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Andrews University

School of Education

**MARITAL SATISFACTION FACTORS
FOR KOREAN-AMERICANS**

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

Soonja Choi Lee

May 1999

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FOR KOREAN-AMERICANS

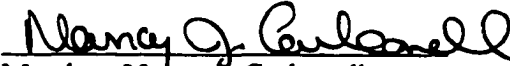
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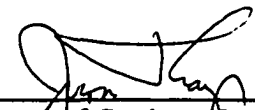
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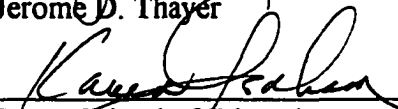
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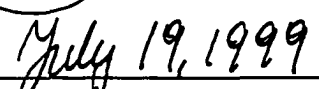

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ABSTRACT

**MARITAL SATISFACTION FACTORS
FOR KOREAN-AMERICANS**

by

Soonja Choi Lee

Chair: Frederick A. Kosinski, Jr.

ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH

Dissertation

Andrews University

School of Education

Title: MARITAL SATISFACTION FACTORS FOR KOREAN-AMERICANS

Name of researcher: Soonja Choi Lee

Name and degree of faculty chair: Frederick A. Kosinski, Jr. Ph.D.

Date completed: May 1999

Problem

Many marital satisfaction studies have focused on many sub-groups: Caucasians, Blacks, and many ethnic groups such as Japanese, German, Polish, Indian, Chinese-American, Swedish, Mexican-American, Nigerian, and Koreans in Korea. No study was found that has investigated marital satisfaction factors for Korean-American couples.

Method

This study evaluated marital satisfaction factors that were important to Korean-Americans. The Korean-American population for this study was reached through the Korean-American church organizations in America by random selection of churches.

A total of 558 surveys was usable for analyses. Of the 558 subjects,

approximately 49% were husbands and 51% were wives. Three hundred forty-four surveys were from matched couples. Methods of analyses were: factor analysis, *t*-test for independent sample, regression analyses, and discriminant analysis.

Results

The mean score of husbands' marital satisfaction was significantly greater than that of wives. Eleven factors were found in Korean-American couples. Taken individually, all of the 11 variables were significant predictors of the marital satisfaction of Korean-American couples. The five most important factors for marital satisfaction of Korean-American couples were: expressing affection to each other, having sexual satisfaction, having children, keeping commitment to sexual fidelity, and sharing activities together. Other factors of communication that were significant contributors to marital satisfaction of Korean-American couples included: positive kinship relationship (with parents-in-law), positive family dynamic in her or his family of origin, self-esteem, and religious homogeneity. The order of importance of the 10 factors was slightly different between husbands and wives. Maintaining an androgynous role in Korean homes was not very important.

Compared to the highly dissatisfied couples, the highly satisfied couples tended to have a higher level of expression of their affection to each other, to experience more positive attributes from having children, and to have a higher level of sexual satisfaction.

Conclusion

In summary, the four factors most important to marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives were: expressing affection to each other, having sexual satisfaction,

maintaining sexual fidelity to each other, and having children. The three factors most important to marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands were: expressing affection to each other, having children, and having sexual satisfaction. In varying degrees, except for androgynous gender role, all 10 factors were significant predictors of the marital satisfaction of Korean-American couples when taken individually.

To my husband, Sam Young Lee, who has been a wonderful source of support and encouragement, my daughters, Anita and Ann, who have grown into two very beautiful ladies despite my preoccupation with doctoral studies, my parents who have raised me, my advisor, Dr. Kosinski, who has so carefully edited and directed my dissertation, and Dr. Kijai, who has graciously guided statistical procedures of my dissertation

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Marital satisfaction is the strongest predictor for happiness in many areas of life (Russell & Wells, 1994) and has a strong relationship with the psychological well-being of both genders (Mugford & Lally, 1981). Having a satisfying marriage is associated with better adjustment in general and fewer health problems (Bray & Jouriles, 1995). Especially for women, marriage has a significant meaning; the most self-actualized women tend to have the most satisfying marriages (Munoz-de-Fernandez, 1978).

With appropriate legitimacy, "Americans rate marriage as the most important life domain, ahead of such areas as health and income" (Doherty & Jacobson, 1982, p. 667); and marital success and adjustment have been the major foci of family sociology (Hansen, 1981). Many researchers and clinicians have discovered various factors that contribute to marital satisfaction. Those variables include: the level of a couple's affection for each other (Galley, 1995), the level of a couple's commitment to each other (Birchler & Fals-Stewart, 1994; Lund, 1985; Sanderson & Kurdek, 1993), the couple's ability to communicate with each other (Bray & Jouriles, 1995; Markman & Hahlweg, 1993; Stanley, Markman, St. Peters, & Leber, 1995), the couple's ability to resolve conflicts between each other (Kurdek, 1995; Markman & Hahlweg, 1993), a couple's satisfaction level in sharing activities and time together (Strassburger, 1998; Ward, 1993),

a couple's ability to express their feelings (King, 1993), the couples' level of empathy toward each other (Hines & Hummel, 1988; Rowan, Compton, & Rust, 1995; Wastell, 1991), a couple's family dynamics in their family of origin (Cohn, Silver, Cowan, Cowan, & Pearson, 1992; Forrest, 1991; Webster, Orbuch, & House, 1995), the level of agreement between the husband and the wife in handling finances (Grant, 1991; Ruffin, 1993), a couple's attitude toward gender role differences (Fowers, 1991; Juni & Grimm, 1994; Langis, Sabourin, Lussier, & Mathieu, 1994; Lye & Biblarz, 1993; Perry-Jenkins & Crouter, 1990; Vatankhahi, 1991), the quality of a couple's kinship relationship (Timmer, Veroff, & Hatchett, 1996), the level of a couple's religious homogamy (Anthony, 1993; Booth, Johnson, Branaman, & Sica, 1995; Dudley & Kosinski, 1990; Hansen, 1987; Heaton & Pratt, 1990; Quinn, 1988; Rackley, 1993; Schumm, Jeong, & Silliman, 1990; Shehas, Bock, & Lee, 1990), personality styles (Bruch & Skovoholt, 1985; Burleson & Denton, 1992; Deal, Wampler, & Halverson, 1992; Dean, 1993; Kelly & Conley, 1987; Kim, Martin, & Martin, 1989; Kobes, 1993; Lester, Haig, & Monello, 1989; Ogle, 1985; Richard, Wakefield, & Lewak, 1990; Russell & Wells, 1994; Snyder & Regts, 1990; Wiggins, Moody, & Lederer, 1983), having children (Almejadi, 1989; Callan, 1984; Leiblum, 1993; Sklar, 1984), the division of housework between spouses (Adia & Falbo, 1991; Beach & Tesser, 1993; Houlihan, Jackson, & Rogers, 1990; Lamson, 1992; Ward, 1993), the level of a couple's self-esteem (Fincham & Bradbury, 1993), the level of a couple's sexual satisfaction (Aron & Henkemeyer, 1995; Cupach & Comstock, 1990; Donnelly, 1993; Henderson-King & Veroff, 1994), and the level of similarity in a couple's value system (Mekhoubat, 1994; Quigley, 1984).

Statement of Problem

Many marital satisfaction studies have focused on many sub-groups within the Caucasian and the Black population. In recent years, however, many researchers and mental health providers have demonstrated their strong interest in understanding other minority ethnic groups in America. These researchers have published marital satisfaction studies involving the following ethnic groups: Japanese (Kitamura, Watanabe, Aoki, Fujino, & Ura, 1995; Morinaga, Sakata, & Koshi, 1992; Yoshinori, 1993), Indian (Kumar, 1986), Chinese-American (Shek, 1995; Ying, 1991), Swedish (Kaslow, Hansson, & Lundblad, 1994), Mexican-American (Contreras, Hendrick, & Hendrick, 1996), and Korean in Korea (Jeong & Schumm, 1990; Kwon, 1992). Nevertheless, no study was found that investigated marital satisfaction factors for Korean-American families.

The Korean-American community has grown substantially in the past few years. Koreans started to immigrate to America in 1903. By 1997, the Korean population in the U. S. was approximately 2,110,564 (the Embassy of the Republic of Korea Consular Section in Washington, D.C.). Just as the Korean-American population is on the rise, so is the need to gain a clearer understanding of Korean-American marital and family relationships in order to assist counselors who work with this population.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify marital satisfaction factors for Korean-American couples. In addition, this study investigated differences between marital satisfaction levels of Korean-American husbands and wives.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study was twofold. First, it offered a better understanding of Korean-American marital dynamics enabling mental health practitioners to develop more effective strategies for working with Korean-American couples. Second, this study provided specific information about Korean-American marriages that will assist marriage and family educators to develop appropriate models for educating Korean-American couples.

Research Questions

This study proposed to answer the following questions.

Research Question 1: What is the marital satisfaction level among Korean-American husbands and wives?

Research Question 2: What is the difference in marital satisfaction levels between Korean-American matched couples?

Research Question 3: Which of the following 17 factors are related to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands and wives: the level of a couple's affection for each other, the level of a couple's commitment to each other, the couple's ability to communicate with each other, the couple's ability to resolve conflicts between each other, a couple's satisfaction level in sharing activities and time together, a couple's ability to express their feelings, the level of couples' empathy toward each other, a couple's family dynamics in their family of origin, the level of agreement between the husband and the wife in handling finances, a couple's attitude toward gender role differences, the quality of a couple's kinship relationship, the level of a couple's religious homogamy, having

children, the division of housework between spouses, the level of a couple's self-esteem, the level of a couple's sexual satisfaction, the level of similarity in a couple's value system?

Research Question 4: Which of the 17 factors will differentiate between highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied matched couples?

Korean-Americans are Koreans who live in America at present. The rating scores of 5 and 6 on the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale were used as the criteria for the highly satisfied couples. The rating scores of 1 and 2 on the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale were used as the criteria for the highly dissatisfied couples.

Delimitation

The sample was delimited to the Korean-American husbands and wives who have been attending one of the churches which have been registered in the address book of the Korean-American Churches in America.

Limitation

The study was limited to Korean-American husbands and wives who were attending a church in America at the time of survey. Generalizability, therefore, is limited to Korean-American wives and husbands similar to those who participated in this study.

Organization of the Study

This study contains five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the research topic, provides a

statement of the problem, indicates the purpose and significance of the study, identifies research questions, and provides the delimitations and limitations.

Chapter 2 contains a review of the literature related to marital satisfaction factors, the culture of Koreans in Korea, and the history of Korean-American immigration.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology of the research, including a description of the population, sampling procedures, procedures used for data collection, the construction of the instrument, research questions, and statistical analyses.

Chapter 4 describes the demographic data, the results of instrument development (factor analysis), the analyses of the data, and the summary of the results of data analyses.

Chapter 5 describes a summary of the findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature is divided into two sections. The first section discusses Korean culture, the acculturation issues of Korean-Americans, and the history of Korean immigration to America. The second section discusses factors that are identified as relating to marital satisfaction in the literature.

Korean Culture and Korean-American Immigration

Cultural Background of Korean-American Family and Acculturation Issues

Although Americanization has greatly influenced the dynamics and the value systems of Korean-American families, most Korean-Americans follow the traditional ideas and practices of Koreans in Korea. Many Korean-American family members experience a great deal of conflict between the rules and expectations of the traditional Korean family and those of the American family (Kwon, 1992). It is, therefore, appropriate to understand the development of the family and marital dynamics that are distinctly different from those of the American culture.

The Chinese Confucian cultural tradition has had a powerful influence on Korean culture, particularly the Korean family system. Confucianism's emphasis on clear role differentiation between husband and wife has helped to establish an extreme form of

patriarchy in Korea. In traditional Korean society, the husband has been considered as the primary breadwinner and the decision maker in the family, exercising complete authority over his wife and children. The wife was expected to obey her husband, devotedly serve him and his family members, and perpetuate her husband's family lineage by bearing her husband's children. Extended family ties with extended family members were coupled with the value of uniformity to the social norms (Min, 1995).

In 1960, the civil code legalizing equality between men and women in Korea became established; however, equality is still not a reality. Perhaps one reason for this is that the civil code was imported from the West and imposed by the ruling elite as an ideal. These changes were not the result of changed attitudes at the grassroots level. Korean society, therefore, still harshly demoralizes women who are or who even have the slightest desire to be non-traditional. At the same time, criticism of non-traditional women by women is just as severe as it is from men, if not worse (Kwon, 1992).

The family laws were not amended until December 1988, and the changes made by this amendment were not effective until January 1991. This amendment affected mostly the principle of equality between men and women. The succession of the headship of a family through the first son was abrogated, at least on paper. Marriage codes have also become more equitable since this time. Couples, not just husbands, decide where they live, and both spouses are responsible for the living expenses. If a couple divorces, the custody of the children is determined by the couple, whereas the old law favored the husband or the father. The couple now has the right to ask for division of property in the case of divorce. Inheritance is also equally divided between sons and

unmarried daughters (Kwon, 1992).

Labor laws to abolish sex discrimination were not passed until December 1987 and did not become effective until April 1988. The women's movement has become active only during the last decade. One of the benefits made possible by the women's movement has been in the area of mate selection. In the traditional family system, mates were selected by an arrangement between families. An arranged marriage reflected the family's interests and focused more on familial rather than individual well-being. This trend has been changing because of modernization and industrialization. In recent years, marital arrangements by parents have given way to love matches based on the autonomous decision of individuals (Kwon, 1992).

Korean married couples, even as recently as the early part of the 20th century, could not expect intimacy between spouses. They were members of large families in which men and women maintained different spheres of activities, and marriage merely perpetuated that segregation. Traditional families, in fact, intentionally tried to limit intimacies between the young husband and wife because such intimacy was believed to threaten patriarchal ties. Many elderly women in Korea recalled that they did not remember talking to their husbands when they were young brides. They were even embarrassed to be with their own husbands in places where other people were around them (Yoon, 1990).

Rearing children is an important factor for marital satisfaction in Korean families. Koreans view child-bearing as a means of continuing their own family tree and extending or fulfilling their parents' desires. Sacrificing parents' lives for children's success is not

an uncommon practice among Korean parents. Obedience to parents is expected broadly by the Korean society, and most children uphold that expectation well. As long as their parents are alive, husbands (regardless of their age) continue to consult with their elderly parents rather than their wives when making decisions that are very critical for their own lives. This practice of parent-child dependency is highly encouraged and respected by Korean society (Kwon, 1992).

Traditionally, the husband, as the patriarch of the family, has had complete authority over other family members. The head of the family is pictured as a ruling king in the household, who maintains his authority over family members by keeping distant from them, thereby becoming almost inaccessible to other family members. At the same time, family members respect his position as head by not getting on his nerves and by being compliant to his will. His presence in the home commands every member's attention. Children are warned to be quiet, and his wife must be available for whatever he needs and whenever he needs her (Kwon, 1992).

Although trends are changing slowly, men still belong to the public sphere, and women to the private sphere. Men do the outside labor while women do the inside labor. The wife of the patriarch controls things related to food and clothing. The head of the household is responsible for providing the income upon which the members of the household live. Men identify with and take pride in their jobs. Women find fulfillment in serving their husbands and children. Even when their husbands do not have regular jobs, women hesitate to disturb the husband-dominant marital relationship (Kwon, 1992).

Much of this traditional gender role differentiation has been preserved in Korea

until the present. In spite of a high level of urbanization, industrialization, and economic development, only a small portion of married women participate in the labor force.

Traditional gender role orientation, on one hand, and employment/wage discrimination against women, on the other, discourage married women from participating in the labor market and also force working wives to carry a full load of household tasks (Min, 1995).

This deeply rooted tradition of Korean culture is still alive in most Korean-American families in America (Kwon, 1992).

Men, who are used to being patriarchs, dislike the idea of becoming a co-provider. No matter what kind of financial contribution wives make, men are unwilling to change traditional conjugal relations. They want to rule and order. They expect their wives to be submissive and compliant to their requests (Min, 1995). They see their wives' work only as supplemental earnings regardless of their wives' work status and income level. They, therefore, leave the responsibilities of household tasks to their wives. For men, the wife's work is extra: extra money and extra work after she has done all household tasks (Tomeh, 1982).

Not only Korean-American husbands but also Korean-American wives adhere to the traditional role patterns brought over from Korea even when the wives are employed full-time (Kitano & Daniels, 1988). Some Korean wives would rather continue doing all the housework for the sake of maintaining peace in their homes rather than arguing with their husbands in an effort to get them to help out in the home. Stress from overwork, therefore, is much higher for Korean working wives than it is for husbands. The practice of having women do all of the housework, which was a positive factor in Korean families

in Korea, causes many marital conflicts in Korean-American marriages in America because Korean wives are gaining increased economic independence and see the advantages of working women in America (Min, 1995).

Downward mobility in social status experienced by most Korean immigrants might be another important source of marital conflicts. Due to their “imperfect English,” their educational qualifications are not well recognized in American job markets. Most immigrants, including college-educated professionals with white-collar backgrounds, fall into working blue-collar jobs or enter into labor-intensive small businesses. This disturbs greatly the image of men who want to cling to their patriarchal position in the traditional Korean family and thus causes severe marital conflicts in Korean-American marriages (Min, 1995).

Establishing emotional intimacy between Korean-American husbands and wives through the expression of emotional feelings is not an easy task. As suggested above, Korean men are supposed to belong to the public sphere, not to their homes. The Korean culture looks down on those men who spend too much time at home and who express too much caring about their wives and children. When men desire to help out with household chores, they do it discreetly. Women are expected to tolerate whatever pain or heartache that is necessary in order for their husbands to succeed in society. Patience and silence are two of the virtues of Korean women. The more a woman is able to repress her feelings and opinions, the worthier the woman becomes. This cultural valuing of a woman’s ability to repress her emotions and opinions greatly clashes with the Western style of establishing emotional intimacy through expression of feelings between husbands

and wives. New immigrants experience uneasiness about expressing their emotions. This experience exists in both wives and husbands at first. Eventually changes emerge. Some resist changes. This is more true with husbands. Some welcome changes and demand that their spouses change. This is more true with wives (Min, 1995).

Managing children in America is another difficult task for Korean parents. Acculturation occurs faster with children than it does with adults. A large number of children learn the language and adapt to society faster than their parents (Kitano & Daniels, 1988). As soon as they understand language and societal trends, Korean children quickly adopt American individualism, while parents are still holding on to the Korean culture which emphasizes dependency on parents and conformity to parental expectations and rules. Children, to Korean parents, are still the extension of parents: they fulfill parents' unfulfilled dreams. Thus, Korean parents' expectations clash with their Americanized children's individuation process, resulting in severe bitterness and resentment on the parents' part and anger and frustration on the children's part. Furthermore, some Korean-American high-school students face many other difficulties in assimilating into the American culture and being accepted by their peer groups. These students are likely to be engaged in many delinquent activities, and parents are left with hopeless feelings because of the language barrier and unfamiliar societal systems. Quickly, the idea of being blessed by having children can be swept away in Korean-American homes, turning many homes into a battleground between parents and children (Min, 1995).

History of Korean Immigration

The current Korean-American community is largely the result of the influx of Korean immigrants since the liberalization of the U.S. immigration law in 1965. The Korean population in the United States increased from less than 100,000 in 1970 to more than 2 million in 1997. Korean immigration history can be roughly classified into three major periods: (1) the period of old immigration, (2) the intermediate period, and (3) the period of new immigration. The period of old immigration covers approximately 50 years between 1903 and 1949. The intermediate period focuses on the 15 years of Korean immigration following the Korean War in 1950. The period of new immigration involves a new wave of Korean immigrants following the enactment of the 1965 Immigration Act (Min, 1995).

Old Immigration

Between 1903 and 1905, more than 7,200 Koreans came to Hawaii to work on sugar plantations, composing the first wave of Korean immigrants to the United States (although nearly 100 Koreans had come to the United States after diplomatic relations were established between Korea and the United States in 1882). At the turn of the 20th century, plantation owners, in need of cheap labor, decided to recruit Korean laborers to meet shortages after Japanese workers engaged in numerous strikes (Min, 1995).

Economic hardship in Korea can be considered as a motivating factor for the first wave of Korean immigration. A nationwide famine in 1901 and the ensuing starvation forced the Korean government to relax its traditionally tight restrictions on immigration

of its people. Like other Asian immigrants to Hawaii and California, the pioneering Korean immigrants were admitted mainly to serve the economic interests of plantation owners. In this connection the immigrants in Hawaii were admitted through the contract labor system, a practice outlawed in the United States at the time. Contract labor was a system in which an immigrant was indentured to an employer for a period of years at wages lower than those paid to American citizens. As contract laborers, Korean immigrants were forced to accept low wages and working conditions set by plantation owners (Min, 1995).

This early Korean immigration to Hawaii came to a sudden end in the summer of 1905. Informed of the hardship by its emigrants, the Korean Foreign Ministry instructed the mayors of the port cities to stop issuing passports. Although the immigration of Korean workers to the United States ended in 1905, about 2,000 more Koreans came to Hawaii and California before Asian immigration was completely banned in 1924. The Koreans who immigrated between 1906 and 1923 can be classified into two major groups. The spouses of Korean workers constituted one major group. Most pioneering immigrants were unmarried single males who were later allowed to bring their picture-matched brides from Korea. Although most of these men were in their late 20s and early 30s, they brought much younger wives from Korea, resulting in significant age differences up to 14 years (Min, 1995).

Korean political refugees and/or students made up the other major group of Koreans who came to the United States during this period. As Korean agitation against the Japanese rule intensified surrounding the annexation of Korea by Japan in 1910, many

Korean intellectuals were singled out by Japanese officials for close surveillance. Many of them, however, succeeded in escaping to the United States via Shanghai. These students and political refugees played a leading role in organizing the Korean community and directing its activities toward Korean independence from Japan (Min, 1995).

The Intermediate Period

The close political, military, and economic connections between the United States and South Korea began with the Korean War in 1950, which facilitated the resumption of Korean immigration to the United States. The number of Koreans admitted to the United States as permanent residents increased steadily after 1950, reaching a total of 15,050 in 1964 (Min, 1995).

Most of the Korean immigrants admitted during this intermediate period were war brides. During the Korean War, more than a half million U.S. soldiers were sent to Korea, and tens of thousands were stationed there each year after the war ended. Many of these servicemen brought Korean wives home (Min, 1995).

War orphans constituted another major Korean immigrant group admitted during the intermediate period. During the Korean War, hundreds of thousands of Korean children lost their parents. During and after the war, the U.S. servicemen stationed in South Korea adopted many of these children and brought them home. Later, nonmilitary U.S. citizens also began to adopt these orphans and brought them to United States (Min, 1995).

Between 1950 and 1964, more Koreans sought the educational, economic, and

occupational opportunities publicized by U.S. military and economic aides to South Korea. Thus, the military, political, and economic connections between the United States and South Korea were largely responsible for the migration of Korean students to the United States during this time, as well as for the migration of interracial married women and orphans (Min, 1995).

The New Immigration (1965-Present)

As indicated previously, the Immigration Act of 1965 led to a dramatic increase in Asian immigration. Korea, along with the Philippines, China, and Vietnam, was one of the major sources for the new immigration. The annual number of Korean immigrants steadily increased in the 1960s and early 1970s, exceeding 30,000 in 1976. Between 1976 and 1989, 30,000 to 35,000 Koreans a year were admitted to the United States as immigrants (Min, 1995).

According to the 1970 census, the Korean population in the United States was 69,130. About 600,000 Koreans immigrated between 1970 and 1990 (Min, 1995). Koreans continued their immigration, and the official count of Korean-Americans in 1997 was 2,110,564 (the Embassy of the Republic of Korea Consular Section in Washington, D.C.).

Korean Ethnicity

Korean immigrants in the United States maintain a high level of ethnic attachment, higher than any Asian group. Most Korean immigrants speak the Korean language, eat mainly Korean food, and practice Korean customs most of the time. Most

are affiliated with at least one ethnic organization, usually a church, and are involved in active informal ethnic networks (Min, 1995).

There are three major reasons why Korean immigrants have been able to maintain a high level of ethnic attachment. First, Korea is a small and culturally homogeneous country, with only one racial group speaking one language. Second, Korean immigrants maintain a strong ethnic attachment by joining one or more Korean ethnic churches. Third, Korean immigrants' concentration in small businesses also strengthens Korean ethnicity. Most Koreans are segregated in the ethnic economy, either as small business owners or as employees of stores owned by co-ethnic members (Min, 1995).

The Function of Korean Churches in the History of Korean Immigration

In general, Korean churches in America have been the main center for many social gatherings and activities of Korean-Americans. These church functions help Korean-Americans to maintain Korean traditions by using the Korean language in all programs and promoting cultural programs such as celebrations of Korean holidays and commemoration services. Furthermore, pastors and church workers, for many decades, have functioned as social workers for Korean immigrants in America. They have offered counseling services for finding jobs for new immigrants, taught English through language schools in their churches, assisted new students in getting into school systems when they arrive in America, provided counseling for domestic problems, and even taught driving skills. For many Korean women, the church has been the only source of meeting other Koreans. Regardless of their religious affiliations, Korean immigrants join

one or more Korean ethnic churches for the very practical reason of maintaining their Korean identity (Kim & Patterson, 1974).

Even today, Korean churches are the main center for cultural activities and for providing the Korean population census. When I called the Embassy of the Republic of Korea Consular Section in Washington, D.C., to receive the list of addresses of Koreans in America, I was advised to contact church officials throughout the United States. There is no separate telephone list tabulated by the Korean embassy yet. They too have to depend on the listings of Korean churches throughout America when they need to reach the Korean community for official notifications. The consular- Lee in the Washington Embassy office stated that I could access the majority of Koreans through Korean church officials (the Embassy of the Republic of Korea Consular Section in Washington, D.C.).

Marital Satisfaction Factors

Marriage is an important experience for most adults. Americans rate marriage as being more important than health and income (Doherty & Jacobson, 1982). "Marital success and adjustment has been one of the major foci of family sociology for over half a century" (Hansen, 1981, p. 855). Marital satisfaction has been frequently used as a dependent variable in marriage and family studies (Rho, 1989).

The term "marital satisfaction," however, still faces a definitional problem. It is not an easy task to state an absolute definition because there are no objective standards with which to gauge marital satisfaction. Marital satisfaction is a function not only of the

individual characteristics of the person involved, but it is also a function of the unique ways that the couples interact (Rho, 1989).

Others have attempted to define what marital satisfaction is. Burr (1973) defined marital satisfaction as the degree to which the desires of individuals are fulfilled and extended to the marriage as a whole. Marital satisfaction can also be construed as being the subjective perception of the achievement of marital expectations (Bahr, 1976). Factors that make one person happy do not necessarily serve the same function for another. Furthermore, factors that make one racial or ethnic group satisfied do not serve the same function for another. The interest in discovering more factors for marital satisfaction continues to grow among clinicians and researchers, and various contributing factors for marital satisfaction of several racial groups have also been identified.

This section reviews the studies on marital satisfaction factors that are most commonly researched and identified by various clinicians and researchers. In addition, this section presents studies concerning long-term marriages and specific ethnic populations.

Affection and Marital Satisfaction

Unlike *marrying for love* in Western society, many marriages of Korean couples were arranged by parents and matchmakers. One cannot assume that Korean-American couples married because they loved each other. Some couples may never have fallen in love with each other. Some saw their spouses' faces at their wedding for the first time. Many marriages may have been forced by parents. For this reason, many Korean-

Americans may resent their marriages. They may stay together because they lack courage to divorce (Rho, 1989).

Regardless of the type of marriage Korean-Americans were engaged in, Rho (1989) discovered that possession and expression of affection was significantly related to marital satisfaction among 230 couples where the marital dyad consisted of Korean wives and American husbands. Both husbands and wives who reported happy marriages placed a high value on the expression of affection. Happily married people considered love and companionship to be far more important than sexual satisfaction, living conditions, and academic pursuits (Rho, 1989).

Galley (1995) investigated 176 married individuals and 69 couples (matched husbands and wives). He discovered that spousal friendship combined with affection was found to relate positively with marital satisfaction for the entire sample. This trend was stronger for wives than for husbands. Of the many variables that composed marital adjustment, affection and friendship were most correlated positively to dyadic satisfaction. Findings suggested that spousal friendship combined with affection was especially important for wives. When they sensed that they were respected by their husbands and felt loved by them in spite of faults, wives had a strong sense of fulfillment in their marital relationships.

Even with 58 dual-career couples who were involved in full-time professions, the interpersonal need for affection was more significantly related to marital satisfaction (on the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale) than the need for control (Thomas-Brown, 1996).

Rettig and Bubolz (1983) investigated 224 matched husband-wife couples. They found the variance of marital satisfaction to be explained by the following factors listed in the order of importance: affection, recognition and respect, companionship, and shared meaning. The results also indicated that husbands' and wives' level of affectional expression was intercorrelated positively with the various aspects of marital satisfaction.

Similarly, Kumar (1986) interviewed 50 happily married city-based Hindu couples (25-45 years old) to identify the factors that contributed to marital happiness. Husbands mentioned sexual satisfaction, proper understanding, right marital attitude, faithfulness, and the importance of giving. The wives, however, stated that affection was the most important factor in marital happiness. Faithfulness, companionship, the importance of giving, and sexual satisfaction were also mentioned as important contributors to a happy marriage.

Huston and Vangelisti (1991) found affection as a significant factor for marital satisfaction. They conducted a 2-year longitudinal study with newly married couples. The interplay between three types of socio-emotional behavior (affection, sexual interest, and negativity) and marital satisfaction was studied. Affection and negativity, but not sexual interest, were consistently associated cross-sectionally with marital satisfaction. Affection was positively associated, while negativity was negatively associated with marital satisfaction. The Marital Opinion Questionnaire, which was constructed by the authors, was used.

All of the studies that sought to discover the relationship between affectional level and marital satisfaction generated results consistent with the notion that spousal affection

is a significant contributor to marital satisfaction. Although two studies indicated that affection was more important for wives than it was for husbands, spousal affection toward each other appears to be a crucial factor for marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives.

Commitment and Marital Satisfaction

Birchler and Fals-Stewart (1994) defined the term “commitment” as the state of having pledged, devoted, or obligated oneself to another; to be involved, remain loyal, and maintain the relationship over time” (p. 103). Commitment is viewed as producing enhanced quality of relationship, security, support, and survival in crisis in marriage (Ferguson, 1993). “Commitment is essential for the development and the maintenance of a quality marriage,” said Birchler and Fals-Stewart (1994, p. 107). Without it, there will probably be insufficient trust and faith in the security and stability of the relationship to foster the development of long-term intimacy (Birchler & Fals-Stewart, 1994).

Commitment is largely a motivational variable, born of past and present interpersonal relationships. When present, commitment combines with caring to form the motivational foundation for marital satisfaction. Divorce and dysfunctional families inevitably affect the involved children in their ability to commit to their spouses as adults, therefore, perpetuating the cycle of decreased ability to commit to marriage in generations to come (Birchler & Fals-Stewart, 1994).

Commitment was also a significant factor for 60 graduating college students’ marriage lives. Lund (1985), in developing his own commitment scale, made a

distinction between the positive feelings associated with love from the expectation and intention to continue in a relationship. The items tap the expectation that the relationship will continue and how attracted the respondent is to other potential partners. The results indicated that commitment was a strong predictor for marital stability.

To both men and women and to both Anglo-Americans and African-Americans, commitment is a prerequisite for maintaining relationship satisfaction. Sanderson and Kurdek (1993) studied the importance of commitment. Their sample included 34 African-American couples and 61 Anglo-American couples. They used Sternberg's 15-item Commitment Scale. They found that there was a strong relationship between commitment and marital satisfaction for both men and women and for both Black and White couples. The relationship commitment for both men and women was related to many variables: small differences between the current relationship and the ideal relationship, high investments (the interdependence scores), a low insecure attachment style (an individual difference score), and frequent positive problem solving (a problem-solving score; Sanderson & Kurdek, 1993).

Monroe also studied the relationship between marital satisfaction using the Monroe-Johnson Marital Satisfaction Scale and commitment using the Monroe-Jones Commitment Scale, and marital problems using the Marital Problem Scale constructed for her study. She investigated 183 married couples and found that commitment appeared to be more stable in satisfied marriages and less affected by marital problems and life circumstances than marital satisfaction (Monroe, 1990).

Melcher (1989) confirmed the above findings. In his investigation of 303 married

couples, marital commitment correlated positively with marital satisfaction and religiosity for both husbands and wives. Parental divorce correlated significantly with marital commitment for wives but only in a negative direction. When Melcher looked at marital satisfaction, parental divorce, and religiosity; marital satisfaction was the variable found to account for the largest percentage of variance in relationship to marital commitment.

Schneiderman (1989) investigated the impact of extramarital involvement on marital satisfaction in older (ages 35 and above) and younger women (ages 20-30). The sample consisted of 102 married or formerly married females. Using Snyders' Marital Satisfaction Inventory and a Personal Data Form developed by the researcher, the study determined that extramarital affairs significantly decreased marital satisfaction levels for both older and younger women.

The studies reviewed consistently supported the idea that commitment has a positive relationship with marital satisfaction. This appears to hold true for the following groups: men, women, African-Americans, and Anglo-Americans.

