

INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION IN FEMALE VERSUS MALE INITIATORS OF PSYCHOTHERAPY

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There is considerable amount of research which indicates that in any type of relationship, the person who is first to seek therapy is not necessarily the more disturbed member. In marriage, it is found that the wife more frequently initiates and is more willing to be involved in therapy, than the husband. The present research compared two comparative groups of married couples, in one the females were the initiators of psychotherapy, (F1 group), and in the other the males were the initiators of psychotherapy (M1 group). It was hypothesized that the M1 group would have greater perceptual incongruency than the F1 group. The underlying assumption was that the males in the M1 group were engaging in atypical role behaviour, which is often associated with marital maladjustment. Thus, the maritally maladjusted group would also be the group with greater perceptual incongruency. Besides answering a biographical questionnaire, the subjects were also required to check the Leary Interpersonal Check List (ICL), for perception of the "Self" and "Spouse".

As hypothesized, the two groups were significantly different on perceptual incongruency. Detailed analysis of the scores on the ICL was done. The outcome was discussed in terms of prevailing theories and previous findings.

In the last twenty years, marital therapy has gained in popularity, so more and more couples have sought psychotherapy. However, a curious finding that has emerged from research in the area is that even though a couple may define the problem to be a "marital" one, yet it is usually the female who will initiate psychotherapy. Studies done in this area have dealt with numerous variables like marital adjustment, instrumental role performance, interpersonal perception, communication patterns, etc. However, it seems that no one so far has tried to relate these variables to sex differences in help-seeking behaviour.

The present paper is based on Zaman (1974), in which an attempt was made to compare two groups of married couples, one in which the wives initiated psychiatric help, and another in which the husbands were the initiators. The purpose of the study was to compare the two groups on perceptual incongruency.

Marital Status and Mental Disorders

The relationship between marital status and mental disorders has been the focus of numerous studies. A result that has repeatedly emerged from

these studies is that in comparison to various marital status groups, the incidence of mental disorder in married couples is the lowest. Furthermore, when mental disorder does occur in one spouse, then the other is also very likely to manifest some degree of disturbance. Gregory (1959), Kreitman (1962, 1964), Neilson (1964) and Penrose (1944) calculated the expected frequency of the hospitalization of married couples in various state hospitals. They found the observed frequency of the hospitalization of both members of a couple to far exceed the expected frequency. In a later study, Kreitman (1968) found that out of seventy-four hospitalized couples, thirty one couples had the same diagnosis, and more than half had had their first hospitalization after marriage. Buck & Ladd (1965) divided their subjects into four groups: (1) both husband and wife neurotic (2) only husband neurotic (3) only wife neurotic (4) neither of the pair neurotic. The authors found a significantly greater number of couples in which both were alike.

Frequently, the studies in the area are based on small samples of cases. The data consists of clinical observations of a therapist who may, over a number of years, become aware of common behavioral patterns in patients and their spouses. These studies can provide valuable starting points for larger and more organized research. Woerner and Guze (1968) observed that their women patients diagnosed as "hysterical" had husbands who displayed alcoholism or sociopathy. Revitch (1954, 1955), who wrote several articles on conjugal paranoia found it to be more frequently in women than men. He described it as a delusional system which involves accusations of sexual perversions and revolves around the husband's imagined infidelity. Dupont and Grunebaum (1968) gave the MMP1 and CPI to couples where the wife was diagnosed as a paranoid. They found the husbands to be high on the Hysterical, Psychopathic and Depressed Scales of the MMPI. The passivity of the husbands of paranoid women was mentioned by Carter (1968) in his paper on the paranoid wife syndrome. Sampson, Messinger and Towne (1964) carried out an intensive and detailed study of seventeen families where the wife was diagnosed as schizophrenic and was hospitalized. Even though the focus in the study was on the schizophrenic wives, the similarities between the husbands were evident. In almost all the cases the husbands were emotionally distant and very ambivalent towards the wife's independence. The balance in the marriage was a precarious one. Martin (1959b) and Martin & Bird (1959a) reported fourteen cases of "hysterical" females who sought treatment because of the husband's cruelty and inconsiderate behaviour. The authors found the husbands to be competent and warm individuals who were healthier than their wives. The description given of the husband's personalities, however, is very similar to Carter's (1968) description of "passive" husbands of paranoid wives. Pittman and Flomenhalf (1970) cautioned therapists not to push for too much change in "Doll House Marriages". In such marriages one spouse (usually the wife) presented the picture of a weak and helpless person (sometimes found to be a schizophrenic or retarded indi-

vidual), while the other hid his suspicion and paranoia under a dominant and strong exterior. Harlan & Young (1958) described the wives of ten schizophrenic men as "narcissistic" with "Sadomasochistic" tendencies, while Murphy (1963) found the wives of schizophrenic men to be less expressive and assertive than wives of non-schizophrenic patients.

