Chapter II
Review of Literature

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Review of Literature

2.1 Introduction

The review of literature involves locating, reading, and evaluating reports of research as well as reports of casual observation and opinion that are related to the individual’s planned research project (Brog and Gall, 1989, p.114). It is an important part of the scientific approach and is carried out in all areas of scientific research. Literature in any field forms the foundation upon which all future work must be built. The general purpose of the review is to help the researcher to develop a thorough understanding and insight into previous work and the trends that have emerged, the review can also help the researcher in reaching a number of important specific goals. It also helps both limiting and clearly defining the research problems. The review of literature provides insight into the methods, measures, subject, and approaches used by other research workers and can thus lead to significant improvement in the design.

2.2 Review of marital quality

Marriage is a social system through which a man and a woman come closer to each other and start living together. Intact and harmonious marital relationships are required not only for the psychic health of the individual, but also for progeny and thus, for the society in the broader sense. But unsatisfying and stressful marital relations lead to increased emotional disturbances and marital disruption.

This section reviews research that studies factors associated with marital quality. The research in the area of marital relationship frequently utilises concepts like marital success, satisfaction, consensus, companionship, or some such
synonym reflective of quality of marital life. Spanier and Lewis (1980), in a
review of literature, note that marital quality was the most frequently investigated
phenomenon in the field of family studies. In that review, they say that the most
important advancement was in operationalizing the construct by moving from a
unidimensional to a multidimensional measure. They go on to list the correlates
and predictors of the construct.

In the discovery that marital quality was multidimensional, a distinction
was made between marital satisfaction and marital quality. The former was a
measure of an intrapersonal phenomenon (and unidimensional) and the latter was
both a measure of an interpersonal as well as an intra personal phenomenon.
Marital satisfaction is primarily a subjective interpretation of a married person's
marriage. Similar terms are: marital happiness or satisfaction with the relationship.
Marital quality was seen to be more inclusive and included such dimensions as
communication, happiness, integration and satisfaction with the relationship.
Johnson et. al. (1986) specified five components of marital quality as marital
happiness, interaction, disagreements, problems and instability. Spanier and Cole
(1976) are of the opinion that marital quality is not only a subjective evaluation
but also a process in a dyad. They included four aspects of marital quality as
dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus, dyadic affection, and dyadic satisfaction.

Hughes et. al. (1992), included components of activities that a couple does
together, consensus on topics, marital disagreement and companionship as factors
of marital quality. Amoloza and Booth (1992) did an analysis of a longitudinal
study of the stability of and the developmental changes of marital quality over an
eight year period. They measured marital quality using five dimensions: one an
intra-personal one that taped the personal evaluation of the relationship and four
interpersonal ones: amount of interaction, amount and intensity of disagreement, behavioural attributes that cause a problem in the marriage and divorce proneness.

Zuo (1992), used the typical two major dimensions of marital quality (marital happiness and marital adjustment) as separate constructs and investigated the reciprocal relationship between marital interaction and marital happiness. Marital interactions consists of the following components: frequency that spouses shared the following activities together: eating, going shopping, visiting friends, doing household projects, and going out. The components of marital happiness are: the amount of understanding received from the other spouse, the happiness with the spouse's companionship, the happiness of the amount of love and affection received from the spouse, and the strength of love for the spouse.

Johnson and Talitman (1997) conducted an exploratory study to examine the nature and magnitude of fluctuations in marital quality. Drawing on a national sample of married persons interviewed three times over an 8-year period, they found that marital quality is a stable phenomenon.

2.2.1 Factors influencing marital quality

2.2.1.1 Marital quality and spirituality

Religion and spiritual values plays a dominant role in the lives of many all over the world. Inclination and motivation towards religion are varied and many. For many people religion is the rock up on which they build their lives, their belief and their cause of action. However, religion is complex phenomenon which is not easy to define. Thomas and Cornwall (1991) and Swenson (1996), after reviewing
the literature argued that there has been little theoretical work on the connection between family and religion.

Materialism is a philosophy based on the idea that matter is the only thing in the universe that has reality and that matter is the basis of all that exist. Materialists think that physical changes in the body and nervous system cause all mental process. They justify this belief by pointing out that men can know only what they see, hear, smell, or touch. They deny the existence of mind or soul as distinct from matter and insist that feelings, thoughts, and will have no independent existence. Mathew (1973,p.3) regards materialism-spiritualism as a basic organising fact of personality. An individual's materialism-spiritualism orientation is supposed to determine his perception of his relationship to the universe, his way of responding to situations and his interpretation of events.

According to Tillich (1972, p.55) religion is the state of being grasped by an ultimate concern, a concern which qualifies all other concerns as preliminary and which itself contains answer to the questions of the meaning of our life. It involves a desire for help, security and consolation not given by the world, a dependence on a power appealed to, and an emotional reaction of a reverential sort.

Studying the spiritualistic attitudes and personality traits, Mc Kenna (1961) found that those individuals who express religious attitudes are more tolerant, more optimistic, more restrained and less egoistic than those with materialistic.

Mayo et al., (1969) reports that religious male were significantly less depressed, less schizophrenic and less psychopathically deviant than non-religious
males. Among females possesses higher level of ego-strength than was true of those classifying themselves as irreligious.

Wiebie and Fleck (1980) in their study have found the intrinsically religious subjects to have greater concern for moral standards, conscientiousness, discipline, responsibility and consistency than those who are extrinsically religious or non-religious. These subjects were also found to be sensitive, dependent, emphatic and open to their emotions, in addition to holding more conservative and traditional attitudes.

The relation between religion and families is one key area in which the question of religion’s social integrative function is an issue. Aldous (1983), D’Antonio (1983) and Hargrove (1983) are argued that rather than attempting to reinforce traditional concepts of marital obligations, religion provides support and nurturance for patterns of family life. The studies of Albrecht (1979), Bahr and Chadwick (1985), Ellison (1991), Greeley (1991, p.120) also found a close relation between religion and marital well-being.

One of the most intriguing studies on the topic is reported in Stacey’s (1990, p.58-70) book, Brave New Families, an in-depth study of two working class women’s families residing in Silicon valley. In her study it is found that the religious involvement and spiritualistic attitudes improve marital quality rather than the reverse. Because many religions stress the value of keeping families intact, individuals whose marriages are troubled may view increased involvement as a way to strengthen the relationship.
Landis (1963) found that the absence of spiritualistic attitude in either partner was associated with proneness to divorce.

Mahoney et al., (1999) conducted a study to identify the impact of spirituality on marriage. Ninety-seven couples completed questionnaires about their involvement in joint religious activities and their perceptions regarding the sanctification of marriage, including perceived sacred qualities of marriage and beliefs about the manifestation of God in marriage. In contrast to individual religiousness and religious homogamy (distal religious constructs), these proximal religious variables directly reflect an integration of religion and marriage, and they were associated with greater global marital adjustment, more perceived benefits from marriage, less marital conflict, more verbal collaboration, and less use of verbal aggression and stalemate to discuss disagreements for both wives and husbands.

In a study of over 900 adults, Poloma (1993) found that prayer was associated with higher level of life satisfaction and general happiness.

Koenig et al., (1988) found that organised religious practices to be related to higher level of perceived health in older adults. In the same study it has been found that in older people spirituality has been inversely related to a variety of chronic illnesses such as cancer, hypertension, and depression.

Swenson (1996), in a theoretical paper of the family and religion connection, argues that religious worldviews and religious personal and social experiences affect marriages. He uses Weber's (1978) work to develop a
theoretical linkage between personal religious worldviews, personal religious experiences and religious social action that are predicted to affect marriage.

Ing (1998) examined the relationship between religiosity and marital satisfaction in Protestant Chinese American couples, using both qualitative interview and three questionnaires. Ten Chinese couples from three Protestant Christian churches completed the Alternative Revised Dyadic Adjustment Scale, De Jong Faulkner – Warland Religiosity Scale, and the Edmonds Marital Conventionalization Scale. The result from these questionnaires appeared to uphold results with non-Asian couples. Religious experience, belief and practices appeared to be important to each other. Result indicated a strong relationship between religiosity and marital satisfaction.

Kumar and Rohatgi (1987) in their study on value pattern as related to adjustment in marriage, found that the high adjusted husbands showed greater concern for hedonistic and power values, but the same time, showed less concern for family prestige values as compared to the low adjusted husbands. The high adjusted wives, on the other hand, showed greater interest in religious, economic, and family prestige values. They showed less concern for power and health values in comparison to the low adjusted wives.

