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factors, and marital satisfaction**

**Wallace, Thomas Claude, Ph.D.**

**Andrews University, 1989**

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Andrews University  
School of Education

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MORAL JUDGMENT,  
SELECTED PERSONALITY FACTORS,  
AND MARITAL SATISFACTION

A Dissertation  
Presented in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Philosophy

by  
Thomas C. Wallace

June 1989

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MORAL JUDGMENT,  
SELECTED PERSONALITY FACTORS,  
AND MARITAL SATISFACTION

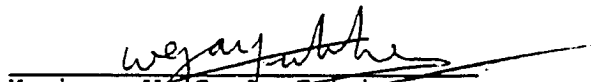
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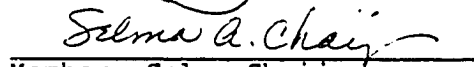
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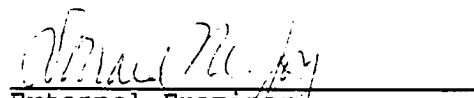
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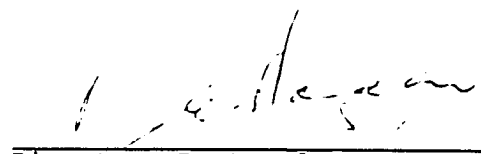
  
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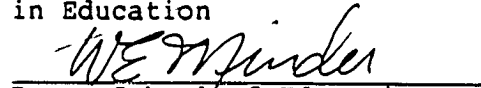
  
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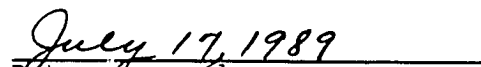
  
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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MORAL JUDGMENT,  
SELECTED PERSONALITY FACTORS,  
AND MARITAL SATISFACTION

By

Thomas Claude Wallace

Chair: Donna J. Habenicht, Ed.D.

ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE RESEARCH

Dissertation

Andrews University

School of Education

Title: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MORAL JUDGMENT,  
SELECTED PERSONALITY FACTORS, AND MARITAL  
SATISFACTION

Name of researcher: Thomas Claude Wallace

Name and degree  
of faculty advisor: Donna J. Habenicht, Ed.D.

Date completed: June, 1989

Problem

The purpose of this study was to observe  
relationships between moral judgment, personality, and  
marital satisfaction.

Method

The population included all white, American,  
married couples whose religious orientation was Church of  
Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints, Seventh-day

Adventists, or United Methodists. A total of 264 subjects (132 married couples) completed a demographic questionnaire, the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), the Defining Issues Test (DIT), and the California Psychological Inventory (CPI). Data were analyzed using multiple-regression analysis and analysis of variance. The influence of stage of family life cycle, educational achievement level, and religion were controlled.

### Results

Means and variances for the DAS and CPI resembled normative data. DIT means, however, were more than one standard deviation below normative data. Overall results showed that subjects who scored above the sample mean in norm-favoring (CPI) were more satisfied in marriage (DAS) than those who scored lower. Subjects who scored in the lowest one-third of the DIT obtained the highest marital satisfaction scores. Subjects who scored in the top one-third of the DIT obtained the lowest marital satisfaction scores.

Husbands who scored above the sample mean in self-realization scored higher in marital satisfaction. Fathers of young children scored higher in marital satisfaction if they also scored above the sample mean in norm-favoring. Fathers of teenage children scored higher in marital satisfaction if they tended to be extraverted.

Wives who scored above the sample mean in norm-favoring scored higher in marital satisfaction. Wives who had no more than a high-school education tended to be less satisfied in marriage if they scored higher than their husbands in moral judgment.

### Conclusion

Husbands tend to be more satisfied in marriage when they are free of neurotic trends, mature, insightful, optimistic, and have a wide range of interests. Wives tend to be more satisfied in marriage when they are well-organized, conscientious, conventional, and dependable. Wives who have no more than a high-school education tend to be much more satisfied in marriage if the husband's level of moral judgment is equal to or higher than their own.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	v
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Statement of the Problem . . . . .	4
Purpose of the Study . . . . .	6
Research Questions . . . . .	7
Theoretical Framework . . . . .	7
Cognitive Development . . . . .	7
Cognitive Development in Marriage . . . . .	8
Personality in Marriage . . . . .	9
Family Life Cycle . . . . .	10
Moral Judgment and Marital Adjustment . . . . .	10
Importance of the Study . . . . .	11
Delimitation of the Study . . . . .	12
Assumptions . . . . .	12
Definition of Terms . . . . .	13
Organization of Study . . . . .	16
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	17
Marital Satisfaction . . . . .	18
Interactive Variables in Marital	
Satisfaction Research . . . . .	23
Objectivity in Marital Satisfaction	
Research . . . . .	39
Moral Judgment . . . . .	42
Marital Satisfaction and Moral Judgment . . . . .	44
Moral Judgment and Religion . . . . .	45
Education and Moral Judgment . . . . .	48
Personality and Marital Satisfaction . . . . .	49
Summary . . . . .	55

III. METHODOLOGY . . . . .	57
Type of Research . . . . .	57
Population and Sample . . . . .	57
Instrumentation . . . . .	60
Dyadic Adjustment Scale . . . . .	60
Defining Issues Test . . . . .	64
California Psychological Inventory . . . . .	67
Procedures . . . . .	70
Null Hypotheses and Statistical Analysis . . . . .	73
Research Question 1 . . . . .	73
Research Question 2 . . . . .	75
IV. FINDINGS. . . . .	80
Description of the Population . . . . .	80
Correlations among the Variables . . . . .	90
Testing the Hypotheses . . . . .	90
Hypotheses tested by regression analysis . . . . .	90
Hypotheses tested by analysis of Variance . . . . .	98
Summary . . . . .	150
V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . . . .	152
Summary . . . . .	152
The problem . . . . .	152
Literature . . . . .	153
Purpose . . . . .	156
Methodology . . . . .	157
Findings . . . . .	158
Discussion . . . . .	169
Conclusions . . . . .	177
Recommendations for Further Study . . . . .	178
APPENDICES . . . . .	180
A Correspondence . . . . .	181
B Request for test results . . . . .	186
C Data matrix . . . . .	188
REFERENCES . . . . .	196
VITA . . . . .	209

## LIST OF TABLES

1.	Reliability Data for CPI Vectors . . . . .	70
2.	Frequency Distribution for Stages of Family Life Cycle . . . . .	83
3.	Frequency Distribution for Religion . . . . .	83
4.	Frequency Distribution for Educational Achievement . . . . .	84
5.	Educational Level of U.S. White Population . .	84
6.	Group Means for Marital Satisfaction, Moral Judgment, and Personality . . . . .	85
7.	Dyadic Adjustment Scale Results Compared to Spanier's Married Group . . . . .	85
8.	Moral Judgment and Religious Affiliation . . .	87
9.	Intercorrelation Matrix . . . . .	92
10.	Summary for Correlation of DIT, P Index, Religion, Family Life Cycle, and Education to Dyadic Adjustment Scale . . . . .	95
11.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Various Levels of Moral Judgment at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	102
12.	Analysis of Variance for Various Levels of Moral Judgment at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	103
13.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Internality at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	105
14.	ANOVA for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Internality at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	106

15.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	108
16.	ANOVA for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	109
17.	ANOVA for Subjects at the High School Level at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences and Above and Below the Mean for Norm-favoring . . . . .	110
18.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	114
19.	ANOVA for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	115
20.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Husbands at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	117
21.	Analysis of Variance for Husbands at Various Levels of Moral Judgment at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	118
22.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Internality at Each Level of Control Variable . . . . .	120
23.	ANOVA for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Internality at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	121
24.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	123
25.	ANOVA for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	124

26.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variable . . . . .	127
27.	ANOVA for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	128
28.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	131
29.	ANOVA for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	132
30.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Internality at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	134
31.	ANOVA for Wives at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences by Internality at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	135
32.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	138
33.	ANOVA for Wives at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	139
34.	ANOVA for Wives With College Degrees at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences and Above and Below the Mean for Norm-favoring . . . . .	141
35.	Marital Satisfaction Means for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	144
36.	ANOVA for Wives at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables . . . . .	145

37.	ANOVA for Wives With no Children at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences and Above and Below the Mean for Self-realization . . . . .	147
38.	ANOVA for Methodist Wives at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences and Above and Below the Mean for Self-realization . .	149
39.	Variables Which Account for Higher Marital Satisfaction for Both Spouses at Various Levels of the Control Variables . . . . .	170
40.	Variables Which Account for Higher Marital Satisfaction for Husbands at Various Levels of the Control Variables . . . . .	171
41.	Variables Which Account for Higher Marital Satisfaction for Wives at Various Levels of the Control Variables . . . . .	172

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Marital satisfaction is a pivotal determinant of family stability. Rising divorce rates reflect a need for exploration of alternative perspectives regarding factors influencing the marital relationship (Garrett, 1982, p. 423). Various theoretical models focus upon different aspects of marital and family concerns. Theoretical perspectives of marital and family therapy include psychodynamic models, experiential/humanistic models, the Bowen model, the structural model, the communication model, and behavioral models (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1985). Each model addresses specific needs (variables) within the marital relationship. The following briefly summarizes currently accepted models for marriage and family therapy.

In the psychodynamic model, therapy focuses upon the backgrounds and experiences of each family member as well as the family as a unit. A basic assumption in the psychodynamic model is that the degree to which an individual is still attached to the past is a factor in

present marital satisfaction. A couple's marital distress is related to the pathogenic introjects each partner brings to the relationship.

The experiential/humanistic models are essentially nontheoretical and nonhistorical. Action is stressed over insight or interpretation. Therapeutic goals consider growth through interactions between the family members and the therapist.

The primary focus of the Bowenian model is the concept of differentiation of self. Emotional health of the family is established by marital partners with similar levels of differentiation, where differentiation refers to the ability to discriminate intellectual from emotional functioning. Those who portray the greatest difficulty in differentiation function most poorly emotionally and become dysfunctional even under low stress levels.

The structural model is similar to the experiential/humanistic model by stressing action over insight or understanding. All behavior is observed within the family structure. Therapy concentrates upon demonstrations of typical conflict situations and reframing the problem as a function of the family structure.

The communication model provides for very direct intervention. Information is offered to encourage families to change patterns and rules.

The behavioral model of marital and family therapy approaches remediation from data-based intervention procedures. Positive and negative reinforcement, shaping, extinction, and social learning are among therapeutic techniques designed to confirm functionality of the family.

These models focus upon affective, behavioral, and structural aspects of the marital relationship. However, marriage is a dynamic progression of sequential stages (Burr, 1970) which may also include cognitive and moral development. The median age for marriage is 24.2 years of age for men and 21.8 years of age for women (Garrett, 1982, p. 152), while the process of moral development continues further into adulthood (Rest, 1979, p. 106).

Moral maturity may be viewed as a component of general intelligence. In a review of 52 correlations, Rest (1979, p. 147) observed that there appears to be a moderate correlation between the Defining Issues Test (a measure of moral judgment) and intellectual aptitude and achievement. Eighty-three percent of the correlations ranged from the .20s to the .50s. Verbal subtests were not more highly correlated with the Defining Issues Test

(DIT) than the nonverbal subtests, thus suggesting that the relationship between intellectual aptitude and the DIT is a "common general factor of intelligence."

Vines (1979) submitted a view of marital conflict as a function of dissonance in stages of moral development achieved by marriage partners. Subsequently, Nims (1984) conducted research which tended to support Vines' theory. Differences in moral-development scores between married couples were supportive of marital satisfaction for the spouse who revealed deficits in moral judgment. Peterson, Hey, and Peterson (1979) suggested the existence of a relationship between one's stage of moral development and choice of marital partner and/or satisfaction with the partner over the life cycle.

#### Statement of the Problem

Research findings are inconsistent in determining the extent of relationship between marital satisfaction and moral judgment. Register (1975) did not observe significant correlation between the Kohlberg Moral Maturity Scale (MMS) and the Locke-Wallace Short Marital Adjustment Test (MAT). However, Deters (1983) studied the relationship between moral judgment (using the DIT) and marital adjustment (using the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test [MAT]) among Catholics and reported a

significant zero-order correlation which accounted for 17% of the variance of marital satisfaction. He was unable to replicate the results in a sample which included a multiplicity of religions, suggesting an interaction effect of religion upon the relationship between moral judgment and marital satisfaction.

Nims (1984) also examined the relationship between marital satisfaction and moral development utilizing the Defining Issues Test (DIT) and the MAT. He did not find statistical significance between spouses' moral judgment scores and their marital adjustment scores. Wives scoring above the median on the Defining Issues Test (DIT) revealed greater marital satisfaction than those below the median on the DIT. However, if the wife scored below the median on the DIT, she enjoyed greater marital satisfaction if her husband scored above the median on the DIT (Nims, 1984).

The observed inconsistencies in the zero-order correlation between marital satisfaction and moral judgment in previous studies suggest existence of extraneous interacting variables, in addition to possible differences in measures and populations. Two variables include religion (Deters, 1983) and the influence of the husband's moral judgment upon the wife's marital satisfaction (Nims, 1984). Locke (1947), in a preliminary report of a study of adjustment in marriage, concluded

that marital satisfaction was highly correlated with happiness of parents' marriages, length of acquaintance, conventionality, and sociability. These findings demonstrate the influence of family trends and personality.

Lifton (1985) studied sex, gender, and personality variables related to moral development. Moral judgment correlated positively with social introversion and social identity.

Previous studies have not considered stages of family life cycle as a possible interacting variable. Burr's (1970) results, for example, demonstrated consistently depressed satisfaction in social activities, tasks, companionship, sex, children, and the way families were handled during the "school age" phase of the family life cycle, the period of time when the oldest child was between ages 6 and 12.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to observe relationships between moral judgment, personality, and marital satisfaction. The influence of stage of family life cycle, educational achievement level, and religion were controlled.

### Research Questions

When the variables of the family life cycle, religion, and education are controlled, the following questions emerge:

1. Is there a relationship between moral judgment, personality, and marital satisfaction?

2. Do differences between spouses in moral judgment and personality explain differences in marital satisfaction?

Null hypotheses are found in Chapter 3.

### Theoretical Framework

#### Cognitive Development

Piaget (Rychlak, 1981, p. 669) viewed life as a continuing interaction of assimilation and accommodation with the environment. "Assimilation" referred to the taking in of the surrounding environment while "accommodation" accounted for the readjustment of behavior as a result of the assimilated experience. Equilibrium maintained between assimilation and accommodation accounted for how well the individual was adjusted. As the individual became better skilled in assimilating and accommodating, cognitive development occurred. Motivation for improved cognitive development was not present, however, unless there was disequilibrium between

assimilation and accommodation. As the individual experienced cycles of disequilibrium, assimilation, and accommodation, higher levels of structures developed.

Rest (1979, p. 111) reported several studies which consistently agreed that educational achievement is significantly correlated with moral development. Age, however, did not correlate well. Application of Piaget's theory of cognitive development would suggest that the formal educational process is an assimilation process which creates disequilibrium. Moral judgment is most likely a process of accommodation to the disequilibrium created by formal education. Consequently, educational achievement must be considered in order to adequately observe cognitive variance for moral judgment.

#### Cognitive Development in Marriage

Marriage not only requires assimilation, accommodation, and equilibrium for one individual, but is subject to major adjustments by two individuals. Marriage and family are natural social systems which possess properties all their own. Within these systems evolve rules, roles, a power structure, forms of communication, and ways of negotiation and problem solving which allow tasks to be performed effectively (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1985, p. 17). If one or both

partners have not satisfactorily developed the necessary cognitive structures to fluctuate between disequilibrium and equilibrium, the system of the relationship risks dysfunction (Peterson, Hey, & Peterson, 1979).

### Personality in Marriage

Personality variables have been identified which relate to marital satisfaction. Pickford, Signori, and Rempel (1966) employed the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey to compare three groups of married couples designated as happily married (Group A), having trouble (Group B), and on the verge of separation (Group C). Higher scores on the objectivity, friendliness, and personal relations traits were associated with marital happiness in men, but the trait of emotional stability was more important for marital happiness in women than in men.

A number of studies have shown that neuroticism, impulse control, and conscientiousness are important considerations in predicting marital happiness. These studies and the three largest longitudinal studies of marital satisfaction (Terman, 1938; Burgess & Wallin, 1953; Kelly & Conley, 1987) are discussed further in Chapter 2.

### Family Life Cycle

Normal family development incorporates a predictable process over the family life cycle (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1985, p. 17). Circumstances arising at any phase of the family life cycle have forceful leverage upon relationships in subsequent categories. Goldenberg and Goldenberg (1985, p. 21) stress the need to face new tasks and learn new adaptational techniques at each phase of the family development. Successful adaptation at any phase is dependent upon the family's mastery of the tasks required by the previous phase.

### Moral Judgment and Marital Adjustment

Mastery of problem solving is a key assumption in Kohlberg's cognitive-developmental theory of moral development. The development of higher levels of moral judgment as an adult task is illustrated by Kohlberg's findings of increased moral judgment scores well into adulthood (Kohlberg, 1976). Cycles of assimilations and accommodations simultaneously influencing early phases of the family life cycle and latter stages of moral development suggest that relationships exist between marital adjustment and moral judgment.

This study seeks to test the theory that moral judgment and personality are related to marital satisfaction. Due to a large number of influences upon the

marital relationship, relationships may not be directly observable without accounting for certain variables which may influence the results. In order to observe the relationships, the stage of the family life cycle, religion, and educational achievement must be controlled. In other words, the influences of the stages of the family life cycle, religion, and educational achievement are related to both moral judgment and marital satisfaction to such an extent that their influences must be removed before the relationship may be adequately studied. The theoretical basis for this study states that, once the influences of these extraneous variables are removed, moral judgment and personality are important factors in marital happiness.

#### Importance of the Study

The marital relationship is the most intimate relationship in adult life. When children reach a certain age, they differentiate themselves from the family of origin in order to establish new dimensions of their own identity. The process precipitates change with every member of the immediate family. In spite of changes brought about by birth, maturation, or absence of children, married partners normally continue in a special one-to-one relationship. For the greatest degree of happiness, it is important that all aspects of

the special relationship remain intact. This research expands understanding of how the newly defined orthogonal personality vectors defined in the revised California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1987) relate to marital satisfaction. In addition, this research increases knowledge of marital relationships by observing the function of moral judgment within the marital relationship.

#### Delimitation of the Study

Since family structures vary with different ethnic, religious and cultural groups (Axelson, 1985, p. 241), the sample under study was delimited to White American married couples who attended the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints, the Seventh-day Adventist Church, or the United Methodist Church. The present marriage of these couples was the first marriage for both spouses who were parents. Previous relationships were acceptable to the study providing the subject did not procreate prior to the present marriage. Interpretation of the results should be restricted to this population.

#### Assumptions

The following assumptions were made for the purpose of this study:

1. It was assumed that the subjects understood the instructions of the various instruments used in this study and possessed the appropriate reading and writing skills necessary to respond to the research instruments.

2. It was assumed that the subjects provided valid and reliable responses essential for the analyses.

3. Two of the religions (LDS and SDA) which were chosen for study were assumed to be conservative.

4. It was assumed that the tests reflected the subjects' true opinions about social issues, personality, and marital satisfaction.

#### Definition of Terms

The following terms used in this study are defined as follows:

Dyadic Adjustment. Within the context of this study, dyadic adjustment refers to the amount of ease with which a married couple interact and function with each other.

Extraversion. Extraversion describes individuals who are predominantly outgoing, confident, talkative, and have social poise and presence (Gough, 1987, p. 18).

Family Life Cycle. The family life cycle is a sequence of characteristic stages beginning with family formation and continuing through the life of the family to its dissolution (Duvall & Miller, 1985, p. 21).

Stages of family life cycle as used in this study are defined in Chapter 3.

Internality. Internality identifies a personality scale of the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1987). Subjects who score high on internality are viewed as introverted. Those who score low on internality are viewed as extraverted.

Introversion. Introversion describes individuals who are predominantly reticent, shy, reserved, moderate, modest, and reluctant to initiate or take decisive social action (Gough, 1987, p. 18).

Marital Adjustment. Marital adjustment is synonymous to dyadic adjustment.

Marital Relationship. Marital relationship is synonymous to marriage.

Marital Satisfaction. Marital satisfaction is synonymous to dyadic adjustment.

Marriage. Marriage refers to a monogamous, dyadic relationship between one man and one woman (Duvall & Miller, 1985, p. 6). It is a relationship recognized by society which provides for sexual relations, legitimizes childbearing, and establishes a basic system for a family.

Moral Development. Moral development is the nature and course of development of an individual's basis for making moral decisions. Kohlberg has defined a predictable sequence by which individuals develop which further expands Piaget's theory of moral development (Kohlberg, 1976).

Moral Judgment. Moral judgment refers to the underlying cognitive organization of thinking which is the basis for decisions. Such cognitive organization develops through a definite succession of transformations (Rest, 1979, p. 7, & Kohlberg, 1976).

Norm-favoring. Norm-favoring describes individuals who tend to be seen as well-organized, conscientious, conventional, dependable, and controlled (Gough, 1987, p. 19).

Norm-Nonfavoring. Norm-nonfavoring describes individuals who tend to be seen as rebellious, restless, pleasure-seeking, and self-indulgent (Gough, 1987, p. 19).