Communication and Conflict Resolution Skills and Marital Satisfaction

It has been suggested that communication problems and destructive marital conflicts are among the leading risk factors for future divorce and marital distress (Behrens & Sanders, 1994; Gottman, 1994). Furthermore, destructive conflicts appear to be the most potent mechanism through which the effect of divorce and marital distress are transmitted to spouses and children. The following patterns of destructive argumentation

have been identified: escalation, invalidation, withdrawal, pursuit-withdrawal, and negative interpretations. These patterns place couples at risk of a host of problems in the future (Stanley et al., 1995). These destructive patterns undermine marital happiness through the active erosion of love, sexual attraction, friendship, trust, and commitment (Gottman, 1993; Markman & Hahlweg, 1993). The happily married have as many conflicts as the unhappily married; but the happily married confront their problems, seeing them as challenges to overcome rather than as signs of deterioration or failures (Ferguson, 1993).

Communication and conflict-resolution skills are viewed as stress-reducing, love-enhancing, relationship-maintaining factors in marriage. Markman and Hahlweg (1993) conducted a series of studies on the development of the "Premarital Relationship Enrichment Program (PREP)." PREP is based on a relatively large theoretical and empirical literature linking communication and problem-solving skills to effective marital functioning. They discovered that by enhancing communication and conflict-resolution skills, couples were able to reduce their marital stresses and increase their marital satisfaction level (Gottman, Notarius, Gonso, & Markman, 1976).

Markman, Floyd, Stanley, and Storaasli (1988) conducted a follow-up study to evaluate the PREP program. Forty-two couples planning marriage were matched and randomly assigned to an intervention (21 couples) and control (21 couples) condition. Couples participated in pre- and post-intervention assessment sessions at 2 years and at 3 years. The couples who learned positive communication styles showed higher levels of both couples' relationship quality and sexual satisfaction and lower levels of problem

intensity.

Bray and Jouriles (1995), in evaluating the effectiveness of behavioral marital therapy (BMT), discovered that many marriages have deteriorated because of couples' poor communication and conflict resolution skills. Communication skills promote empathy and intimacy between spouses, and empathy and better communication lead couples to accept characteristics of their spouses that are not likely to change. Better communication leads couples to a higher level of empathy. The higher level of empathy in turn takes couples to a higher level of marital satisfaction.

A positive correlation between spousal communication patterns and their marital satisfaction was also identified by Palmquist (1992). He administered the Communication Patterns Questionnaire (CPQ) and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) to 92 couples. The CPQ and DAS were positively correlated, indicating that communication patterns can predict the level of marital satisfaction. Couples high in marital satisfaction had greater spousal agreement than couples low in marital satisfaction (Palmquist, 1992).

The content of communication in relation to marital satisfaction was evaluated by Schumm, Barnes, Bollman, Jurich, and Bugaighis (1986). They investigated the amount of talking or communication that took place between couples and discovered that more rather than less communication was beneficial as long as it remained positive. However, they also discovered that more rather than less communication could be harmful if it became negative in content. Results further highlighted the importance of positive regard and self-disclosure for predicting marital satisfaction. From this study the authors

concluded that positive communication was associated with higher levels of marital satisfaction. The combination of low quality and low quantity was found to be detrimental to marital satisfaction. Their sample population included 83 couples from rural communities. The Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale and the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory were used for the study.

The amount of time couples have to communicate with one another also appeared as an important factor. Vangelisti and Bamski (1993) surveyed 709 married couples from the Hartland Poll study. They discovered that there was a positive association between the total amount of time spouses reported debriefing and their marital satisfaction. Pearson correlations revealed that there was a significant positive association between the total amount of time spent talking and their relational satisfaction, indicating that satisfied couples spend more time talking together and engaging in more self-disclosure than dissatisfied couples.

Recognizing the importance of the quality and quantity of communication, many researchers tried to identify effective styles of communication in marital relations. By utilizing four communication styles--conventional, controlling, speculative, and direct--with 61 Polish married couples, Kryzysztof discovered that well-adjusted subjects communicated more often in the direct and conventional styles and less often in the controlling style than the poorly adjusted ones. The poorly adjusted subjects imputed controlling style to their partners more often than to themselves (Kryzysztof, 1986).

Kurdek (1995) examined the patterns of spousal dynamics in conflict resolution: conflict engagement, withdrawal, and compliance in 55 married couples. Although the

pattern of relations differed for husbands and wives, it was found that both spouses' conflict-resolution styles synergistically influenced each spouse's marital satisfaction.

Two specific patterns of findings can be noted. First, the most consistent finding for both husbands and wives was that low marital satisfaction tended to be associated with spousal interaction in which the wife frequently used conflict engagement and the husband frequently withdrew. "The wife demands-husband withdraws" spousal pattern accounts for more variance in each spouse's marital dissatisfaction than other interactions involving husbands' and wives' conflict-resolution styles. For both husbands and wives, the use of withdrawal was negatively related to their own marital satisfaction. A change in spouses' conflict-resolution style--especially the frequency with which wives used conflict engagement and husbands used withdrawal was linked to a change in each spouse's marital satisfaction (Kurdek, 1995).

In the decision making process, democratic equal power distribution appears to be important. Beach and Tesser (1993) examined the way in which couples divide decision making power in marital relationships using the Self Evaluating Maintenance model. Ninety couples were tested for the effect of the distribution of marital decision-making power on marital satisfaction. As predicted by the model, the results showed that equal distribution of decision-making power is positively related to marital satisfaction.

Houlihan, Jackson, and Rogers (1990) drew the same conclusion from a study with 10 satisfied and 10 dissatisfied married couples. The couples described how they made decisions of low, moderate, and high levels of difficulty. Responses were coded as reflecting the use of equity, need-based, situational, or other norms. Consistent with the

Beach and Tesser (1993) study, a state of equity was positively associated with marital satisfaction.

Another study (Lamson, 1992) of egalitarian status in relation to marital satisfaction involved an investigation of 61 couples who were randomly selected from a Catholic premarital preparation program. Measurements were taken immediately after the premarital program, 3 months after the wedding, and at a 15-month follow-up point. In this study there were three patterns of dominance: husband dominance, wife dominance, or equalitarian status. The results indicated that an egalitarian relationship led to the greatest marital satisfaction.

The relationship between an assertiveness-nonassertiveness communication pattern and marital satisfaction was also studied. One hundred seventy married volunteer couples who resided in the Tidewater area of Virginia were surveyed. Each individual completed the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule (RAS) and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) by Spanier. Based on the RAS scores of the husbands and wives, the couples were assigned to one of four groups. The four groups were: (1) assertive husband and wife, (2) assertive husband and non-assertive wife, (3) non-assertive husband and assertive wife, and (4) non-assertive husband and wife (Kiser, 1989).

The husbands' and wives' scores on the DAS were statistically analyzed using a Pearson Correlation. There was a significant positive correlation between the husbands' DAS and the wives' DAS for all four groups. Group one in which both husband and wife were assertive was significantly correlated with higher marital satisfaction. Individual assertiveness, however, was not a significant factor for these couples' marital

satisfaction (Kiser, 1989).

Problem-solving ability is another aspect of communication skills. Markman, Silvern, Kraft, and Clements (1993) discovered that there was a significant difference in problem-solving facilitation and in problem-solving inhibition. Males who became distressed had significantly lower levels of problem-solving facilitation and significantly higher levels of problem-solving inhibition compared to the males who remained non-distressed. How males handle conflicts in a relationship is more important in terms of predicting marital satisfaction than how females handle conflicts.

Burleson and Denton (1992), however, got different results from the above. They examined relationships between marital satisfaction and the degree of complexity in social-cognitive and communication skills. Sixty couples were recruited via advertisement in a university campus newspaper. Crockett's Role Category Questionnaire was used to assess the level of interpersonal cognitive complexity, and Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale and Positive Feeling Questionnaire were used for assessing marital satisfaction. The communication style was recorded using Markman's communication box. Husbands' and wives' levels of cognitive complexity were significantly correlated. Spouses revealed a similar level of skills in accurately perceiving the intent of their spouse's message and in effectively sending messages to their spouses in order to bring a desired impact. The level of skills (whether high or low), however, did not make a significant difference in marital satisfaction for any of the following four skills: cognitive complexity (including affective and social relational features), predictive accuracy (difference between an individual's predicted impact score

and his or her actual impact score), perceptual accuracy, and communication effectiveness (difference between the husband's perceived intent and the wife's actual impact) (Burleson & Denton, 1992).

Except for one study, the results of most studies emphasize the importance of the quantity and quality of communication and of conflict-resolution skills in marital relationships. Communication patterns such as the frequency of agreement, the positive content of conversation, and conventional and direct methods of discussion are significantly related to marital satisfaction. In problem-solving situations, democratic equal power distribution works best in resolving marital problems. "The wife demands-husband withdraws" pattern accounts for more variance of marital dissatisfaction than any other pattern. Surprisingly, individual assertiveness (versus non-assertiveness) did not make much difference in marital satisfaction.

Having Children and Marital Satisfaction

In Korea, having children has long been a crucial factor for marriage maintenance and marital satisfaction. Children are the extension of parental lives both for the continuation of the family name and for the fulfillment of unfulfilled parental dreams. Koreans do not emphasize the pure fun of raising children. In the patriarchal family, a young wife was considered as an outsider until she bore a son to her family. Only through her son did her status become stable. Only through her investment in her children could she get a means of support and security in her old age (Kwon, 1992).

In America, too, the importance of children in a family has never been questioned

in the past. The research on childlessness in marriage and its effect on marital satisfaction did not begin until two or three decades ago. This lack of research reflects Americans' pronatal values: childless marriages have been considered atypical and abnormal for decades. The meaning of parenthood, however, is now changing slowly. The importance of parenthood as the central focus of adulthood identity is declining. The childless marriage has even become an alternative pattern of marriage in some families in America. Becoming a parent is a matter of choice and can affect marital satisfaction differently depending on how one values children (Kwon, 1992). Therefore, the effect of having (or not having) children in a marriage has gained a significant amount of attention from many researchers.

Callan (1984) attempted to determine whether childless marriages are less happy and less satisfactory than marriages with children. Fifty childless couples (early deciders of voluntarily childlessness or voluntary childlessness through postponement) and 41 couples with children who were matched for age, level of education, and the length of marriage were compared. The result suggested that without the restriction and responsibility of children, childless couples had more time together talking, planning, and deciding about their lifestyle. Parents, however, were higher than (both) childless groups on dyadic satisfaction. They had fewer quarrels and less talk of divorce or regrets about marriage.

Sklar (1984) studied the effect of infertility on self-esteem, marital satisfaction, and locus of control. Four marital groups were selected: infertile man-infertile woman, fertile man-fertile woman, infertile man-fertile woman, and infertile woman-fertile man.

No positive relationship was found between fertility and marital satisfaction. While infertility was shown to affect self-criticism, the physical self, and the personal self, it did not significantly alter self-concept or marital satisfaction.

Interestingly, Leiblum (1993), in exploring the differential impact of infertility on women and men, found that infertility was in fact found to be a significant cause of stress and anxiety for both men and women, interfering with sexual spontaneity, insulting body image, and undermining the couples' psychological and financial resources. Infertility, however, did not have a pervasively negative impact on marital adjustment.

The effects that children have on marriage have also been studied. In a longitudinal study that examined the role of marital satisfaction and child factors in predicting divorce occurrence with 140 young adolescents and their parents, Devine and Forehand (1996) discovered that marital dissatisfaction predicted a higher current level of divorce potential or divorce occurrence. In this study no child-related variables (number of children in the family, the presence of male child in the family, or the adolescent's level of anxiety-withdrawal and conduct disorder problems) predicted divorce potential or divorce occurrence for wives or husbands.

Orbuch, House, Mero, and Webster (1996) conducted a study that dealt with marital quality over the life course. The results revealed that individuals with young children (0-13) in the household were significantly less satisfied than individuals with no children. Individuals with children age 0-17 living elsewhere were less satisfied to the same degree. Individuals with older children, whether at home or elsewhere, did not differ significantly in marital satisfaction from those with no children.

An inverse relationship between the age and the number of children and marital satisfaction was again confirmed. Using the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale and the Past and Present Married Life Questionnaire by Plechaty, Couturier, Cote, and Roy (1996) discovered that the age of children and the number of children in the family were negatively correlated with current marital satisfaction level for the 92 subjects who volunteered in this study.

Lavee, Sharlin, and Katz (1996) discovered that rearing children had a negative effect on parents. The sample included 287 intact couples in Israel with a mean number of 2.53 children living at home. Findings indicated that for fathers and mothers parenting stress was affected by the number of children and economic distress, but not by other roles (wife's employment and household division of labor). For both spouses, their perception of marital quality and their psychological well-being were affected negatively by parenting stress. A significant association was found between husbands' and wives' parenting stress, as well as an effect of their perception of marital satisfaction.

Rho (1989), in an investigation of 230 couples of Korean wives and American husbands, found that the wives who had no children had significantly higher marital and self-satisfaction than the wives who had children. Although significant differences were not found between the number of children and the wives' satisfaction, in general, the more children the wife had, the less she was satisfied. Husbands' satisfaction, however, was not significantly related to the presence of children or the number of children. One reason for this might be that most Korean women take child-rearing as their primary responsibility while fathers might be interested in child care only as spectators because

they are preoccupied with their work.

In a study of 85 female and 67 firstborn children (ages 9-12 years) and their parents, McHale, Freitag, Crouter, and Bartko (1991) discovered a negative link between marital satisfaction and rearing children. Parental reports of marital conflict, dissatisfaction about their spouses' child-rearing philosophy, and global marital satisfaction were linked to indices of children's adjustment.

When children suffer from medical conditions, marital stress is increased. Perry, Sarlo-McGarvey, and Factor (1992) studied parents of 29 girls with Rett syndrome. They examined levels of parenting stress, marital adjustment, and family functioning. Their scores were compared to normative and clinical samples. The parents of girls with the Rett syndrome reported more stress, lower marital satisfaction, and less adaptation to certain family functioning compared to the norms.

Despite the traditional Korean view that having children is a blessing, studies seem to indicate that having children has a negative impact on marital satisfaction. In addition, studies have indicated that infertility in itself does not cause a negative relationship with marital satisfaction. Having more children rather than fewer children is negatively correlated with marital satisfaction.

Doing Things and Spending Time Together and Marital Satisfaction

Doing things together appears to be another important factor promoting spousal bonding, which in turn facilitates higher marital satisfaction. Couples have to be engaged in some kind of activities that they enjoy and will spend time doing in order for

them to feel connected and to maintain their relationship. Ward (1993) used the data from the National Survey of Families and Households to investigate the association between marital satisfaction and time spent together, household equality, and employment for 1,353 couples ages 50 or over. Marital quality and time spent together scales were constructed by the author. Marital happiness and reported quality of marital life were quite high for these older couples. Marital happiness, time spent together, and perceived fairness of the relationship were also high. Time spent together by husbands and wives was found to have the most consistent association with marital happiness (Ward, 1993).

Strassburger (1998) found that, for both men and women (75 couples who have been married for at least three years), doing things together generated closer intimacy, which in turn enhanced marital quality. Women, however, were partial to marital intimacy created by spending time with husbands together with friends and family, while men preferred sharing various kinds of experiences such as helping, taking walks, and holding hands with their wives alone. The Personal Assessment of Intimacy of Relationships, the Locke Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale, and the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale were used.

Kettlitz (1997) studied 237 married couples. He discovered that joint activities such as talking, eating, and cooking at home, sex, activities shared with children, and church-related activities consistently promoted a higher quality of time spent with their spouse and a higher spousal bonding. The amount of time they spent together, along with many types of activities, influenced respondents' reported marital quality. The

respondents' greater satisfaction with the quality of time spent with their spouse, however, was consistently the strongest predictor of higher marital quality.

Barker (1981) studied 259 seminary student couples using the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale. He discovered that the amount of time the couples spent together highly correlated with their level of marital adjustment. The amount of activities they shared and the quality of time they spent together was highly correlated with their level of marital adjustment.

The results of the above three studies are congruent in that they all recognize that both quality and quantity of time together are important to marital satisfaction. Even domestic duties help in promoting marital satisfaction and spousal bonding when they are done together.

Emotional Expression and Marital Satisfaction

The value of expressing emotions held by Americans is not held by Koreans. Americans are encouraged to express their emotions, and one's ability to express his or her emotions effectively is highly valued. Silence can be interpreted as a sign of disagreement, detachment, or even disliking a person or an opinion. Koreans, however, are very much discouraged from expressing feelings. One's ability to be silent is the sign of one's maturity. Therefore, if one wants to maintain respect in Korean society, one must be able to repress his or her feelings. The value of repression of feelings is taught from early childhood. This is especially true for women. One must not be so immature as to show one's feelings all the time (Rho, 1989).

However, many studies have discovered the necessity of expression of emotion in a healthy marriage. King (1993) found in his investigation of 50 married couples, using an emotional expressiveness questionnaire and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, that emotional expressiveness was positively correlated with marital satisfaction. Spouses' ratings of each other's expressiveness correlated with marital satisfaction, independent of spouses' self-reported expressiveness. Furthermore, husbands' ambivalence about expression of feelings was negatively correlated with wives' marital satisfaction (King, 1993).

Oatley (1985) conducted a study with 24 married males and 24 married females. He used the Locke-Wallis Marital Satisfaction Scale and the Johnson-George and Swap's Specific Interpersonal Trust Scale. The results indicated that interpersonal expectancies were correlated with strength of emotional expression. Females reported stronger emotional expression than males following the induction of all emotions. Females, but not males, showed a significant correlation between marital satisfaction and expectancies for emotional expression.

Durana (1996) found that marital satisfaction was positively correlated with expression of emotion. Using Jack's Dyadic Adjustment Scale, he tested the effectiveness of emotional expression with a sample population of 73 married adults. During cathartic experiences, subjects were relaxed and their belief systems were then open to alteration and changes, thereby experiencing more bonding experience, which in turn enhanced marital satisfaction.

The ability to express emotions to each other appears to be very important in

increasing emotional bonding, accepting spousal ideas, and, therefore, increasing marital satisfaction. This is especially true for wives.

Empathy and Marital Satisfaction

Davis and Oathout (1987) defined empathy as one's personal responsiveness to the experiences of another. Empathy has been considered as an essential part of marriage and has received much attention from many researchers.

Wastell (1991) measured the level of empathy among 44 married couples. Twenty-four were intact married couples where as 20 were separated couples who had made application to the family court concerning their separation. The level of empathy differed significantly between the Non-court and the Court samples. For men and women, the level of empathy for the Non-court couples was much higher (mean = 17.4, $SD = 9.6$ for men; mean = 15.9, $SD = 9.2$ for women) than that of the Court couples (mean = - 16.2, $SD = 11.8$ for men; mean= -21.1, $SD = 12.1$). For both men and women the level of empathy was also significantly correlated with their marital happiness. The Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory and the Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale were used.

Rowan et al. (1995), using the Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale, discovered that both self-actualization and empathy scores were strongly associated with marital satisfaction for males. Surprisingly, the correlation between empathy and marital satisfaction for females was not significant for these 30 couples drawn from a university population.

The role of empathy in long-term marriages was investigated by Fields (1983). He discovered that empathy, the capacity to perceive one's spouse's experiences accurately, was crucial for successful long-term marriages. Field selected 290 men (mean age = 48.56 years) and women (mean age = 45.48 years). They had to be married a minimum of 18 years and a maximum of 30 years, and both partners had to return the questionnaires.

Barker (1981) also discovered that happy spouses (who scored extremely high on the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale) seemed to be demonstrating greater ability in empathic listening, were better communicators, and took responsibility for expressing their feelings. Overall, these couples had developed a stronger sense of partnership, or "we-ness," and seemed more accepting of each other.

Recognizing empathy as a critical factor for marital satisfaction, Gatof (1990) asserted that empathy must be understood as a multidimensional construct. One of the important dimensions of empathy is that it is largely a phenomenological experience. In order to assess whether empathy has been communicated, it is necessary to examine the personal perceptions of the person to whom the understanding is aimed. The author then concluded from his investigation of 50 married professional, White couples that globally perceived empathy was strongly related to the feelings of marital satisfaction (on the Snyder's Marital Satisfaction Inventory).

Contrary to preceding studies, Thomas, Fletcher, and Lange (1997) found that empathic accuracy was not related to the couples' relationship satisfaction level. Seventy-four married couples reviewed videotapes of their problem-solving discussions

and described their own and their partners' on-line thoughts and feelings. Rating was done through observer coding and self-report measures of scales constructed by the authors. Couples who were educated and who had been married for shorter periods of time achieved higher levels of empathic accuracy. However, empathic accuracy did not show any relationship with relationship satisfaction level.

Four out of the above five studies supported the notion that one's ability to empathize with their spouse's experience is an essential element for both short-term and long-term successful marriages. Both the perception and the accuracy of empathy are important to a successful marriage.

Family Dynamics and Marital Satisfaction

As researchers and clinicians are becoming aware of many behaviors that affect marital satisfaction, they are also interested in understanding what predisposes an adult to engage in conflicting or harmonious interactions with his or her partner. Researchers, especially those of the psychoanalytic (Freud, 1949) and life-span developmental orientation (Baltes & Reese, 1984), claim that one's own developmental history is one of the most important factors in maintaining a high marital satisfaction level. Object relations theorists also have long claimed that the parent-child relationship is the prototype for later love relationships of individuals (Chodorow, 1978; Dinnerstein, 1976).

Forrest (1991) conducted a study with 74 couples, using the Family of Origin Scale and Marital Satisfaction Inventory. He discovered that the health of the family of origin was significantly correlated with the current level of global marital distress, the

quality of affective communication, the level of problem solving communication, the quality of time together, the quality of sexual activity, the quality of relationship with children, and parental conflict over child-rearing practices.

In an effort to discover the relationship between the memories of early parent-child relationships and current measures of marital attachment and marital satisfaction, Levine (1989) conducted a study with 264 married subjects in Los Angeles. The results indicated the following: (1) for the total sample, positive recollections of parental relationships were correlated with marital attachment and marital satisfaction, (2) correlations between early recollections and marital outcome measures were significant for husbands only, and (3) the husbands' father-acceptance was the single best predictor of marital satisfaction for husbands.

Large (1993) investigated 53 married adults, ranging in age from 22 to 54. His study yielded the following results: (1) the relationship between marital intimacy and the quality of the father-child relationship was significant, (2) those who reported a more satisfying relationship with their fathers and identified their family of origin as less clear about sex roles described their marriages as more intimate, and (3) the greater freedom and flexibility in the family-of-origin roles were connected to a similarly increased range of functioning in marriage.

Kulik (1994) studied 50 White middle-class couples. She found that cohesion in the family of origin promotes the development of relationship maturity. The perception of cohesion in women's families of origin was significantly associated with women's level of relationship maturity and inter-generational consistency. Both of these variables

were significantly associated with women's marital satisfaction. Satisfaction with family of origin impacted these associations. For men, however, few significant associations were made between the husbands' perception of their family of origin and marital satisfaction variables.

Guth (1994) examined four family-of-origin factors in relation to marital satisfaction using 153 married couples between the ages of 24 and 67. The adult children's perception of the inter-parental relationship, their perception of the parent-child relationship and family atmosphere, their identification with their mothers, and their identification with their fathers were examined. There were two significant predictors of marital satisfaction for males: parent-child relationship and family atmosphere and identification with mother. No significant predictors were found for female respondents.

Cunnington (1991) discovered that perceived health in the family of origin influenced subsequent marital adjustment. It was concluded that factors relating to psychological health are transmitted inter-generationally from the family of origin to the individuals and subsequently to the individual's subsequent marital relationship. Instruments used were the Family of Origin Scale, the Edmond's Conventionalization Scale, and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale of Spanier.

Cohn et al. (1992) interviewed 27 married couples. They used Main's Adult Attachment Interview Scale. In addition, the 27 married couples provided them with a self-report of their marital satisfaction. They found that the childhood attachment to their parents (whether secure or insecure) was not significantly associated with reported marital satisfaction for husbands and wives. They, nevertheless, discovered that

husbands whose attachments were secure were in better-functioning couples who displayed more positive interactions and engaged in less conflict with one another than were husbands whose attachments were insecure.

Jacobs (1990) looked at the influences of intact families of origin and divorced families of origin on current marital satisfaction. He used a population of 92 couples ranging in ages from 20 to 79. There were four groups: maritally satisfied adult children of divorced families of origin, maritally unsatisfied adult children of divorced families of origin, maritally satisfied adult children from intact families of origin, and maritally unsatisfied adult children from intact families of origin. Couples completed the Marital Instability Scale, the Dyadic Trust Scale, and the Personality Authority Scale on the Family System Questionnaire. Findings indicated that on measures of marital instability, dyadic trust, and spousal intimacy, there were no differences between couples coming from divorced or intact families of origin.

Along the same lines as the Jacobs study, Webster et al. (1995) examined the effects of single-parent childhood family structures on adult marital satisfaction and perceived stability. Subjects included 6,333 people in their first marriages. Results revealed no significant differences in marital happiness by family history. However, among adults who were in less than very happy marriages, adult children of divorce reported significantly higher chances of divorce than those from two-parent families.

In summary, most research results agree that a positive recollection of parental relationships, a positive perception of parent-child relationships and family atmosphere, and flexibility in family-of-origin roles are positively correlated with marital satisfaction.

Childhood attachment style and family intactness, however, do not seem to affect the level of marital satisfaction of couples.

Handling Finances and Marital Satisfaction

Money is often equated with self-esteem and marital satisfaction in the U. S. The financial status of the home is sometimes an indicator of the success of a marriage. Some studies have shown that economic hardship in a family actually leads couples to marital dissolution. Other studies have indicated that there is no significant association between socioeconomic factors and quality of marital satisfaction (Conger et al., 1990).

Conger et al. (1990) studied the relationship between economic pressure and marital satisfaction and stability. The sample consisted of 76 White middle-class couples. Marital satisfaction was assessed by using a summative index of two items, one from the Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale and the second one constructed by the authors. Marital instability was measured by using the five-item short form of the Marital Instability Index developed by Booth, Johnson, and Edwards (1983).

Objective economic conditions (income, economic pressure, and the husband's work instability) influenced the husband's hostile and warm/supportive marital interactions only indirectly through the strain that spouses experienced in trying to meet their perceived needs with inadequate resources. Economic strain increased the hostility level and decreased the warmth/supportiveness of husbands toward their wives. Men's hostility was associated with greater perceptions of marital instability by wives and with lower levels of satisfaction/happiness for women. The husband's warmth/support had a

positive association with marital satisfaction but was not directly related to instability. Economic strain had an indirect effect on marital satisfaction through husbands' behaviors. Taken together, the direct and indirect influences of hostility, warmth, and marital satisfaction accounted for 51% of the variance in these women's perceived likelihood of divorce or separation (Conger et al., 1990).

Orbuch et al. (1996) studied the variables that account for trends in marital well-being over the life course. They used data from the Americans Changing Lives study, which was conducted with 3,617 respondents. The dependent variables in the analyses were two one-item measures of overall marital satisfaction: (1) How are you satisfied with your marriage?, and (2) How strongly do you agree with the statement "I sometimes think of divorcing or separating from my spouse." Greater marital satisfaction was associated significantly with being retired and with keeping the house; both are associated positively with duration. The economic status at present revealed a marginally ($p < .10$) negative association with satisfaction.

In contrast, Holling (1993) discovered that with various groups of Methodist clergy and their spouses, the income level itself did not have a significant relationship with marital satisfaction. In the responses to the open-ended questions, nevertheless, financial pressure appeared as an primary stressor along with time pressure. A total of 162 randomly selected couples completed ENRICH by Fourmer, Olson, and Druckman, the Spanier Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and three open-ended questions asking about strengths, stressors, and concerns in marriage.

Ruffin (1993) further sought out the differences in the marital satisfaction levels

between husbands and their wives in three different groups of couples: (1) when husbands' and wives' income levels are equal, (2) when husbands' income is higher than their wives', and (3) when wives' income is higher than their husbands' income. Fifty-five married couples were given the Snyder's Marital Satisfaction Inventory. The results of this research study indicated that there was no significant difference in the marital satisfaction level between husbands and their wives in all three groups of couples.

Barker (1981) investigated 73 seminary student couples, using the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale. He found that the perception of spouses on their income level (whether couples were satisfied with their level of income or not), not the absolute level of income, showed a strong correlation with marital adjustment. This correlation was true for both husbands and wives. What really mattered was how the couples perceived their income levels.

In summary, the attainment of financial level to take care of the basic necessities of maintaining a home appears to be essential in order to keep families together. However, how couples perceive the amount of money they possess appears to be more critical in determining the level of marital satisfaction. One couple may be perfectly happy with the amount of money that will minimally maintain the activities of a home, while others may never be happy regardless of how much they possess.

Attitudes Toward Gender Roles and Marital Satisfaction

In the past 40 years we have witnessed a profound transformation in social attitudes with respect to family life and gender roles. The idealized gender roles of a

good provider and a good homemaker have begun to give way to an androgynous egalitarianism, which emphasizes similarities in male and female roles rather than differences (Lye & Biblarz, 1993). Consequently, the effect of spousal attitude about gender roles on marital satisfaction has been another area of great interest among many mental health researchers.

Using 1,437 husbands and 1,480 wives from the National Survey of Families and Households, Lye and Biblarz (1993) studied the effects of attitude about gender roles on marital satisfaction. The authors constructed four measures of attitude scales and five separate measures of relationship scales. Both male and female respondents who espoused positive attitude toward nontraditional family behaviors (who disagree that it was better to marry than to go through life single) held a more favorable view of life outside the marriage, reported more disagreements, had a less positive overall evaluation of the happiness of the marriage, were more likely to anticipate the eventual breakup of the marriage, and were more likely to report that their marriage had been in trouble than were their more traditional counterparts.

The bivariate association between attitudes toward the household division of labor and marital satisfaction showed opposite patterns for males and females. When husbands and wives agreed on an egalitarian division of housework, the marital satisfaction of husbands increased but the marital satisfaction of wives decreased (Lye & Biblarz, 1993).

Nevertheless, for both men and women, positive attitudes toward women working outside the home were associated with lower marital satisfaction. Among them, however,

those couples who agreed with respect to traditional gender roles and family attitudes had higher levels of marital satisfaction than did couples who disagreed (Lye & Biblarz, 1993).

Kwon (1992) discovered similar results with 293 Korean married couples in Korea. He found a positive association between traditional attitudes and marital satisfaction. The wife's employment consistently reduced marital satisfaction for both spouses. Although the husband's increased share of household labor to a certain degree increased marital satisfaction for both spouses, complete sharing of household labor and the husband's pro-attitude about equal sharing of household labor were negatively related to husbands' and wives' marital satisfaction.

In contrast, Vatankhahi (1991) discovered no significant differences in marital satisfaction between groups with traditional and nontraditional sex-roles in his study of 39 Iranian couples in America. BEM's Sex-Role Inventory and a modified version of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory were used to measure the marital satisfaction in all combinations of traditional versus nontraditional sex roles.

In a similar line, Juni and Grimm (1994) studied the relationship between marital satisfaction and dyadic gender-role constellations. Forty-eight married couples participated in the study. The results showed that no differences in overall marital satisfaction existed between gender-role congruent (couples who maintained traditional roles of husbands and wives) and incongruent couples (who both have high masculine and feminine attributes), while the undifferentiated couples appeared to be more disposed toward marital dissatisfaction. The results also showed that affective communication and

time together suffered in gender-role congruent couples, while an androgynous marital unit led to increased dissatisfaction among wives in terms of role orientation.

Perry-Jenkins and Crouter (1990), with a sample population of 43 dual-earner couples, added a practical dimension to the understanding of the relationship between gender roles and marital satisfaction. Both the main providers (the individuals who viewed the wife's income as helpful but primarily as icing on the cake) and the co-providers (the individuals who acknowledged the importance of the wife's income to the family's financial stability) were high in marital satisfaction. The ambivalent co-providers (the individuals who admitted to being dependent on their wives' income and gave conflicting accounts of who was responsible for providing) were the least happy group among three categories. The authors also discovered that men's attitudes about the provider role (who should be responsible for the financial security of the family) were clearly linked to the ways in which roles were enacted within the family. A general conclusion was that husbands' deep-seated attitudes about provider-role duties played a part in how much household-task responsibility they assumed when their wives were employed full-time outside of the home. The main providers performed 21% of feminine household tasks; the co-providers performed 38% of the family tasks; and the ambivalent co-providers provided 34% of the total tasks (Perry-Jenkins & Crouter, 1990).

In summary, research has generated conflicting results on the influence of spousal attitudes toward gender role on marital satisfaction. When a study shows a relationship between the gender-role attitude and marital satisfaction, the traditional gender-role attitude appears to have a positive relationship, whereas the nontraditional attitude seems

to have a negative relationship. What seems to be important in marital satisfaction is that a couple has mutual agreement about gender role. It is when couples are ambivalent about their roles at home that they are more dissatisfied in their marriages.

