

DYADIC COMPENSATION AND MARITAL SATISFACTION
IN EARLY MARRIAGE .

by

KATHY HENRY, B.S.H.E.

A THESIS

IN FAMILY STUDIES

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty
of Texas Tech University in
Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for
the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN

HOME ECONOMICS

Approved

August 1990

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is affectionately dedicated to Dr. Judith Fischer, my committee chairperson, whose unfailing support and guidance gave me the courage to continue.

I would like to express my deep appreciation to my other committee members, Dr. Steve Jorgensen and Dr. Duane Crawford, for their time and excellent contributions.

This research was supported by funds from NIH Grant #HD151864-01, Network Supports and Coping During Adult Transitions, Dr. Judith L. Fischer and Dr. Donna Sollie, co-principal investigators.

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the role of social networks in the marital satisfaction of couples married six years or less and who are under the age of thirty. Utilizing the concepts of commitment to continuation of the marriage, intimacy between the marriage partners, the level of emotional need fulfillment drawn by each respondent from his or her social network, gender, and length of marriage, dyadic compensation theory was developed and tested. While intimacy between the married partners was positively associated with higher marital satisfaction, the exchange of affection and comfort between the respondents and same-sex friends in their social networks was not. The finding extends previous relationship research on the social networks of dating couples which states that, prior to marriage, emotional involvement with friends detracts from couple solidarity.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The study of the social networks of married couples has, since the 1970s, received increased attention due to rapid growth in the development of family theory, methodological developments, and improved technology (Holman & Burr, 1980). Indeed, there is mounting evidence that marital relationships are influenced by, and are influential in shaping, the social networks of which they are a part. This has been evidenced by numerous studies addressing the association between a couple's relationship type and stage, and the characteristics of their social networks (Bott, 1971; Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Lee, 1979; Milardo, Johnson & Huston, 1983; Rogers, 1973). Several studies have highlighted the fact that a family's internal function is connected with the way they relate with their social network (Anderson, 1982).

The primary focus of this study was to determine the effect of interaction between married persons and their social networks on marital satisfaction during the first six years of marriage. More specifically, the combined

effect of the level of intimacy between each subject and his or her spouse, the level of emotional need fulfillment drawn from friends in each subject's social network, and the degree of commitment each subject reported toward continuation of his or her marriage on marital satisfaction was tested. The study also controlled for length of marriage and gender.

This analysis was made within the framework of social exchange theory, which postulates that relationships are based on a system of rewards and costs. The propositions of social exchange theory state that an individual weighs the present rewards of being in a relationship plus the subjective probability of future rewards in that relationship against the costs of leaving the relationship to determine its value to him or her (Levinger, 1976; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Attempts have been made to pinpoint combinations of rewards and costs which will induce an individual to remain in a relationship and which combinations will induce him or her to leave. Practical application of these variables has often been unsuccessful, for an individual's assessment of rewards and costs has been highly subjective (Levinger, 1976). Alternately, it has been proposed that commitment to remaining in a marriage is a result of an individual's subjectively constructed analysis of the

costs and rewards of doing so. It is a concept which lends insight into how marital satisfaction can exist when an individual does not report high affective exchange with his or her partner.

Following social exchange theory concepts then, the lack of affective need fulfillment within the marriage would predict failure for the relationship due to absence of a reward noted as important to human nature and marital satisfaction (Freedman, 1978; Levinger, 1965; Lewis & Spanier, 1979). If, however, a married person who reports low affective exchange with his or her partner receives affective need fulfillment from a source in his or her social network and considers the cost of doing so to be less than the cost of forfeiting his or her marriage, that person could quite possibly report satisfaction with his or her marriage. In such a case, the propositions of social exchange theory would have been supported. The individual's commitment, which stemmed from his or her subjective assessment of rewards received, outweighed his or her assessment of the costs involved, resulting in marital satisfaction. In essence, the committed partner compensated for shortcomings within the marriage by utilizing his or her social network.

Social Networks

Social networks have been defined in a number of ways, ranging from the couple's immediate kin to members of social groups, organizations, or institutions. For the purpose of this study, social networks were confined to those individuals listed by each respondent as social network members. These members could be categorized as kin, friends (those friends not related by birth or marriage), or others (work associates, minister, etc.). The present study involved the married person's interaction with same-sex persons within his or her friend network. These persons were non-threatening to the subject's marriage in that these friends were not potential alternate partners. Of primary concern was the use of these social networks by each spouse as an emotional resource. With marital satisfaction between husband and wife as the central focus, the exchange of affective behaviors, i.e., affection and comfort, between the respondent and his or her spouse and between the respondent and members of his or her friendship network were analyzed. Because analysis of the hypotheses did not require the use of subjects married to each other, the subjects were studied as individuals, not couples.

Affective Exchange

Extensive research has shown that while no single "recipe" exists, almost everyone considers some sort of "satisfying, intimate relationship" as essential to his or her happiness and well-being (Freedman, 1978). This happiness has been demonstrated as more important than work, housing, religious faith, or financial security (Campbell, Converse, & Rogers, 1976). A satisfying, intimate relationship is characterized by affective exchanges such as the expression of affection (Levinger, 1965), encouraging each other's personal growth (Rogers, 1973), or love (Rubin, 1974).

Lewis and Spanier (1979) stated that exchange of these affective resources within the marriage was linked to marital satisfaction. Bott (1971) found that companionship not found within the marriage would have to be sought outside it, a phenomenon termed "dyadic compensation" in the present study. In a subsequent test of Bott's hypothesis, Nelson (1966) concluded that women who were a part of a small, close-knit group of friends were not as likely to expect or need companionship from their husbands. He proposed that because they received satisfaction of their companionate needs through their friends, they placed fewer demands on their husbands and less strain on their marriages. However, in another

follow-up study, Blood (1969) proposed that reliance on relatives by the wife for companionate need satisfaction was detrimental to the marriage. Blood concluded that this was due to a lessened opportunity for marital intimacy to grow.

Dyadic Constraints

Each of the foregoing ideas had their genesis in Slater's (1963) zero-sum theory of social regression which was based on the Freudian economic metaphor that an individual possesses a finite amount of affect to be "spent" on others. However, Johnson and Leslie (1982) proposed that affective energy was not a substance contained by individuals, but one created by them and that the only limits to its expenditure were culturally defined. These culturally defined constraints function to protect the relationship between dating or married couples from romantic involvement with more than one partner at a time. While this view presented an impressive argument for constraint of affective exchange within the marriage, such constraints have not guaranteed a relationship's success. Nelson (1966) reported that utilization of social network members for emotional fulfillment was not necessarily detrimental to the marriage, but may have been beneficial.

Need Fulfillment

The search for need fulfillment in a married person's social network poses an interesting question. Why would a husband or wife deem emotional support from a same-sex friend an acceptable alternative to fulfillment from his or her spouse? Couples have uniformly reported that they came into marriage desiring and expecting happiness from within the marriage and that this happiness was associated most highly with fulfillment of social-emotional needs (Levinger, 1966). From a social exchange perspective, failure of one spouse to adequately meet these goals would predict that the unfulfilled spouse would feel cheated or short-changed and would possibly search for a new marriage partner.

However, Cook and Emerson (1978) suggested the consideration of another variable, commitment, as critical to the understanding of such seemingly inequitable relationships. They noted that a social exchange theory differs from an economic exchange theory in that, in a perfectly competitive market, no loyalties or commitments develop. However, loyalties and commitments do exist in real life, leaving conventional exchange theory inadequate when analyzing personal relationships.

Commitment

[Leik and Leik (1976) defined commitment as the degree to which a person has shifted from interest in a relationship because of its potential for goal fulfillment to maintenance of the relationship as the dominant goal.] As such, commitment has been strongly suggested as a concept basic to the study of the exchange process in marriage and one which has been historically underutilized (Cook & Emerson, 1978). McDonald (1981) posited that,

Commitment indicates to the exchange partner that the marketing of resources is no longer necessary and that the partner can be assured that the current exchange will continue regardless of the market conditions. (p.834)

Therefore, the concept of commitment to the marriage was utilized as a key factor in the present study which investigated social network utilization by couples.

Gender Differences

[The present study predicted that male and female respondents would use their social support systems differently. Previous research has established that, particularly in relation to emotional support, important sex differences do exist regarding perception and utilization of support systems] (Caldwell & Peplau, 1982; Cozby, 1973; Goulrash, 1978). Accordingly, Sarason,

Levine, Basham and Sarason (1983) discovered that women who received low social support from their friends and family were significantly less happy than those with high social support. Men reported the same tendency, but the relationship was not as strong. Additionally, given equal amounts of social support, women reported more dissatisfaction with the quality of their lives than men. In summary, women tended to report a need for more emotional support than men, and reported less satisfaction with the support they received than men.

In previous research concerning friendship, it has been found that women were more likely than men to have intimate confidants (Booth, 1972; Booth & Hess, 1974; Lowenthal & Haven, 1968), and that women's friendships were affectively richer (Williams, 1959). Conversely, men have been found to have difficulty with emotional intimacy (Lewis, 1978; Pleck, 1975), to have been emotionally inexpressive (Balswick & Peek, 1971; Komarovsky, 1967), and to have disclosed and received less personal information than women (Cozby, 1973; Jourard & Richman, 1963; Komarovsky, 1976). Therefore, it was expected that women in the present study would utilize their social networks more often than men for affective need fulfillment.

Life Cycle Stages

As stated above, the present study examined the effects of the level of affective exchange between marital partners, between the partners and their social networks, and commitment to the marriage as reflected in marital satisfaction. A review of previous literature which addressed network formation (Fischer & Oliner, 1983) and marital satisfaction (Rollins & Feldman, 1970) suggested that these were developmental processes linked to the life cycle (Hill & Rogers, 1964; Lansing & Kirsh, 1957; Rollins & Feldman, 1970). Lewis and Spanier (1979) theorized that marital quality was strongly correlated with marital stability and that the state of marital stability reflected the outcome of a process which involved the formation of the dyad, its maintenance, and its dissolution over a period of time.

The present study limited its examination of developmental processes in marriage to college-age students who had been married no longer than six years. This specific focus insured a homogeneous age group within only one life cycle stage, early marriage. Because life cycle literature indicated that relationship processes were linked to developmental stages (Hill & Rogers, 1964; Lansing & Kirsh, 1957; Rollins & Feldman,

1970), it was suggested that this group of early marrieds would differ in its relationship processes from individuals in the courtship phase or in later marriage.

Previous Research Limitations

Severe limitations have been noted in the methodology and design of previous life-cycle, marital-satisfaction, and network-development research (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). In their review of research done prior to 1980, Spanier and Lewis (1980) found that almost all studies involving these developmental concepts employed a cross-sectional design and cautioned researchers that interpretations from such data could be highly misleading. Such flawed methodologies could account for the widely varying conclusions drawn from studies utilizing them.

Longitudinal research is needed to clarify what relationship exists between family life cycle and marital satisfaction during specific periods in marriage (Feldman & Feldman, 1975; Spanier & Lewis, 1980). Although the present study was cross-sectional, it avoided the pitfalls of previous cross-sectional research involving family life cycle, marital satisfaction, and network development by having included individuals from only one age span and one family life cycle stage. These college-

age individuals had been married for varying lengths of time within a six-year time span, thus allowing analysis of relationship development during a clearly defined age span, young adulthood. Such an approach eliminated the possibility of misleading interpretations which could be drawn from analysis of samples representing marriages of one month to six years, but which included various age groups.

Dyadic Withdrawal

Research has indicated a definite link between network development in dating and married couples and the life cycle (Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Lewis, 1973; Milardo et al., 1983). Because the couples' organization and utilization of their social networks is a developmental process, analysis of their social networks during this period of time is facilitated by recognition of previous research concerning couples' networks in the developmental stage immediately preceding it, that is, courtship.

Courtship studies provide a base of knowledge from which the present analysis was a point of departure. The data indicated that beginning in courtship, couples tend to withdraw from certain segments of their social networks and build toward a mutual network which is

supportive of their relationship. Contingent upon the couple's commitment to continuation of their relationship, this trend progresses through engagement and marriage, at which time withdrawal and reorganization is largely complete (Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Lewis, 1972; Slater, 1963). After marriage, the couple's social network consists mostly of mutual friends who are friends of the husband's prior to marriage and those introduced to the couple by him subsequent to marriage (Babchuck, 1965). However, the traditional marriage patterns of the sixties have given way to less gender-linked roles and less male dominance in the eighties (Peplau, 1983). It is therefore speculated that wives have come to play a stronger role in friend selection following marriage (Peplau, 1983).

Focus of Study

A recapitulation of the literature presented above indicates that network formation and utilization by married couples is a developmental process involving exchanges between married persons and their social networks. The present study proposed that this exchange process is correlated with marital satisfaction, commitment and gender. To overcome deficiencies which have been noted in life cycle research methodology and

design, a sample drawn from individuals married for varied lengths of time, but from only the life cycle stage of early marriage, was utilized.

The present study addresses two theoretical perspectives concerning the structuring and utilization of the social networks of early married spouses. The first of these, dyadic withdrawal, considers network factors in courtship and provides a theoretical baseline for analysis of network factors in early marriage. Dyadic withdrawal theory states that as the relationship between two romantically involved persons develops, withdrawal from members of their social network, especially those relationships which threaten the continuation of the marriage, occurs (Goode, 1960; Huston & Burgess, 1979; Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Lewis, 1972, Slater, 1963).

Dyadic withdrawal theory also proposes that emotional, cognitive, and temporal constraints within the individual necessitate that the investment of these resources be directed toward the romantic partner in order for the relationship to develop. Consequently, these resources are less available to the social networks of the couple. Those resources once drawn by one individual from his or her social network are increasingly drawn from the romantic partner who, in

turn, increasingly receives those resources previously expended on the social network by the other partner (Milardo et al., 1983). The energy of the couple is directed toward development of a mutual social network in which they are both involved and which is supportive of their relationship. Therefore, involvement by each partner in an individual network exclusive of his or her partner, is attenuated.