Orthogonal Personality Factors. Orthogonal personality factors refer to personality variables which are essentially unrelated to each other. The present study includes two orthogonal personality factors which have been defined through factor analyses of the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1987, p. 16). The two factors include measures of internality

and norm-favoring. A third factor, self-realization, correlates  $-.17$  with internality and  $-.18$  with norm-favoring.

Self-realization. Self-realization describes individuals who are relatively free of neurotic trends and conflicts, moderate, mature, insightful, optimistic, and have a wide range of interests (Gough, 1987, p. 20).

#### Organization of Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 presents the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, the research questions, theoretical framework, importance of the study, delimitation of the study, assumptions, and definition of terms. Chapter 2 contains a survey of the literature pertaining to marital relationships and moral development. Chapter 3 defines the procedures used for the selection of the sample. Also included in chapter 3 is a discussion of methodology employed in data collection and statistical analysis. Chapter 4 presents an analysis of the data and interpretation of findings. Chapter 5 discusses the findings and includes conclusions and recommendations.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Three areas of the literature are considered in Chapter 2: (1) marital satisfaction, (2) moral judgment, and (3) personality and marital satisfaction. The section on marital satisfaction first reports some of the major studies which serve as historical guides within the marital satisfaction literature and ends with a review of the major topics over the past 10 years (1979-1988). This is followed by a review of problems encountered by attempting objectivity in the self-reporting of marital satisfaction. This section closes with a discussion of variables which are known to be related to marital satisfaction and may interact with other correlates.

The second major section of the chapter reviews the literature related to moral judgment. First is a review of Kohlberg's theory of moral judgment, its basis in Piagetian theory of cognitive development, and how the theory is applied in current research. Second, past research relating moral judgment and marital

satisfaction is reviewed. The third section includes a review of studies which relate moral judgment to religion. The final section is a review of studies which relate moral judgment and level of educational achievement.

The third major section of the chapter includes a review of the most comprehensive study to be undertaken on the relation between personality features and marital compatibility. The latter part of this section includes a review of the major studies involving personality and marital satisfaction over the past 10 years (1979-1988).

#### Marital Satisfaction

In spite of concentration on marital satisfaction by the research community, continued evidence is present of a decline in the positive relationship between married subjects and happiness (Glenn & Weaver, 1988). However, while the concept of marital satisfaction continues to be widely explored, significant questions regarding the definitive values of marital satisfaction research have been presented and discussed (Hansen, 1981). Attempts by researchers to ascertain the levels of marital satisfaction and to anticipate the success of marriage go back to the earlier part of this century and continue today. An example of marital research during the early part of this century was reported by Terman

(1950). Terman cited Patterson's findings which were reported in The Journal of Delinquency in 1922.

Patterson stated that there was no greater tendency for marital difficulties among subjects who were married before 20 years of age than among those who married later in life.

Hart and Shield (1926) attempted to compare 500 couples who suffered from marital discord and who appeared in the Philadelphia Court of Domestic Relations to a random sample of 500 couples who applied for marriage licenses. The independent variable was age. They concluded that couples who married under the age of 20 years were at greater risk of divorce than those who waited until they were older. In fact, the risk was 2 to 10 times greater than for older couples. It is interesting to note that the Patterson study and the Hart and Shield study were both conducted with Philadelphia subjects.

Burgess and Cottrell (1939) conducted a large-scale study of marital adjustment. In addition to responding to questions which addressed marital adjustment, the subjects also disclosed information which pertained to premarital background of both spouses and attitudes and experiences which had surfaced subsequent to marriage. Couples were also asked to rate the happiness of their marriages. Burgess and Cottrell

found socialization, conformity to social rules, and respect for convention to be important in preparing a person for adjustment in marriage (p. 346).

The three largest longitudinal studies of marital satisfaction have been conducted by Terman (1938), Burgess and Wallin (1953), and Kelly (Kelly & Conley, 1987). Locke was a contemporary researcher during these early investigations into marital satisfaction. His studies are reported in chronological sequence with the longitudinal studies (1947).

Terman's (1938) study of marital adjustment examined the relationship between sexual factors, personality, and marital adjustment. He concluded that happily married men tend to be more conservative than unhappily married men (p. 163). This appeared to be especially true in the areas of sexual morality and religious attitudes.

In a study of 925 married and divorced subjects, Locke (1947) compared marriages which ended in divorce with marriages considered to be most happy. He observed that 41% of the divorced men, as compared to 23.8% of the married men, did not belong to a church. Among women, 28.6% of the divorced women and 14.9% of the married women did not belong to a church. He concluded that affiliation with a church was associated with marital adjustment. He also reported that the longer an

individual attended Sunday School as a child, the greater were the chances of marital success later in life. Those who terminated Sunday school attendance too early were more closely associated with the divorced group. Forty-six percent of the men in the divorced group never attended church as compared to 15% of the married men. Thirty-nine percent of the women in the divorced group had never attended church as compared to 15% of the happily married group of women. Locke concluded that church attendance was a major factor in marital adjustment. His conclusions were consistent with earlier researchers who proposed that conventionality, sociability, and stability of persons provide the elements for a happy marriage (Burgess & Cottrell, 1939, p. 346).

Burgess and Wallin (1953) deviated from research designs of previous studies by beginning with engaged rather than married couples. After completing the initial questionnaires, the engaged couples were followed three to five years later to ascertain the predictiveness of the premarital testing. Burgess and Wallin (1953) reported mild correlations between emotional health before marriage and marital adjustment scores after three to five years of marriage.

The most comprehensive analysis to be undertaken is the Kelly Longitudinal Study (KLS). This continuing

longitudinal study (Kelly & Conley, 1987) encompasses both marital stability and marital satisfaction for 300 couples over a period of 45 years and is still continuing. Further discussion of the KLS follows later in this chapter, since it focuses upon measures of personality within the marital relationship.

Although each of the landmark studies reviewed above presents a unique contribution to the understanding of marital satisfaction, each also tends to present common elements which involve personality variables and social background influences. The following studies are a review of the literature pertaining to marital satisfaction for the past 10 years.

Central to the question of marital satisfaction is the issue of personal happiness. Wilson and Wilson (1977) described family adjustment as related to successful involvement with people. Costa and McCrae (1980) carried the concept further by examining the relationship between personality and happiness or subjective well-being. They noticed that happier people are well-adjusted, high in ego strength, high in self-esteem, and socially involved. Their proposed model of the relationships between personality and happiness included extraversion and sociability as contributing toward positive affect. Even though these researchers found a positive relationship between extraversion and

happiness in general, extraversion did not appear to relate in the same manner with marital satisfaction.

### Interactive Variables in Marital Satisfaction Research

Schumm, Hess, Bollman, and Jurich (1981) and Schumm and Kirn (1982) expressed a need to attend more carefully to the manner in which family social scientists integrate theory, measurement, and statistical analysis in research. They noted that studies fail many times because adequate attention had not been given to variables which may interact with the independent and dependent variables. Three variables are discussed in view of their potential to mask true relationships within the study through variable interaction. These variables include stage of family life cycle, religion, and educational achievement.

#### Family Life Cycle

Duvall and Miller (1985, p. 26) suggested eight stages through which a family typically progresses: The beginning family (I) is a married couple without children. Childbearing families (II) include families whose oldest child ranges from birth to 30 months. Families with preschool children (III) identifies the group which includes an oldest child who is between 30 months and 6 years of age. Families with school children (IV) have

the oldest child between 6 and 13 years of age.

Families with teenagers (V) are those with the oldest child between 13 and 20 years of age. From the time the first child leaves home until the last child leaves is called the launching period (VI). Families in the middle years (VII) include the years after the children have left until retirement. Aging families (VIII) include the time from the beginning of retirement until the death of both spouses.

Burr (1970) randomly sampled and interviewed 116 intact couples. He originally defined the family life cycle levels consistent with Duvall's definition (Duvall & Miller, 1985, p. 26). However, when the sample was divided according to Duvall's levels, several categories were very small. For this reason, Burr collapsed the childbearing and preschool stages (stages II and III) into one stage. His results demonstrated consistently depressed marital satisfaction in social activities, tasks, companionship, sex, children, and the way finances were handled during the "school age" phase of the family life cycle. The most abrupt overall changes seem to be from the preschool stage to the school stage when there is a discernible drop for both husbands and wives in satisfaction in most of the areas. Perhaps the most interesting finding in the Burr study was that on every measure, husbands were less happy in the pre-child

stage than the stage where there were preschool children in the home. The lowest levels of marital satisfaction appeared to be at the school-age stage for both husbands and wives. The adolescent stage was also troublesome.

Burr's overall findings revealed that there is no methodical decline over the life cycle in satisfaction with the six areas of marriage studied. Furthermore, there appears to be a slight increase in several of the areas. This phenomenon appears to be due to the increase in marital satisfaction in most areas during the post-parental and retirement stages.

Ryder (1973), in a longitudinal study which included 112 married couples between the ages of 18 and 27 when first married, defined three groups: (1) Childless couples, (2) Child couples, and (3) Pregnant couples. The purpose was to study marital dissatisfaction and love sickness during the early stages of marriage. He administered measures of marital dissatisfaction and love sickness. The marital dissatisfaction scale was actually the Locke-Wallace Short Marital Adjustment Test (1959) scaled in the negative direction. His measure of lovesickness consisted of 32 items, such as, "I wish my spouse paid more attention to me." Data revealed that women who have a child become more likely to report that their husbands are not paying enough attention to them.

Overall, the three groups did not differ in marital dissatisfaction. Wives who had a child tended to be more "love sick." They felt that their husbands did not pay adequate attention to them. Closer examination of Ryder's data revealed that the highest "love sick" mean was actually among pregnant wives. Even though Ryder did not observe differences among the three groups in marital dissatisfaction, the following study suggests there is additional stress upon the marital relationship during pregnancy.

Snowden, Schott, Awalt, and Gillis-Knox (1988) studied marital satisfaction in a sample of 106 women recruited at a military medical center. The average age of the participants was 24.66 years. Eighty percent were white and 20% were of other racial groups, predominantly black. Nearly all subjects (92.6%) had completed high school and 11.8% had graduated from college. Nearly half of the subjects had given birth to children previously. Most husbands (90.4%) were enlisted military personnel. The women were evaluated both early and late in pregnancy. Stress upon the marital relationship became apparent during pregnancy. Additionally, first-time parenthood and participation in religious activities appeared to be associated with marital satisfaction. In view of these findings, "love

sickness" as described by Ryder (1973) may have actually come into existence during pregnancy.

Many researchers have investigated the relationship between the family life cycle and marital satisfaction. Studies supporting the curvilinear relationship between family life cycle and marital satisfaction have been reported by Campbell (1972), Corrales (1974), Lee (1978), Boles (1984), Otero de Sabogal (1984), and Hunt (1985). The following studies present varying opinions regarding the importance of one stage of family life cycle over the other in the marital relationship.

Anderson, Russell, and Schumm (1983) first reported a significant but slight relationship between family life cycle and marital satisfaction. Upon reexamination, however, Schumm and Bugaighis (1986) reported that the decline in marital satisfaction during the middle stages of the family life cycle can be explained as the result of the impact of preschool children on a specific group of low income mothers. Their results indicated a severe source of distress for a small group of wives rather than a mild problem for all wives.

Other researchers placed much more emphasis upon the influence of family life cycle in relationship to marital satisfaction. In general, Rollins and Feldman

(1970) observed family life cycle experiences to be more associated with wives than with husbands. Feelings about marital interaction and the dependent children were issues associated with negative feelings about marriage by wives. Rollins and Cannon (1974) suggested that a theory of role strain during the middle years would explain the curvilinear relationship. Their study revealed that marital satisfaction was favorable upon entry into marriage; however, there was a general depression in satisfaction during the years in which the couple was raising children. Satisfaction appeared to increase conspicuously after the children left home. Similar findings were reported by Anderson (1983).

Abbott (1983) also observed greater marital satisfaction among women who had no children compared to women with children. He studied four categories: mothers with infants (2 years and younger), mothers with preschool children (3-5 years), mothers with both infant and preschool children, and wives with no children. He found that differences between mothers and childless wives were primarily observed among mothers who have two children and mothers who have male children. Mothers with female children, especially those with female infants, reported no significant differences in marital adjustment and emotional quality of the home environment when compared with the childless wives.

Steinberg and Silverberg's (1987) study of 129 couples focused upon the reduced level of marital satisfaction during the stage when children are in the teen years. They suggested that two factors which tend to have a negative influence upon marital satisfaction include distancing in the father-son and mother-daughter relationships and wives' concerns about midlife identity issues.

Researchers have not been unanimous in their endorsement of curvilinearity in the relationship between marital satisfaction and the family life cycle. Spanier, Lewis, and Cole (1975) set out to ascertain whether a curvilinear relationship provides a least-squares regression curve which explains variance better than a linear regression line and to determine the significance of the relationship. Three coordinated studies in Ames, Iowa; Newark, Ohio; and Classic County, Georgia; were conducted. Their results were mixed. The Ohio study revealed a curvilinear relationship. However, the Georgia and Iowa studies were not significantly curvilinear. They observed that linear interpretation accounted for more variance than the curvilinear.

Research data can be misinterpreted, however, when the family life cycle is not considered in marital satisfaction research. Luckey (1966) attempted to observe relationships of personality and marital

satisfaction with age and number of years married for the respondent and the respondent's spouse. Her subjects included 80 married couples who had been married from 2 to 21 years, averaging 7.7 years. The men in her study ranged from age 26 to 46, with a mean of 31.9 years. Women's ages ranged from 26 to 41 years, with a mean of 29.5 years. She discovered a number of personality traits which were positively correlated with marital satisfaction. These included such traits as being well liked by others, self-confidence, independence, modesty, gracefulness and appreciativeness, cooperativeness, and responsibility. With the exception of being friendly and sociable, all personality traits were negatively correlated with number of years married and age. Subjects appeared to see fewer socially desirable personality characteristics in their mates the longer they were married.

This study is best interpreted in view of the total family life cycle. In considering the ages and number of years married, it becomes apparent that the study only represented approximately half of the family life cycle. It has been observed, even though other studies have not fully agreed, that marital satisfaction and family life cycle tend to have a curvilinear relationship. It is likely in the Luckey study that none of the subjects had completed the launching period

(if they had even begun). Furthermore, if Luckey would have included retired couples in her sample and excluded young, childless couples, her results might have yielded a positive correlation between marital satisfaction and age. Furthermore, if she would have included the complete family life cycle, she might have observed no correlation. The study, in its present form, pictures marriage as an experience to avoid. Obviously, such conclusions are not supported in the general literature.

### Religion

Religion, as a variable considered to possibly interact within the present study, is defined denominationally (e.g., Latter Day Saints, Seventh-day Adventists, and Methodists). In the literature, however, religiosity, the intensity of the religious experience, is a more commonly discussed variable than denominationalism. Because the study of religiosity exceeds the scope of the present study, the following studies are presented only as illustrations of studies which have examined relationships between religiosity and marital satisfaction.

Hunt and King (1978) illustrated how religion was multidimensional in its relationship to marital satisfaction in their study of 17 variables within their definition of a religious construct. Six of the

religiously defined variables related to marital satisfaction. These included positive beliefs about religion, greater effort, more religious participation, more agreement about religion, greater tolerance, and higher extrinsic motivation toward religion.

Religiosity was viewed by Wilson and Filsinger (1986) in terms of religious rituals, knowledge, experiences, consequences, and beliefs. In their study of 190 married couples, religiosity appeared to be generally related to marital satisfaction where religious rituals, experiences, and beliefs are concerned. Religious consequences appeared to relate to marital satisfaction for husbands more than wives.

As observed by Snowden, Schott, Awalt, and Gillis-Knox (1988) in their study of 106 wives of military personnel, religious participation appeared to have a small positive influence upon marital satisfaction during pregnancy. Earlier studies, however, help to clarify the relationship between religion and marital satisfaction.

Thomas and Henry (1985) suggested that there was an expressed movement to link religion and family studies in the early 1950s which seemed to end in the early 1960s. The movement appears to have revived during the early 1980s. The revival, however, appears to bring with it an attitude which is generally more

open to investigation than the earlier movement in the 1950s. D'Antonio, Newman, and Wright (1982) observed that only one of the 57 family texts which they surveyed contained a chapter on religion, and only two religious texts published before 1978 had a chapter on the family.

Evidence of this "revival" of religious investigation within marriage and family studies was apparent in a study by Schumm, Bollman, and Jurich (1982). They specifically referred to the studies conducted by Edmonds (1967) and Edmonds, Withers, and Dibatista (1972) which viewed the observed relationship between religiosity and marital satisfaction as "spurious artifacts of the common contamination of such measures with social desirability." Glenn and Weaver (1988) supported the argument to discount the importance of observed relationships between religious variables and marital happiness. Schumm, Bollman, and Jurich (1982) found evidence within their samples that religiosity correlated with marital satisfaction among subjects who did not respond high in conventionality. Thus the stage was set for reinvestigation of religiosity within the marital relationship.

Hatch (1985) observed that church attendance and frequency of prayer did not individually and significantly contribute to marital satisfaction. Religious beliefs and shared devotional times between

husband and wife, however, appeared to be significantly related to the marital satisfaction of seminary couples in her study. She discovered that a change in religiosity that did not nurture emotional intimacy might not have an effect upon marital satisfaction. Such findings suggest that religiosity (i.e., the intensity of the religious experience) and the interacting variables which relate to intimacy appear to be more closely related to marital satisfaction than merely church membership or church attendance. Similar findings were reported by Brown and Annis (1978).

Baxter (1982) found that denominational affiliation makes no difference in marital adjustment. Bahr and Chadwick (1985) also found no difference between Catholics and Protestants. However, there was a significant difference between those who reported a church preference and those who did not. They also discovered that couples who attended church at least monthly tended to marry and stay married more than those who did not. The following study (Heaton, 1984), however, provides evidence of differences between religious orientations as well as differences in marital satisfaction when spouses subscribe to same or different religions.

Heaton (1984) reported a positive relationship between religious homogamy and marital satisfaction. He

reported the ratio of respondents who acknowledged being very happy to those who reported being pretty happy or not too happy for each combination of husbands' and wives' religion. He found that homogamous marriages tended to report greater marital happiness than heterogenous marriages. Among the homogamous groups, the Jewish group revealed the highest ratio for both husbands and wives, while the lowest ratio for marital happiness was observed among the group which did not subscribe to a religion.

Deters (1983) provided the most convincing argument in favor of controlling religion in a study which correlated moral judgment with marital satisfaction. A relationship between the variables was not observed until he controlled for religion. When he observed the relationship only among his Catholic subjects, he discovered that moral judgment accounted for 17% of marital satisfaction.

The literature regarding the relationship between moral judgment and religion is still not well defined. There is general agreement that religion is multidimensional (Brown & Annis, 1978). However, there is disagreement regarding denominational effects of religion upon the marital relationship. Studies conducted by Baxter (1982) and Bahr and Chadwick (1985) seem to indicate that church attendance versus no church

attendance relates to marital satisfaction, but they observed no denominational differences. Heaton's (1984) study, however, suggested that denominational differences are present. All of the investigators seem to agree that there is a difference in marital satisfaction between religiously oriented homes and nonreligiously oriented homes. In view of Deters' findings, however, where a relationship between moral judgment and marital satisfaction was only observed when religious denomination was controlled, religion appears to be interactive between the two variables. Since Deters' findings have advanced more understanding of the relationship between moral judgment and marital satisfaction than any other study to date, religion may be considered an important interacting variable.

#### Educational Achievement

In a discussion of homogamy of education for married couples, Garrett (1982, P. 126) reported that the historical tendency across several generations of American marriages has been toward a high degree of educational homogamy between marriage partners. In more recent times, however, educational homogamy has been reduced. This difference appears to have become more observable during the 1960s when the age at marriage was going down. It has become apparent that, although

marital partners have achieved different educational levels when they marry, one or both of the marital partners may plan to seek an academic degree later. In the early part of this century, men and women tended to complete formal education before marrying. This pattern does not seem to be practical or desirable today. In summarizing current trends in coordinating educational achievement with marriage, Garrett (1982, p. 127) observed Hogan's (1978, 1980) findings that men who alter the normal life-cycle transition of schooling, followed by the first employment and then marriage, have a higher rate of divorce than normal.

Houseknecht, Vaughan, and Macke (1984) observed a high rate of separation and divorce among highly educated women in the United States. In their study of 663 women graduates, they discovered that marital disruption tended to follow the women's attempt to combine a family and a career. Disruption often occurred before the women completed their education. The educational experience appeared to produce a considerable amount of tension in marriages. They observed marital disruptions to be more likely among women who begin graduate studies after marriage rather than before. The authors point out that wives whose husbands are unwilling to support the wife's career advancement tend to find it more difficult to progress

in the career. These researchers suggest that Hogan's findings of the "education, job, marriage" sequence most likely applies to women's experience as well as men's.

In a random sample which included 10% of all divorces granted in California in 1977, Maneker and Rankin (1985) studied the relationship between age at marriage and educational levels for husbands and wives with duration of marriage. Educational levels were defined by five groups: eighth grade or less, ninth to eleventh grades, twelfth grade, one to three years of college, and four or more years of college.

Surprisingly, they discovered the longest duration of marriage before the divorce was within the group with eight or fewer years of education. The second longest duration included the group with four or more years of college. The other groups followed with shorter marriages before divorce. This curvilinear relationship between educational achievement and length of marriage before divorce seems to contradict the hypothesis that longer duration of marriage is positively associated with higher educational levels. Even though these findings are available for divorced couples, the question of the relationship between educational achievement and marital satisfaction for healthy and stressful marriages remains.