Division of Housework and Marital Satisfaction

Despite continual changes in familial gender roles and the demand of equal division of household labor, previous researchers have found that men and women in America have resisted relinquishing traditional roles of wives and husbands (Hiller & Philler, 1986). Women have been reluctant to give up family work while men resist taking it on. Worse yet, the effort to gain assistance from their husbands has become yet another responsibility for women because men had to be supervised and told what to do (Berheid, 1984; Berk, 1985). So it has often been easier for wives to do housework themselves than to get other members of the family to do it (Barret & McIntosh, 1982). Some scholars (Berheid, 1984; Hochschild & Machung, 1989) reported that keeping peace at home was more important to most women than getting their husbands to do their share of the tasks. So women ended up carrying two full-time jobs: house work and their career.

Consequently, gender inequality in the division of household tasks still remains in most American homes (Ward, 1993). Several studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between the division of household tasks and marital satisfaction.

Huppe and Cyr (1997) examined the relationship between marital satisfaction and

the division of household labor using 115 dual-income couples. Their results showed that women with children who work in the labor force do twice as many family chores as do their husbands. For women, marital satisfaction was positively correlated with their perception of equality. For men, marital satisfaction was positively correlated with their satisfaction with the division of household work.

Pina and Bengtson (1995) conducted a study to examine the relationship between household labor inequality and women's marital happiness. Their results from a survey of 144 wives (aged 54-74 years) indicated that household labor inequality was inversely related to positive interaction, closeness, and affirmation for the wife in her marriage. Wives who are satisfied with their husbands' support experienced higher marital satisfaction and reported less depression.

Ward (1993), however, has argued that it was the perception of equality of division between wife and husband, not the actual division, that mattered. Ward (1993) used data from the National Survey of Families and Households to investigate the relationship between marital satisfaction and household equity for 1,353 couples ages 50 and older. Marital quality indicator and household division scales were constructed by the author. Marital happiness and the reported quality of marital life were quite high for these older couples. Most respondents reported that the division of household labor was fair, with 10% perceiving it as unfair to self and 7% as unfair to spouse. Reported hours of household labor for self and spouse and attitude toward sharing tasks, however, were not significant predictors of happiness. Rather, perceived fairness of household chores was related to marital happiness. For women separately, unfairness to self was related to

lower happiness, but this was not so for men. Women also expressed somewhat less marital happiness when they perceived household labor as unfair to their spouses, but the coefficient was not significant.

In a similar line, Morinaga et al. (1992) investigated the relationship specifically between marital satisfaction and the division of family-related tasks among 101 middle-aged Japanese married couples in Japan. Tasks consisted of domestic chores (19 items), socializing activities (8 items), and family-related decisions (10 items). The results indicated that although the husbands contributed more in areas such as repairing electric appliances and representing of the family, wives did more family-related tasks than husbands, especially in domestic chores. Sex differences were significant on all three categories. Wives want husbands to contribute more than husbands do, and husbands want to contribute (or, they think they should) more than they currently do. The significant differences show that wives want to divide family-related tasks in a more egalitarian way than husbands do.

Although both wives and husbands had high marital satisfaction, wives' satisfaction was significantly lower than husbands' ($t_{200} = 2.40, p < .05$). In a separate multiple regression analysis for each spouse, the actual division of family-related tasks was not a significant predictor of marital satisfaction in the Japanese sample. Rather the perception of the fair division of family-related tasks was significantly related to marital satisfaction (Morinaga et al., 1992).

The division of family labor (housework and child care) among dual-career parents and its relationship to marital satisfaction was examined by Durkac (1987).

Thirty middle-income couples in which both spouses were employed full-time and parenting one or more young children were interviewed. The Locke-Wallace Short Marital Adjustment Test and an adopted family labor division instrument from Cowan and Cowan were used. Each subject's involvement in 23 housework and 38 child-care tasks, proportional to their spouse, was measured. Using multiple regression analysis, the findings revealed that the husbands who perceived their child-care division to be more egalitarian and who felt satisfied with this division were significantly more satisfied with their marriages. While the findings for the wives fell just short of statistical significance, there was a clear trend for wives who perceived their child-care division to be more egalitarian to experience higher marital satisfaction as well. However, there was no significant relationship between housework division and marital satisfaction for wives (Durkac, 1987).

Three studies indicated a positive significant relationship between the equal division of household tasks and marital satisfaction. Two other studies, however, claim that it was the perception of fairness in the division of household tasks, not the actual division of tasks, that influenced the marital satisfaction level. In one study, only the husband's marital satisfaction, not the wife's, was related to the equal division of household work.

Kinship Relationship and Marital Satisfaction

The quality of kinship relationship, especially a wife to the members of her in-law family, is critical in maintaining intact marriages in Korea. A woman's ability to engage

in positive and pleasant relationships with the members of her husband's family is equated with the worthiness of a woman. Korean husbands expect their wives to manage subtle or obvious conflicts that emerge from in-law relationships. Korean wives automatically take the responsibility of harmonizing with her in-laws as her job. The parents of a husband can demand divorce when they are not happy with their relationship with their daughter-in-law, and some husbands still comply with that request (Kwon, 1992).

Kwon (1992) studied the relationship between kinship relationship and marital satisfaction using Korean couples in Korea. His sample population included 293 married couples who had been married between 5-10 years. The wife's kinship contacts with her husband's parents, especially with her husband's mother, were significantly correlated with their marital satisfaction. A close relationship with kin members in general was correlated only to the husbands' marital satisfaction level.

Timmer et al. (1996) conducted a comparison study between Black and White couples. Respondents were 115 Black and 135 White couples interviewed between the first and third year of marriage. To estimate the longitudinal effects of family relationships on the couples' marital happiness, they performed hierarchical regressions. Increases in a Black husband's closeness to his own family from year 1 to year 3 significantly predicted both his and his wife's marital happiness in year 3. Corresponding coefficients for White husbands and wives were negligible.

Marital happiness in Black couples was predicted by the wife's closeness to her husband's family in year 1 and year 3. In contrast, the White male's marital happiness

was not connected to ties with in-laws, and the White female's marital happiness was only marginally predicted by ties with in-laws. The development of close relations between the wife and the husband's family may be particularly meaningful for Black couples (Timmer et al., 1996).

In summary, for Korean couples in Korea and African-Americans in the U. S., the wife's close relationship with the husband's parents was positively related to their marital happiness. For White couples, it was only marginally related to the wife's marital satisfaction, and the relationship was not related to the marital satisfaction of the husband.

Religion and Marital Satisfaction

Researchers have not neglected the area of religion in relation to marital satisfaction. Religious homogamy versus heterogamy in terms of the level of religious practice and religious group affiliation, motivation for religion, and forgiveness and religion have been examined in relation to marital satisfaction of couples.

Heaton and Pratt (1990) examined the effects of three types of religious homogamy (denominational affiliation, church attendance, and similar belief in the Bible) on marital satisfaction and stability. Using the data from a national survey of 13,017 households, currently married subjects were selected for analysis. Of the three variables, denominational affiliation homogamy was the most crucial contributing factor to marital success. This was followed by church attendance homogamy. The subjects who attended church frequently and the subjects who reported strong convictions about the utility of the Bible were more likely to report that their marriage was very happy and had a low chance

of dissolution. Similar beliefs about the Bible did not have a significant association with either marital satisfaction or marital stability. Men's religious commitment seems to have more effect on the stability of the marriage than women's, even though women tend to be more faithful in their religious practices and have more traditional beliefs regarding the Bible.

Not only denominational homogamy but also congruence in the level of religious practice is important to marital satisfaction. Dudley and Kosinski (1990) conducted a research study using a population of 228 married Seventh-day Adventists. This study attempted to identify which religious dimensions and orientations correlated with marital satisfaction. The five scales that correlated significantly with marital satisfaction in the order of magnitude were: the level of congruence in religious practice, private ritualistic practices, intrinsic orientation, religious experience, and public ritualistic practices. Using stepwise multiple regression, the congruence in the perceived level of couples' religiosity explained 22% of variance. The sharing of religious activities such as family worship, perceived congruence in church attendance, and congruence in general religiosity were also very strong predictors of marital satisfaction. Fifty-four percent of those in heterogamous marriages reported low marital satisfaction, whereas only 19% of those in homogamous marriages reported low marital satisfaction. The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale, the Basic Religious Scale, and Roof's religious scale were used.

Pritz and Schumm (1989) also discovered that congruence in religious practices was important to married seminary students. Subjects for this study were 72 couples

from a midwestern Baptist seminary where at least one spouse was enrolled in 12 or more hours of classes a semester. A regression analysis was completed using religious agreement, communication apprehension, the length of marriage, number of children in the home, the level of income, and total hours worked as independent variables. Communication was the most significant predictor of marital satisfaction for husbands and wives. The agreement with religiosity was the second best significant predictor of marital satisfaction.

Religious orientation can also affect the level of marital satisfaction. Anthony (1993) sampled 400 marital couples from four major Protestant denominations (Baptist, Independent, Evangelical, and Congregational). Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) was used to measure marital satisfaction, and Allport's Religious Orientation Scale was used to measure religious orientation. The ANOVA indicated significant differences between religious orientation groups, $F(3, 788) = 13.206, p < .05$. There were four types of religious orientation: (1) Intrinsic subordination of personal motives and practices to the precepts of one's religion, (2) Extrinsic subordination of one's religious practices and beliefs to the satisfaction of personal needs and motives, (3) Indiscriminately Pro-Religious supportive of anything religious without clearly differentiating one's motives, and (4) Indiscriminately Anti-Religious against anything related to religion.

Those who scored the highest in marital satisfaction were intrinsically motivated in their religious orientation. Those who lived out their faith experienced the highest levels of marital satisfaction among the categories. Those individuals who were

extrinsically motivated (who used their faith to gain social recognition, prestige, and status in their religious orientation) experienced the lowest levels of marital satisfaction among the four categories. An interesting discovery from these data was that the second highest level of marital satisfaction was experienced by those who were indiscriminately anti-religious, or nonreligious. The third highest level of marital satisfaction was experienced by those individuals who were indiscriminately pro-religious (Anthony, 1993).

Shehas et al. (1990) study yielded results similar to Anthony's study. Data for this study were obtained from the General Social Surveys conducted by the University of Chicago's National Opinion Research Center. A total of 1,753 cases, representing 412 Catholics in interfaith unions and 1,341 in homogamous Catholic marriages, were included. Findings indicated that heterogamy did not adversely affect marital satisfaction for Catholics, even when religiosity and other variables were controlled. Religiosity did have a positive correlation with marital satisfaction in homogamous Catholic marriages. In heterogamous marriages, however, the level of religiosity did not have a positive relationship with marital satisfaction.

Marital satisfaction in relation to various religious affiliations has received much attention from various researchers. Schumm, Obiorah, and Silliman (1989) used a sample of 174 wives from the Midwest; 75.3% were Protestant and 24.7% were Catholic. The sample included significant numbers of conservative Christians; 36.2% of the sample were fundamentalists, 14.9% of the sample were evangelicals, and 6.3% of the sample were charismatics. Of those who identified themselves as fundamentalists, 12.5% also

saw themselves as evangelical and 3.0% saw themselves as charismatics. Of those who saw themselves as evangelicals, 30.2% saw themselves as fundamentalists and 11.4% as charismatics. Of those who saw themselves as charismatics, 23.9% and 37.0% saw themselves as fundamentalists and evangelicals, respectively. Catholics were somewhat more likely to attend religious services at least once a week. Protestants were more likely to identify themselves as evangelicals.

To assess marital quality, nine measures were used, including the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale, five subscales from the Marital Communication Inventory (empathy, regard, openness, marital communication apprehension or self-disclosure anxiety, aversive communication or nagging), and three subscales from the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (regard, empathy, congruence). An abbreviated version of Edmonds' Marital Conventionalization Scale was used to measure marital social desirability. The results indicated that there was no relationship between marital quality and general measures of conservative religious identification (Schumm et al., 1989).

Schumm, Jeong, and Silliman (1990) randomly sampled 44 Protestant couples. Marital quality or success was measured on seven variables, including marital satisfaction, positive regard, congruence, apprehension about marital communication, aversive marital communication, emotional intimacy, and spiritual intimacy, using the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale and the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory, Bienvenu's Marital Communication Inventory, and the PAIR Inventory.

Fundamentalism was measured by a single item on which respondents could choose to identify themselves as a fundamentalist or not. No relationship was found as a whole

between fundamentalism and marital satisfaction. Marital communication, however, did seem to be poorer among fundamentalists than among non-fundamentalists. It was theorized that rigid, perfectionistic attitudes may lead to intolerance, and that attempts at conflict resolution may be made through verbal coercion. There appeared to be a difference among conservative groups. Fundamentalists had a more rigid pattern than born-again and evangelical Protestants.

Booth et al. (1995) also failed to find that an increase in religious activity improved marital satisfaction. Religiosity slightly decreased the likelihood of considering divorce. Religion did not appear to enhance marital satisfaction or interaction nor decrease conflict and problems commonly thought to cause divorce. An increase in marital satisfaction and interaction did appear to increase church attendance and the extent to which religion influenced daily life. The link seemed to be weak and to go both ways. A wide range of behaviors that have been related to marital satisfaction seems to be unaffected by religious involvement, including communication. In this 12-year longitudinal study (1988 and 1992) the sample population was 1,008.

Snow and Compton (1996) studied 78 homogamous fundamental Protestant couples to examine the relationship between religion and marital satisfaction and communication patterns. The results indicated that the importance of religion in a person's life rather than religious affiliation was a predictor of both marital satisfaction and communication patterns.

Hansen (1987) investigated 220 young married couples. The results indicated that among males, religiosity was not a factor for predicting marital adjustment. Among the

four variables of marital adjustment, equity, equality, and reward level, reward level had the highest correlation with marital satisfaction. Religion appeared to serve as a compensatory function among women lacking in marital satisfaction.

Rigorous church attendance does not guarantee marital satisfaction either. Barker studied 259 Fuller Theological Seminary student couples. Using the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale and other demographic survey forms, marital satisfaction was weakly correlated with church attendance. Attending a church regularly showed no correlation with marital satisfaction. No significant correlation was found between the perceived level of support from the church and marital adjustment. Participating in religious activities with the spouse, not frequency of attendance, was the only significant factor for the level of marital adjustment (Barker, 1981).

Using Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale and Rohrbaugh and Jessors's Religious Scale, a sample population of 170 married individuals of religious groups in southwest Virginia was evaluated. The result indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between marital adjustment and religiosity (ritual, consequential, ideological, and experiential aspects of religion). It also indicated that there was no significant relationship between forgiveness and religiosity (Rackley, 1993).

In summary, research on the relationship between religion and marital satisfaction has generated conflicting results. Religious homogamy was important to some marriages whereas it really did not seem to matter in other marriages. Religious affiliation did not make much difference in terms of the level of marital happiness. However, congruence in the level of practice appeared to be important to marital satisfaction. Those couples

whose religious practices were intrinsically motivated were much happier in their marriages than those couples who were extrinsically motivated. Except in one study, the level of religiosity did not appear as a significant factor in determining marital satisfaction.

Self-Esteem and Marital Satisfaction

Self-esteem is another area that has received much attention from many researchers. A common belief is that the level of self-esteem will effect the level of marital satisfaction. Greenfield (1986) examined self-esteem and marital satisfaction. Forty-seven married couples completed the Snyder's Marital Satisfaction Inventory, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the Opener Scale and Disclosure Index by Miller, Berg, and Archer, and the Love/Sex Attitude Scale by Hendrick and Hendrick. Following Snyder's Global Distress Scale breakdown, couples were divided into satisfied, moderate, and distressed couples.

Utilizing analyses of variance and stepwise regression, self-esteem proved to be significantly related to marital satisfaction for husbands and wives. Differences between husbands' and wives' self-esteem levels were not noted among couple groups.

Fincham and Bradbury (1993) also studied the relationship between marital satisfaction and self-esteem. In collecting information in two different phases (130 couples initially and 106 couples a year later), the authors used the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale, the Beck Depression Inventory, and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. They found a moderate correlation between marital satisfaction and self-

esteem.

Using a sample of 265 married couples, Katz, Beach, and Anderson (1996) also discovered that higher levels of self-esteem were related to higher levels of marital satisfaction and stability across all indices for both men and women. Greater discrepancies between self-esteem and perceived partner's self-esteem support were related to lower levels of marital satisfaction among wives, and lower levels of satisfaction and intimacy among husbands. Higher partner's self-esteem support was associated with the higher levels of marital satisfaction.

Barnett and Nietzel (1979) investigated 22 married couples using the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale and the Self-Esteem Scale. They discovered that the degree of wives' self-esteem correlated with couple-rated marital satisfaction. Self-esteem distinguished the non-distressed and the distressed spouses from one another.

Delafield (1993) studied 247 women in dual-career marriages. The results indicated that the self-esteem of professional women was more related to their careers than to their marital relationship. In addition, factors associated with self-esteem of women were different across the comparison groups: the self-esteem for women without children was tied to marital satisfaction while job satisfaction was important to the self-esteem of women with children at home. None of the measured factors were associated with self-esteem for women with children out of the home.

In summary, of the five studies reviewed above, four studies reported a strong positive relationship between couples' self-esteem and marital satisfaction. One study of dual-career women found their self-esteem to be more related to their job satisfaction as

opposed to marital satisfaction.

Sexual Satisfaction and Marital Satisfaction

Although the nature of the relationship between marital satisfaction and sexual functioning has been a subject of considerable controversy among clinicians (Hartman, 1980), Morokoff and Gilliland (1993) claim that a strong relationship has already been found between marital satisfaction and sexual satisfaction, and it has been discovered that happy couples engage in sexual intercourse more frequently than unhappy couples. Various aspects of sexual satisfaction and marital satisfaction, therefore, have been examined by many clinicians and researchers.

Fields (1983) examined the impact of sexual satisfaction and the congruence of the mates' perception on overall marital satisfaction. Two hundred ninety men and women who had been married between 18 years and 30 years served as subjects. The author used an instrument that she constructed specifically for this study. One sub-component of the sexual responses indicated a gap between the men's and the women's desired frequency of sexual relations. Forty-seven percent of the men and 25% of the women thought that they would prefer making love more frequently, and 75% of women and 53% of men thought that they made love often enough. These differences, however, did not seem to interfere with the respondents' general feelings of sexual satisfaction that they experienced in the marriage. There was, for both men and women, a significant relationship between sexual satisfaction and marital satisfaction.

Further analyses linked the sexual satisfaction of the women with their positive

feelings toward their parents. No link occurred, however, between the sexual satisfaction of men and their feelings toward their parents. Another major factor related to sexual satisfaction was the degree of trust between the marital partners. A significant relationship was found between trust and marital satisfaction and between trust and sexual satisfaction (Fields, 1983).

White (1985) too discovered a similar result from a study of college students (110 married females and 103 married males) using Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale and the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale. A revised version of the Oregon Sex Inventory was used to measure sexual satisfaction level. The Self-esteem Scale was constructed by the author.

Correlation coefficients for the combined group of females and males revealed that both marital satisfaction and self-satisfaction were correlated with sexual satisfaction beyond the .01 level of significance. The multiple regression analysis for the combined group revealed that the combination of marital satisfaction and self-satisfaction provided the best predictor of sexual satisfaction. Marital and self-satisfaction had a significant correlation with sexual satisfaction for the females. It was the only significant predictor variable for the females. Marital satisfaction, self-satisfaction, and physical health had significant correlations with sexual satisfaction for the males (White, 1985).

Passionate love was significantly correlated to females' marital satisfaction. Aron and Henkemeyer (1995) investigated relationships between marital satisfaction and passionate love, social desirability, and six relationship-relevant variables (global happiness, relationship excitement, relationship boredom, sex-minus-argument frequency,

amount of shared activity, and kissing frequency). Sixty married women and 38 married men completed Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale and a Passionate Love Scale (PLS) by Hatfield and Sprecher.

The women's and the men's scores on the DAS were almost identical, but there was a near significant gender difference on the PLS; the mean for the women was 70.9, the mean for the men was 75.4 ($t [96] = 1.82, p = .07$). For women, passionate love was moderately correlated with marital satisfaction and with relationship relevant variables. For most variables, these correlations remained after controlling for marital satisfaction and social desirability. There was no such correlation for men (Aron & Henkemeyer, 1995).

Sexual inactivity inversely affects marital satisfaction level (Donnelly, 1993). Six thousand and twenty-nine married persons were interviewed to determine the correlates of sexual inactivity in marriage and to see if sexually inactive marriages were less happy and stable than those with sexually active marriages. The scale items were constructed by the author. Sixteen percent of the sample had been sexually inactive during the month prior to the interview. A logistic regression analysis showed that the lower the marital happiness and shared activity, the greater the likelihood of being in a sexually inactive marriage. Arguments over sex operated in the direction opposite of that expected--the fewer the arguments over sex, the greater the likelihood of being in a sexually inactive marriage.

Ability to elicit sex was also important. Greenfield (1986) examined the effects of self-disclosure, self-esteem, and love/sex attitude similarity on marital satisfaction.

Forty-seven married couples completed Snyder's Marital Satisfaction Inventory, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the Opener Scale and Disclosure Index by Miller, Berg, and Archer, and the Love/Sex Attitude Scale by Hendrick and Hendrick (Greenfield, 1986). Following Snyder's Global Distress Scale breakdown, the group reflected satisfied, moderate, and distressed couples. Results of the regression analysis indicated that the wife's ability to elicit sex accounted for nearly 50% of the couple's mean marital satisfaction variance.

The frequencies of sexual activity and desire of sexual activity has also been evaluated. Morokoff and Gilliland (1993) investigated the relationship between sexual satisfaction (from the Sexual Functioning Questionnaire by Morokoff & LoPiccolo) and marital satisfaction (on the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale). Ninety-two men and 73 women were recruited through advertisements in newspapers as well as by contracting community organizations. Volunteers included 44 employed men and 48 unemployed men, and 45 employed women and 28 unemployed women. *T*-tests performed on the variables indicated that men and women differed in frequency of orgasm in masturbation, orgasm in intercourse, and sexual desire. In each case women had lower frequencies than men. Despite their lower desire, women in this sample reported engaging in significantly more frequent sexual activity than men.

The result of the study revealed that marital satisfaction was closely related to several aspects of sexual functioning. In particular, sexual satisfaction was correlated with marital satisfaction ($r = .55$ for men; $r = .41$ for women). To some extent, perception of the spouse's sexual satisfaction was correlated with marital satisfaction ($r =$

.38 for men; $r = .29$ for women). Although the frequency of sexual intercourse was positively correlated with marital satisfaction for both men and women, it was negatively correlated with marital satisfaction for men. To understand this relationship further, a difference score between desired frequency of sexual intercourse and actual frequency of sexual intercourse was computed. This frequency dissatisfaction score was significantly correlated inversely with marital satisfaction for both men ($r = -.42$) and women ($r = -.44$), indicating that the greater the dissatisfaction with frequency of intercourse, the less satisfied the respondents were with their marriage. The measures of sexual dysfunction (e.g., orgasmic frequency, erectile functioning, or premature ejaculation) were not significantly correlated with marital satisfaction. Negative emotional reactions during sex were inversely correlated with marital satisfaction in men; the coefficient in women was in the same direction but was not significant (Morokoff & Gilliland, 1993).

The interrelationships among sexual satisfaction, feelings of affirmation and tension, and marital well-being in the first years of marriage were examined by Henderson-King and Veroff (1994). One hundred ninety-nine African-American and 174 Caucasian couples who were less than 35 years of age were interviewed and asked to complete the questionnaire constructed by Oggins and Veroff. The feelings of affirmation and tension were associated with sexual satisfaction for all race and gender groups. Sexual satisfaction was related to several dimensions of marital well-being and quality. Sexual satisfaction was at least as important to wives as to husbands, and marital equity emerged as a variable strongly tied to sex, particularly to women.

The relationship among sexual communication satisfaction, sexual satisfaction,

and dyadic adjustment in marital relationship were examined by Cupach and Comstock (1990). A total of 402 married individuals responded to a mail survey. The first section of the survey contained the 32-item Dyadic Adjustment Scale developed by Spanier. Part two was the Index of Sexual Satisfaction developed by Hudson, Harrison, and Crosscup. Sexual communication satisfaction and sexual satisfaction were positively correlated as expected, sharing approximately 59% of the variance of the global measure of marital satisfaction.

In summary, the level of sexual activity, sexual communication, ability to elicit sexual activity, or perceived level of sexual satisfaction were important factors for marital satisfaction. These factors explained a large amount of variance for marital satisfaction and show strong positive correlations with marital satisfaction.

Similarities in Value System and Marital Satisfaction

The congruity of value systems of marital couples has already been recognized as an essential element for a happy marriage by many researchers, clinicians, and theoreticians (Kaslow & Robinson, 1996). It is especially imperative for long-term marriages. Kaslow and Hammerschmidt (1992) conducted a study attempting to determine the essential ingredients of longevity in marital relationships. They investigated a study population of 20 couples married 25-46 years using specially designed instruments of their own and Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale to elicit respondents' ideas as to what made their marriages work well. They found that a common value system along with shared interests, love, mutual respect, trust, ability to

give and take, flexibility, and shared love for children were all mentioned much more frequently by satisfied couples than by the midrange pairs or by the dissatisfied couples.

Holling (1993) discovered that a shared value system was one of the main themes in a study of 162 couples involving various groups of Methodist clergy and their spouses. A shared value system, commitment to God, and commitment to each other were the most often cited strengths in the satisfied marriages. The couples also completed ENRICH by Fournier, Olson, and Druckman and Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and none of the five demographic variables analyzed (age, income, education, the length of marriage, or work/role satisfaction) showed any significant relationship with marital satisfaction.

The importance of the similarity of value system appeared again in a qualitative study of 12 middle-class married couples who professed to enjoy a successful marriage (Demment, 1992). Along with marital expectations, mutuality, selective understanding, and similarity of values between couples appeared as a major theme. The importance of an agreed-upon set of values between spouses was seen in all 12 couples. The specific values were not as relevant as was the accord between the husband and the wife. There was, however, an overall tone of traditional values such as trust, honesty, integrity, hard work, and fidelity. Some couples attributed these values to a religious upbringing, while others stated that their values were based more on a set of philosophical beliefs. Commitment to the marriage and the attitude that divorce was not an option were values that most subjects brought to their marriage.

In a study with couples who were experiencing marital distress, the results were

dissimilar to the preceding findings (Mekhoubat, 1994). A total of 14 married couples who attended outpatient psychotherapy to resolve marital conflicts were given the Rokeach Value Survey and Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale. The findings revealed that the husbands' and wives' value-ranking differences were related to the wives', not the husbands, perception of marital dysfunction.

In summary, although a study of distressed couples did not reveal a relationship between value ranking differences and marital dysfunction, similarity in value systems between husbands and wives emerged as an crucial theme in satisfied marriages in many qualitative studies. Congruence of value system can positively affect marital satisfaction.

Personality and Marital Satisfaction

The domain of personality is complex in nature. It encompasses multi-dimensional aspects of a person. Complexity is multiplied when it is examined in the context of marriage. Researchers, therefore, have addressed limited aspects of the entity of personality. The dimensions of affectivity, similarities, compatibility, congruency, neuroticism, attributional styles, the locus of control, Type A personality, Cattell's 16 PF factors, and many other personality traits are separately examined by different researchers (Bruch & Skovoholt, 1985; Karney, Bradbury, Fincham, & Sullivan, 1994; Pasley, Ihinger-Tallman, & Coleman, 1984).

The role of negative affectivity in relation to marital satisfaction was investigated by Karney et al. (1994) using 80 married couples recruited by newspaper advertisements. Negative affectivity was defined as a tendency to report distress,

discomfort, and dissatisfaction over time and regardless of the situation, even in the absence of any overt or objective source of stress. It was measured by the Beck Depression Inventory and Neuroticism Scale of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. Attribution was measured by the Relationship Attribution Measure and the Areas of Difficulty Questionnaire. Marital satisfaction was measured by the following instruments: the Marital Adjustment Test, the Quality Marriage Index, Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale, and the Semantic Differential.

The correlation analysis indicated that marital satisfaction covaried reliably with attribution. Husbands and wives who were making relatively maladaptive attributions tended to be less maritally satisfied. Marital satisfaction also covaried with negative affectivity in that relatively distressed spouses tended to report higher levels of depressive symptoms and neuroticism. Husbands' negative affectivity covaried with their marital satisfaction while wives' negative affectivity and marital satisfaction were unrelated. These two paths differed significantly. Furthermore, husbands' negative affectivity and husbands' attribution were significant predictors of wives' marital satisfaction, but neither of the wives' predictor variables was related significantly with husbands' satisfaction (Karney et al., 1994).

The relationship between affectivity and marital satisfaction was also investigated by Krug-Fite (1992). Positive affect included Extroversion (as measured by Myers-Briggs Type Indicator--MBTI), Appreciation Measure, and Perceptual Accuracy Measure. Negative affect included neuroticism and problem measures for each partner. One hundred three couples completed the MBTI, the Marital Checklist, and the Partner

Rating Scale. Six multiple regression measures yielded the following results: positive affect did not significantly predict marital satisfaction for males, as it did for females. For both males and females, negative affect significantly predicted overall marital satisfaction.

The role of similarity of personality in marital relations has also received much attention from many researchers. Some researchers claim that there can be little doubt about the importance attributed to the construct of similarity between marital partners (Booth & Welch, 1978). Such similarity has been discussed as an essential component of the marital relationship (Pasley et al., 1984).

The importance of similarity of personality in marital relations was reinforced by a study by Richard et al. (1990). Eighty-one married couples were tested using the MMPI and the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale. Pearson product correlations revealed that similarity and complementarity of spousal responses for 55 items on the MMPI were significantly correlated at the .01 level with marital satisfaction. The results also suggested that spousal personality congruence at the item level on the MMPI was a reliable predictor of marital satisfaction.

The importance of compatibility of personality between couples was also emphasized by the Wiggins, Moody, and Lederer (1983) study. It was indicated that the measured compatibility between the couples' personalities appeared to be a major factor in achieving and maintaining marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives. One hundred twenty-five couples completed the Compatibility Index by Wiggins and Moody and the Satisfaction with Spouse and Marriage (SWSM) blank designed specifically for

this study.

Personality congruency based on Holland typology has also been evaluated (Bruch & Skovoholt, 1985). The sample consisted of 47 non-distressed couples, 31 distressed couples (self-reported on the Locke-Wallace Scale), and 54 clinic couples. Marital satisfaction was measured on the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale. A participant's Holland type was determined from the occupational title of the individual's current or most recent job.

A one-way ANCOVA revealed that group differences were significant. The adjusted score of the mean congruence score for the non-distressed couples was significantly higher than the adjusted mean congruence score for both the distressed and the clinic couples. Furthermore, the spousal congruence level on the Holland typology was a highly reliable predictor of marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives (Bruch & Skovoholt, 1985).

Contrary to the preceding results, Lewak, Wakefield, and Briggs (1985) discovered that similarity or complementarity in personality variables was not a significant variable in predicting marital satisfaction for either husbands or wives. Eighty-one married couples were tested on the MMPI and the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale.

The result of Buunk and Bosman's study was akin to that of Lewak et al.'s. In their study, Buunk and Bosman (1985) discovered that there was little evidence of actual attitude similarity in satisfied marriages. Although there was a substantial degree of perceived attitude similarity, the actual similarity of personality did not exist in satisfied

marriages. The actual and perceived absolute differences between the scores of both partners were calculated. For both spouses, these were correlated with the scale for marital satisfaction. There was no evidence whatsoever of a relationship between either type of attitude similarity and marital satisfaction.

Three personality attributes of psychoticism, neuroticism, and extraversion were also investigated to determine their relationship with marital satisfaction (Russell & Wells, 1994). A total of 94 couples was recruited, and each couple completed two questionnaires: the short-term revised Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and the research version of the Marriage Questionnaire.

The three attributes were inter-correlated among themselves, and they had an impact on the quality of marriage. It was revealed that there was a strong relationship between unhappy marriage and neuroticism. There was a stronger relationship in women than in men. It was also found that marital satisfaction of one partner had an impact on that of the other (Russell & Wells, 1994).

Kelly and Conley (1987) examined the relationship between neuroticism and marital satisfaction. Personality traits were rated by Kelly's Personality Rating Scale, which yielded the following scores: four traits of neuroticism, social extroversion, impulse control, and agreeableness. Attitudes concerning marriage were measured by the Views about the Ideal Marriage questionnaire. Data collection time took place in 1935-1938 (Time 1), 1954-1955 (Time 2), and 1980-1981 (Time 3). The authors started with 249 married couples, and later the couples were divided into still-married (1980), early divorced (before 1955), and late divorced (1955-1980) groups.

For men and women, the largest mean differences between the early divorced and the late divorced group and still-married groups were on neuroticism, impulse control, and social extroversion. Both early divorced and late divorced groups differed from the stable married group. They had a higher level of neuroticism and social extroversion and lower impulse control and a lower level of agreeableness (Kelly & Conley, 1987).

Lester, Haig, and Monello (1989) also studied the relationship of neuroticism and extraversion to marital dissatisfaction. Data were collected from 30 married couples using the Eysenck Personality Inventory and Edmond's Marital Dissatisfaction Scale. Results indicated that the higher the husband's neuroticism score, the more dissatisfied he was with his marriage. Similarly, the higher the wife's neuroticism score, the more dissatisfied she was with her marriage. In contrast, the more extraverted the spouse was, the more dissatisfied the partner was with their marriage. Thus, marital dissatisfaction was associated with one's own neuroticism and one's spouse's extraversion score.

