواج من الأبحاث المهمة في علم النفس. وعلى اية حالة، فان معظم الأبحاث التي تم القيام بها حتى الآن جرت في البلدان الغربية مثل الولايات المتحدة الامريكية أو أوروبا. و بالتالي المعلومات حول الزواج في المناطق الآخرى من العالم هي قليلة جداً، مثل قارة آسيا و الشرق الأوسط و الخليج.

ففي العديد من هذه البلدان وخاصة الخليج مثل المملكة العربية السعودية تقاليد الزواج مختلفة جداً عن البلدان الغربية. و بالتالي يهدف هذا البحث إلى محاولة فهم ماهية الاختلافات في العلاقات الزوجية في السعودية، والعناصر التي تؤثر على الزيجات الطويلة العمر.

سنقدر لك كثيراً اذا ساهمت في هذه الدراسة العلمية بملئ هذا الاستبيان.

جزء من هذه الدراسة، سؤال المتزوجون من الرجال و النساء في السعودية لإكمال هذا الإستبيان. هذه الأسئلة تدور حول مشاعرك، وموقفك، وأفكارك حول نفسك وزواجك. و ستحتاج بين 20-30 دقيقة لاتمام الإستبيان.

\ان يتم حفظ أو جمع اي أسماء، او معلومات تعريفية عن الفرد، كل الاجابات ستكون مجهولة تماماً ولن يتم ربطها بالشخص الذي أجاب عليها. سيتم معالجة هذه البيانات بشكل إحصائي على مستوى مجموعات، وستكون سهلة الوصلة فقط للباحثين الثلاثة الذين اشتركوا في هذه الدراسة.

ستكون هذه الدراسة طوعية بشكل كلي. اذا شعرت في اي مرحلة انك لا تريد اتمام هذا الإستبيان، فلك الحرية بفعل ذلك، بعدها سنتلف النسخة ولن نستخدم البيانات. اذا اتممت واعدت الاستبيان فسنفترض انك وافقت على اخذ دور في هذه الدراسة.

لن يكون باستطاعتك سحب مشاركتك في وقت متأخر لان كل البيانات ستكون قد جمعت بشكل مجهول ولكن نستطيع تمييز اي مجموعة معينة من الإجابات.

إذا كان لديكم اية اسئلة حول الإستبيان او أسئلة معينة، الرجاء لا تترددوا بسؤالي. شكراً جزيلاً على مساعدتك وتعاونك.

Appendix B. Husbands' demographic information

العمر _____

عدد سنوات الزواج _____

كم عدد أطفالك وماهي أعمارهم؟ مجموع عدد الأطفال _____

العمر	الطفل	الجنس
_____	1	ذكر/أنثى
_____	2	ذكر/أنثى
_____	3	ذكر/أنثى
_____	4	ذكر/أنثى
_____	5	ذكر/أنثى

ماهو رقم زواجك الحالي؟ _____

هل سبق لك الطلاق ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐ إذا نعم , كم مره _____

كم زوجه متزوج الأن ؟ _____

أعلى درجه علمية حصلت عليها (الرجاء اختيار المناسب.)

دراسات عليا	جامعي	ثانوي	ابتدائي

أعلى درجه علمية حصل عليها زوجتك (الرجاء اختيار المناسب).

دراسات عليا	جامعي	ثانوي	ابتدائي

هل انت حاليا موظف و تعمل؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

هل زوجتك حاليا موظفه و تعمل؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

مجموع الدخل العائلي (و ليس الفردي).

50000-10000 ريال	10000-5000 ريال	5000-2000 ريال	أقل من 2000 ريال

هل انت حاليا تسكن مع.....

زوجتك ☐

زوجتك و أهل زوجتك ☐

زوجتك و أهلك أنت ☐

هل تزوجت بالطريقة التقليديه نعم ☐ لا ☐ إذا لا لأرجو التوضيح _____

من حيث الأفكار السائدة في مجتمعك عن المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتك مقارنة بالمنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكتك

☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي أعلى بكثير من المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكتي.
☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي أعلى بدرجة بسيطة من المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكتي.
☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي مساوية للمنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكتي.
☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي أقل بدرجة بسيطة من المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكتي.
☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي أقل بكثير من المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكتي.