Implicit in dyadic withdrawal theory is the assumption that each partner contributes equally to the other and that his or her contribution is fulfilling to the partner. There is, however, considerable literature on gender differences in personal relationships which established distinct differences in emotional needs and skills between men and women (Booth, 1972; Booth & Hess, 1974; Komarovsky, 1967; Lewis, 1978; Lowenthal & Haven, 1968; Pleck, 1975; Williams, 1959). Women have been shown to have needed more emotional support than men and to have been less satisfied with the support they received (Sarason, Levine, Basham & Sarason, 1983). They were also more likely to have had intimate confidants (Booth, 1972; Booth & Hess, 1974; Lowenthal & Haven, 1968).

Additionally, several authors noted that by the time couples committed to continuation of their relationship

(as early as pre-engagement), many individuals reported feeling themselves being "swept along by an inexorable social process" (Ryder, Kafka & Olson, 1970, p.54). Thus marital satisfaction in these studies was not totally contingent upon affective need fulfillment within the dyad. Some stable relationships, those that remained intact, did not meet the level of affective need fulfillment indicated by research to be necessary for marital satisfaction (Spanier & Lewis, 1980; Udry, 1973). Explanation of this phenomenon is lacking in the literature (Spanier & Lewis, 1980).

Therefore, a second theoretical perspective, dyadic compensation, is proposed. This approach utilizes the basic principles of dyadic withdrawal as its foundation, emphasizes the social exchange and commitment components more heavily, and specifically addresses and modifies the dyadic withdrawal concept of affective constraint within the marriage. While the well-established concept of dyadic withdrawal offers a framework for network changes throughout courtship, engagement, and into marriage (Huston & Burgess, 1979; Johnson & Leslie, 1982), additional theory is needed to explain reports of high marital satisfaction but low marital affective exchange through the early years of marriage. Though economic, social, and lifestyle factors have been demonstrated to

contribute to marital happiness, persons anticipating marriage have ranked emotional fulfillment highest among the rewards they have sought from marriage (Levinger, 1966).

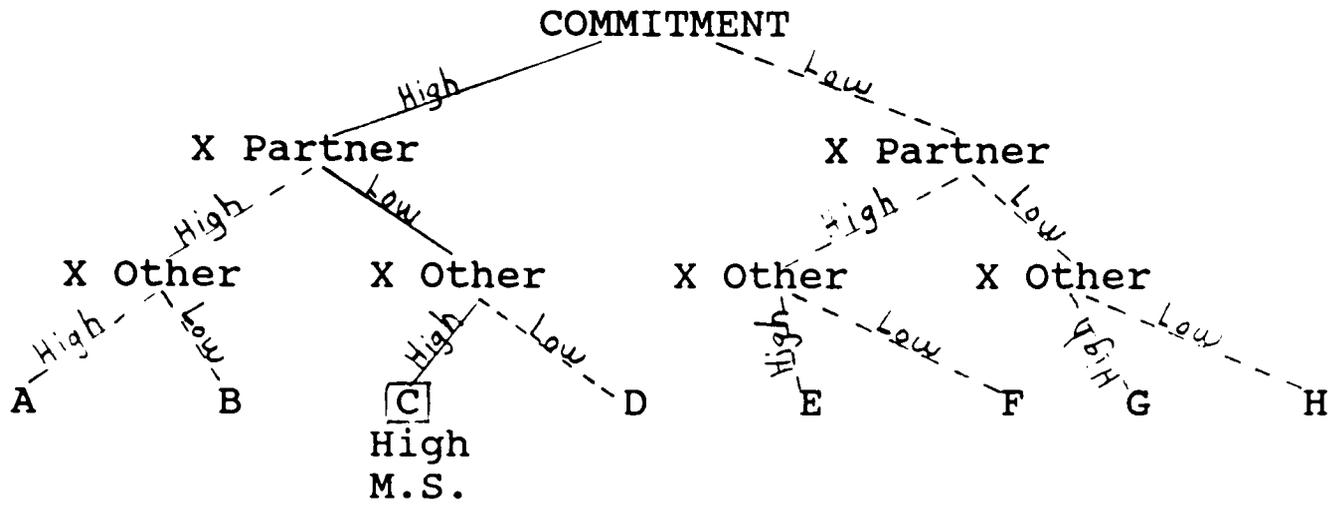
While emotional well-being and happiness have been clearly linked to affective exchange between an individual and his or her social network (Mitchell & Trickett, 1980), previous attempts to determine what types and levels of affective exchange between spouses are necessary for marital satisfaction have yielded varied results. Lewis and Spanier (1979) suggested that the answer to these results may lie in the fact that marital satisfaction is a highly subjective concept which involves not only previously studied criteria for exchanges between spouses, but some never before proposed or studied. The present study suggests that not only is the adequacy and type of affective exchange a subjective concept, but equally important is the spouse's willingness to seek emotional fulfillment from alternate sources when his or her needs are not being met within the marriage.

The present study posits that the willingness to seek extra-marital emotional fulfillment stems from the degree of commitment to maintenance of the marriage felt by the emotionally unfulfilled partner. That is, when

the extra-marital source of need satisfaction is a non-threatening one (or persons not considered potential alternate marriage partners), such compensation of need fulfillment is congruent with the zero-sum theory of affective resources. As noted above, the zero-sum theory formed the basis for dyadic withdrawal. The theory of dyadic compensation differs from dyadic withdrawal theory in that when affective needs are not being met within the marriage, a spouse highly committed to continuation of his or her marriage could utilize his or her social network to provide a non-threatening extra-marital source of emotional need satisfaction.

The solid lines in Figure 1 describe the conditions present in dyadic compensation (high commitment, low affective exchange with the spouse, and high affective exchange with a non-threatening network source). The broken lines depict all other combinations of high and low commitment, affective exchange with the spouse, and affective exchange with the social network. Because the married person reporting these conditions is highly committed to continuation of the marriage, he or she is willing to compensate for low affective exchange within the marriage by utilizing a non-threatening source of affective fulfillment from his or her same-sex friend network. It is predicted that the probability of the

Figure 1



X Partner - Affective exchange with partner.

X Other - Affective exchange with a person or persons who are members of a married person's friendship network and who are of the same gender as the respondent (A non-threatening network member).

M.S. - Marital satisfaction.

Dyadic Compensation

existence of the conditions presented in Group C (or dyadic compensation) increases with length of marriage; that females will report the utilization of dyadic compensation more often than males; and that high marital satisfaction will be reported under these conditions.

However, when high commitment to the marriage is reported by a married person, but both affective exchange with his or her spouse and affective exchange within the friendship network are low (Group D), it is unlikely that marital satisfaction would exist. Under these conditions, affective need fulfillment does not exist either within the marriage for that individual or outside it.

Conceptual Framework

Social exchange theory provided the conceptual framework of the present study. This theory postulates that relationships are based on a system of costs and rewards which may be determined by exogenous or endogenous factors (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Exogenous factors are those external to the relationship such as the personal characteristics the individual brought with him or her into the relationship (i.e., values, skills, needs, etc.). Endogenous factors are those intrinsic to

the relationship (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Burns' (1973) conceptualization of exchange theory stated the following:

- (i) Social behavior can be explained in terms of rewards, where rewards are goods or services, tangible or intangible, that satisfy a person's needs or goals.
- (ii) Individuals attempt to maximize rewards and minimize losses or punishments.
- (iii) Social interaction results from the fact that others control valuables or necessities and can therefore reward a person. In order to induce another to reward him, a person has to provide rewards to the other in return.
- (iv) Social interaction is thus viewed as an exchange of mutually rewarding activities in which the receipt of a needed valuable (goods or service) is contingent on the supply of a favor in return (usually immediate). (pp. 188-189)

The combination of personal characteristics and needs each partner brings into the marriage determines the availability of resources and the probability that they will be met within the relationship. Whether or not an individual decides to stay in the relationship hinges not only on his or her idea of what a marriage should supply or be and how much his or her marriage represents that ideal, but also on how "costly" it would be to abandon his or her marriage in search of one which more closely fits that ideal and how likely he or she would be to find it. This multivariate combination of attractions

and barriers is subjective in nature and stems from any number of sources (Lenthall, 1977).

Levinger (1976) stated that positive and negative attractions exist both within a relationship and outside it, in the social environment. Positive attractions involve the receipt of such rewards as love, status, information, goods, services, or resources. Negative attractions include the feelings of irritation or discomfort one partner could feel toward the other. Concomitantly, there are barriers to leaving the relationship such as the stigma attached to divorce. An individual's classification of these attractions within his or her marriage as positive or negative is subjective in nature. If a partner determines that the positive attractions within the relationship outweigh the negative ones, he or she will, theoretically, remain in the relationship. If life outside the relationship provides more positive attractions than negative ones and the barriers to leaving the relationship are low, the individual will leave it. It is possible, however, for the barriers to leaving the relationship to be so high that a spouse will not leave the relationship even if the negative attractions within it outweigh the positive ones. Levinger (1976) noted that it is also possible for the negative attractions within a relationship to be very

high, but to be ignored by a spouse due to a very high level of positive attractions.

This example of possible combinations of positive and negative attractions and barriers and their outcomes serves to reinforce the basic premise of the present study. That is, an individual's satisfaction with his or her relationship cannot always be predicted by listing the attractions present in the relationship which are cited in the literature as positive or negative. Some unorthodox relationships do remain intact (Spanier & Lewis, 1980; Udry, 1973) and an explanation of this phenomenon has been inadequate in the literature (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). By shifting the focus of attention from specific positive and negative attractors to commitment as a major indicator of marital success, the present study hoped to reveal more consistent findings than have been reported previously.

The present study proposes that commitment to a relationship can motivate an individual to seek rewards absent or lacking within the relationship from alternate sources, such as the social network, and remain satisfied with the relationship. There must be, however, another factor in place. The source of fulfillment external to the couple's relationship should be one which does not threaten the perpetuation of the relationship, such as a

potential sexual partner. More specifically, the present study hypothesizes that when affective exchange within the marriage is deficient for one partner, his or her commitment to the perpetuation of the marriage could make him or her willing to compensate for that deficiency. One area of compensation may occur in relationships within the social network, a focus proposed in the present study as dyadic compensation.

In sum, review of relationship literature detailed below serves to support the concepts of dyadic compensation by examining its underlying propositions. Figure 1 provides a model by which the reader may conceptualize the proposed outcomes of high and low commitment, affective exchange between a married person and his or her spouse, and affective exchange with a non-threatening source(s) in that person's social network in terms of marital satisfaction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The overview of the literature presented above indicates that analysis of married couples' formation and utilization of their social networks, their commitment to the marriage, their gender, and their stage in the family life cycle constituted key concepts in understanding marital satisfaction. From a social exchange perspective, a review of the literature below examines research in the areas of social networks, affective exchange, marital satisfaction, commitment, gender and the family life cycle. Following a synthesis of this literature, dyadic compensation is proposed as a factor which could contribute to marital satisfaction and hypotheses are then presented.

Social Networks

Social network concepts have been increasingly cited as important to the study of human behavior and as important points of departure for the more complex investigation of social support (Mitchell & Trickett, 1980). Wynne (1969) proposed that neglect of extra

familial interactions of family members with their social networks as a means of social support constitutes the most serious shortcoming of family studies. Nelson (1966) and Rodgers (1973) have stated that it has proven impossible to fully explain or understand family behavior without consideration of the social network with which it interacts, for this behavior is a product of both intrapersonal and interpersonal factors. There have been numerous criteria suggested to define the parameters of a social network (see Mitchell & Trickett, 1980), but following Tolsdorf's (1976) criteria, the present study included those individuals listed by the subject as being known by name, with whom there was a personal relationship, and who were seen at least once a year. Each network member was identified as to the relationship with the respondent.

When researchers began to analyze social network concepts in conjunction with marital relationship factors, the categorization of network members became more important to accurate interpretation of the data. Researchers since Bott's (1971) pioneering study of the covariation of conjugal role structures and the connections of community friendship networks have noted significant differences in network sector effects (Babchuck, 1965; Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Milardo et al.,

1983). Within these network sectors, effects varied with regard to numerous structural characteristics (size, density, degree of connection) and components of linkage (intensity, durability, multiplexity, directedness and reciprocity, relationship density, dispersion, frequency, and homogeneity) (Mitchell & Trickett, 1980). Discussion of these friendship associations and components of linkage has been limited to those indicated in the literature as salient.

The theory of dyadic withdrawal deals primarily with the effects of the dating couple's relationship stage on their social networks (Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Milardo et al., 1983). Due to affective, cognitive, and behavioral or temporal constraints, it is postulated, to protect and nurture their relationship, the couple has to increasingly direct their energies toward each other, build a social network which is supportive of their relationship, and eliminate from their social networks those who threaten it (Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Milardo et al., 1983). This process affects the size and gender composition of their non-kin or friendship networks, the size of their kin network, and the size and gender of their mutual network of kin and non-kin as well as the affective, cognitive, and behavioral-temporal exchanges (activities) operational within it.

Research found that the greatest effect on the social network of dating couples was on the number of peripheral friends in each partner's individual network since they were the most dispensable (Milardo et al., 1983). Emotional investment was lowest in this group and the time required to interact with peripheral friends was quickly usurped by the romantic partner.

The second greatest effect was on the number and gender of the intermediate and close friends in each partner's individual network. These friendships sometimes represented considerable emotional investment and commitment and were more difficult to eliminate. Withdrawal from intermediate friendships was contingent upon the affective and behavioral or temporal demands they placed on the relationship of the couple and the couple's ability to incorporate them into their mutual network.

While recent investigation of social network changes during dating indicated that frequency and duration of network interaction were indicative of social withdrawal (Bossevian, 1974; Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Milardo, 1980, 1983; Ridley & Avery, 1979), it has also been found that for a relationship to remain intact two individuals did not necessarily have to be in frequent contact or close proximity for interaction to exist (Hinde, 1981).

However, affective exchange within same-sex intermediate friendships was decreasingly necessary due to fulfillment of those needs within the romantic relationship, and affective exchange with opposite-sex friends was culturally prohibited (Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Milardo et al., 1983).

As the romantic relationship developed, couple-exclusive and joint activities increased (Huston, Surra, Fitzgerald, & Cate, 1982; Lewis, 1972), thus limiting the time available for activities involving only one partner and his or her friends. Therefore, only those friendships which were non-threatening to the development of the relationship, which did not limit the time available to the couple for each other, and which could be integrated into a mutual network of friends invested in the continuation of the couple's relationship remained in the social network of the couple. Time spent in interaction with even those individuals decreased (Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Milardo et al., 1983).