Some interesting results were found when attitudes of "husband-patients" and "wife-patients" were explored. Miller & Barnhouse (1967) found that in state hospitals, wives tended to have more rehospitalizations and spent nearly twice as long in hospital than husbands. Most wives agreed with their "patient-husbands" that the rehospitalization was due to physical problems. In contrast, "patient-wives" gave psychiatric reasons for their own rehospitalizations. "Patient-husbands" were preoccupied with matters of family control, while "patient-wives" were concerned with themes of disappointment with love and romance. Yarrow et al's (1955) conclusions are similar to Miller & Barnhouse's, in that very often the husband's symptoms are perceived to arise out of physical difficulties, and the wife's tendency is to explain and justify the symptoms, normalizing them as far as possible. Clausen & Yarrow (1955) and Schwartz (1957) reached similar conclusions in that wives would justify and normalize their husband's symptoms, which were perceived to arise out of physical difficulties rather than emotional ones. Safilios-Rothschild (1968) interviewed spouses of hospitalized mental patients in Greece. Often, the husbands' symptoms were excused on the basis of masculine assertiveness, and compared to the dissatisfied wives, the satisfied wives initially viewed their husbands as completely 'normal'. In contrast to this, normal husbands, irrespective of their satisfaction in marriage, never thought of their wives as being completely free of pathology.

Some repeated findings from such studies are that it is commonly the wife who initiates therapy, and also that other factors besides the actual degree of disturbance are what bring a person in for psychotherapy. The reason that larger numbers of females seek help, then, lies not in intrapsychic phenomena, but interpersonal factors that involve the role of a female and a wife in marriage. Seeking psychiatric help can be viewed as a form of behavior that is in line and appropriate with the female's assigned cultural role. It is unusual for a male to indulge in this behavior, and when he does then one would expect his role enactment and family dynamics to be different from a family in which the female or wife initiates help.

Marital Adjustment and Role Performance

The family can be viewed as a special case of the small group (Zelditch, 1955). As a group assigns roles to its participants, similarly, in a family there is task differentiation among its members. Typically, a father's role is an instrumental role, which means that he has to go into the object-world to

provide for the family. The mother's role is an expressive one, in that she stays at home to look after the family, thus symbolizing emotional security and comfort. Studies in the area provide overwhelming evidence that marital adjustment and happiness is more significantly related to male role performance than to female role performance (Hicks & Platt, 1969; Tharp, 1963). In fact, longitudinal studies show that at the beginning of marriage it is the husband's personality traits and not the wife's that are strongly related to later happiness in marriage. The husband's instrumental role seems to be a crucial variable in marital satisfaction. In Wolfe's (1962) research, the least maritally satisfied wives were those who were more dominant than their husbands. Nye (1959) found a significant association between employed mothers and low marital adjustment. The assumption here was that a working wife shares her husband's instrumental role, thus these marriages would be low in marital adjustment as compared to marriages where the instrumental role was exclusively the husband's. In his later paper, Nye (1961) introduced variables like socio-economic status, number and age of children, length of employment, etc. An interesting finding in his study was the attitude of the husband towards the wife's employment. Marital adjustment was poor where the husband disapproved of his wife's employment, and also where the wife was not employed but the husband wished her to be. Gianopoulos & Mitchell (1957) emphasized the attitude of the husband towards the wife working as being the critical factor relating to the amount of the marital conflict reported by the spouses. An interesting finding in Blood & Hamblin's (1958) study was that even though full time employed wives felt entitled to more power, they did not make use of it, perhaps being aware that such a role would interfere with the solidarity of their marriages.

Thus the association between marital adjustment and instrumental role performance of the male has repeatedly been found. It would seem that a man's initiation of psychiatric help is contrary to his expected role performance, and, therefore, indicative of maladjustment on his part and in his marriage.

Marital Adjustment and Interpersonal Perception

In the present study it is the area of interpersonal perception between spouses that is of interest, therefore, research relevant to this area will be mentioned. In general, it can be said that marital happiness and adjustment are positively correlated with the perceptual congruence of the two spouses. Eshleman (1965) gave young married couples several measures of marital integration, one of them being Leary's Interpersonal Checklist (ICL). On the ICL, the author compared the husband's rating of himself and the wife's rating of her husband. Similarly, comparisons were also made between the wife's rating of herself and the husband's rating of his wife. As hypothesized, the personality adjustment scores were inversely related to the sum percep-

tual discrepancy scores of husband and wife. Eshleman's study is one among the several done in the area arriving at similar conclusions.