Appendix C. Wives' demographic information

العمر _____

عدد سنوات الزواج _____

كم عدد أطفالك وماهي أعمارهم؟ مجموع عدد الأطفال _____

العمر	الطفل	الجنس
_____	1	ذكر/أنثى
_____	2	ذكر/أنثى
_____	3	ذكر/أنثى
_____	4	ذكر/أنثى
_____	5	ذكر/أنثى

ماهو رقم زواجك الحالي؟ _____

هل سبق لك الطلاق ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐ إذا نعم , كم مره _____

كم زوجه متزوج زوجك الأن بما فيهم أنت ؟ _____ ماهو ترتيبك بين هؤلاء الزوجات ؟ _____

أعلى درجه علمية حصلت عليها (الرجاء اختيار المناسب.)

دراسات عليا	جامعي	ثانوي	ابتدائي

أعلى درجه علمية حصل عليها زوجك (الرجاء اختيار المناسب).

دراسات عليا	جامعي	ثانوي	ابتدائي

هل انت حاليا موظفه و تعملي؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

هل زوجك حاليا موظف و يعمل؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

مجموع الدخل العائلي (و ليس الفردي).

50000-10000 ريال	10000-5000 ريال	5000-2000 ريال	أقل من 2000 ريال

هل انت حاليا تسكنين مع.....
زوجك ☐
زوجك و أهل زوجك ☐
زوجك و أهلك أنتِ ☐

هل تزوجت بالطريقة التقليديه نعم ☐ لا ☐ أذا لا أرجو التوضيح _____

من حيث الأفكار السائدة في مجتمعك عن المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتك مقارنة بالمنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكك

☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي أعلى بكثير من المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكي.
☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي أعلى بدرجة بسيطة من المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكي.
☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي مساوية للمنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكي.
☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي أقل بدرجة بسيطة من المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكي.
☐ المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرتي أقل بكثير من المنزلة الاجتماعية لأسرة شريكي.

Appendix D. Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)

تخيل 100 من الأزواج يعيشون في زواج مثل زواجك , موجودين على مدرج قياسي, في أقصى عالي الميزان يوجد 5 من هؤلاء 100 من الأزواج الذين يعيشون في منتهى السعادة في زواجهم , و في أقصى نهاية أو أسفل الميزان يوجد 5 من هؤلاء الأزواج الذين يعيشون في أقل سعادة (تعاسة) في زواجهم . أين تضع زواجك على هذا الميزان مقارنة بهؤلاء الأزواج.

1. إلى أي مدي تشبع زوجتك احتياجاتك؟

إلى أقل درجه مثل5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 إلى أكثر درجه مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

2. بشكل عام إلى أي مدى أنت راضي عن زواجك؟

غير راضي مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 راضي مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

3. إلى أي مدت تعتبر زواجك جيد مقارنة بالآخرين؟

سيء مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 جيد مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

4. إلى أي مدى تمنيت أنك لم تكون في هذا الزواج؟

نادراً مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 كثيراً مثل 5% الأقل سعادة

5. إلى أي مدى هذا الزواج حقق توقعاتك؟

إلى أقل درجه مثل5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 إلى أكثر درجه مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

6. إلى أي درجه تحب زوجتك؟

قليلا جدا مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 كثيرا جدا مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

7. كم عدد المشاكل في زواجك؟

قليلا جدا مثل5% الأكثر سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 كثيرا جدا مثل 5% الأقل سعادة

8. إلى أي مدى أنت سعيد بمقدار الحرية و الاستقلالية التي لديك في هذا الزواج؟

غير سعيد مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 سعيد مثل5% الأكثر سعادة

9. إلى أي مدى علاقتك الزوجية مع زوجتك عاطفيه؟

غير عاطفيه مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 عاطفيه مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

10. إلى أي درجه تهتم زوجتك بك ؟

قليلاً جدا مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 كثيراً مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

11. إلى أي درجه زواجك رومانسيا؟

غير رومانسياً مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 رومانسياً مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

12. إلى أي مدى أنت راض عن علاقتك الحميمة في زواجك؟

غير راض مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 راض مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