The role of neuroticism and extroversion in marital satisfaction was also studied by Kosek (1996). In this study, the sample population included 107 couples whose mean length of marriage was 21.6 years. Personality was measured by the NEO Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO PR-I) developed by Costa and McCrae. The subscales of NEO PR-I are Extroversion (being energetic, enthusiastic, and warm), Openness, Agreeableness (being trustful, straightforward, altruistic, compliant, modest, and tender minded), and Conscientiousness (achievement and self-discipline). The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale was used to measure marital satisfaction.

Significant relationships were found for both men and women, between their

spouses' ratings of their personality and their self-report of marital satisfaction. In particular, an inverse correlation was found between the wives' ratings of their husbands on neuroticism and the wives' marital adjustment scores. Scores on extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, on the other hand, correlated positively with scores on marital satisfaction. Agreeableness was the highest correlating factor (.44 for women and .41 for men, $p < .01$). These personality correlations predicted 25% of variance in women's marital satisfaction, and 12% in men's marital satisfaction (Kosek, 1996).

Findings further indicated that satisfied men rated their wives as not overly emotional but rather as outgoing, open-minded, agreeable, and conscientious. This was also true in satisfied women who likewise rated their husbands as not overly emotional and as outgoing, open-minded, agreeable, and conscientious. The results also indicated that spouses with elevated scores on neuroticism tended to report dissatisfaction with their marriages (Kosek, 1996).

Noll (1994) examined the effects of 16 personality factors on marital satisfaction during the first 2 to 3 years of marriage. The data were collected in three phases at yearly intervals. The present research was based on 103 couples who stayed married and who completed all three phases of data collection. Husbands and wives completed Cattell's 16 PF personality inventory and the Marital Opinion Questionnaire and were interviewed by telephone.

Husbands' and wives' tender-mindedness and sensitivity predicted the extent to which they were affectionate. Husbands' and wives' level of trust predicted their

partners' negativity. Husbands' shrewdness and tenseness predicted their negativity. Both husbands' and wives' anxiety significantly predicted husbands' level of negativity, and wives' independence significantly predicted their own negativity. Both anxiety and negativity inversely predicted marital quality (Noll, 1994).

The characteristics of tender-mindedness, trusting each other, accepting others, being enthusiastic and genuine were also noted in the partners of the stable marriages of 20 couples who were married at least 5 years (Kim, Martin, & Martin, 1989). Using the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, it was found that the couples who were stably married were more balanced in personality characteristics than those who felt their marriages were unsatisfactory.

The relationship between attributional styles and marital satisfaction has been examined (Fincham & Bradbury, 1993). The data were collected in two different phases a year apart. The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale, the Beck Depression Inventory, and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale were used. For both partners, attributional loci predicted later marital satisfaction. Locating the cause of problems in the partner was negatively associated with later satisfaction, whereas self-attributions for partner behavior were positively related to later satisfaction. For wives, only the self-attribution locus significantly predicted later satisfaction, $F(1,86) = 6.2$.

The relationship between attributional styles and marital satisfaction was also investigated by Dean (1993) using 135 couples who completed the Marital Adjustment Test, the Relationship Attribution Measures, the Relationship Satisfaction Inventory, the Positive and Negative Affect Scale, and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale.

The results of ANOVA and multiple regression revealed that the more benign attributions one makes about one's partner's behavior, the more maritally satisfied one is. In addition, couples who both scored on the relationship distressing side of attributional style were less maritally satisfied than couples who both scored on the more relationship-enhancing side of attributional style (Dean, 1993).

Another aspect of personality that has been investigated is locus of control. Sabatelli (1986) recruited 48 married couples to study the relationship between locus of control and marital satisfaction. As a measure of locus of control the Rotter I-E (intra-extroversion) Scale was used. The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale was used as a measure of marital satisfaction, and the Ryder Lovesickness Scale was used as a measure of specific marital complaint that one partner was not being sufficiently loving and attentive. None of the correlations between the individual's locus of control scores and his own marital satisfaction and marital complaint scores were statistically significant.

Type A personality (the characteristics of achievement striving and impatience/irritability) and marital satisfaction were also studied by MacEwen and Barling (1993). Two hundred couples completed the questionnaire package. Achievement striving and impatience/irritability were assessed by Helmreich, Spence, and Pred's scales. Sexual behavior was measured using the LoPiccolo and Steger's Sexual Interaction Inventory. Marital satisfaction was measured by the Short Marital Adjustment Test of Locke and Wallace (MacEwen & Barling, 1993).

Results indicated that men's impatience/irritability and their wives' marital

satisfaction were inversely correlated at a modest level ($r = -.18, p < .05$). The correlation between women's impatience/irritability and men's marital satisfaction was non-significant. Achievement striving did not exert a detrimental effect on marital functioning. This suggested that the achievement-oriented component of Type A behavior affects the well-being of marital relationships quite differently than does impatience/irritability (MacEwen & Barling, 1993).

Nine bipolar scales of the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis (T-JTA) were used in an investigation of 350 couples (65-80 years of age) in Utah (Ogle, 1985). The T-JTA Scale includes the following traits and opposites: (1) nervous vs. composed, (2) depressive vs. light-hearted, (3) active/social vs. quiet, (4) expressive/responsive vs. inhibited, (5) sympathetic vs. indifferent, (6) subjective vs. objective, (7) dominant vs. inhibited, (8) hostile vs. tolerant, and (9) self-disciplined vs. impulsive. Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale was used to measure the marital adjustment level.

For women, none of the nine subscales were significant in the multiple regression analysis. It was, therefore, indicated that women in this sample viewed themselves in such a way that the perception of their marital adjustment was not affected by their temperament. For men, however, one scale (Expressive-Responsive/Inhibited) was significant at the .05 level. The more they perceived themselves as spontaneous, affectionate, and demonstrative, the more adjusted they felt in their marriages. Marital adjustment level was not affected by other temperamental aspects (Ogle, 1985).

The relationship between the matching of Myers-Briggs personality traits (Extroversion-Introversion, Thinking-Feeling, Sensing-Intuition, & Judging-Perception)

and marital satisfaction was also investigated (Kobes, 1993). The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale were used. Subjects for this study were 197 married couples from various states. The results of this study indicated that there was no significant differences between the type of match on marital satisfaction.

In summary, the examination of various attributes of personality has revealed much helpful information to mental health clinicians. Negative affectivity and high neuroticism have a negative affect on marital satisfaction. The relationships between similarity of personality, compatibility, and congruency and marital satisfaction are unequivocal with significant relationship with marital satisfaction demonstrated in some studies and no relationship in other studies. Two studies claimed (Kosek, 1996; Lester et al., 1989) positive relationships between the trait of extraversion and marital happiness while one study revealed a negative relationship between them. Locating the cause of problems in the partner negatively predicted later satisfaction in marriage whereas self-attribution predicted later satisfaction positively. The distressing side of attribution was negatively related to marital satisfaction while the enhancing side of attribution was positively related. Agreeableness, tender-mindedness, conscientiousness, and benign interpretation of a partner's negative behaviors were correlated positively with happy marriages. The irritableness and impatience traits of Type A personality affected marital satisfaction negatively while one's orientation to achievement had a null relationship to marital satisfaction. In a study (Ogle, 1985) that included the nine attributes of nervous vs. composed, depressive vs. light-hearted, active/social vs. quiet, expressive/responsive

vs. inhibited, sympathetic vs. indifferent, subjective vs. objective, dominant vs. inhibited, hostile vs. tolerant, and self-disciplined vs. impulsive, none of the nine subscales were significant for women. For men, however, one scale (Expressive-Responsive/Inhibited) was significant at the .05 level. The more they perceived themselves as spontaneous, affectionate, and demonstrative, the more adjusted they felt in their marriages. Marital adjustment level was not affected by other temperamental aspects.

Marital Satisfaction Factors Over Long-Term Marriages

This section is devoted to the review of studies that explored the factors that are necessary for sustaining long-term marriages. Orbuch, House, Mero, and Webster (1996) studied the variables that account for trends in marital well-being over the life course. They used the data from the Americans Changing Lives study that was conducted using 3,617 respondents. The dependent variables in the analyses were two one-item measures of overall marital quality: How are you satisfied with your marriage (using a 5-point scale), and How strongly do you agree with statement--I sometimes think of divorcing or separating from my spouse (using a 4-point scale).

The study revealed a curvilinear relationship between marital duration and marital quality. The duration of marriage was associated negatively with marital satisfaction up to 20-24 years. Past 20 to 24 years of marriage, the relationship of marital satisfaction to duration of marriage was positive. At 35-44 years of marriage, the mean level of marital satisfaction was even higher than the level during the first 4 years of marriage. Other independent variables were gender, race and education, respondent's work status and

spouse's work status, economic status, parental status, and depression. Depression levels were positively associated with duration in the early years of marriage. At about 15-19 years of marriage, however, depression began to decrease to its lowest point at 35-44 years of marriage (Orbuch et al., 1996).

Greater marital satisfaction was associated significantly with being retired and with keeping house. Both factors were associated positively with duration. Economic status had a marginally ($p < .10$) negative association with satisfaction. However, the accumulation of assets was associated positively with satisfaction. The individuals with young children (0-13) in the household were significantly less satisfied than individuals with no children. Individuals with children ages 0-17 living elsewhere were less satisfied to the same degree. Individuals with older children, whether at home or elsewhere, did not differ significantly in marital satisfaction from those with no children. Declines in work and parental responsibilities explained a large portion of the increase in marital satisfaction during the later years of marriage (Orbuch et al., 1996).

Kaslow and Hammerschmidt (1992) conducted a study attempting to determine the essential ingredients of longevity in the marital relationship. They investigated a study population of 20 couples who had been married 25-46 years using specially designed instruments of their own and Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment. Eight essential ingredients identified for long-term satisfying marriages were (p. 35):

1. Trust in each other, which includes fidelity, integrity, and feeling safe
2. Good problem-solving and coping skills
3. Permanent commitment to the marriage

4. Open, honest, and good communication
5. Enjoy spending time together, have fun together, have good sense of humor, yet appreciate some space in togetherness for separate activities
6. Shared value system, interests, and activities
7. Consideration, mutual appreciation, and reciprocity of easy give and take
8. Deep and abiding love for one another, enriched by being dear friends and lovers; continue to find one another attractive, appealing, desirable, and interesting.

Kaslow and Robinson (1996) conducted a study similar to that of Kaslow and Hammerschmidt in 1992. Based on the pilot study of 1992, the authors modified their questionnaires. Spanier's Dyadic Adjustment Scale was also used. Sixty Caucasian couples who had been married 25-46 years were divided into three groups: satisfied, midrange, and dissatisfied.

Among the ingredients marked as essential for marital satisfaction and currently existing in the marriage, those endorsed by over 50% of the respondents included:

1. Love (80%)
2. Mutual trust (81%)
3. Mutual respect (77 %)
4. Mutual support (68%)
5. Corresponding religious belief (65%)
6. Loyalty and fidelity (59%)
7. Mutual give and take (56%)
8. Similar philosophy (56%)

9. Enjoyment of shared fun and humor (53%)

10. Shared interests (51%)

11. Shared interests in their children (50%).

Among the three groups, no significant differences were found in their perceptions of the most essential ingredients, although more variability was noted in the responses of the dissatisfied group than in those of the other two groups (Kaslow & Robinson, 1996).

Ferguson (1993) studied 89 couples who had been married between 20 to 40 years. He investigated the predictive values of adaptability, cohesion, intimacy, and commitment. Using the Locke-Wallace Marital Satisfaction Scale, the Personal Assessment of Intimacy Relationships Inventory, and Version II of the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales, Ferguson discovered that all scales of intimacy (Emotional Intimacy, Social Intimacy, Sexual Intimacy, Intellectual Intimacy and Recreational Intimacy) showed significant positive correlations with marital satisfaction level, revealing that Intellectual Intimacy, Emotional Intimacy, and Sexual Intimacy were the three strongest scales ($r = .69, p < .001$; $r = .64, p < .001$; and $r = .53, p < .001$ respectively).

Adaptability showed a strong positive correlation ($r = .61$ for husbands & $.74$ for wives, $p < .001$) with marital satisfaction. The relationship between cohesion and marital satisfaction was highly correlated with $r = .55$ and $.75$ for husbands and wives, respectively. Commitment, however, was not significantly correlated for husbands ($r = -.070$), but it was for wives ($r = .38; p < .001$, Ferguson, 1993).

Podbelski (1993) conducted a qualitative study of 12 working-class couples who had been married at least 20 years. Nine salient themes essential for long-term marital stability were initial attraction, expectations, marital behavior (including child-rearing), relatedness, values, finances, influences of family of origin, and marital satisfaction. Relatedness was the core category, encompassing eight other themes: positive regard for the relationship, intimacy, respect, trust, communication, style of handling interpersonal differences, marital conflict, equity, and sexuality. Values, finances, and their parents' marriage were also important influences on the marital satisfaction.

Fenell (1993) investigated characteristics of first marriages over 20 years of duration. One hundred forty-seven couples completed a survey instrument developed by the author. The 10 most important characteristics that spouses possessed in these long-term marriages were identified. These characteristics were lifetime commitment to marriage, loyalty to spouse, strong moral values, respect for spouse as best friend, commitment to sexual fidelity, desire to be a good parent, faith in God and spiritual commitment, desire to please and support spouse, desire to be a good companion to spouse, and willingness to forgive and be forgiven.

Demment (1992) conducted a qualitative study of 12 middle-class married couples who professed to enjoy a successful marriage. Subjects were chosen from volunteers who had been married for at least 20 years and whose youngest child was out of high school. In-depth interviews were conducted. Twelve major themes that emerged from the data were: spousal expectation (shared view of roles, influence of family of origin, negative role model), values, commitment, role of religious homogamy,

commitment to relationship growth, personality (in terms of kindness, sincerity , or spunky), finance, mutuality (as a balance of interdependence and dependence), communication, sex, influence of family of origin, and shared view of roles. Of the twelve, four were salient: expectation of marriage, similarity of values, mutuality, and selective understanding (selective understanding with regard to self, spouse, and situation in terms of family histories, social norms, or merely what was acceptable to them).

Lauer, Lauer, and Kerr (1990) researched the factors that contribute to marital satisfaction in long-term marriages. Data were gathered from 100 couples who had been married 45 years or more. The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale with an addendum of seven other scales and an open-ended questionnaire were used to measure marital satisfaction and other variables. Eighty-five percent of the couples rated themselves as being happy in their marriage.

The variables identified as important to their marriages were: being married to someone they liked as a person and enjoyed being with; commitment to the spouse and to marriage; a sense of humor; and consensus on various matters such as aims and goals in life, friends, and decision-making. Husbands and wives were strikingly similar in their responses; thus, men and women perceived the same variables to be critical to the success of long-term marriages (Lauer et al., 1990).

A retrospective study (Finkel & Hansen, 1992) was conducted in order to investigate the subjective experiences of couples in long-lasting marriages. Thirty-one older couples who had been married over 30 years to the same person were administered the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale and a survey form that was developed for this

study.

A number of significant correlations that were related to the length of marriage emerged. The longer-married couples in this study had fewer children than did the shorter-married couples, and were less likely to report that they were currently sexually active. The longer married couples reported fewer child-rearing problems, fewer difficulties with adult children, and were less likely to have sought counseling in the past (Finkel & Hansen, 1992) .

Retrospective ratings of marital satisfaction across the life cycle followed a curvilinear pattern, with the lowest retrospective evaluations given to the child-rearing years. Current marital satisfaction was not related to the number of children, past rearing problems, finances, and difficulties with adult children. In contrast, retrospective ratings of earlier stages in the marital life cycle were significantly related to most of these variables (Finkel & Hansen, 1992).

The more problems they described in the later stages of the marital life cycle, the more highly they related their marital satisfaction in their earliest stage. The longer-married couples had more positive retrospective memories of their marriages during the child-rearing years, and less positive memories of the earliest honeymoon period (Finkel & Hansen, 1992).

Several factors have been identified as important factors for long-term and satisfying marriages in nine research studies that have been reviewed in this section. Good communication and problem-solving skills, commitment and loyalty, spending and enjoying time together, mutual respect and support, similar value system and philosophy,

affection (love), and religious homogamy appeared more in four out of nine studies. Child rearing, financial status, sexuality, intimacy, and the influences of family of origin appeared as significant factors in three different studies. Other factors that showed up as salient factors in one or two studies were mutual expectations and equity, being a good companion to spouse, willingness to forgive and be forgiven, initial attraction, personality (in terms of kindness, sincerity, mutuality as a balance of interdependence and dependence), shared view of roles, and selective understanding.

Studies of Various Ethnic Groups

Because the purpose of this study was to discover marital satisfaction factors that were specific to the Korean-American population, research studies that pertained to other ethnic populations are reviewed separately here. Although a segment of some studies may have been introduced in previous sections of this chapter, all factors that are identified in relation to marital satisfaction in each study are reviewed here for the purpose of increasing understanding of each ethnic group as a whole.

Korean Families in South Korea

Kwon (1992) conducted a survey with Korean families who were residing in Seoul, Korea (using an area sample method), in 1991. Respondents were couples in their first marriage, who had been married between 5 and 10 years, in which the wives' and husbands' ages were between 25 to 35 at the time of the survey. The total sample size was 293 married couples.

The dependent variable was marital satisfaction. Independent variables were:

educational level, religion (Catholic, Protestant, Buddhist, or none), child (the number, age, and sex), economic well-being, employment, mate selection, duration of marriage, premarital sex and cohabitation, residence (nuclear or extended), kinship relationship, gender-role attitudes, gender-role consistency, gender role congruency, allocation of housework and child care, and emotional support (Kwon, 1992).

The items of the instrument were constructed mostly by Kwon. Items for the attitude measures were selected from the National Survey for Families and Household (NSFH) and General Social Survey (GSS), and Hendrick's Relationship Assessment Scale (Kwon, 1992).

The independent variables that revealed positive relationships with marital satisfaction were: traditional tendencies in gender-role attitudes, kinship contacts with parents especially with husband's mother, and the wife's subsidiary financial contribution, the husband's increased share of household labor, love-matched marriage, agreement in traditional attitudes toward housework, and the consistency between behaviors and attitudes (Kwon, 1992).

Independent variables that were negatively related to marital satisfaction were: traditional tendencies in the housekeeper role, the husband's traditional attitudes toward sharing of housework, the traditional division of household labor in which the wife had greater responsibilities, the wife sharing the provider role, a close relationship with kin members (only to the husband's marital satisfaction level); and arranged marriage (only to the wife's marital satisfaction; Kwon, 1992).

The wife's marital satisfaction did not differ according to the emotional support

she gave or received. The husband's marital satisfaction, however, was associated with the level of emotional support. Rather than a relatively equal level of emotional support, the indebtedness in either spouse was related to the husband's higher marital satisfaction. Husbands were most satisfied when they provided more emotional support than their wives did (Kwon, 1992).

Korean Wives of American Servicemen in America

Jeong and Schumm (1990) studied marital satisfaction among the Korean wives of American husbands (servicemen). They got 29 responses from the 70 instruments distributed at Korean grocery stores in the vicinity of Fort Riley, Kansas. Marital satisfaction was measured by the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale. The independent variables were: the total family income, the length of residence in the U.S., whether or not the marriage occurred before relocating to the U.S., the wife's English proficiency, the wife's education, the time since last visit to Korea, and church attendance. The strongest positive correlations with marital satisfaction were the wife's English proficiency, the wife's educational level, and the total family income. The most surprising finding was a strong negative relationship between the time since last visit to Korea and marital satisfaction. Findings for church attendance, the location of marriage, and the length of residence in the U.S. were nonsignificant.

Chinese Americans

Ying (1991) investigated the subjective assessment of marriage components that best predicted marital satisfaction among 36 male and 30 female married Chinese-

Americans (ages 23-74 years) in San Francisco. The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale was adjusted for the Chinese population, and face-to-face interviews were conducted for demographic and life-quality information. Women were significantly less satisfied than men. American-borns were only marginally more satisfied than foreign-borns with their marriage. A significant amount of variance of marital quality (41%) was accounted for by 17 variables.

Of the 17 variables, agreement-in-life aims and relating to in-laws and friends were the two components that emerged as the most important predictors of marital satisfaction. Surprisingly, communication level failed to make a significant contribution. A couples' ability to arrive at agreement on various matters (be they life aims, morality, or how to relate to in-laws and friends), however, was a significant predictor for marital satisfaction. It is interesting that while more of the variance of marital quality was accounted for in women than in men, the only significant predictor for men was the sharing of life aims, while for women, agreement on relating to in-laws and friends also emerged as a significant contributor to their marital satisfaction (Ying, 1991).

For women, the role of agreement in relating to friends and in-laws barely approached statistical significance ($p = .13$). This suggests that in evaluating marital quality, men take a more inclusive perspective, considering the level of agreement with their spouses in relating to others. On the other hand, women are more exclusive, referring primarily to the sharing of life aims and morals with their spouses. This indicated that the marriage relationship, in and of itself, may be more important to women; while for men, how well it fits with their other relationships is also of

significance. As Ying stated, this is reminiscent of the position of marriage in traditional Chinese society, i.e., marriage is seen as secondary to the parent-son relationship, and this attitude often forces the son to be caught between his parents and his wife. This may be especially salient if the son's parents live with the couple (Ying, 1991).

Japanese Couples in Japan

A total of 146 married persons (67 men and 79 women) in a provincial city of Japan were interviewed to examine marital adjustment and its psychological determinants (Kitamura, Watanabe, Aoki, Fujino, & Ura, 1995). Fifteen items from the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale were transformed into a semi-structured interview process. The authors developed a comprehensive interview covering demographics, life events and difficulties, attributional styles, coping behavior, social support, leisure activities, early life experiences, self-esteem, psychological well-being, and present state and past history of psychiatric status.

Factor analysis yielded five factors. These factors were: dyadic consensus (agreement on friends, philosophy, recreation, sex, finances, conventionality, in-laws, confiding in the partner, and affection), satisfaction in general, flexibility (mutual give-and-take), home-loving (stay at home together), and interest sharing (same interest and marital agreement) (Kitamura et al., 1995).

In analyzing demographic factors, a small but significant difference was observed only in the dyadic consensus score, men 54.3; $SD = 7.3$, women 49.8; $SD = 15.0$, $F(1,120) = 4.21$, $p = .043$. For the male respondents only, age was negatively correlated

with the interest-sharing score ($r = -0.241, p = .003$). The number of family members living together was negatively correlated with the satisfaction score among the female respondents. Those who had a private usable room showed significantly higher dyadic consensus. This finding was significant only for women, indicating women were more likely to be influenced by their economic state and housing condition. In addition, women satisfied with living conditions may be more capable of communicating with their husbands. In contrast, men seemed less likely to be influenced by the conditions in which they lived. This may reflect the traditional roles of Japanese couples, in which husbands are the bread winners and the wives are the homemakers. Therefore, the husband's life is centralized around his work and work place instead of being focused around his home (Kitamura et al., 1995).

In analyzing the marital factors, the duration of the marriage was not correlated with the dyadic consensus or the satisfaction score. The duration of the period of premarital courting (in months) was correlated with the satisfaction score for the male respondents, but not for the females.

In analyzing personality and marital factors, the neuroticism score was significantly negatively correlated with the dyadic consensus and satisfaction scores. These findings were significant only for women. The extroversion-introversion scale was not correlated with any marital adjustment measures.

In analyzing early childhood experiences, any early parental loss had no statistically significant effects on the marital adjustment scores. In examining the effects of perceived parental attitudes among men, it was found that perceived maternal care was

the most prominent predictor of marital adjustment in that if their mothers were more affectionate, they were more likely to adjust better in their marital relationships. On the other hand, women were likely to show better marital adjustment if they perceived their father as more affectionate. Marital adjustment was determined by the degree of affectionate care a child experienced from the opposite-sex parent (Kitamura et al., 1995).

Kamo (1993) compared the marital status of Americans to that of Japanese. The data from a survey of 457 American wives and 465 American husbands were compared to data from a similar survey of 475 Japanese wives and 424 Japanese husbands. A translated version of the American Couples Survey was used.

The findings indicated that Americans were significantly more satisfied with their marriages than were their Japanese counterparts. Both of the companionship variables yielded statistically significant differences between the two countries. American husbands and wives dined and socialized with their friends together more often than did their Japanese counterparts. A particularly striking difference was found in sharing friends. American marriages showed many more companionship aspects than did Japanese marriages. Japanese wives felt deprived by the allocation of household tasks to a much larger extent than did any other subgroup (Kamo, 1993).

The Japanese husband's income was critical to both spouses' marital satisfaction. The amount of household work Japanese husbands performed was negatively related to his satisfaction with marriage. It should also be noted that unlike the other three subgroups, perceived benefit from the relationship was not related to marital satisfaction

among Japanese husbands (Kamo, 1993).

Shared experiences with friends, which was measured by having more mutual friends and socializing together with them, was directly related to one's marital satisfaction in all subgroups. The second companionship variable--how often spouses dine together--had a positive relationship with a spouse's marital satisfaction, except among American husbands. Age was negatively related to marital satisfaction in the United States but not in Japan (Kamo, 1993).

Indian Couples

Kumar (1986) examined factors that contributed to happiness in marriage in an Indian context. Fifty happily married city-based Hindu couples who had been married at least 5 years were identified through a marital adjustment questionnaire. The subjects were individually interviewed about the factors that, in their opinion, contributed to their marital happiness. The interviews were then content-analyzed. Factors were identified for husbands and wives separately. Husbands mentioned sexual satisfaction, proper understanding, right marital attitude, faithfulness, and importance of giving as five factors contributing to happiness in marriage. The wives stated faithfulness, companionship, love and affection, the importance of giving, and sexual satisfaction as the most important factors in marital happiness.

Comparison Between Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans

Contreras, Hendrick, and Hendrick (1996) compared perspectives on marital love

and satisfaction between Mexican-American and Anglo-American couples. A volunteer sample of 54 Mexican-American (classified as either Hispanic-oriented or bi-cultural) and 30 Anglo-American married couples was used. Data were collected by questionnaire through network sampling. Measures included the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-Americans, a background inventory, the Love Attitudes Scale (3 love-attitudes and 2 sex-attitudes). Hispanic-oriented respondents were more pragmatic about love and less idealistic about sex than Anglo-Americans. Passionate love was correlated with marital satisfaction for Anglo-Americans and both groups of Mexican-Americans. Partner similarity was evident in all three groups, and marital satisfaction was best predicted for all groups by passionate love scores.

African-Americans

King (1980) conducted a study with 97 African-American family members in America. Data were collected by a self-administered questionnaire that was constructed by the author. Findings indicated that commitment and mutual understanding were the most important factors that contributed to making the marriage satisfying. God-centeredness was another salient factor that was perceived by the respondents as contributing to marital satisfaction. One major finding of this study was that members of strong families tended to enhance each other's self-esteem through sharing compliments and appreciation.

Swedish Couples in Sweden

Kaslow, Hansson, and Lundblad (1994) studied long-term marriages. Their

subjects included people who had been married or unmarried but cohabiting for 20 years or longer. They used a Swedish version of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) by Spanier (1976) and the Sense of Coherence Scale (SOC) developed by Antonovsky (1992). Ninety-five couples in a network of students from Lund University and others suggested by those respondents participated in this study. The results revealed that women and men did not differ significantly in the total adjustment score. On the two subscales of dyadic satisfaction and affectional expressions, however, men scored significantly higher than women. There were significant correlations between DAS and SOC scores. Those who had a high sense of coherence also had high marital satisfaction.

The factors significant for happy marriage were: handling finances, matters of recreation, demonstration of affection, sex relations, conventionality (correct or proper behavior), similar philosophy of life, consensus in goals and things believed important in life, amount of time spent together, equal division of household tasks, leisure time interests and activities, kissing one's mate, engaging in outside interests together, the frequency of quarreling, career decisions, calm discussions on marital issues, and satisfaction in relationship. The factors that were nonsignificant were religious matters, friends, ways of dealing with parents or in-laws, having a stimulating exchange of ideas, laughing together, working together on a project, feelings about the relationship in the future, being too tired for sex, and confiding in mate (Kaslow et al., 1994).

Summary

The literature review section was divided into two sections. The first section

covered the cultural understanding of Korean couples in Korea and the history of Korean immigration to the U.S. The second section included literature related to 18 marital satisfaction factors and several studies that were conducted for specific ethnic populations.

Despite the many changes and transformations that Koreans have gone through, the traditional roles of the husband and the wife still control many aspects of Korean families in Korea. Men belong to the public sphere, and women to the private domestic sphere. Women are viewed just as a part of the extended members of a husband's family. She is the housekeeper, the child-bearer for the extension of her husband's family, and the care-taker of children for the success of her husband and children.

Korean-Americans face various acculturation issues. Child-rearing strategies have to be altered. The dynamics of American couples differ vastly from those of Korean couples. The necessity of dual employment in America challenges the tenacity of Korean-Americans in maintaining the traditional male and female roles. Language difficulty and underemployment of jobs also frustrate many Korean-Americans.

Korean immigration began in 1903 with sugar plantation employment in Hawaii. Another major movement of immigration occurred after the Korean War in 1950 during which warbrides were brought in by many American soldiers. The passage of the Immigration Act in 1965 brought a dramatic increase of Asian immigration including Koreans. The Korean-American population had reached 2,110,564 by 1997.

Eighteen factors that related to marital satisfaction were identified. The factors that revealed a positive relationship with marital satisfaction were as follows: the level of

a couple's affection for each other, the level of a couple's commitment to each other, the couple's ability to communicate with each other, the couple's ability to resolve conflicts between each other, a couple's satisfaction level in sharing activities and time together, a couple's ability to express their feelings, the level of a couple's empathy toward each other, the level of agreement between the husband and the wife in handling finances, the division of housework between spouses, the level of a couple's self-esteem, the level of a couple's sexual satisfaction, and the level of similarity in a couple's value systems.

Having children, especially children under age 18 and the number of children, was inversely related to marital satisfaction. In the area of a couple's family dynamics in their family of origin, most researchers agreed that childhood attachment style and family dynamics such as the communication style, problem-solving style, and quality time together influenced current marital adjustment. The issue of family intactness, however, did not seem to affect the marital satisfaction of couples. Research on gender-role differences generated unequivocal results. When gender-role differences showed a positive relationship with marital satisfaction, the traditional gender-role attitude appears to have a positive relationship whereas the nontraditional gender-role attitude has a negative relationship.

For African-Americans and Koreans in Korea, the wives' close relationships with their husbands' parents were significantly related to their marital happiness. For Caucasian couples, it had only a marginal relationship to the wife's marital satisfaction. Studies investigating the impact of religious homogamy on marital satisfaction have generated inconclusive results. Two studies showed positive relationships, and two other

studies showed no relationship with marital satisfaction.

Many variables related to marital satisfaction appeared in the studies of personality. Negative affectivity and high neuroticism affected marital satisfaction negatively. The relationships between similarity of personality, compatibility, extraversion, and congruency and marital satisfaction were unequivocal. Locating the cause of problems in the partner negatively predicted later satisfaction in marriage whereas self-attribution positively predicted later satisfaction. Agreeableness, tender-mindedness, conscientiousness, and benign interpretation for a partner's negative behaviors had a positive relationship with happy marriages. Irritableness and impatience traits of Type A personality affected marital satisfaction negatively while one's orientation to achievement had no relationship to marital satisfaction.

For Korean couples in Korea, the independent variables that were positively related to marital satisfaction were: traditional tendencies in gender-role attitudes, kinship contacts with parents especially with the husband's mother, the wife's subsidiary financial contribution, the husband's increased share of household labor, love-matched marriage, agreement in traditional attitudes toward housework, emotional support (for husbands' marital satisfaction), and consistency between behaviors and attitudes (Kwon, 1992).

Independent variables that were negatively related to marital satisfaction were: traditional tendencies in the housekeeper role, the husband's traditional attitudes toward sharing of housework, the traditional division of household labor in which the wife had greater responsibilities, the wife's sharing of the provider roles, and arranged marriages

(this affected wives' marital satisfaction negatively; Kwon, 1992).

For Chinese-Americans, agreement in life aims and relating to in-laws and friends were the two components that emerged as important predictors of marital satisfaction. Communication level failed to make a significant contribution (Ying, 1991).

For Japanese couples in Japan, factors that were positively related to marital satisfaction were: dyadic consensus (agreement on friends, philosophy, recreation, sex, finance, conventionality, in-laws, confiding in the partner, and affection), satisfaction, flexibility (mutual give-and-take), staying together at home, and interest sharing (same interest and marital agreement; Kitamura et al., 1995).

For Indians, the husbands identified sexual satisfaction, proper understanding, right marital attitude, faithfulness, and importance of giving (in the order of importance) as five factors contributing to happiness in marriage. The wives stated that faithfulness, companionship, love and affection, the importance of giving, and sexual satisfaction were the most important factors in marital happiness (Kumar, 1986).