At the time of marriage, many friends of the couple were still unmarried and were members of each spouse's individual friendship network. Some newly married couples moved to a new city or state to begin their professional careers. Such a move could have involved an unavoidable physical separation from friends and/or

family. Yet, individuals often reported non-local persons as among their closest friends (Babchuck & Bates, 1963). The first few months of marriage marked a decline in friendship interactions as the couple decided what course their social network reorganization would take. Since individual friendships could be separative, the couple usually made an attempt to incorporate these individual friendships into their mutual network. If this was not possible, those friendships may have been temporarily or permanently attenuated (Babchuck, 1965; Ryder et al., 1970). Since their mutual friendships included those in which both partners could participate, the couple devoted an increasing amount of time to this segment of their network which was comprised of both kin and non-kin. Babchuck (1965) found that by the time a couple had been married three years, almost all their mutual friends were married and that visiting took place on a couple basis.

Because the couple did not need to withdraw from kin to become a couple (Johnson & Leslie, 1982) and kin relations required little time for their maintenance (Adams, 1967), this network sector was subject to different modifications. The kin network could have, in fact, supplied important social support for the couple. Generally, the size of the kin network increased

dramatically at engagement and marriage. Disclosure to the kin network did not decrease during this stage, but importance of kin opinions increased sharply at marriage (Johnson & Leslie, 1982).

Marital Satisfaction

Because marital satisfaction is such a subjective concept (Lewis & Spanier, 1979), it has been difficult to delineate. Research proposed several concepts which were frequently associated with marital satisfaction such as effective communication, role fit, and emotional gratification (Hicks & Platt, 1970), but fulfillment of no one set criteria insured marital satisfaction.

Thibaut and Kelley (1959) and Carson (1969) stated that satisfaction exists for a person when the quality of his or her life at the present meets or exceeds what he or she expects it to be. Levinger and Snoek (1972) defined satisfaction to include anticipation that future outcomes or rewards would exceed the present cost to the individual.

The present study utilizes the conceptual framework of these social exchange-based findings to examine four variables that were related to marital satisfaction: affective exchange between marriage partners, commitment, life-cycle stage, and gender.

Numerous types of affective exchange between spouses, such as the expression of affection (Levinger, 1965; Locke, 1951), emotional interdependence (Burgess & Locke, 1953b; Pineo, 1961), and love (Otto, 1972; Rubin, 1974), have been linked to marital satisfaction. These exchanges could be grouped together under the heading of emotional satisfaction. Lewis and Spanier (1979) proposed that the greater the emotional gratification between spouses, the more the marital quality.

The present study proposes that when for some reason emotional gratification of one or both partners does not occur within the marriage, it is still possible for marital satisfaction to exist if commitment to the marriage is high. Incorporating the concept of commitment into social exchange theory, Leik and Leik (1976) proposed that commitment to a relationship shifts its focus from a marketing of resources to maintenance of the relationship as the primary goal. Equity of exchange diminishes in significance, thus explaining asymmetrical, committed relationships (McDonald, 1981). The present study utilizes these concepts of commitment as a key factor in the theory of dyadic compensation and tests for its role in a person's willingness to seek affective need fulfillment in his or her social network.

Newly married couples have exhibited considerable commitment to their relationship through the exchange of marriage vows. The fact that society tends to indoctrinate each partner to believe that a spouse is, by definition, a loving person (Murstein et al., 1977), and the fact that newlyweds are often preoccupied with the sexual component of their relationship (Udry, 1973), could cloud the issue of inequitable exchanges among newlyweds. Following marriage, a couple's marital satisfaction has been found to follow a predictable course over the family life cycle and to show significant gender effects.

The early years of marriage are characterized by a decline in companionship, demonstration of affection, consensus, common interest, belief in the permanence of the union, and marital adjustment scores (Burgess & Locke, 1953a). Disengagement describes the tendency for couples to grow apart with length of marriage (Pineo, 1961). Several studies have found a steady decline in marital satisfaction for both partners over the first ten years of marriage or to the "school age" stage (that stage at which children start to school) for wives (Bossard & Boll, 1955; Luckey, 1966; Rollins & Feldman, 1970). At stages subsequent to beginning marriage, women showed more significant changes in marital satisfaction

with regard to happiness, fulfillment, and role strain than men, who seemed relatively unaffected by these changes (Rollins & Feldman, 1970).

Exchanges

Behavioral exchanges involve the giving and receiving of personal resources between two individuals. These resources may be instrumental (money, goods, activity, etc.) or affective (affection and comfort) in nature (Foa & Foa, 1974). Because a large body of literature exists which equates the level of emotional fulfillment within the marriage more strongly to the level of marital satisfaction than the level of instrumental fulfillment (Lewis & Spanier, 1979), affective exchanges were targeted in the present study. A comparison was made between the level of affective exchange reported by each spouse and his or her partner and the level of affective exchange reported between the spouse and a person or persons in his or her social network.

The theory of dyadic withdrawal predicts that the process of affective exchange between romantic partners begins during dating and increases with advancement through the stages of courtship, engagement, and marriage. By limiting alternate sources of affective

involvement, the partners display commitment to the relationship, encourage mutual dependency to grow, and protect the relationship from interactions which could threaten it (Johnson & Leslie, 1982). A logical extension of this process implies that by the time a couple has married, a high level of affective exchange exists. It follows that, since affective exchange between spouses is one of the most important indicators in research on marital satisfaction (Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Levinger, 1966), a low level of affective exchange between partners would be indicative of low marital satisfaction. The subjective nature of satisfaction (Hicks & Platt, 1970; Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Rollins & Feldman, 1970), tolerance of the absence of present rewards in anticipation of future rewards (Levinger & Snoek, 1972), and commitment to the marriage (Becker, 1961; Cook & Emerson, 1978), together offer possible explanations for low affective exchanges to coexist with high marital satisfaction.

Commitment

Prior to the 1960s, the concept of commitment appeared in the literature studying numerous behavioral phenomena, but there existed little formal theory of its meaning. Whereas it had previously been used in a

"common-sense" fashion, Becker (1961) pioneered in the theoretical development of this concept. Because previous definitions of commitment have involved the linking of committed behavior to needs not observable and often inferred from the presence of the behavior, these were intuitive definitions. Becker's explanation of commitment involved the existence of a "side-bet" made either consciously by an individual or indirectly by outside forces which govern the rules of the situation in which he or she is involved. These side bets serve to commit the individual to a consistent line of action, which serves in turn to eliminate alternate lines of action for the individual (Abramson, Cutler, Kautz & Mendelson, 1958).

In a marital situation, an example of a consciously made side bet is an individual's choice of a spouse for the status the individual would vicariously receive through marriage to him or her. The goal of status is the side bet made by the individual and dissolution of the marriage would mean forfeiture of it. A side bet could be the stigma attached to divorce by society. Here, the individual chose marriage with the knowledge that side bets had been made for him or her. Even though the individual did not construct the societal rules

governing marriage, he or she accepted them as a component of marriage. Becker (1961) states that;

Decisions not supported by such side bets will lack staying power, crumpling in the face of opposition or fading away to be replaced by other essentially meaningless decisions until a commitment based on side bets stabilizes behavior. (p. 38)

Building on Becker's work, Johnson (1973) added that commitment has two components: personal and behavioral. Personal commitment, which he conceptualizes as a continuous, not dichotomous, variable, involves the degree or extent to which an individual is "dedicated to completion of a line of action." Behavioral commitment involves the consequences that the individual's actions have for his or her personal commitments. Personal commitment has been shown as an indication of the future quality of a marital relationship in that marriage, wherein a spouse reported commitment to his or her spouse increased in love expressed and decreased in marital problems. Commitment to the institution of marriage predicted continuation of the relationship, but a decrease in love expressed and an increase in marital problems (Swensen & Trahaug, 1985). Johnson (1973) further delineated the behavioral component of commitment as either social or cost commitment. Social commitment concerns the normative expectations which society holds for continuation of the individual's line of action, and

cost commitment refers to the individual's subjective evaluation of the costs to him or her of discontinuation of a line of action. The latter may entail actions which the individual finds distasteful such as divorce proceedings, changes in life-style, or loss of invested time, money, or emotion. The degree to which an individual is committed to a continuation of a line of action is indicative of the likelihood that it will continue (Johnson, 1973).

This background concerning the theoretical framework of commitment indicated commitment as a useful explanatory concept in the analysis of marital satisfaction and social exchange between spouses (Leik & Leik, 1976). Consideration of this variable offered insight into marriages characterized by what appear to be asymmetrical exchanges (McDonald, 1981). Commitment on the part of a marriage partner indicates that his or her interest in the relationship does not lie primarily in the even exchange of resources between the partners, but is focused on continuation of the relationship. In this situation, the concept of equitable exchange decreases in importance (Leik & Leik, 1976).

Murstein et al. (1977) studied the ramifications of exchange and non-exchange orientations for marital adjustment in married couples and found that marriages in

which at least one spouse was highly exchange-oriented had more difficulty with marital adjustment than those in which low exchange or non-exchange orientation existed. Extending this concept, if commitment lowered or removed the significance of equitable exchange in marriages and if low or non-exchange orientation was beneficial to marital satisfaction, then commitment was positively linked with marital satisfaction.

Gender

Studies have repeatedly shown men and women to differ in their personal relations with others (Fischer & Oliker, 1983). Because composition and utilization of social networks by early married spouses represented the outcome of a process which began during courtship, trends involving gender factors which have been found to occur during courtship were noted in the present study.

Babchuck (1965) noted that, beginning in courtship, males have been found to play a dominant role in the social interactions of the couple by choosing where the couple would go on a date, what they would do for entertainment, and with whom they would associate. It was during this stage that the couple were found to form their mutual network. Thus, dominance by the male explained why the male's close friends were more likely to be included in

the couple's mutual network than the female's close friends. Therefore, it appeared that in the couple context, women oriented themselves away from their primary friends more than men did during courtship (Babchuck, 1965). However, Johnson and Leslie (1982) found no differences in withdrawal from friends by gender. These authors suggested that variations in the social interactions of couples varied as much within genders as between genders due to the personality of each partner, not due to gender itself.

While marriage has been known to decrease the overall confiding behavior of both husband and wife in their friends (Booth & Hess, 1974), females reported more self-disclosing, emotional, and intimate relationships and men reported fewer personal relationships (Booth & Hess, 1974; Caldwell & Peplau, 1982; Rosenthal et al., 1986). Differences in the levels of confiding behavior of husbands and wives may have been due to society's restriction of self-disclosing behavior for men (Pleck, 1976; Suttles, 1970). Generally, men have been found to be emotionally inexpressive (Balswick & Peek, 1971; Komarovsky, 1976) and their emotions less stimulated by interpersonal situations (Allen & Haccoun, 1976).

Conversely, women's relationships have been noted as affectively richer (Williams, 1959), involving disclosure

of more personal information than have men's (Cozby, 1973). Women have been found to need more social support than men (Rosenthal et al., 1984), and to have been more likely to seek it (Burda, Vaux & Schill, 1984), and to have been less satisfied with the social support they did receive (Rosenthal et al., 1986). In view of these gender differences, one could hypothesize that husbands and wives utilize their social networks differently to compensate for deficits in affective exchange within the marriage, such that women are more likely to seek out an alternate source of affective exchange in their social networks.

Processes Over Time

Assessment of marital functioning or satisfaction at any given time must take into account past as well as present criteria (Goldberg & Deutsch, 1977), for these assessments represent the outcome of a developmental process involving courtship, everyday married life, and possible deterioration of the relationship over a period of time (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). The involvement of couples in their social networks has also been found to change over time (Adams, 1967; Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Milardo et al., 1983; Ryder et al., 1970; Shulman, 1975) and for this change to be related to gender differences

(Blood, 1969; Fischer & Oliner, 1983). Several authors have suggested that marital satisfaction was impacted by stages in the life cycle (Burr, 1970; Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Rollins & Cannon, 1974; Rollins & Feldman, 1970) as well as social network interaction (Blood, 1969; Bott, 1971; Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Nelson, 1966).

In an attempt to clarify discrepancies in earlier research, Rollins and Feldman (1970) reviewed 12 studies addressing the effects of the life cycle and gender on marital satisfaction. Using Duvall's (1967) classification of the eight stages of the family life cycle (beginning families, child bearing families, families with preschool children, families with school age children, families with teenagers, families launching young adults, families in the middle years, and aging families), they found that marriage and significant events during the marital career had very different meanings for men and women.

In the early stage of marriage, women who were studied were quite satisfied. This satisfaction showed a steady decline with a precipitous drop at childbearing, a leveling off until the empty nest stage, then an extensive increase during the retirement stage. Men exhibited a similar curvilinear pattern of slightly decreasing satisfaction from the beginning of marriage

until the children became teenagers. There was then a decline in satisfaction until the launching stage, when satisfaction increased through the empty nest and retirement stages.

Even though the patterns were similar, the husbands showed much less impact of the life cycle stage. Rollins and Feldman (1970) speculated that the significant decline in satisfaction for wives between the time they had children until the children left home was due to the reduction of positive companionship experiences with the husband which were replaced by child-rearing responsibilities. While studies have shown that the probability of divorce is highest during the first few years of marriage, these studies have taken into account those marriages wherein the individuals married at very early ages (under the age of 20), and late ages (over the age of 29), and the rate of divorce after second or third marriages (Booth & Edwards, 1985).

The mean age of the subjects in the present study was 23 and their mean length of marriage was approximately fourteen months. Previous research has indicated that the rate of divorce for persons marrying within this age span was lower than for those marrying at earlier or later ages regardless of education, religious or race factors (Booth & Edwards, 1985).

This discrepancy in divorce rates could be attributed to the fact that those who married at very early ages may have been less tolerant of marital dissatisfaction. This group had the greatest opportunity for remarriage. Persons who married after the age of 29 may have felt less pressure to remain married due to the confidence that they could cope emotionally and financially on their own and that they were accustomed to living without a spouse. However, the single greatest factor contributing to marital duration found by Booth and Edwards (1985) was skill in role performance. The mid-range group (marrying between the ages of 20 and 29) found to be most successful in their marriages in the study done by Booth and Edwards (1985) corresponded with the sample in the present study.