### Objectivity in Marital Satisfaction Research

Perhaps the most profound criticism of marital satisfaction research relates to measures of marital quality which are so tainted by social desirability and conventionality that their value is questioned. Edmonds (1967), one of the early critics of attempts to measure marital satisfaction, defined conventionalization as "the extent to which a person distorts the appraisal of his marriage in the direction of social desirability." In other words, there is a tendency to pretend something is the situation with minimal interest as to whether it is true or not. Edmonds developed long and short scales measuring conventionalization in marriage composed of items to which respondents answered either "true" or "false", relying upon whether the statement was applicable to them, their spouse, or their marriage. The statements were worded in such a manner that the conventional response to each was too perfect to be regarded as possible. The following is an example of a conventional true-false statement: "My mate completely understands and sympathizes with my every mood." Fifty statements were included in the Marital Conventionalization Scale. Edmonds, Withers, and Dibatista (1972) reported correlations between marital conventionalization and marital adjustment of .63, .53, and .70, with the Locke-Wallace short form scale of

marital adjustment (Locke & Wallace, 1959). They asserted these results demonstrated contamination in the Locke-Wallace Short Marital Adjustment Test. They concluded that the respondents tended to mislead themselves and others into believing their marriages were better than what they really were.

Since failure or unhappiness in marriage is considered by many to be a disgraceful experience, respondents who are sensitive to social desirability would be reluctant to admit to marital difficulties. Such a tendency to conceal marital unhappiness would probably not be normally distributed in the population. It would probably be most prominent among respondents who feel a strong need for being considered socially acceptable or presenting themselves in a socially desirable manner. The question arises, "Do the marital adjustment instruments measure the respondent's actual happiness or do they inform the researcher of the degree of happiness thought to be socially correct?" In his study of 48 married couples, Hawkins (1966) administered the Marlowe-Crown Social Desirability Scale (M-C SD) and the Locke-Wallace Short Marital Adjustment Test. The M-C SD items all represented behaviors or feelings which are considered extremely desirable in American culture, but which are unlikely to occur. Some of the items come from the MMPI "lie" scale. The Locke-Wallace Short

Marital Adjustment Test (1959) is a highly reliable measure of marital adjustment. Hawkins found negligible correlation between the two instruments and concluded that negligible contamination of marital satisfaction by social desirability was present.

In an effort to eliminate confusion regarding the effects of marital conventionalization and social desirability upon self-reported marital adjustment scales, Hansen (1981) actually contributed greater confusion. He questioned the validity of Edmonds' true/false format on the Marital Conventionalization (MC) Scale (Edmonds, 1967). In replicating the study, he offered the true/false format as well as a forced-choice format. Results surprisingly yielded correlation coefficients of .648 (males), .629 (females), and .636 (total) using the true/false format and correlation coefficients of .734 (males), .787 (females), and .762 (total) using the forced-choice format. All correlations were significant at the .001 level. There appears to be a rather strong tendency for respondents to distort the appraisal of their marriage in the same direction as the actual adjustment of the marriage. This did not appear to be contaminated, however, by the respondent's perception of social desirability separately from perception of the quality of his/her marriage. Furthermore, it did not suggest that marital

adjustment measures are contaminated by conventionality to the point that they must not be used. It simply means that a self-reporting measure of marital satisfaction is not an unbiased measure of the construct. Fortunately, however, the bias appears to be in the same direction as adjustment, thus avoiding complication by interaction.

### Moral Judgment

The three major theories of morality include Kohlberg's cognitive developmental theory (Locke, 1986), Haan's interactive theory (Haan, 1986), and Hogan's socioanalytic theory (Lifton, 1985). The cognitive developmental theory, which dominates the literature and is fundamental to the present study, is the only theory discussed in this literature review. It was based upon Piaget's studies of moral development of children (Piaget, 1965) and may be summarized under four major points. First, an individual has an underlying cognitive structure with which to interpret moral issues. Second, Piaget viewed the child's first experience of social rules as an heteronomous morality followed by autonomous morality. Heteronomous morality typifies a child's thinking until about 10 years of age. Rules are of primary importance and consequences of an act determine guilt regardless of the intentions of the

individual. Autonomous morality is observed in children 11 years of age and older. The older children consider rules to be flexible. Intentions are considered in determining guilt. The third issue referred to the concept of justice in moral development. Rest (Rest, 1979, p. 20) viewed Piaget's concepts of fairness and justice as opinions about the balancing of individual interests and the benefits of cooperation. Piaget's fourth point reflected a fundamental reorganization of an individual's behavior and thinking as development progressed from heteronomous to autonomous morality.

Kohlberg (1976) defined three levels of moral judgment which were expressed in six stages of reasoning. Level I (preconventional) includes stages 1 and 2. Stage 1 reasoning reveals heteronomous morality which typifies moral reasoning to avoid punishment. Stage 2 reasoning recognizes the interests of others. Moral actions reflect mutuality of interest.

Level II (conventional) consists of stages 3 and 4. Stage 3 moral judgment relates to social expectations, trust, loyalty to society, and gratitude. Stage 4 considers the social system and conscience. In stage 4 reasoning, laws and rules are to be upheld except in those few cases in which the laws or rules conflict with other social duties.

Level III (postconventional) incorporates stages 5 and 6. Stage 5 reasoning considers social contract or utility and individual rights. The individual whose modal preference is at stage 5 is aware of a variety of values and opinions held by others. Rules are relative to the larger group. Stage 6 reasoning exemplifies universal ethical principles. When laws infract upon the individual's principles, the person reasons in accordance with the principle.

#### Marital Satisfaction and Moral Judgment

Several attempts have been made to observe a relationship between marital satisfaction and moral judgment. Register (1975) did not observe a correlation between the Kohlberg Moral Maturity Scale (MMS) and the Locke-Wallace Short Marital Adjustment Test (MAT). Nims (1984) also examined the relationship between marital satisfaction and moral development utilizing the Defining Issues Test (DIT) and the MAT. Even though he failed to find statistical significance between spouses' moral-judgment scores and their marital-adjustment scores, wives scoring above the median on the Defining Issues Test (DIT) revealed greater marital satisfaction than those below the median on the DIT. However, if the wife scored below the median on the DIT, her marriage tended to be more satisfying to her if her husband

scored above the median on the DIT (Nims, 1984). Nims suggested stage of family life cycle should be controlled in subsequent studies.

Much is yet to be learned about the influence of religion upon moral judgment, since religion appears to be multidimensional. However, Deter's (1983) results suggest that religion may be an interactive extraneous variable when observing relationships and differences in moral judgment and marital satisfaction. He studied the relationship between moral judgment and marital adjustment among Catholics and reported a zero-order correlation which accounted for 17% of the variance of marital satisfaction. He was unable to replicate the results in a sample which did not control for religion.

#### Moral Judgment and Religion

Kohlberg (1967, p. 180) originally found no differences in moral judgment due to religious belief. He further noted that children go through the same stages at much the same rate when social class and village-urban differences are held constant. He appeared to have extended his theory beyond his ability to test, however, when he theorized (Kohlberg, 1967, p. 180) that moral action is not justified in terms of conformity to God or to the religious community. Conforming to the religious community may be tested by

objective measures. However, in this study it is assumed conformity to God surpasses any researcher's capacity for observation. An error of such magnitude, however, does not diminish the value of Kohlberg's concept of sequential developmental stages of moral judgment, although it may affect the stage responses of individuals who think in terms of conformity to God.

Ernsberger and Manaster (1981) found differences among denominations in moral judgment. Unitarian-Universalists scored the highest on the Defining Issues Test (DIT) (mean = 51.9), while the Conservative Baptists scored lowest (mean = 31.4). United Methodists and Missouri Synod Lutherans fell in the middle (means = 40.4 and 40.6, respectively). They concluded that their findings challenged Kohlberg's assertion that religious variables have little effect on moral judgment. Such a conclusion appears to be an overstatement. These findings may challenge Kohlberg's statements regarding the rate and extent of moral judgment among different religions. However, the study does not dispel the concept of sequential stages of moral judgment for different religions.

Rest (1979, p. 115) reported striking differences in moral judgment scores between the liberal and conservative church groups. Individuals who attend liberal churches tend to score higher in moral judgment

than those who attend conservative churches. Congregations varied according to the official thinking of the church. Interpretation of these results is speculative at best. One view suggested that conservative churches with well-defined codes or standards may not tolerate experimentation in the presence of cognitive disequilibrium, thus creating a cognitive impoverishment. Another view, which is consistent with the Social Learning perspective, suggests that these findings are due to imitation of the moral judgments of others within their respective groups. Sapp's (1986) study of 1,270 active members of six major denominations supported the concept of differences in moral judgment between different denominations. He concluded that if denominations were ranked on a fundamental-to-liberal theological continuum, increases in DIT scores would follow the continuum.

O'Gorman (1979) explored the relationship of religious knowledge and moral judgment. Both Catholic and non-Catholic high school students who had higher religious knowledge scores also had higher DIT scores. Childerston (1985) discovered that religiosity was related to one's level of moral judgment, and personality type may be one factor which contributes to the maintenance of an ideological commitment.

Subjects from different religious denominations apparently respond differently to moral judgment testing. There is no evidence in the literature, however, suggesting there is a difference in developmental sequencing for individuals of different religions. The predictability of the developmental sequence appears to be consistent regardless of religious orientation. The only developmental differences appear to be in extent and rate of development. Even these concepts may be related more to religiosity than to religion.

#### Education and Moral Judgment

Formal education is highly associated with development in moral judgment (Rest, 1988). In studying the relationship between education and moral judgment among school-age children, the question of age as a meaningful variable is an issue. Rest (1979, p. 111) reviewed four independent studies which examined the relationship between education and moral judgment among adults. These studies were conducted by Dortzbach (1975), Coder (1975), Crowder (1976), and Rest (1977). A 10-point average increase in DIT scores appears with each increase in the level of education (high school, college, graduate school).

Dortzbach (1975) randomly selected an adult sample from the Eugene, Oregon, voter registration lists and

administered the DIT. His results indicated that moral judgment was more highly correlated with education than age. Coder (1975), Crowder (1976), and Rest (1977) found similar results in their respective studies of subjects in a religious education program, volunteers from a naval base, and subjects randomly selected from the Minneapolis, Minnesota, telephone book. Moral judgment appears to increase as educational level increases.

#### Personality and Marital Satisfaction

Kelly and Conley (1987) described two major theoretical perspectives on the problem of marital compatibility. The first position suggests intrapersonal causes of compatibility and is most accepted among psychoanalysts. In the intrapersonal theoretical perspective, the personality characteristics of the marriage partners influence the stability and contentment of the relationship. They noted that neuroticism has historically been the most often identified source of marital instability.

The second viewpoint involves interpersonal sources of compatibility and is most favored among behaviorally oriented marriage therapists. Dysfunctioning marriages are seen as dysfunctional behavioral exchanges that are typified by high ratios of punishments to rewards. The spouses are viewed as

lacking in basic social skills and more likely to react to and reciprocate the inappropriate behavior of the other partner.

To Kelly and Conley (1987) these two perspectives on marital compatibility are not mutually exclusive. They also consider high levels of neuroticism of either partner to result in dysfunctional behavioral exchanges. They consider high levels of neuroticism on the part of either partner to be related to a conflictual physiological connection and the establishment of dysfunctional cognitive and behavioral patterns. This view has been supported by other researchers. For example, Vaillant (1978) reported a strong relationship between psychopathology and poor social adjustment as well as low levels of marital adjustment.

In the Kelly Longitudinal Study (KLS), stability and satisfaction were analyzed both separately and in combination. Personality, social background, and attitudes before marriage were assessed. The findings of the KLS portray the most exhaustive analysis yet to be published during the present century regarding the relation between personality characteristics and marital satisfaction (Kelly & Conley, 1987). The subjects in this study were chosen by E. Lowell Kelly between 1935 and 1938 for a study of marital compatibility. Three hundred couples were followed from their engagements in

the 1930s until 1980. All were volunteers who had been recruited through newspaper and other advertisements. At the time of entry, 90% of the subjects lived in Connecticut or a neighboring state. The mean IQ for the subjects was 113. Ninety-four percent of the subjects ranged between 20 and 30 years of age at the time of entry into the study. All were white. In 1980, the median age of the subjects was 68 years. Sixty-nine percent specified they were Protestant, 9% Catholic, 7% Jewish, and 15% reported no religious affiliation.

Major data collections took place during 1935-38, 1954-55, and 1980-81. Annual reports were provided by the subjects from 1935 to 1941. Data collection was disrupted in 1941 due to World War II.

The major findings of this study have shown that men who divorced late in life differed from the stably married group in having higher levels of neuroticism and social extraversion and lower levels of agreeableness. They were also inclined toward closer families of origin and more premarital sexual activity. The only difference between the women who divorced late in life compared to stably married women was a higher level of neuroticism in the divorced women. Women who divorced late in life were similar to women who divorced early in life in sexual attitudes and behavior. For both sexes, there was a positive correlation between parental

divorce and one's own divorce. The relationship did not reach statistical significance for either men or women, however.

Marital satisfaction among intact marriages was negatively related to neuroticism for both sexes. Impulse control was positively related to marital satisfaction in both sexes in the 1980 data. The level of tension found in the family of origin negatively predicted marital satisfaction for men. Findings were different for women. The psychosocial instability of their original family and their preadult nonconformity to social ideals negatively predicted marital satisfaction among women. The number of stressful life events experienced during early adulthood was a negative predictor of marital satisfaction for both sexes. Favorable attitudes toward conventional order in the family was a major predictor of marital satisfaction for men. Premarital romantic and sexual involvements were negative predictors of marital satisfaction for both men and women. Frequent sexual intercourse was a positive predictor of marital satisfaction.

For men who were divorced or dissatisfied in a stable marriage, neuroticism was considerably higher than among men who were satisfied in their marriages. Among women, the divorced group was higher in

neuroticism than either the satisfied or dissatisfied stably married group.

Three personality characteristics predicted approximately 15% of the variance for a composite measure of marital compatibility. These included husband's neuroticism, wife's neuroticism, and husband's impulse control. The overall predictability of marital compatibility for prenuptial characteristics of the spouses included 24% of the variance. Sexual history variables accounted for 9% of the variance. Results similar to the KLS have been observed by Terman (1950) and Burgess and Wallin (1953).

Other studies have revealed a positive relationship between neuroticism and marital dysfunction. Neuroticism seems to point toward a number of behaviors which are seen in troubled marriages. Findings from Billings (1979), Margolin and Wampold (1981), and Gray-Little and Burks (1983) suggest that distressed couples tend to use more coercive control techniques in the relationship than couples in a healthy relationship. Noller (1980) reported distressed couples tend to make more misinterpretations of basic communications than nondistressed couples. A strong relationship between psychopathology and poor social adjustment has been found to relate to poor marital adjustment (Vaillant, 1978). Additionally, Markman

(1981) identified unrewarding communication patterns during the premarital period as predictive of low levels of marital satisfaction in a five-year longitudinal study. Furthermore, findings of Bentler and Newcomb (1978) identify impulse control and conscientiousness of the husband as predictive of marital happiness.

Eysenck (1980) interviewed and administered the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire to 1,500 married or divorced men and women. He found extraversion to be related to divorce among men. Eysenck suggests the phenomenon may be explained by the tendency for extraverted men to be more promiscuous. The comparison was made between 35 male divorced spouses and 326 male married spouses. Even though the comparison was significant ( $p > .05$ ), a replication of the study would be advisable. He further observed that divorces were more frequent among the psychiatrically abnormal (high psychoticism, high neuroticism), especially among the women.

Personality variables have been identified which relate to marital satisfaction. Pickford, Signori, and Rempel (1966) employed the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey in comparing three groups of married couples designated as happily married (Group A), having trouble (Group B), and on the verge of separation (Group C).

Higher scores on the objectivity, friendliness, and personal relations traits were associated with marital happiness in men, but the trait of emotional stability was more important for insuring marital happiness in women than in men.

### Summary

Based upon the literature reviewed, there appears to be a need to expand upon previous studies which have attempted to discover a relationship between moral judgment and marital satisfaction and to compare the relationship with other measures of personality which have been shown to relate to marital satisfaction. The literature is quite clear, however, that there are certain variables which are influential, including stage of family life cycle, religion, and education. Burr (1977) and others demonstrated the influence of the stage of family life cycle on marital satisfaction.

The literature is not consistent regarding the influence of different religious denominations on the marital relationship. Bahr and Chadwick (1985) discovered no differences in their study. However, Heaton (1984) observed differences in marital satisfaction among different religious denominations. There is general agreement, however, that moral judgment is

different among different religions (Ernsberger & Manaster, 1981).

Moral judgment is highly associated with education (Rest, 1988). For this reason, the present study examines the relationship between moral judgment and marital satisfaction within defined ranges of educational achievement. Without restricting educational variance, a false positive relationship may be observed.

The most influential personality variables which appear to relate to marital satisfaction include, but are not limited to, neuroticism for both spouses and impulse control for men (Kelly & Conley, 1987). These findings appear to be well accepted and cross-verified by other studies. Such findings, of course, have greatly influenced therapeutic intervention. For this reason, it is necessary to include a measure of personality within the present study to compare with moral judgment in relating to marital satisfaction.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### Type of Research

This research used a correlational design to explore relationships among marital satisfaction, moral judgment, and three personality factors (internality, norm-favoring, and self-realization) and an ex post facto design to study differences on these variables with respect to the stage of family life cycle, religion, and educational achievement.

#### Population and Sample

The population under study included white, American, married couples whose religious orientation included Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints, Seventh-day Adventists, and United Methodists. The marriage at the time of data collection was the first marriage for both spouses if children were involved. Previously married individuals were included in the study providing the subject did not procreate prior to the present marriage. The purpose was to avoid data

contamination which might occur from unique issues relating to stepchildren.

The sample included married couples representing designated stages of family life cycle and educational achievement. Sources of respondents included local church groups within communities in Washington, Utah, and Oklahoma. Educational achievement was controlled at four levels: (1) attended and/or graduated from high school, (2) attended college (but did not graduate), (3) graduated from college, (4) completed graduate education (i.e., M.A., Ph.D., M.D., etc.). Due to the extensive testing involving both spouses, random sampling was not considered an economical option. A purposive sampling procedure was applied.

Hypotheses requiring multiple-regression analysis apply to respondents as individuals (not couples). Using Cohen's formula (Cohen, 1977, p. 439) for defining sample size in multiple-regression analysis, 122 subjects were required for a power of .80 with five variables at a projected alpha level of .05 when the researcher seeks to explain 10% or more of the population variance. Even though only four independent variables are involved, power was estimated by including the control variables which were introduced into the data analysis.

As regression analysis depends upon the correlation matrix, it is essential that this matrix be considered stable. For this purpose, Kendall (1975, p. 11) recommends a minimum of ten persons per variable. As the sample was divided into four family life cycle stages with four variables involved, a total of  $4 \times 40$  subjects (160) were needed. Hypotheses requiring analysis of variance apply to respondents as individuals and as married couples. The largest number of cells in the two-way analysis of variance is 12 ( $a = 3$ ,  $b = 4$ ). Using Winer's (1962, p. 220) formula for defining power and assuming equal cell sizes of ten married couples per cell, power was estimated to be greater than .99 when alpha equals .05. Cell sizes were not equal. Thus power was reduced somewhat from the stated value. In considering both types of analysis, it was apparent that a sample size of 80 married couples would be appropriate.

Since it was not feasible to sample all levels of all combinations of the control variables (religion, family life cycle, & educational achievement), sample size was based upon designated stages of family life cycle.

### Instrumentation

Three instruments were used to measure marital satisfaction, moral judgment, and personality. Marital satisfaction was measured by the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Spanier, 1976). Moral judgment was measured by the Defining Issues Test (DIT) (Rest, 1979).

Personality was measured by the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (Gough, 1987). Three personality factors were defined in the CPI and were used in this study.

These factors include internality, norm-favoring, and self-realization. Each of these instruments is described in detail below.

#### Dyadic Adjustment Scale

##### Description

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale is a well known and highly reliable measure of marital adjustment (Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha is .96) (Spanier, 1976). Thirty-two objective concepts relating to dyadic adjustment are contained in the instrument. Scores for the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) range from 0-151. The scale is two pages in length and can be completed by most people in only a few minutes.

The instrument is designed in the form of a Likert scale containing six ordinal categories which include: "Always Agree," "Almost Always Agree,"

"Occasionally Disagree," "Frequently Disagree," "Almost Always Disagree," and "Always Disagree" (Spanier, 1976).

### Development

In developing the scale, the researchers identified items used in previously developed scales measuring marital adjustment or a related concept. Their search yielded a pool of approximately 300 items (Spanier, 1976). All duplicate items were eliminated from the pool of items. Three judges other than the principal investigator examined the items for content validity.

The remaining 200 items contained several new items which the researcher chose to include. The questionnaire was administered to a purposive sample of 218 married persons in central Pennsylvania. The sample consisted primarily of middle-class residents who worked for one of four industrial or corporate firms which agreed to participate in the study. In addition, questionnaires were mailed to every person in Centre County, Pennsylvania, who had obtained a divorce decree during the 12 months preceding the mailing. Four hundred divorced persons were located. Ninety-four responded.

The researcher analyzed frequency distributions for each item and eliminated all items with low variance

or high skewness. Questions which appeared to contain alternative wording, structure, or category were examined in greater detail. The items with lesser variation were eliminated.

Spanier then analyzed the remaining variables using a t-test for significance of difference between means of the married and divorced samples, as described above. Items with the lowest t-value were eliminated. Forty items remained.