Hispanic-oriented respondents were more pragmatic about love and less idealistic about sex than Anglo-Americans. Passionate love was correlated with marital satisfaction for Anglo-Americans and both groups of Mexican-Americans. Partner similarity was evident in both groups, and marital satisfaction was best predicted for all groups by passionate love scores.

For African-Americans, commitment and mutual understanding were the most important factors that contributed to making the marriage satisfying. God-centeredness was another salient factor that was perceived by respondents as contributing to marital

satisfaction (King, 1980).

The factors that are significant for a happy marriage for Swedish couples were: handling finances, matters of recreation, demonstration of affection, sex relations, conventionality (correct or proper behavior), similar philosophy of life, consensus in goals and things believed important in life, amount of time spent together, equal division of household tasks, leisure time interests and activities, kissing one's mate, engaging in outside interests together, career decisions, and calm discussions of marital issues (Kaslow et al., 1994).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This was an exploratory study in which marital satisfaction factors for Korean-American husbands and wives were identified and investigated.

Population and Sample Selection

The Korean-American population for this study was reached through the Korean-American church organizations in America. Consular Lee in the Washington Embassy office suggested that the majority of Korean-Americans may be reached through Korean church officials throughout the United States (the Embassy of the Republic of Korea Consular Section in Washington, D.C.). The Korean-American Church Directory, published in April 1998 by the Christian Publishing House in California and the only one in America, was used for the selection of churches. Through a systematic random selection process, every 30th church was called and asked for voluntary participation. The church pastor then was given the option of participating in this study or not. Once the pastor decided to participate in this study, he dictated the number of survey forms he would like to receive. The requested amount of survey forms was sent to either his church or home address. The voluntary nature of this study was explained to the

participating pastors so that they could, in turn, explain this to their congregation. The procedure for returning the survey forms included two options: (1) the pastor had responding individuals return the survey on their own, or (2) the pastor collected the surveys and mailed them back to me. In either case the return postage was provided by me. The participating pastors were asked to explain that participation in this study was voluntary. The introductory letter (refer to appendix A) was attached to each survey form (refer to appendix B) to inform husbands and wives about the study and to give instructions for responding to the survey. A statement was included which assured respondents that their identity would be kept confidential. Wives and husbands were to answer the survey questions separately. Respondents either mailed their results to me directly or returned them to their pastor to return to me, depending on the option their pastor chose.

Initially, calling pastors for participation was stopped when their request for forms reached 1,460. The first responses arrived approximately 3 weeks after they were mailed. Only 201 surveys were returned during the first 2 months of the waiting period. Follow-up calls were made to those pastors who had not returned any by the end of the second month. An additional 58 surveys were returned. A total of 269 surveys were received. This sample size did not meet the Gable and Wolf's (1993) adequate sample size criterion. They suggested that you need "6-10 times the number of people as items" (p. 213).

An additional 1,450 surveys were sent out, repeating the random procedure of calling every 30th church as was done initially. Calling churches began where it was

stopped in the first phase of sending surveys. Within a 6 week period, 210 surveys were returned. Again follow-up calls were made to those pastors who did not return any surveys by then. An additional 143 surveys were received in the next four weeks. A total of 622 surveys had been returned. Of the 622 surveys, 64 were not usable for analysis because they contained too many missing items. Of the 64 non-usable surveys, 11 were returned blank, 14 did not have any demographic information checked, and 39 contained more than 10 missing items.

Construction of Instrument

A review of the literature identified 18 major factors (see chapter 2) that contribute to the level of marital satisfaction. Those 18 factors included: the level of a couple's affection for each other, the level of a couple's commitment to each other, the couple's ability to communicate with each other, the couple's ability to resolve conflicts between each other, having children, a couple's satisfaction level in sharing activities and time together, a couple's ability to express their feelings, the level of a couple's empathy toward each other, a couple's family dynamics in their family of origin, the level of agreement between the husband and the wife in handling finances, a couple's attitude toward gender-role differences, the division of housework between spouses, the quality of a couple's kinship relationship, the level of a couple's self-esteem, the level of a couple's sexual satisfaction, the level of a couple's religious homogamy, the level of similarity in a couple's value system, and personality style. Due to the complexity of measuring personality style, I chose not to include this factor in my study.

Because no instrument was found that included all 17 factors, it became necessary to construct an instrument for this study. Subscales for all 17 factors were constructed. Fifty-five items were borrowed from various instruments (Kwon, 1992; Roach, Frazier, & Bowden, 1981; Snyder, 1989) and 37 items were created by me, resulting in a total of 92 possible items. Using a domain reference approach and ensuring enough items for each subscale (Gable & Wolf, 1993), five to seven items were selected for each.

Forty-one items from Snyder's Marital Satisfaction Inventory (Snyder, 1989) were used in my survey instrument: seven items from the Affective Communication Scale (four of the seven were modified), four from the Dissatisfaction with Children Scale, three from the Problem Solving Communication Scale, nine from the Sexual Dissatisfaction Scale (one item was modified), five from the Time Together Scale, five from the Family History Distress Scale, four from the Disagreement about Finance Scale with modification (two items were modified), and four from the Role Orientation Scale.

One item regarding the spousal value system of the Marital Satisfaction Scale by Roach, Frazier, and Bowden was used in the construction of the new instrument (Roach et al., 1981). Six items from Rho's Marital Inventory (Rho, 1989) were used: one item from the Affection Scale, one from the Communication Scale, and four from the Self-Esteem Scale. A total of seven items was borrowed from Kwon's marital inventory (Kwon, 1992). These included one item from the Gender Role Attitude Scale, four items from the Allocation of House Work Scale, and two items from the Kinship Relationship Scale.

This initial instrument then was sent to three expert judges to be evaluated. The

content validity was established by three expert judges: Dr. Nancy Carbonell, a licensed psychologist in clinical practice as well as a professor of Marriage and Family Therapy at Andrews University, Dr. Mark Cummings, a licensed psychologist in clinical practice and a professor of Marriage and Family Therapy at Notre Dame University, and Dr. Sung C. Kim, a licensed psychologist in clinical practice. Dr. Kim is of Korean descent. They were asked to read each item and decide whether the item reasonably measures the domain of the factor stated above. They were to check either yes or no box next to each item indicating which item was closely measuring the content of the factor that was stated above.

Based on the evaluation of the three expert judges, 92 items were retained. Some words and phrases were changed in order to enhance the language specificity of each item for each domain. The number of items for each subscale are as follows: six for Affection, five for Having Children, five for Communication, five for Commitment, six for Conflict Resolution Skills, six for Doing Things Together, five for Expression of Emotion, five for Empathy, six for Family Dynamics, five for Handling Finances, five for Gender Role, five for Housework Division, five for Kinship Relationship, five for Self-Esteem, six for Sexual Satisfaction, seven for Religious Homogamy, and five for Value System. The three items of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale were added to measure the global marital satisfaction level. The final number of items on the instrument was 95 items. There were three items from the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (the first three items), 43 negative items, and 49 positive items.

A 6-point Likert scale was used for the three items borrowed from the Kansas

Marital Satisfaction Scale. All other items used one of the two following 5-point Likert-type scales: one scale used a “never–seldom–sometimes–almost–always” scale, while the other used a “strongly disagree–disagree–agree half the time–agree–strongly agree” scale. I chose which of the two 5-point Likert scales to use. This decision was made based on the structure of the Korean language.

A demographic information sheet was included identifying participants’ gender, the place of birth (America or Korea), age, years lived in America, years of marriage, number of children, status of marriage (the first, second, third, or fourth), education level, income level (\$0 to \$100,000 or more), employment status, and religious denomination.

The initial version of the instrument was in English. It was then translated into the Korean language. The translation of English to Korean was first completed by me. I am a Korean-American and fluent in Korean and English. Then the translated version was evaluated by two more persons who are fluent in both English and Korean. In order to capture the idioms of language currently used by both young adult and middle-age Koreans, one reviewer was 24 years old, and the other was 48 years old. Several items were modified according to the recommendations they offered. Finally, Dr. Richard Choi, a Korean professor at Andrews University who is fluent in English and Korean, completed a reverse translation in order to ensure the accuracy of translation.

A pilot study was conducted with 17 Korean-Americans whose education was no higher than high-school level. Most of them had received 6 to 12 years of formal education. Suggestions received for revision or modification were: (1) simplify the words in three items because the words were too difficult for them to understand, and (2)

insert the 5-point Likert scale in the middle of the page, as well as at the top of the page to make it easier for subjects to respond. The instrument was modified accordingly.

Operational Definitions

The Dependent Variable

Marital satisfaction is defined as the perception of one's satisfaction with his or her marriage, his or her spouse, and his or her spousal relationship. This was measured by the items numbered 1, 2, and 3 on the instrument (refer to appendix C).

Independent Variables

1. The level of affection is defined as how one feels toward his or her spouse and how one perceives his or her spouse's expressed affection. This was measured by the items numbered 4, 13, 19, 42, 45, and 60 on the instrument (refer to appendix C).

2. The level of commitment is defined as the level of one's sexual commitment to each other. This was measured by the items numbered 74, 80, 83, 88, and 95.

3. The couple's ability to communicate with each other is defined as one's ability to express his or her needs to his or her spouse, one's perception of how well he or she is understood by his or her spouse, and one's satisfaction level in the amount of communication with his or her spouse. This was measured by the items numbered 5, 12, 15, 29, and 55.

4. A couple's ability to resolve conflicts is defined as the level of a couple's creativity, democracy, and openness in resolving conflicts between each other. This was measured by the items numbered 6, 18, 23, 38, 52, and 63.

5. The effects of having children is defined as the effects of having children on the couple's perception of their happiness, the liveliness of their home atmosphere, and the function of having children in maintaining their marriage. This was measured by the items numbered 8, 11, 68, 72, and 86.

6. Sharing activities and time together is defined as the variety of activities and the amount of time a couple shares together. This was measured by the items numbered 16, 24, 27, 35, 47, and 76.

7. The expression of emotion is defined as a couple's ability to express their feelings to each other. This was measured by the items numbered 7, 20, 26, 39, and 61.

8. The level of a couple's empathy toward each other is defined as a couple's ability to give and receive compassionate support and encouragement to each other when needed. This was measured by the items numbered 25, 33, 36, 46, and 54.

9. Family dynamics is defined as one's perception of his or her parental marital dynamics and one's perception of the memory of his or her childhood experience. This was measured by the items numbered 31, 34, 43, 66, 77, and 89.

10. Handling finances is defined based on the level of agreement between the husband and the wife in handling finances and a couple's perception of their financial difficulty. This was measured by the items numbered 10, 28, 32, 48, and 53.

11. An attitude toward gender role differences is defined as a couple's attitude toward the traditional gender roles of male and female—the husband as a breadwinner and the wife as a housekeeper. This was measured by the items numbered 73, 75, 79, 85, and 90.

12. The division of housework is defined as the level of equity and gender specificity in the division of housework between spouses. This was measured by the items numbered 41, 50, 59, 67, and 95.

13. The quality of kinship relationship is defined as the couple's relationship interaction with their parents and parents-in-law. This was measured by the items numbered 9, 14, 22, 62, and 65.

14. The level of self-esteem is defined as one's perception about his or her self-concept and self-performance. This was measured by the items numbered 78, 81, 87, 91, and 93.

15. The level of sexual satisfaction is defined as one's perception of satisfaction in his or her sexual relationship with his or her spouse. This was measured by the items numbered 8, 30, 40, 44, 56, and 71.

16. The level of religious homogeneity is defined as whether or not both spouses belong to the same denomination and the effect of their religious differences, if there are differences, on the quality of their marital relationship. This was measured by the items numbered 17, 21, 51, 57, 84, and 92.

17. The level of similarity in a couple's value system is defined as the level of spousal agreement or similarity in determining what social norms and expectations are acceptable. This was measured by the items numbered 37, 49, 58, 64, and 70.

The Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale

The Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (KMS) is a widely used marital assessment for a self-reported global evaluation of marital relationships. The scale is a three-item survey with ratings used primarily as a short measure of marital quality (Calahan, 1996). It was developed to assess one's satisfaction with their spouse, marriage, and the marital relationship. It is able to assess one dimension of marital quality (satisfaction) with enough items to estimate internal consistency reliability while not requiring the space required for longer scales (Shek & Tsang, 1993).

The KMS is a psychometrically sound global measure of marital satisfaction. Grover, Paff-Bergen, Russell, and Schumm (1984) conducted a study on 55 wives. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .92.

Another study given to 212 wives (Schumm et al., 1985) found the mean score on the KMS to be 17.29 ($SD = 3.84$), with a Cronbach's alpha of .96. The individual item means for husband as a spouse, marriage, and relationship with husband were 5.92 ($SD = 1.30$), 5.76 ($SD = 1.29$), and 5.61 ($SD = 1.40$), respectively. All three items were used to measure marital satisfaction.

Research Questions and Statistical Analyses

Research Question 1: What is the marital satisfaction level among Korean-American husbands and wives?

This was measured by computing *t*-tests for means of independent samples.

Research Question 2: What is the difference in marital satisfaction level between

Korean-American matched couples?

To answer this question, *t*-tests for means of independent sample, with a .05 alpha level, were used.

Research Question 3: Which of the following 17 factors are related to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands and wives: the level of a couple's affection for each other, the level of a couple's commitment to each other, the couple's ability to communicate with each other, the couple's ability to resolve conflicts between each other, the couple's satisfaction level in sharing activities and time together, a couple's ability to express their feelings, the level of couples' empathy toward each other, a couple's family dynamics in their family of origin, the level of agreement between the husband and the wife in handling finances, a couple's attitude toward gender role differences, the quality of a couple's kinship relationship, the level of a couple's religious homogamy, having children, the division of housework between spouses, the level of a couple's self-esteem, the level of a couple's sexual satisfaction, the level of similarity in a couple's value system?

To answer this question several regression analyses were used.

Research Question 4: Which of the 17 factors will differentiate between highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied matched couples ?

The difference was identified through using Discriminant Analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data gathered from this research study which studied marital satisfaction factors for Korean-Americans. The information presented includes demographic information, the results of instrument development (the results of factor analysis), and the results from the answers to each research question.

Demographic Data

A total of 2,910 surveys were distributed through various Korean churches in America. Of the 2,910 surveys, 622 (21.4%) were returned. Of the 622 surveys, 64 were not included in this study because they contained missing values on more than 10 items. Therefore, 558 surveys were usable for various analyses.

Table 1 presents the frequency distribution of husbands and wives and the numbers of matched and unmatched subjects. Of the 558 subjects, approximately 49% were husbands and 51% were wives. Three hundred forty-four surveys were from matched couples. Table 2 presents a summary of Age, Years of Marriage, and Years Lived in U. S. Of 535 respondents, 358 (65%) were in the age group between 30 to 50 years old. Of 530 respondents, 220 (41.5%) had been married 10 years or less. About

30% of the respondents had been married 11 to 20 years.

Table 1

Frequency Distribution of Husbands, Wives, Matched Couples, and Unmatched Subjects

	Husbands	Wives	Matched Couples	Unmatched Subjects	Total
Frequency	271	287	172	214	558
Percentage	48.6	51.4	61.6	38.4	100

Table 2

Summary Table of Age, Years of Marriage, and Years Lived in U.S.

Range	<i>n</i>	Percentage
Age (<i>N</i> = 535)		
≤20	2	.6
21-30	65	12.1
31-40	196	36.6
41-50	152	28.4
51-60	93	17.4
61-70	22	4.1
>71	4	.7
Years of Marriage (<i>N</i> = 530)		
≤10	220	41.5
11-20	158	29.8
21-30	115	21.7
31-40	26	4.9
41-50	6	1.1
51-60	4	.8
≥ 61	1	.2
Years Lived in U. S. (<i>N</i> = 532)		
≤5	129	24.2
6-10	114	21.4
11-15	81	15.2
16-20	95	17.9
21-25	62	11.7
26-30	44	8.3
≥ 31	7	1.3

Table 3 presents a summary of English Fluency.

Table 3

Summary of English Fluency

Level of Fluency	<i>n</i>	Percentage
None	7	1.3
Very poor	36	6.6
Poor	106	19.5
Fair	218	40.1
Good	100	18.4
Very good	46	8.5
Excellent	31	5.7
Total	554	100

Table 4 presents the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum age, years of marriage, and years lived in America. The mean of the respondents' age was about 42 years. The mean of marital duration was about 15 years. The mean of residential duration in U.S. was about 13 years.

Table 4

Mean, Standard Deviation, Minimum and Maximum Age, Years of Marriage, and Years Lived in U. S.

Group	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Minimum	Maximum
Age	41.99	10.60	20	84
Years of Marriage	15.34	10.40	1	61
Years Lived in U. S.	13.7	8.65	1	35

Table 5 presents a summary of the frequency table of the place of birth, marriage selection, and the number of marriages. Of the 558 respondents, 556 were born in Korea. Only 2 respondents were born in America. Of the 552 respondents, 305 (55.3%) did not

choose their spouse. Of the 550 respondents, 530 were still in their first marriage.

Table 6 presents the distribution of religious denomination of the respondents.

The majority of the sample population was Protestant

Table 5

Frequency Table of Birth Place, Marriage Selection, and Number of Marriage

Group	<i>n</i>	Percentage
Birth Place (<i>N</i> = 558)		
Korea	556	99.6
America	2	.4
Selection of Marriage (<i>N</i> = 552)		
Arranged by Parents	129	23.4
Marriage by Self-Selection	305	55.5
Combination of both	118	21.4
Number of Marriage (<i>N</i> = 570)		
First	550	96.4
Second	18	3.3
Third	1	.2
Fourth	1	.2

Table 6

Religious Denomination (*N* = 548)

Denomination	<i>n</i>	Percentage
Protestant	516	94.14
Purist	10	1.81
Catholic	8	1.54
Buddhist	1	.17
Other	5	.90
Atheist	8	1.44

Results of Instrument Development

Initially, this was an exploratory study that examined the 17 judgmentally derived factors to determine their importance to Korean-Americans. Reliability estimates of the 17 judgmentally derived scales were examined.

Table 7 presents the summary of the reliabilities of the 17 subscales. The Cronbach's alpha for four (Conflict Resolution Skills, Division of Housework, Having Children, and Value System) of the 17 judgmentally derived scales were fairly low, suggesting that there was low agreement among the items in these judgmentally-derived factors. Perhaps some of these items may behave psychometrically better in some of the other factors. For this reason, exploratory factor analyses were conducted to discover the factor structure that was indicated by the Korean-American population. In order to discover valid factors that were empirically driven by Korean-Americans, I used several principal component factor analyses. Twenty-two components, eigenvalues greater than 1, were initially derived. The Scree Plot, however, suggested 10 to 16 underlying factors. Figure 1 presents the Scree Plot.

Using .32 as a loading criterion (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996), I used several rotation methods including Varimax, Direct Oblimin, Promax, Quartimax, and Equamax rotation. I ran 10 to 18 extractions of various rotations. The Equamax rotation with 11 factor extractions was most interpretable. It explained 53% of the variance. It also cleared the Thurstone's simple structure criterion which seeks that each variable should have an acceptable loading on one factor and negligible loadings on all other factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Table 7

Summary of the Reliability Estimates of the 17 Judgmentally Derived Scales

Factors	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Expression of Affection	6	.8912
Having Children	5	.4603
Communication	5	.8388
Commitment	5	.6468
Conflict Resolution Skills	6	.3799
Division of Housework	5	.3912
Doing Things Together	6	.8573
Empathy level	5	.8298
Expression of Emotion	5	.6515
Family Dynamics	6	.7924
Handling Finances	5	.6734
Androgynous Gender Role	5	.6232
Kinship Relationship	5	.7368
Religious Homogamy	6	.6540
Self-Esteem	5	.7030
Sexual Satisfaction	6	.7857
Value System	5	.5590

Note. Number of cases= 467; Entire Scale Alpha = .9407.

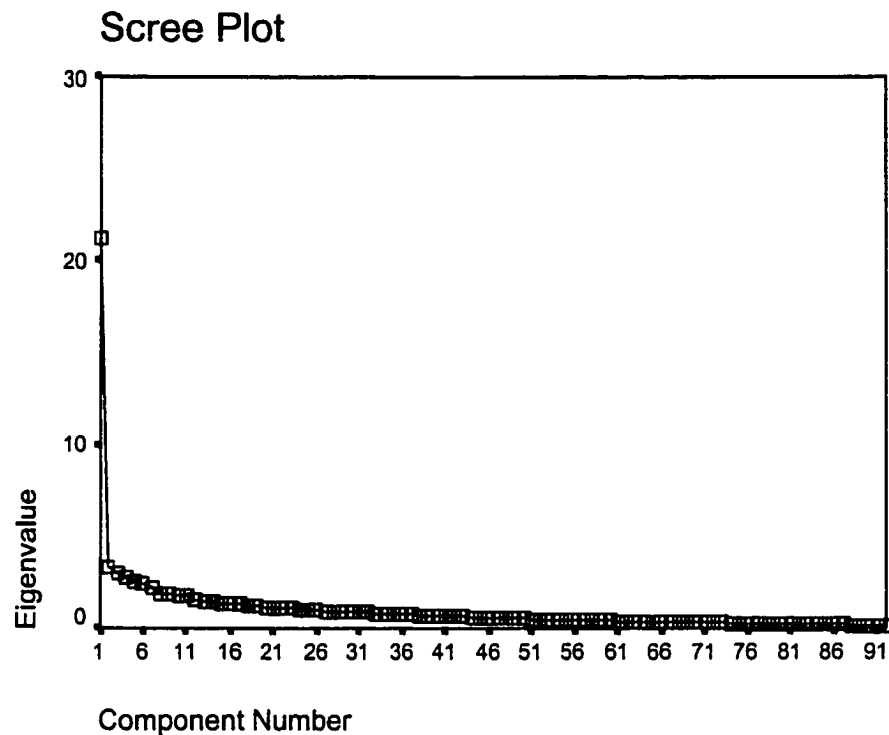


Figure 1. The Scree Plot of the Lee Marital Satisfaction Scale

Table 8 presents the summary of factor loadings (see Appendix D for the entire factor loading) which was edited for the convenience of visualizing 11 factors. These 11 identified factors appeared to correspond with the 11 of the 17 factors that were identified through the review of literature. Twenty-one items were removed from this factor analysis. Of those 21 items, 10 items were removed because they did not fit conceptually into the factor they were loading, and 11 were removed because they did not meet the loading criterion of .32. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was .917, meaning that the 71 remaining items were worth factoring.

Based on the content of the items that aggregated together, a title for each factor was assigned. The names of the 11 factors and their abbreviations were: Perceived and

Table 8

Edited Chart of 11 Factor Loadings of Equamax Rotation with 71 Items

Items	Component					Items	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5		6	7	8	9	10	11
Affec1	.492					Comm4	.337					
Affec2	.452					Comm5	.468					
Affec3	.452					ConfR4	.432					
Affec4	.484					ExpEm1	.631					
Affec5	.540					ExpEm2	.474					
Affec6	.508					Emph1	.514					
Comm1	.441					Emph5	.329					
Comm2	.487					Child2		.576				
Comm3	.485					Child3		.839				
Emph2	.595					Child4		.576				
Emph3	.542					SelfE1			.725			
Emph4	.620					SelfE2			.745			
ExpEm3	.511					SelfE3			.613			
ExpEm4	.461					SelfE4			.604			
ExpEm5	.535					SelfE5			.562			
Doing1		.591				Comt1				.623		
Doing2		.548				Comt2				.670		
Doing3		.705				Comt4				.617		
Doing4		.354				Comt5				.627		
Doing5		.382				RelH1					.871	
Doing6		.653				RelH2					.773	
Divhw3		.449				RelH3					.701	
Divhw4		.573				RelH4					.351	
Finan5		.373				RelH5					.441	
SexS1			.742			RelH7					.362	
SexS2			.682			GendR1						.650
SexS3			.713			GendR2						.650
SexS4			.526			GendR3						.376
SexS5			.454			GendR4						.749
SexS6			.686			GendR5						.586
KinsR1				.508								
KinsR2				.410								
KinsR3				.659								
KinsR4				.703								
KinsR5				.725								
Famdy1					.349							
Famdy2					.761							
Famdy3					.736							
Famdy4					.589							
Famdy5					.808							
Famdy6					.750							

Note. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy : .917; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square: 16866.821; df: 2485, Sig : .000.

Expressed Level of Affection (Taffec), Sharing Activities (Tshar), Sexual Satisfaction (Tsexs), Kinship Relationship (Tkinsr), Family Dynamics (Tfamdy), Communication (Tcomm), Having Children (Tchild), Self-Esteem (Tselfe), Commitment to Sexual Fidelity (Tcomt), Religious Homogamy (Trelh), and Androgynous Gender Role(Tgendr).

Three items of the dependent variable (KMSS) and the items in each factor were as follows:

Dependent Variable: Marital Satisfaction (Tsat)

1. How satisfied are you with your marriage?
2. How satisfied are you with your husband/wife as a spouse?
3. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your spouse?

Factor 1. Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection (Taffec)

4. I feel deep affection from my spouse.
13. My spouse does many things to show me that he (she) loves me.
19. My spouse doesn't make me feel loved.
42. My spouse is warm and friendly toward me.
45. My spouse makes me feel he (she) loves me.
60. I feel deep affection toward my spouse.
26. I feel free to express all my true feelings to my spouse.
39. I keep most of my feelings inside.
61. Both my spouse and I can freely express our feelings to each other.
33. My spouse takes my feelings seriously and supports me in a compassionate way.
36. Whenever I feel down, my spouse supports me with encouragement.
46. Whenever I feel sad, my spouse understands my pain.

- 5. I understand exactly what my spouse means.
- 12. My spouse understands exactly what I mean.
- 15. I am able to communicate my needs to my spouse.

Factor 2. Sharing Activities (Tshar)

- 16. My spouse and I enjoy doing things together.
- 24. We share hobbies and interests together.
- 27. My spouse and I spend time together in many different kinds of play and recreation.
- 35. My spouse doesn't take enough time to do some of the things I'd like to do.
- 47. About the only time I'm with my spouse is at meals and bed time.
- 76. I am quite satisfied with the amount of time my spouse and I spend in leisure.
- 67. My spouse and I equally share our household tasks.
- 53. My spouse and I decide together how we should spend our income.

Factor 3. Sexual Satisfaction (Tsexs)

- 8. My spouse seems to enjoy sex as much as I do.
- 30. I am unhappy with our sexual relationship.
- 40. Our sex life is entirely satisfactory.
- 44. My spouse and I rarely have sexual intercourse.
- 56. I would like to improve the quality of our sexual relationship.
- 71. My spouse sometimes shows too little enthusiasm for sex.

Factor 4. Kinship Relationship (Tkinsr)

- 9. My spouse has a good relationship with my parents.
- 14. We have pleasant visits with our parents-in-law on a regular basis.
- 22. I do not have a good relationship with my parents- in- law.

62. I have a good relationship with my parents-in-law.

65. My poor relationship with my parents-in-law is causing conflicts in our marriage.

Factor 5. Family Dynamic (Tfamily)

31. The members of my family were always very close to each other.

34. My childhood was probably happier than most.

43. I had a rather unhappy childhood.

66. My parents did not care for each other.

77. My parents' marriage would be a good example to follow for any married couple.

89. My parents loved each other.

Factor 6. Communication (Tcomm)

29. My spouse often fails to understand my point of view.

68. My spouse and I communicate very little.

20. My spouse freely expresses his (her) feelings to me.

25. My spouse remains distant when I am feeling down.

38. We avoid issues when problems arise.

54. Whenever my spouse is feeling down, he (she) comes to me for support.

Factor 7. Having Children (Tchild)

68. Our marriage might have been happier if we had not had children.

72. Having children helps our marriage to be more lively and happy.

82. Having children has increased the happiness of our marriage.

Factor 8. Self Esteem (Tselfe)

78. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

81. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.

87. I think I am no good at all.

91. I have a low opinion of myself.

93. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

Factor 9. Commitment to Sexual Fidelity (Tcomt)

74. My spouse has never been sexually unfaithful.

80. I have never been sexually unfaithful to my spouse.

88. My spouse has had an affair/s with another person.

95. I have had an affair/s with another person.

Factor 10. Religious Homogamy (Trelh)

17. My spouse and I go to the same church.

21. Only I, myself, go to a church.

51. Only my spouse goes to a church.

57. We don't go to a church.

69. I go to one church and my spouse goes to a different church.

92. The difference in our religious belief is a cause of marital distress.

Factor 11. Androgynous Gender Role (Tgendr)

73. A woman's place is in the home.

75. Earning the family income is primarily the responsibility of the husband.

79. The husband should be the head of the family.

85. The wife should help her husband's career rather than having one for herself.

90. The wife should be able to choose a career outside the home just as her husband does.

Cronbach's alpha was used to examine the reliability of the instrument as a whole and the reliability of each subscale. The coefficient alpha for all 71 items was .940. I then

used item analysis on each of the 11 factors.

Table 9 presents the item analysis of the first factor. Because each of the 15 items correlated well with the scale score, all items were retained. The coefficient alpha, the measure of internal consistency of the factor, was .9446.

Table 9

Item Analysis of the First Factor (Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection)

Variables (Number of items = 15)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Empth2	.7581	.9396
Empth3	.7594	.9395
Empth4	.8188	.9381
Affec1	.7299	.9405
Affec2	.6557	.9421
Affec3	.5846	.9442
Affec4	.7807	.9391
Affec5	.8161	.9382
Affec6	.7646	.9396
Comm1	.6394	.9425
Comm2	.6897	.9413
Comm3	.7512	.9398
Expem3	.6498	.9423
Expem4	.4908	.9466
Expem5	.7932	.9388

Note. Number of cases = 557; Scale Alpha = .9446.

Table 10 presents the item analysis of the second factor. The correlation for the item DivHW3 was less than .3. However, I decided to retain the item because it loaded well (.449) on the factor of Sharing Activities. The coefficient alpha, the measure of the internal consistency of the factor, was .8309.

Table 10

Item Analysis of the Second Factor (Sharing Activities)

Variables (Number of items = 9)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Doing1	.6984	.8196
Doing2	.7448	.8131
Doing3	.4576	.8217
Doing4	.5537	.8366
Doing5	.5504	.8371
Doing6	.6365	.8269
DivHW3	.2532	.8511
DivHW4	.3764	.8580
Finan5	.5020	.8434

Note. Number of cases = 555; Scale Alpha: .8309.

Table 11 presents the item analysis of the third factor. The coefficient alpha, the measure of the internal consistency of the factor, was .7857. However, the correlation for the item SexS5 was too low to retain. I, therefore, ran another item analysis without that item. Table 12 presents the third factor item analysis without the item SexS5. Each of the five items correlated well with the total scale score.

Table 11

Item Analysis of the Third Factor (Sexual Satisfaction)

Variables (Number of items= 6)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
SexS1	.6108	.7353
SexS2	.6935	.7180
SexS3	.7324	.7047
SexS4	.4930	.7632
SexS5	.1970	.8461
SexS6	.6102	.7342

Note. Number of cases = 557

Scale Alpha: .7859

Therefore, these five items were retained as the third factor. The coefficient alpha, the measure of the internal consistency of the factor, was .8451.

Table 13 presents the fourth factor item analysis. Each of the five items correlated well with the total scale score. Therefore, all five items were retained. The coefficient alpha, the measure of the internal consistency of the factor, was .7368.

Table 12

Item Analysis of the Third Factor Without the Item SexS5 (Sexual Satisfaction)

Variables (Number of items = 5)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
SexS1	.6456	.8152
SexS2	.6996	.8015
SexS3	.7621	.7825
SexS4	.5424	.8411
SexS6	.6197	.8235

Note. N of cases = 558; Scale Alpha: .8451.

Table 13

Item Analysis of the Fourth Factor (Kinship Relationship)

Variables (Number of items = 5)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
KinsR1	.5008	.6904
KinsR2	.4198	.7258
KinsR3	.4375	.7160
KinsR4	.6686	.6254
KinsR5	.5089	.6935

Note. N of cases = 522; Scale Alpha: .7368.

Table 14 presents the fifth factor item analysis. Each of the six items correlated well with the total scale score. Therefore, all six items were retained. The coefficient alpha, the measure of the internal consistency of the factor, was .7924.

Table 14

Item Analysis of the Fifth Factor (Family Dynamic)

Variables (Number of items = 6)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Famdy1	.3440	.8026
Famdy2	.5993	.7470
Famdy3	.5577	.7578
Famdy4	.4660	.7780
Famdy5	.6626	.7300
Famdy6	.6354	.7373

Note. Number of cases = 558; Scale Alpha: .7924.

Table 15 presents the sixth factor item analysis. The seven items' coefficient alpha, the measure of the internal consistency of the factor, was .7384. However, the correlation for the item ExpEm1 was a little lower than would be desired.

Table 15

Item Analysis of the Sixth Factor (Communication)

Variables (Number of items = 7)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Comm4	.4879	.7000
ExpEm1	.2416	.7602
ExpEm2	.4753	.7017
Empth1	.4628	.7048
Empth5	.4545	.7072
ConfR4	.5392	.6907
Comm5	.5693	.6839

Note. Number of cases = 558; Scale Alpha: .7384.

Therefore, another item analysis was run, excluding that item. Table 16 presents the item analysis without the item ExpEm1. Each of the six items correlated well with the total scale score. Therefore, all six items were retained. The coefficient alpha, the measure of internal consistency of the factor, was .7602.