Even though persons who are under the age of 25 have the greatest opportunity for remarriage, pursuit of alternatives such as divorce and/or remarriage may be inhibited by barriers to dissolution (Levinger, 1965, 1976; Edwards & Saunders, 1981). These barriers could include moral proscriptions against divorce, or emotional or financial insecurity. Also, unlike those married at early ages, the parental support for the marriage was more likely for the mid-range age group. Those who married after the age of 29 could have developed special

bonds with friends and relatives the disruption of which the person marrying at this stage of life would have resented (Booth & Edwards, 1985). The greater familial and social network support for the mid-range group could serve to inhibit dissolution.

The present study utilized previous research on premarital network factors as a theoretical underpinning for social network formation, marital satisfaction, affective exchange, commitment, and gender differences in young married spouses (Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Lewis, 1973; Milardo et al., 1983). The sample included college-aged adults in their twenties with varied lengths of marriage, not to exceed six years. This time frame allowed investigation of changes in network size, composition, and involvement, and trends among young married adults in levels of affective exchange and commitment.

Synthesis of the Literature

The review of the literature presented above offered a theoretical framework for the focus of the present study, i.e., the organization and utilization by each spouse of his or her social networks to meet the needs generated within the marital relationship during early marriage. This overview supported the salience of social

network, marital satisfaction, affective exchange, commitment, gender, and family life cycle factors as components of this phenomenon. To fill a gap in previous research, the present study proposes the theory of dyadic compensation as an explanatory device.

The propositions of dyadic withdrawal during courtship represent a widely accepted theory outlining the processes characteristic of network reorganization and dyadic relationship development during this stage (Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Lewis, 1972; Milardo et al., 1983; Slater, 1963). Data available on the networks of early married adults suggested that the trend which began in courtship continued through early marriage with the husband dominating the selection of new friends for the couple (Johnson & Leslie, 1982). This fact was linked, in part, to the male's position in society and the work force. The male has traditionally held a dominant position over females. Even though a female's power increased relative to her degree of involvement in voluntary organizations or work outside the home, females did not as often hold positions of authority, either in voluntary organizations or work, thus perpetuating male dominance (Babchuck & Bates, 1963).

A synthesis of relationship research also found that emotional gratification, commitment, gender, and stage of

the family life cycle were associated with marital satisfaction (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). While emotional gratification within the marriage has been closely linked to marital satisfaction by numerous authors (Spanier & Lewis, 1980), the present study proposes that when affective exchange is low within the marriage, gratification can be sought from a source outside the marriage without threatening it (Nelson, 1966). A measure of marital satisfaction was used as an indicator, in part, of the effectiveness of the couple's network use and composition during this time span.

Commitment to the marriage was proposed as a key concept in understanding why a spouse would be willing to seek emotional gratification from an extra-marital source instead of leaving the relationship. Considerable support for this phenomenon existed in the commitment literature (Becker, 1961; Johnson, 1973; Leik & Leik, 1976; McDonald, 1981) in that individuals who were highly committed to a relationship were more concerned with maintaining it than with equity of exchange within it.

Gender differences have been shown to play a significant role in marital satisfaction (Rollins & Feldman, 1970), network formation (Babchuck, 1965), and emotional needs and resources (Rosenthal, Gesten & Shiffman, 1986) at various stages in the family life

cycle. The present study predicted that, due to these differences, wives would utilize their friendship networks more than husbands because (a) women report or display greater needs for emotional interaction (Rosenthal et al., 1986) and (b) males tend to be emotionally inexpressive (Komarovsky, 1976).

Dyadic Compensation

In many cases, couples turn to each other as their major source of affective fulfillment, but this may not always be possible. Lantz and Snyder (1969) found that even though people entered marriage with the expectation that their partner would compensate for the possible emotional emptiness they experienced while single, spouses frequently found that the marriage contained the same voids they hoped to overcome. The present study posits that any number of barriers could exist which limit or prohibit emotional fulfillment between partners. Heavy involvement in work, or personal shortcomings such as inexpressiveness, poor communication skills, or lack of insight into the partner's needs, would be detrimental to affective exchange. Not only do barriers to affective exchange sometimes exist between couples, but partners often vary in their need for affective exchange (Rosenthal et al., 1986).

Due to these barriers, shortcomings and differing needs, affective need fulfillment within the marriage could easily be deficient for one or both spouses. Since each partner comes into the marriage with a unique combination of needs and resources, it is unlikely that any one combination of persons will grant complete need fulfillment for both persons. Birdwhistell (1966) called this a "fantastic notion" which is blatantly unrealistic. When emotional alternatives are removed and the marriage partners are asked to be all things to each other, the burden on the marriage could become intolerable (Slater, 1977). Liem and Liem (1976) found that college students who received encouragement and support from their personal networks had lower feelings of inadequacy and depression.

Because the need for affective exchange is basic to everyone (Bowlby, 1969; Weiss, 1973), it is highly probable that affective fulfillment will be sought elsewhere if not found within the marriage (Bott, 1971). The present study proposes that if the spouse whose needs are not being met within the marriage is committed to continuation of the marriage, he or she must either go outside the marriage for fulfillment or remain unsatisfied. Although utilization of extra-marital sources of affective fulfillment can be threatening to a

couple's relationship (Blood, 1969; Bott, 1971; Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Levinger, 1976; Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Milardo et al., 1983), this study proposes that there are circumstances under which fulfillment of affective needs outside the marriage is not divisive to the couple. Johnson and Leslie (1982) stated that restrictions against affective exchange between married persons and their social networks applied mainly to those relationships which were potentially threatening to the dyad, such as cross-sex friendships.

It has been suggested that affective constraint within a dating couple's relationship is necessary to allow interdependency to grow and to protect the relationship from potentially threatening relationships (Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Milardo et al., 1983). However, the transition to marriage reveals many problems the couple may not have known they had, ones they did not address during courtship, or ones which arose after marriage, and, as their "idealized pictures" of each other fade under the realistic light of everyday life, these problems become increasingly apparent (Udry, 1973). One of the problems may be a deficiency of affective exchange felt by the husband or wife. When repeated experiences predict that anticipation of future rewards is fruitless, affective fulfillment outside the marriage

from an unthreatening source does not necessarily compete with the spouse. The husband or wife can utilize sources of emotional fulfillment outside the marriage, as long as they are non-threatening to the relationship and will not endanger it.

To what degree inequitable affective exchange is problematic to either partner depends on his or her beliefs. Murstein, Cerreto, and McDonald (1977) proposed that according to the degree to which spouses believe equity of exchange should characterize their relationships, these individuals could be placed on a continuum from high exchange orientation to non-exchange orientation. These researchers found that high exchange orientation in either husband or wife was deleterious to marital satisfaction, whereas non-exchange orientation was beneficial. An exchange oriented person was concerned with "keeping score" on exchanges and became upset when they were not what he or she perceived to be equitable. The non-exchange oriented person loved his or her partner unconditionally, receiving internal rewards because of adherence to a model of behavior consistent with his or her ideals.

The degree of commitment felt by the partners in a marriage affects the extent to which they are exchange or non-exchange oriented and thus either unwilling or

willing to tolerate asymmetrical affective exchange (Becker, 1961; Johnson, 1973; Leik & Leik, 1976; McDonald, 1981). Commitment on the part of a marriage partner indicates that his or her interest in the relationship does not lie primarily in the even exchange of resources between the partners, but is focused on the continuation of the relationship. Therefore the concept of equitable exchange diminishes in significance. The reasons for this commitment could be any number of things, the delineation of which was not the focus of the present study. It was only important to understand that if commitment existed for a married person, the married person had probably decided, either consciously or indirectly, that the rewards of staying in the marriage outweighed the costs of leaving it (Becker, 1961).

Men and women have been shown to differ in their need for affective fulfillment and their ability to supply it (Rosenthal et al., 1986). Women have reported more need for affective exchange than men and have been more likely to seek it (Burda et al., 1984). It was, therefore, expected that, in the present study, women would utilize extra-marital sources of affective exchange more than men.

The present study utilized data on the social networks of young married adults, their marital satisfaction during early marriage, their affective exchange, commitment, gender, and stages of the family life cycle. It examined the existence of dyadic compensation in marriages. The theory of dyadic compensation depicted in Group C of Figure 1 proposes that differing needs and resources exist in marital relationships with concomitant asymmetry of need fulfillment. When one partner is emotionally unfulfilled, but is highly committed to staying in the marriage, he or she can go outside the marriage to an unthreatening source in his or her social network to compensate for the lack of emotional gratification and still maintain high marital satisfaction. Commitment has been strongly supported in the relationship literature as a factor influencing a married person's feelings about his or her marriage such that, high commitment was indicative of a low exchange orientation and low commitment was indicative of a high exchange orientation (Becker, 1961; Johnson, 1973; Leik & Leik, 1976; McDonald, 1981). The individual highly committed to his or her marriage was more focused on continuation of the marriage than on perpetual examination of the equity of exchange within the marriage. The less committed

individual was more concerned with receiving benefits which matched or exceeded those contributed by him or her. Therefore, this study suggests that commitment does play a role in the willingness of married persons to utilize their social networks for affective need fulfillment when that fulfillment is lacking within the marriage.

Because emotional need fulfillment is an important and basic variable contributing to happiness (Bowlby, 1969; Slater, 1977; Weiss, 1973) it is proposed that to maintain marital satisfaction, persons committed to their marriages who do not report this need fulfillment from their spouses can seek it from a source(s) in their social network. Providing that the source of affective need fulfillment outside the marriage is not a potential alternate partner (a non-threatening source), this means of need fulfillment is not necessarily divisive to the couple (Blood, 1969; Bott, 1971; Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Levinger, 1976; Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Milardo et al., 1983). Interaction with their social networks is more likely to occur among wives, due to their greater need for affective exchange and to the fact that they more readily utilize their social networks in times of need (Burda et al., 1984; Rosenthal et al., 1986).

Hypotheses

Based upon the preceding review of the literature, the following hypotheses are tested:

1. Those individuals who report higher commitment to continuation of their marriage, lower affective exchange with their partner, and higher affective exchange with a non-threatening source in their social network will report higher marital satisfaction than those who report higher commitment to their marriage, lower affective exchange with their partner, and lower affective exchange with a non-threatening source(s) of their social network.
2. When higher commitment and lower affective exchange are reported by either gender in the sample, females will report high affective exchange with a non-threatening source in their social networks significantly more frequently than men.
3. Those individuals who report higher commitment to continuation of their marriage and higher affective exchange with their partner will report higher marital satisfaction than those who report lower commitment to their marriage and lower affective exchange with their partner, regardless of higher or lower affective exchange with any sector of their social network.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Sample

This research was nested in a larger study, Network Supports and Coping During Adult Transitions, with Dr. Judith L. Fischer and Dr. Donna Sollie (1988) as principal co-investigators. Utilizing selected subjects and data collected through this research, the present study was conducted.

The subjects for the study were randomly selected from a list of 1980 and potential 1982 graduates of Texas Tech University. From this list, 1575 students and former students were sent introductory letters explaining the purpose and benefits of the research project. Of 420 students and former students who agreed to participate in the study, 381 completed both the questionnaire and interview required. Examination of data on the 28% who dropped out of the study between agreement to participate and completion of the required forms revealed only a gender difference in that more males than females failed to continue the study.

For the purposes of the present study, only those subjects who were married, but not to each other for six years or less and under 30 years of age, were selected. These totaled 128, with approximately half men and half women. The present study investigated not only the exchange of affective behaviors between husband and wife, and their social networks, but also concerned patterns of these behaviors as they covaried with length of marriage.

The subjects ranged in age from 20 to 29, with a mean age of 23. Length of marriage ranged from 1 month to 72 months with a mean length of marriage of 13.53 months. Most were Caucasian (96%), Protestant/Christian (80%), and from small cities (50%) or rural or farm areas (22%). Ninety-two percent lived within 1 to 500 miles of their parents (51%) or closer (41%). Overall, 43% worked at professional or managerial jobs, 37% were primary students, 15% were in blue collar, sales, clerical or farming occupations, and 5% had no paid jobs.

Procedures

Data were obtained through a written questionnaire (Appendices A-D) and a follow-up interview (Appendix E). Included in the questionnaires completed in Fischer and Sollie's (1988) study, of which the present study was a part, were forms for collecting demographic information,

the Bem Sex Role Inventory, the Fischer-Narus Intimacy Scale, the Gender Role Attitudes Scale, the Marital Adjustment Test, the Social Readjustment Rating Scale, the Family Coping Inventory, the Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale, the Personal Well Being Scale, and a network worksheet. The questionnaires were mailed to the subjects beginning in January 1982. As each completed questionnaire was received, an appointment was made with that respondent for an oral interview. The purpose of the interview (Appendix E) was to insure that the network members listed by the respondent met the stated criteria and to gather additional information. To be included in the study, each respondent was required to complete both a questionnaire and an interview.

Relevant to the present study were measures of the demographic characteristics of the sample (Appendix A), the Fischer-Narus Intimacy Scale (Appendix B), a short form of the Marital Adjustment Test (Appendix C), and a form for listing up to fifty adult social network members, including spouses (Appendix D). Following Tolsdorf's (1976) criteria, these were to include only persons known by name, with whom there is a personal relationship, and persons seen at least once a year. Additionally, the respondents were asked to indicate the

frequency of contact, the length of the relationship, and the type of relationship held with each network member.

In the interview, the respondents were asked, on a scale from 1 to 6, how committed they were to continuation of the relationship with each member of the social network listed (Appendix E). To determine the degree of affective exchange between the subject and each network member listed, respondents identified whether affection and/or comfort were presently given and/or received within each relationship (Appendix E).

Respondents were asked to avoid answering these questions based on their perception of the desired or expected level of affective exchange with the network member, and to reply based on what behaviors were actually given and received.

When the questionnaires and interviews were completed, each respondent received a payment of \$5. Reliability of interviewing and coding procedures were insured through several practice interviews until an interrater reliability of 90% or better was achieved. Seven interviewers were employed for the study, of which the present author was one.

Operational Definitions and Measures

Gender

The sex of each respondent was recorded to allow for analysis of the data by gender. Each of the network members listed by the respondent was identified as male or female.