The remaining 40 items were then factor analyzed. This resulted in the elimination of 8 additional items which had low factor loadings, leaving 32 items.

Content validity was established by evaluation of the instrument by three judges. Items were included which were (1) relevant measures of dyadic adjustment for contemporary relationships, (2) consistent with the nominal definitions established by Spanier (1976) for adjustment and three factors including satisfaction, cohesion, and consensus, and (3) accurately worded with proper fixed-choice responses. Some of the items included in the instrument are found in previously developed scales. Other items have been modified from other scales, and others were developed specifically for this scale (Spanier, 1976).

Even though Spanier identified four oblique subscales, Sharpley and Cross (1982) were unable to

replicate the findings by repeating the factor analysis on a new sample. For this reason, the subscales were not applied in the present study. Total scale internal reliability was .96, exactly replicating Spanier's findings.

The correlation between the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test and the DAS was .86 among married respondents and .88 among divorced respondents ( $p < .001$ ). The instrument was administered to a sample including 218 married persons and 94 recently divorced persons. Each of the 32 items correlated with the respondent's marital status. Each item differed beyond the .001 level of significance using a t-test for assessing differences between sample means. The mean total scale score was 114.8 for the married group and 70.7 for the divorced group.

Subsequent factor analysis was applied to define four interrelated scales including dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus, and affectional expression. These four scales were not used in the present study due to a lack of replicability (Sharpley & Cross, 1982).

### Scoring

The respondent is asked to mark the appropriate box "to the approximate extent of agreement or

disagreement between you and your partner for each item." Values are assigned in a directional manner from 0-5. A respondent's total score is the sum of the values.

### Defining Issues Test

#### Description

The DIT was developed by James R. Rest in 1974 based on Kohlberg's theory of moral judgment. It contains six stories portraying moral dilemmas. A list of 12 questions or statements relating to the dilemma follows each story. The P score is the sum of the weighted ranks given to Stage 5A, 5B, and six items. It is the most widely used index of the DIT.

The M score is a measure of sophisticated but meaningless items. It does not represent any stage of thinking but measures the subject's tendency to subscribe to statements for their pompousness rather than meaning. Rest (1986a) suggests discarding a protocol with an M score of 8 or greater.

He also described the D score as an overall index of moral judgment which uses information from all stages rather than from only Stage 5 and 6 items. If the subject gave high ratings to the high stage items, his score was higher than if he gave high ratings to low stage items. In some studies the D score has exhibited

superior performance to the P index. Other recent studies, however, have not demonstrated consistent superiority to the P index. For this reason, Rest recommends the use of the P and D indexes. The correlation between the P and D scales was .78 on a sample of 1,080 subjects.

The instrument is designed to be used by individuals or groups who are capable of reading at least as well as an 11-year-old child (Rest, 1986). Because of the heavy dependence upon reading skills, its use is limited among minority groups and subjects whose first language is not English.

#### Development

McCrae (1985) described Rest's Defining Issues Test (DIT) as a "rare example of test construction at its best." In developing the Defining Issues Test, Rest abided by the following guidelines:

1. He did not rely on a single test instance. He presumed that the more information there was available, the greater the chance that extraneous factors would cancel each other out, leaving greater accuracy.

2. He provided diversity of the test stimulus. This was to provide a representative sampling of possible circumstances.

3. He wanted to standardize test stimuli, test administration and setting, and scoring procedures as much as possible.

### Scoring

The respondent is asked to check one of the spaces to the left of each statement which best describes the importance of the statement as it applies to the given dilemma. To the left of each statement are five choices which are designed in a Likert-type scale (Mueller, 1986). The choices include: Great, Much, Some, Little, and No. In this way, the respondent rates each question or statement according to its level of importance.

The respondent is then asked to identify the four most important questions or statements starting from most important to fourth most important. The principled morality score (P score) is derived from these four choices.

At the present time, three methods of scoring the DIT are available. First, scoring may be done without use of mechanical or electronic devices simply by following instructions in the manual (Rest, 1986a, p. 3.1). Hand scoring the DIT takes approximately 6 to 10 minutes per subject and requires no special skills.

Secondly, scoring may be done by employing one of the available computer programs listed in the Manual for the Defining Issues Test, Third Edition. The third method of scoring the DIT is to send the data to James R. Rest at the Center for the Study of Ethical Development, University of Minnesota where the data may be scored by computer.

### California Psychological Inventory

#### Description

The California Psychological Inventory (CPI) is a personality test which was developed in its original form in 1957 (Groth-Marnat, 1984, p. 309). The original test did not focus primarily upon psychometric elegance. In its original form, the lack of a strong theoretical basis drew a considerable amount of criticism. Another criticism of the CPI was that the scales were intercorrelated. Baucom (1985), in reviewing the instrument, emphasized that the original purpose was not to provide an orthogonal factor analytic assessment instrument, but to assess 18 "folk" concepts in normal individuals.

In response to those who expressed concern over the lack of construct validity of the CPI, Gough revised the instrument. The revised CPI now consists of 20 folk scales and three orthogonal personality vectors. The

present study did not apply the 20 folk scales. Instead, the three personality vectors were used to correlate personality with marital satisfaction. The three vectors have been identified as internality, norm-favoring, and self-realization. The test has been administered under a number of conditions, ranging from formal testing conditions to "take-home" testing. Internal indicators of reliability and dependability showed satisfactory results in every condition.

#### Development

The CPI was originally developed to assess enduring personality characteristics within a normal population. Gough published his original scales in 1948. However, it was not until 1957 that the full 18 scales were published by Consulting Psychologists Press. Many of the items were taken from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. Eysenck (1985) and others have criticized Gough for not factor analyzing the CPI to provide construct validity and demonstrate a unique personality model.

In constructing the revised instrument, Gough (1987), through factor analysis, sought items which correlated significantly for both sexes with one of the criteria, but at or near zero with the two other criteria. He reported that this process was not

difficult for the first two criteria, but it was much more difficult to intercorrelate items for the third criterion in an effort to be orthogonal to the first two. In the end, he did develop two orthogonal personality scales. The third scale correlated  $-.17$  with the first scale and  $-.18$  with the second scale (Gough, 1987, p. 16). In vector 1, higher scores related to an internal orientation or introversion and lower scores related to an external orientation or extraversion. High scores on vector 2 related to norm-favoring or norm-following and lower scores related to norm-doubting or norm-denying. High scores on vector 3 related to a strong sense of self-realization and fulfillment.

The CPI was chosen for the present study for three reasons. (1) The three unrelated personality factors offer greater clarity in observing relationships between variables than other instruments. (2) Reliability data are exceptionally impressive in comparison to other personality measures. (3) A contribution may be made to the literature in the employment of the CPI as a newly revised instrument.

### Scoring

The CPI is a self-administered, 462-item test printed in a reusable booklet. The answers are recorded

by the respondent on a sheet which can be hand scored with stencils by the researcher or returned to Consulting Psychological Press for processing. Internal reliability data for the CPI are reported in Table 1.

Table 1

Reliability Data for CPI Vectors

		College Students Alpha Coefficients			High School Students Parallel      Test-retest			
	No. of Scale Items	200 Male	200 Female	400 Total	85 Male	38 Female	102 Male	128 Female
v.1	34	.81	.77	.81	.81	.78	.69	.76
v.2	36	.78	.81	.78	.67	.60	.61	.75
v.3	58	.85	.83	.85	.78	.74	.75	.71

Gough (1987, p. 32)

Procedures

Data collection procedures included soliciting volunteers for testing from local churches and university classes. Couples who had had previous marriages participated if no children had been produced from the previous marriage. Ethical practices were maintained as legislated by Principle 9, Ethical Principles of Psychologists (American Psychological Association, 1981). Principle 9 confirms the psychologist's professional

responsibility to carry out investigation with respect and concern for the dignity and welfare of those who take part as research subjects.

Testing included administration of the CPI, DIT, DAS, and a short questionnaire which addressed the demographic variables. The researcher invited subjects to participate who were affiliated with the United Methodist, Latter Day Saints, or Seventh-day Adventist churches by mailing a letter (Appendix A) to the stratified purposive sample. Subjects who were members of the Latter Day Saints Church (LDS) church were selected from the Orem/Provo, Utah, area, since the LDS religion is the predominant religion of that area. Seventh-day Adventists (SDA) were sampled from the Walla Walla Valley in southeastern Washington and northeastern Oregon, since the concentration of SDAs is relatively high in that area.

United Methodists are included in this study primarily because they represent a moderate Christian church (Rest, 1979, p. 116). Methodists were sampled from the greater Oklahoma City area and the southern portion of Idaho.

A letter was sent to prospective subjects requesting their cooperation. If no response was received, a local research assistant followed the letter with a telephone call approximately one week later. The research assistant made the first follow-up telephone call approximately two

weeks after the materials were delivered to the subjects. The purpose of the telephone call was to encourage subjects to complete the instruments as soon as possible and return the packet. The research assistant made two additional follow up telephone calls approximately 10 days apart to encourage subjects to complete and return the tests. When the subjects indicated to the research assistant that they had returned the test packets, the assistant discontinued any additional follow-up telephone calls. Subjects completed the questionnaires in the privacy of their homes. No time limit was imposed during the testing period, however, subjects were encouraged to respond to questions quickly to avoid fatigue.

Subjects responded anonymously. Identification numbers were assigned to test packets for the purpose of identifying paired respondents as married couples. Anonymity was preserved. A respondent who wished to know the results of the tests completed the Request for Test Results form (Appendix C). The respondent was the only person who could complete the form accurately, since no one else, including the research staff, knew the identification number for any respondent. By completing the Request for Test Results form, the respondent knew that the tests were no longer anonymous. Test results were given to the respondent confidentially by the

researcher. After the report, all identifying data were destroyed.

Upon completion of the tests, the respondents returned the instruments to the original envelopes and mailed the packet to the researcher or returned it to the research assistant.

No individual test results were disclosed to anyone without a formal, written request from the respondent naming the individual who was to receive the test results, title, address, and telephone number. Additionally, the Request for Test Results form was completed and signed by the respondent in order to identify the tests.

The DIT was computer scored by using a program developed by Lonnie Millett, Student Life Research Center, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah (Rest, 1986a, p. 3.7). The CPI was hand scored by templates purchased from Consulting Psychologists Press (Gough, 1987). The DAS was hand scored according to instructions provided by Spanier (1976).

#### Null Hypotheses and Statistical Analysis

The research questions were answered by testing and interpreting findings for the following hypotheses:

##### Research Question 1

Is there a relationship between moral judgment, personality, and marital satisfaction?

Hypothesis 1

There is no correlation between moral judgment and marital satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2

There is no correlation between moral judgment and marital satisfaction when the effect of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religious affiliation are controlled.

Hypothesis 3

Moral judgment and personality are not related to marital satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4

Moral judgment and personality are not related to marital satisfaction when the effect of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religious affiliation are controlled.

Hypotheses 1 through 4 were analyzed by multiple-regression analysis and stepwise-regression analysis.

Hypothesis 5

Differences in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Hypothesis 6

Differences in moral judgment and internality do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Hypothesis 7

Differences in moral judgment and norm-favoring do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Hypothesis 8

Differences in moral judgment and self-realization do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually. Hypotheses 5 through 8 were tested by one-way and two-way analysis of variance (Dixon, 1983, p. 359).

Research Question 2

Do differences between spouses in moral judgment and personality explain differences in marital satisfaction?

Hypothesis 9

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital

satisfaction for husbands when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

#### Hypothesis 10

Internality and differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when stage of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

#### Hypothesis 11

Norm-favoring and differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when stage of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

#### Hypothesis 12

Self-realization and differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

#### Hypothesis 13

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital

satisfaction for wives when stage of family life cycles, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

#### Hypothesis 14

Internality and differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

#### Hypothesis 15

Norm-favoring and differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

#### Hypothesis 16

Self-realization and differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Hypotheses 9 and 13 were tested by one-way analysis of variance. Hypotheses 10 through 12 and 14 through 16 were tested by two-way analysis of variance. Moral

judgment was analyzed at three levels including (1) husband higher than wife, (2) no difference between husband and wife, and (3) husband lower than wife. Moral judgment differences between spouses which were found between the 40th and 60th percentile rank were defined as "no difference."

In each of the analyses, three levels of moral judgment and two levels of each of the personality variables were observed. For moral judgment differences, the wife's score was subtracted from the husband's score. If the two scores were equal, the difference was zero. If the husband's score was higher, the difference was a positive number. If the wife's score was higher, the difference was a negative number. If the median difference between the husbands' and wives' scores was zero, then the 50th percentile rank represented a score which communicated "no difference" between a husband and wife. By arbitrarily defining a confidence interval of 10 points, scores below the 40th percentile rank were identified as the wife having a higher moral judgment score than the husband. Scores above the 60th percentile rank were identified as the husband having a higher moral judgment score than the wife. Personality scores above the median were identified as high scores and scores below the median were considered low scores.

Stage of family life cycle was controlled and delimited only to the following four stages: (1) a married couple who has never had children, (2) a married couple who has children, none of whom are in their teens, (3) a married couple who has children with one or more who is in the teen years, and (4) a married couple who has children who are grown and no longer live at home.

Religion was controlled at three levels. These included Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints, Seventh-day Adventists, and United Methodists.

Educational achievement was controlled at four levels: (1) attended and/or graduated from high school, (2) attended college (but did not graduate), (3) graduated from college, (4) completed graduate education (i.e., M.A., Ph.D., M.D.).

While only main-effects hypotheses were stated, several interaction hypotheses were tested. Any significant interaction led to a series of simple effects tests.

The analyses which were statistically significant and had more than two cells received the Newman-Keuls test of significance if cell sizes were relatively equal. If the cells were not equal, the Scheffé test of significance was applied.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS

This chapter reports the research findings and is divided into four major sections. The first section includes a description of the population, basic data on the variables, and some additional findings. The second section includes analyses of the correlations among the variables and discusses the tests for the first four hypotheses, partially answering the first research question. In the third major section, the remaining 12 hypotheses are tested, addressing the remainder of the first research question and answering the second question. Research findings are summarized in the fourth section. The analyses presented in this chapter are based upon the data set found in Appendix D.

#### Description of the Population

The population for this study consisted of all married individuals who were Seventh-day Adventists (SDA) in the Walla Walla Valley (consisting of Walla Walla County, Washington, and Umatilla County, Oregon), Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints (LDS) in Utah County, Utah, and Methodists in Oklahoma City,

Oklahoma, and Kimberly, Idaho. Ministers and bishops who supported this research were told that religion was considered to be a control variable. It was neither the interest nor intention of this research to compare religious denominations. For this reason, setting bias was deliberately incorporated into the research design.

There were 132 married couples in this purposive sample. All subjects were Caucasian, non-Hispanic. None had children from previous marriages. All were citizens of the United States. All subjects were members of the same denomination as their spouse.

Subjects reported their stage of family life cycle by marking the stage which best described their own from among seven stages. These included (1) no children, (2) expecting the first child, (3) have at least one infant or preschool child, but none over six years of age, (4) have at least one child over six years of age, but no teenagers, (5) have at least one teenager, (6) at least one child no longer lives at home, but not all children have left, and (7) all children have left home. Each stage of family life cycle was assigned a numerical value. All seven stages were represented in the sample. The frequency distribution for stages of family life cycle is presented in Table 2. Religious orientation of the subjects is reported in Table 3.

Subjects were also asked to report their highest level of academic achievement. The frequency distribution for highest level of educational achievement is presented in Table 4. The sample in this study presented higher educational levels than the national average for the white population. According to a 1986 survey (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1987), 20.1% of the white, U.S. population completed a four-year college degree (Table 5). However, more than half (51.5%) of the subjects in this study had completed a four-year college degree or an advanced degree.

Group means for marital satisfaction, moral judgment and personality are presented in Table 6. Marital satisfaction, as measured by the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Spanier, 1976) yielded a mean of 113.64 with a standard deviation of 14.13 (Table 7). These results were similar to Spanier's (1976) results from a sample of 218 married subjects where a mean of 114.8 with a standard deviation of 17.8 were reported. Welkowitz, Ewen, and Cohen (1982, p. 219) present a type of Z score for comparing means. An effect size may be calculated by subtracting the means of the two groups and dividing by the standard deviation. By applying this method of calculating effect size for the purpose of comparing the means of the present study with the Spanier statistics for married subjects, no

Table 2

Frequency Distribution for Stages of Family Life Cycle

Stage	Frequency	Percent
No children	47	17.8
Expecting first child	6	2.3
No child over 6 years	52	19.7
Child over 6, no teens	49	18.6
At least one teen	36	13.6
At least one left home	33	12.5
All children left home	41	15.5
	<u>264</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Table 3

Frequency Distribution for Religion

Religion	Frequency	Percent
SDA*	84	32.2
LDS**	128	48.1
METH***	52	19.7
	<u>264</u>	<u>100.0</u>

\* Seventh-day Adventist

\*\* Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints

\*\* Methodist

Table 4

Frequency Distribution for Educational Achievement

Education	Frequency	Percent
Attended HS	34	12.9
Attended College*	94	35.6
Graduated College	93	35.2
Graduate degree	<u>43</u>	<u>16.3</u>
	264	100.0

\*Attended but did not graduate

Table 5

Educational level of U.S. white population

	High school or less	Attended College	College
Total	62.8	17.1	20.1
Male	58.7	17.3	24.0
Female	66.7	16.9	16.4

(U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1987)

Table 6

Group Means for Marital Satisfaction, Moral Judgment,  
and Personality

Variable*	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max
DAS	113.636	14.128	61	144
DIT, P index	21.318	7.403	0	46
DIT, D index	25.359	7.238	2	44
CPI, Internality	18.504	7.516	4	47
CPI, Norm-favoring	25.098	4.136	12	34
CPI, Self-realization	37.072	7.781	7	55

\*DAS Dyadic Adjustment Scale

DIT Defining Issues Test

CPI California Psychological Inventory

Table 7

Dyadic Adjustment Scale results compared to Spanier's  
married group

	Mean	SD	n
Present research	113.64	14.13	264
Spanier results*	114.8	17.8	218

\* Spanier, 1976

significant difference was found between the two means. By applying the standard deviation for the present study, an effect size of .08 was found. When Spanier's standard deviation was applied, the effect size was .06. Welkowitz, Ewen, and Cohen (1982, p. 220) proposed that an effect size of .20 was small, .50 was medium, and .80 was large. Furthermore, as sample size increases, there is a tendency for scores to regress toward the mean, resulting in smaller variance. The sample size in the present study was larger than Spanier's sample of married subjects and the standard deviation was appropriately smaller. The median score for this sample was 114, suggesting a fairly symmetrical distribution when compared to the mean.

Moral judgment was measured by the Defining Issues Test (DIT). Seventh-day Adventists (SDA) and Mormons (LDS) are generally considered conservative denominations. These two religions constituted 80% of the sample. Rest (1986b, p. 178) observed that religion, when depicted as liberal versus conservative, is related to DIT scores. Liberal religious ideology is associated with higher DIT scores. More conservative religions tend to emphasize obedience to external authority and doctrines and DIT scores tend to be lower. Because setting bias was deliberately integrated in the research design, religions cannot be compared in this

study. However, Rest's general observations were upheld (Rest, 1979, p. 101). He reported that the P index portrays the sum of weighted ranks given to items considered to be principled moral responses. The D index is a measure of overall moral development. This sample obtained a mean P index for the DIT of 21.32 with a standard deviation of 7.4, while the D index was 25.36 with a standard deviation of 7.24. When comparing the P% means of this sample with Rest's (1979, p. 116) findings from several religions, these scores appear to be very low. Table 8 depicts a summary of DIT scores reported by Rest (1979, p. 116).

Table 8

Moral Judgment and Religious Affiliation

	n	P%Mean	S.D.
Unitarian-Universalist	41	52.6	15.2
United Methodist	49	46.6	15.2
Missouri Synod Lutheran	38	34.9	12.5
Conservative Baptist	41	30.1	11.1

(Rest 1979, p. 116)

Three personality variables were measured by the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1987). Since the mean educational achievement level for this sample suggests that the average subject has attended college

or has completed a college degree, the most appropriate comparison group provided by Gough (1987) is the "college student" group, even though Gough's students are not demographically comparable to this sample. For the first personality variable (internality), the mean for this sample was 18.5 with a standard deviation of 7.52. Gough's (1987, p. 17) college-student group of 3,236 male students had a mean of 16.14 with a standard deviation of 5.93. His 4,126 female students had a mean of 17.91 with a standard deviation of 6.01. By subtracting the mean for this sample from the mean of Gough's male college students and using Gough's standard deviation, a moderate effect size of .40 was observed. This means that there is a moderate difference between this overall sample and Gough's male college students. When Gough's female college students were compared with this sample, an effect size of .098 was observed. This means there was no difference between the mean of these scores and Gough's sample of female college students.

The second personality variable was norm-favoring. The mean for this sample was 25.10 and the standard deviation was 4.14. Comparing these results to Gough's (1987, p. 18) college student group, a sample of 3,236 males yielded a mean of 22.56 with a standard deviation of 5.82. His sample of 4,126 female college students yielded a mean of 23.86 with a standard

deviation of 5.22. By subtracting the mean for this sample from the mean of Gough's male college students and using Gough's standard deviation, a moderate effect size of .44 was observed. This means that there is a moderate difference between this overall sample and Gough's male college students. When Gough's female college students were compared with this sample, an effect size of .24 was observed. This means there is a small difference between the mean of these scores and Gough's sample of female college students.