13. إلى أي درجه تناقش علاقتك الحميمة مع زوجتك؟

قليلا مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 كثيراً مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

14. هل أنت سعيدة بعدد المرات التي تمارس فيها علاقتك الحميمة مع زوجتك؟

غير سعيدة مثل 5% الأقل سعادة 7-6-5-4-3-2-1 سعيدة مثل 5% الأكثر سعادة

Appendix E. Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS)

العبارات	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	أعارض بشدة
1. على أي حال , حياتي قريبه من النموذج الذي كان في بالي.	5	4	3	2	1
2. وضع و ظروف حياتي ممتازه.	5	4	3	2	1
3. أنا راض عن حياتي.	5	4	3	2	1
4. حتى الأن, حصلت على الأشياء المهمة التي أريدها في حياتي.	5	4	3	2	1
5. إذا كنت ساعيش حياتي مرة أخرى فلن أغير منها شيء.	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix F. Attitude towards family-in-law

كل زوج له علاقة خاصة مع أهل زوجته, أرجوا وصف علاقتك مع أفراد أهل زوجتك ذو التأثير, و خاصة علاقتك مع والدة زوجتك, والد زوجتك, أول شخص مهم في عائلة زوجتك له تأثير على حياتك وكذلك إذا كان هناك فرد ثان آخر من عائلة الزوجة.

والدة الزوجة

1. إلى أي درجة تحب والدة زوجتك؟

لا توجد محبه أبدا 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 كثيرا جدا

2. إلى أي درجة أنت قريب من والدة زوجتك ؟

لست قريبا أبدا 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 قريبا جدا

3.إلى أي مدى توجد مشاكل بينك و بين والدة زوجتك؟

لا توجد مشاكل أبدا 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 مشاكل كثيرة

والد الزوجة

1.إلى أي درجة تحب والد زوجتك؟

لا توجد محبه أبدا 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 كثيرا جدا

2.إلى أي درجة أنت قريب من والد زوجتك ؟

لست قريبا أبدا 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 قريبا جدا

3. إلى أي مدى توجد مشاكل بينك و بين والد زوجتك؟

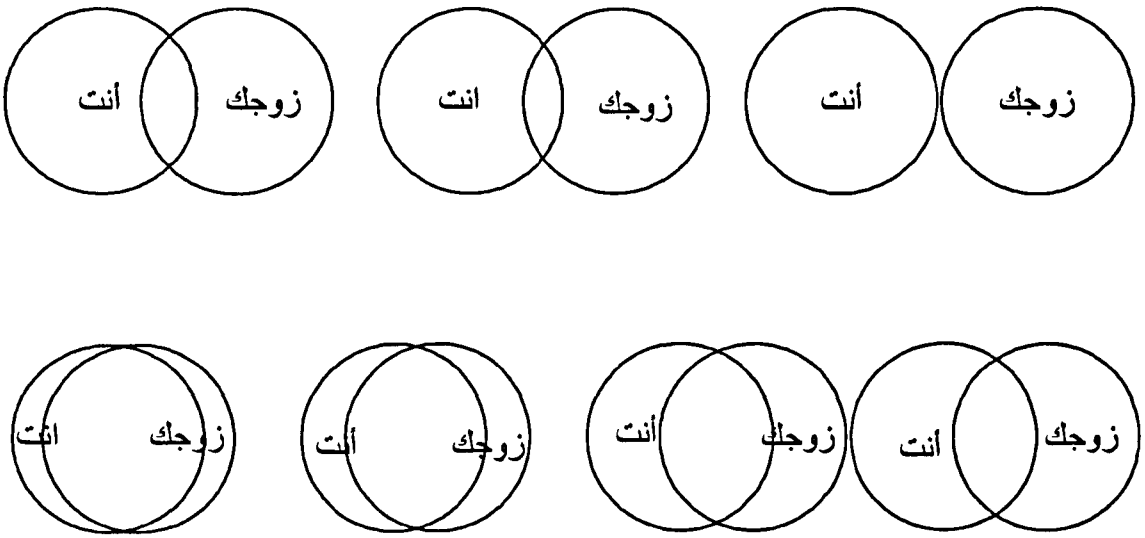
لا توجد مشاكل أبدا 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 مشاكل كثيرة