An interesting and somewhat expected difference not always explored by such studies was the self-spouse perceptual congruency as it is related to the husband and wife separately. Some of Luckey's research will be considered to illustrate the point. On the basis of Locke's marital adjustment scale and Terman's seven point self-rating happiness scale, Luckey (1960a) divided her couples into maritally satisfied and less maritally satisfied groups. Each subject filled out Leary's check list as he or she perceived the self, spouse, ideal self, parent of the same sex and parent of the opposite sex. She found that those high on marital satisfaction showed significantly higher agreement on the following: (1) self and perception of self by spouse, (2) self and perception of parent of the same sex, (3) perception of spouse and parent of the opposite sex, and (4) perception of ideal self and spouse. Luckey (1960b) expanded and added more dimensions to her research, by investigating the above results as they applied to the two sexes. As compared to the less satisfied group, women who were maritally satisfied perceived their husbands and fathers as more similar. This was not seen in the maritally satisfied husbands, who, however, perceived themselves and their fathers as being similar. In another study, using similar scales, Luckey (1960c) had each spouse, in both groups (maritally satisfied and dissatisfied), check on the ICL his or her own self-concept and the concept he or she held of the spouse. The data revealed that satisfaction in marriage was related to the congruence of the husband's self-concept and that held of him by the wife. This did not apply to the wives, i.e., congruency in the wife's concept of herself and that held of her by her husband were not related to marital happiness. The author interpreted this as indicating the greater adjustment that a wife has to make in marriage, and, therefore, the greater importance that she see the husband as he sees himself.

Hoeg (1965) used Luckey's method of analysis and found significantly greater incongruency of perception (on certain categories) in a Clinic group versus a Non-Clinic group. Powell (1965), besides administering the Family Concept Q-Sort, had her group of married couples rate self and spouse on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. She found marital adjustment to correlate inversely with discrepancy in interspouse self-report. In addition, both Hoeg (1965) and Powell (1965) found that all personality variables relating significantly to marital adjustment involved descriptions made by the husband either of himself or his wife.

Stuckert (1963) found that the accuracy with which the wife perceived the husband is related to the couple's marital satisfaction. The husband's accuracy of perception (regarding his wife) was unrelated to marital satisfaction. Corsini's (1956a, 1956b) work is in agreement with the previously

mentioned conclusions, except that unlike the others, his research included a control group. He used Burgess' measurement of marital happiness, and obtained the perception of self and other on a fifty item adjective Q-sort. Each subject was required to sort it four times, for: (1) self, (2) other (description of the husband or wife), (3) mate's self (as husband or wife perceives himself or herself), (4) mate's other (the way husband or wife perceives the subject). The uniqueness of the study lay in the fact that every comparison made was then duplicated by random samples of non-couples (i.e., strangers). Corsini found a significant relationship between marital happiness and the husband being the subject of Q-sorts. This would suggest the husband's role to be crucial in marital happiness. However, when he obtained similar results by using random pairs of men and women, Corsini modified his conclusions. Thus, for marriage to be rated as happy, the husband's role had to be a "stereotype" and conforming one. Palonen (1966) too arrived at a similar conclusion, except that she found the female fulfillment of her stereotype cultural role also to be important to marital adjustment. Palonen obtained the self report and mate image description on the ICL from a group of forty couples. In the analysis she broke down the ICL into its sixteen scales and found Aggression and Rebelliousness to correlate negatively with marital adjustment, where husband's perception of the wife was concerned. In addition, Submission and Love were positively correlated with marital adjustment with regards to the wife's self description and the way the husband described her. So a happy marriage is one in which the husband should not see the wife as aggressive and rebellious, but the wife should be seen by herself and husband as submissive and loving.

In view of the research, and on the assumption that marital adjustment is less in families where the husband initiates psychiatric help, one may further hypothesize that there will be greater incongruency of percepts in this group. Thus, the hypotheses in the present research are as follows :

1. In general, there will be greater perceptual incongruency regarding self and spouse in the male initiation group (M1) than the female initiation group (F1).
2. In the male initiation group (M1) the wife's perception of her husband and the way he perceives himself will show greater incongruency than in the female initiation group (F1), where there will be more agreement between the wife's perception of her husband and the way he perceives himself.

METHOD

Criteria

The criteria for the selection of the subjects were as follows :

1. The individual seeking help had to be married and currently living with the spouse.
2. Only one spouse in the couple was to be the initiator in seeking psychotherapy.
3. If the couple had any previous experience with psychotherapy, then the indentified initiator should be the one to have sought psychological help in the past too (the past meaning only after marriage).
4. A couple satisfying the above mentioned criteria would be eligible as subjects, irrespective of the nature of the presenting problem.