The third personality variable was self-realization. The mean for this sample was 37.07 and the standard deviation was 7.78. Gough's (1987, p. 19) sample of 3,236 male college students yielded a mean of 38.88 with a standard deviation of 7.78. His sample of 4,126 female college students yielded a mean of 40.97 with standard deviation of 7.09. By subtracting the mean for this sample from the mean of Gough's male and female college students and using Gough's standard deviation, only small effect sizes were observed for each gender. This means there is a small difference between this overall sample and Gough's college students. There are no large differences between these personality scores and scores from Gough's research with subjects who had attained a similar educational level.

### Correlations Among the Variables

This research examines the relationships and differences between the dependent variable (marital satisfaction) and the independent variables, including moral judgment, internality, norm-favoring, and self-realization. Certain demographic variables served as control variables. All coefficients were rounded to two decimal places. Table 9 is an intercorrelation matrix for the variables included in this study. It is assumed for the use of the Pearson coefficient of correlation that the two correlated variables have a linear relationship.

### Testing the Hypotheses

Each of the 16 null hypotheses stated in Chapter 3 was tested for statistical significance. The first four hypotheses were tested by using regression analysis and the last 12 hypotheses were tested by analysis of variance.

#### Hypotheses Tested By Regression Analysis

For the regression portion of the study two moral judgment scores were used: the P index (Rest, 1979, p. 100) and the D index (p. 236).

### Hypothesis 1

There is no correlation between moral judgment and marital satisfaction.

As observed in the intercorrelation matrix (Table 9), there was no correlation between the Defining Issues Test (DIT) P score and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale correlated .04 with the D score of the DIT and was not statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

### Additional Findings from The Intercorrelation Matrix

In addition to the results related to the formal hypotheses, additional relationships were observed in the intercorrelation matrix.

1. Moral judgment was negatively correlated to the number of years the subjects were married. The correlation for the P index of the Defining Issues Test was  $-.17$  ( $p < .01$ ). The correlation for the D index of the Defining Issues Test was  $-.25$  ( $p < .001$ ) with number of years married. Subjects who reported being married longer tended to score lower on the DIT.

2. Educational achievement level and moral judgment were positively correlated. The D index of the DIT produced a correlation coefficient of  $.2136$  ( $p < .001$ ). The correlation for the P index of the DIT

Table 9

Intercorrelation Matrix

	Sex	Years Married	Family Life Cycle	Religion	Educational Achievement Level
S	1.00				
YM	.01	1.00			
FLC	-.01	.90***	1.00		
Rel	.00	-.01	.01	1.00	
Ed	-.19***	-.05	-.02	.06	1.00
DAS	.02	-.02	-.05	-.02	.06
P	.05	-.17**	-.12*	.08	.13*
D	.06	-.25***	-.15**	.12*	.21***
V1	.20***	.18**	.17**	-.24***	-.03
V2	-.01	.21***	.17**	-.03	.06
V3	.05	.00	.00	.07	.19

\* p < .05  
 \*\* p < .01  
 \*\*\* p < .001

Note. Abbreviations in the left column are for variable names across top. In addition, the following abbreviations are used:

DAS Dyadic Adjustment Scale  
 P the P index of the Defining Issues Test  
 D the D index of the Defining Issues Test  
 V1 Internality scale of the CPI  
 V2 Norm-favoring scale of the CPI  
 V3 Self-Realization scale of the CPI

Table 9, continued

	DAS	P	D	V1	V2	V3
DAS	1.00					
P	.00	1.00				
D	.04	.61***	1.00			
V1	.01	-.17**	-.18***	1.00		
V2	.32***	-.02	.00	-.04	1.00	
V3	.18	.37***	.36***	-.34***	.06	1.00
<hr/>						
*	p < .05					
**	p < .01					
***	p < .001					

produced .1349 ( $p < .05$ ), substantiating Rest's (1979, p. 110) findings that moral judgment increases with more education.

3. The highest correlation observed was between self-realization and moral judgment. Self-realization yielded a correlation coefficient of .3655 ( $p < .001$ ) with the P index of the DIT. Self-realization correlated .3645 ( $p < .001$ ) with the D index of the DIT. Since self-realization, as evaluated by the CPI (Gough, 1987), is a measure of maturity, this finding suggests that moral judgment increases as one becomes more mature.

4. Internality was negatively correlated with moral judgment, suggesting that subjects with higher moral judgment scores tended to be more extraverted.

### Hypothesis 2

There is no correlation between moral judgment and marital satisfaction when the effect of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

When family life cycle, educational achievement, religion, and the P index for the DIT were entered one at a time as independent variables into a stepwise multiple-regression model, no correlation was observed. The four variables accounted for less than 1% of

variance. The standardized regression coefficient value for the P index of the DIT was  $-.01$  and was not statistically significant. The correlations were not significant.

When family life cycle, educational achievement, religion, and the D index were introduced as independent variables, no correlation was observed (Table 10). The standardized regression coefficient value for the D index of the DIT was  $.026$ , and was not statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Table 10

Summary for Correlation of DIT, P Index, Religion, Family Life Cycle, and Education to Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Variable	Standardized Regression Coefficient	Probability
Religion	$-.024$	.6945
Family Life Cycle	$-.051$	.4123
Educational Achievement Level	$.058$	.3537
Defining Issues Test, P Index	$-.013$	.8389

### Hypothesis 3

Moral judgment and personality are not related to marital satisfaction.

Stepwise multiple regression was used for this analysis. Using the established .05 level of significance for entry into the regression model, norm-favoring and self-realization accounted for 12.5% of the variance of marital satisfaction, where  $p < .001$ . Norm-favoring was the first personality variable to enter the model, accounting for 10% of the common variance in marital satisfaction at the .001 level of significance. The standard partial regression coefficient for self-realization was .16 at the .01 level of statistical significance, explaining an additional 2.6% of the common variance with marital satisfaction. The P index of the DIT and the internality scale of the personality inventory did not enter the regression model. When the same analysis was done using the D index of the DIT in lieu of the P index, the same results were observed. Because of the strong influence of the norm-favoring personality variable and the smaller contribution of the self-realization variable, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 4

Moral judgment and personality are not related to marital satisfaction when the effect of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion were entered into the stepwise-multiple regression analysis before any predictor variables. These three control variables together did not account for any variance in marital satisfaction. After forcing the control variables into the model using stepwise multiple-regression analysis, the norm-favoring personality variable contributed a correlation coefficient of .33 and accounted for 11% of the common variance with marital satisfaction. This personality variable was statistically significant at the .001 level. Self-realization entered next, explaining an additional 2.89% of marital satisfaction variance. With these two variables in the regression model (norm-favoring and self-realization), 14% of the variance for marital satisfaction was explained at the .001 level of statistical significance. Internality and the D index of the DIT did not enter the regression model at the .05 level of significance. Using the same stepwise approach, the same results were obtained when the P index for the DIT was used in place of the D index.

Moral judgment, as measured by the DIT, did not account for marital satisfaction in this study. However, since the two personality variables, norm-favoring and self-realization, accounted for 14% of the variance of marital satisfaction, the null hypothesis was rejected, even though family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion did not influence the results.

#### Hypotheses Tested by Analysis of Variance

Since the literature (Burr, 1970) suggests a curvilinear relationship between family life cycle and marital satisfaction, it is conceivable that the above regression analyses portray an incomplete explanation of the common variance between the predictor variables (personality and moral judgment) and the dependent variable (marital satisfaction). Regression analysis assumes a linear relationship. For this reason, further analysis was undertaken to view the variables from another perspective. The following analyses incorporated analysis of variance.

In the following analyses which involve moral judgment, only the D index of the DIT was used. Scores on the D index were used to divide the subjects into three equal groups. The first group included subjects who scored low on the DIT (2-22). The second group was considered to be within the average range for this

sample (23-28). The third group scored highest within this sample (29-44). Each of the three DIT cells contained 88 subjects.

The seven stages of family life cycle were categorized into four groups. The first group included those who did not have children, even though six of the subjects (three couples) were expecting their first child at the time of data collection. The second group was identified as subjects who had children, but no teenagers. The third group was identified as subjects who had at least one teenager in the home. The fourth group contained subjects whose children were launched.

In several of the following analyses which include more than one independent variable, interaction was observed between the variables. This means that the influence of one independent variable upon the dependent variable depends on the level of another independent variable (Kerlinger, 1986, p. 230). Interacting independent variables received further analysis.

In the following hypotheses, stage of family life cycle, level of educational achievement, and religion are presented as control variables. Hence, all analyses were done at each separate level of education, each separate stage of family life cycle, and each religion.

Hypothesis 5

Differences in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually. This required 11 one-way analyses of variance. Moral judgment was the independent variable. Table 11 shows the mean DAS score for each level of moral judgment. The results of the ANOVA are given in Table 12.

The first analyses were conducted at each stage of family life cycle. Differences in moral judgment did not account for differences in marital satisfaction when controlled by four stages of family life cycle.

The second analyses controlled for education. The first level of educational achievement was significant for differences in moral judgment in accounting for differences in marital satisfaction. In this case, those who scored low in moral judgment scored high in marital satisfaction. Statistical significance was confirmed at a level of .001 for the first level of educational achievement only. The Scheffé method for testing contrasts between means was applied to the means for moral judgment. Significant differences were observed between the high and low groups and between the middle and low groups. The difference between the middle and high groups, however, was not significant.

Table 11  
Marital Satisfaction Means for Various Levels of Moral Judgment  
at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral Judgment		
	Low	Middle	High
No children	121.33 (9)	109.56 (9)	116.125 (8)
Young children	109.37 (16)	112.68 (19)	113.06 (16)
Teenagers	115.45 (11)	108.33 (12)	114.82 (11)
Children launched	110.36 (11)	124.00 (6)	114.50 (4)
High school	121.37 (19)	100.75 (12)	92.67 (3)
Attended college	111.10 (30)	114.55 (33)	117.00 (31)
B.A./B.S.	111.43 (28)	111.25 (28)	114.76 (17)
Graduate degree	120.00 (11)	114.87 (15)	114.76 (17)
SDA	115.00 (21)	113.20 (15)	109.71 (7)
LDS	114.00 (17)	113.17 (23)	109.71 (23)
Methodist	108.11 (9)	108.75 (8)	109.89 (9)

Table 12

Analysis of Variance for Various Levels of Moral Judgment  
at Each Level of Control Variables

Moral Judgment			
Control Variable Level	F	df	p
No children	2.10	2, 23	.15
Young children	0.27	2, 48	.77
Teenagers	0.93	2, 31	.41
Children launched	1.93	2, 18	.17
High school	7.59	2, 31	.001*
Attended college	1.40	2, 91	.25
B.A./B.S.	0.78	2, 90	.46
Graduate degree	0.62	2, 40	.55
SDA	0.38	2, 40	.69
LDS	0.45	2, 60	.64
Methodist	0.07	2, 23	.93

\* Statistically significant

The third analysis was conducted for each religious group. Differences in moral judgment did not account for differences in marital satisfaction when controlled for each religion. In this analysis, differences in moral judgment did not explain marital satisfaction. Because differences were found between low, middle, and high groups in moral judgment scores for the group in the first level of educational achievement, the null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Hypothesis 6

Internality and differences in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 two-way analyses of variance. Moral judgment and internality were the independent variables. Table 13 gives the mean DAS score for each level of moral judgment and internality. Table 14 shows the results of the analysis of variance. The sample size for each subgroup is given in parentheses. The first four analyses were conducted at each stage of family life cycle. Differences in moral judgment and differences in internality did not account for differences in marital satisfaction when controlled by four stages of family life cycle. In this analysis,

neither moral judgment nor internality explained differences in marital satisfaction and no interaction was observed (Table 14).

The next four analyses controlled for education. The mean scores for marital satisfaction for the first level of educational achievement were significantly different at various levels of moral judgment. However, the means for marital satisfaction for those who scored above and below the mean for internality were not significantly different.

The third analysis was conducted for each religious group. Neither differences in moral judgment nor differences in internality were statistically significant when controlled for each religion.

Internality was not statistically significant within any of the control variables. A Scheffé test for contrast of means was used to determine which means were different among the moral judgment scores. It was determined that only the low and high cells were different at the .90 level of significance. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 13

Marital Satisfaction Means for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by  
 Internality at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Internality	Moral Judgment		
		Low	Middle	High
No children	Above	113.50 (4)	106.33 (3)	128.00 (1)
	Below	127.60 (5)	111.17 (6)	114.43 (7)
Young children	Above	115.2 (15)	108.29 (7)	117.83 (18)
	Below	105.27 (15)	110.21 (29)	112.29 (21)
Teenagers	Above	110.36 (11)	108.24 (17)	112.40 (10)
	Below	119.86 (7)	114.00 (8)	115.375 (16)
Children launched	Above	115.23 (17)	118.67 (6)	106.33 (3)
	Below	113.625 (8)	122.25 (4)	112.00 (3)
High school	Above	120.15 (13)	99.25 (4)	93.50 (2)
	Below	124 (6)	101.5 (8)	91.00 (1)
Attended college	Above	112.20 (15)	112.07 (15)	118.025 (8)
	Below	111.00 (15)	110.01 (18)	118.025 (8)
B.A./B.S.	Above	111.00 (19)	112.00 (10)	116.11 (19)
	Below	114.44 (9)	110.83 (18)	112.89 (18)
Graduate degree	Above	112.60 (5)	114.625 (8)	117.67 (6)
	Below	117.83 (6)	115.14 (7)	113.18 (11)
SDA	Above	112.96 (27)	110.12 (17)	115.89 (9)
	Below	120.00 (13)	108.91 (29)	105.00 (5)
LDS	Above	116.93 (15)	111.94 (16)	116.33 (24)
	Below	115.31 (13)	113.76 (29)	119.33 (30)
Methodist	Above	112.90 (10)	113.00 (4)	106.50 (2)
	Below	108.70 (10)	110.45 (11)	108.40 (15)

Table 14

ANOVA for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Internality at Each Level of

Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral judgment			Internality			Interaction		
	F	df	p	F	df	p	F	df	p
No children	2.51	2,20	.11	0.10	1,20	.76	1.73	2,20	.20
Young children	1.26	2,95	.29	1.72	1,95	.19	0.88	2,95	.42
Teenagers	0.48	2,63	.62	3.25	1,63	.08	0.30	2,63	.74
Children launched	1.38	2,35	.26	0.26	1,35	.62	0.24	2,35	.79
High school	6.66	2,28	<.01*	0.02	1,28	.89	0.04	2,28	.96
Attended college	1.41	2,88	.25	0.06	1,88	.81	0.04	2,28	.96
B.A./B.S.	0.54	2,37	.58	0.00	1,87	.99	0.73	2,87	.48
Graduate degree	0.55	2,37	.58	0.45	1,37	.51	0.17	2,37	.85
SDA	2.47	2,79	.09	0.29	2,79	.59	2.72	2,79	.07
LDS	1.18	2,121	.31	0.13	1,121	.72	0.20	2,121	.82
Methodist	0.40	2,46	.67	0.20	1,46	.66	0.23	2,46	.80

\* Statistically significant

### Hypothesis 7

Differences in moral judgment and norm-favoring do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 two-way analyses of variance. Moral judgment and norm-favoring were the independent variables. Table 15 gives the DAS means. Table 16 shows the ANOVA results for all tests. The first four analyses were conducted at each stage of family life cycle. Differences in moral judgment and differences in norm-favoring did not account for differences in marital satisfaction at either of the first, third, or fourth stages of family life cycle. These stages included subjects who did not have children, subjects who had teenage children, and subjects whose children were grown and no longer lived at home. Neither moral judgment nor norm-favoring explained differences in marital satisfaction. No significant interaction was evident in any of these four analyses.

Subjects who scored above the mean in norm-favoring in the second stage of family life

Table 15

Marital Satisfaction Means for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Norm-favoring	Moral Judgment		
		Low	Middle	High
No children	Above	114.14 (7)	116.43 (7)	116.36 (11)
	Below	122.75 (12)	110.50 (10)	118.33 (6)
Young children	Above	115.54 (13)	116.33 (15)	122.42 (19)
	Below	106.46 (13)	105.19 (21)	107.65 (20)
Teenagers	Above	115.33 (6)	111.71 (14)	118.93 (14)
	Below	113.42 (12)	108.00 (11)	108.75 (12)
Children launched	Above	117.06 (16)	120.86 (5)	107.33 (3)
	Below	110.56 (9)	86.57 (7)	81.00 (1)
High school	Above	123.50 (10)	120.60 (5)	98.50 (2)
	Below	119.00 (9)	86.57 (7)	81.00 (1)
Attended college	Above	115.08 (13)	117.75 (12)	122.335 (18)
	Below	108.06 (17)	112.71 (21)	109.625 (13)
B.A./B.S.	Above	112.27 (15)	113.06 (18)	119.30 (20)
	Below	110.46 (13)	108.00 (10)	108.94 (17)
Graduate degree	Above	112.75 (4)	114.875 (8)	115.43 (7)
	Below	124.14 (7)	114.86 (7)	114.30 (10)
SDA	Above	118.30 (20)	113.82 (11)	108.80 (10)
	Below	112.20 (20)	106.94 (17)	113.82 (11)
LDS	Above	115.64 (14)	117.40 (25)	122.00 (34)
	Below	116.71 (14)	107.75 (20)	111.20 (20)
Methodist	Above	110.125 (8)	111.86 (7)	108.33 (6)
	Below	111.25 (12)	110.50 (8)	108.09 (11)

Table 16  
ANOVA for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Norm-favoring at Each Level  
of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral judgment			Norm-favoring			Interaction		
	F	df	p	F	df	p	F	df	p
No children	0.74	2, 47	.48	0.19	1, 47	.66	1.45	2, 47	.24
Young children	0.97	2, 95	.38	15.44	1, 95	.00*	0.32	2, 95	.73
Teenagers	0.79	2, 63	.46	2.53	1, 63	.12	0.61	2, 63	.55
Children launched	1.15	2, 35	.33	0.13	1, 35	.73	0.37	2, 35	.69
High school	10.30	2, 28	.00*	8.37	1, 28	.01*	4.32	2, 28	.02*
Attended college	0.93	2, 88	.48	8.64	1, 88	.00*	0.68	2, 88	.51
B.A./B.S.	0.81	2, 87	.45	5.22	1, 87	.02*	1.08	2, 87	.34
Graduate degree	0.27	2, 37	.45	0.63	1, 37	.43	0.76	2, 37	.48
SDA	1.25	2, 79	.29	3.64	1, 79	.06	0.03	2, 79	.97
LDS	0.94	2, 121	.39	5.27	1, 121	.02	1.54	2, 121	.22
Methodist	0.36	2, 46	.70	0.00	1, 46	.96	0.06	2, 46	.94

\* Statistically significant

Table 17

ANOVA for Subjects at the High School Level at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences and Above and Below the Mean for Norm-favoring

Effect	F	df	p
Moral judgment differences at low norm-favoring	3.28	2,14	.0677
Moral judgment differences at high norm-favoring	11.37	2,14	.0012*
Norm-favoring at low DIT	1.02	1,17	.3261
Norm-favoring at mid DIT	9.92	1,10	.0103*
Norm-favoring at high DIT	1.81	1,1	.4065

\* Statistically significant

cycle scored higher in marital satisfaction than those who scored below the mean in norm-favoring. The differences were significant at the .001 level. The next four analyses controlled education at four levels. Because significant interaction between the means for moral judgment and norm-favoring was present at the high school level, it was necessary to test each level of norm-favoring by each level of moral judgment in addition to testing each level of moral judgment by each level of norm-favoring. The means were tested for statistical significance. Table 17 shows the results of the simple-effects tests. By applying the Scheffé test for contrasting means to the moral judgment means for the group which scored below the mean in norm-favoring, differences were present between the first and second mean and the first and third mean. No significant difference was observed between the second and third means.

Subjects who scored above the mean in norm-favoring in the second level of educational achievement scored higher in marital satisfaction than those who scored below the mean in norm-favoring. The means were tested for significance.

Subjects within the middle group for moral judgment who scored above the mean for norm-favoring, scored

higher in marital satisfaction than those who scored below the mean for norm-favoring (Table 17).

Subjects had attended college and who scored above the mean on norm-favoring scored higher in marital satisfaction than those who scored below the mean in norm-favoring. Subjects who had attained B.A. or B.S. degrees and who scored above the mean in norm-favoring scored higher in marital satisfaction than those who scored below the mean in norm-favoring. Differences in moral judgment and norm-favoring did not account for differences in marital satisfaction for subjects who had attained advanced academic degrees.

The third analysis was conducted for each religious group. Differences in moral judgment and norm-favoring did not account for differences in marital satisfaction. Then null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Hypothesis 8

Differences in moral judgment and self-realization do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 two-way analyses of variance. Moral judgment and self-realization were the independent variables. Table 18 shows the mean DAS score for each level of moral judgment above and below the mean for

self-realization. Table 19 shows the results of the ANOVA. The first analyses were conducted at each stage of family life cycle. Differences in moral judgment did not account for differences in marital satisfaction when controlled by four stages of family life cycle.

The next four analyses controlled for education. The mean scores for marital satisfaction for high-school-level respondents were not significantly different above and below the mean for self-realization. However, the means for marital satisfaction were significantly different at various levels of moral judgment. By applying the Scheffé test for contrasting means to the moral judgment means, differences were present between the first and second mean and the first and third mean. The second and third means were not significantly different. Because moral judgment was significant at the first level of educational achievement, the null hypothesis was rejected.