Appendix G. Relationship Questionnaire (RQ)

	العبارات	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	أعارض بشدة
1.	من السهل علي الاقتراب عاطفياً من زوجتي,كما ارتاح بالاعتماد عليها وان تعتمد علي كذلك, ولا أقلق من فكرة أن أكون لوحدي أو أن لا تتقبلني أحيانا.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	لا أرتاح بالاقتراب من زوجتي, أريد الاقتراب عاطفياً منها بشكل كبير ولكن أجد من الصعب علي الوثوق بها تماماً أو أن أعتمد عليها. أقلق من أن أجرح نفسي إذا سمحت لها بالاقتراب عاطفياً مني.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	أريد أن أكون قريبا من زوجتي عاطفيا بشكل كبير ولكن كثيراً ما أجدها مترددة بالاقتراب مني كما أريد. إنني لا أرتاح عندما لا أكون في علاقة عاطفيه معها, ولكنني أحياناً أخشى أن لا تقدرني زوجتي كما أقدرها.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	أنا مرتاح بعدم وجود علاقة عاطفيه مع زوجتي .من الضروري لي أن اشعر بالاستقلال و بالكفاءة الذاتية , كما أفضل أن لا أعتمد على زوجتي أو أن تعتمد علي	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix H. Inclusion of Others in the Self (IOS) scale

مايلي عبارة عن سبع أزواج من الدوائر أرجو أن تضع دائرة حول الشكل الأفضل الذي يصف علاقتك بزوجتك.



Appendix I. Experience in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) scale

إن العبارات أدناه تصف شعورك تجاه علاقتك ألزوجيه , أجب على كل عباره بوضع دائره حول الرقم من 1-5 الذي يصف لأي درجه أنت توافق أولا توافق على العبارة.

العبارات	لا أوافق ---------- أوافق بشدّه بشدّه
1. أخاف من أن افقد حب زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
2. أفضل أن لا أطلع زوجتي بكيف أشعر في أعماقي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
3. كثيرًا ما أقلق من أن زوجتي لا تحبني فعلاً.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
4. ارتاح عندما أشارك زوجتي أفكاري و مشاعري الخاصة.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
5. مشاعر زوجتي لي بنفس درجة قوة مشاعري لها.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
6. أجد أنه من الصعب علي أن أسمح لنفسي بالاعتماد على زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
7. عندما تغيب زوجتي عن ناظري أقلق من أنها قد تهتم أو تعجب بأحد غيري.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
8. أنا مرتاح جدا بقربي من زوجتي..	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
9 . نادراً ما أقلق من أن تتركني زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
10. لا أرتاح من أن أكون منفتح مع زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
11. لا أقلق كثيراً من إهمالي أو تركي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
12. أفضل أن لا أكون قريب جداً من زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
13. أحياناً تتغير مشاعر زوجتي تجاهي دون سبب واضح.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
14. أصبح غير مرتاح عندما ترغب زوجتي بالاقتراب مني.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
15. أخاف من أنه عندما تعرفني زوجتي أن لايعجبها من أنا فعلا.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
16. من السهل علي تقريباً الإقتراب من زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
17. أحقق توقعات زوجتي مني.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
18. من الصعب علي الاقتراب من زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
19. كثيراً ما أقلق من أن زوجتي لا تريد أن تستمر معي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
20.عادة ما أناقش مشاكلي و اهتماماتي مع زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
21. تهتم زوجتي لي بنفس الدرجه التي اهتم بها لها.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
22. يريحني اللجوء إلى زوجتي فى الأوقات التي أحتاجها فيها.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
23. لا أقلق كثيراً على علاقتي الزوجية .	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
24. أخبر زوجتي تقريباً كل شيء.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
25.أخاف عندما أظهر عواطفي لزوجتي من أن لا تبادلني نفس الشعور.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
26. نادرا ماأتكلم مع زوجتي بشكل منفتح.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
27. زوجتي تجعلني أتشكك في نفسي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
28. أرتبك عندما تقترب مني زوجتي كثيرا.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
29. زوجتي تريد الاقتراب مني بنفس الدرجه التي أريد بها الإقتراب منها.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
30.أرتاح بالإعتماد على زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
31. رغبتي بالإقتراب الشديد من زوجتي تخيفها أحيانا.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
32. من الصعب علي الاعتماد على زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
33. أحصل على العواطف والدعم الذي احتاجه من زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
34. من السهل علي أن أكون حنون و عاطفي مع زوجتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
35. يبدو أن زوجتي لا تلاحظني و تنتبه لي إلا عندما أكون غاضب.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5
36. زوجتي تفهمني فعلاً و تفهم احتياجاتي.	1- 2- 3 – 4 – 5