Subjects

Altogether there were thirty four couples, twenty two of which were in the Female Initiating group, and twelve couples in the Male Initiating group. All subjects were out-patients from various Mental Health Centers in Lansing, Michigan. The large difference between the two sample sizes (F1=22 couples and M1=12 couples) was compared with the male-female ratio of individuals seeking help, as it actually appeared in some of the agencies. It was found that the percentage of females seeking therapy was about twice that of males seeking psychiatric help. This roughly corresponds to the F1 and M1 ratio. Hence, it can be stated that the unequal number of couples in the two groups was representative of the population from which they were derived. Demographically there were no significant differences between the two (see table 1).

Table 1
Means for Demographic Data

Variable*	F1 Group		M1 Group	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Age	29.95	28.05	32.83	31.92
Years of Education	14.55	14.00	15.75	13.92
Years of Marriage	6.86	6.85	8.31	8.31
Number of Children	1.41	1.41	1.42	1.42

* On the above variables no significant differences were found between the F1 and the M1 groups.

Procedure

Since it was not possible to make individual contact with all the therapists in the different Mental Health Centres, so staff meetings were attended by the experimenter. At the meetings the research was concisely described to the staff and they were also handed a typed statement that briefly described the research to the subjects. If a certain client fulfilled the criteria, and agreed to participate in the research, then the therapist was requested to turn in the name and phone numbers to the experimenter. Contact was then made with each subject, and a time fixed when the couple could come to the centre, to take the tests. When this was not possible, then the experimenter would do the testing in the home of the subjects. Both husband and wife had to complete the following.

1. Biographical questionnaire.
2. Leary Interpersonal Check List (ICL). The ICL was checked twice, once for "self" and once for "spouse".

Measurement Scale

Leary Interpersonal Check List: The interpersonal check list consists of 128 descriptive, self-referent adjectives (Leary, 1956) that measure eight personality variables. Each of the eight variables is related to the other in such a way that high scores on some would naturally result in lower scores on the others. The check list is based on a complex multi-level interpersonal system of personality that can be diagrammed as a circle composed of eight equal parts. Dominance-submission is the vertical axis, and affection-hostility is the horizontal axis. All the other categories represent a combination of these four poles and they are as follows: (1) Managerial-Autocratic (AP), (2) Narcissistic-Competitive (BC), (3) Sadistic-Aggressive (DE), (4) Rebellious-Distrustful (FG), (5) Self-effacing-Masochistic (HI), (6) Docile-Dependent (JK), (7) Cooperative-Over-Conventional (LM), and (8) Hypernormal-Responsible (NO). Each category in the octant consists of sixteen items which range in four degrees of intensity. The intensity dimension was determined on the basis of the frequency with which each item was checked, and appropriate weighted scores were assigned to the items. Thus, the items not only measure different kinds of personality characteristics, but also yield quantitative measures of each personality variable.

Historically, the earliest paper attempting to present this comprehensive schema for the organisation of personality was written by Freedman, Leary, Ossorio & Coffey (1951). The authors were interested in selecting and arranging variables in a system that could account for the "total personality", i.e., personality as it functioned at the public conscious and private levels.

Over a period of four years, the system was elaborated by LaForge & Suczek (1955) and Leary (1957). In the former paper, the authors obtained test-retest reliability correlations on a sample of seventy-seven subjects, who were retested after an interval of two weeks. The correlations averaged to .78 for octant reliability. Most important in the interpersonal system are the intervariable correlations, for the variables are arranged in such a way on the circular continuum that the relationship between two variables decreases as the distance between them increases. In view of this, LaForge & Suczek (1955) calculated the interoctant correlations for three separate groups of subjects. They found the correlations to decrease as the variables became more distant. This confirmed the circular arrangement to be an adequate one to represent the degree of relationship between the variables.

Clinically, the ICL can be very useful in obtaining at one time a client's perception of several objects (depending upon the instructions, one can check for "self", "ideal self", "parents", etc.). Its objective and carefully constructed scoring system also makes it a valuable research instrument.

Scoring and Analysis

The Leary interpersonal check list responses each subject (checked for self and spouse) were scored by hand, with the use of sixteen templates. The score for each item was a weighted one. These scores were then used to compute summary scores for DOM and LOV, by the following formula (Lange, 1970):

$$\text{LOV} = M - E + .924 (N + L - D - F) + .707 (O + K - C - G) + .383 (P + J - B - H)$$

$$\text{DOM} = A - I + .924 (B + P - H - J) + .707 (C + O - G - K) + .383 (D + N - F - L)$$

Thus, each subject received four scores in all, LOV_1 and DOM_1 for self (perception of self), and LOV_2 and DOM_2 for spouse (perception of oneself by the spouse). It should be mentioned that DOM and LOV adequately summarize the two bipolar dimensions underlying the ICL (Lange, 1970).