The third analysis was conducted for each religious group. Differences in moral judgment and

Table 18

Marital Satisfaction Means for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Self-realization	Moral Judgment		
		Low	Middle	High
No children	Above	129.43 (7)	110.00 (6)	119.10 (10)
	Below	113.83 (12)	114.00 (11)	114.14 (7)
Young children	Above	111.80 (5)	112.72 (18)	116.79 (28)
	Below	110.81 (21)	106.94 (18)	109.91 (11)
Teenagers	Above	116.43 (7)	112.71 (17)	115.47 (17)
	Below	112.55 (11)	104.50 (8)	111.89 (9)
Children launched	Above	113.75 (8)	121.33 (6)	113.50 (4)
	Below	115.18 (17)	118.25 (4)	100.50 (2)
High school	Above	126.50 (4)	111.75 (4)	106.00 (1)
	Below	120.00 (15)	95.25 (8)	86.00 (2)
Attended college	Above	114.89 (9)	114.67 (21)	118.615 (23)
	Below	109.48 (21)	114. (12)	112.375 (8)
B.A./B.S.	Above	116.50 (8)	110.20 (10)	116.95 (22)
	Below	109.40 (20)	111.83 (18)	111.00 (15)
Graduate degree	Above	119.67 (6)	115.175 (12)	113.15 (13)
	Below	120.40 (5)	115.17 (12)	113.15 (13)
SDA	Above	120.00 (11)	108.16 (19)	112.375 (8)
	Below	113.45 (29)	112.78 (9)	109.33 (9)
LDS	Above	117.58 (12)	117.50 (20)	120.21 (38)
	Below	115.125 (16)	109.60 (25)	112.75 (16)
Methodist	Above	114.75 (4)	116.75 (8)	108.54 (13)
	Below	109.81 (16)	104.71 (7)	107.00 (4)

Table 19  
 ANOVA for Various Levels of Moral Judgment by Self-realization at Each  
 Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral judgment			Self-realization			Interaction		
	F	df	p	F	df	p	F	df	p
No children	2.48	2,47	.09	3.03	1,47	.09	2.59	2,47	.09
Young children	0.42	2,95	.66	1.56	1,95	.22	0.20	2,95	.82
Teenagers	1.18	2,63	.31	0.91	1,63	.13	0.20	2,63	.82
Children launched	1.62	2,35	.21	0.91	1,35	.35	0.65	2,35	.53
High school	5.57	2,28	.01*	3.08	1,28	.09	0.35	2,28	.71
Attended college	0.37	2,88	.69	1.62	1,88	.21	0.35	2,88	.69
B.A./B.S.	0.45	2,87	.64	2.02	1,87	.16	1.01	2,87	.37
Graduate degree	0.44	2,37	.65	0.18	1,37	.68	0.28	2,37	.76
SDA	1.87	2,79	.16	0.26	1,79	.61	1.22	2,79	.30
LDS	0.48	2,121	.62	4.12	1,121	.04*	0.30	2,121	.74
Methodist	0.69	2,46	.51	3.94	1,46	.053	1.03	2,46	.36

\* Statistically significant

self-realization did not account for differences in marital satisfaction when the sample included SDA and Methodists. LDS subjects who scored above the mean in self-realization, scored higher in marital satisfaction than LDS subjects who scored below the mean in self-realization. Differences in moral judgment were not statistically significant for LDS subjects. Because self-realization was significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

In each of the following analyses, difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment were established by subtracting the wives' scores from the husbands' scores. The difference scores were divided into three equal groups.

#### Hypothesis 9

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when stage of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 one-way analyses of variance. Difference scores in moral judgment comprised the independent variable. Table 20 gives the mean DAS scores for each level of moral judgment. The results of the ANOVA are given in Table 21. The first analyses were conducted at each stage of family life cycle.

Table 20  
Marital Satisfaction Means for Husbands at Various Levels of  
Moral Judgment Differences at Each Level of Control  
Variables

Moral Judgment			
Control Variable Level	Wife higher	Equal	Husband higher
No children	118.22 (9)	114.63 (8)	114.00 (9)
Young children	107.29 (17)	116.50 (20)	110.43 (14)
Teenagers	115.45 (11)	108.67 (9)	113.21 (14)
Children launched	113.50 (6)	111.57 (7)	119.25 (8)
High school	114.67 (3)	116.22 (9)	102.75 (4)
Attended college	112.17 (12)	113.00 (17)	120.10 (10)
B.A./B.S.	111.65 (17)	107.20 (10)	110.00 (16)
Graduate degree	113.73 (11)	120.875 (8)	115.93 (15)
SDA	114.87 (15)	111.25 (12)	113.94 (16)
LDS	110.64 (22)	118.64 (22)	115.74 (19)
Methodist	113.67 (6)	106.10 (10)	108.90 (10)

Table 21  
Analysis of Variance for Husbands at Various Levels of Moral  
Judgment at Each Level of Control Variables

Moral Judgment			
Control Variable Level	F	df	p
No children	0.27	2,23	.77
Young children	1.71	2,48	.19
Teenagers	0.59	2,31	.56
Children launched	0.65	2,13	.54
High school	0.93	2,36	.41
Attended college	0.93	2,40	.66
B.A./B.S.	0.43	2,40	.66
Graduate degree	0.65	2,31	.53
SDA	0.23	2,40	.79
LDS	1.42	2,60	.25
Methodist	1.08	2,23	.36

Differences in moral judgment did not account for differences in marital satisfaction at any of the four stages of family life cycle, four stages of educational level, or three different religions. The null hypothesis was retained.

#### Hypothesis 10

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and internality do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 two-way analyses of variance. Table 22 shows the mean DAS scores for each level difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment. The independent variables were differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and internality scores for husbands. The results of the ANOVA are given in Table 23. The first analyses were conducted at each stage of family life cycle. When controlled for husbands who are fathers of teenage children, those who scored above the mean in internality scored lower in marital satisfaction than husbands who scored below the mean in internality.

Table 22

Marital Satisfaction Means for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife  
Moral Judgment Differences by Introversion at Each Level of Control  
Variables

Control Variable Level	Introversion	Moral Judgment		
		Wife higher	Equal	Husband higher
No children	Above	112.20 (5)	111.00 (1)	114.50 (2)
	Below	125.75 (4)	115.14 (7)	113.86 (7)
Young children	Above	110.375 (8)	114.67 (3)	114.80 (5)
	Below	104.56 (9)	116.82 (17)	108.00 (9)
Teenagers	Above	116.25 (4)	96.80 (5)	107.25 (4)
	Below	115.00 (7)	123.50 (4)	115.60 (10)
Children launched	Above	119.00 (4)	112.20 (5)	115.80 (5)
	Below	102.50 (2)	110.00 (2)	125.00 (3)
High school	Above	114.50 (2)	108.20 (5)	114.00 (1)
	Below	115.00 (1)	126.25 (4)	99.00 (3)
Attended college	Above	115.20 (5)	106.75 (4)	115.335 (3)
	Below	110.00 (7)	114.92 (13)	122.14 (7)
B.A./B.S.	Above	112.20 (10)	92.500 (2)	105.86 (7)
	Below	110.86 (7)	110.875 (8)	112.90 (10)
Graduate degree	Above	114.50 (4)	115.67 (3)	122.00 (5)
	Below	113.29 (7)	124.00 (5)	112.90 (10)
SDA	Above	115.56 (9)	109.625 (8)	117.43 (7)
	Below	113.83 (6)	114.50 (4)	111.22 (9)
LDS	Above	112.00 (9)	105.20 (5)	112.14 (7)
	Below	109.69 (13)	122.59 (17)	112.14 (7)
Methodist	Above	112.33 (3)	97.00 (1)	102.00 (2)
	Below	115.00 (3)	107.11 (9)	110.625 (8)

Table 23

ANOVA for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Internality at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral judgment			Internality			Interaction		
	F	df	p	F	df	p	F	df	p
No children	0.36	2,20	.70	0.73	1,20	.40	0.55	2,20	.59
Young children	0.90	2,45	.42	0.47	1,45	.50	0.28	2,45	.76
Teenagers	0.52	2,28	.60	6.14	1,28	.02*	3.04	2,28	.06
Children launched	0.90	2,15	.43	0.21	1,15	.66	1.16	2,15	.34
High school	0.30	2,10	.75	0.01	1,10	.93	0.76	2,10	.49
Attended college	0.70	2,33	.50	0.36	1,33	.55	0.66	2,33	.52
B.A./B.S.	1.65	2,37	.21	3.87	1,37	.06	1.72	2,37	.19
Graduate degree	0.42	2,28	.66	0.02	1,28	.90	0.96	2,28	.39
SDA	0.12	2,37	.89	0.05	1,37	.83	0.47	2,37	.63
LDS	0.37	2,57	.69	2.64	1,57	.11	1.79	2,57	.18
Methodist	1.64	2,20	.22	1.85	1,20	.19	0.20	2,20	.82

\* Statistically significant

Differences in moral judgment and husbands' internality did not account for differences in marital satisfaction at any of the four stages of educational level or three different religions. The null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Hypothesis 11

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and norm-favoring do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 two-way analyses of variance. Table 24 shows the mean DAS score for each level of moral judgment above and below the mean for norm-favoring. Difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment and norm-favoring for husbands were the independent variables. The results of the ANOVA are given in Table 25. The first four analyses were conducted at each stage of family life cycle. Differences in moral judgment and differences in norm-favoring did not account for differences in marital satisfaction at the first, third, or fourth stages of family life cycle. These stages included subjects who did not have children, subjects who had teenage

Table 24

Marital Satisfaction Means for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Norm-favoring	Moral Judgment		
		Wife higher	Equal	Husband higher
No children	Above	113.00 (4)	111.20 (5)	114.00 (5)
	Below	122.40 (5)	120.33 (3)	114.00 (4)
Young children	Above	112.33 (6)	128.00 (8)	112.625 (8)
	Below	104.55 (11)	108.83 (12)	107.50 (6)
Teenagers	Above	115.00 (7)	114.25 (4)	113.00 (7)
	Below	116.25 (4)	104.20 (5)	113.43 (7)
Children launched**	Above	(3)	(7)	(4)
	Below	(3)	(0)	(4)
High school	Above	127.00 (1)	128.75 (4)	104.00 (2)
	Below	108.50 (2)	106.20 (5)	113.00 (1)
Attended college	Above	113.375 (8)	115.67 (12)	120.89 (9)
	Below	109.75 (4)	106.60 (5)	113.00 (1)
B.A./B.S.	Above	114.80 (10)	112.14 (7)	109.43 (7)
	Below	107.14 (7)	95.67 (3)	110.44 (9)
Graduate degree	Above	96.00 (3)	120.25 (4)	115.56 (9)
	Below	120.375 (8)	121.50 (4)	116.50 (4)
SDA	Above	114.20 (10)	112.00 (8)	113.75 (12)
	Below	116.20 (5)	114.00 (1)	106.57 (4)
LDS	Above	110.53 (17)	118.86 (21)	118.13 (15)
	Below	111.00 (5)	114.00 (1)	106.75 (4)
Methodist	Above	115.00 (3)	107.29 (7)	113.00 (6)
	Below	112.33 (3)	103.33 (3)	102.755 (4)

\*\* Empty cell. One-way ANOVA's were undertaken.

Table 25  
ANOVA for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment  
Differences by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral judgment			Norm-favoring			Interaction		
	F	df	p	F	df	p	F	df	p
No children	0.17	2, 20	.85	1.33	1, 20	.26	0.34	2, 20	.71
Young children	2.24	2, 45	.10	6.56	1, 45	.01*	1.15	2, 45	.33
Teenagers	0.47	2, 28	.63	0.29	1, 28	.59	0.45	2, 28	.64
Children launched**	-----			-----			-----		
High school	0.84	2, 10	.46	1.67	1, 10	.23	0.36	2, 10	.70
Attended college	0.22	2, 33	.81	1.02	1, 33	.32	0.10	2, 33	.91
B.A./B.S.	1.09	2, 37	.35	4.05	1, 37	.052	1.60	2, 37	.21
Graduate degree	2.17	2, 28	.13	3.57	1, 28	.07	2.67	2, 28	.09
SDA	0.27	2, 37	.76	0.00	1, 37	.97	0.06	2, 37	.94
LDS	0.19	2, 57	.82	0.59	1, 57	.44	0.47	2, 57	.63
Methodist	1.26	2, 20	.31	1.84	1, 20	.19	0.35	2, 20	.71

\*\* Empty cell. Unable to proceed with analysis. One-way ANOVA's undertaken.

children, and subjects whose children were grown and no longer lived at home. Neither moral judgment nor norm-favoring explained differences in marital satisfaction.

Subjects who scored above the mean in norm-favoring in the second stage of family life cycle scored higher in marital satisfaction than those who scored below the mean in norm-favoring. The means were tested for statistical significance. Husbands whose children no longer lived at home produced empty cells in the above analysis. The cells were collapsed. Means for difference scores between husbands and wives on the DIT were 113.50 for the group of husbands whose wives scored higher, 111.57 for the group whose wives scored equal to them on the DIT, and 119.25 for the husbands who scored higher than their wives on the DIT. The F ratio was 0.56 with 2 and 18 degrees of freedom ( $p = .5807$ ). Husbands who scored above the mean in norm-favoring had a marital satisfaction mean of 114.71. Those below the mean in norm-favoring scored 115.05 in marital satisfaction. The F ratio was 0.01 with 1 and 19 degrees of freedom ( $p = .9421$ ). When controlled for level of educational achievement and religion, individually, no differences were observed in DAS scores. The null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 12

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and self-realization do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Table 26 shows 11 two-way analyses of variance to test difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment and self-realization for husbands as independent variables. The results of the ANOVA are given in Table 27. The dependent variable was husbands' marital satisfaction. Control variables yielding significant results included the first and third stages of family life cycle, the third level of educational achievement, and LDS and Methodists. DAS means at the first stage of family life cycle were 121.69 above the self-realization mean and 109.61 below the self-realization mean and significant at the .01 level. DAS means at the third stage of family life cycle were 115.7 above the mean for self-realization and 108.9 below the mean for self-realization. These means were significant at the .05 level.

DAS means at the third stage of educational achievement (graduated from college) were 114.72 above the mean for self-realization and 109.92 below the mean

Table 26

Marital Satisfaction Means for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral Judgment			
	Self-realization	Wife higher	Equal	Husband higher
No children	Above	124.75 (4)	121.33 (3)	119.83 (6)
	Below	113.00 (5)	110.60 (5)	102.33 (3)
Young children	Above	107.50 (4)	118.08 (13)	115.375 (8)
	Below	107.23 (13)	113.57 (7)	103.83 (6)
Teenagers	Above	119.00 (3)	117.00 (6)	114.00 (10)
	Below	114.125 (8)	92.00 (3)	111.25 (4)
Children launched	Above	112.33 (3)	112.67 (3)	119.00 (5)
	Below	114.67 (3)	110.75 (4)	119.67 (3)
High school **	Above	(0)	(4)	(1)
	Below	(3)	(5)	(3)
Attended college	Above	122.75 (4)	113.40 (10)	119.86 (7)
	Below	106.875 (8)	112.43 (7)	120.67 (3)
B.A./B.S.	Above	111.50 (4)	114.40 (5)	116.53 (8)
	Below	111.69 (13)	100.00 (5)	103.50 (8)
Graduate degree	Above	114.33 (6)	118.50 (6)	114.69 (13)
	Below	113.00 (5)	128.00 (2)	124.00 (2)
SDA	Above	121.40 (5)	111.00 (6)	113.56 (9)
	Below	111.60 (10)	111.50 (6)	114.43 (7)
LDS	Above	111.625 (8)	125.00 (13)	119.38 (13)
	Below	110.07 (14)	109.44 (9)	107.83 (6)
Methodist	Above	123.00 (1)	108.00 (6)	114.71 (7)
	Below	111.80 (5)	103.25 (4)	95.33 (3)

\*\* Empty cell. One-way ANOVA's undertaken.

Table 27

ANOVA for Husbands at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral judgment			Self-realization			Interaction		
	F	df	p	F	df	p	F	df	p
No children	0.91	2,20	.42	7.61	1,20	.01*	0.19	2,20	.83
Young children	1.24	2,45	.30	1.32	1,45	.26	0.44	2,45	.65
Teenagers	1.83	2,28	.18	4.72	1,28	.04*	1.90	2,28	.17
Children launched	0.45	2,15	.65	0.00	1,15	.96	0.03	2,15	.97
High school **									
Attended college	0.67	2,33	.52	1.04	1,33	.31	1.01	2,33	.38
B.A./B.S.	0.43	2,37	.65	6.04	1,37	.02*	1.58	2,37	.22
Graduate degree	0.97	2,28	.39	0.97	1,28	.33	0.43	2,28	.65
SDA	0.42	2,37	.66	0.39	1,37	.54	0.61	2,37	.55
LDS	0.91	2,57	.41	5.58	1,57	.02*	1.14	2,57	.33
Methodist	3.08	2,20	.07	8.96	1,20	.01*	1.80	2,20	.19

\* Statistically significant

\*\* Empty cell. One-way ANOVA's undertaken.

for self-realization. These means were significant at the .05 level.

DAS means for LDS subjects were 119.70 above the mean for self-realization and 109.41 below the mean. These means were significant at the .05 level. DAS means for Methodist subjects were 112.43 above the mean for self-realization and 104.83 below the mean. These means were significant at the .01 level.

Empty cells were observed at the high school level. The cells were collapsed and analyzed at the main effects level. The mean for husbands' marital satisfaction scores for those whose wives scored higher on the DIT was 114.67. Marital satisfaction score for husbands who were equal to their wives on the DIT was 116.22. Husbands who scored higher than their wives on the DIT scored 102.75 in marital satisfaction. The F ratio was 0.64 with 2 and 13 degrees of freedom ( $p = .5398$ ). The marital satisfaction means for husbands who were below the mean for self-realization was 105.82. Husbands who scored above the mean on self-realization scored 127.40 in marital satisfaction. The F ratio was 5.42 with 1 and 14 degrees of freedom ( $p = .0354$ ).

At five of the 11 levels, husbands scoring above the mean in self-realization also scored higher in marital satisfaction than husbands who scored below the

mean in self-realization. The null hypothesis was rejected.

### Hypothesis 13

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 one-way analyses of variance. Difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment was the independent variable. Table 28 shows the mean DAS score for each level of moral judgment. The results of the ANOVA are given in Table 29. The first analyses were conducted at each stage of family life cycle. Differences in moral judgment did not account for differences in marital satisfaction at any of the four stages of family life cycle, three of the four levels of educational achievement, or three different religions. Mean differences were present at the first level of educational achievement. A Scheffé test for contrasted means revealed that there was a significant difference of means for wives who scored lower than their husbands on the DIT and for husbands who scored higher than their wives on the DIT. The wives who scored higher than their husbands were much

Table 28

Marital Satisfaction Means for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral Judgment		
	Wife higher	Equal	Husband higher
No children	111.86 (7)	118.14 (7)	116.89 (9)
Young children	106.865 (7)	121.00 (9)	111.70 (10)
Teenagers	120.50 (6)	108.20 (5)	106.50 (8)
Children launched	112.20 (5)	111.86 (7)	120.50 (8)
High school	91.20 (5)	115.17 (6)	120.71 (7)
Attended college	116.29 (14)	114.83 (23)	111.28 (18)
B.A./B.S.	114.55 (20)	117.17 (12)	113.67 (18)
Graduate degree	120.75 (4)	104.33 (3)	120.50 (2)
SDA	109.29 (14)	111.33 (12)	113.26 (19)
LDS	115.87 (23)	119.82 (22)	114.26 (19)
Methodist	110.50 (6)	107.90 (10)	114.80 (10)

Table 29  
ANOVA for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment  
Differences at Each Level of Control Variables

Moral Judgment			
Control Variable Level	F	df	p
No children	0.48	2,20	.63
Young children	1.27	2,23	.30
Teenagers	2.16	2,16	.15
Children launched	1.24	2,17	.32
High school	4.44	2,15	.03*
Attended college	0.63	2,52	.54
B.A./B.S.	0.31	2,47	.73
Graduate degree	1.98	2,6	.22
SDA	0.37	2,39	.69
LDS	0.73	2,61	.49
Methodist	1.20	2,23	.32

\* Statistically significant

less satisfied in marriage than those whose husbands scored higher. Because the differences were statistically significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Hypothesis 14

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and internality do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 two-way analyses of variance. Table 30 shows the mean DAS score for each level of moral judgment. Difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment and internality scores for wives were the independent variables. The results of the ANOVA are given in Table 31. Analyses conducted at each stage of family life cycle, analyses controlling for each religion, and analyses for three out of four levels of education were not statistically significant. Differences in internality accounted for differences in marital satisfaction for wives who had teenage children. Since interaction occurred between the difference scores between husbands' and wives' moral judgment and internality for husbands, further analysis was necessary. The difference scores were tested at each

Table 30

Marital Satisfaction Means for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife  
Moral Judgment Differences by Internality at Each Level of Control  
Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral Judgment			
	Internality	Wife higher	Equal	Husband higher
No children	Above	120.00 (6)	130.00 (1)	114.00 (5)
	Below	108.67 (3)	118.375 (8)	120.50 (4)
Young children	Above	114.375 (8)	118.36 (11)	117.80 (5)
	Below	103.44 (9)	113.375 (8)	108.33 (9)
Teenagers	Above	114.71 (7)	109.83 (6)	111.50 (12)
	Below	120.40 (5)	107.67 (3)	108.50 (2)
Children launched	Above	114.00 (2)	108.00 (4)	119.00 (6)
	Below	111.00 (3)	117.00 (3)	125.00 (2)
High school	Above	114.00 (2)	109.25 (4)	119.40 (5)
	Below	76.00 (3)	127.00 (2)	124.00 (2)
Attended college	Above	112.00 (7)	113.90 (10)	114.00 (9)
	Below	120.57 (7)	115.54 (13)	108.56 (9)
B.A./B.S.	Above	118.09 (11)	120.33 (6)	112.25 (12)
	Below	110.22 (9)	114.00 (6)	116.50 (6)
Graduate degree **	Above	(3)	(2)	(2)
	Below	(1)	(1)	(0)
SDA	Above	114.43 (7)	109.44 (9)	110.77 (13)
	Below	104.14 (7)	117.00 (3)	125.33 (3)
LDS	Above	116.56 (16)	120.22 (9)	119.00 (9)
	Below	114.29 (7)	119.54 (13)	110.00 (10)
Methodist **	Above	(0)	(4)	(6)
	Below	(6)	(6)	(4)

\*\* Empty cell. One-way ANOVA's undertaken.