Table 16

Item Analysis of the Sixth Factor Without ExpEm1 (Communication)

Variables (Number of items = 6)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Comm4	.5083	.7238
ExpEm2	.4411	.7423
Empth1	.4842	.7304
Empth5	.4696	.7360
ConfR4	.5379	.7177
Comm5	.5984	.7025

Note. Number of cases = 558; Scale Alpha: .7602.

Table 17 presents the item analysis of the seventh factor. Each of the three items correlated well with the total scale score. Although the alpha without the item Child2 reached as high as .8424, this item was retained because there were only three items in this factor. Including the item Child2, the coefficient alpha, the measure of internal consistency of the factor, was .7320.

Table 18 presents the item analysis of the eighth factor. Each of the five items correlated well with the total scale score. Therefore, all five items were retained. The coefficient alpha, the measure of internal consistency of the factor, was .7030.

Table 17

Item Analysis of the Seventh Factor (Having Children)

Variables (Number of items=3)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Child2	.3554	.8424
Child3	.6721	.5086
Child4	.7370	.4026

Note. Number of cases = 526; Scale Alpha: .7320.

Table 18

Item Analysis of the Eighth Factor (Self-Esteem)

Variables (Number of items = 5)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
SelfE1	.4738	.6483
SelfE2	.5601	.6241
SelfE3	.4962	.6433
SelfE4	.4687	.6597
SelfE5	.3566	.6970

Note. Number of cases = 557; Scale alpha: .7030.

Table 19 presents the item analysis of the ninth factor. Each of the four items correlated well with the total scale score. Therefore, all four items were retained. The coefficient alpha, the measure of internal consistency of the factor, was .6372.

Table 20 presents the item analysis of the tenth factor. The correlations of the items of RelH4, RelH5, and RelH7 were a little lower than would be desired. The coefficient alpha with all six items, the measure of the internal consistency, was .6517. Another item analysis was run with the first three items only.

Table 19

Item Analysis of the Ninth Factor (Commitment to Sexual Fidelity)

Variables (Number of items = 4)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Comt1	.3841	.5910
Comt2	.4881	.5136
Comt4	.3893	.5879
Comt5	.4099	.5739

Note. Number of cases = 550; Scale alpha: .6372.

Table 20

Item Analysis of the Tenth Factor (Religious Homogamy)

Variables (Number of items = 6)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
RelH1	.6861	.4609
RelH2	.5632	.5390
RelH3	.4282	.5922
RelH4	.1816	.6662
RelH5	.2762	.6454
RelH7	.2283	.6858

Note. Number of cases = 556; Scale alpha: .6517.

Table 21 presents the item analysis of the tenth factor with the first three items. Each of the three items correlated well with the total scale score. Therefore, all three items were retained. The coefficient alpha with these items, the measure of the internal consistency, was .7564. Table 22 presents the item analysis of the eleventh factor. Although the correlations of the items GendR3 and GendR5 were lower than would be desired, all 5 items were retained because the coefficient alpha with all five items (.6232)

was slightly higher than the coefficient alpha (.6202) with three items of GendR1, GendR2, and GendR4.

Table 21

Item Analysis of the Tenth Factor With the First Three Items (Religious Homogamy)

Variables (Number of items = 3)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
RelH1	.7015	.5339
RelH2	.6354	.6246
RelH3	.4584	.8040

Note. N of cases = 556; Scale Alpha: .7564

Table 22

Item Analysis of the Eleventh Factor (Androgynous Gender Role)

Variables (Number of items = 5)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
GendR1	.4590	.5237
GendR2	.4299	.5407
GendR3	.2329	.6283
GendR4	.4910	.5027
GendR5	.2760	.6170

Note. Number of cases = 558; Scale Alpha: .6232.

Table 23 presents the item analysis of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale. Each of the three items correlated well with the total scale score. The coefficient alpha with all three items, the measure of the internal consistency, was .9476. The sum of these three variable was the dependent variable for this dissertation.

Table 23

Item Analysis of Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale

Variables (Number of items = 3)	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
Msat1	.8713	.9375
Msat2	.9012	.9151
Msat3	.8982	.9172

Note. Number of cases = 558; Scale Alpha: .9476.

Table 24 presents the summary of all of the reliability measures. The total number of items that constituted the final scale was 66.

Table 24

Summary of Reliability Estimates of the 11 Empirically Derived Scales

Factors	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived & Expressed Level of Affection	15	.9446
Sharing Activities	9	.8309
Sexual Satisfaction	5	.8451
Kinship Relationship	5	.7368
Family Dynamics	6	.7924
Communication	6	.7602
Having Children	3	.7320
Self-Esteem	5	.7030
Commitment to Sexual Fidelity	4	.6372
Religious Homogamy	3	.7564
Androgynous Gender Role	5	.6232

Note. Number of cases = 477; Total Items = 66; Scale Alpha = .9430.

This scale was used in analyzing all statistical measures that were necessary to answer research question 3 and 4. The Cronbach's alpha for the entire scale was .9430.

Statistical Analysis

Because the 11 factors above seemed to provide the underlying structure for the Korean-American sample population, I decided to use these 11 empirically derived factors for the statistical analyses of this study. Therefore, Research Questions 3 and 4 were restated. Research Questions 1 and 2 remained the same.

Research Question 1: What is the marital satisfaction level among Korean-American husbands and wives?

Research Question 2: What is the difference in the marital satisfaction level between Korean-American matched couples?

Research Question 3: Which of the 11 empirically derived factors are related to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands and wives?

Research Question 4: Which of the 11 empirically derived factors will differentiate between highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied matched couples ?

Each of the research questions was answered and tested by the methods outlined in chapter 3 of this dissertation.

Research Question 1

What is the marital satisfaction level among Korean-American husbands and wives? To answer this question, I used *t*-tests for means of the independent sample. The *t*-test was run with the three items of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (KMSS) and the total of three items (global marital satisfaction) of KMSS with an alpha set at .05. The

Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was significant. Thus, the variances were significantly different. I therefore used the *t*-test results for unequal variance assumed.

Table 25 presents the mean of each item of the KMSS. The table indicates that the husbands' mean of each item of the KMSS and their global marital satisfaction was significantly greater than that of the wives. The size of the mean difference was less than 1 standard deviation on all of the four measures. Given the scale I used, the husbands were highly satisfied with their marriages, and the wives were moderately satisfied with their marriages.

Table 25

Summary of Independent *t*-Test of Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale for Husbands and Wives

KMSS Items	<u>Husbands</u>			<u>Wives</u>			MD*	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>				
Satisfaction with Marriage	270	4.96	.92	288	4.59	1.13	.38	4.318	546	.000
Satisfaction with Spouse	270	5.04	.89	288	4.61	1.12	.43	4.993	541	.000
Satisfaction with Spousal Relationship	270	4.96	.90	288	4.51	1.17	.45	5.036	535	.000
Global Satisfaction	270	14.95	2.56	288	13.71	3.26	1.24	5.038	539	.000

* MD = Mean Difference.

Research Question 2

What is the difference in the marital satisfaction level between Korean-American matched couples? To answer this question, I used *t*-tests for means of the dependent sample. The *t*-test was run with the three items of the KMSS and global marital satisfaction (the total of three items of KMSS) with an alpha set at .05.

Table 26 gives the results of the *t*-tests of the three items on the KMSS and the total of the three items. The table indicates that, on each item and the total of the KMSS, the mean scores of husbands were significantly greater than those of their wives. This was consistent with the mean difference in the total population. The mean difference, however, was within 1 standard deviation of the mean difference on each item. Given the scale I used, the husbands were highly satisfied with their marriages, and the wives were moderately satisfied with their marriages.

Table 26

Summary of Dependent *t*-Test of Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale for Matched Couples

KMSS Items	Husbands			Wives			MD*	SD of MD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>					
Satisfaction with Marriage	172	4.96	.93	172	4.61	1.09	.35	1.11	4.136	171	.000
Satisfaction with Spouse	172	5.04	.87	172	4.65	1.05	.40	1.08	4.781	171	.000
Satisfaction with Spousal Relationship	172	4.92	.90	172	4.54	1.09	.38	1.14	4.346	171	.000
Global Satisfaction	172	14.91	2.54	172	13.79	3.06	1.12	3.10	4.737	171	.000

* MD = Mean Difference.

Research Question 3

Which of the empirically derived factors are related to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands and wives? This question was investigated by using several regression analyses. Prior to doing the regression analyses, descriptive statistics and Pearson product correlations were run.

Table 27 presents the summary of means, the standard deviations, and the total sample number. The abbreviations of the 11 predictors were: Taffec for the variable Perceived and Expressed level of Affection, Tshar for Sharing Activities, Tsexs for Sexual Satisfaction, Tkinsr for Kinship Relationship, Tfamdy for Family Dynamics,

Table 27

Descriptive Statistics of the KMSS (Dependent Variable) and the 11 Factors

Factors	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Tsat (dependent)	558	14.3154	3.0082
Taffec	557	56.7666	11.9533
Tchild	526	13.1369	2.1770
Tcomm	558	23.0448	4.2380
Tcomt	550	18.0400	3.0744
Tfamdy	554	22.3664	4.9333
Tgend	558	13.0430	3.3847
Tkinsr	533	19.0747	3.8940
Trelh	556	14.1924	2.1293
Tselfe	558	14.3154	3.0807
Tsexs	557	20.2908	4.2218
Tshar	558	19.9785	6.8679

Tcomm for Communication, Tchild for having children, Tselfe for Self-Esteem, Tcomt for Sexual Fidelity, Trelh for Religious Homogamy, and Tgendr for Androgenous Gender Role. Tsat was used for the dependent variable KMSS. The prefix T stands for the sum score of all of the items in each factor.

To calculate the correlations between marital satisfaction and each of the 11 factors, the total score of the three items on the KMSS and that of each factor was used. Pearson product correlation was used. Table 28 presents the correlations of the 11 variables and the dependent variable—global marital satisfaction. All 11 factors were significantly correlated to marital satisfaction.

Table 28

Correlation Table of 11 Factors and KMSS-Global Scale of Korean-American Husbands and Wives

	Tsat	Taffec	Tchild	Tcomm	Tcomt	Tfamd	Tgend	Tkinsr	Trelh	Tselfe	Tsexs	Tshar
Tsat	1.000											
Taffec	.758**	1.000										
Tchild	.392**	.350**	1.000									
Tcom	.561**	.761**	.278**	1.000								
Tcomt	.366**	.399**	.231**	.332**	1.000							
Tfamd	.253**	.338**	.213**	.339**	.236**	1.000						
Tgend	-.090*	-.130**	-.093*	-.080	-.021	.013	1.000					
Tkinsr	.466**	.569**	.240**	.519**	.270**	.426**	-.085	1.000				
Trelh	.179**	.154**	.103*	.100*	.044	.047	-.064	.108*	1.000			
Tselfe	.283**	.340**	.293**	.268**	.249**	.271**	.005	.245**	.004	1.000		
Tsexs	.545**	.605**	.240**	.509**	.309**	.263**	-.072	.413**	.109**	.217**	1.000	
Tshar	.581**	.710**	.301**	.623**	.360**	.327**	-.046	.481**	.206**	.291**	.500**	1.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection was most highly correlated with the marital satisfaction of Korean-American couples, which was followed by the variables of Sharing Activities, Communication, Sexual Satisfaction, Kinship Relationship, Having Children, Commitment to Sexual Fidelity, Self-esteem, Positive Family Dynamics, and Religious Homogamy in the order of descending magnitude. Very small correlations were observed between Androgynous Gender Role and many other variables. Furthermore, it was the only item which was negatively correlated with the marital satisfaction of Korean-American couples.

To examine the variance that was explained by each factor in predicting marital satisfaction, 11 separate simple regression analyses for each of the 11 predictors were used. Then a standard multiple regression analysis was run with the 11 variables all together. Finally, stepwise forward and backward analyses with 11 variables were used to find the best predictor model.

Table 29 presents the summary of 11 separate simple regression analyses with global marital satisfaction (the total score of the KMSS) of the wives and husbands in the descending order of *R*-Square magnitude. Taken individually, all 11 variables were significant predictors of the marital satisfaction of Korean-American couples. The percentages of variance explained by each variable in predicting the marital satisfaction of Korean-American couples were: 57.5% by Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection, 33.7% by Sharing Activities, 31.5% by Communication, 29.7% by Sexual Satisfaction, 21.7% by Kinship Relationship (mostly with parents-in-laws), 15.4% by Having Children, 13.4% by Commitment to Sexual Fidelity, 8% by Self-Esteem, 6.4% by Family Dynamics in his or her family of origin, 3.2% by Religious Homogamy, and 0.8%

Table 29

Summary of 11 Separate Simple Regression Analyses on KMSS for Wives and Husbands

Variable	B	R Square	Sig
Taffec	.191	.575	.000
Tsharnng	.255	.337	.000
Tcomm	.398	.315	.000
Tsexs	.388	.297	.000
Tkinsr	.353	.217	.000
Tchild	.550	.154	.000
Tcomt	.358	.134	.000
Tselfe	.277	.080	.000
Tfamdy	.154	.064	.000
Trelh	.253	.032	.000
Tgend	-.0803	.008	.033

by Androgynous Gender Role (in inverse direction).

To examine the significance and the contribution of each predictor in the presence of other variables, a standard method multiple regression analysis with all 11 predictors was used. Table 30 presents the results of a standard method multiple regression analysis of the 11 variables. Together, the 11 predictors explained 63.2% of the variance in the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands and wives. In the presence of 11 variables in a regression model, only four variables--Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection (Taffec), Having Children (Tchild), Religious Homogamy (Trelh), and Sexual Satisfaction (Tsex)--appeared as significant predictors of the marital satisfaction of the

wives and the husbands, using alpha at the .05 level. In order of descending magnitude of the beta weights, the variables of Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection, Sexual Satisfaction, Having Children, and Religious Homogamy carried the largest weights in predicting the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands and wives.

Table 30

Results of Standard Multiple Regression With 11 Variables of the Couples

Variable	B	Beta	t	Sig	Tolerance
Taffec	.138	.550	10.006	.000	.262
Tchild	.176	.129	4.118	.000	.812
Tcomm	-.0014	-.002	-.045	.964	.379
Tcomt	.0514	.056	1.781	.076	.796
Tfamdy	-.0313	-.053	-1.633	.103	.764
Tgend	-.0012	-.001	-.045	.964	.965
Tkinsr	.0344	.044	1.214	.225	.589
Trelh	.0800	.059	2.017	.044	.805
Tselfe	.0137	.014	.456	.649	.614
Tsexs	.113	.156	4.338	.000	.452
Tshar	.0218	.050	1.202	.230	.941

Note. The Model R square = .632; $F(11, 465) = 72.65$; $P = .0000$.

In order to find a model that offered the best combination of variables in predicting marital satisfaction, I used a combination of stepwise forward and backward regression analyses. The stepwise forward and backward analyses yielded the same results. Table 31 presents the summary of the stepwise forward regression model of the Korean-American husbands and wives. In determining a model that offers the best

Table 31

Summary of Stepwise Forward Models for Korean-American Husbands and Wives

			ANOVA			Coefficients				
Model	R-Square	R-Sq Change	df	F	Sig.	Variable	B	Beta	t	Sig.
1	.585	.585	1,475	670.723	.000	Taffec	.192	.765	25.898	.000
2	.605	.019	2,474	362.445	.000	Taffec	.166	.661	18.327	.000
						Tsexs	.126	.173	4.800	.000
3	.622	.017	3,473	259.232	.000	Taffec	.155	.617	16.845	.000
						Tsexs	.120	.166	4.696	.000
						Tchild	.191	.140	4.645	.000
4*	.626	.004	4,472	197.173	.000	Taffec	.152	.608	16.593	.000
						Tsexs	.122	.168	4.766	.000
						Tchild	.186	.136	4.521	.000
						Trelh	.085	.062	2.187	.029
5	.628	.003	5,471	159.254	.000	Taffec	.148	.592	15.760	.000
						Tsexs	.116	.160	4.531	.000
						Tchild	.178	.130	4.312	.000
						Trelh	.086	.063	2.202	.028
						Tcomt	.055	.058	1.860	.063

Note. Use of Probability of Entry: .09; Removal: .10. * Model Selected.

combination of variables in predicting marital satisfaction, model 4 was chosen because: (1) it included the variables that were significant, (2) the four variables in model 4 made theoretical sense, and (3) all of the four variables were economical. According to the *R*-Squares and the *R*-Square Changes, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection explained the most (58.5%) variance in predicting marital satisfaction, which was followed by the variables of Sexual Satisfaction (1.9%), Having Children (1.7%), and Religious Homogamy (.4%) in the order of descending magnitude of the *R*-Square Changes. Together, model 4 explained 62.6% of the variance in predicting the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands and wives.

Because there was a significant mean difference between the marital satisfaction of the wives and that of the husbands, I then decided to examine the contributing factors that were specific to the marital satisfaction of the wives and the husbands. I used the same procedures for the wives and the husbands. Table 32 presents the summary of the means, the standard deviations, and the total sample number of the Korean-American wives.

Table 32

Descriptive Statistics of the Dependent Variable and the 11 Factors of the Korean-American Wives

Factors	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Tsat (dependent)	288	13.7118	3.2626
Taffec	288	56.0382	13.2450
Tchild	270	13.0000	2.3089
Tcomm	288	22.8993	4.5364
Tcomt	285	18.2246	3.0579
Tfamyd	288	22.6146	4.9809
Tgend	288	13.2639	3.4631
Tkinsr	270	19.0037	3.9093
Trelh	287	13.9338	2.5868
Tselfe	288	20.2118	3.0684
Tsexs	288	20.2361	4.4573
Tshar	286	30.9271	7.4171

To calculate correlations between marital satisfaction of the wives and each of the 11 factors, the total score of the three items on the KMSS and that of each factor was

used. Pearson product correlation was used. Table 33 presents the correlations of 11 variables and the dependent variable KMSS of the wives. All 11 factors were significantly correlated to marital satisfaction. The variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection was most highly correlated with the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives, which was followed by the variables of Sexual Satisfaction, Sharing Activities, Communication, Kinship Relationship, Commitment to Sexual Fidelity, Having Children, Family Dynamics, Self-esteem, Androgynous Gender Role, and Religious Homogamy in the order of descending magnitude. Although they were significant, very small correlations were observed between the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives and Androgynous Gender Role and Religious Homogamy.

Table 33

Correlation Table of the 11 Variables and KMSS (Tsat) of the Korean-American Wives

	Tsat	Taffec	Tchild	Tcomm	Tcomt	Tfamnd	Tgend	Tkinsr	Trelh	Tselfe	Tsexs	Tshar
Tsat	1.000											
Taffec	.790**	1.000										
Tchild	.346**	.316**	1.000									
Tcom	.597**	.786**	.241**	1.000								
Tcomt	.445**	.455**	.235**	.322**	1.000							
Tfamnd	.292**	.344**	.219**	.348**	.195**	1.000						
Tgend	-.180**	-.170**	-.083	-.149*	-.102	.011	1.000					
Tkinsr	.480**	.540**	.223**	.515**	.244**	.402**	-.095	1.000				
Trelh	.150*	.134*	.080	.097	.033	.055	-.056	.109	1.000			
Tselfe	.239**	.281**	.241**	.212**	.241**	.211**	.076	.145*	-.046	1.000		
Tsexs	.633**	.641**	.233**	.568**	.351**	.256**	-.103	.415**	.139*	.186**	1.000	
Tshar	.607**	.713**	.277**	.645**	.399**	.358**	-.088	.486**	.215**	.195**	.563**	1.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Most of the correlations between Androgynous Gender Role and other variables were not even significant. Furthermore, it was the only variable that correlated negatively with the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives.

In order to examine the contribution of each factor to marital satisfaction, a simple regression analysis was run for each factor. Table 34 presents the summary of 11 separate simple regression analyses of the wives in the descending order of *R Square* magnitude.

Table 34

Summary of 11 Separate Simple Regression Analyses on the KMSS of the Korean-American Wives

Variable	B	<i>R Square</i>	Sig.
Taffec	.194	.623	.000
Tsexs	.469	.410	.000
Tshar	.267	.368	.000
Tcomm	.429	.357	.000
Tkinsr	.390	.230	.000
Tcomt	.473	.198	.000
Tchild	.497	.120	.000
Tfamdy	.192	.086	.000
Tselfe	.251	.056	.000
Tgend	-.169	.032	.002
Trelh	.189	.022	.011

Taken individually, all 11 variables were significant predictors of the marital satisfaction of Korean-American wives. The percentages of variance explained by each variable in predicting the marital satisfaction of Korean-American wives were: 62.3% by Perceived and Expressed level of Affection, 41% by Sexual Satisfaction, 36.8% by Sharing Activities, 35.7% by Communication, 23.0% by Kinship Relationship (with parents-in-laws), 19.8% by Commitment to Sexual Fidelity, 12% by Having Children, 8.6% by Family Dynamics in her family of origin, 5.6% by Self-Esteem, 3.2% by Androgynous Gender Role (in inverse direction), and 2.2% by Religious Homogamy.

To examine the significance and the contribution of each predictor in the presence of other variables, I used a standard multiple regression with all 11 predictors. Table 35 presents the results of the standard multiple regression analysis of the 11 variables.

The model was significant. Eleven predictors together explained 69.1% of the variance in the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives. In the presence of these 11 variables, only 3 variables—Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection, Sexual Satisfaction, and Commitment of Sexual Fidelity (in order of descending magnitude of the beta weights) became significant predictors of the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives, using alpha at the .05 level.

In order to find a model that offered the best combination of variables in predicting marital satisfaction of the wives, I used stepwise forward and backward regression analyses. Both methods provided the same result. Table 36 presents the summary of stepwise forward regression models.

Table 35

Standard Multiple Regression With 11 Variables for Korean-American Wives

Variable	B	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance
Taffec	.130	.534	7.183	.000	.237
Tchild	.102	.073	1.842	.067	.831
Tcomm	-.0523	-.076	-1.230	.220	.344
Tcomt	.0852	.084	2.001	.047	.736
Tfamdy	-.0010	-.002	-.0383	.969	.788
Tgend	-.0477	-.051	-1.351	.178	.930
Tkinsr	.0505	.062	1.353	.177	.630
Trelh	.0492	.041	1.083	.280	.930
Tselfe	.0378	.033	.818	.414	.828
Tsexs	.194	.260	5.355	.000	.554
Tshar	.0169	.039	.704	.482	.420

Note. The Model R square: .691; $F(11, 236) = 47.963$; $P = 0.000$.

Table 36

Summary of Stepwise Forward Regression Models for Korean-American Wives

			ANOVA			Coefficients				
Model	R-Square	R-Sq Change	df	F	Sig.	Variable	B	Beta	t	Sig.
1	.620	.620	1,246	401.302	.000	Taffec	.192	.787	20.033	.000
2	.666	.046	2,245	244.038	.000	Taffec	.148	.609	12.648	.000
						Tsexs	.208	.279	5.796	.000
3	.675	.009	3,244	168.766	.000	Taffec	.139	.568	11.345	.000
						Tsexs	.198	.265	5.543	.000
						Tcomt	.109	.107	2.599	.010
4*	.682	.007	4,243	130.102	.000	Taffec	.134	.548	10.865	.000
						Tsexs	.195	.261	5.503	.000
						Tcomt	.097	.096	2.328	.021
						Tchild	.123	.088	2.294	.023

Note. Use of Probability of Entry: .09; Removal: .10. *Model selected.

In choosing a model that offered the best combination of variables in predicting the marital satisfaction of the wives, model 4 was chosen for the following reasons: (1) it explained the highest percentage of the variance in predicting marital satisfaction of the wives, (2) all four variables were significant, (3) each of the four variables was a good variable by itself, (4) their betas reflected stableness throughout different models, and (5) all of the four variables were economical.

According to the *R-Square* and *R-Square Changes*, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection explained the most variance (62%) in predicting the wives' marital satisfaction, which was followed by the variables of Sexual Satisfaction (4.6%), Commitment to Sexual Fidelity (.9%), and Having Children (.7%) in the order of descending magnitude of the *R-Square Changes*. Model 4 was significant and explained 68.2% of the variance in predicting the wives' marital satisfaction.

The same procedures were used to examine the contribution of the 11 variables in predicting the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands. Table 37 presents the summary of the means, the standard deviations, and the total sample number of the Korean-American husbands.

To calculate correlations between marital satisfaction and each of the 11 factors, the total score of the KMSS and that of each factor was used. Pearson product correlation was used. Table 38 presents the correlations of 11 variables and the dependent variable the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands.

Except for the factor Androgynous Gender Role, all 10 factors were significantly correlated with the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands. The variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection was most highly correlated with the marital

satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands, which was followed by the variables of Sharing Activities, Communication, Sexual Satisfaction, Kinship Relationship, Having Children, Self-esteem, Commitment to Sexual Fidelity, Family Dynamics, and Religious Homogamy in order of descending magnitude. None of the correlations between Androgynous Gender Role and the 11 other variables was significant.

Table 37

Descriptive Statistics of the Dependent Variable and 11 Factors for Korean-American Husbands

Factors	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Tsat (dependent)	270	14.9593	2.5641
Taffec	269	57.5465	10.3622
Tchild	256	13.2813	2.0232
Tcomm	270	23.2000	3.8970
Tcomt	265	17.8415	3.0850
Tfamdy	266	22.0977	4.8764
Tgend	270	12.8074	3.2890
Tkinsr	252	19.1508	3.8839
Trelh	269	14.4684	1.4494
Tselfe	269	20.3755	3.0973
Tsexs	270	19.7037	3.9449
Tshar	266	31.8233	6.2049

Table 38

Correlation Table of 11 Variables and KMSS (Tsat) of the Korean-American Husbands

	Tsat	Taffec	Tchild	Tcomm	Tcomt	Tfamd	Tgend	Tkinsr	Trelh	Tselfe	Tsexs	Tshar
Tsat	1.000											
Taffec	.717**	1.000										
Tchild	.454**	.397**	1.000									
Tcomm	.519**	.722**	.327**	1.000								
Tcomt	.317**	.340**	.238**	.354**	1.000							
Tfamd	.241**	.344**	.215**	.337**	.273**	1.000						
Tgend	.066	-.065	-.097	.015	.062	.008	1.000					
Tkinsr	.466**	.616**	.259**	.528**	.301**	.456**	-.072	1.000				
Trelh	.183**	.188**	.137*	.100	.093	.057	-.062	.114	1.000			
Tselfe	.350**	.424**	.355**	.339**	.262**	.340**	-.071	.348**	.088	1.000		
Tsexs	.479**	.568**	.261**	.435**	.253**	.266**	-.042	.418**	.084	.260**	1.000	
Tshar	.538**	.703**	.329**	.588**	.324**	.300**	.022	.479**	.174**	.414**	.424**	1.000

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Then, the analysis proceeded to regression analyses. Table 39 presents the summary of 11 separate simple regression analyses of the husbands in descending order of R-square magnitude. Taken individually, 10 variables, except for Androgynous Gender Role, were significant predictors of the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands.

The percentages of variance explained by each variable in predicting marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands were: 51.4% by Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection, 28.9% by Sharing Activities, 26.9% by Communication, 23% by Sexual Satisfaction, 21.7% Kinship Relationship (with parents-in-laws), 20.6% by Having Children, 12.4% by Self-esteem, 1.00% by Commitment to Sexual Fidelity, 5.8%

by Family Dynamics, and 3.4% by Religious Homogamy. Having an androgynous gender role was not significant to the husbands' marital satisfaction.

Table 39

Summary of 11 Separate Simple Regression Analyses of the Korean-American Husbands

Variable	B	R-Square	Sig.
Taffec	.178	.514	.000
Tshar	.222	.289	.000
Tcomm	.341	.269	.000
Tsexs	.311	.230	.000
Tkinsr	.308	.217	.000
Tchild	.582	.206	.000
Tselfe	.291	.124	.000
Tcomt	.265	.100	.000
Tfamdy	.126	.058	.000
Trelh	.324	.034	.003
Tgend	.051	.004	.283

To examine the significance and the contribution of each predictor in the presence of other variables, I used a standard method multiple regression with 11 predictors together. As a whole, the model was significant. Together, the 11 predictors explained 61.6% of variance in predicting husbands' marital satisfaction.

Table 40 presents the results of the standard multiple regression analysis with the 11 variables of the Korean-American Husbands. In the presence of 11 variables in the regression model, only three variables—Expressed and Perceived Level of Affection,

Table 40

Standard Multiple Regression With 11 Variables of Korean-American Husbands

Variable	B	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance
Taffec	.132	.528	6.689	.000	.284
Tchild	.225	.200	4.182	.000	.775
Tcomm	-.0465	.067	1.010	.313	.405
Tcomt	.0289	.035	.745	.457	.808
Tfandy	-.0430	-.082	-1.655	.099	.721
Tgend	.0670	.083	1.924	.056	.941
Tkinsr	.0236	.034	.587	.558	.515
Trelh	.0773	.045	1.030	.304	.945
Tselfe	.00567	.007	.137	.891	.713
Tsexs	.0833	.124	2.393	.018	.662
Tshar	.0048	.012	.189	.850	.479

Note. The Model *R*-square: .616; $F(11, 217) = 31.607$; $P = 0.000$.

Having Children, and Sexual Satisfaction--became significant predictors of the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands, using alpha at the .05 level.

According to the beta weights, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection (.528) carried the most weight in predicting the husbands' marital satisfaction, which was followed by the variables of Having Children (.200) and Sexual Satisfaction (.124).

In order to find a model that offered the best combination of variables in predicting the husbands' marital satisfaction, I used stepwise forward and backward regression analyses. Both models yielded the same results.

Table 41 presents the summary of stepwise forward regression models of the husbands. In choosing a model that offered the best combination of variables in explaining the marital satisfaction of the husbands, model 4 was chosen for the following reasons:(1) it explained the highest percentage of the variance in predicting the husbands' marital satisfaction, (2) each of the four variables was significant, and (3) all of the four variables were economical. According to the *R*-Square and *R*-Square Changes, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection explained the most (55.4%) variance in predicting the husbands' marital satisfaction, which was followed by the variables of Having Children (3.4%), Sexual Satisfaction (1%), and Androgynous Gender Role (.8%) in order of descending magnitude of the *R*-square changes. Together, the model was significant and explained 60.7% of the observed variance in predicting the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands.

Table 41

Stepwise Forward Regression Model of Korean-American Husbands

			ANOVA			Coefficients				
Model	R-Square	R-Sqr Change	df	F	Sig.	Variable	B	Beta	t	Sig.
1	.554	.554	1, 227	281.719	.000	Taffec	.186	.744	16.784	.000
2	.588	.034	2, 226	161.418	.000	Taffec Tchild	.166 .257	.664 .202	14.298 4.348	.000 .000
3	.599	.010	3, 225	111.865	.000	Taffec Tchild Tsexs	.149 .251 .083	.597 .197 .124	11.105 4.272 2.417	.000 .000 .016
4*	.607	.008	4, 224	86.384	.000	Taffec Tchild Tsexs Tgend	.149 .262 .083 .072	.597 .206 .124 .090	11.194 4.485 2.435 2.142	.000 .000 .016 .033

Note. Use of Probability of Entry: .09; Removal: .10.

* Model selected.

Further analysis continued in an effort to find a model that offered the best combination of variables in predicting Satisfaction with Marriage (the first item of the KMSS), Satisfaction with Spouse (the second item of the KMSS), and Satisfaction with Relationship with Spouse (the third item). Three separate stepwise forward and backward regression analyses for wives and for husbands were used. Both methods yielded the same results.

Table 42 presents the summary of the stepwise forward models for the dependent variable Satisfaction with Marriage (the first item of the KMSS) of the wives.

In choosing a model that offered the best combination of the variables, model 3 was chosen for the following reasons: (1) it explained the highest percentage of the variance in predicting the wives' satisfaction with their marriage, (2) it included the most number of variables that were significant, and (3) their betas were stable throughout different models.

Table 42

Summary of the Stepwise Forward Models for Wives' Satisfaction With Their Marriage

			ANOVA			Coefficients				
Model	R-Square	R-Sq Change	df	F	Sig.	Variable	B	Beta	t	Sig.
1	.517	.517	1, 246	263.139	.000	Taffec	.0614	.719	16.222	.000
2	.561	.044	2, 245	156.324	.000	Taffec Tsexs	.04647 .07119	.544 .273	9.862 4.943	.000 .000
3*	.580	.020	3, 244	112.450	.000	Taffec Tsexs Tchild	.04296 .06883 .07209	.503 .264 .148	9.060 4.873 3.378	.000 .000 .001

Note. Use of Probability of Entry: .09; Removal: .10. * Model selected.

According to the *R*-Square and the *R*-Square Changes, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection explained the most (51.7%) variance in predicting the wives' satisfaction with their marriages, which was followed by the variables of Sexual Satisfaction and Having Children in order of descending magnitude of the *R*-square changes. Together, the model was significant and explained 58% of the observed variance in predicting Satisfaction with Marriages of the Korean-American wives.