The incongruence or discrepancy between self perception and the way the spouse perceived this self was calculated by the following formula:

$$R = \sqrt{(\text{DOM}_1 - \text{DOM}_2)^2 + (\text{LOV}_1 - \text{LOV}_2)^2}$$

Thus, each subject received one incongruency score. The incongruency scores were used in a simple 2x2 analysis of variance design, and as before, the rows represented "Initiation" and the columns depicted "Sex".

RESULTS

As hypothesized in hypothesis 1 there was a significant main initiation effect ($p < .05$), with the M1 group being significantly higher on incongruency scores as compared to the F1 group (see Tables 2 and 2a). Regarding hypothesis 2, no significant interaction effects were obtained; however, the observed cell means were distributed in the hypothesized direction (see Table 2). This meant that the males in the M1 group tended to have higher incongruency scores than the males in the F1 group. In other words, males in the M1 group had more discrepancy between their self perception and the way they were perceived by their wives.

Table 2

Cell Means of Incongruency Scores

Initiation	Sex	
	Male	Female
Female Initiator	10.11	12.30
Male Initiator	14.74	14.73

Table 2a

Analysis of Variance of Incongruency Scores

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex (A)	33.895	1	33.895	.7978	NS
Initiation (B)	193.492	1	193.492	4.5541	< .036
A X B	18.656	1	18.656	.4391	NS
Error	2719.232	64	42.488		
Total	2965.275	67			

Additional Analysis Relevant to Hypothesis

The incongruity scores which had yielded significant results were then broken down into their original LOV and DOM scores. DOM_1 and LOV_1 signify self perception, while DOM_2 and LOV_2 signify perception of one's self by the spouse. With Sex representing columns and Initiation representing rows, four 2×2 analyses of variance were performed.

Analysis of variance for DOM_1 yielded a significant ($p < .01$) main sex effect (see Table 3a). The combined cell means indicate that irrespective of group (be it F1 or M1), males perceive themselves as being significantly more dominant than the females perceive themselves to be (see Table 3).

Table 3

Cell Means of Dominance-Submission
Dimension (DOM_1) for Self Perception

Initiation	Sex	
	Male	Female
Female Initiator	2.68	-4.91
Male Initiator	1.72	1.34

Table 3a

Analysis of Variance of Dominance-Submission
Dimension (DOM_1) for Self Perception

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex (A)	433.163	1	433.163	6.127	< .016
Initiation (B)	108.927	1	108.927	1.540	NS
A X B	201.125	1	201.215	2.846	NS
Error	4542.672	64	70.698		
Total	5267.977	67			

Analysis of variance for DOM_2 yielded significant interaction effect ($p < .05$). As there were no significant main effects, it can be said that perception of the spouse depended jointly on sex and group (see Tables 4 and 4a). In order to identify the exact cell combinations where the interaction effect was present, Duncan's Multiple-Range Test (1955) was used. It was found that cell means, number 2 and 4 (see Table 4) were significantly different ($p < .05$). This meant that in contrast to the husbands in the F1 group who perceived their wives as being submissive (a positive sign indicates dominance, while a negative sign means submission), the husbands in the M1 group perceived their wives as being extremely dominant. In fact, glancing at means in cell number one (see Table 4), it appears that they view their wives as being more dominant than the wives in the F1 group view their husbands. Although the Duncan's Multiple-Range Test did not yield any more significant results, one other comparison worth mentioning (which came very close to $p < .05$ level of significance), is one between the means of cell one and two. Within the F1 group the perception of the husband and wife regarding their spouse differs considerably (see Table 4). The wives are viewed on the submissive side (mean = -2.67) while the husbands on the dominant side (mean = 3.92).

Table 4

Cell Means of Dominance-Submission Dimension
(DOM_2) for Perception of One's self by the Spouse

Initiation	Sex	
	Male	Female
Female Initiator	1 3.92	2 -2.67
	3 1.81	4 5.45

The first column means represent the wife's perception of the husband, and the second column means represent the husband's perception of the wife. The cell numbers appear above each cell value.

Table 4a

Analysis of Variance of Dominance-Submission
Dimension (DOM_2) for Perception of One's self by the Spouse

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex (A)	150.597	1	150.597	1.661	NS
Initiation (B)	140.293	1	140.293	1.547	NS
A X B	406.292	1	406.292	4.481	< .038
Error	5802.56	64	90.665		
Total	6499.742	67			

Analysis of Variance on LOV_1 (see Table 5a) yielded a main sex effect ($p < .01$). The combined cell means (see Table 5) indicate the direction of this difference, i.e., irrespective of the group to which they belong, all females as compared to the males see themselves as more loving. A significant main sex effect was also found on LOV_2 (see Tables 6 and 6a). This indicates that irrespective of the group, husbands perceive wives as being significantly more loving than wives perceive their husbands. The sex effect accounted for 9 percent of variance on LOV_1 , and 6 percent of variance on LOV_2 .