Bauman (1995) made a research to investigate whether a person’s experience of marital intimacy was related to his/her quality of interpersonal relationship, image of God and spiritual well-being. The 47 women and 46 men ages 27 to 70, who volunteered to participate in the study belongs to five groups. Four of the groups that the volunteers comprised represented the denominations with in the Christian traditions. The members of fifth group selected with out
regard to religious orientation, were parents of children who attended a private school. The participants completed the Waring Intimacy Questionnaire, The Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory, The Adjective Readings of God Scale and the Spiritual well-being Scale. The result of product moment correlation analysis confirmed that increased marital intimacy is related to healthy object relations and increased spiritual well-being. They did not confirm a relationship between marital intimacy and God images, nor did they confirmed that wrathful God images are related to decreased spiritual well-being. Specifically two hypothesis of the study were supported. A negative correlation exists between marital intimacy and unhealthy object relation and a positive correlation exist between marital intimacy and spiritual well-being.

The study of Booth et al. (1995) found a negative relationship between spirituality and marital quality. Their study was on the impact of changes in religiosity on marital quality and vice versa. Little support is found for the idea that an increase in religious activity leads to improved marital relations. Whereas increase in religiosity slightly decrease the probability of thinking about divorce. On the other hand, an increase in marital happiness slightly increases two of the five dimensions of religiosity considered: church service attendance and religion’s influence on daily life. Their conclusion is that the link between religion and marital quality is both reciprocal and weak.

2.2.1.2 Marital quality and age

After reviewing the evidences on age differences and marital success, Udry (1974, p. 108 ) concluded that there is as yet not conclusive evidences of any significant relationship between them, that whatever differences might be created
by husband-wife age differential, their effect on marital quality appears to be negligible.

Schoen (1975) made studies on the relation between age and marital adjustment which show that marital adjustment is low when the partners marry at a very young age, that is, when the man is under the age 20 and women is under the age 18. The study suggest that, in their immaturity, they tend to romanticise marriage and are less well prepared for the responsibilities of marriage than those who marry later. The very young, confronted by the demands and burdens of marriage, may rather quickly become disappointed, discouraged and unhappy.

Srivastav et al., (1988) studied the effect of certain demographic characteristics such as age differences, duration of marriage, education, occupation, socio-economic status and number of children on marital adjustment. The analysis indicated that the age differences between husband and wife highly contributed toward marital adjustment. Adjustmental problems are seen more among the younger groups. Udry et al., (1974), found that marital instability is common among the husbands under 25 and wives under 20 years of age. He concludes that these young couples are less likely to tolerate unhappiness in their marriage.

In addition to the age of the individuals getting married, investigation also conducted to examine the relationship between marital stability and discrepancy in age between the husband and wife. Glick (1988, pp. 144-158) found that the rate of divorce is lower when the husband and wife are approximately the same age than when there is a large age difference.
2.2.1.3 Marital quality and education

The study conducted by Srivastav et al., (1988) to examine the effect of demographic characteristics on marital adjustment reveals that differences in educational level of the spouses were evident in the maladjusted couples.

The study of Bumpass (1972) reveals that for men there was a small positive correlation between the number of years of schooling and marital happiness. For the women the picture is less clear. The most highly educated women are more likely to have been divorced than a lower educational level.

Houseknecht and Spanier (1980) found that both men and women with six or more years of college experience have increased rate of divorce. For women this pattern is more clear, because highly educated women are more likely to have a career and are less financially dependent on their husbands.

The study made by Quddus (1992) about the adjustment of couples who live apart for occupational and other reasons it is reported that the number of years of schooling is not significantly related to the adjustment of couples in the absence of their partners. Gleen and Weaver (1978) also found no correlation between number of years of education and marital happiness.

The finding of Pothen (1996, p.155) is that the level of education of couples plays an important role in the husband-wife relationship, especially in the early days of marriage. Also the education of the female spouse affects the marriage much more than the education of male. His study reveals that the female graduates had closest love relationship with their husbands. The less educated group did not say that they had close relationship with their husbands.
The US Bureau of the Census (1977) shows that individuals with less than a high school education experiences the high level of marital dissolution, whereas the lowest level occurs at four years of college for women and five years of college for men.

2.2.1.4 Marital quality and children

Eiden et al., (1995) conducted a study to examine the connection between maternal working models, marital adjustment, and the parent-child relationship. As predicted, findings revealed that maternal working models were related to the quality of mother-child interactions and child security, and marital adjustment and child security were also significantly related. Furthermore, maternal working models and marital adjustment were related interactively to child behaviour and security. Among children of insecure mothers, child security scores were higher when mothers reported high marital adjustment, but no relation was observed between child security scores and mothers' marital adjustment among children of secure mothers. These findings suggest that maternal working models affect parenting and child adjustment well beyond infancy and that interactions between maternal working models and the marital adjustment on child behaviour and attachment security require closer examination.

Shek (1996) studied on the associations among Hong Kong adults' marital quality, their relationships with their children, and their attitudes toward the value of children. Data were drawn from 1,501 married adults who completed several measures, including the Chinese Dyadic Adjustment Scale and the Chinese Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale. Results revealed that adults with more signs of marital adjustment or satisfaction perceived the parent-child relational quality to be better,
the parent-child relational demand to be lower, and the value of children to be higher. In addition, a more favourable attitude regarding the value of children was significantly associated with a better parent-child relational quality and a lower parent-child relational demand.

The birth of a baby may adversely affect spouses' adaptation, as indexed by self-reported marital satisfaction and psychological well-being. However, less is known about the interpersonal dynamics of marital behaviour during the months after a child is born. Frosch et al., (1998) examined correlates of marital behaviour in 2 contexts for 104 couples with 6-month-old infants. Spouses completed measures of their relationship history, personality, self-esteem, and marital adjustment and were videotaped in their homes during couple discussion and family play. Spouses reporting greater marital adjustment exhibited more positive and less negative engagement during couple discussion and greater harmony during family play. Older spouses, however, displayed less positive engagement during couple discussion than younger spouses. During family play, greater hostility was observed when wives reported less positive relationship histories and greater negative affectivity. These findings suggest that marital behaviour after the birth of a baby is multiply determined and that its correlates vary across contexts.

White and Booth (1985) made a study of the impact of the birth of a child on marital quality and found that the structural change such as birth of a child, different nurturance patterns at various stages of child development may have very little effect on marital quality.
Lavee et al., (1996) tested the hypothesis that the quality of marital relationships is related to spouses' distress with their parental role and that the stress related to the parental role will be influenced by other roles and by the number of children at home and their age composition. Results revealed that although parenting stress of both parents were affected by the number of children and economic distress, the wife's employment and the household division of labour had no effect on levels of stress. Such stress was found to have a negative effect on the psychological well-being and perceived marital quality of both husbands and wives. A significant association between husbands' and wives' parenting stress and a mutual effect of their perceived marital quality on each other were noted.

Howell (1999) examined the relationship between coping strategies and marital satisfaction of dual career couples with children. The subjects were drawn from an urban neighbourhood. The occupation represented included business, health, education, law, and social service. The research instruments used in this study included the ways of Coping Questionnaires and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. The results demonstrated a significant relationship between coping strategies and marital satisfaction in dual career families with children.

Kurdek (1999) analysed the predictors on the trajectory change in marital quality. Four parameters of the trajectory of change in marital quality (initial status as well as linear, quadratic, and cubic patterns of change) were estimated for husbands and wives over the first 10 years of marriage (n = 522 couples at Year 1 and 93 couples at Year 10). Both husbands and wives started their trajectories of change at fairly high levels of marital quality and showed a cubic pattern of change such that marital quality declined fairly rapidly in the early years of
marriage, stabilised, and then declined again. Whereas individual-differences variables predicted the initial status of the trajectory, husbands and wives living with only their biological children showed a steeper decline in marital quality than husbands and wives living without children or stepchildren.

The linkages between parents' report of marital quality and parental well-being and children's report of parent-child relational quality and adolescent psychological well-being in 378 Chinese families over 2 years were examined by Shek (2000). Results revealed that (a) marital quality predicted parental well-being; (b) fathers' marital quality and well-being predicted parent-child relational quality but mothers' did not; (c) paternal influence appeared to be stronger than maternal influence on adolescent adjustment; and (d) both direct and indirect paths were found for the linkages between parental marital quality and well-being and adolescent psychological well-being.

2.2.1.5 Marital quality and income

The connection between marital success and economic prosperity or hardship has been a subject of study for centuries. At an early point in this research Terman (1938) wrote "it is well known that more divorce occur in the higher classes." In the fifties and sixties empirical studies involving thousands of respondents brought out different findings including both positive and negative relationship between marital satisfaction and income.

Coombs and Zumeta (1970) argues that it was the attitude of wives towards their income situation that is relevant. On the other hand Mott and Moor (1977) reported little or no association between the husband's earning and marital
stability. But while the effects of income were small, they observed mean earning to be higher among stable couples.

According to Kengal (1973, p.316) marriage instability exists at all socio-economic level, the general trend is for marriage break up to be more profound at the lower status level.