Appendix J. Love scale

مايلي بعض العبارات التي تصف كيف قد تشعر تجاه زوجتك, أجب على كل عبارة بوضع دائرة حول رقم من 1- 5 لتشير إلى أي مدى توافق أو لا توافق على العبارة.

العبارات	لا أوافق ---------- أوافق بشدّه بشدّه
1. إذا كان زوجتي تشعر بالسوء , فواجبي الأول أن أنعشها.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
2. أشعر أنني أستطيع أن أأتمنها بعدة أمور.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
3. أجد من السهل عليّ أن أتجاهل أخطائها.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
4. ممكن أن أفعل تقريباً كل شيء لأجلها.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
5. أشعر أنها ملكي.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
6. إذا لم أكن معها, فإنني أشعر بالتعاسة.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
7. إذا كنت وحيدا, فان أول فكره تخطر في بالي أن أبحث عنها.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
8. من اهتماماتي الأولية راحتها.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
9. أسامحها عمليا على كل شيء.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
10.أشعر بالمسؤولية تجاه راحتها.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
11. عندما أكون معها, أمضي فتره من الوقت أنظر إليها فقط.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
12. أشعر بالسعادة عندما تأتمنني أو تثق بي .	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
13. من الصعب علي أن أتأقلم من غيرها.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5

Appendix K. Power scale

يحصل بين الأزواج أحيانا , أن أحدهم يظهر بعض التأثير على الأخر. بمرور الوقت قد تعترض زوجتك أو تمنعك من أشياء معينه قد تجدها غير مناسبه. الرجاء أن تضع دائره حول الرقم من 1-5 الذي يصف مدى تكرار منع زوجتك لك من سلوك معين .

هل زوجتك تمنعك من القيام بالأتي؟	أبداً---------- دائما
1. أصدقاء لا تحبهم زوجتك.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
2. الخروج في وقت متأخر ليلا للتسوق, حفلات, أعراس, الخ.....	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
3. التدخين, لعب الورق, الخ.....	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
4. إعطاء مبلغ شهري للأهل,أو للأقارب.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
5. ارتداء الملابس العصريه.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
6. الحصول على وظيفه بغير اذن زوجتك.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5

Appendix L. Decision Making scale

العبارات التاليه تدور حول صنع القرار بشكل عام. الرجاء وضع دائره حول رقم من 1-5 للإشاره الى من يأخذ القرار في الأتي.

من يقرر في الأمور التاليه؟	دائما أنا	بشكل متساوي	دائما زوجتي
1. شراء احتياجات البقاله اليوميه.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5		
2. شراء الأدوات أو الأجهزه المنزليه الغاليه (ثلاجه,..)	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5		
3. الحصول على حساب توفير فردي.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5		
4. تخصيص ميزانيه لاحتياجات المنزل من المدخول العائلي	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5		
5. النشاطات الترفيهيه, مثل (الاجازات, المخيمات, الخ...) .	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5		
6. قبول أو رفض دعوه عائليه لحضور مناسبه.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5		
7. الأشخاص الذين أستطيع أن أصادقهم.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5		
8. عدد الأطفال المرغوب إنجابهم.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5		

Appendix M. Stressful Events scale

مايلي أحداث تحصل قد تسبب ضغوط عند البعض. الرجاء وضع دائره حول "نعم" للأحداث التي حصلت لك خلال 12 شهر الماضيه أو "لا" إذا لم تحدث. إذا أجبت ب "نعم" الرجاء عندها أن تضع دائره حول الرقم المناسب من 1-5 الذي يشير الى مدى ضغوط هذه الأحداث عليك.