Table 31

ANOVA for Wives at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences by Internality at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral judgment			Internality			Interaction		
	F	df	p	F	df	p	F	df	p
No children	0.71	2,21	.50	0.77	1,21	.39	1.19	2,21	.32
Young children	0.87	2,44	.43	3.41	1,44	.07	0.17	2,44	.84
Teenagers	1.27	2,29	.30	0.00	1,29	.97	0.32	2,29	.73
Children launched	1.15	2,14	.35	0.44	1,14	.52	0.34	2,14	.72
High school	5.27	2,12	.02*	0.53	1,12	.48	5.27	2,12	.02*
Attended college	0.61	2,49	.55	0.18	1,49	.67	1.08	2,49	.35
B.A./B.S.	0.26	2,44	.77	0.86	1,44	.36	1.23	2,44	.30
Graduate degree **									
SDA	1.33	2,36	.28	0.74	1,36	.40	2.95	2,36	.07
LDS	0.70	2,58	.50	0.99	1,58	.33	0.40	2,58	.67
Methodist **									

\* Statistically significant

\*\* Empty cell. One-way ANOVA's undertaken.

level of internality and internality was tested at each level of the difference scores. None of the analyses were statistically significant, with the exception of difference scores between husbands and wives where wives scored below the mean for internality. A Scheffé test of contrasts was used to determine cell differences between means. Wives who were below the mean in internality and who scored lower than their husbands in moral judgment scored higher in marital satisfaction than those who were below the mean in internality and who scored higher than their husbands in moral judgment. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Empty cells were found for women with graduate degrees. When the cells were collapsed, wives who were extraverted had a mean of 108.00 in marital satisfaction and the wives who were introverted scored 117.29 in marital satisfaction. The F ratio was 0.78 with 1 and 7 degrees of freedom ( $p = .4075$ ).

Empty cells were also present for Methodist wives. When the cells were collapsed, wives who scored higher on the DIT than their husbands had a mean of 110.50 in marital satisfaction. Wives who scored equal to their husbands on the DIT scored 107.90 in marital satisfaction. Wives whose husbands scored higher on the DIT had a mean of 114.80 in marital satisfaction. The F ratio was 1.20 with 2 and 23 degrees of freedom

( $p = .3204$ ). Methodist wives who were extraverted had a marital satisfaction mean of 108.375. Introverted Methodist wives had a marital satisfaction mean of 115.60. The F ratio was 3.44 with 1 and 24 degrees of freedom ( $p = .0759$ ). The null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Hypothesis 15

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and norm-favoring do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 two-way analyses of variance. Table 32 shows the mean DAS score for each level of moral judgment. Independent variables included difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment and norm-favoring for wives. The results of the ANOVA are given in Table 33. Analyses conducted at the first and last stages of family life cycle, analyses at the highest level of educational achievement, and analyses for Methodists were not statistically significant. Wives who had young children and who scored above the mean in norm-favoring scored higher in marital satisfaction than wives who scored below the mean in norm-favoring. The differences were significant at the .01 level. Norm-favoring was significant when

Table 32

Marital Satisfaction Means for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral Judgment			
	Norm-favoring	Wife higher	Equal	Husband higher
No children	Above	125.00 (2)	119.67 (6)	116.00 (3)
	Below	113.71 (7)	119.67 (3)	117.33 (6)
Young children	Above	122.83 (6)	120.18 (11)	114.375 (8)
	Below	100.82 (11)	110.875 (8)	108.17 (6)
Teenagers	Above	123.33 (6)	120.67 (3)	109.43 (7)
	Below	110.83 (6)	103.33 (6)	112.71 (7)
Children launched**	Above	(5)	(3)	(4)
	Below	(0)	(4)	(4)
High school	Above	106.33 (3)	122.75 (4)	125.00 (3)
	Below	68.50 (2)	100.00 (2)	117.50 (4)
Attended college	Above	123.83 (6)	119.40 (10)	114.83 (6)
	Below	110.625 (8)	111.31 (13)	109.50 (12)
B.A./B.S.	Above	122.00 (9)	120.00 (9)	111.64 (11)
	Below	108.45 (11)	108.67 (3)	116.86 (7)
Graduate degree **	Above	(1)	(0)	(2)
	Below	(3)	(3)	(0)
SDA	Above	122.67 (6)	118.75 (4)	114.40 (5)
	Below	99.25 (8)	107.625 (8)	113.09 (11)
LDS	Above	123.70 (10)	124.07 (15)	115.08 (13)
	Below	109.85 (13)	110.71 (7)	112.50 (6)
Methodist	Above	105.00 (3)	107.25 (4)	116.25 (4)
	Below	116.00 (3)	108.33 (6)	113.83 (6)

\*\* Empty cell. One-way ANOVA's undertaken.

Table 33

ANOVA for Wives at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences by Norm-favoring at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral judgment			Norm-favoring			Interaction		
	F	df	p	F	df	p	F	df	p
No children	0.21	2,21	.89	0.33	1,21	.57	0.45	2,21	.65
Young children	0.42	2,44	.66	8.62	1,44	.01*	1.25	2,44	.30
Teenagers	0.89	2,29	.42	4.43	1,29	.04*	2.37	2,29	.11
Children launched**									
High school	9.42	2,12	.00*	12.24	1,12	.00*	1.88	2,12	.20
Attended college	0.60	2,49	.55	5.95	1,49	.02*	0.35	2,49	.70
B.A./B.S.	0.04	2,44	.96	3.45	1,44	.07	3.47	2,44	.04*
Graduate degree **									
SDA	0.22	2,36	.80	10.06	1,36	.00*	3.16	2,36	.055
LDS	0.30	2,58	.74	6.59	1,58	.01*	0.84	2,58	.44
Methodist	1.21	2,20	.32	0.59	1,20	.45	0.80	2,20	.46

\* Statistically significant

\*\* Empty cell. One-way ANOVA's undertaken.

controlled at the third stage of family life cycle. Norm-favoring and differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment were significant at the first level of educational achievement. Norm-favoring was also significant at the second and third levels of educational achievement. Subjects who had attended college and scored above the mean for norm-favoring, had a mean score of 119.36 on the DAS. Subjects who had completed college and who scored above the mean for norm-favoring, had a mean of 114.35 on the DAS. Subjects who had completed college and who scored below the mean for norm-favoring, had a mean of 111.28 on the DAS. Interaction was present at the third level of educational achievement, requiring additional analysis to determine the significance of each variable. The additional analysis (Table 34) supported statistical significance for norm-favoring. Significance of difference scores between husbands and wives was not upheld. Norm-favoring was also significant at the first and second levels of religion (SDA and LDS). SDAs who scored above the mean on norm-favoring, had a mean DAS score of 118.87. SDAs who scored below the mean on norm-favoring, had a mean DAS score of 107.37. LDS subjects who scored above the mean on norm-favoring, had a mean DAS score of 120.90. LDS subjects who scored

Table 34

ANOVA for Wives with College Degrees at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences and Above and Below the Mean for Norm-favoring

Effect	F	df	p
Moral judgment differences above mean in norm-favoring	2.93	2,26	.07
Moral judgment differences below mean in norm-favoring	1.03	2,18	.38
Norm-favoring when wives' DIT higher	6.96	1,18	.02*
Norm-favoring when spouses DIT equal	3.48	1,10	.09
Norm-favoring when husbands' DIT higher	0.77	1,16	.39

\* Statistically significant

below the mean on norm-favoring, had a mean DAS score of 110.69.

Empty cells were present for wives whose children no longer live at home. When the cells were collapsed, the mean marital satisfaction score for wives who scored higher on the DIT than their husbands was 112.20. The mean marital satisfaction score for wives who scored equal to their husbands on the DIT was 111.86. The mean marital satisfaction score for wives whose husbands scored higher on the DIT was 120.50. The F ratio was 1.24 with 2 and 17 degrees of freedom ( $p = .3151$ ). The mean marital satisfaction scores for wives who were below the mean for norm-favoring was 110.00. The mean marital satisfaction scores for wives who were above the mean for norm-favoring was 119.00. The F ratio was 2.99 with one and 18 degrees of freedom ( $p = .1011$ ).

Empty cells were also present for the wives who have graduate degrees. The marital satisfaction means for each level of DIT difference from the husbands' scores was discussed earlier under hypothesis 14. Wives who were below the mean for norm-favoring had a marital satisfaction mean of 111.33, while above the mean norm-favoring wives scored of 123.00. The F ratio was 1.78 with 1 and 7 degrees of freedom ( $p = .224$ ). Based upon all findings, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 16

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and self-realization do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

This required 11 two-way analyses of variance. The independent variables were differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and self-realization scores for wives. Table 35 shows the mean DAS score for each level of moral judgment. The results of the ANOVA are given in Table 36. The first analyses were conducted at each stage of family life cycle. No main effect differences were observed. However, interaction was found between moral judgment and internality for subjects who had no children. This required further one-way analyses for moral judgment at each level of self-realization and for self-realization at each level of moral judgment (Table 37). The only significant result from this analysis was self-realization for the group whose husbands scored higher on the DIT. Wives who had no children and whose husbands scored higher on the DIT were more satisfied in marriage if they scored above the mean in self-realization.

Differences in moral judgment and wives' self-realization did not account for differences in marital

Table 35

Marital Satisfaction Means for Wives at Various Levels of Husband/Wife Moral Judgment Differences by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Self-realization	Moral Judgment		
		Wife higher	Equal	Husband higher
No children	Above	105.67 (3)	120.33 (3)	125.75 (4)
	Below	121.50 (6)	119.33 (6)	109.80 (5)
Young children	Above	110.10 (10)	118.27 (11)	113.60 (5)
	Below	106.43 (7)	113.50 (8)	110.67 (9)
Teenagers	Above	116.57 (7)	111.50 (6)	112.22 (9)
	Below	117.80 (5)	104.33 (3)	109.00 (5)
Children launched	Above	116.00 (3)	97.00 (1)	125.67 (3)
	Below	106.50 (2)	114.33 (6)	117.40 (5)
High school **	Above	(2)	(0)	(2)
	Below	(3)	(6)	(5)
Attended college	Above	113.00 (8)	117.40 (15)	115.67 (9)
	Below	120.67 (6)	110.00 (8)	106.89 (9)
B.A./B.S.	Above	114.27 (11)	116.00 (4)	117.00 (8)
	Below	114.89 (9)	117.75 (8)	111.00 (10)
Graduate degree **	Above	(2)	(2)	(2)
	Below	(2)	(1)	(0)
SDA	Above	105.43 (7)	110.25 (4)	114.29 (7)
	Below	113.14 (7)	111.875 (8)	112.89 (9)
LDS	Above	114.85 (13)	122.58 (12)	117.73 (11)
	Below	117.20 (10)	116.50 (10)	109.50 (8)
Methodist	Above	117.00 (3)	103.20 (5)	121.00 (3)
	Below	104.00 (3)	112.60 (5)	112.14 (7)

\*\* Empty cell. One-way ANOVA's undertaken.

Table 36

ANOVA for Wives at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences by Self-realization at Each Level of Control Variables

Control Variable Level	Moral judgment			Internality			Interaction		
	F	df	p	F	df	p	F	df	p
No children	0.58	2,21	.57	0.01	1,21	.94	3.79	2,21	.04*
Young children	0.96	2,44	.39	0.64	1,44	.43	0.01	2,44	.99
Teenagers	1.34	2,29	.28	0.41	1,29	.52	0.24	2,29	.78
Children launched	2.54	2,14	.11	0.00	1,14	.98	1.69	2,14	.22
High school **									
Attended college	0.70	2,49	.50	0.60	1,49	.44	1.84	2,49	.17
B.A./B.S.	0.19	2,44	.83	0.11	1,44	.74	0.46	2,44	.64
Graduate degree **									
SDA	0.37	2,36	.69	0.37	1,36	.55	0.42	2,36	.66
LDS	0.76	2,58	.47	1.04	1,58	.31	0.70	2,58	.50
Methodist	2.09	2,20	.15	1.20	1,20	.29	3.59	2,20	.046*

\* Statistically significant

\*\* Empty cell. Unable to proceed with analysis. One-way ANOVA's undertaken.

satisfaction at any of the four stages of educational level. Wives whose educational level was not past the high-school level and who scored higher than their husbands in moral judgment did not score as high in marital satisfaction as wives who scored equal to or lower than their husbands in moral judgment. By applying the Scheffé test for contrasting means to the difference groups between husbands and wives in moral judgment for wives in the first level of education, differences were present between the first and third marital satisfaction means. Because of the empty cells for wives who had graduate degrees, the two-way analysis was collapsed into two one-way analyses. The mean marital satisfaction score was 120.75 for wives whose DIT scores were higher than their husbands. Wives who scored equal to their husbands on the DIT scored 104.33 in marital satisfaction. Wives who scored lower than their husbands on the DIT scored 120.50 in marital satisfaction. Analysis of variance yielded an F ratio of 1.98 with 2 and 6 degrees of freedom ( $p = .2191$ ).

The mean marital satisfaction scores for the same wives who scored below the mean for self-realization was 118.00. The mean marital satisfaction scores for the wives who scored above the mean for self-realization was

Table 37

ANOVA for Wives with No Children at Various Levels of Moral Judgment Differences and Above and Below the Mean for Self-realization

Effect	F	df	p
Moral judgment differences at low self-realization	2.08	2, 14	.16
Moral judgment differences at high self-realization	1.60	2, 7	.27
Self-realization at wives' DIT higher	2.00	1, 7	.20
Self-realization at spouses equal on DIT	0.02	1, 7	.88
Self-realization at husbands' DIT higher	6.88	1, 7	.03*

\* Statistically significant

113.83. The F ratio was 0.19 with 1 and 7 degrees of freedom ( $p = .6795$ ).

Because of the empty cells for wives who had high school education or less, the two-way analysis was collapsed into two one-way analyses. The mean marital satisfaction scores was 91.20 for wives whose DIT scores were higher than their husbands. Wives who score equal to their husbands on the DIT scored 115.17 in marital satisfaction. Wives who scored lower than their husbands on the DIT scored 120.71 in marital satisfaction. The analysis of variance yielded an F ratio of 4.44 with 2 and 15 degrees of freedom ( $p = .0306$ ).

The mean marital satisfaction scores for the same wives who scored below the mean for self-realization was 112.14. The mean marital satisfaction scores for the wives who scored above the mean for self-realization was 105.50. The F ratio was 0.31 with 1 and 16 degrees of freedom ( $p = .5880$ ).

Interaction between self-realization and differences scores between husbands and wives was present for Methodist wives. This required additional one-way analyses. Moral judgment difference scores were tested at each level of self-realization and self-realization was tested at each level of moral judgment differences (Table 38). No significant simple effects

Table 38  
ANOVA for Methodist Wives at Various Levels of Moral Judgment  
Differences and Above and Below the Mean for Self-realization

Effect	F	df	p
Moral judgment differences at low self-realization	1.28	2,12	.31
Moral judgment differences at high self-realization	3.14	2,8	.10
Self-realization at wives' DIT higher	3.09	1,4	.15
Self-realization at spouses equal on DIT	2.18	1,8	.18
Self-realization at husbands' DIT higher	2.44	1,8	.16

\* Statistically significant

emerged from the one-way analyses. However, because significant difference in self-realization scores was found for wives with no children and whose husbands scored higher in moral judgment, the null hypothesis was rejected.

### Summary

Sixteen research hypotheses involving moral judgment and personality were tested for statistical significance in predicting or accounting for marital satisfaction using stepwise- and multiple-regression analyses and analyses of variance. The sample consisted of 132 married couples who volunteered as subjects for this research study. Forty-two couples were members of the Seventh-day Adventist Church (SDA), 64 couples were members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints (LDS), and 26 couples were members of the United Methodist church.

Stages of family life cycle were defined and found to be fairly uniform in number across 6 stages. Educational achievement was measured at four levels: attended high school, attended college but did not graduate, graduated from college, and attained an advanced academic degree. Most of the subjects had attended college or graduated from college.

Moral judgment and differences in moral judgment between spouses did not correlate with marital satisfaction. Internality did not correlate with marital satisfaction. However, all of the multiple-regression analyses and analyses of variance identified norm-favoring and self-realization as relating to marital satisfaction under certain controls. Wives who rated high in norm-favoring tended to be satisfied in their marriages. Kohlberg's developmental stage theory did not consistently identify subjects who were satisfied in marriage. Husbands who scored high in marital satisfaction also tended to score high in self-realization on the CPI.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

##### Problem

Increased divorce rates indicate a necessity for investigation into alternative viewpoints relating to elements motivating the marital relationship. Research findings are not consistent in ascertaining the relationship between marital satisfaction and moral judgment.

As new measures of personality are introduced, it is important to examine their unique application in various human functions. Marriage, as a major function of human experience, warrants such attention. The recent revision of the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1987) presents three personality factors. An examination of the correlations of each factor to marital satisfaction was needed. The theoretical basis for this study assumes that, once the influences of stage of family life cycle, level of educational achievement, and religion are removed, moral

judgment and personality are important factors in marital happiness.

### Literature

Three areas of the literature were considered:

(1) marital satisfaction, (2) moral judgment, and (3) personality and marital satisfaction. Burgess and Cottrell (1939) conducted a large-scale study of marital adjustment. Socialization, conformity to social rules, and respect for convention were important in preparing an individual for adjustment in marriage (p. 346). During the same period, Terman studied marital adjustment in relationship to sexual factors, personality, and marital adjustment. He concluded that happily married men tended to be more conservative than unhappily married men (Terman, 1938, p. 163). This appeared to be especially true in the areas of sexual morality and religious attitudes. The most comprehensive analysis to be undertaken is the Kelly Longitudinal Study (KLS). The study has continued for the past 45 years and encompasses both marital stability and marital satisfaction for 300 couples. Three personality characteristics were identified as impeding marital compatibility. These included husband's neuroticism, wife's neuroticism, and husband's impulse control.

Burr (1970), in a random sample of 116 intact couples, found a curvilinear relationship between marital satisfaction and stage of family life cycle. The lowest levels of marital satisfaction appeared to be during the stages of child rearing. Marital satisfaction appeared to increase during the post-parental and retirement stages.

Moral judgment has been described by Kohlberg (1976) as occurring within three level which are expressed in six stages. Level I (preconventional) includes stages 1 and 2. Stage 1 reveals heteronomous morality which typifies moreal reasoning in which the motive is to avoid punishment. Stage 2 is labelled "instrumental" and describes a mode of reasoning which recognizes the interests of others. Moral actions reflect mutuality of interest.

Level II (conventional) consists of stages 3 and 4. Stage 3 moral judgment relates to social expectations, trust, loyalty to society, and gratitude. Stage 4 considers the social system and conscience. In stage 4, laws and rules are to be upheld except in those few cases in which the laws or rules conflict with other social duties.

Level III (postconventional) incorporates stages 5 and 6. Stage 5 considers social contract or utility and individual rights. Stage 5 reasoning is aware of a

variety of values and opinions held by others. Rules are relative to the larger group. Stage 6 exemplifies universal ethical principles. When laws infract upon the individual's principles, the person acts in accordance with the principle.

The relationship between moral judgment and marital satisfaction is still not well defined. Several studies have been conducted for the purpose of understanding the relationship, but the one most applicable to this study was conducted by Deters (1983). His total sample did not correlate moral judgment and marital satisfaction. However, when he controlled religion by only analyzing Catholics, moral judgment accounted for 17% of marital satisfaction. There is general agreement among the researchers that there is a difference in marital satisfaction between religiously oriented homes and nonreligiously oriented homes. In Deters' study, religion appeared to be an interacting variable. Register (1975) did not observe a relationship between moral judgment and marital satisfaction. Nims (1984) also examined the relationship between marital satisfaction and moral development. He concluded that wives scoring above the median in moral judgment revealed greater marital satisfaction than those who scored below the median. However, if the wife scored below the median on the DIT,

her marriage tended to be more satisfying to her if her husband scored above the median on the DIT (Nims, 1984). Nims suggested stage of family life cycle should be controlled in subsequent studies.

### Purpose

The purpose of this study was to observe relationships between moral judgment and personality as they pertain to marital satisfaction. Two research questions were addressed:

1. Is there a relationship between moral judgment, personality, and marital satisfaction?
2. Do differences between spouses in moral judgment and personality explain differences in marital satisfaction?