Table 5

Cell Means of Love-Hostility Dimension
(LOV_1) for self Perception

Initiation	Sex	
	Male	Female
Female Initiator	-2.40	5.74
Male Initiator	1.25	5.32

Table 5a

Analysis of Variance of Love-Hostility
Dimension (LOV_1) for Self Perception

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex (A)	764.866	1	764.866	6.943	< .010
Initiation (B)	40.587	1	40.587	.3685	NS
A X B	64.535	1	64.535	.5959	NS
Error	7049.664	64	110.151		
Total	7919.652	67			

Table 6

Cell Means of Love-Hostility Dimension
(LOV_2) for Perception of One's self by the Spouse

Initiation	Sex	
	Male	Female
Female Initiator	-2.59	4.68
Male Initiator	.31	4.96

The first column means represent the wife's perception of the husband, and the second column means represent the husband's perception of the wife.

Table 6a

Analysis of Variance of Love-Hostility
Dimension (LOV₂) for Perception of One's self by the Spouse

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex (A)	683.128	1	683.128	4.563	< .036
Initiation (B)	38.850	1	38.850	.2595	NS
A X B	26.961	1	26.961	.1801	NS
Error	9580.800	64	149.700		
Total	10284.739	67			

**Difference Between One's Self Perception and
One's Perception of the Spouse**

The object here was to see the degree of difference between one's self perception and one's perception of the spouse. The analysis of variance on LOV and DOM scales was computed on the score differences obtained from each subject. The difference was obtained by subtracting the score on one's perception of the spouse from the score on one's self perception. Hence, a positive score would indicate the self as possessing more of the quality (DOM or LOV, depending on the scale being analyzed), while a negative score would indicate the spouse as being higher on the trait.

The analysis of variance for DOM (see Tables 7 and 7a) yielded a significant main sex effect ($p < .01$) and an interaction effect ($p < .01$). The interaction effect was further analyzed through Duncan's Multiple-Range Test, and at $p < .05$ level a significant difference was found between number one and number two cell means (see Table 7). This indicated first that the females in the F1 group, in comparison to their husbands, saw themselves as very submissive, while the husbands in comparison to their wives saw themselves as very dominant. Secondly, as the cell means are the *mean differences* between perception of self and spouse, then the larger negative value in cell number two as compared to cell number one indicates that the difference between self perception and one's perception of the spouse is greater when females are the perceivers rather than the males. This conclusion applies only to the F1 group. In the M1 group the trend is for both females

and males to consider their spouses as more dominant than themselves (see Table 7 where cells four and three both consist of negative values), and the

Table 7

Cell Means of Dominance-Submission Dimension with Regard to the Difference between Perception of One's self and One's Spouse

Initiation	Sex	
	Male	Female
	1	2
Female Initiator	5.34	-8.83
	3	4
Male Initiator	-3.73	-.47

The means in the first column are the mean differences between the husbands' self perception and the way they perceive the wives. The means in the second column are the mean differences between the wives' self perception and the way they perceive the husbands.

The cell numbers appear above each cell value.

Table 7a

Analysis of Variance of Dominance-Submission Dimension with Regard to the Difference between Perception of One's self and One's Spouse

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex (A)	1094.577	1	1094.577	6.636	<.012
Initiation (B)	1.981	1	1.981	.0120	NS
A X B	1179.354	1	1179.354	7.150	<.009
Error	10556.160	64	164.940		
Total	12832.072	67			

differences are quite close to each other. The difference between cell one and three (which came very close to $p < .05$ level of significance) adds some more interesting information. While the males in the F1 group saw themselves as more dominant than their wives, the males in the M1 group saw their wives as being more dominant than themselves. In addition to that, the difference between self and spouse was less in cell three as compared to cell one. This meant that as compared to the males in the F1 group there was a strong trend for the males in the M1 group to perceive their wives as being closer or similar to themselves.

On LOV, only one significant result was obtained, and that was the main sex effect (see Tables 8 and 8a). All husbands saw themselves as less loving than they saw their partners, and all wives saw themselves as more loving than their husbands. As in the case of DOM Scale, here too the males perceived the females to be comparatively closer or more similar to themselves than the females saw the males as being. It must be added, however, that even though the significance level was $p < .001$, sex accounted for only about 14 percent of the variance.

Table 8

Cell Means of Love-Hostility Dimension With
Regard to the Difference Between Perception
of One's self and One's Spouse

Initiation	Sex	
	Male	Female
Female Initiator	-7.08	8.33
Male Initiator	-3.69	5.00

The means in the first column are the mean differences between the husband's self perception and the way they perceive the wives. The means in the second column are the mean differences between the wives' self perception and the way they perceive the husbands.