العبارات	هل حدث هذا الأمر خلال 12 شهر الماضيه	غير ضاغط أبدا---ضاغط جدا
1. حوادث أو أمراض شخصيه رئيسيه.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
2. مشاكل أساسيه خاصه بالعمل أو المنزل.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
3. مشاكل أساسيه خاصة بمدارس أو تصرفات أطفالكم.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
4. مشاكل ماديه أساسيه.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
5. مشاكل مع أهل الزوجه.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
6. مشاكل أساسيه متعلقه بزملاء العمل أو الجيران.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
7. مشاكل أساسيه متعلقه بتدهور الأحوال الماديه (مثلا الانتقال من منزل الى اخر بسبب تدهور الأحوال الماديه.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
8. مشاكل صحيه أو سلوكيه متعلقه بأحد أفراد الأسره بشكل عام.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
9. تغيرات غير مرغوب فيها سواء في ساعات العمل أو ظروف العمل.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
10. الحصول على قرض كبير.	O لا O نعم ←	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Appendix N. Arguments scale

كل زوجين يختلفان ويتجادلان حول عدة أشياء مثل العمل, الأولاد, الأصدقاء, العادات, الخ.في العبارات التاليه الرجاء الإشاره الى مدى كثرة الخلافات التى تحدث بينك و بين زوجتك حول المواضيع التاليه.

الخلافات على المواضيع التاليه	أبدا---------- كثيرا
1. تعليم أطفالكم.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
2. طرق قضاء أوقات الفراغ معا.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
3. عدد مرات الاتصال او التواصل مع الأصدقاء	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
4. الحريه الشخصيه.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
5. الدِين, التَدَين.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
6. توزيع الدخل العائلي.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
7. طريقة التعامل مع باقي أفراد الأسره.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
8. العادات الشخصيه.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
9. مسؤوليات المنزل.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
10. طرق التعبير عن الحب للزوج.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5

Appendix O. Sexual Satisfaction scale

مايلي بعض العبارات التي قد توافق أو لا توافق عليها, ضع دائره حول الرقم من 1- 5 الذي يصف إلى أي مدى توافق و لا توافق على العباره

العبارات	لا أوافق ---------- أوافق بشدّه بشدّه
1. أنا راض عن علاقتي الحميميه مع زوجتي.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
2. انا و زوجتي نناقش أمورنا الحميمه في العلاقه الزوجيه.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5
3. انا سعيد بعدد مرات ممارسة العلاقه الحميميه مع زوجتي.	1– 2– 3 – 4 – 5

Appendix P. Conflict Behaviour Scale (CBS)

بغض النظر عن مدى اتفاق زوجين بشكل جيد, هناك أوقات يختلفان فيها على كثير من القرارات , ينزعج أحدهما من تصرف الآخر أو يحدث بينهما مشاحنات أو مشاجرات. قد يكون السبب أن أحدهما في مزاج سيء أو متعب أو لأي سبب آخر. كذلك يستخدمان طرق مختلفة لحل هذه الخلافات , مايلي قائمه لأشياء قد يجوز أنك و زوجتك قد قمتما بها عندما كنتما مختلفان. أرجوا منك وضع دائره حول الرقم من 1 – 7 الذي يشير إلى مدى تكرار تصرف معين صدر منك أو من زوجتك خلال السنة الماضية.