Ross and Sawhill’s (1975, p.216) work with data from the Michigan Panel Study of Income Dynamics revealed that marital split were related to lack of assets, income decreases and unemployment, but not to the level of income. With asset levels seen as an intervening variable between income and marital instability. Using the same data base, Hoffman and Holmes (1976) found that, when other variables are controlled, marital dissolution is negatively associated with the husband’s hourly wage rate and the average hours worked each weeks. But after controlling for variable such as home ownership, saving, hours worked and unemployment, the wage rate no longer had a consistent effect.

There is a relationship between income and adjustment of wives in the absence of their husbands. The study made by Quddus (1992) reported that higher the monthly income, better the adjustment of husband to the absence of their wives. But this is not true in the case of wives; the monthly income of the husband is not significantly related to the adjustment of their wives in the absence of their husbands.

Lacy (1998) made a study to test the hypothesis that there is a curvilinear relationship between income and the dimension of marital quality – marital happiness and marital conflicts for married mothers. The curvilinear relationship is
hypothesized to be strongest at the lower income levels. Prior research on the relationship between income and marital quality has had inconsistent findings; early research found a significant relationship while later research has generally failed to find a significant relationship. At the theoretical level, there is a reason to believe that income and marital quality should be related. The analysis finds a curvilinear relationship between marital quality and family income, a relationship that does not depend on the proportion of income earned by the husband. Reconciling the results from several analytic strategies, it appears that the sharpest improvement in both dimensions of marital quality occurs between $0 and $10,000. Failure to include the poorest group may explain why some studies find a weak relationship between income and marital quality.

Rogers (1999) examines the nature and direction of the relationship between wives' income and marital quality. Based on panel data for a sample of 771 married women and men who are not couples and on structural equation modelling, she tests competing hypotheses. Her analyses reveal that increases in wives' income do not significantly influence either husbands' or wives' perceptions of marital discord. Rather, she finds that increases in marital discord contribute significantly to increases in wives' income. She notes that this is the case because increases in marital discord raise the likelihood that non-employed wives will enter the labour force.

Quddus (1992) in his study of the adjustment of Bangladesh couples who are living separately for occupational reasons, it is reported that the adjustment of wives during the absence of their husbands does not depend on the economic factors. He started his study with the assumption that the higher monthly income may provide an opportunity for wives to adjust better in the absence of their
husbands. However this was not found to be significant, but in the case of husbands there is a relationship between monthly income and family adjustment.

2.2.1.6 Marital quality and home visit of husband

It is expected that the higher number of home visit of the husbands who are staying away from home, the better would be their adjustment when they live apart because the home visit will reduce the loneliness and sexual deprivation, while providing scope for love and affection with family members.

Quddus (1992) study of the couples who live apart for occupational and other reasons find out that the frequency of home visit of husband and the adjustment of wives significantly related, but in the case of husbands it is contradictory reported.

In the same study it is reported that the wives who are staying away from husbands encounter many problems in rural areas. The increased frequency of home visit of husbands may help solving many problems which, in turn, contribute to the adjustment of wives during the absence of their husbands. The length of separate-living is identified by some other researchers also as an important factor for the adjustment of spouses. (Gross, 1980; Macintosh, 1968)

2.2.1.7 Communication and marital quality

The literature on marital happiness, or more generally marital quality, consistently points to amount of husband-wife interaction as an important determinant of positive marital evolution. Burr (1973, p.58) noted that the proposition that spousal interaction had a positive impact on marital happiness was
so obvious and so commonplace that he could not find it explicitly stated or tested in the literature.

Lewis and Spanier (1979) in their review of theoretical proposition about the determinants of marital quality, to state with confidence six first order propositions about the effect of specific form of interaction and finally, to conclude with a second order proposition that the greater the interaction, the higher the marital quality.

The studies on relationship development by Markman (1981) indicated that factors such as poor communication and problem solving skills and dysfunction with interaction, when they are present pre-marital or early in the marriage, can predict the development of relationship distress later in marriage. Further more, once dysfunctional interaction patterns form, they are hard to modify. (Raush et al., 1998, p.94)

Using reports from a sample of 370 urban husbands in the Upper East region of Ghana, Miller and Kannae (1999) used Partial Least Squares (PLS) modelling procedures to examine predictors of marital quality. The proposed model is based on studies of marriages in North America and available literature on the traditional African family. Their results also indicate that communication style and decision-making attitudes have a direct effect on marital quality. Open communication between spouses increases marital quality while male-dominated decision making has a negative impact. Traditional gender-role attitudes and wife's employment status affected marital quality indirectly by influencing communication style and decision-making. Thus, Ghanaian husbands with less patriarchal attitudes and behaviour reported higher marital quality
On the basis that couples' cognition about marriage and their communication patterns have both been found to be highly associated with marital quality. Gordon et al., (1999) examined the relationships among marital cognition, communication, and marital adjustment. Three self-report measures--the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, the Inventory of Specific Relationship Standards, and the Communication Patterns Questionnaire--were completed by a sample of 387 community couples. Findings revealed that the correlation of communication with marital adjustment is higher for women with more relationship-focused standards than it is for women with less relationship-focused standards and that this interaction does not occur for men.

Yelsma and Athapilly (1988) made a cross-cultural research on the relation between communication practice and marital satisfaction among Indian and American couples. First, the marital satisfaction score of Indian arranged, Indian love and American companionate marriage were compared. The arranged married persons were found to have higher marital satisfaction score than either the love married or companionate married. The researchers then found that in the Indian love couples and American companionate couples, notably higher correlation were present between verbal communication and dyadic satisfaction than in Indian arranged marriages. The Indian love couples were more similar to the American companionate couples than they were to the Indian arranged couples.

Rosen (1998) examined the influence of marital characteristics, marital interaction process, gender and marital longevity on marital satisfaction and tested for specific path between these variables. The sample included 137 females and 64 males in first marriages, representing a total of 201 different marriages. The results indicated that (a) six marital interaction process (affectional expression,
consensus, communication, equititarian roles, sexuality/intimacy, and conflicting management) contributed significantly, but indirectly, to the marital satisfaction.

(b) three latent factors for marital characteristics (loving, loyal and religious characteristics) contributed significantly to marital satisfaction.

In treating the dyadic relationship between married couples, exchange theory maintains that shared leisure activities reflect rewarding interactions that drew spouses together and contribute to marital happiness (Hill, 1988).

2.2.1.8 Decision making and marital quality

Research made by Rabin and Shapira (1997) investigates the different ways married men and women view the level of equality in their relationship and the connection between different indices of marital equality and marital satisfaction. Israeli married couples (n = 150) were questioned about their attitudes toward equality between the sexes, the degree of their role sharing and decision making, the overall sense of fairness in the relationship, and their marital happiness and tension. Most important was the finding that although equal role sharing and decision making were predictive of women's marital satisfaction, these also predicted men's marital tension.

Partners in marriage have their own expectations about the marital roles and role relationships. These make up the marital adjustment components. Understanding the role expectation of tasks, activities and understanding one another help performance. The study made by Ramu (1988) discusses the profile of decision making for finance. The study reports that involvement of both partners, balance and influence on the process of the decision making for finance.
2.2.1.9 Marital quality and time spending together

Kettlitz (1997) explored the relationship between married individual’s self-reports of their expectations, interaction, spousal bonding, and marital quality. The respondents were females between 31-35 years old who had been married 8 years. Five significant findings emerged from the study. First, respondent’s greater satisfaction with the quality of time spent with their spouses was consistently the strongest predictor of higher marital quality. Second, respondents who bonded more with their spouse after marriage or equally before and after marriage reported higher marital quality than those who bonded more before marriage. Third, the amount of time spouses spends together influenced respondent’s reported marital quality. Fourth, spousal bonding has a very strong influence on individual’s self-reported marital quality. The influence of spousal bonding up on marital quality has been neglected by marriage and family researchers. Finally, joint activities such as talking, eating and cooking at home, sex, activities shared with children, and church related activities were identified by respondents as consistently promoting higher quality level.

Miller (1976) found a strong positive effect on satisfaction after controlling for background factors (children, social class, and length of marriage), and Snyder (1979) found a scale measuring interaction and time spent in joint activity to be one of the consistently highest correlates of marital satisfaction.

Levinger (1988, p. 139) found that companionship is reported to be a top priority in marital life. Couples who were dissatisfied with their marriages were found to have spent little time in joint activities.
White (1983) was the first to test empirical reciprocal relationship between the time a couple spent together in joint activity and marital happiness. Her study confirmed a significant effect of the impact of marital interactions on marital happiness, but it also found that marital happiness had an even stronger effect on marital interaction.