Threatening or Non-Threatening Network Source

Each of the network members listed by the respondent was identified as either kin, friend, or other (coach, minister, etc.). A threatening source of affective exchange in a respondent's social network was defined as one who was of the opposite sex and who was in the friend sector of the respondent's social network. A non-threatening source was defined as one who was a friend of the same sex as the respondent.

Commitment

Subjects indicated the degree of personal commitment they felt toward continuation of their relationship with their spouse by answering the question, "What is the degree of personal commitment you feel for continuing your present relationship?" The choices were: (1) none, (2) little, (3) moderate, (4) strong, (5) very strong, and (6) extremely strong (Appendix E). Because this

instrument consisted of a single item, reliability and validity testing were not possible. Therefore, the instrument was accepted as a test of commitment on face validity. However, this measure has been shown to be an accurate indicator of whether an individual will or will not remain in a friendship (Young, 1982). A classification of higher or lower commitment was assigned through a medial split. Table 1 provides ranges and medians for all variables.

Affective Exchange with Spouse

The respondents were asked to list up to 50 members of their social network who were known by name, with whom there was a personal relationship, and who were seen at least once a year (Tolsdorf, 1976) (Appendix E). Each network member was identified as to network sector (friend, kin, other). The respondent's spouse was included in this list.

Information concerning the exchange of eight behaviors between the respondent and his or her spouse was recorded by the interviewer. These behaviors included money, goods, affection, information, opinion, evaluation, activity, and comfort. Literature on social support functions that networks served, and Foa's theory

Table 1
Median Splits Derived from
Preliminary Analysis of Data

	<u>Range</u>	<u>Median</u>
Commitment	5-6 n=128	6
Affective Exchange with Partner	1-4 n=116	4
Intimacy	3.51-5.95 n=128	5.19
Affective Exchange with Same-Sex Friend	.00-3.80	2.5
Marital Satisfaction	56-155 n=128	123
Length of Marriage	1-72 mo.	20 mo.

of social support which identified the resources exchanged in interpersonal relationships (Foa, 1971; Foa & Foa, 1974) formed the basis for selection of the eight behaviors tested. Additional literature pointed to the importance of reciprocity in social support relationships (Caplan & Killilea, 1976; Cobb, 1976); therefore, the instrument documented both the giving and receiving of the behaviors. These behaviors were listed as affective or instrumental. Previous research (Barrera & Ainley, 1983; Mitchell & Trickett, 1980) identified these categories as salient exchanges between network members. Leslie and Grady's (1985) variables, termed emotional support and instrumental support, used definitions nearly identical to the ones used in the present study. A factor analytic study (Cardea, 1983) provided validation for these process dimensions and support for the discrimination of affective from instrumental exchanges. The present study utilized data from only the affective exchange category (affection and comfort). Affection was defined as "to give or receive expressions of affection, verbally or nonverbally, such as a hug, kiss, shared confidence or secret, or the person remains near you." The description of comfort was "to give or receive comfort when something has upset you" (Fischer, Sollie, Sorell & Green, 1989).

Intimacy

Because the data used to measure affective exchange between the respondent and his or her spouse (Appendix E) involved the giving and/or receiving of only two items, the Fischer-Narus Intimacy Scale (1981) (Appendix B) was also utilized to measure the degree of affection, closeness, and sharing between the respondent and his or her spouse. This made possible a more indepth measure of the actual level of affective exchange between husband and wife. This 39-item Likert-type scale included values ranging from 1=strong disagreement to 6=strong agreement and tapped affection, closeness, and sharing between the respondent and his or her spouse. Testing of the instrument prior to the present study by Fischer and Narus (1981) revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .96. A classification of higher or lower intimacy was assigned through a median split of intimacy scores.

Affective Exchange with Same-Sex Friend

To measure affective exchange between each respondent and the same sex friends in his or her social network, the same instrument used to measure affective exchange with the spouse (Appendix E) was utilized during an interview. Following Tolsdorf's (1976) criteria for the definition of friendship networks, the network

members listed by the respondent were required to be known by name, to be persons with whom there was a personal relationship, and to be persons who were seen at least once a year. The first twenty network members listed by the respondent on the Network Worksheet (Appendix D), which was received from the respondent in the questionnaire, were transposed to the Network Exchange Worksheet (Appendix E) by the interviewer in preparation for the interview. Only the first twenty members listed on the Network Worksheet were used, since pilot data (reported in Fischer & Sollie, 1988) showed minimal changes beyond the 20th member such that instances of affectionate and instrumental behavior given and received appeared nearly identical, regardless of the relationship of the network member to the respondent. It was assumed that the respondents were either unable or unwilling to discriminate among behavioral exchanges between themselves and network members beyond the 20th person listed (Fischer et al., 1989). Only the data from the affective category or behavioral exchanges between the respondent and his or her social network were utilized in the present study.

Scores for affective exchange with the social network could range from 0-4, representing one point for each "give" and one point for each "receive" listed by

the respondent. A classification of higher or lower affective exchange was assigned through a median split of the affective exchange scores.

Marital Satisfaction

The degree of happiness, agreement or disagreement on several marital issues, and beliefs about marriage were measured through the short form of the Marital Adjustment Test (Lock & Wallace, 1959). A shortened form of the Locke and Wallace Marital Adjustment Test which utilizes the most discriminating items from six previous versions of the scale was used to test marital satisfaction (Appendix C). This instrument contained fifteen items which measured the respondent's degree of happiness, agreement or disagreement on several marital issues, and beliefs about marriage. Locke and Wallace (1959) reported a split-half reliability of .90 and noted that the scale successfully discriminated between distressed and non-distressed couples. An average couple score of less than 100 indicated marital distress or maladjustment and good adjustment was indicated by a score greater than 105 (Birchler, Weiss & Vincent, 1975).

Demographics

Twenty-five background questions were asked of the respondents in Appendix A. These revealed the sex and age of the respondent, the length of time married, and various kinds of background information. The present study utilized only information concerning the sex and age of the respondent and the number of months married.

Length of Marriage

To overcome deficiencies noted in previous marital relationship studies (Feldman & Feldman, 1975; Spanier & Lewis, 1980), the sample for the present study was drawn from subjects within a limited age group (age 20 to age 29) involved in marriages of no more than six years in duration. These subjects had been married for varying lengths of time, but only within the life cycle stage defined for the purposes of this study as early marriage. Length of marriage was used as a control variable when classifications of long or short marriage were called for. These were assigned through a median split of the number of months married. Length of marriage ranged from 1 to 72 months, with a mean length of marriage of 13.53 months and a standard deviation of 10.14 months.

Analysis

To test the hypotheses, the subject's level of commitment to his or her marriage, the level of affective exchange between the subject and his or her spouse (intimacy scale), and the level of affective exchange reported by each subject between the subject and his or her social network were used as independent variables with marital satisfaction as the dependent variable. The gender of the social network member with whom each subject reported affective exchange was determined in order to classify this interaction as a threatening or non-threatening one. Length of marriage was used as a control variable. The following hypotheses were tested:

1. Those individuals who report higher commitment to continuation of their marriage, lower intimacy with their partner, and higher affective exchange with a non-threatening source in their social network will report higher marital satisfaction than those report higher commitment to their marriage, lower affective exchange with their partner, and lower affective exchange with a non-threatening source(s) in their social network (Figure 1).

2. When higher commitment and lower affective exchange are reported by either gender in the sample, females will report higher affective exchange with a non-

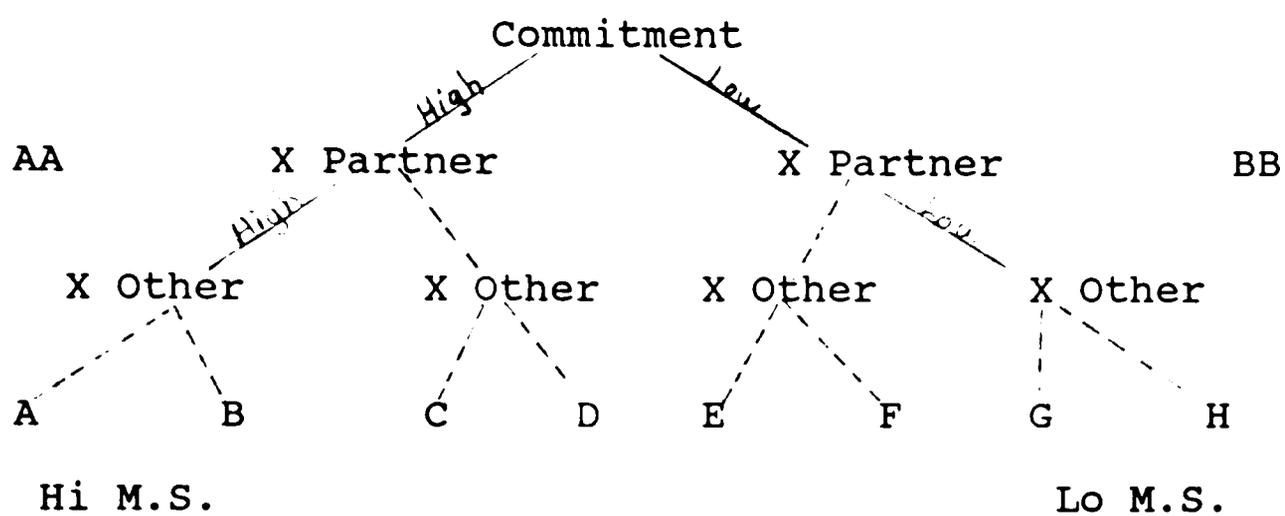
threatening source(s) in their social networks significantly more frequently than men.

The third hypothesis was not testable because there was almost no variation in commitment scores. It was stated as:

3. Those individuals who report higher commitment to continuation of their marriage and higher affective exchange with their partner will report higher marital satisfaction than those who report lower commitment to their marriage and lower affective exchange with their partner, regardless of higher or lower affective exchange with their social network.

The solid lines in Figure 2 represent the condition predicted in hypothesis three. The higher levels of commitment and affective exchange within Group AA were to have been tested against the lower levels of commitment and affective exchange with the partner in Group BB without regard for the level of affective exchange reported with the respondent's same-sex friends.

Figure 2



- X Partner - Affective exchange with partner.
- X Other - Affective exchange with non-threatening source(s) in social network.
- M.S. - Marital satisfaction

Hypothesis Three

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

The present study was designed to measure the interactive effects of commitment, affective exchange with the spouse, affective exchange with the social network, length of marriage, and gender on marital satisfaction during the first six years of marriage. Following a preliminary analysis of the data, the hypotheses were tested and additional analyses done.

Preliminary Analyses

Scores from the 0-6 range commitment scale were to be divided into high and low commitment groups by means of a median split (Table 1). However, 100% of the respondents reported a commitment score of 5 or above (high commitment), thus eliminating it as a useful dichotomous variable. As a result, the analysis of hypothesis three was not possible.

Scores from the 0-4 point affective exchange with the partner scale (Appendix E) also yielded no useful median split when all but one of the 116 respondents

reported a score of 4, indicating that they gave (1) affection and (2) comfort to their spouses and received (3) affection and (4) comfort from their spouses. Because the 39-item Intimacy Scale (Fischer & Narus, 1981) (Appendix B) also tapped the exchange of affection and comfort, the scores from the Intimacy Scale were substituted for the affective exchange with partner scores to provide the measure of affective exchange between the partners in the relationship. Using a 6-point Likert-type format, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each item of the scale as it related to their relationship with their spouse. Sample items included, "There is little desire to know about each other" (Item 2) and, "You can rely on each other to willingly share information regarding each other" (Item 4). A median split of intimacy scores revealed two balanced groups of higher intimacy (n= 65) and lower intimacy (n= 63) (Table 1) with a mean score of 4.813 (SD=0.375) (for the lower intimacy group) and a mean of 5.483 (SD=0.19) (for the higher intimacy group ($t_{123} = -12.70, p < .001$)).

A median split of the scores for affective exchange with same sex friends (Appendix E) yielded two balanced groups of lower-level (n=61) versus higher-level (n=67) affective exchange (Table 1). The mean affective

exchange with network score was 1.162 (SD=0.87) for the lower group and 3.637 (SD=0.47) for the higher group ($t(115) = -18.97, p < .001$).

As there was interest in the effects of length of marriage on intimacy, affective exchange with same sex friends, and marital satisfaction scores, further analysis was done to determine a median split for length of marriage (Table 1). This produced two groups of "short term" (n=66) and "long term" (n=59) married subjects. The mean number of months for short term marriages was 10.68 (SD=5.88) and 33.71 for long term marriages (SD=13.95). Based on the median split, the number of men and women in long- and short-term marriages were compared and found to be equivalent (Table 2). The mean length of marriage for men was 20.5 and 22.6 for women ($t(123) = -.77, n.s.$).

The respondents in the sample fell into equivalent groups of 59 males and 59 females. To determine how marital satisfaction varied between men and women with regard to intimacy, affective exchange with same sex friends, and length of marriage, gender was used as an independent variable in a final analysis and was used in hypothesis two.

Table 2
Length of Marriage by Gender

		Males	Females
Length of Marriage	<20 mo.	36	31
	>21 mo.	23	28
	Total	59	59

Table 3 provides the intercorrelations among all scales used in the study, i.e., Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale, Intimacy Scale, Affective Exchange with Social Network Scale, as well as length of marriage.

Testing of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis, as tested, postulated that subjects with (a) higher commitment to their marriages, (b) lower intimacy with their partner, but (c) higher affective exchange with a non-threatening source(s) in their social networks, would report higher marital satisfaction than those subjects who reported (a) higher commitment to their marriages, (b) lower intimacy with their partner, and (c) lower exchange of affection with a non-threatening source(s) in their social networks. Since 100% of the subjects met the criteria of high commitment, the testing of this hypothesis was done under the condition of high commitment with no reduction of the N. Because no median split emerged for affective exchange through data collection in the Network Exchange Worksheet (Appendix E), intimacy scores were utilized to measure affective exchange with the spouse. In keeping with the groundwork laid for this hypothesis in the literature review, the hypothesis was restated as follows:

Table 3

Intercorrelations of Affective Exchange,
Social Network, Marital Adjustment, Intimacy,
and Length of Marriage

	<u>Affect</u> <u>with</u> <u>Network</u>	<u>MAT</u>	<u>Intimacy</u>	<u>Length of</u> <u>Marriage</u>
MAT	.09 (n=116)			
Intimacy	.07 (n=117)	.63*** (n=124)		
Length of Marriage	-.04 (n=117)	-.23** (n=124)	-.21* (n=125)	

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

All subjects who report (a) lower intimacy between themselves and their spouses, but (b) higher affective exchange with non-threatening sources in their social networks, will report higher marital satisfaction than those subjects who report (a) lower intimacy between them and their spouses, and (b) lower affective exchange between them and non-threatening sources in their social network.