Table 8a

Analysis of Variance of Love-Hostility Dimension with Regard to the Difference between Perception of One's self and One's Spouse

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Sex (A)	2893.681	1	2893.681	10.856	< .001
Initiation (B)	.019	1	.019	.0001	NS
A X B	174.922	1	174.922	.6563	NS
Error	17058.240	64	266.535		
Total	20126.862	67			

DISCUSSION

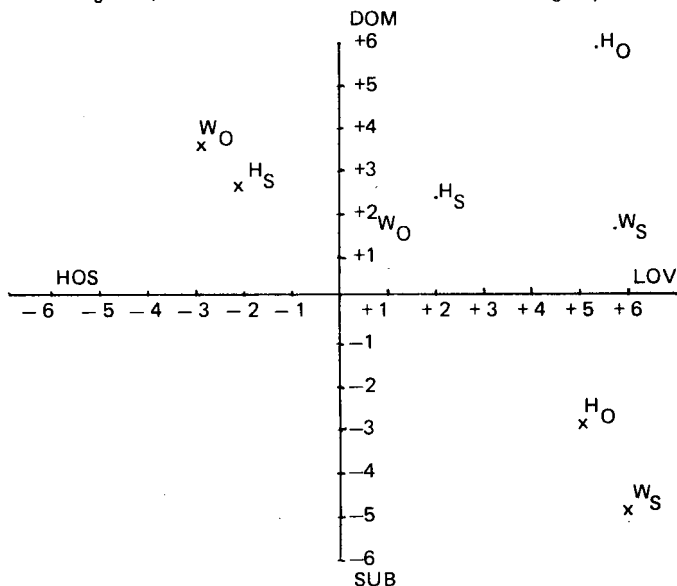
In the case of hypothesis 1 the results were significant at $p < .05$ level, which meant that as assumed there was more perceptual incongruency in the M1 group as compared to the F1 group. The association between perceptual incongruency and marital maladjustment has repeatedly been found. The reasoning in the present research was that as the M1 group was expected to be less maritally adjusted, therefore, this would be the group which would also have more perceptual incongruency as compared to the F1 group. In order to explore where exactly the incongruency was, each subject's self perception on DOM and LOV was compared with the way this "self" was perceived by the spouse. On LOV, in the F1 and M1 groups, self perception, as compared to the perception of "self" by the spouse, are quite close to each other in the case of both wives and husbands. On DOM, while the perceptions of the spouses in the F1 group are quite close to each other, in the M1 group a large distance is seen between the wife's self perception and the husband's perception of her. In this group, the husbands perceive their wives as much more dominant than wives perceive themselves to be. The analysis of variance that was done showed that husbands in the M1 group perceived their wives significantly ($p < .05$) more dominant than the husbands in the F1 group perceived their wives to be.

On DOM, when further comparisons were made regarding the difference between self perception and perception of the spouse, the spouses in the F1 group saw each other as being significantly ($p < .01$) different. The males perceived themselves to be significantly more dominant than their

wives, and the wives perceived themselves to be significantly less dominant than their husbands. In the M1 group, however, this difference was neither significant nor in the same direction. The husbands in the group saw their wives as being more dominant than themselves. The differences, however, were not significant.

A simple way to get an overall picture of the two groups is to plot the different means on a two-dimensional graph (see Figure 1). Overall, husbands see themselves as more dominant ($p < .01$) and less affectionate than wives see themselves ($p < .01$). Within groups, the F1 husbands see themselves as more dominant than M1 husbands perceive themselves to be, and the wives in the F1 see themselves as more submissive than the M1 wives. With regards to the perception of the other, overall husbands see wives as more affectionate than wives see the husbands ($p < .05$). Within groups the M1 and F1 husbands perceive their wives as almost equally loving, however, the F1 wives perceive their husbands as much less loving than M1 wives. The most interesting difference between the two groups is seen on perception of spouse on DOM ($p < .05$). Husbands in the M1 groups perceive their wives as extremely dominant, in fact, this mean exceeds all other means on DOM. On the whole, the F1 group is closer in their perceptions of each other than the M1 group, and this is most applicable on the DOM scale. It also appears that both self and spouse perceptions of the two marital partners are highly differentiated in this group, in the direction of traditional cultural stereotypes, perhaps an exaggeration of them. It is the Dominance-Submission factor that is the more clearly identified dimension regarding marital adjustment. The role of Love-Hostility, however, is less clear.

Figure 1. Mean DOM and LOV scores of F1 and M1 groups



Note: The F1 group is represented by "x", next to the symbols.