Zuo (1992) examines the reciprocal relationship between marital interaction and marital happiness with a three-wave panel study of national sample of married persons. The overall findings support the hypothesis that there exists a positive reciprocal relationship between marital interaction (the time couple spent together in joint activity) and marital happiness. This relationship holds for both men and women.

White (1983) examined the factors associated with marital interaction. The evidences from a sample of 2034 men and women suggest that both men’s and women’s labour force participation reduces the amount of spousal interaction. In addition interaction is reduced by the presence of children in the household and a traditional division of household. A major finding in this work is the importance of marital happiness as a determinant of interaction. The analysis suggests that the most important determinant of interaction is not time constrains like work hours or the presence of children but rather the quality of marriage.

2.2.1.10 Marital quality and sexual adjustment

There are some studies on the relationship between marital quality and sexual adjustment of the couples. Kapur (1972) carried out a study of marital adjustment of 300 educated working women in Delhi. Among the 44 maladjusted
women in this sample, she attempted to find out the relationship of sexual adjustment and marital adjustment. Her findings suggested that factors that bring about sexual maladjustment in marriage may be divided into biological factors, socio-psychological factors related to sex and factors other than those related directly to sex. She found out that while sexual relationship was one of the most important factors, it is not the most important factor that results in marital maladjustment.

Another study on sexuality and marital adjustment among women was carried out by Kumar and Maniayar (1987). The difference in sexuality of the high and low adjusted wives, as it emerged from an item wise analysis, clearly showed that the high adjusted wives enjoyed fairly good sexual relationship with their spouses, found it much easier to freely discuss matters related to their sexual requirement with them, found their spouse much more innovative and concerned about the satisfaction of their sexual needs, and also found them sexually quite competent in the art of love making. They further agreed that sex, as such, was pleasant and made married life exciting and thrilling.

Pazak (1998) analysed the relationship between closeness-care giving, openness of communication, intrusiveness and sexual satisfaction. Individual scores on three self-report measures were used. The relationships among closeness-care giving, openness of communication, intrusiveness and sexual satisfaction were examined using descriptive statistics. A Pearson correlation was calculated. A stepwise multiple regression was used to determine how much each of the factors contributed to the prediction of marital satisfaction. 85 individuals participated in this study. Closeness - care giving, warmth, time together,
openness of communication, openness/self disclosure and consistency were positively correlated to the sexual satisfaction.

Chilman (1974) claims that sexual adjustment tends to be more difficult for women to make and the end result is less satisfactory for men. The reason has been explained by Rubin (1976) as socialisation by inhibition or repression of sexuality from childhood, which prevent women from just switching on to uninhibited enjoyment as the changing culture of their husbands dictate.

Kumar (1986) interviewed happily married couples to identify factors which contributed to happiness in marriage, he found that these husbands and wives showed a high degree of agreement. The husbands stated sexual satisfaction, proper understanding, right marital attitudes, faithfulness and giving importance to each other, as five most important factors in happy married life. The wives mentioned faithfulness, companionship, love and affection, giving importance and sexual satisfaction among the five most important factors in marital happiness. Three of the five factors on which the two groups agreed are sexual satisfaction, faithfulness and giving importance.

2.2.1.11 Marital quality and psychological factors

The findings of Quddus (1992) reveal the relationship between a good marital adjustment and the anxieties and worries of living apart. The adjustment of husbands in the absence of their wives is moderately related to their marital adjustment. However the relationship between the marital adjustment and the adjustment of wives in the absence of their husbands is not statistically significant.
Durana (1996) found that emotional bonding is significantly related to marital quality. His research study uses quantitative and qualitative research methods to evaluate the impact of bonding (physical closeness and emotional openness) and catharsis in the Bonding and Emotional Re-education (BER) segment of PAIRS training (Practical Application of Intimate Relationship Skills). Participants were assessed by means of measures of marital adjustment, self-esteem, depression, anxiety, control, and support. The results suggest that BER can lead to significant improvements in marital adjustment, cohesion, self-esteem, and anxiety levels. The results also show significant differences for PAIRS in marital adjustment, consensus, affection, satisfaction, and self-esteem. The study explores differences in changes for males and females. Exploratory findings indicate that the PAIRS approach may be useful for distressed couples and suggest that there may be gender differences associated with changes in marital satisfaction.

Psychological traits of dominance and submissiveness also have role to play in marital adjustment. Assuming that, in marriage, a dominant spouse would feel happier if he or she had a submissive partner, Sharan (1972) examined marital happiness in 56 couples. He concluded that dominance of spouse is not an independent factor which contributes to happiness in marriage. However, a later study found contradictory results, but in favour of the traditional expectations. Kumar and Rohatgi (1984) found that husbands with high adjustment possessed a higher need for dominance, whereas, wives with high adjustment were submissive. In the case of couples with low adjustment, both husbands and wives were found to be equally dominating. Besides dominance need, the same study also attempted to identify personality factors, such as intelligence and extroversion with reference to marital adjustment. The result showed that the couples with high
adjustment were more intelligent and possessed more extrovertive interests as compared to the couples showing low adjustment.

Kumar and Rohatgi (1985) examined the relationship of anxiety, neuroticism and security variables with adjustment in marriage. The result showed that anxiety affects one’s adjustment in marriage. Husbands and wives with low adjustment also showed a great deal of neuroticism. The high adjusted husbands and wives felt more secure in comparison to others.

Kumar and Rohatgi (1986) further examined the association of frustration management and self-disclosure with marital adjustment. A significant relationship between frustration reaction and marital adjustment was observed. Low adjusted husbands and wives seem to depend more on aggressive, fixated and regressive modes of behaviour in the management of their frustration, than the high adjusted husbands and wives. In the case of self-disclosure behaviour the high adjusted husbands and wives showed greater tendency to be open about themselves.

Mohan and Singh (1985) studied marital adjustment of rural and urban couples in relation to their personality in terms of extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism. The analysis shows that rural couples were better adjusted than urban couples. Extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism showed negative correlation with marital adjustment.

The study of Kumar et al., (1989) reveals that the couples with marital adjustmental problems have more mental health problems, that is, head aches,
fatigue, indigestion, acidity, restlessness, hopelessness and anger than couples with high marital adjustment.

VanRead (1998) tested the hypothesis about married couple’s interactional behaviour, personality, perception of process and outcome, marital satisfaction and actual outcome. The result suggested that for distressed husbands personality may be more related to satisfaction than for wives.

Nemechek and Olson (1996) studied 99 married couples. The result reveals that the marital adjustment was related to elevated scores on extraversion and openness to experience on a measure of the five-factor personality model.

Kosek’s (1996) study reveals that there is relationship between spousal ratings of personality and self-reports of marital satisfaction. 107 heterosexual couples were administered the NEO-Personality Inventory-Revised to appraise the five domains of personality and the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test to evaluate marital satisfaction. The analysis indicated scores for all the personality domains were significant predictors of scores on marital satisfaction for both men and women, with Agreeableness being the most robust.

Bouchard et al., (1999) also came to the same conclusion in their study to examine the contribution of personality traits to marital adjustment. Data were gathered from questionnaires administered to a sample of 466 couples, in which the personality traits of neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were measured. The results reveal that the self-reported and partner-reported personality traits were important predictors of self-reported marital adjustment in both men and women. The findings of this study
demonstrate that neuroticism significantly predicts both self-reported and partner-reported marital adjustment for both men and women.

Russell and Well (1994) studied the influence of personality on marital quality, using causal modelling on a sample of 94 couples who had completed a quality of marriage questionnaire and the revised short form of the Eysenck Personality questionnaire. Irrespective of gender quality of marriage was found to be influenced negatively by spouse’s neuroticism, but the strongest influence on the quality of marriage of each spouse was the quality of marriage of other. Altogether, the model accounted for over 60% of the variance in quality of marriage, and provided an extremely close fit to the data. Finally it was argued that valid conclusions about marital quality can only be derived from couples rather than married individuals.

Wallerstein (1994) conducted a study to examine what makes marriages work. Fifty couples who considered their marriages happy and successful were interviewed. The findings revealed that couples must address and resolve seven psychological tasks during the early years of the marriage and again at the milestones of the adult life course in order to build a gratifying and enduring marriage. The seven tasks are consolidating separation from families of origin and establishing a new type of connectedness, constructing the psychological identity of the marriage, establishing the sexual life of the couple, establishing the marriage as a zone of safety and nurturance, expanding the marital relationship to make psychological room for children while protecting the private sphere of the couple, creating a relationship that is fun and interesting, and ensuring the capacity and willingness of each partner to maintain a vision of the other that combines early idealisations with a firm grasp of the present reality.
Demir and Fisiloglu (1999) examined the relationship between loneliness and marital adjustment among Turkish couples. Subjects were 58 heterosexual married couples, who completed the UCLA Loneliness Scale and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale. Findings revealed that loneliness was significantly and negatively correlated with marital adjustment. Lower loneliness scores resulted from self-selected marriages than from arranged marriages. In addition, higher marital adjustment scores were associated with self-selected marriages, and marital adjustment increased parallel to an increase in the degree of acquaintance before marriage.