Table 43 presents the summary of the stepwise forward models for the dependent variable Satisfaction with Spouse of the wives. In selecting a model that offered the best combination of variables in predicting Satisfaction with Spouse, model 3 was chosen for following reasons:(1) it explained the highest percentage of the variance in predicting the wives' satisfaction with their spouses, (2) it included the most number of variables that were significant, and (3) their betas were strong and stable throughout different models. According to the *R*-Square and the *R*-Square Changes, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection explained the most (56.2%) variance in predicting the

Table 43

Summary of the Stepwise Forward Models for Wives' Satisfaction With Their Spouses

Model			ANOVA			Coefficients				
	<i>R</i> -square	<i>R</i> -Sq Change	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Variables	B	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	Sig.
1	.562	.562	1, 246	315.276	.000	Taffec	.06269	.749	17.756	.000
2	.604	.042	2, 245	186.543	.000	Taffec Tsexs	.04839 .06817	.579 .267	11.040 5.089	.000 .000
3*	.612	.009	3, 244	128.415	.000	Taffec Tsexs Tcomt	.04507 .06475 .03656	.539 .253 .105	9.856 4.848 2.329	.000 .000 .021

Note. Use of Probability of Entry: .09; Removal: .10. * Model selected.

wives' satisfaction with their spouses, which was followed by the variables of Sexual Satisfaction (4.2%) and Commitment to Sexual Fidelity (.9%). Together, the model was significant and explained 61.2% of the observed variance in predicting the wives' satisfaction with their spouses.

Table 44 presents the summary of the stepwise forward models for the dependent variable wife's Satisfaction with their Spousal Relationship. In selecting a model that presented the best combination of variables in explaining the wives satisfaction with their relationship with their spouses, model 3 was chosen for the following reasons: (1) it included the most number of variables that were significant and (2) their betas were stable throughout different models. According to the *R*-Square and the *R*-Square Changes, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection explained the most (59.9%)

Table 44

Summary of the Stepwise Forward Models for Wives' Satisfaction With Relationship

			ANOVA			Coefficients				
Model	<i>R</i> -Square	<i>R</i> -Sqr Change	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	Sig.
1	.599	.599	1, 246	366.890	.000	Taffec	.06790	.774	19.154	.000
2	.637	.038	2, 245	214.995	.000	Taffec Tsexs	.05354 .06849	.610 .255	12.165 5.092	.000 .000
3*	.651	.014	3, 244	151.861	.000	Taffec Tsexs Tcomt	.04907 .06388 .04922	.559 .238 .135	10.783 4.806 3.150	.000 .000 .002
4	.656	.005	4, 243	116.102	.000	Taffec Tsexs Tcomt Tgend	.04792 .06404 .04852 -.0250	.546 .239 .133 -1.931	10.501 4.844 3.122 -1.931	.000 .000 .002 .055

Note. Use of Probability of Entry: .09; Removal: .10. * Model selected.

variance in predicting the wives' satisfaction with their relationship with their spouses, which was followed by the variables of Sexual Satisfaction (3.8%) and Commitment to Sexual Fidelity (1.4%). Together, the model was significant and explained 65.1% of the observed variance in predicting the wives' satisfaction with their relationship with their spouses.

Table 45 presents the summary of the stepwise regression models for the dependent variable Satisfaction with Marriage (the first item of the KMSS) of the husbands. In selecting a model that presented the best combination of variables in explaining the husbands' satisfaction with their marriage, model 3 was chosen for the following reasons: (1) it explained the highest percentage of the variance in predicting the husbands' satisfaction with his marriage, (2) it included the most number of variables that were significant, and (3) their betas were stable throughout different models. According to the *R*-Square and the *R*-Square Changes, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level

Table 45

Summary of the Stepwise Forward Models for Husbands' Satisfaction With Their Marriage

Model	ANOVA			Coefficients						
	<i>R</i> -Square	<i>R</i> -Sq Change	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Variables	B	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	Sig.
1	.491	.491	1, 227	219.275	.000	Taffec	.06237	.701	14.808	.000
2	.524	.033	2, 226	124.644	.000	Taffec Tchild	.05541 .08986	.623 .198	12.470 3.970	.000 .000
3*	.535	.011	3, 225	86.337	.000	Taffec Tchild Tgend	.05541 .09458 .02959	.623 .209 .104	12.585 4.198 2.269	.000 .000 .024

Note. Use of Probability of Entry: .09; Removal: .10. * Model selected.

of Affection explained the most (49.1%) variance in predicting the husbands' satisfaction with their marriages, which was followed by the variables of Having Children (3.35%) and Androgynous Gender Role (1.1%) in order of descending magnitude of the *R*-Square Changes. Together, the model was significant and explained 53.5% of the observed variance in predicting the Korean-American husbands' satisfaction with their marriages.

Table 46 presents the summary of the stepwise forward models for the dependent variable Satisfaction with Spouse (the second item of the KMSS) of the husbands. In choosing a model that offered the best combination of variables in predicting the husband's satisfaction with their spouses, model 3 was chosen for the following reasons: (1) it included the most number of variables that were significant and (2) their betas were stable throughout different models. According to the *R*-Square and the *R*-Square Changes, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection explained the most

Table 46

Summary of the Stepwise Forward Models for Husbands' Satisfaction With Spouse

			ANOVA			Coefficients				
Model	<i>R</i> -square	<i>R</i> -Sq Change	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Variables	B	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	Sig.
1	.486	.486	1, 227	214.687	.000	Taffec	.06032	.697	14.652	.000
2	.516	.030	2, 226	120.354	.000	Taffec Tchild	.05390 .08268	.623 .188	12.365 3.723	.000 .000
3*	.526	.010	3, 225	83.070	.000	Taffec Tchild Tgend	.05391 .08708 .02757	.623 .198 .099	12.465 3.935 2.153	.000 .000 .032
4	.532	.007	4, 224	63.778	.000	Taffec Tchild Tgend Tsexs	.04915 .08515 .02756 .02346	.568 .193 .099 .101	9.769 3.863 2.162 1.824	.000 .000 .032 .070

Note. Use of Probability of Entry: .09; Removal: .10. * Model selected.

(48.6%) variance in predicting the husbands' satisfaction with their spouses, which was followed by the variables of Having Children (3%) and Androgynous Gender Roles (1%). Together, the model was significant and explained 52.6% of the observed variance in predicting the husbands' satisfaction with their spouses.

Table 47 presents the summary of the stepwise forward models for the dependent variable Satisfaction with Spousal Relationship (item 3 of the KMSS) of the husbands. In choosing a model that offered the best combination of variables in predicting the husbands' satisfaction with their relationship with their spouses, model 3 was chosen because: (1) it explained the most variance (56%) in predicting the husbands' satisfaction with their relationship with their spouses, (2) it included the most number of variables that were significant, and (3) their betas were stable throughout different models. According to the *R*-Square and the *R*-Square Changes, the variable Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection explained the most (51.2%) variance in predicting the husbands' satisfaction with their relationship with their spouses, which was followed by

Table 47

Summary of the Stepwise Forward Models for Husbands' Satisfaction With Relationship

			ANOVA			Coefficients				
Model	R-square	R-Sq Change	df	F	Sig.	Variables	B	Beta	t	Sig.
1	.512	.512	1, 227	238.238	.000	Taffec	.06349	.716	15.435	.000
2	.542	.030	2, 226	133.664	.000	Taffec Tchild	.05690 .08496	.641 .188	13.086 3.835	.000 .000
3*	.560	.018	3, 225	95.473	.000	Taffec Tchild Tsexs	.04902 .08176 .03892	.552 .181 .163	9.814 3.753 3.048	.000 .000 .003

Note. Use of Probability of Entry: .09; Removal: .10.

* Model selected.

the variables of Having Children (3.0%) and Sexual Satisfaction (1.8%). Together, the model was significant and explained 56% of the observed variance in predicting the husbands' satisfaction with their relationships with their spouses.

A summary of the models that offered the best combination of variables in predicting global marital satisfaction (the total of three items of the KMSS), Satisfaction with Marriage, Satisfaction with Spouse, and Satisfaction with Spousal Relationship, is discussed below. Table 48 presents the summary of the best predictive models in explaining the global marital satisfaction for husbands and wives together, the wives only, and the husbands only.

Table 48

Summary of the Best Predictive Models for Global Marital Satisfaction for Husbands and Wives Together, Wives Only, and Husbands Only

Predictors for Husbands & Wives & % of Variance	Predictors for Wives & % of Variance	Predictors for Husbands & % of Variance
Taffec Tsexs Tchild Trelh	Taffec Tsexs Tcomt Tchild	Taffec Tchild Tsexs Tgendr
62.6 %	68.2 %	60.7 %

Table 49 presents the summary of the best predictive models for three aspects of marital satisfaction, Satisfaction with Marriage, Satisfaction with Spouse, and Satisfaction with Relationship with their Spouses.

Table 49

Summary of the Best Predictive Models for Wives and Husbands in Satisfaction With Marriage, Satisfaction with Spouse, and Satisfaction With Relationship

Satisfaction With Marriage Predictors & % of Variance		Satisfaction With Spouse Predictors & % of Variance		Satisfaction With Relationship Predictors & % of Variance	
Wives	Husbands	Wives	Husbands	Wives	Husbands
Taffec Tsexs. Tchild	Taffec Tchild Tgendr	Taffec Tsexs Tcomt	Taffec Tchild Tgendr	Taffec Tsexs Tcomt	Taffec Tchild Tsexs
58 %	53.5 %	61.2 %	53.2 %	65.1 %	56 %

Research Question 4

Which of the 11 empirically derived factors will differentiate between highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied matched couples ?

These differences were identified through using Discriminant Analysis. The group of highly satisfied couples consisted of those couples who scored 5 to 6 on the mean of the three items on the KMSS (Dsat 2). The group of highly dissatisfied couples consisted of those couples who scored 1 to 2 on the mean of the three items on the KMSS (Dsat1). Table 50 presents the Function's Centroid and Wilk's Lamda Significance.

Table 50

Function's Centroid and Wilk's Lamda Significance

Dsat	Function 1	Wilk's Lamda	<i>df</i>	Sig.
1	-5.763	.373	11	.000
2	.289			

Table 51 presents the Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients.

Compared to the highly dissatisfied couples, the highly satisfied couples tended to have a higher level of expression of their affection to each other, to experience more positive attributes from having children, and to have higher levels of sexual satisfaction.

Table 51

Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients

Variable	Function
Taffec	.656
Tchild	.390
Tcomm	.044
Tcomt	.131
Tfamyd	-.222
Tgend	.020
Tkinsr	-.017
Trelh	.002
Tselfe	-.252
Tsexs	.361
Tshar	.180

Table 52 presents the means of three identified variables of the highly dissatisfied couples (group 1) and the highly satisfied couples (group 2). The Taffec (expressing affection) mean of the highly satisfied couples was almost 5 standard deviations (using the *SD* of group 2) higher than that of the highly dissatisfied couples. The Tsexs (sexual satisfaction) mean of the highly satisfied couples was almost 3.65 standard deviations (using the *SD* of group 2) higher than that of the highly dissatisfied couples. The Tchild

Table 52

Means and Standard Deviations of Three Variables of Highly Dissatisfied Couples (Group 1) and Highly Satisfied Couples (Group 2)

Variable	Group 1		SD of Group 1	Group 2		SD of Group 2
	N	M		N	M	
Taffec	16	25.8571	6.7580	334	62.6093	7.4978
Tchild	16	10.1429	3.1097	312	13.7419	1.6936
Tsexs	16	10.5000	4.1464	335	21.5986	3.0411

(having children) mean of the highly satisfied couples was almost 2 standard deviations (using the *SD* of group 2) higher than that of the highly dissatisfied couples.

Summary

T-tests were used to answer Research Questions 1 and 2. The means of the Korean-American husbands were significantly higher than those of the Korean-American wives.

Correlations and regression analyses were used to answer research question 3. Taken individually, all 11 variables were significant predictors of the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American Wives. In selecting a model that offered the best combination of variables in predicting the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives, the variables of Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection, Sexual Satisfaction, Commitment to Sexual Fidelity, and Having Children appeared in the model. It explained 68.2% of the variance.

For the Korean-American husbands, all 10 variables, except for having an Androgynous Gender Role, were significant in predicting marital satisfaction, taken

individually. The best predictive model for explaining the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands identified the 4 variables of Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection, Having Children, Sexual Satisfaction, and Androgynous Gender Role in the model.

In answering Research Question 4, discriminant analysis was used. Compared to the highly dissatisfied couples, the highly satisfied couples tended to have a higher level of expression of their affection to each other, to experience more positive attributes from having children, and to have higher levels of sexual satisfaction.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the research project including the general purpose, overview of related literature, description of the population sample, instrumentation, and discussion of findings. Following this are conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further study.

Summary

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to identify marital satisfaction factors that were important to Korean-American husbands and wives. In addition, this study investigated the differences between marital satisfaction levels in Korean-American husbands and wives.

Overview of Related Literature

The literature review section was divided into two sections. The first section covered the cultural understanding of Korean couples in Korea and the history of Korean immigration to the U.S. The second section included literature related to eighteen marital satisfaction factors and several studies that were conducted for specific ethnic

populations.

Despite the many changes and transformations that Koreans have gone through, the traditional role of the husband and the wife still controls many aspects of Korean families in Korea. Men belong to the public sphere, and women to the private domestic sphere. Women are viewed merely as a part of the extended members of a husband's family. She is the housekeeper, the child-bearer for the posterity of her husband's family, and the caretaker of children to work for the success of her husband and children.

Korean-Americans face various acculturation issues. Child-rearing strategies have to be altered. The dynamics of American couples differ vastly from those of Korean couples. The necessity of dual employment in America challenges the tenacity of Korean-Americans in maintaining the traditional male and female roles. Language difficulty and underemployment also frustrate many Korean-Americans.

Korean immigration began in 1903 with sugar plantation employment in Hawaii. Another major wave of immigration occurred after the Korean War in 1950 during which war brides were brought in by many American soldiers. The passage of the Immigration Act in 1965 brought a dramatic increase of Asian immigration including Koreans. The Korean-American population had reached 2,110,564 by 1997.

Eighteen factors that related to marital satisfaction were identified. The factors that revealed a positive relationship with marital satisfaction were as follows: the level of a couple's affection for each other, the level of a couple's commitment to each other, the couple's ability to communicate with each other, the couple's ability to resolve conflicts between each other, a couple's satisfaction level in sharing activities and time together, the couple's ability to express their feelings, the level of a couple's empathy toward each

other, the level of agreement between the husband and the wife in handling finances, the division of housework between spouses, the level of a couple's self-esteem, the level of a couple's sexual satisfaction, and the level of similarity in a couple's value systems.

Having children, especially children under age 18 and the number of children, was inversely related to marital satisfaction. Research on gender role differences generated unequivocal results. When gender role differences showed a positive relationship with marital satisfaction, the traditional gender role attitude appeared to have a positive relationship whereas the non-traditional gender role attitude had a negative relationship.

For African-Americans and Koreans in Korea, the wife's close relationships with her husband's parents was significantly related to their marital happiness. For Caucasian couples, it had only a marginal relationship to the wife's marital satisfaction. Studies investigating the impact of religious homogamy on marital satisfaction have generated inconclusive results. Two studies showed positive relationships, and two other studies showed no relationship with marital satisfaction.

Many variables related to marital satisfaction appeared in the studies of personality. Negative affectivity and high neuroticism affected marital satisfaction negatively. The relationships between similarity of personality, compatibility, extroversion, congruency, and marital satisfaction were unequivocal. Identifying the cause of problems as being in the partner negatively predicted later satisfaction in marriage whereas self-attribution positively predicted later satisfaction. Agreeableness, tender-mindedness, conscientiousness, and having a benign interpretation of a partner's negative behaviors had a positive relationship with happy marriages. Irritableness and impatience, which are traits of Type A personality, affected marital satisfaction

negatively while one's orientation to achievement had no relationship to marital satisfaction.

For Korean couples in Korea, the independent variables that were positively related to marital satisfaction were: traditional tendencies in gender role attitudes, kinship contacts with parents, especially with the husband's mother, the wife's subsidiary financial contribution, the husband's increased share of house hold labor, love-matched marriage, agreement in traditional attitudes toward housework, emotional support (for husbands' marital satisfaction), and consistency between behaviors and attitudes (Kwon, 1992).

Independent variables that were negatively related to marital satisfaction were: traditional tendencies in the housekeeper role, the husband's traditional attitudes toward sharing of housework, the traditional division of household labor in which the wife had greater responsibilities, the wife's sharing of the provider roles, and arranged marriages (this affected wives' marital satisfaction negatively) (Kwon, 1992).

For Chinese-Americans, agreement in life aims and relating to in-laws and friends were the two components that emerged as important predictors of marital satisfaction. Communication level failed to make a significant contribution (Ying, 1991).

For Japanese couples in Japan, factors that were positively related to marital satisfaction were: dyadic consensus (agreement on friends, philosophy, recreation, sex, finance, conventionality, in-laws, confiding in the partner, and affection), satisfaction, flexibility (mutual give-and-take), staying together at home, and interest sharing (same interest and marital agreement) (Kitamura et al., 1995).

For Indians, the husbands identified sexual satisfaction, proper understanding,

right marital attitude, faithfulness, and importance of giving (in the order of importance) as five factors contributing to happiness in marriage. The wives stated that faithfulness, companionship, love and affection, the importance of giving, and sexual satisfaction were the most important factors in marital happiness (Kumar, 1986).

Hispanic-oriented respondents were more pragmatic about love and less idealistic about sex than Anglo-Americans. Passionate love was correlated with marital satisfaction for Anglo-Americans and both groups of Mexican-Americans. Partner similarity was evident in both groups, and marital satisfaction was best predicted for all groups by passionate love scores.

For African-Americans, commitment and mutual understanding were the most important factors that contributed to making the marriage satisfying. God-centeredness was another salient factor that was perceived by respondents as contributing to marital satisfaction (King, 1980).

The factors that were significant for happy marriage for Swedish couples were: handling finances, matters of recreation, demonstration of affection, sex relations, conventionality (correct or proper behavior), similar philosophy of life, consensus in goals and things believed important in life, amount of time spent together, equal division of household tasks, leisure time interests and activities, kissing one's mate, engaging in outside interests together, career decisions, and calm discussions of marital issues (Kaslow et al., 1994).

Sampling

The Korean-American population for this study was reached through Korean-

American church organizations in America. The Korean-American Church Directory, published in April 1998 by the Christian Publishing House in California, was used for the selection of churches. Through a random selection process, every 30th church was called and asked for voluntary participation.

A total of 2,910 surveys was sent out to participating churches. A total of 622 surveys was returned. Of the 622 surveys, 558 were usable for analysis. Of the 558 subjects, approximately 49% were husbands and 51% were wives. Three hundred forty-four surveys were from matched couples. The mean age of the respondents was about 42 years old. The mean value for marital duration was about 15 years. The mean residential duration in America was about 13 years. The mean yearly income of Korean-American homes was about \$46,300.

Instrumentation

This was an exploratory study that endeavored to discover factors that were important to the marital satisfaction of Korean-Americans. From the review of literature, 17 major factors that were related to marital satisfaction were identified. Those 17 factors included: the level of a couple's affection for each other, the level of a couple's commitment to each other, the couple's ability to communicate with each other, the couple's ability to resolve conflicts between each other, having children, the couple's satisfaction level in sharing activities and time together, the couple's ability to express their feelings, the level of a couple's empathy toward each other, the couple's family dynamics in their family of origin, the level of agreement between the husband and wife in handling finances, the couple's attitude toward gender role differences, the division of

housework between spouses, the quality of a couple's kinship relationship, the level of a couple's self-esteem, the level of a couple's sexual satisfaction, the level of a couple's religious homogamy, and the level of similarity in a couple's value system.

Subscales for the 17 factors were constructed by borrowing 55 items from existing instruments and by me creating 37 items. The instrument comprised a total of 92 items. The dependent variable—marital satisfaction—was measured by three items on the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale. The total number of items on the survey form was 95. This instrument then was empirically tested by Korean-American husbands and wives. Factor analysis was used to discover the underlying factor structure that was indicated by the Korean-American sample population.

The factor analysis yielded 11 interpretable factors. These factors were: Perceived and Expressed Level of Affection, Sharing Activities, Sexual Satisfaction, Kinship Relationship, Family Dynamics, Communication, Having Children, Self-Esteem, Commitment to Sexual Fidelity, Religious Homogamy, and Androgynous Gender Role. These 11 factors appeared to correspond with 11 of the 17 factors which were originally identified through the review of literature. The total number of the items that were included in the final factor analysis solution was 66.

Item analyses were used to examine the reliability of each factor. The coefficient alpha, the measure of internal consistency, of each of the 11 factors ranged from .6517 to .9446. The coefficient alpha of the instrument with all 66 items was .9430.

Discussion of Findings

The findings of this study are summarized according to the four research

questions which were answered by various statistical procedures.

Research Question 1

What is the marital satisfaction level among Korean-American husbands and wives? This was measured by computing *t*-tests for the means of the independent sample of the total population of Korean-American husbands and wives.

Four means were calculated for three items: (1) Satisfaction with Marriage, (2) Satisfaction with Spouse, (3) Satisfaction with Spousal Relationship on the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale and the global marital satisfaction score (total score of three items on the KMSS). In all four aspects of marriage, Korean-American husbands appeared to be much more satisfied than the Korean-American wives.

Research Question 2

What is the difference in the marital satisfaction level between Korean-American matched couples?

Using *t*-test for the means of the dependent *t*-test, the results of *t*-tests of the four means, the three items on the KMSS and the global marital satisfaction score, indicated that Korean-American husbands were significantly more satisfied with their marriages than their wives.

The results of both Research Question 1 and 2 were very opposite of my own expectations. A common belief in Korean society in America is that men are not as happy as women because they are not employed at the same educational level and/or experience level as they were in Korea (Min, 1995). Despite underemployment and cultural exposure to Western society, Korean-American men were still happier than

Korean-American women. In searching for an explanation concerning this difference between the Korean-American husbands and wives, *t*-tests for all of the 11 empirically derived factors and the 17 judgmentally derived factors were examined. Only 2 factors revealed significant mean differences: Equal Division of Housework and Religious Homogamy. The Korean-American wives perceived that their housework was less equally divided between husbands and wives than the Korean-American husbands did. This finding is consistent with Min's (1995) observation, who had also stated that most Korean-American wives had been experiencing difficulties managing two full-time jobs: housework and their career (Min, 1995). In addition, this finding is consistent with the results of many studies (Hochschild & Machung, 1989; Huppe & Cyr, 1997; Morinaga et al., 1992) that reported most women in America suffer from inequality of housework division.

The Korean-American wives also believed that there were more religious heterogamy practices in their homes than did the Korean-American husbands. Although there could be many other reasons for the Korean-American wives being less satisfied than the Korean-American husbands, these two factors were identified within the factors that were included in this study.

Research Question 3

Which of the empirically derived factors are related to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands and wives?

This question was answered by using several regression analyses. On the total of three items on the KMSS, the dependent variable, 11 separate simple regression analyses

for each of the 11 predictors were run to examine the contribution of each variable to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American couples. To find the variables that explained most of the variance in predicting marital satisfaction in the presence of all 11 variables, standard multiple regression analyses were used. In addition, stepwise forward and backward regression analyses were used to find the best predictor model in explaining the marital satisfaction of Korean-American wives and husbands.

When taken individually, all 11 variables were significant predictors of marital satisfaction in Korean-American wives. The percentages of variance explained by each variable in predicting the marital satisfaction of Korean-American wives were: 62.3% by expressed and perceived level of affection, 41% by having sexual satisfaction, 36.8% by sharing activities, 35.7% by communication, 23.0% by having positive kinship relationship (with parents-in-laws), 19.8% by keeping sexual commitment, 12% by having children, 8.6% by having had a positive family dynamic in her family of origin, 5.6% by the level of self-esteem, 3.2% by keeping androgynous role (in an inverse direction), and 2.2% by maintaining religious homogeneity.

Except for the variable of keeping androgynous roles, all 10 variables correlated positively with marital satisfaction in the Korean-American wives. The negative correlation between maintaining androgynous role and the marital satisfaction of Korean-American wives was consistent with the result of the Kwon (1992) study that was conducted using Koreans in Korea. Keeping the traditional, rather than the androgynous, gender role correlated positively with the marital satisfaction of Korean couples in Korea.

In looking for a model that offered the best combination in predicting the marital satisfaction of Korean-American wives, expressing affection to each other (which

explained 62% of the variance in marital satisfaction), experiencing sexual satisfaction (which explained 4.6% of the variance), and keeping each other's commitment to sexual fidelity (which explained .9% of the variance) became the three most important contributors to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American wives. Having children was significant as well, but it contributed very little (which explained .07%) to the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives.

Expressing affection to each other was the most important factor by itself and in combination with other factors. It explained 62.3% by itself and 62.2% in combination with other factors. These results were very different from the results of Kwon's research (1992) and statements that had been made about Korean women in Korea (Yoon, 1990). Yoon (1990) stated that building loving intimacy between husband and wife was not the primary concern for Korean couples. Kwon (1992) reported that the level of emotional (a part of expressing affection) support did not make a difference in the level of marital satisfaction of the Korean wives in Korea. Furthermore, Min (1995) has stated that Koreans have always believed that expressing emotions of any kind was a sign of immaturity in women (Min, 1995).

The second surprising discovery from this study was that having a satisfying sexual relationship emerged as the second most important factor for marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives by itself and in combination with other factors. It explained 41% of the variance by itself and 4.6% in addition to the contribution of expressing affection. Koreans do not usually talk about sex (a common courtesy among Koreans). A common belief among Koreans is that sex is only for men. The perception of sex has been that women should just be available for whatever and whenever the man

needs sex (Kwon, 1992). Perhaps this was the reason that the variable of sexual satisfaction was not even included in Kwon's study.

The third interesting discovery was that the variable Having Children was not one of the first three important factors in predicting the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives. Taken individually, having children accounted for 12% of the variance and was the seventh largest factor in order of descending magnitude. In searching for the best predictive model for marital satisfaction in Korean-American wives, having children added only .7% more (in addition to the contribution that was made by expressing affection, sexual satisfaction, and keeping sexual commitment). This finding was very different from the statements that had been made by Kwon (1992) and Min (1995) in claiming that having children was a crucial factor for marital satisfaction, especially for Korean women.

Even when three items (Satisfaction with Marriage, Satisfaction with Spouse, and Satisfaction with Spousal Relationship) of the KMSS were separately evaluated, expressing affection to each other and sexual satisfaction were the two most important contributors, across the three items, to the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives. Commitment to sexual fidelity was the third most important factor for maintaining Satisfaction with Spouse and Satisfaction with Spousal Relationship. Having children was the third important factor only in predicting the aspect of their Satisfaction with Marriage of the Korean-American wives.

These findings--the importance of expressing affection, experiencing sexual satisfaction, and keeping commitment to sexual fidelity among Korean-American wives--appear to be more consistent with the studies that have been done in America. Most of

the studies that examined the relationship between marital satisfaction and expressing affection to each other (Galley, 1995; Huston & Vangelisti, 1991; Kumar, 1986), maintaining sexual fidelity to each other (Birchler & Fals-Stewart, 1994; Lund, 1985; Sanderson & Kurdek, 1993), and enjoying sexual satisfaction (Aron & Henkemeyer, 1995; Cupach & Comstock, 1990; Donnelly, 1993; Henderson-King & Veroff, 1994; White, 1985) indicated that they were significant and important predictors to the marital satisfaction of many other groups of Americans.

For the Korean-American husbands, the order of importance was slightly different from that of the Korean-American wives. Taken individually, expressing affection to each other was, as it was with the wives, the most important factor for marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands. It accounted for 51.5% of the variance. It was followed by sharing activities (which accounted for 28.9% of the variance), having open communication (which accounted for 26.9% of the variance), sexual satisfaction (which accounted for 23.0% of the variance), having positive kinship relationship with parents in-law (which accounted for 21.7% of the variance), having children (which accounted for 20.6% of the variance), self-esteem (which accounted for 12.4% of the variance), keeping sexual commitment (which accounted for 10.0% of the variance), having had a positive family dynamic in his family of origin (which accounted for 5.8% of the variance), and maintaining religious homogamy (which accounted for 3.4% of the variance). Having an androgynous gender role, by itself, was not significant to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands.

In searching for a model that offered the best combination of variables in explaining the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands, the following four

factors were significant: expressing affection to each other, receiving positive attributes from having children, enjoying sexual satisfaction, and having androgynous gender roles in their homes.

Again expressing affection to each other was the most important factor for the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands. Sexual satisfaction was the fourth most important factor as compared to being the second most important factor for Korean-American wives. This result was very different from the results of Morokoff and Gilliland (1993). Morokoff and Gilliland reported that the husbands' sexual satisfaction was more highly correlated with their marital satisfaction than was their wives' sexual satisfaction correlated with their marital satisfaction.

The fact that the component of having children was the second most important factor in the predictive model for the Korean-American husband's marital satisfaction was different from the result of Kwon's (1992) study in that he concluded that having children was more important to the Korean wives than it was to the Korean husbands in Korea. This result was also contrary to most studies that have been done in America (Plechaty et al., 1996; Orbuch et al., 1996) in that having children was a negative factor to the marital satisfaction of various groups of Americans. Kitano and Daniels (1988) also concluded that having children was a very difficult task in immigrant homes because children acculturate faster than their parents. However, it appears that the Korean-American husbands still hold more tightly onto the value of having children than do the Korean-American wives or any other population in America.

Even when three items (Satisfaction with Marriage, Satisfaction with Spouse, and Satisfaction with Relationship with Spouse) of the KMSS were evaluated separately,

expressing affection and having children were the two most important factors across the three items. Then, having an androgynous gender role became the third most important factor for Satisfaction with Marriage and Satisfaction with Spouse. Only in the aspect of Satisfaction with Spousal Relationship did experiencing sexual satisfaction become the third most important factor for the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands.

Although having an androgynous gender role attitude became the fourth factor in the best predictive model, its correlation with marital satisfaction was not significant (.066). Taken individually, its contribution (which accounted for .4% of the variance) to the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands was not significant. There was no clear understanding as to why having an androgynous gender role became significant in the predictive model. Preferring androgynous gender roles by Korean-American husbands was inconsistent with the results of Kwon's (1992) study and some of the studies that were done in America (Lye & Biblarz, 1993; Perry-Jenkins & Crouter, 1990). The Korean husbands in Korea and some Americans (Lye & Biblarz, 1993; Perry-Jenkins & Crouter, 1990) prefer to keep traditional gender role attitudes in their homes.

Research Question 4

Which of the 11 empirically derived factors will differentiate between the highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied matched couples?

These differences was identified through using *Discriminant Analysis*. The highly satisfied group consisted of those subjects who scored 5 to 6 on the mean of three subscales of KMSS. The highly dissatisfied group consisted of those subjects who scored 1 to 2 on the mean of three subscales of the KMSS.

Compared to the highly dissatisfied couples, the highly satisfied couples tended to have a higher level of expression of affection to each other, to receive positive contribution from having children, and to have higher levels of sexual satisfaction.

Conclusions

In summary, the four factors that appeared in the best predictive model for the marital satisfaction of Korean-American wives were (in order of descending magnitude): expressing affection to each other, having sexual satisfaction, maintaining sexual fidelity to each other, and having children. The four factors that appeared in the best predictive model for the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands were (in order of descending magnitude): expressing affection to each other, having children, experiencing sexual satisfaction, and having androgynous gender role attitudes.

Taken individually, the other seven factors were also important predictors of the marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives and husbands. Sharing activities together was very important for the marital satisfaction of both husbands and wives. It explained 28.9% of the variance in predicting marital satisfaction of the Korean-American husbands and 36.8% of the variance in predicting marital satisfaction of the Korean-American wives. Having open communication between spouses was also an important factor for both husbands and wives. It accounted for 26.9% of the variance of the husbands' marital satisfaction and 35.7% of the variance of the wives' marital satisfaction. Having a positive kinship relationship was also an important factor for both the Korean-American husbands and wives. It accounted for 21.7% of the variance of the husband's marital satisfaction and 23.0% of the variance of the wives' marital

satisfaction.

Clinical Implications

Contrary to common beliefs and differing from the results of a previous study of Koreans in Korea (Kwon, 1992), the most important factor for Korean-American husbands and wives was expressing their affection to each other. When providing marital therapy for Korean-American couples, clients may benefit greatly from marital therapy that includes the following interventions: (1) giving permission to talk about expression of affection, (2) having each spouse develop a list of ways in which he or she feels loved and cared for, and (3) assisting each spouse to practice expressing love in ways that make his or her spouse feel loved.

Sexual satisfaction was important to the marital satisfaction of both Korean-American wives and husbands. This may mean that exploring issues that are related to sexual satisfaction might be an important aspect of marital therapy. When there is sexual dissatisfaction expressed by the husband and/or the wife, sex therapy might be an important component of the marital therapy in helping Korean-American couples. Korean-American couples may benefit greatly from the following interventions: providing permission to talk about sexual interaction, having each spouse explore his or her sexually pleasurable postures or interactions, possibly helping them to meet each other's need for sexual frequency, and helping them to improve their ability to elicit sexual activity.