In order to test this revised hypothesis, a 2x2 (intimacy by network exchange) analysis of covariance with length of marriage as a covariate was used (Table 4). The statistical procedure yielded a significant main effect for intimacy ($F(1,114) = 43.45, p < .001$). However, contrary to the hypothesis, no significant main effect was found for either affective exchange with non-threatening sources in the social network ($F(1,114) = 1.23, n.s.$), or the interaction of intimacy by affective exchange ($F(1,114) = 1.54, n.s.$). Mean scores for marital satisfaction of higher intimacy versus lower intimacy subjects were 129.73 ($n=62$) and 109.75 ($n=57$). Means for higher exchange versus lower exchange with network were 122.19 ($n=58$) and 118.23 ($n=61$).

Despite the lack of an interaction effect, a more detailed second-order analysis was performed in order to

Table 4

Analysis of Covariance of Intimacy and Affective Exchange with Network on Marital Satisfaction with Length of Marriage as a Covariate

	<u>Sum of Squares</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>Mean Square</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
Length of Marriage	3415.49	1	3415.49	16.52	.001
Intimacy	10221.29	1	10221.29	49.45	.001
Affective Exchange with Network	254.13	1	254.13	1.23	ns
Intimacy X Affective Exchange with Network	318.98	1	318.98	1.54	ns
Residual	23564.27	114	206.70		

take a closer look at the "intimacy X affective exchange" configuration of the sample since there had been a specific hypothesis concerning the scores in these cells.

The contrast testing procedure of intimacy and affective exchange with network on marital satisfaction using Tukey HSD provided a more indepth look at the differences between higher and lower levels of intimacy and affective exchange with the network. Table 5 offers a summary of the contrasts and indicates a significant difference in marital adjustment between the higher intimacy and lower intimacy groups, regardless of the level of affective exchange with the network. The hypothesis predicted a difference between lower intimacy-higher affective exchange and lower intimacy-lower affective exchange which was not found. Thus, hypothesis one was not supported.

Since length of marriage was a significant covariate ($F(1,114) = 16.52, p < .001$) in the analysis, an additional analysis was conducted regarding length of marriage and affective exchange with the network. Length of marriage was split at the median ($M=20$ months) and entered as an independent variable in order to determine its effects. Even though the two resulting groups are labeled "shorter"- and "longer"-term marriages, it is

Table 5

Marital Satisfaction Scores for Intimacy
by Affective Exchange with Network

		Affective Exchange with Network	
		Lower	Higher
Intimacy	Lower	*109.77 SD=16.97 n=30	*109.74 SD=16.47 n=27
	Higher	**126.42 SD=10.75 n=31	**133.03 SD=14.64 n=31

* No significant difference between marital satisfaction scores for the high and low affective exchange with network groups under the condition of lower intimacy indicates that dyadic compensation did not occur.

** High intimacy groups are significantly different from low intimacy groups at the .05 level (Tukey HDS).

important to recognize that the sample used in the study contained persons married six years or less. Therefore, the median based distinction between short/long should be approached with caution. With respect to hypothesis one, length of marriage had a significant main effect on marital satisfaction ($F(1,114) = 16.52, p < .01$). Mean marital satisfaction scores were 122.32 for the shorter term marriages, and 117.52 for the longer term marriages indicating a decline in marital satisfaction over the first six years of marriage. Under the condition of low intimacy, the differences between higher and lower affective exchange with the social network in shorter and longer marriages were contrasted (Table 6).

Test results indicated under the condition of lower intimacy between husband and wife, affective exchange with a non-threatening source in the social network did not impact marital satisfaction within either longer or shorter-term marriages. This additional analysis found no support for hypothesis one.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis two stated that within the lower intimacy subgroup, women would have greater exchanges with their social networks than men. The mean score for affective exchange with a non-threatening member(s) under the

Table 6

Marital Satisfaction Scores for Affective
Exchange with Network by Length of
Marriage within Lower Intimacy Group

		Lower Intimacy Group	
		Affective Exchange with Network	
		Lower Net X	Higher Net X
Length of Marriage	Shorter n=29	111.92 n=13	116.19 n=16
	Longer n=28	108.12 n=17	100.36 n=11

No significant differences at the 0.05 level.

condition of low intimacy for women was 3.013, while men reporting low intimacy had a mean score for affective exchange with a network member(s) of 1.86. In a one-tailed t-test of significance, women were found to have greater social network affective exchanges more often than men ($t(57) = 3.50, p < .001$). As a result, hypothesis two was supported.

The number of women who were higher or lower in use of their social networks for affective exchange regardless of intimacy level was compared with the number of men who were higher or lower in use of their social networks for affective exchange (Table 7). This comparison revealed the same gender-based pattern of network use: women were more often higher in affective exchanges with their social networks than men. Men were often lower in affective exchanges with their social networks than women.

Because hypothesis two was supported, further analysis was done using gender as an independent variable with intimacy, affective exchange with the network, and length of marriage in order to determine any effects of gender on marital satisfaction. In a 2x2x2 analysis of covariance with length of marriage as a covariate (Table 8), gender was not a significant main effect on marital

Table 7

Gender Differences in Network Use

Affective Exchange with Network

	Lower	Higher
Men	43	13
Women	15	44

$$\chi^2 (1) = 28.30 \quad p < .001$$

Table 8

Analysis of Covariance of Affective Exchange with Network, Intimacy, and Gender on Marital Satisfaction with Length of Marriage as Covariate

	<u>Sum of Squares</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>Mean Square</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>
Covariate					
Length of Marriage	3104.20	1	3104.20	14.63	.00
Main Effects					
Affective Exchange	135.00	1	135.00	.636	ns
Intimacy	9877.67	1	9877.67	46.55	.00
Gender	4.14	1	4.14	.02	ns
2-Way Interactions					
Affective Exchange-Intimacy	37.90	1	37.90	.18	ns
Affective Exchange-Gender	52.81	1	52.81	.25	ns
Intimacy-Gender	273.65	1	273.65	1.29	ns
3-Way Interactions					
Affective Exchange-Intimacy-Gender	.71	1	.71	.003	ns
Residual	23129.92	109	212.20		

satisfaction, nor did it interact significantly with any of the other variables.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis three postulated that individuals who reported higher commitment to their marriages and higher intimacy with their partners would report higher marital satisfaction than those who reported lower commitment to the marriage and lower intimacy with their partners, regardless of affective exchange with their social networks. However, because no useful median split emerged from the commitment scores, the original hypothesis could not be tested.

CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

The focus of the present study has been on the utilization by married persons of their social networks to supplement affective needs not met within their marriage. While research has repeatedly indicated the exchange of affection and comfort between husband and wife as an integral component of marital satisfaction (Levinger, 1965; Lewis & Spanier, 1979), there continue to be those marriages within which this exchange is low or deficient, but high marital satisfaction is reported. As an explanatory concept for this phenomenon, dyadic compensation theory has been proposed. This theory states that when commitment to remain in a marriage is high, a married person will compensate for low or deficient affective exchange within the marriage by utilizing a source(s) in their social network for affective need fulfillment. When that source is a non-threatening one, or a person or persons not considered to be a potential alternate partner, the married person can meet his or her needs for affective exchange within his or her social network and maintain a high level of

marital satisfaction within the marriage. While this compensation effect could be tested at any life stage, early marriage was chosen for the present analysis.

Testing of this theory involved the independent variables of commitment, affective exchange with the marriage partner (intimacy), and affective exchange with a non-threatening source(s) in the social network, and the dependent variable of marital satisfaction. A major strength of this study lies in its utilization of a clearly defined sample of persons in early marriage (one month to six years) within a specific age group (20 to 29). This design minimized the possibility of misleading findings which could be drawn from a sample comprised of persons married no longer than six years, but from any age group or life stage or from samples for which length of marriage was not controlled. The effects of commitment, intimacy, affective exchange with the social network, and gender on marital satisfaction were tested with length of marriage as a control variable. The following sections focus on each of these variables independently and on any interaction effects between or among them.

Commitment

The theory of dyadic compensation addresses relationships wherein one partner reports lower affective exchange, but higher marital satisfaction. This theory proposes that a partner in this type of relationship will weigh this deficiency within his or her marriage against the assets of remaining in the relationship to determine his or her satisfaction with it. Commitment has been cited by many authors as an aspect of relationships which is indicative of a lower emphasis on equal distribution of resources between spouses (Becker, 1976; Leik & Leik, 1976; McDonald, 1981). The theory of dyadic compensation utilizes commitment as an explanatory concept for balancing the inequitable social exchange of affection between spouses.

Unfortunately, 100% of the scores for commitment were reported as high. This finding severely limited the ability to test for the role of commitment in the marriages of the respondents because it precluded testing situations where commitment was low. There was no way to determine what level of satisfaction would have resulted from the conditions of low commitment, low affective exchange with the spouse, and high or low affective exchange with the social network.

Preliminary analysis of the data utilized in the sample at the outset of the study would have identified the sample as inappropriate for testing all the hypotheses of the present study. However, because the measure of commitment used in the study had been previously shown to successfully discriminate between friends who would or would not stay in a relationship (Young, 1982), this was not done. In the future, attempts should be made to obtain samples with low and high committed married persons.

As previously stated, the data for the sample were collected through a questionnaire and an interview. Those who completed the questionnaire but failed to complete the interview were dropped from the study. Because commitment scores were recorded in the interview, it was impossible to test those respondents who dropped the study with regard to commitment. There are, however, several characteristics of the sample which could have contributed to the lack of variation in commitment scores.

The sample consisted of persons married for no more than six years and who were either college students or recent graduates. Their commitment scores could have reflected a commitment based on the rewards of the relationship at the time of testing, for they had been

married a relatively short period of time (mean length of marriage = 13.53 months) and taking the step to marriage generally represents a strong commitment. Additionally, persons who attend college could be those who anticipate future rewards. The impetus for a college education is a good job or, at least, the prospect of an increased quality of life. Staying in college many times requires the delay of gratification during college due to the demands of time and energy placed upon the students. Due to the high cost of a college education, those respondents with limited resources could have been financially dependent on their spouses, and, therefore, committed to remaining within the relationship.

Compensation by the respondents through their college responsibilities or job careers could have occurred. Respondents were either in preparation for careers or in the early stages of careers. Association with classmates who held similar goals and who were under similar pressures could have created a sense of camaraderie which could have served as a substitute source of emotional support for the person who was not receiving higher levels of emotional support at home. This type support could have been realized without intimate interactions among the students. The task of establishing themselves in the job market could also have

served as the target of the respondents' energies as well as a source of support.

Additionally, compensation could have been achieved from the spouse or social network in ways not tested in the study. Data on the exchange of six types of instrumental behaviors (money, goods, information, opinion, evaluation and activity - Appendix E) were not utilized in the present analysis. It is possible that those respondents who did not report a higher level of affective exchange were experiencing higher levels of instrumental exchange which were responsible for their higher marital satisfaction.

In sum, due to the nature of the sample, the respondents could have reported high commitment due to the quality of their relationships at the time of testing, or due to anticipation of a future life situation to which he or she was committed. Despite the lack of variation in commitment scores, the crucial part of dyadic compensation theory was that under conditions of high commitment, those who failed to have needs met within the marriage would seek a non-threatening source of need fulfillment outside the marriage. With certain limitations, this prediction was testable.

Affective Exchange With the Spouse

The first hypothesis, which was designed to test the validity of dyadic compensation theory, stated that those individuals who report higher commitment to continuation of their marriage, lower affective exchange with their partner, and higher affective exchange with a non-threatening source in their social network will report higher marital satisfaction than those who report higher commitment to their marriage, lower affective exchange with their partner, and lower affective exchange with a non-threatening source in their social network.

Two instruments were used to measure affective exchange between the respondent and his or her spouse. The first instrument was the Network Exchange Worksheet (Appendix E). Responses for this form were recorded by an interviewer. The respondent was asked whether he or she gave or received affection, comfort, money, goods, information, opinion, evaluation, or activity. A positive reply on each item resulted in a score of one point. In the present study, only the scores for the giving and receiving of affection and comfort were utilized. The possible range of scores taken from the instrument was 0-4. This instrument proved insensitive to variations in affective exchange with the partner. This homogeneity of scores could have been due to the

nature of the instrument used wherein there was a limited range of possible responses. A Likert-type scale with a range of 1-5 which indicated how much affection or comfort was given or received could have yielded data with a greater range and, hence, greater utility for the present study.

This suggestion is supported by the scores taken from the Fischer-Narus Intimacy Scale (1988) (Appendix B). Its 1-6-point Likert-type format and 39 items did produce scores which, when split at the median, revealed two equivalent groups of higher and lower intimacy. The fact that this scale also tapped the exchange of affection and comfort indicates that the homogeneity of the affective exchange scores taken from the Network Exchange Worksheet could have been a result of the design of the instrument, not the characteristics of the sample.

The range and mean scores taken from the Fischer-Narus Intimacy Scale offer another explanation for the high affective exchange scores which should be mentioned. The range of scores for this scale was 3.51-5.95 with a mean score of 4.813 for the lower intimacy group and 5.483 for the higher intimacy group. The possible range of scores was 1-6. Thus, the mean lower intimacy score was much closer to the mean higher intimacy score than to the lowest possible score of 1. This observation

indicates that even the lower intimacy group could have been largely comprised of subjects experiencing relatively high intimacy.

As was expected, intimacy was found to have a significant positive effect on marital satisfaction. It was not found to interact with affective exchange with the social network to influence marital satisfaction. This finding offered no support for the first hypothesis. The conditions of lower intimacy and higher affective exchange with the social network were predicted to result in higher marital satisfaction than the conditions of lower intimacy and lower affective exchange with the social network. This interaction effect was not found.