Barnett et al., (1994) estimated the association between marital-role quality and psychological distress. The subjects of the study were a sample of 300 full-time employed women and men in dual-earner couples. Individual-level variables such as age, education, occupational prestige, and job-role quality were controlled for, as were couple-level variables, including length of marriage, parental status, and household income. The magnitude of the effect of marital-role quality on psychological distress was compared for men, women, parents, and non-parents. The findings reveal that for dual-earner couples, marital-role quality is significantly negatively associated with psychological distress for both men and women. The magnitude of the effect depends little, if at all, on gender or parental status. These findings challenge the idea that marital experiences influence women's mental health status more significantly than they do men's. The findings are considered in the context of identity theory.

Shek (1995) assessed the psychological well-being and perceived health status of Chinese married adults. A total of 1,501 subjects responded to the Chinese Dyadic Adjustment Scale, the Chinese Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale.
(C-KMS), and other tools. Subjects' psychological well-being was indexed by measures of psychiatric morbidity, midlife crisis symptoms, and positive mental health. The findings indicated that for the association between marital adjustment and well-being, those who displayed more signs of marital maladjustment demonstrated more psychiatric symptoms and midlife crisis symptoms, had lower levels of purpose in life and life satisfaction, and perceived their health as relatively poorer in comparison with those who showed less marital maladjustment. Similar results were observed with regard to the association between marital satisfaction as indexed by the C-KMS and the various indicators of well-being.

Harper et al., (2000) made a study on the relationship between daily stress, intimacy, and marital quality in mature marriages in which the ages of husbands and wives ranged from 55 to 75 years. Four hundred and seventy-two individuals married to each other and randomly sampled from all fifty states completed the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale, the Personal Assessment of Intimacy in Relationships, and the Hassles and Uplifts Scale. Findings indicated that daily stress was negatively related to marital quality for both wives and husbands, and that intimacy mediated the relationship between stress and marital quality for both husbands and wives. Implications for marriage and family therapy practice are explored.

Skowron (2000), investigated the relationship between differentiation of self and quality of marital relationships. Couples' levels of differentiation explained substantial variance in marital adjustment: 74% of variance in husband marital adjustment scores and 61% of variance in wife marital adjustment scores.
were accounted for by couple differentiation of self-scores. Greater husband emotional cut off uniquely accounted for husband and wife marital discord. Contrary to family systems theory, actual couples were no more similar on differentiation than were randomly matched couples. Finally, greater complementarity among couples along the specific dimensions of emotional cut off and emotional reactivity predicted greater marital distress

Schafer et al., (1996) examined the role of self-efficacy in the relationship between self-dis-confirmation and depression and to evaluate the effect of self-concept dis-confirmation on marital relationships. Results revealed that for husbands, objective self-concept disconfirmation had an estimated effect on marital happiness that was mediated through self-efficacy and depression. For wives, subjective self-concept disconfirmation had an estimated impact on marital happiness that was mediated through depression. It is concluded that perceived and actual disconfirming appraisals from a spouse may influence the self-concept and the relationship in which disconfirmation takes place.

Larson et al., (1994) studied on the relationship between perceived stress resulting from job insecurity and marital and family functioning. Questionnaires were completed by 111 married couples in which at least one of the spouses was working in an insecure job environment. Regression analyses indicated that job insecurity stress was negatively related to both marital and family functioning for both husbands and wives, regardless of employment status. For wives, job insecurity stress was negatively related to their marital adjustment, family communication, family problem solving, clarity of family roles, and affective involvement. For husbands, job insecurity stress negatively affected their marital
satisfaction and perceptions of general family functioning, family role clarity, and affective responsiveness.

2.2.1.12 Marital quality and physical health

Wickrama et al., (1997) conducted a study, using latent growth curves, to examine the association between intra-individual changes in marital quality and physical illness for 364 wives and husbands in the rural Midwest. Findings indicated that both the initial level of and the change in the marital quality of husbands and wives correlate with the initial level of and the change in physical health, after adjusting for the effect of work stress, education, and income. Further analyses suggest that this association is mediated or explained by psychological well-being and behaviours that are health risks. The findings present stronger proof of the association between marital quality and physical illness for both husbands and wives than has been derived from cross-sectional studies or from longitudinal studies that have been restricted to the investigation of inter-individual differences.

Carter and Carter (1994) explored on the topic of marital adjustment and the effects of illness in a sample of 46 married pairs with chronic physical illness. Approximately half of the sample consisted of pairs in which both spouses were ill, while one-half was made up of pairs with only one spouse ill. Regardless of spouse health, marital adjustment scores for levels of cohesion were significantly higher than reported norms, while levels of consensus were significantly lower. The inverse relation of cohesion and consensus is interpreted as indicating conflict-regulated oscillation and as describing a configuration of interaction that may be specific to married pairs with physical illness. In contrast, spouse health was found to significantly affect how illness was perceived, responses to illness,
relations with physicians, and content of communication between spouses. Greater imbalance and potential stress occurred in marriages with only one spouse ill. It is concluded that spouse health is more important than sex of caretaker in determining reactions to illness.

Booth and Johnson (1994) examined the relationship between deteriorating health and marital quality. Data from a national sample of 1,298 married persons were used to analyse the effects of changes in health over a three-year period on shifts in marital quality. The findings indicated that a decline in health has an adverse effect on marital quality. The detrimental effect reported was somewhat greater for the spouses of those experiencing a health decline than for the afflicted individuals. Much of the health-marital quality relationship is accounted for by changes in financial circumstances, shifts in the division of household labour, reductions in marital interaction and behavioural problems of the afflicted individual. Health seems to influence the marital quality of persons regardless of gender, education, religious background, number of friends, marital duration, or age.

Rauschenbach and Frongillo (1995) studied about the effects of body weight on marital unhappiness and marital problems. Data were drawn from a survey of 1,980 married adults in the U.S. The results suggested that body weight was not related to most aspects of marital quality. Nevertheless, four significant relationships were revealed: Obese women were happier with their marriages; obese men had more marital problems; men who lost more weight had fewer marital problems; and men and women who gained more weight were happier with their marriages. These population-based results differ from popular beliefs.
and clinical studies and may be understood through the use of family functioning, social norms, and marital exchange models.

2.2.1.13 Marital quality and social support

The findings concerning the extent of social support between husband and wife in Straus’ (1975, pp.134-150) study indicate that: Husbands and wives in joint households have lower support scores than spouses in nuclear households and middle class couples have higher support score than working class husbands.

Acitelli and Antonucci (1994) reported that spouses who report higher level of support from their partner are more maritally satisfied than those reporting lower level of support.

Baxter (1986) found that lack of spousal support as a major reason for relationship dissatisfaction and dissolution.

The research of Zimmerman (1983, p.107) among 60,000 “successful American families” found out that the major key to their success lay in the fact that each family surrounded itself with friendship ties to four or five other families. They believe that this net work of family friendship provided a nested environment supplying emotional support.

A longitudinal study by Abbey et al., (1995) examined perceptions of received and provided social support and disregard among members of 248 infertile and fertile married couples. Correlational and structural equation modelling analyses were conducted. Women's and men's perceptions of the amount of social support they gave to and received from their partner were highly
positively related. In contrast, agreement between spouses about the amount of provided support was moderate. Both social support and disregard mediated the relationships between stress and marital quality of life. Overall, highly similar patterns of results were found for members of infertile and fertile couples. These results demonstrate the perceptual element of received support and disregard as well as the importance of considering the provider's perspective.

Social support or husbands' and wives' friendships have theoretical and empirical support, showing benefit on marital satisfaction. Allgood et al., (1997) assessed the association between friendships and couples in therapy as compared with a sample of volunteer couples. Discussions with friends about family problems were positively associated with both marital satisfaction and stability. Logistic regression revealed that clinical husbands are less likely to talk about marital problems with their friends in contrast to clinical wives, who are likely to talk about marital stability with their friends. The wives' marital stability was also a significant predictor for the clinical couples.

How spouses help each other contend with personal difficulties is an unexplored but potentially important domain for understanding how marital distress develops. Pasch and Bradbury (1998) conducted a study among the newly married couples, and they participated in 2 interaction tasks: a problem-solving task in which spouses discussed a marital conflict and a social support task in which spouses discussed personal, non-marital difficulties. Observational coding of these interactions showed that wives' support solicitation and provision behaviours predicted marital outcomes 2 years later, independent of negative behaviours during marital problem-solving discussions. In addition, couples who exhibited relatively poor skills in both behavioural domains were at particular risk
for later marital dysfunction. These results suggest that social support exchanges should be incorporated into social learning analyses of marriage and into programs designed to prevent marital distress.