	أنت							زوجتك						
عندما يحدث خلاف فإنني و زوجتي نقوم.....	أبداً	مره واحده	مرتان	3 - 5 مرات	6 - 10 مرات	11 - 20 مره	أكثر من 20 مره	أبداً	مره واحده	مرتان	3 - 5 مرات	6 - 10 مرات	11 - 20 مره	أكثر من 20 مره
1. التفكير بإنهاء الزواج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. التحدث بما يزعجنا.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. التكشير بدل امن مواجهة الموقف.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. الانتظار بهدوء حتى تتحسن الأمور.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. مناقشة إنهاء الزواج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. الاقتراح بتغيير بعض الأشياء في العلاقة الزوجيه من أجل حل المشكلة.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. نقد الزوج بأشياء ليس لها علاقة بالمشكلة الحقيقية.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. عدم التعليق ومسامحة الزوج ببساطه.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. القيام بأمور تدفع بالزوج بعيداً.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. اقتراح تنازلات للوصول إلى حل.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. تجاهل الزوج لفترة.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. إعطاء بعض الوقت حتى تهدأ الأمور بنفسها بدلاً من القيام بأي تصرف.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. التحدث مع الزوج بشأن إنهاء الزواج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. الاهتمام بأخذ نصيحة من شخص آخر (صديق, الوالدين, مرشد).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. إمضاء وقت أقل مع الزوج (أقضي وقت أكثر مع الأصدقاء, مشاهدة التلفزيون أكثر, العمل لساعات أطول, الخ)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. تقبل أخطاء الزوج و ضعفه وعدم محاولة تغييره.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. إخبار الزوج بما يزعج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. رفض التحدث عن المشكلة مع الزوج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. إحسان الظن بالزوج, ونسيان الموضوع.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. إهانة أو شتم الزوج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. الخروج من الغرفة أو البيت.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. التهديد بضرب أو رمي شيء على الزوج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. رمي أو تحطيم أو ضرب أو رفس شيء.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. دفع أو الإمساك بقوة بالزوج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. صفع الزوج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. ضرب أو محاولة ضرب الزوج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. ضرب الزوج.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. التهديد بشيء يؤذى.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix Q. The Big Five Inventory

مايلي بعض العبارات التي قد توافق أو لا توافق عليها, ضع دائره حول الرقم من 1- 5 الذي يصف إلى أي مدى توافق و لا توافق على العباره

العبارات	لا أوافق ---------- أوافق بشدّه بشدّه
1. أنا انسان اجتماعي و ودود.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
2 .أنا انسان متحدث.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
3. أحيانا انا انسان خجول, و ممتنع.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
4. أميل لأكون هادئ.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
5. أنا انسان أثق بالأخرين بشكل عام.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
6. أميل لأن أجد الأخطاء في غيري.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
7. أبدأ الخصومات و المجادلات مع الأخرين.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
8. أحيانا أنا فظّ مع الأخرين.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
9. أتابع عملي حتى النهايه.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
10. أفعل الأشياء بإتقان.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
11. أخطط للأشياء و أتابعها.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
12. أميل لأن أكون كسول.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
13. أقلق كثيرا.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
14. أنفعل بسهوله.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
15. ممكن أن أكون مزاجي.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
16. أنا انسان مسترخي, أتعامل مع الضغوط بشكل جيد.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
17. أنا انسان مبدع.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
18. أنا انسان خلاّق, أفكر بأشياء جديده.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
19. أنا فضولي بخصوص الإطلاع على أشياء مختلفه.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
20. أحب العمل ذا الطابع الروتيني.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Appendix R. Three additional items generated and added to the RAS

Item	Strongly Disagree ------- Strongly Agree
1. I am satisfied with my intimate relationship	**1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5**
2. I and my partner discuss our intimate relationship	**1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5**
3. I am happy with number of times I engage in intimate relations with my partner	**1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5**

Appendix S. Items generated for the Attitudes towards Arranged Marriages scale

1. If I have the chance to choose what type of marriage I would have, it will be?

Arranged marriage ☐ Love marriage ☐

2. I would prefer my children to get married through?

Arranged marriage ☐ Love marriage ☐

3. Who do you think are happier in their marriages, couples who are married through?

Arranged marriage ☐ Love marriage ☐

Items	Strongly ---------- Strongly Disagree Agree
4. If my spouse had all the other qualities I desired, I would marry this person if I was not in love with him.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
5. There are some positive aspects to choice marriage.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
6. Couples who marry by love marriage are happier in the long run.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
7. The traditional marriage system is superior to any other.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Appendix T. Items generated for the Status scale

How social status of your family of origin (your parents) compared to the family of origin of your husband (your parents in law)

☐ Social status of my family is much higher than the social status of my spouse's family.
☐ Social status of my family is slightly higher than the social status of my spouse's family
☐ Social status of my family is equal to the social status of my spouse's family
☐ Social status of my family is slightly lower than the social status of my spouse's family
☐ Social status of my family is much lower than the social status of my spouse's family