Affective Exchange With Same-Sex Friend

It was postulated in hypothesis one that persons who reported lower levels of intimacy with their partners, but higher affective exchange with non-threatening sources in the social network would also report higher marital satisfaction. None of the analyses revealed a main effect or interaction effect of affective exchange with the network on marital satisfaction. Previous research addressing the social networks of couples cited a high level of affective exchange between the partners and their friends as threatening to their relationship

(Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Lewis, 1973; Milardo et al., 1983). However, this study found that after marriage there was no effect, either positive or negative, on marital satisfaction from affective exchange with same sex friends. By utilizing a sample which included persons between the ages of 20 and 29 who had been married not more than six years, the present study determined that while the exchange of affection and comfort between romantically involved persons and their friends may be detrimental during the development of a relationship, this exchange does not detract from marital satisfaction during the first six years of marriage.

As previously noted, the present testing of dyadic compensation theory involved one network sector--same sex friends, and one means of compensation--through affective exchange with friends. It is possible that compensation could be broader than that included in this study. Compensation could include the use of kin, the use of work and career, or the exchange of other resources not tested. With young, early marrieds, parents may have remained a source of important emotional support. The question then becomes a teleological one. When low intimacy was reported, was it due to relationship factors between the respondent and his or her spouse or to the fact that the respondent had continued to draw such a

high level of emotional support from his or her parents that intimacy was unneeded or underdeveloped within his or her marriage?

The accessibility of the respondent's parents for emotional support in the present study was likely. Some 92% of the respondents lived within 500 miles of their parents. Forty-one percent of the 92% lived even closer. Even though demographic information included in the questionnaire containing statistics on the geographic proximity of each of the respondents to their parents was available for the present study, it was not used. Families have been shown to provide affective and instrumental support even in the absence of geographic propinquity (Budson & Jolly, 1978; Firth, Hubert & Forge, 1970; Litwak, 1950-1960; Litwak & Szeleny, 1969). Thus, even those respondents at some distance from kin might have utilized kin for affectional exchanges. Including the kin sector in future research would help shed light on this issue.

Length of Marriage

Length of marriage was incorporated into the present analysis to determine the effects of time on each of the independent variables tested and marital satisfaction. Results indicated that marital satisfaction was

influenced by length of marriage, thus supporting previous research stating that marital satisfaction steadily decreases over the first ten years of marriage (Bossard & Boll, 1955; Luckey, 1966; Rollins & Feldman, 1970). When incorporating length of marriage as a dichotomous variable representing shorter (0-20 months) and longer (21-72 months) term marriages, an interaction effect was not found with affective exchange with the social system. Thus the predicted trend of higher utilization of the respondent's social networks with length of marriage did not occur. Using length of marriage as a dichotomous control variable, an analysis of variance indicated no interaction effect between intimacy and affective exchange with the social network. The incidence of higher or lower intimacy combined with higher or lower affective exchange with the social networks was not influenced by length of marriage.

In summary, even though marital satisfaction did decrease over the first six years of marriage, this decrease was not accompanied by an increase in interaction with same-sex friends for affective need fulfillment. Additionally, increased length of marriage did not predict that married persons would utilize their same-sex friends for affective need fulfillment more regardless of intimacy within the marriage.

Gender

Males and females were predicted to use their social systems differently, therefore, the effects of gender were investigated. Specifically, the effects of gender were tested in hypothesis two and a final analysis of the variables included in the study. Hypothesis two stated that under the condition of low intimacy, women would utilize their friendship networks for affective need fulfillment more often than men. This hypothesis was supported. In fact, women used their social networks more than men for affective need fulfillment regardless of the level of intimacy reported within the marriage. This finding was consistent with literature addressing the emotional needs and social network involvement of men and women (Booth, 1972). Women tended to report a greater need for affective exchange than men and were less satisfied with the affective support they did receive (Rosenthal et al., 1986). Moreover, men have been reported to engage in more instrumental behaviors outside their marriages than affective ones (Booth, 1972). These characteristics for males suggest that dyadic compensation theory was tested for males within a behavioral category (affective exchange) they are known not to use heavily, possibly explaining one reason for lack of support for the theory. Utilization of the

instrumental behavioral exchanges as well as other exchanges available in the Network Exchange Worksheet (Appendix E) would provide a means of examining this issue in future research.

In a final analysis, the effects of affective exchange with the social network, intimacy, and gender were tested with length of marriage as a covariate. Gender showed no main effect on marital satisfaction. Also, there was no interaction between gender and affective exchange with the social network, an interesting finding since women have been shown to be less satisfied than men with emotional support they receive from their social networks (Rosenthal et al., 1986) and to have a greater propensity for same-sex bonding than men (Booth, 1972).

Limitations

While the major strength of the study was its clearly defined sample, several factors such as (a) measures used, (b) sample composition, and (c) the choice of variables used in the testing procedure may have contributed toward a lack of significant results. Two of the scales used (those used to measure commitment and affective exchange) in the study provided no variation of scores, thus limiting the analysis possible. Homogeneity

of the commitment scores precluded optimal testing of the first hypothesis. Because it is unlikely that 100% of the respondents felt exactly the same amount of commitment, it is possible that the method of determining commitment among the respondents was faulty. Having the respondent record commitment information on a paper and pencil scale with a variety of items tapping commitment would have allowed the respondent more opportunity for reflection on and evaluation of his or her actual level of commitment. The homogeneity of commitment scores could have also been attributable to the age of the marriage cohort. An older sample could produce more diverse commitment scores.

The Fischer-Narus Intimacy Scale used made it possible to dichotomize the respondents into higher and lower groups, but lower intimacy could not be called "low" intimacy since the mean score for the lower groups was still relatively high compared to the possible range of scores on this measure. These findings could have been due to the nature of the sample. It is suggested that an older sample may reveal more varied results.

To better test the level of affective exchange between the respondent and his or her spouse and the respondent and his or her social network using the Network Exchange Worksheet, this scale could be modified

to a 1-5-point Likert-type scale. Such modification would give a broader range of scores than the yes or no answer asked for in the study and could yield more definitive data.

Inclusion of individuals who were not college students or recent graduates in the sample could have provided a sample more representative of the general population. Persons of the same age group and who were married for six years or less but not in college may have reported different commitment scores. A comparison of the commitment scores of the two groups would contribute toward a better understanding of commitment during early marriage.

Because dyadic compensation as conceptualized in the present study was not shown to occur within the first six years of marriage with the behavioral exchanges tested, it is suggested that this theory be tested within longer-term marriages such as those between seven and twenty years. However, it is possible that the lack of support for dyadic compensation within this cohort could be due to the selection of variables rather than lack of its existence.

By limiting the social network tested to the same-sex friend category, nothing was learned about high affective exchange with kin or opposite-sex friends under

the conditions of high and low affective exchange between the respondent and his or her spouse. The theory of dyadic compensation states that under the condition of high commitment, high levels of affective exchange with same-sex friends when affective exchange between husband and wife is low is not necessarily detrimental to a marriage, but could help sustain it. Exclusion of the kin and opposite-sex friend sectors in the present analysis allowed no means of testing the effects of interaction with these sectors as either negative or beneficial. The number of friends or kin with whom the behavioral exchanges were reported was not documented in the present study. Utilization of this data would reveal how much social support was being utilized by the respondents. A large amount of support from one sector or individual would have very different implications than minimal support from one sector or individual.

The exclusion of the instrumental exchange data available on the Network Exchange Worksheet from the list of behavioral exchanges analyzed eliminated a category of behavioral exchanges in which men have been shown to engage frequently. This exclusion precluded the analysis of instrumental exchanges between husband and wife, the respondent and his or her kin, or the respondent and opposite-sex friends and/or colleagues. Equally

important is the salience of each behavioral exchange to the respondent. For instance, affection and comfort may not be as critical to the respondent as activity, goods, or money. By limiting the exchanges tested in the present study to affection and comfort, the assumption was made that these exchanges were the only areas in which the respondents would seek to compensate for lower marital satisfaction. As has been noted, compensation might have occurred in areas not tested in this study.

In summary, the most serious limitations of the present study stemmed from the design of the instruments used to test commitment and affective exchange (Network Exchange Worksheet), the exclusion of the data available on behavioral exchanges between the respondents and their kin and opposite-sex networks, and the exclusion of the instrumental exchanges in the analysis of behavioral exchanges. Due to these limitations, dyadic compensation theory was not adequately tested. Less serious was the selection of a sample comprised solely of college students and recent graduates and of subjects married for six years or less.

Future Directions

Suggestions for future research testing the theory of dyadic compensation include: (a) modification of the

instruments used in the present study to measure commitment and affective exchange, (b) a larger sample, more representative of the general population than one comprised exclusively of college students and recent graduates, and one comprised of subjects in a later stage of marriage (seven to 20 years), and one large enough to accommodate the increased number of variables suggested, (c) examination of both affective and instrumental exchanges between the married respondents and the respondents and all sectors of their social networks, (d) the inclusion of all network members with whom there are behavioral exchanges reported, and (e) the degree of importance attached to each behavioral exchange by the respondent. These modifications would provide a more accurate testing of dyadic compensation among married persons.

Summary

This research has addressed marital satisfaction during the first six years of marriage as influenced by various conditions of higher and lower commitment, intimacy, and affective exchange with same-sex friends in the social network. It was conducted for the purpose of testing the theory of dyadic compensation. Utilizing literature from relationship research, this theory was

developed to investigate marriage wherein low intimacy between the husband and wife exist, but high marital satisfaction was reported.

Previous research lends support for the variables incorporated in the study. Commitment to remain within a marriage has been shown as a considerable influence on an individual's assessment of his or her marital satisfaction (Cook & Emerson, 1978) and has been associated with a lowered emphasis on the even distribution of resources within the marriage (McDonald, 1981). However, all the subjects in the study reported high commitment, making it impossible to determine low commitment's role in dyadic compensation. Intimacy, or the exchange of affection and comfort, has been cited, as well, as an important condition for marital satisfaction (Levinger, 1965; Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Rogers, 1972; Rubin, 1974). As was expected, high intimacy with the spouse was related to high marital satisfaction. There are, however, relationships within which both high marital satisfaction and low intimacy are reported (Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Udry, 1973). Because these married couples were embedded in a larger social system which was comprised of friends, relatives, and various other associates, analysis of such marriages would have been lacking without consideration of these social networks, a

notion set forth in Bott's (1971) pioneering study of the influence of social networks on married couples. Subsequent to Bott's research, a number of additional studies have supported the salience of the social networks of couples as a variable profoundly affecting the marital satisfaction of couples (Blood, 1969); Johnson & Leslie, 1982; Lewis, 1972; Nelson, 1966; Slater, 1963). However, affective exchange with same-sex friends showed no main effect on marital satisfaction. Most important to the testing of dyadic compensation theory was the determination of an interaction effect among intimacy, affective exchange with the network, and marital satisfaction. Analysis of the data indicated no such interaction among the three variables. Thus, the first hypothesis, which tested dyadic compensation, was not supported.

Gender differences in intimate relationships and social network interaction, cited in numerous studies (Booth & Hess, 1974; Caldwell & Peplau, 1982; Fischer & Oliner, 1983; Rosenthal et al., 1986), were also considered in the study. Under the condition of low intimacy, women were predicted to use their social networks for affective need fulfillment more than men in hypothesis two. This was found to be true. A closer analysis of this finding indicated that women used their

social networks for affective exchange more often than men regardless of the level of intimacy they reported within their marriages. This was the only gender effect found in the study. The inclusion of gender as a variable in this analysis was important because even though other studies of intimacy differences between genders have noted a similar trend (Caldwell & Peplau, 1982), their study did not function to test gender differences in network involvement as a component of dyadic compensation.

To determine trends in intimacy, affective exchange with the social network, and marital satisfaction over the six year span of marriage studied, analysis of the data included length of marriage as a variable, for marital satisfaction reflects the outcome of a process which involves the formation, maintenance, and dissolution over a period of time (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). Length of marriage had a main effect on marital satisfaction such that it decreased over time. It had no interaction effect with intimacy or affective exchange with the social network.

In summary, even though no support for dyadic compensation was found in the analysis, several observations were made which lend a better understanding of relationship factors during early marriage. The absence

of an interaction effect between affective exchange with the network and marital satisfaction supported one of the propositions of dyadic compensation theory. It was predicted that married persons could engage in a high level of affective exchange with a same-sex friend in their social network without decreasing marital satisfaction. Under the condition of high commitment to their marriages, during the first six years of marriage, married persons used a same-sex friend in their social network for a high level of affective exchange without lowering their marital satisfaction. This was true whether they perceived the intimacy within their marriages to be high or low, and occurred more often among women than men.

This study has examined the role of the social networks of young married couples as a resource for supplementing emotional needs not met within the marriage. Recent relationship literature has emphasized the importance of these networks for not only emotional support, but for a broad range of supports which profoundly influence the well-being of families (Anderson, 1982). Because network support continues to be cited as crucial to the health and well-being of families, and as stated in a report by the 1980 White House Conference on Families, the roles of the social networks of families

are changing (Anderson, 1982). It would be helpful to have a better understanding of the types of support optimal for men and women in different life styles.

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APPENDIX A
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

INSTRUCTIONS: Please describe yourself and your background by writing the number of the one choice to each item which best describes you in the space at the left. There are no answers which are better than any other answers; the best answer is one which comes closest to describing how you are or where you have been or how you feel about things.

Please work quickly and accurately. Do not dwell on any item, but please answer every item. If you are not sure, try to answer to the best of your ability.