Burley (1995) examined the relationships among family variables, work-family conflict, and marital adjustment in dual-career men and women. Results revealed a significant negative relationship between work-family conflict and marital adjustment. However, subjects who believed that their partners provided career social support experienced higher marital adjustment than those who felt little support. Likewise, subjects who spent an equitable amount of time performing household tasks experienced higher marital adjustment than those who felt that their partners spent an inequitable time in performing household tasks. No indirect effects of gender on marital adjustment were found, and men and women both appeared to be similarly affected in an apparent inability to mediate the relationship between work-family conflict and marital adjustment.

Kaila (1996) in her study of the relationship between the perceived social support and psychosomatic problems of the women whose husbands working outside the country reveals that there is a close relationship between social support and well-being of the women. The study also indicates that these women are experiencing a supportive and helping attitudes and behaviour from the society.

Couples function with in a social context, vulnerable to the influences and pressures of members of their social networks. The findings of Boissevain (1974, p.88), Milardo and Lewis (1985,pp.258-283) reveal that because of their importance for each spouse, these social influences can affect the quality and course of marital relationship. The net work members also help couples to build
feelings of satisfaction with their partners by validating their relationships, nurturing a sense of coupleness (Lewis, 1973) and asserting that the couple can work through their problems by offering the pair aid when problems arise (Julien et al., 1994). Surra and Milardo (1991, pp. 1-36) says that partners acquire knowledge about one another and their relationship not only from interactions with one another, but also from members of their social networks.

Studies of romantic relationships shows that individuals who perceive greater support from friends and family for their relationship at one time not only report higher commitment at a later time, but also score higher on other measure of dyadic formation (Lewis, 1973; Sprecher and Felmlee, 1992).

Social support makes a sense of belongingness. This can contribute to the development of a positive self concept (Lewis and Spanier, 1979), personal well-being and marital satisfaction (Willits and Crider, 1986, p. 863).

Bryant and Rand (1999) examined the relationship between various social network support and marital success of husbands and wives who had been married for an average of 20 years. The findings suggest that social support positively influence the long-term marital relationship.

The findings of Sprecher and Felmlee (1992) suggest that the perception of social support from family and friends is somewhat more influential for women than for men in predicting the marital relationship. Further more, women disclose more information to friends about their personal lives and relationships than do men. Women also value the opinion of friends than do men.
Sharlin (1998) reports about the relationship between background characteristics of married adolescents and the quality of their marriages. The sample consisted of 179 adolescent girls who married between the ages of 14 and 17. Ninety percent of the girls were pregnant at the time of their marriage. Findings suggest that background characteristics and social support variables are related to their marital quality. The quality level decreases with less education and less income as compared to those in higher socio-economic classes.

2.2.1.14 Marital quality and divorce

There are some studies on marital quality and divorce. Kundu and Ghosh (1977) studied on the dynamics of divorce. They compared some environmental correlates of divorced and adjusted couples. The experimental group consisted of 50 divorced couple and the control group consisted of 50 couples who living together. Their conclusion from the study is that: (1) unhealthy atmosphere in the family and conflict in the family relations, during childhood, differentiate the divorced from the adjusted one. (2) Divorced persons vary significantly when compared to the adjusted couple in respect of break in love relationship. (3) Divorcees and adjusted couples differ significantly with reference to age at marriage, presence of children, domination of spouse and occurrence of disagreement.

In another study Kundu and Ghosh (1978) assessed the personal correlates of 100 maladjusted persons as compared to 100 persons having a compatible married life. In the analysis the divorced individuals appeared to be both economically and emotionally deprived. They suffered from lack of spontaneity and drive, and had poor total adjustment. They were unambitious and easy
frustrated. They felt inferior as well as insecure. Compared to the adjusted couples they were self centred, introvert, dissatisfied, unrealistic and irritable.

In another study Kundu and Ghosh (1980) found that both the groups differed significantly in the content of thematic fantasy. In addition both the groups differed in their evaluation of the past, present, and their future, in their values, needs, etc. The findings indicate discrepancies in role concepts and expectations; inadequate self image; a tendency to hide themselves from the spouse; ignorance about the spouse's values, attitudes, etc; sexual maladjustment, and insecurity; and lack of common interest and activities among the divorced couples.

Feng et al., (1999) conducted a study to examine the intergenerational transmission of marital quality and marital instability and the impact of parental divorce on children's marital quality. Findings revealed that parental divorce increased daughters' likelihood of divorce; that some life course factors, such as age at first marriage, mediate the intergenerational transmission of divorce; that parental divorce had little influence on children's marital quality; that parental divorce had no significant effects on children's likelihood of having their own biological children or on women's likelihood of being employed; and that parent and child gender has an effect on the relationship between parents' negative sentiment and children's marital satisfaction. Possible mechanisms for the intergenerational transmission of marital instability and marital quality are considered.

A study was conducted by Gottman et al., (1998) to examine marital interaction processes that are predictive of marital stability and divorce, which
further discriminate between happily and unhappily married stable couples. Data were drawn from 130 newlywed couples that were assessed according to seven process models. Results revealed that models of anger as a dangerous emotion, active listening and negative affect reciprocity were not predictive of marital stability. However, models of the husband rejecting the wife's influence, negative start-up by the wife, a lack of de-escalation of low intensity negative wife affect by the husband or a lack of de-escalation of high intensity husband negative affect by the wife, and a lack of physiological soothing of the male all predicted divorce. In addition, a contingent positive affect model and balance models of positive-to-negative affect predicted satisfaction among stable couples.

Crane et al., (1995) made a study to predict divorce in a marital-distressed and therapy-seeking population. The sample was from the case records of the Marriage and Family Therapy Clinic at Brigham Young University. Demographic and psychological data as well as Marital Status Inventory (MSI) and Marital Adjustment Test (MAT) scores were available for analysis. Statistical procedures successfully predicted marital status in a high percentage of cases. The most important finding was that wives' variables were more important in divorce prediction than were husbands'. In addition, marital quality was not found to be predictive of marital status.

Much prior research in social psychology indicates that in many domains of social life, individuals' well-being improves in the latter half of the life course. The reason for this pattern is not well understood, however. Orbuch et al., (1996) argue that objective changes in family composition and in social and economic conditions in middle and later life may explain the later-life increase in well-being. To test this argument they focus on one domain, marital well-being, and examine
the curvilinear relationship between marital duration and marital quality, with emphasis on the latter half of the marital life course. The results show that reduced work and parental responsibilities in later life explain much of the later-life increase in marital satisfaction but do not account for the decrease in thoughts of divorce.

With the use of a non-random sample of 248, Eells and O'Flaherty (1996) gives two of the shortcomings in the research on primary areas of marital discord as well as providing an update on this research topic. The first addition to the literature presented in the study involves the inclusion of a sample of remarried respondents to provide a baseline for comparison regarding the magnitude of problem areas identified by divorced respondents. The second addition involves the inclusion of a series of marital inventory items designed to assess the way the respondent perceives a problem area and the way the respondent perceives his/her spouse's response to the same inventory item. The analysis indicates that the primary areas of marital discord revolve around communication issues. Also, the analysis indicates that females perceive more problems than males. Furthermore, females are more likely to perceive males as responsible for these problems. Males, on the other hand, are more likely to perceive the problems as being mutually shared. Additionally, the divorced perceive more problem areas, and view them more seriously, than the married. Finally, the addition of income as a control variable contributes to the understanding of the primary areas of marital discord.

Vannoy (2000) made research on "Roles in the Divorce Process and Identity Strength". A sample of 411 divorced Catholic women is analysed to investigate whether marital quality experienced and perceived relationship
intimacy is associated with roles in the divorce process. The roles investigated are: who is the more nurturing or self-attending partner in the relationship, who first emotionally disengaged from the relationship, who initiated the physical leaving, and who first initiated legal proceedings. Findings indicate that wives who were first to emotionally disengage from the marriage report experiencing significantly less marital quality than those who wished to save their marriages; the other divorce roles did not differentiate level of marital quality. However, wives who are more nurturing and who were the initiator in all three divorce roles perceived less relationship intimacy in their former marriages.

2.2.1.15 Other correlates of marital quality

Rogers and Amato (1997) investigated the possibility that changes in the economic and social context of marriage have lowered marital quality. They used data from an American national probability sample of two generations representing individuals married between 1969-1980 and between 1981-1992. Compared with the older group, the younger group (both men and women) reported significantly lower levels of marital interaction and significantly higher levels of marital conflict and problems. Increases in age at first marriage and education between generations did not offset these declines. Changes in economic resources, work and family demands, wives' gender role attitudes, and cohabitation prior to marriage accounted for these changes.