Taken individually, sharing activities together was important to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands and wives. Being sensitive to any marital

issue that might stem from sharing leisure or housework activities might improve positive outcomes of therapy. Exploring individual preferences in leisure activities and negotiating choices of activities may need to happen. Clients should be encouraged to share both leisure activities and housework. It might be particularly important to help couples divide household tasks equitably.

Having sexual commitment to each other was more important for the wives than for the husbands. Exploring a couple's sexual commitment to each other and identifying any distress that could be related to an extra marital affair/s might be an important issue in marital therapy for Korean-American couples.

Experiencing positive feedback from having children was important to both husbands and wives. Clinicians may need to explore a couple's dynamics with their children and prepare to meet the stresses that are related to having children.

Taken individually, in varying degrees other variables such as having good communication, maintaining positive relationships with parents-in-law, keeping high self-esteem, having experienced positive family dynamics in his/her family of origin, and maintaining religious homogamy were also important factors to the marital satisfaction of Korean-American husbands and wives. Being sensitive to these issues and providing necessary interventions accordingly would enhance the success of marital therapy for Korean-American husbands and wives.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

As much as I tried to collect a sample that would represent the Korean-American population in America, the entire sample population was reached through churches only.

Demographic information indicated that more than 90% of the population were Christians and Catholics. Only 14 out of 558 subjects identified themselves as non-Christians.

Another limitation that stemmed from the demographic information was that only 2 of the 558 subjects were born in America. Five hundred fifty-six were born in Korea and immigrated to America at some point in their life.

Based on this demographic information, two recommendations are made for further research. A research study that would include more non-Christian subjects would add a better understanding about Korean-Americans who are not Christians. Another study that may offer comparative data would be a study that examines important factors contributing to the marital satisfaction of Korean-Americans who were born in America.

It was noticed that about 30% of the variance of marital satisfaction of the wives and about 40% of the variance of the husbands was not explained by the 11 factors that were used in this study. All of the 17 judgmentally derived factors were used in running standard multiple regression to examine the contribution of the 6 factors that were excluded in the process of factor analysis. Adding those 6 factors explained only about 2% more for marital satisfaction of the husbands and wives in addition to the total variance that was explained by the 11 factors. It would be helpful to conduct an additional research study that would examine the contribution of personality factors.

This was an exploratory study, and a new marital instrument was developed for Korean-Americans. Testing this instrument with other ethnic or racial populations would add some comparative data in evaluating the value of this new instrument.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

**INTRODUCTORY LETTER FOR
SURVEY PARTICIPATION**

Andrews University

*Soonja Lee, M. A.
5050 E. Bluffview Dr.
Berrien Springs, MI 49103*

Greetings to the Korean-American families in America. Through the work of many researchers marital satisfaction has been identified as an important factor for success, physical and mental health, and happiness in life. Furthermore, several studies have already been conducted to identify specific information about various ethnic populations such as Japanese-American, Chinese-Americans, German-Americans, Mexican-Americans, and African-Americans. There is, however, no study conducted for Korean-Americans. I feel that a study is needed in order to understand what makes Korean-American couples more satisfied and happy.

I am in the process of completing a doctoral degree in Counseling Psychology at Andrews University. As a dissertation project, I decided that I would really like to understand what aspects of marriage make Korean-American homes more successful and happy. My sincere hope is that I will be able to use the result of this study to increase the marital satisfaction level of Korean-American homes so that we will be able to live more satisfying lives. Also we will be better equipped to educate our children for their future in America.

Your willingness to participate will make this study possible. I ask that you not confer with one another on your answers, as I am interested in knowing about husband's and wife's unique experiences. Please feel free to answer honestly as you check each item because confidentiality will be ensured throughout handling the survey form. You are not asked to place your name or any other personal information that will identify it with you as a person. Once you have completed the form, please seal the envelope, and you may either mail it back to me individually or return it to your pastor so that he would be able to mail it back to me. The survey information will be used only for statistical calculations.

If you have any questions about the survey, you may feel free to contact me at the phone number or the address below or my advisor's address below. I do appreciate your time for completing the questionnaire.

Soonja Lee: Phone: 616-471-9371
Address: 5050 E. Bluffview Dr.
Berrien Springs, MI. 49103
Advisor: Dr. Frederick Kosinski
Andrews University
Educational and Counseling Psychology
Bell Hall, Room 160
Berrien Springs, MI 49104

Sincerely,

Soonja Choi Lee, M. A.

Ph. D. Candidate

Andrews University

이(최) 순 자, M. A.
5050 E. Bluffview Dr.
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안녕하십니까?

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시간을 내 주심을 인해 진심으로 감사드립니다. 이 설문지에 대하여 질문이 있으시면 위 주소나 전화 (616) 471-9371로, 또는 아래 지도교수에게 문의해 주시기 바랍니다.

지도교수: Dr. Fredrick Kosinski
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이 (최) 순자 올림

박사과정 대학원생, 앤드류스대학교

APPENDIX B
SURVEY FORM

Please check (√) in the box where you feel most appropriate at present time.	Extremely dissatisfied	very dissatisfied	somewhat dissatisfied	somewhat satisfied	very satisfied	extremely satisfied
1. How satisfied are you with your marriage_?						
2. How satisfied are you with your husband/wife as a spouse?						
3. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your spouse?						

Please check (√) in the box where you feel most appropriate at present time.	Never	seldom	some-times	often	always
4. I feel deep affection from my spouse.					
5. I understand exactly what my spouse means.					
6. I like to handle problems in the same way I have always handled.					
7. My spouse keeps most of his (her) feelings inside.					
8. My spouse seems to enjoy sex as much as I do.					
9. My spouse has a good relationship with my parents.					
10. Financial difficulties are the cause of our marital distress.					
11. A large portion of arguments I have with my spouse are caused by our children.					
12. My spouse understands exactly what I mean.					
13. My spouse does many things to show me that he (she) loves me.					
14. We have pleasant visits with our parents-in-law on a regular basis.					
15. I am able to communicate my needs to my spouse.					
Please check (√) in the box where you feel most appropriate at present time.	Never	seldom	some-times	often	always
16. My spouse and I enjoy doing things together.					
17. My spouse and I go to the same church.					
18. We are creative in how we resolve conflicts.					
19. My spouse doesn't make me feel loved.					
20. My spouse freely expresses his (her) feelings to me.					
21. Only I, myself, go to a church.					
22. I do not have a good relationship with my parents- in- law					
23. I give in to my spouse's insistence.					
24. We share hobbies and interests together.					
25. My spouse remains distant when I am feeling down.					
26. I feel free to express all my true feelings to my spouse.					

Please check (✓) in the box where you feel most appropriate at present time.	Never	seldom	some-times	often	always
27. My spouse and I spend time together in many different kinds of play and recreation					
28. It is an upsetting thing for my spouse and me to discuss our finances.					
29. My spouse often fails to understand my point of view.					
30. I am unhappy with our sexual relationship.					
31. The members of my family were always very close to each other.					
32. My spouse buys too many things without consulting with me first.					
33. My spouse takes my feelings seriously and supports me in a compassionate way.					
34. My childhood was probably happier than most.					
35. My spouse doesn't take enough time to do some of the things I'd like to do.					
36. Whenever I feel down, my spouse supports me with encouragement.					
37. My spouse and I agree on what is right and proper conduct.					
38. We avoid issues when problems arise.					
39. I keep most of my feelings inside.					
40. Our sex life is entirely satisfactory.					
41. My wife does the cooking, cleaning, and takes care of children.					
Please check (✓) in the box where you feel most appropriate at present time.	Never	seldom	some-times	often	always
42. My spouse is warm and friendly toward me.					
43. My spouse and I rarely have sexual intercourse.					
44. I had a rather unhappy childhood.					
45. My spouse makes me feel he (she) loves me.					
46. Whenever I feel sad, my spouse understands my pain.					
47. About the only time I'm with my spouse is at meals and bed time.					
48. My spouse is a very good manager of finances.					
49. My spouse and I have the same opinion in most social norms and expectations.					
50. My wife does all of the house work plus her work outside the home.					
51. Only my spouse goes to a church					
52. We settle our conflicts in a fair and democratic manner.					
53. My spouse and I decide together how we should spend our income.					
54. Whenever my spouse is feeling down, he (she) comes to me for support.					
55. My spouse and I communicate very little.					

Please check (√) in the box where you feel most appropriate at present time.	Never	seldom	some-times	often	always
56. I would like to improve the quality of our sexual relationship.					
57. We don't go to a church.					
58. My spouses value system is very different from that of mine.					
59. My husband is responsible for the yard work and repairing the car and house.					
60. I feel deep affection toward my spouse.					
61. Both my spouse and I can freely express our feelings to each other.					
62. I have a good relationship with my parents-in-law.					
63. My spouse demands that I follow his way of handling problems.					
64. My spouse is too strict in adhering to social norms and expectations.					
65. My poor relationship with my parents-in-law is causing conflicts in our marriage.					
66. My parents did not care for each other.					
67. My spouse and I equally share our household tasks.					
68. Our marriage might have been happier if we had not had children.					
69. I go to one church and my spouse goes to a different church.					
70. My spouse is too liberal in keeping social rules and regulations.					
71. My spouse sometimes shows too little enthusiasm for sex.					

Please check (√) in the box where you feel most appropriate at present time.	strongly disagree	disagree	agree half the time	agree	strongly agree
72. Having children has increased the happiness of our marriage.					
73. A woman's place is in the home.					
74. My spouse has never been sexually unfaithful.					
75. Earning the family income is primarily the responsibility of the husband.					
76. I am quite satisfied with the amount of time my spouse and I spend in leisure.					
77. My parent's marriage would be a good example to follow for any married couple.					
78. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.					
79. The husband should be the head of the family.					
80. I have never been sexually unfaithful to my spouse.					
81. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.					
82. Having children helps our marriage to be more lively and happy.					
83. I am faithfully committed to my present marriage.					

Please check (√) in the box where you feel most appropriate at present time.	Strongly disagree	disagree	agree half the time	agree	strongly agree
84. Our religious differences do not interfere with the quality of our marital relationship.					
85. The wife should help her husband's career rather than having one for herself.					
86. Our children have kept our marriage together.					
87. I think I am no good at all.					
88. My spouse has had an affair/s with another person.					
89. My parents loved each other					
90. The wife should be able to choose a career outside the home Just as her husband does.					
91. I have a low opinion of myself.					
92. The difference in our religious belief is a cause of marital distress.					
93. I am able to do things as well as most other people.					
94. I have had an affair/s with another person.					
95. Unequal division of housework is contributing to our unhappy marriage.					

Demographic Information

- Husband Wife Born in America Born in Korea Age ()
- arranged marriage marriage by self selection marriage by self selection after match made by parents
- English: none, very poor, poor, fair, good, very good, excellent
- Years lived in America () Years of Marriage () Number of Children ()

Marriage	Education	Income	Employment	Religion
<input type="checkbox"/> First marriage <input type="checkbox"/> Second marriage <input type="checkbox"/> Third marriage <input type="checkbox"/> More than third Marriage	<input type="checkbox"/> Elementary <input type="checkbox"/> Middle School <input type="checkbox"/> High School <input type="checkbox"/> Undergraduate <input type="checkbox"/> Graduate school	<input type="checkbox"/> less than \$10,000 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 10,000-19,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 20,000-29,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 30,000-39,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 40,000-49,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 50,000-59,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 60,000-69,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 70,000-79,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 80,000-89,000 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 90,000-99,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 100,000 or more	<input type="checkbox"/> Full-time <input type="checkbox"/> Part-time <input type="checkbox"/> Temporary <input type="checkbox"/> Unemployed <input type="checkbox"/> Own business	<input type="checkbox"/> Methodist <input type="checkbox"/> Mormon <input type="checkbox"/> Purist <input type="checkbox"/> Full Gospel <input type="checkbox"/> Adventist <input type="checkbox"/> Presbyterian <input type="checkbox"/> Baptist <input type="checkbox"/> Judaism <input type="checkbox"/> Catholic <input type="checkbox"/> Buddhist <input type="checkbox"/> Islam <input type="checkbox"/> Others <input type="checkbox"/> None

현재의 느낌이 가장 가까운 것에 V 표 해 주시면 됩니다	지극히 불만족	내약히 불만족	타당히 불만족	다소 만족	대단히 만족	지극히 만족
1. 당신은 결혼생활에 얼마나 만족하십니까?						
2. 당신은 당신의 남편 혹은 아내를 배우자로서 얼마나 만족하십니까?						
3. 당신은 배우자와의 관계에 있어서 얼마나 만족하십니까?						

현재의 느낌이 가장 가까운 것에 V 표 해 주시면 됩니다	전혀 그렇지 않다	드물게 그렇다	반쯤 그렇다	가끔 그렇다	항상 그렇다
4. 나는 배우자에게서 깊은 애정을 느낀다.					
5. 나는 내 배우자의 말의 의미를 정확하게 이해한다.					
6. 나는 문제들을 내가 늘 해왔던 방법으로 풀기를 원한다.					
7. 내 배우자는 대부분의 그(녀)의 감정을 마음속에 간직해버린다.					
8. 나의 배우자는 성 생활을 나만큼 즐기는 것 같다.					
9. 내 배우자는 나의 부모님과 좋은 관계를 갖고 있다.					
10. 재정의 궁핍은 우리 결혼생활에 고통 요인이다.					
11. 배우자와 의 언쟁중 다수가 자녀들 때문에 생긴다.					
12. 내 배우자는 내 말의 의미를 정확하게 이해한다.					
13. 나의 배우자는 여러 방법으로 내게 사랑을 표현한다.					
14. 우리 정기적으로 양가의 부모님들을 즐겨 방문한다.					
15. 나는 나의 필요를 배우자와 잘 대화할 수 있다.					
현재의 느낌이 가장 가까운 것에 V 표 해 주시면 됩니다	전혀 그렇지 않다	드물게 그렇다	반쯤 그렇다	가끔 그렇다	항상 그렇다
16. 나와 배우자는 무언가 함께 하는 것을 즐긴다.					
17. 나의 배우자와 나는 같은 교회에 다닌다.					
18. 우리 갈등을 해결하는 데 있어서 독창적이다.					
19. 나의 배우자는 내가 사랑받고 있다고 느끼게 해주지 않는다.					
20. 내 배우자는 내게 그(녀)의 기분을 자유롭게 표현한다.					
21. 나만 교회에 다닌다.					
22. 나는 시부모/장인 장모님과 좋은 관계를 맺고 있지 않다.					
23. 나는 내 배우자의 주장에 따른다.					
24. 우리 부부는 취미와 관심사를 함께 나눈다.					
25. 내 기분이 좋지 않을 때 내 배우자는 나를 멀리하고자 한다.					
26. 나는 내 모든 진심을 배우자에게 주저없이 표현한다.					

현재의 느낌에 가장 가까운 것에 V 표 해 주시면 됩니다	전혀 그렇지 않다	드물게 그렇다	어중그렇다	자주 그렇다	항상 그렇다
27. 나와 배우자는 여러 종류의 오락과 여가 활동으로 시간을 함께 보낸다.					
28. 가계를 의논하는 일은 나와 배우자에게 기분 좋지 않는 일이다.					
29. 내 배우자는 종종 내 말의 요점을 잘 이해하지 못한다.					
30. 나는 우리의 성 생활에 불만이다.					
31. 나의 원 가족들은 항상 서로 아주 가깝게 지냈다.					
32. 내 배우자는 나와 의논 없이 너무 많은 것들을 구입한다.					
33. 내 배우자는 내 감정을 심각하게 받아들여 이해심 있게 격려해준다.					
34. 아마도 나의 어린시절은 대부분의 사람들보다 행복했던 것 같다.					
35. 나의 배우자는 내가 하고싶은 것을 함께 하는데 시간을 충분히 할애하지 않는다.					
36. 내가 기분이 언짢을 때마다 내 배우자는 격려로 나를 지지해준다.					
37. 우리는 무엇이 옳고 타당한 행동인지에 대해 의견이 일치한다.					
38. 우린 문제가 생길 때 그 문제를 회피한다.					
39. 나는 대부분의 감정을 마음속에 간직하고 만다.					
40. 우리의 성생활은 전적으로 만족스럽다.					
41. 내 아내는 요리, 청소 자녀들을 돌보는 일을 한다.					
현재의 느낌에 가장 가까운 것에 V 표 해 주시면 됩니다	전혀 그렇지 않다	드물게 그렇다	어중그렇다	자주 그렇다	항상 그렇다
42. 나의 배우자는 내게 따뜻하고 친근하게 대한다.					
43. 나의 배우자와 나는 성 생활을 거의 하지 않는다.					
44. 나는 다소 불행한 어린시절을 보냈다.					
45. 나의 배우자는 그(그녀)가 나를 사랑한다고 느끼게 해준다.					
46. 내가 슬플 때마다 내 배우자는 나의 고통을 잘 이해해준다.					
47. 내가 배우자와 함께 있는 시간이라고는 고작 식사때와 잠잘 때 뿐이다.					
48. 내 배우자는 가계를 매우 잘 관리하는 사람이다.					
49. 우리는 대부분의 사회 규범과 요구들에 대해 같은 의견을 가지고 있다.					
50. 내 아내는 자기의 직장일은 물론 모든 집안일을 맡아 한다.					
51. 내 배우자만 교회에 다닌다.					
52. 우리는 의견 충돌들을 공평하고 민주적으로 해결한다.					
53. 나의 배우자와 나는 수입을 어떻게 지출해야 하는지 함께 결정한다.					
54. 내 배우자는 기분이 언짢을 때마다 격려 받고자 나를 찾아온다.					
55. 내 배우자와 나는 대화를 거의 하지 않는다.					
56. 나는 우리의 성 생활의 질을 향상 시키고 싶다.					

현재의 느낌이 가장 가까운 칸에 V 표 해 주시면 됩니다	전혀 그렇지 않다	드물게 그렇다	반쯤 그렇다	자주 그렇다	항상 그렇다
57. 우리는 교회 다니지 않는다.					
58. 내 배우자의 가치관은 나의 가치관과 매우 다르다.					
59. 내 남편은 정원이나 차와 집수리를 도맡아 한다.					
60. 나는 나의 배우자에게 깊은 애정을 느낀다.					
61. 나와 내 배우자는 자신의 느낌을 자유롭게 서로에게 표현한다.					
62. 나는 시부모/장인 장모님과 좋은 관계를 갖고 있다.					
63. 내 배우자는 내게 자기의 방법으로 문제를 해결하기를 강요한다.					
64. 내 배우자는 사회 규범과 요구들을 지키는 일에 있어서 지나치게 엄격하다.					
65. 시부모/장인 장모님과 좋지 않은 관계로 인해 우리 결혼생활에 문제가 야기 된다.					
66. 나의 부모님은 서로에게 별 관심이 없었다.					
67. 내 배우자와 나는 가사를 동등하게 나눈다.					
68. 만약 자녀들이 없었다면 우리 결혼생활은 더 행복했을 것이다.					
69. 내 배우자와 나는 서로 다른 교회에 다닌다.					
70. 내 배우자는 사회의 규율과 규칙을 지키는 것에 있어서 매우 자유분방하다.					
71. 내 배우자는 성 생활에 거의 적극성을 보이지 않는다.					

현재의 느낌이 가장 가까운 칸에 V 표 해 주시면 됩니다	전혀 그렇지 않다	드물게 그렇다	반쯤 그렇다	자주 그렇다	항상 그렇다
72. 자녀들로 인해 우리 결혼이 더 행복해졌다.					
73. 여성이 거할 곳은 가정이다.					
74. 내 배우자는 결코 외도한 적이 없다.					
75. 가족의 수입을 버는 것은 주로 남편의 책임이다.					
76. 나는 배우자와 함께 여가활동으로 충분히 시간을 보낸다.					
77. 나의 부모님의 결혼생활은 어느부부가 따라도 괜찮은 좋은 모본이 될 수 있다.					
78. 나는 내가 여러 가지 좋은 자질들을 가지고 있다고 느낀다.					
79. 남편이 가족의 가장이 되어야 한다.					
80. 나는 결코 외도한 적이 없다.					
81. 나도 다른 사람 만큼 가치 있는 사람이라고 느낀다.					
82. 자녀들로 인해 우리 결혼생활이 더 행복하고 생동감있게 되었다.					
83. 나는 현재 결혼생활에 진심으로 충실한다.					
84. 서로 다른 우리의 신앙이 우리 결혼 생활에 영향을 끼치지 않는다.					
85. 아내는 스스로의 직업을 가지기 보다는 남편의 직업에 협조해야만 한다.					

현재의 느낌에 가장 가까운 칸에 V 표 해 주시면 됩니다	전혀 동의 안함	대부분 동의 안함	반쯤 동의 함	대부분 동의 함	완전히 동의 함
86. 자녀들로 인해 우리 결혼생활이 유지된다.					
87. 나는 내가 별로 쓸모 없는 사람이라고 생각한다.					
88. 내 배우자는 다른 이성과 혼외관계를 가진 적이 있다.					
89. 나의 부모님은 서로 사랑하셨다.					
90. 아내도 남편이 하는 것 처럼 가정 밖에서 직업을 선택할 수 있어야 한다.					
91. 나는 나를 낮게 평가한다.					
92. 결혼 생활의 어려움중의 하나가 우리의 신앙이 서로 다르다는 것이다.					
93. 대부분의 사람들이 할 수 있는 것들은 나도 할 수 있다.					
94. 나는 다른 이성과 혼외 관계를 가진 적이 있다.					
95. 가사의 불공평한 분담이 우리의 결혼 불행의 원인이다.					

통계 자료

남편 아내 미국 태생 한국태생 나이 ()

중매 결혼 연애 결혼 중매와 연애 병합 결혼

영어: 전혀못함, 거의못함, 잘못함, 보통함, 잘함, 매우잘함, 완전하게 잘함

미국 거주 연한 () 결혼 연한 () 자녀 수 ()

결혼	교육	총수입	직장	종교
<input type="checkbox"/> 첫째 결혼 <input type="checkbox"/> 재혼 <input type="checkbox"/> 세 번째 결혼 <input type="checkbox"/> 네 번째 결혼이상	<input type="checkbox"/> 국졸 <input type="checkbox"/> 중졸 <input type="checkbox"/> 고졸 <input type="checkbox"/> 대졸 <input type="checkbox"/> 대학원 이상	<input type="checkbox"/> \$ 10,000 이하 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 10,000-19,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 20,000-29,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 30,000-39,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 40,000-49,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 50,000-59,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 60,000-69,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 70,000-79,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 80,000-89,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 90,000-99,999 <input type="checkbox"/> \$ 100,000 이상	<input type="checkbox"/> 완전 고용 (Full-time) <input type="checkbox"/> 부분 고용 (Part-time) <input type="checkbox"/> 임시 고용 (Temporary) <input type="checkbox"/> 무직 <input type="checkbox"/> 자가 사업 (Own business)	<input type="checkbox"/> 감리교 <input type="checkbox"/> 몰몬교 <input type="checkbox"/> 성결교 <input type="checkbox"/> 순복음교 <input type="checkbox"/> 안식일교 <input type="checkbox"/> 장로교 <input type="checkbox"/> 침례교 <input type="checkbox"/> 유대교 <input type="checkbox"/> 천주교 <input type="checkbox"/> 불교 <input type="checkbox"/> 회교 <input type="checkbox"/> 기타 종교 <input type="checkbox"/> 무 종교

APPENDIX C

LIST OF ITEMS FOR EACH FACTOR

Appendix C

1. How satisfied are you with your marriage ?
2. How satisfied are you with your husband/wife as a spouse?
3. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your spouse?

Affection

- | | |
|---|----------|
| 4. I feel deep affection from my spouse. | (Affec1) |
| 13. My spouse does many things to show me that he (she) loves me. | (Affec2) |
| 19. My spouse doesn't make me feel loved. | (Affec3) |
| 42. My spouse is warm and friendly toward me. | (Affec4) |
| 45. My spouse makes me feel he (she) loves me. | (Affec5) |
| 60. I feel deep affection toward my spouse. | (Affec6) |

Having Children

- | | |
|--|----------|
| 11. A large portion of arguments I have with my spouse are caused by our children. | (Child1) |
| 68. Our marriage might have been happier if we had not had children. | (Child2) |
| 72. Having children helps our marriage to be more lively and happy. | (Child3) |
| 82. Having children has increased the happiness of our marriage. | (Child4) |
| 86. Our children have kept our marriage together. | (Child5) |

Communication

- | | |
|---|---------|
| 5. I understand exactly what my spouse means. | (Comm1) |
| 12. My spouse understands exactly what I mean. | (Comm2) |
| 15. I am able to communicate my needs to my spouse. | (Comm3) |
| 29. My spouse often fails to understand my point of view. | (Comm4) |
| 55. My spouse and I communicate very little. | (Comm5) |

Commitment

- | | |
|---|---------|
| 74. My spouse has never been sexually unfaithful. | (Comt1) |
| 80. I have never been sexually unfaithful to my spouse. | (Comt2) |
| 83. I am faithfully committed to my present marriage. | (Comt3) |
| 88. My spouse has had an affair/s with another person. | (Comt4) |
| 94. I have had an affair/s with another person. | (Comt5) |

Conflict resolution skills

- | | |
|---|----------|
| 6. I like to handle problems in the same way I have always handled. | (ConfR1) |
| 18. We are creative in how we resolve conflicts. | (ConfR2) |
| 23. I give in to my spouse's insistence. | (ConfR3) |
| 38. We avoid issues when problems arise. | (ConfR4) |
| 52. We settle our conflicts in a fair and democratic manner. | (ConfR5) |
| 63. My spouse demands that I follow his way of handling problems. | (ConfR6) |

Doing things together

16. My spouse and I enjoy doing things together. (Doing1)
 24. We share hobbies and interests together. (Doing2)
 27. My spouse and I spend time together in many different kinds of play and recreation. (Doing3)
 35. My spouse doesn't take enough time to do some of the things I'd like to do. (Doing4)
 47. About the only time I'm with my spouse is at meals and bed time. (Doing5)
 76. I am quite satisfied with the amount of time my spouse and I spend in leisure. (Doing6)

Expression of Emotion

7. My spouse keeps most of his (her) feelings inside. (ExpEm1)
 20. My spouse freely expresses his (her) feelings to me. (ExpEm2)
 26. I feel free to express all my true feelings to my spouse. (ExpEm3)
 39. I keep most of my feelings inside. (ExpEm4)
 61. Both my spouse and I can freely express our feelings to each other. (ExpEm5)

The Level of Empathy

25. My spouse remains distant when I am feeling down. (Empth1)
 33. My spouse takes my feelings seriously and supports me in a compassionate way. (Empth2)
 36. Whenever I feel down, my spouse supports me with encouragement. (Empth3)
 46. Whenever I feel sad, my spouse understands my pain. (Empth4)
 54. Whenever my spouse is feeling down, he (she) comes to me for support. (Empth5)

Family Dynamics

31. The members of my family were always very close to each other. (FamDy1)
 34. My childhood was probably happier than most. (FamDy2)
 44. I had a rather unhappy childhood. (FamDy3)
 66. My parents did not care for each other. (FamDy4)
 77. My parent's marriage would be a good example to follow for any married couple. (FamDy5)
 89. My parents loved each other. (FamDy6)

Financial Handling Differences

10. Financial difficulties are the cause of our marital distress. (Finan1)
 28. It is an upsetting thing for my spouse and me to discuss our finances. (Finan2)
 32. My spouse buys too many things without consulting with me first. (Finan3)
 48. My spouse is a very good manager of finances. (Finan4)
 53. My spouse and I decide together how we should spend our income. (Finan5)

Gender Role Differences

73. A woman's place is in the home. (GendR1)
 75. Earning the family income is primarily the responsibility of the husband. (GendR2)
 79. The husband should be the head of the family. (GendR3)
 85. The wife should help her husband's career rather than (GendR4)

having one for herself.

90. The wife should be able to choose a career outside the home just as her husband does. (GendR5)

Division of Housework

41. My wife does the cooking, cleaning, and takes care of children. (DivHW1)
 50. My wife does all of the house work plus her work outside the home. (DivHW2)
 59. My husband is responsible for the yard work and repairing the car and house. (DivHW3)
 67. My spouse and I equally share our household tasks. (DivHW4)
 95. Unequal division of housework is contributing to our unhappy marriage. (DivHW5)

Kinship Relationship

9. My spouse has a good relationship with my parents. (KinsR1)
 14. We have pleasant visits with our parents-in-law on a regular basis. (KinsR2)
 22. I do not have a good relationship with my parents-in-law. (KinsR3)
 62. I have a good relationship with my parents-in-law. (KinsR4)
 65. My poor relationship with my parents-in-law is causing conflicts in our marriage. (KinsR5)

Self-Esteem

78. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. (SelfE1)
 81. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others. (SelfE2)
 87. I think I am no good at all. (SelfE3)
 91. I have a low opinion of myself. (SelfE4)
 93. I am able to do things as well as most other people. (SelfE5)

Sexual Satisfaction

8. My spouse seems to enjoy sex as much as I do. (SexS1)
 30. I am unhappy with our sexual relationship. (SexS2)
 40. Our sex life is entirely satisfactory. (SexS3)
 43. My spouse and I rarely have sexual intercourse. (SexS4)
 56. I would like to improve the quality of our sexual relationship. (SexS5)
 71. My spouse sometimes shows too little enthusiasm for sex. (SexS6)

Religious Homogamy

17. My spouse and I go to the same church. (RelH1)
 21. Only I, myself, go to a church. (RelH2)
 51. Only My spouse goes to a church. (RelH3)
 57. We don't go to a church. (RelH4)
 69. I go to one church and my spouse goes to a different church. (RelH5)
 84. Our religious differences do not interfere with the quality of our marital relationship. (RelH6)
 92. The difference in our religious belief is a cause of marital distress. (RelH7)

Value

- | | |
|--|---------|
| 37. My spouse and I agree on what is right and proper conduct. | (Valu1) |
| 49. My spouse and I have the same opinion in most social norms and expectations. | (Valu2) |
| 58. My spouse's value system is very different from that of mine. | (Valu3) |
| 64. My spouse is too strict in adhering to social norms and expectations. | (Valu4) |
| 70. My spouse is too liberal in keeping social rules and regulations. | (Valu5) |

APPENDIX D

**FACTOR ANALYSIS
STRUCTURE MATRIX**

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Emph4	.620							
Emph2	.595							
Emph3	.542	.335						
Affec5	.540					.331		
ExpEm5	.535							
ExpEm3	.511							
Affec6	.508						.335	
Affec1	.492						.336	
Comm2	.487			.365				
Comm3	.485							
Affec4	.484					.354		
ExpEm4	.461							
Affec3	.452					.373		
Affec2	.452	.363						
Comm4	.443			.402		.337		
Comm1	.441			.338				
Doing3		.705						
Doing6		.653						
Doing1		.591						
DivHW4		.573						
Doing2		.548	.335					
DivHW3		.449						
Finan5		.373						
SexS1			.742					
SexS3			.713					
SexS6			.686					
SexS2			.682					
SexS4			.526					
SexS5			.454					
KinsR5				.725				
KinsR4				.703				
KinsR3				.659				
KinsR1				.508				
KinsR2		.344		.410				
FamDy5					.808			
FamDy2					.761			
FamDy6					.750			
FamDy3					.736			
FamDy4					.589			
FamDy1					.349			
ExpEm1						.631		
Emph1						.514		
ExpEm2						.474		
Comm5						.468		
ConfR4				.366		.432		
Doing5		.382				.421		
Doing4		.354				.412		
Emph5						.329		

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Child3							.839	
Child4							.818	
Child2							.576	
SelfE2								.745
SelfE1								.725
SelfE3								.613
SelfE4								.604
SelfE5								.562
Comt2								
Comnt5								
Comt1								
Comt4								
RelH1								
RelH2								
RelH3								
RelH5								
RelH7								
RelH4								
GendR4								
GendR1								
GendR2								
GendR5								
GendR3								-.327

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component		
	9	10	11
Emph4			
Emph2			
Emph3			
Affec5			
ExpEm5			
ExpEm3			
Affec6	.324		
Affec1			
Comm2			
Comm3			
Affec4			
ExpEm4			
Affec3			
Affec2			
Comm4			
Comm1			
Doing3			
Doing6			
Doing1			
DivHW4			
Doing2			
DivHW3			
Finan5	.339		
SexS1			
SexS3			
SexS6			
SexS2			
SexS4			
SexS5			
KinsR5			
KinsR4			
KinsR3			
KinsR1			
KinsR2			
FamDy5			
FamDy2			
FamDy6			
FamDy3			
FamDy4			
FamDy1			
ExpEm1			
Emph1			
ExpEm2			
Comm5			
ConfR4			
Doing5			
Doing4			
Emph5			

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component		
	9	10	11
Child3			
Child4			
Child2			
SelfE2			
SelfE1			
SelfE3			
SelfE4			
SelfE5			
Comt2	.670		
Comnt5	.627		
Comt1	.623		
Comt4	.617		
RelH1		.871	
RelH2		.773	
RelH3		.701	
RelH5		.441	
RelH7		.362	
RelH4		.351	
GendR4			.749
GendR1			.650
GendR2			.650
GendR5			.586
GendR3			.376

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Equamax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 18 iterations.

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