- _____ 1. Your sex:
 1. Male
 2. Female
- _____ 2-3. Your age -- write in:
- _____ 4. Your race/ethnic background:
 1. Black/Negro
 2. Chicano/Mexican American
 3. American Indian
 4. Oriental
 5. White/Caucasian
 6. Other (specify) _____
- _____ 5-6. Number of brothers -- write in:
- _____ 7-8. Number of sisters -- write in:
- _____ 9-10. What order were you born?
 1. Only child
 2. First born
 3. Middle born
 4. Last born
- _____ 11. With whom did you live the majority of the time when you were growing up?
 1. Both parents
 2. Single parent
 3. Other (specify) _____

- _____ 12-13. What is your marital status and best guess about the future?
1. Single
 2. Engaged
 3. Married
 4. Formerly married
- _____ 14. Which of the following best describes your parents' present marital status?
1. Original/adoptive parents live together
 2. Separated or divorced
 3. One or both deceased
- _____ 15. How old were you when your parents' marriage ended?
1. It did not end
 2. Birth - 5 years
 3. 5 - 10 years
 4. 10 - 15 years
 5. 15-18 years
 6. 18-25 years
 7. Older than 25 years
- _____ 16. With whom do you live now?
1. Parent (s)
 2. Spouse
 3. Friend/Roommate(s)
 4. Relatives
 5. Alone
- _____ 17. Number of children -- write in:
- _____ 18. If you could have just what you want, how many children would you like to have?
1. Haven't decided
 2. none
 3. one
 4. two
 5. three or more
- _____ 19. How old would you like to be when you have your first child? -- write in:
- _____ 20. How old would you like to be when you have your last child? -- write in:

- _____ 21. Present religious affiliation or preference:
1. Catholic
2. Protestant/Christian
3. Jewish
4. Other (specify) _____
- _____ 22. To what extent do you consider yourself religious?
1. Not at all
2. Mildly
3. Moderately
4. Strongly
- _____ 23. Which best describes your parents' financial status when you were growing up?
1. Not at all well off
2. Less than well off
3. Comfortable
4. Moderately well off
5. Very well off
- _____ 24. Which best describes your financial status?
1. Not at all well off
2. Less than comfortable
3. Comfortable
4. Moderately well off
5. Very well off
- _____ 25. When you were growing up, were you primarily a resident of:
1. Rural community or farm
2. Small city/Suburb
3. Large city
- _____ 26. How close do you live to your parents now?
1. Live with them
2. Within one mile
3. Between 1-20 miles
4. Between 20-100 miles
5. Between 100-500 miles
6. Over 1000 miles
7. Cannot answer question

_____ 27.

Highest level of school completed:

1. 8th grade or less
2. 11th grade or less
3. 12 grade or less
4. Some college or trade school
5. College degree
6. Graduate work
7. Graduate degree
8. Post-graduate work

APPENDIX B
FISCHER-NARUS INTIMACY SCALE

Consider the person who is closest to you. In the following questions, S is a person who is special to you: a spouse, a best friend, a relative. Consider the relationship you have with S and answer the following statements according to how much you agree this is true of your relationship. Use this scale:

6. Strong Agreement
5. Moderate Agreement
4. Slight Agreement
3. Slight Disagreement
2. Moderate Disagreement
1. Strong Disagreement

- _____ 1. There is some hedging, alibiing, or exaggerating regarding you or S.
- _____ 2. There is little desire to know much about each other.
- _____ 3. There is intentional deceit, lying and marked hostility.
- _____ 4. You can rely on each other to willingly share information regarding each other.
- _____ 5. There is much honesty, self-disclosure, and openness.
- _____ 6. There is a willingness to listen and to learn.
- _____ 7. While together you become aware only of your thoughts and feelings.
- _____ 8. While together you tend to become displeased, tense, and/or irritable.
- _____ 9. While together, you tend to be generally aware and sensitive regarding each other.
- _____ 10. While together you tend to be please, hopeful, and/or relaxed.
- _____ 11. There is competetion to be right.
- _____ 12. There is dedication and unswerving loyalty in the relationship.
- _____ 13. There are needs to thwart, frustrate, or displease the other.

- _____ 14. There is an absence of discussion with each other and/or remoteness with each other.
- _____ 15. Problems between you almost always end up in destructive actions and/or resentments.
- _____ 16. There is a willingness to acknowledge errors.
- _____ 17. Problems almost always end up with reconciliations, compromises, and mutually satisfying solutions.
- _____ 18. There are feelings of a need to try harder.
- _____ 19. There are unrealistic restraints imposed by the other.
- _____ 20. There is unwillingness to allow the other a sense of selfcentity and independence from dictatorial control.
- _____ 21. There are few feelings of obligation and self demands with regard to the other.
- _____ 22. There is personal autonomy and respect for each other's choices.
- _____ 23. There are inappropriate self-expectations (too high or too low) through lack of recognition of assets and abilities.
- _____ 24. There is little help but lots of criticism.
- _____ 25. Appropriate recognition is being withheld or credit is stolen for efforts and achievements.
- _____ 26. There is a sense of failure and worthlessness in this relationship.
- _____ 27. There are mostly appropriate self-expectations through appropriate recognition of assets and abilities.
- _____ 28. There are helpful suggestions, encouragements, and/or occasional kicks in the pants.
- _____ 29. There is sincere appreciation and meaningful acknowledgement.
- _____ 30. There are feelings of worth, respect, and acceptance.

- _____ 31. There is a view of life and others as of little worth or promise.
- _____ 32. There is hesitancy to give.
- _____ 33. There is alienation, a sense of being alone.
- _____ 34. There is a view of life and others as worthwhile and positive.
- _____ 35. There is generosity and consideration.
- _____ 36. There are attempts to give even before being asked.
- _____ 37. There is ease in receiving from each other.
- _____ 38. There is fluctuation between support and no support, consideration and inconsideration, and/or loving and lack of loving.
- _____ 39. The welfare of those outside the relationship and/or outside responsibilities come first.
- _____ 40. S is:
 1. spouse
 2. fiance
 3. steady date
 4. best friend
 5. close friend
 6. relative (specify) _____
 7. other (specify) _____
- _____ 41. S is:
 1. Male
 2. Female
 3. First name, Last initial _____
- _____ 41-43. S is _____ years old.
- _____ 44-45. You have known S _____ years
- _____ 46-47. and _____ months.

APPENDIX C
SHORTENED MAT FORM

FOR ENGAGED OR MARRIED COUPLES

- 50-51 Check the dot on the scale below which best describes the degree of happiness, everything considered, of your present marriage. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness which most people get from marriage, and the scale gradually ranges on one side to those few who are very unhappy in marriage, and on the other, to those few who experience extreme joy or felicity in marriage.

.

Very Happy	Happy	Perfectly Happy
---------------	-------	--------------------

State the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your mate on the following items. Please check each column.

	Always Agree	Almost Always Agree	Occa- sionally Disagree	Fre- quently Disagree	Almost Always Disagree	Always Disagree
52 Handling family finances						
53 Matters of recreation						
54 Demonstrations of af- fection						
55 Friends						
56-57 Sex relations						
58 Conventionality (right, good, or proper conduct)						
59 Philosophy of life						
60 Ways of dealing with in-laws						

- 61-62 When disagreements arise, they usually result in:

Husband giving in Wife giving in Agreement by mutual give & take

- 63-64 Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together:

All of them Some of them Very few of them None of them

- 65-66 In leisure time do you generally prefer: To be "on the go" To stay at home

- 67-68 Does your mate generally prefer: To be "on the go" To stay at home

- 69-70 Do you ever wish you had not married?

Frequently Occasionally Rarely Never

- 71-72 If you had your life to live over, do you think you would:

Marry the same person Marry a different person Not marry at all

- 73-74 Do you confide in your mate:

Almost never Rarely In most things In everything

APPENDIX D
NETWORK WORKSHEET

We are interested in knowing something about the people you know: who they are, if they know each other, and how often you see them. First, let's list the people beginning with your spouse or fiancée and adult family members. The adults you list have to have three qualifications: 1) this is a person who you know by name; 2) this is a person with whom you have a personal relationship; 3) this is a person you see at least once a year. Please write their first names and their relationship with you and estimate how many days in a 30-day month you would see this person.

<u>Number</u>	<u>Contact Days/Month</u>	<u>First Name and Last Initial</u>	<u>Length of time you've known this person</u>	<u>Relationship</u>
1	_____	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____	_____
4	_____	_____	_____	_____
5	_____	_____	_____	_____
6	_____	_____	_____	_____
7	_____	_____	_____	_____
8	_____	_____	_____	_____
9	_____	_____	_____	_____
10	_____	_____	_____	_____
11	_____	_____	_____	_____
12	_____	_____	_____	_____
13	_____	_____	_____	_____
14	_____	_____	_____	_____
15	_____	_____	_____	_____
16	_____	_____	_____	_____
17	_____	_____	_____	_____
18	_____	_____	_____	_____
19	_____	_____	_____	_____
20	_____	_____	_____	_____
21	_____	_____	_____	_____
22	_____	_____	_____	_____
23	_____	_____	_____	_____
24	_____	_____	_____	_____
25	_____	_____	_____	_____

<u>Number</u>	<u>Contact Days/Month</u>	<u>First Name and Last Initial</u>	<u>Length of time you've known this person</u>	<u>Relationship</u>
26	_____	_____	_____	_____
27	_____	_____	_____	_____
28	_____	_____	_____	_____
29	_____	_____	_____	_____
30	_____	_____	_____	_____
31	_____	_____	_____	_____
32	_____	_____	_____	_____
33	_____	_____	_____	_____
34	_____	_____	_____	_____
35	_____	_____	_____	_____
36	_____	_____	_____	_____
37	_____	_____	_____	_____
38	_____	_____	_____	_____
39	_____	_____	_____	_____
40	_____	_____	_____	_____
41	_____	_____	_____	_____
42	_____	_____	_____	_____
43	_____	_____	_____	_____
44	_____	_____	_____	_____
45	_____	_____	_____	_____
46	_____	_____	_____	_____
47	_____	_____	_____	_____
48	_____	_____	_____	_____
49	_____	_____	_____	_____
50	_____	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX E
EXCHANGE WORKSHEET AND COMMITMENT

Instructions

1. Review list of people identified by subject to determine understanding of criteria for selection: 1) person known by name, 2) someone with whom there is a personal relationship, and 3) someone seen at least once a year.
2. Ask if there are any further additions -- check to see if subject has included people he/she does not like, but who would meet criteria.
3. Complete network information and exchange columns.
4. On exchange list ask for which item is exchanged most frequently and which item is most important.

<u>Number</u>	<u>Network (Knows)</u>		<u>You Give</u>		<u>You Receive</u>		<u>Commitment</u>				
	<u>Kin</u>	<u>Non Kin</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>AF</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>AC</u>		<u>M</u>	<u>AF</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>AC</u>
1	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
2	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
3	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
4	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
5	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
6	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
7	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
8	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
9	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
10	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
11	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
12	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
13	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
14	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
15	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
16	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
17	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
18	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	
19	_____	_____	M	AF	O	AC	M	AF	O	AC	_____
			G	I	E	C	G	I	E	C	

<u>Number</u>	<u>Network (Knows)</u>		<u>Commitment</u>
	Kin	Non Kin	
20	_____	_____	_____
21	_____	_____	_____
22	_____	_____	_____
23	_____	_____	_____
24	_____	_____	_____
25	_____	_____	_____
26	_____	_____	_____
27	_____	_____	_____
28	_____	_____	_____
29	_____	_____	_____
30	_____	_____	_____
31	_____	_____	_____
32	_____	_____	_____
33	_____	_____	_____
34	_____	_____	_____
35	_____	_____	_____
36	_____	_____	_____
37	_____	_____	_____
38	_____	_____	_____
39	_____	_____	_____
40	_____	_____	_____
41	_____	_____	_____
42	_____	_____	_____
43	_____	_____	_____
44	_____	_____	_____
45	_____	_____	_____
46	_____	_____	_____
47	_____	_____	_____
48	_____	_____	_____
49	_____	_____	_____
50	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX F
CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM

I hereby give my consent for my participation in the project entitled: "Network Supports and Coping During Adult Transitions." I understand that the persons responsible for this project are Drs. Judith Fischer and Donna Sollie. They or their representative have explained that these studies are part of a project which has the following objectives: to gain better understanding of the role of friendship and family networks in coping with normal transitions in adulthood; to gain better understanding of the effects of transitions on the social behavior of young adults.

They have 1) explained the procedures to be followed and identified those which are experimental; 2) described the attendant discomforts and risks; 3) described the benefits to be expected, if any; 4) described appropriate alternative procedures; and 5) agreed to answer any questions I may have concerning the procedures, a description of which are as follows: "This study is concerned with the ways you deal with transitions you may undergo in the coming two years. We do not believe there is a right or wrong way to deal with transitions and we hope to come to a better

understanding of the ways in which people such as yourself are influenced by or influence family members and friends in making transitions. We are asking you to participate in interviews at six-month intervals. The specific transitions that we are interested in are job or career transitions, and marriage or parenthood transitions. It may be that you will undergo one or more of these transitions or none of them.

Your participation in this study will require approximately two to three hours of your time each time you are interviewed. The interview may be at a place and time of convenience to you.

In the course of collecting information and interview material from you, you will be assigned a code number. This code number, rather than your name, will be used to identify your responses on the interviews and questionnaires. In this way your contributions to the study will be anonymous. No write-up of this study will ever use your name. Results of the study will be based on grouped data from you and the other participants in this study. Your participation and any results will remain confidential with the investigators of this research and their

assistants. No one outside of this group will see your individual responses and test results.

In a study such as this one there are a number of different ways in which the investigation could have been designed. We could have fewer or greater number of interviews, fewer or greater numbers of questions. The choices were based on our decision to have as much ability to understand the factors related to the outcomes as possible, but within limits.

The benefits you may experience are some satisfaction with participating in an important undertaking, and you may feel some comfort at discussing your transitions with a skilled interviewer. The risks to you are that you may feel some discomfort at discussing your friends, family and your transitions, particularly if these have not gone well for you. We believe the benefits to society outweigh the risks and discomforts."

Although no serious risks are anticipated, I understand that in the event of physical injury resulting from the research procedures described to me that treatment is not necessarily available at Texas Tech University or the Student Health Center or any program of insurance applicable to the institution and

its personnel. Financial compensation for any such injury must be provided through my own insurance program. Further information about these matters may be obtained from Dr. J. Knox Jones, Vice President for Research and Graduate Studies, telephone 742-2152, Room 118, Administration Building, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, Texas 79409.

Dr. Judith L. Fischer

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Disagree (Permission not granted)

Agree (Permission granted)

Student's signature

Kathy Doney

Student's signature

Date

7-26-90

Date