Investigations of Kitamura et al., (1998) on relationship between marital adjustment and social adjustment reveals that there is a significant correlation between these two variables. Subjects were 67 married Japanese men and 79 married Japanese women, ranging in age from 25 through 85 years. Findings
revealed that for the whole sample, the total score of the Short Marital Adjustment Test (SMAT) and its subcategories, dyadic consensus and satisfaction, was significantly related to five subcategory scores of the Social Adjustment Scale-II: household adjustment (except the spouse), external family adjustment, work adjustment, social leisure adjustment, and general adjustment. These correlations were present for the women too, but for the men they were present just for social leisure adjustment and general adjustment. Among the men, the dyadic consensus scores of the SMAT had higher correlation with the social adjustment scores, whereas among women, correlations with the marital satisfaction scores of the SMAT were higher.

Pina and Bengtson (1993) examined the relationship between the division of household labour and wives' happiness. The study sample consisted of 287 primarily white, middle-class married women who participated in the third wave of the University of Southern California Longitudinal Study of Generations. The two principal aspects of the research were the effects of the division of household labour on the wife's feelings of support from her husband and the effects of this feeling of support on the wife's evaluation of marital quality and psychological well-being. The results indicated that for wives with more egalitarian beliefs about marital roles and for those in full-time employment, more equal division of labour was associated with increased feelings of support, which in turn were positively linked to greater levels of marital satisfaction and well-being.

Umberson (1995) conducted a study to examine how the recent death of a parent influences adults' marital relations. The quantitative findings indicate that, compared with the relationships of individuals who have not recently lost a parent, the relationships of individuals who recently experienced a mother's death are
characterised by a decrease in social support from their partner and by an increase in the partner's negative behaviours. The relationships of those who recently experienced a father's death are characterised by a decrease in relationship harmony and an increase in relationship strain and occurrence of conflict. Qualitative findings indicate a number of possible reasons for the decrease in marital quality after the death of a parent.

Myers and Booth (1996) made a study to investigate a wide range of contextual factors that may influence the effect of men's retirement on marital quality. Results reveal that characteristics of the husband's job, the division of labour, health, social support, and marital quality are pre-retirement factors that affect the influence of retirement on marital quality. Leaving a high-stress job enhances marital quality, whereas factors signifying gender role reversals, bad health, and reduced social support associated with the retirement lower marital quality. In addition, the influence of retirement varies according to the number of changes that accompany retirement.

Lev-Wiesel and Al-Krenawi (1999) studied on the effects of mate selection, potency, levels of education, attitudes toward love, and expectations regarding marriage on marital satisfaction among Israeli Arabs. Subjects were Muslim, Christian (Roman Catholics), and Druze. Results indicated that marital quality was higher among Druze and Christians than among Muslims. Potency influenced marital quality in all groups, whereas levels of education influenced marital quality among Muslims and Christians but not Druze.

Myers and Booth (1999) studied the cross-sectional and over-time effects of marital locus of control (MLC) on positive and negative marital quality. Data
were obtained for individuals who completed the final two waves of a 17-year longitudinal study of a national sample of American husbands and wives. Results revealed that higher levels of MLC were associated with reports of higher positive marital quality and lower negative marital quality. In addition, spouses with lower levels of MLC were more likely than were spouses with higher levels of MLC to report the occurrence of marital strains associated with lower levels of marital quality. However, it was noted that the negative effects of these marital strains were reduced, even at low levels of MLC. It was concluded that MLC is a personal resource that buffers the deleterious effects of marital problems and that may locate individuals in strong or weak marriages.

An examination of the connections between reciprocal effects in panel models and the actual, observed data from which estimates are obtained is presented by Lorenz et al., (1995). These connections are investigated first using simplified, artificial data and then using actual examples that tie husbands' hostility to wives' marital happiness. The aim is to remove some of the suspicion surrounding the use of models with reciprocal effects by carefully examining the simple two-wave, two-variable contemporaneous model. It is demonstrated that three distinct pairs of factors affect inference—cross-lagged covariances, stability covariances, and reliabilities—and the implications of these factors are highlighted using the artificial data and the data on hostility and marital happiness. The findings reveal that stability and reliability are two distinct and sometimes conflicting statistical mechanisms linking theoretical arguments to empirical results. The importance of distinguishing between these mechanisms and the consequences of failing to do so are considered.
Rankin et al., (1997) examined the constructs of autonomy and relatedness in marriage in order to expand the focus of cognitive behavioural formulations of marriage. The findings demonstrated that autonomy and relatedness were significantly positively correlated with each other and with marital adjustment for both males and females. For females, the provision of relatedness, as reported by their husbands, was significantly associated with the standards that they held for the relationship and with the standards that husbands held for the relationship. However, no significant relationships were found between husbands' standards and relatedness. It is concluded that it is appropriate to help couples think of autonomy and relatedness, either as reported by wives or husbands, as being two important elements of marriage that can exist together and are related to a satisfying marriage.

Odell and Quinn (1998) conducted a longitudinal study on the marital relationship during its first year to discover what relations exist between congruence on initial values and role expectations, and marital adjustment and the desire for spousal change. It was found that congruence was positively related to marital adjustment and negatively related to the desire for spousal change, although this relation was statistically significant only at one month of marriage. Few gender differences were found, although a consistent relation between wife's desire for spousal change and husband's marital adjustment was found. Findings can be taken to suggest that successful couples make adaptations within their marital systems and that initial expectations are not predictive of marital adjustment during the first year of marriage.

Rollins and Cannon (1974) found that marital quality is lower in long term marriages and higher in short term marriages. It is because of the fact that the
relationship becomes routine and overall evolution of the decline of relationship. But some other findings reveals that stability in marital quality vary by marital duration, with persons in longer marriages being more stable (Moss and Susman, 1980, pp.530-595).

Shek (1995) studied on the issue of gender differences in marital quality and well-being in Chinese married men (N = 738) and women (N = 761). The results showed that males had significantly higher scores on the Chinese Dyadic Adjustment Scale and Chinese Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale. While a longer duration of marriage was associated with higher levels of dyadic consensus and affectional expression in men, the duration of marriage was negatively related to marital adjustment and marital satisfaction in women. The data also showed that women displayed more psychiatric symptoms and midlife crisis problems and they had lower levels of positive mental health and perceived health status than men. While marital quality was positively related to well-being in both men and women, the impact of marital quality on well-being was generally found to be greater in women than in men.

Bartle and Sabatelli (1988) conducted a study to develop a model connecting parents' experiences of family of origin, parents' marital adjustment, and parents' psychosocial adjustment to adolescents' experiences of their family of origin. A multigenerational-systemic model of individual and family development was used, and middle-aged parents and their late-adolescent children were questioned about their perceptions of the dynamics within their respective families of origin. In addition, the middle-aged adults were administered standardised measures of personal and marital adjustment. Structural equation modelling was used for the path analysis, and limited support was found for the proposed model.
Marital difficulties for many couples occur early in marriage. Approximately 21% of marriages end within the first two years and 40% end by the fourth year. The consequences for individuals and their families affect emotional well-being, financial stability, and child development. A study was conducted by Quinn and Odell (1998). A sample of 93 couples participated in this study in which data were collected on marriage at five intervals between one month and two years. During the first months, age, income, and education have some impact on marital adjustment but this influence weakens in time. Examining results across the two year interval suggests that interpersonal trust, desired spousal behaviour change, and emotional maturity are highly associated with marital adjustment. In particular, marital processes of interpersonal trust and desired spousal behaviour change at one month are predictive of marital adjustment at two years.

The review of the literature on marital quality gives us some of the correlates of marital quality. In most cases, these correlates are treated as independent variables and only in a few cases is marital quality the independent one. The following are the most common correlate of marital quality: spiritual quality of life, atmosphere in the family, personality characters, sexual adjustment, marital interaction, communication in marriage, age at marriage, role sharing, quality of time spend together, education and income of couple, social networks, marital power, wives' employment and husbands' employment, presence of children, home visit of husband, the duration of the marriage, economic pressures, effect of job characteristics, spousal depression, parental care giving, and negative results on marital quality followed by the death of a biological parent, physical illness, stress of the daily life, decision making and some sociological factors.
This review enables the researcher to include some of them as variables in the analysis.

2.3 Review of the Problems of Migration

Family is the most well researched topic in the sociology the world around. Even though family is the basic unit of all society it differs cross-culturally in its form and structure. The majority studies on Indian family focused on the traditional joint family structure and changes brought about due to the urbanisation and industrialisation. However, few studies have examined the problems of incomplete families, problems like the single parent families, women headed families and the childless families. A family may be rendered incomplete when any of the members of the basic unit is absent for various reasons (Bharat, 1991). The absence of the member may be temporary. In this section, research reports on temporary type of incomplete families due to migration are reviewed.