There is no simple exhaustive theory that can be offered to account for and make intelligible the differences and similarities between the two groups. However, there are some perceptual patterns in the present research that can be viewed in the light of some existing theories. Tharp (1963), after extensively reviewing literature on marriage, concluded that satisfaction in marriage is strongly related to the husband and wife operating within conventionally expected sex roles. This is especially true regarding the husband's instrumental role. With regards to the exact nature of these conventional roles, there is a considerable amount of consensus that happy marriages are those in which the husband views himself and is viewed by the wife as being the more dominant of the two, and the wife is viewed by self and spouse as being loving and submissive. The husband's domination seems to be a critical variable which is not only measured through paper and pencil tests, but is also observed in studies that involve interaction between the couple (Baumen & Roman, 1966; Levinger, 1963 and Tinker, 1972). There are ample studies that further add that aggression and dominance in the wife threatens the husband's self concept and consequently has adverse effect on the marriage (Aller, 1962; Baumen & Roman, 1966).

Viewing the two groups in the present study, it seems that the F1 group more closely approximates stereotype sex roles that are commonly associated with adjusted marriages. The husbands in this group clearly perceive themselves as domineering, and this perception is shared by their wives. The wives are perceived by themselves and their husbands as being submissive. In the M1 group the husbands do not see themselves as being more dominant than their wives, and the wives do not see them as being very much more dominant than themselves. On LOV, the differences are less clear. Another characteristic that is associated with adjusted marriages and is present in the F1 group is congruency of perception. Put in other words, perceptual congruency means the understanding of the mate's self. Understanding is empathetic accuracy and sensitivity which is the product of greater involvement at the interpersonal level. It seems from this that the F1 group shows the type of interpersonal perceptions mostly found in better adjusted marriages, for in this group the role perceptions between spouses are more stereotypical and conventional factors which are associated with adjusted marriages.

As this investigation deals with correlates of happiness and adjustment in marriage, the discussion will not be complete unless some mention is made of the Complementarity-Similarity issue that pervades this field. Winch and associates (1958) were the first to develop and test the theory. They arrived at the conclusion that, "In mate selection the need pattern of each spouse will be complementary rather than similar to the need patterns of the other spouse". The authors made a qualitative analysis of data and came up with two main axes of needs relevant to mate selection. The two areas were labelled Dominance-Submission axis and Nurturant-Receptive. The contrary

evidence that followed Winch's study can briefly be stated. Most of those who rejected his theory of complementary needs did so on the common basis that understanding is important for marital adjustment, and understanding itself follows from similarity of couples rather than differences (Dymonds, 1954; Schellenberg & Bee, 1960). Without going further into details about this controversial issue and all its facets, an attempt will be made to view the M1 and F1 groups in this light. When self perceptions of each spouse are compared within the two groups, it is seen that couples in the M1 group see each other as being closer or more similar than couples in the F1 group. It seems that the F1 group is more in line with the complementary need hypothesis, while the M1 group is one displaying homogamy or similarity of need patterns. The present writer is of the opinion that while understanding is related to marital adjustment, similarity of self and mate is not necessarily related to understanding. In fact, it would seem that in the F1 group the basis of better understanding was the greater and clearer personality differences of the two mates. It is as if stereotype roles aid in better predicting the spouse's self. If Winch's two main axes are considered to be somewhat isomorphic with Leary's DOM and LOV, then the large "self" differences in the F1 group can be seen to be neatly and precisely illustrating the complementary need principle. In other words, as the theory states, those with high needs of dominance tend to marry individuals with low needs of dominance, and those with high needs of nurturance tend to select mates with low needs on this scale.

Implications

In the present research the comparisons between the F1 (female initiating) and M1 (male initiating) groups would have become more meaningful if the design had included a comparative group of "normal" subjects, who would have served as the control group. The control groups could have served as a reference point each time comparisons were made between the F1 and M1 groups, thus lending greater credibility to the outcome.

Perception, its consequences and resulting behavior, are the basic and essential aspects that are included in most theories of human behavior. The present study dealt only with the former two. To put it simply, married adjustment can be considered as the consequence arising from perceptual congruency between the spouses. The emphasis, however, is more on the association between the two rather than any clear-cut causal relationship. Scores on the ICL are measures of personality, based on impressions of each other. The present study did not include any direct behavioral measures against which the perceptions of the spouses could be validated. For instance, in the case of the M1 group, an interesting question is if in actual interaction the M1 wives are as dominant as their husbands perceive them to be. "Dominance" (as measured by the ICL), which seems to be a salient feature in the

present study, was explored in an interactional context by Tinker (1972). Tinker investigated the effect of different amount of dominance, and found that in the high dominant group there was an increase in the number of negative-hostile responses between married couples. Thus, high dominance was found to have an adverse effect on interpersonal relationships. Though an ambitious plan, it would be worthwhile to actually observe the interaction of the couples in the two groups (F1 and M1 groups). For example, it is an interesting question if the M1 wives, who are seen as most dominant, actually indulge in more negative and hostile responses.

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