From these two questions, 16 hypotheses were formulated. Eight hypotheses were used to test the first question, and eight hypotheses tested the second question. Stage of family life cycle was controlled. Level of educational achievement has been identified as a correlate of moral judgment (Rest, 1979, p. 111). To assure moral judgment was relating independent of education, level of educational achievement was controlled.

### Methodology

The population for this study included members of three different religious denominations: Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints (LDS), Seventh-day Adventists (SDA), and United Methodists. The Latter Day Saints were found in Orem, Utah, United Methodists were predominantly from Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, as well as Kimberly, Idaho, and the Seventh-day Adventists were from the Walla Walla Valley, which includes Walla Walla and College Place, Washington, and Milton-Freewater, Oregon. Ministers and bishops were contacted in each area and invited to offer testing to members of their respective churches. In order to reduce cultural interaction among the variables, data for this study included only married couples who were Caucasian, non-hispanic.

The research instruments included a demographic questionnaire, The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976), The Defining Issues Test (a test of moral judgment) (Rest, 1986a), and The California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1987). A research assistant was employed in each community and was responsible for disseminating test packets, communicating with participating clergymen, and collecting the instruments after completion. Both

spouses were requested to complete the instruments at home without consultation with each other.

The major statistical methods used to analyze the collected data included multiple-regression analysis, stepwise-regression analysis, and analysis of variance. Probability was set at .05. The data were initially analyzed descriptively.

### Findings

Descriptive data were analyzed first. The sample included 128 (48.5%) Latter Day Saints, 84 (31.8%) Seventh-day Adventists, and 52 (19.7%) United Methodists. Stage of family life cycle was somewhat evenly distributed in the sample. Three wives were pregnant with the first child. Fifty-two subjects had at least one preschool child, but no children over six years of age. Forty-nine subjects stated that they had at least one child over six years of age, but no teenagers. There were 36 subjects who claimed to have at least one teenage child. Thirty-three subjects stated that one child no longer lives at the subject's home, but not all children have left yet.

Regarding levels of educational achievement, 12.9% had a high-school education, 35.6% Had attended college, but did not graduate, 35.2% graduated from college, and 16.3% had advanced academic degrees.

Marital satisfaction, as measured by the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976), presented a mean of 113.64 with a standard deviation of 14.13 for this sample. The mean P score for the DIT was 21.32 with a standard deviation of 7.4 while the D score was 25.36 with a standard deviation of 7.24. Personality was measured by the CPI (Gough, 1987). The first personality variable (internality) presented a mean of 18.5 with a standard deviation of 7.52. The second personality variable (norm-favoring) had a mean of 25.10 with a standard deviation of 4.14. The third personality variable (self-realization) yielded a mean of 37.07 with a standard deviation of 7.78.

This sample presented very low scores on the Defining Issues Test (DIT). Rest (1979, p. 115) presented studies which suggest that people who subscribe to a liberal religious orientation tend to obtain higher scores on the DIT than those who are conservatively oriented. The results of the norm-favoring personality variable suggest that the subjects in this research considered aspects of moral judgment which are not defined in the Kohlberg theory. Commitment, conscientiousness, and dependability, features of the norm-favoring variable, may also describe the subject's attitude toward moral issues as well as the marital relationship.

Most moral development research has focused upon chronological development from childhood to adulthood. The present research has demonstrated that there is a negative correlation between moral development and the number of years married. Since there is no evidence in the literature to suggest that moral development reverses during adult life, it is possible that adult moral judgment develops in dimensions which have not been defined. The most probable explanation of the finding is that sociologically there are moral judgment differences between older respondents and younger respondents.

The findings of this study were examined by testing 16 null hypotheses.

#### Hypothesis 1

There is no correlation between moral judgment and marital satisfaction.

There was no correlation between the Defining Issues Test (DIT) P score and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). The DAS correlated .04 with the D score of the DIT and was not statistically significant. The null hypothesis was retained.

#### Hypothesis 2

There is no correlation between moral judgment and marital satisfaction when the effect of family life

cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Neither measures of moral judgment (P index and D index) correlated with marital satisfaction after the variances for stage of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion were removed individually. The null hypothesis was retained.

### Hypothesis 3

Moral judgment and personality are not related to marital satisfaction.

In this analysis, stepwise-multiple regression was used. Norm-favoring and self-realization entered while accounting for 12.5% of the variance of marital satisfaction at the .001 level of significance. Norm-favoring was the first personality variable to enter the model, accounting for 10% of the common variance with marital satisfaction. Self-realization accounted for 2.5% of marital satisfaction variance. Moral judgment did not enter the stepwise-multiple-regression model. Based upon the relationship of norm-favoring and self-realization to marital satisfaction, the null hypothesis was rejected. However, no relationship was observed between moral judgment and marital satisfaction in this regression model.

Hypothesis 4

Moral judgment and personality are not related to marital satisfaction when the effect of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Moral judgment did not account for marital satisfaction in this study. However, the two personality variables, norm-favoring and self-realization, accounted for 14% of the variance of marital satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected, even though family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion did not influence the results.

Hypothesis 5

Differences in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

In this analysis, moral judgment did not explain marital satisfaction when analyzed with any of the three control variables. The null hypothesis was retained.

Hypothesis 6

Differences in moral judgment and internality do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Independent variables included moral judgment and internality. The dependent variable was marital satisfaction. Two-way analyses were conducted at each level for each of the control variables. Subjects who had attained no more than high-school education and who scored high in moral judgment scored low in marital satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Hypothesis 7

Differences in moral judgment and norm-favoring do not account for differences in marital satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Independent variables included moral judgment and norm-favoring. The dependent variable was marital satisfaction. Two-way analyses were conducted at each level for each of the control variables. Subjects at four particular levels of the control variables who scored above the mean in norm-favoring scored higher in marital satisfaction than those who scored below the mean in norm-favoring. The null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Hypothesis 8

Differences in moral judgment and self-realization do not account for differences in marital

satisfaction when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Independent variables included moral judgment and self-realization. The dependent variable was marital satisfaction. Two-way analyses were conducted at each level for each of the control variables. Subjects who had attained no more than high-school education and who scored high in moral judgment scored low in marital satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected.

In each of the following analyses, difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment were established by subtracting the wives' scores from the husbands' scores. The scores were divided into three equal groups by placing cutpoints at .1667 standard deviation in both directions from the mean. Subjects who scored within the first group were couples in which the wife scored higher in moral judgment than the husband. The middle group consisted of couples who obtained moral judgment scores which were not different from each other. The third group consisted of couples in which the husband scored higher in moral judgment than the wife.

#### Hypothesis 9

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital

satisfaction for husbands when stage of family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

The independent variable was difference score between husbands and wives in moral judgment. The dependent variable was husbands' marital satisfaction. No significant differences were observed. The null hypothesis was retained.

#### Hypothesis 10

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and internality do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Independent variables included difference scores in moral judgment between husbands and wives and internality for husbands. The dependent variable was marital satisfaction for husbands. When controlled for husbands who were fathers of teenage children, subjects who scored above the mean in internality scored lower in marital satisfaction than husbands who scored below the mean in internality. That is, husbands who tend to be outgoing tended to score higher in marital satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 11

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and norm-favoring do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Independent variables included difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment and norm-favoring. Subjects who scored above the mean in norm-favoring in the second stage of family life cycle scored higher in marital satisfaction than those who scored below the mean in norm-favoring. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 12

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and self-realization do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for husbands when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

At five levels of the control variables, husbands scoring above the mean in self-realization also scored higher in marital satisfaction than husbands who scored below the mean in self-realization. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 13

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

The independent variable was the difference scores between husbands and wives in moral judgment. The dependent score was marital satisfaction for wives. Mean differences were present for subjects who had attained no more than high school education. Wives who scored higher than their husbands in moral judgment scored lower in marital satisfaction. Because the differences were significant at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 14

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and internality do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Independent variables included internality and moral judgment difference scores between husbands and wives. The dependent variable was wives' marital satisfaction. Extraverted women (i.e., women who scored

below the mean in internality) who attained no more than high-school education scored higher in marital satisfaction if their husbands scored higher than they in moral judgment. The null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Hypothesis 15

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and norm-favoring do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Independent variables included norm-favoring and difference scores between husbands and wives. The dependent variable was marital satisfaction for wives. At five levels of the control variables, wives who scored above the mean in norm-favoring scored higher in marital satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Hypothesis 16

Differences between husbands and wives in moral judgment and self-realization do not account for differences in marital satisfaction for wives when family life cycle, educational achievement, and religion are controlled individually.

Independent variables included self-realization and moral judgment difference scores between husbands and wives. Wives who had no more than high-school

education and who scored higher than their husbands in moral reasoning did not score as high in marital satisfaction as wives whose husbands scored equal to them or higher. The null hypothesis was rejected.

### Discussion

When each of the variables was controlled at the various levels of family life cycle, education, and religion, several general themes became apparent (Tables 35 through 37). Norm-favoring appeared to have the greatest overall influence for the sample as a whole. Subjects who scored above the mean in norm-favoring also scored higher in marital satisfaction than those who scored below the mean. Five of the 11 control variables supported the finding. However, when the analyses were conducted on husbands and wives separately, the influence of norm-favoring was primarily an issue with the wives, even though fathers of young children were found to be more satisfied in marriage if they scored above the mean in norm-favoring. Husbands with teenage children differed from other husbands, in that internality was important to marital satisfaction. When the sample was limited to wives, seven of the 11 control levels were significant in identifying norm-favoring as important to marital satisfaction. The most important

Table 39  
Variables Which Account for Higher Marital Satisfaction for Both Spouses at  
Various Levels of the Control Variables

Control Variable Level	DIT	DIT DIFF	V1	V2	V3
No children	Low			> mean	> mean
Young children					
Teenagers					
Children launched					
High school					
Attended college					
B.A./B.S.					
Graduate degree					
SDA					
LDS					
Methodist					

Table 40

Variables Which Account for Higher Marital Satisfaction for Husbands at Various Levels of the Control Variables

Control Variable Level	DIT	DIT DIFF	V1	V2	V3
No children					> mean
Young children				> mean	
Teenagers			< mean		> mean
Children launched					
High school					
Attended college					
B.A./B.S.					> mean
Graduate degree					
SDA					
LDS					> mean
Methodist					> mean

Table 41  
Variables Which Account for Higher Marital Satisfaction for Wives at  
 Various Levels of the Control Variables

Control Variable Level	DIT	DIT DIFF	V1	V2	V3
No children				> mean	
Young children				> mean	
Teenagers				> mean	
Children launched				> mean	
High school		husband ≥ wife			
Attended college					
B.A./B.S.					
Graduate degree					
SDA				> mean	
LDS				> mean	
Methodist					

variable for husbands' marital satisfaction was self-realization, which was significant for 5 of the 11 control variables.

There is a general tendency for wives who are "well organized, conscientious, conventional, dependable, and controlled" (Gough, 1987, p. 19) to be more satisfied in marriage. They are inclined to take a serious attitude toward ethical and moral issues. There is also a general tendency for husbands who tend to be "relatively free of neurotic trends and conflicts, moderate, mature, insightful, optimistic, and as having a wide range of interests" (p. 20) to be more satisfied in marriage.

This research identified two general obstacles with the DIT. The first problem is related to the theoretical basis for the DIT. The second concern is with the construction of the instrument.

Kohlberg's theory of moral development examines the cognitive thought processes for the decision, beginning with punishment avoidance and progressing through six stages toward principled morality. Since the norm-favoring variable on the CPI addresses the subjects' commitment to moral behavior, one might expect to find a relationship between Rest's DIT and norm-favoring. On the contrary, there was no correlation

between the two variables in this research. Norm-favoring was an important variable in marital satisfaction for wives. One of the questions for the norm-favoring variable addressed the importance of ethical and moral issues to the subject. Subjects who scored high in norm-favoring recognized the importance of making moral and ethical decisions. Many of those individuals, however, scored low on the DIT. In view of such results, it is very unlikely that the DIT measures the multidimensional construct of "moral judgment" in more than one direction. Kohlberg's theory focuses upon thinking about issues of importance as one considers a given social issue. There is no consideration for actual behaviors which may result from the cognitive process. Furthermore, the behaviors which carry out the moral intent at the moment of execution may be based upon different criteria than those considered in the safety of one's home where the issue is only hypothetical. A theory of moral judgment which deliberately omits the "rightness" or "wrongness" of a moral decision and which does not consider the action following a moral decision probably underestimates the construct.

Even though the DIT has been identified as the most reliable objective measure of moral judgment at the present time, the assumption (Chapter 1) that it would

reflect the true opinion of the subjects was not upheld. Numerous subjects in this research reported frustration and hostility toward the DIT. Two general themes were repeated continuously from all three religions. First, many subjects viewed the DIT as addressing issues which were important in the 1960s and 1970s but not the 1980s. For example, it would be unlikely that students would take over the university administration building. There are likely other ways for them to gain influence. In this research, the subjects viewed the DIT as appearing to address the fundamental issues of another culture and another time in American history rather than the fundamental issues of moral judgment.

Second, they reported that the available options for response were too limited. Many subjects felt Heinz, for example, would have more options than to either steal or not steal the drug for his wife. Today he might explore ways to help the druggist market the drug. In exchange, the druggist would provide medication for Heinz' wife. There might be mutual gain. One subject was very upset because there was no option to provide a new trial for the escaped prisoner.

Wives who have teenage children and wives who have no more than a high-school education were more satisfied in marriage when their husbands' moral judgment was equal to or better than their own. Wives

within these groups who scored higher than their husbands in moral judgment scored very low in marital satisfaction. When considering the lower educational level and stressful stage of family life cycle, it is probable that wives whose moral judgment exceeds their husband's experience greater stress in the marital relationship and may tend to be less tolerant of their husbands. This was especially true for extraverted wives.

The Kelly Longitudinal Study (KLS) showed a relationship between social extraversion and men who divorced late in life (Kelly & Conley, 1987). Husbands in the present study who have teenage children and who were inclined toward extraversion scored higher in marital satisfaction than husbands who were inclined toward internality. The apparent inconsistency is resolved by considering the definitions of extraversion. In the KLS, extraverted husbands were also described as having lower levels of agreeableness, higher levels of neuroticism, inclined toward closer families of origin, and having more premarital sexual activity. Gough's (1987, p. 19) definition of the extraverted subject describes him as "outgoing, confident, talkative, and as having social poise and presence."

In short, conscientious, dependable wives tend to be more satisfied in marriage than restless, pleasure-

seeking, self-indulgent wives. For husbands, maturity and insightfulness are important personal qualities for their marital satisfaction.

### Conclusions

A review of the findings which have been presented suggests the following conclusions in response to the original research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between moral judgment, personality, and marital satisfaction?

No relationship was found between moral judgment and marital satisfaction. Norm-favoring and self-realization were found to be related to marital satisfaction, but internality had very little effect. Norm-favoring was found to be important for wives' marital satisfaction. For husbands, self-realization was most important.

When viewed from the perspective of analysis of variance, high and low scores in moral judgment and internality did not explain differences in marital satisfaction. However, norm-favoring explained differences in marital satisfaction for wives and self-realization explained differences in marital satisfaction for husbands.

2. Do differences between spouses in moral judgment and personality explain differences in marital satisfaction?

For wives who had teenage children and wives with only a high school education, difference scores in moral judgment between husbands and wives accounted for differences in marital satisfaction. Wives who scored higher in moral judgment than their husbands tended to score low in marital satisfaction. Fathers of teenage children who tended to be extraverted were more satisfied in marriage than introverted fathers. Norm-favoring tended to be a significant variable for wives. Self-realization for husbands explained differences in marital satisfaction.

#### Recommendations for Further Study

On the basis of the conclusions formulated from this research, specific recommendations for additional research are presented.

1. Additional research is recommended to ascertain the relationship between these variables and a more comprehensive definition of moral judgment.

2. Because the moral judgment scores were low in this sample compared to other studies, this study should

be replicated with individuals from a wider variety of religions to ensure greater variance.

3. Sociological research is required to explain the phenomenon of a negative correlation between moral judgment and number of years married. Since there is no theoretical basis for adults to regress in moral judgment during adulthood, the most logical explanation for the phenomenon must consider age-related, generational cohort cultural differences.

4. Further research is required to determine how this research may apply to clinical practice.

## APPENDICES

APPENDIX A  
CORRESPONDENCE

Thomas C. Wallace  
1051 S. Main  
Orem, UT 84058  
(801) 225-3847

Dear Pastor

As a doctoral candidate majoring in Counseling Psychology at Andrews University, I am conducting research which examines the relationship between moral judgment, personality, and marital satisfaction.

There have been numerous studies which have examined the relationship between personality and marital satisfaction. However, the literature is virtually void of studies which have explored the relationship between moral judgment and marital satisfaction. From a religious perspective, we recognize the value of moral conduct. We do not know, however, what the relationship is between our basis for moral conduct and the marital relationship. I consider this study to be an opportunity to make a contribution toward our better understanding of the marital relationship.

The instruments I will be using include The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), The Defining Issues Test (DIT), and the California Psychological Inventory (CPI). All three instruments have been widely used in contemporary research.

I am requesting your endorsement to conduct this study among members of your church. Testing will require approximately 2 hours of the participants' time. Confidentiality will be maintained at the highest level. Couples may arrange with the examiner to receive their test results.

I anticipate some very interesting results which may be useful in both pastoral and clinical counseling, as well as sermons and lectures. In appreciation to you and the members of your church who volunteer to participate, I will be more than happy to share a compendium of the results with you upon completion of the study. Within the next few days, a research assistant will contact you personally about the possibility of an appointment.

Thank you for considering this request.

Sincerely,

Thomas C. Wallace  
Ph.D. Doctoral Candidate  
in Counseling Psychology

Dear Friends and Neighbors:

Too many people have started marriage with the hope of living blissfully forever but have ultimately become disillusioned. Skillful counselors are constantly seeking better ways to help couples rejuvenate their marriage. As a doctoral candidate in counseling psychology, I am especially interested in studying the marital relationship so I may be more effective in helping people.

This is where you come into the picture. To complete my studies I need your help in "The Marital Interaction Research Project." I am looking for couples who would be willing to be part of this study. Each person will be asked to complete a personality inventory and questionnaires about marital satisfaction and opinions about social problems. It will probably take about two hours to complete these instruments. This can be done in the privacy of your home and at a time convenient to you. Your responses will be completely anonymous. If you would like to know the results of your tests, special arrangements can be made.

I am convinced that knowledge to be gained from this research will be very helpful in counseling couples whose marriages are in crisis. Church leaders from several denominations and counseling professionals have encouraged this study and are looking forward to using the information in their work with people. You may even know someone personally whose marriage could be helped as a result of this study.

Thank you for considering this request. Please complete and return the enclosed postcard. If you have any questions, feel free to call me collect at (801) 225-3847.

I am looking forward to hearing from you soon--and thanks again!

Gratefully yours,

Thomas C. Wallace  
Ph.D. candidate in  
Counseling Psychology  
1051 S. Main  
Orem, UT 84058

604 W. John Beers Rd. #142  
Stevensville, MI 49127  
June 16, 1988

Dr. James R. Rest  
Center for the Study of Ethical Development  
University of Minnesota  
141 Burton Hall  
178 Pillsbury Dr., S.E.  
Minneapolis, MN 55455

Dear Dr. Rest:

I am a Ph.D. graduate student in Counseling Psychology at Andrews University. I am currently engaged in a doctoral dissertation which investigates relationships of moral judgment and selected personality variables to marital satisfaction. I am asking for your permission to administer the Defining Issues Test (DIT). The test will be administered to 180 American, caucasian, married couples.

The purpose of the study is to observe relationships between moral judgment, personality, and marital satisfaction when stage of family life cycle, religion, or level educational achievement are controlled.

Thank you in advance for your early response.

Sincerely yours,

Thomas C. Wallace  
Graduate Student

Donna J. Habenicht, Ed.D.  
Professor of Educational and  
Counseling Psychology

APPENDIX B  
REQUEST FOR TEST RESULTS

## REQUEST FOR TEST RESULTS

I request the results of the following tests which were administered to me as a participant in The Marital Interaction Research Project:

- ( ) Defining Issues Test
- ( ) California Psychological Inventory
- ( ) Dyadic Adjustment Scale

TEST IDENTIFICATION NUMBER (INCLUDE ALL 4 DIGITS): \_\_\_\_\_

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

ADDRESS: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
TELEPHONE NUMBER (INCLUDE AREA CODE IF NOT IN UTAH): \_\_\_\_\_

I understand that by revealing my name and test identification number that my test results will not be anonymous. During the time that my test results are not anonymous, I expect Mr. Wallace and/or his employed counselor to treat my test results in a professional, discreet, and confidential manner. After the results have been given to me, I request that Mr. Wallace destroy this form, thus returning my test findings to an anonymous status.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Research Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

APPENDIX C  
DATA MATRIX

## DATA MATRIX

The following columns identify the variables in the data matrix used in this research:

<u>Column number</u>	<u>Variable</u>
1-3	Identification number
4	Sex
5,6	Number of years married
7	Stage of family life cycle
8	Religion
9	Educational achievement level
10-12	Dyadic Adjustment Scale
13,14	Defining Issues Test, P Index
15-19	Defining Issues Test, D Index
20,21	CPI, Introversion-extraversion
22,23	CPI, Norm favoring
24,25	CPI, Self-realization

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