The research work in this area is very scanty. Some sociological studies are available on how the migration affects the family relations and the interpersonal adjustment. The studies have usually examined pattern, causes and economic consequence of extended male absence. The impact of occupational separation on women and families left behind is a topic of recent concern. In one such study, Gulati (1983) found that in Kerala, migration of male family head to the gulf countries generally result in an increase in the interdependency among family members, and that in the absence of the husband, the parents and siblings or other relatives often take care of the migrant’s wife and children. Similar finding has been reported from Sri Lanka (Korale, 1983).
One aspect of migration research which has received increasing attention in the recent years is the examination of its social effect on migrant households remaining behind, and in particular on the role of migrant's wives during the absence of household head. The study by Gulati (1983) in Kerala also found that the prolonged absence of men in the family induced that women to take a more active role in the management of family affairs and become less dependent on male relatives. In another study Gulati (1987) pointed out that with the passage of time, as wives learn to manage things on their own, they take independent decisions on many matters, and in the process, tend to less and less dependent on relatives. They gain confidence in the course of time and start leading their life independently.

The above findings are supported in parts by Rawat and Rawat (1986). They found increased participation of the women of migrant households in the village level economy and politics. This made them self-dependent to some extent. However, the women experienced a greater workload also.

Jetley (1987) found that male migration resulted in increased households and child care responsibilities for the women, prolonged hard work, loneliness and frequent economic crisis. The women were not involved in decision making at the family level and yet were heading the family as single parents. The finding also indicate that migration effects on women are determined by the amount of remittances the migrants are able to send home. When the remittances are large as in the case of migrants to the Middle – East, the women enjoy certain privileges and freedom, even though they experience problems of an emotional nature. But when the economics benefits are marginal as in the case of rural migrants to urban centres, the effects on the women are more negative than positive.
The study of Kiray (1976), Kudat (1975) also suggested that migration bring about positive changes in women’s status within the family.

The case studies by Mathew and Nair (1978) Gulati and Modi (1983) and Gulati (1983), in Kerala demonstrate that not only does male immigration strengthen informal family and kin networks, but it also leads to a more active role for women in the management of family and household affairs.

Gulati (1987) in her 36 case studies of migrant households from Trivandrum district where the male members of the family had migrated to gulf countries for job, discusses the socio-economic impact on women who are left behind, under 2 broad headings: 1. Dependents and 2. Coping with migrant’s absence. The researcher reports that wives under 20 and having no children generally stay with their parents or in-laws. Most of the wives stayed with their in-laws because it is the custom of the society to be within the husband’s house

Several studies conducted on the impact of family separation on the individual have pointed out that the dangers of intra-familial estrangement. The social and psychological problems induced by separation are the focus of a study by Kin (1983) based on interviews, personal letters, dairies and company records of some 540 South Korean overseas construction workers. They found that over 60% of those applying for repatriation from the Middle East gave family matters as the reason for their intention to leave the job.

Lyketsos (1977) studying on the psychological reactions of the family members left behind by the male head of the family, who migrated to Germany and Northern European countries from Greece found that there was relationship
between the male absence and neurotic and situational reactions among the family members. The study comprised of two groups namely the family of migrants and of the non-migrants. It was noted that the situational reaction were present in 21% of members in group A while it was only 4% in group B. Neurosis was evident in 12.7% of cases in Group A and 10.2% of cases in Group B. It was also found that in the same household of the emigrants, the wives were the most affected (78% of those in group A and 30% in group B)

Murray (1981, p.211) noted that women’s experiences, in the context of the migration of the household, ranges from relatives security to bitter frustration, acute personal stress and emotional dissolution.

Infidelity and extra-marital sexual relationships are among the chief complaints and source of conflicts in marital life when the partners happen to remain physically separate. In a study conducted in this topic in Koreans, Kin (1983) found that about 7% of workers in a large company, who terminated their contract in order to return home, reported their wives’ infidelity as the reason for the same. Kin reports that counselling centre of Korean companies which have contract in middle eastern countries often deal with family affairs including unfaithful or run away wives.

Gulati (1983) found that the incidence of mental illness is particularly acute in the so called “Gulf pockets” in Kerala. A report in a popular monthly (India Today, September 1982) has focussed on the prevalence of psychiatric cases in the Gulf Pocket of Kerala. It was noted that the incidence of mental illness among young women has reached alarming proportion in these areas.
Some information is also available from Pakistan regarding the psychological problems experienced by the wives of the immigrants. Abbassi and Irfan (1983) reports that the head of the psychological department in a hospital near Islamabad deals everyday with an average of 10 to 15 patients afflicted with what has been termed as the “Dubai Syndrome”. Over a six months period, about 1450 such cases were treated in one hospital.

There are a number of studies relating to the role of the father in the upbringing of children and the effect of separation of father in their adjustment. A study from Bangladesh by Siddique (1983) found that alcoholism, drug addition and other kinds of misbehaviours are found more in the children of the migrants. This has been attributed to the fact that they are relatively free from controls and that they have a lot of money to spend according to their will.

Lyketsos (1977) found that in Greece the separated children were more prone to manifest behavioural problems. For the majority of affected children, the father’s continuing absence from home was associated with a process of disturbed social and family relationship. This may, in turn, have affected the children’s emotional growth, which account for behavioural problems, disturbed adjustments reactions, and pathological defence mechanisms during childhood and adolescents. Personality problems have also found to be more in such children.

Most of the early works on the socialisation process have focused on the mother-infant relationships. However, recent researches have recognised the importance of both the parents in the socialisation of children. It has been reported that the influence of the same sex parent continues well into adolescents. Leupton (1998) analysed data collected a decade apart from two large samples of
high school students in Wisconsin. He was interested primarily in how much influence the parents had on the growth. It was found that the youth were influenced most often by both parents, but when they perceived influence by only one parent, it was most likely to be the sex parent.

Rollings and Thomas (1979) in a review concluded that for both boys and girls it is the same sexed parents who predominantly influences the development of the child's sex role. High masculine boys tend to have father who are decisive and dominant. Parental punishment was found to facilitate sex role typing in boys, only if the father was also dominant and nurturant.

However, Look (1982) in her review concluded that for girls it is the father who plays the critical role in the development of femininity. It was also concluded from the review that separation of the father from the home, either temporarily or permanently, may result in negative effects on male children. The effects are most apparent in pre-adolescent boys, and most severe if the separation occurred before the age of five. The effects most commonly noted are high verbal aggression but low physical aggression, more dependent behaviour, and more feminine concept. This pattern is not found with older male children, probably because other males may serve as appropriate models for them in the place of the absent father. According to the same author the effects include the possibility that in later years there may be some anxiety in dealing with males.

Masur and Gleason (1980) examined the play of parents with their preschool aged boys and girls and found that fathers provided and elicited significantly more information than mothers on such occasions. In turn, the
children produced more total vocabulary from their fathers than they did for their mothers.

There are several studies, which concentrated on the effect of migration on community and large society. For example, Abbassi and Irfan (1983) using PIDE data, found that house holds receiving remittances from abroad have a lower female labour force participation and a higher school attendance rate for children, particularly for girls.

Smart and Theodosio (1983) studied the expenditure and investment patterns of a sample of 495 Philippino house holds with the head of the family employed in the Middle East. The author concludes that there is a dramatic rise in the living standards and savings among these families.

Hettige (1989) in his study found that many of the Sri Lankan males were unemployed before they migrated. Citing the example of Bogallamma, a village in Sri Lanka, Hettige found that the migration has already enhanced the economic position of a considerable number of families. New houses have been built and the existing houses have been either renovated or extended. Many have adopted new life styles and a few have started new business. However it was notable that the changes brought about by migration has not resulted in the formation of an altogether negative attitude toward gulf migration among villagers.

The study conducted by Quddus (1992) about the adjustment of couples who are staying separately for occupational reasons of Bangladesh, it is reported that there is a close relation between marital adjustment, number of years of schooling, frequency of home visits, monthly income and number of years lived
with out family. The same finding we can see in the study report of Price-Bornham et al., (1978) and McCubbin and Patterson (1983).

Kaila (1996) made a study to explore the relationship between psychosomatic problems and social support perceived by the women whose husbands are abroad for employment. The results have shown that psychosomatic problem do exist among these women. A good percentage of these women who have to manage families on their own due to employment of their husband out side the country suffer from deterioration of psychosomatic health, as they become tired in a short period of time and have trouble with aches in their lower back. Some of them also feel fidgety or tense; have trouble getting to sleep; and feel a constriction in the chest.

The same study also found out a close relationship between the frequency of husband’s visit, stay of in-laws with the family and number of children and perceived psychosomatic problems.

Tolnay (1998) analysed the relationship between migration experience and family patterns among residents of the North and West is examined for three time periods--1940, 1970, and 1990. In general, an inverse association is observed between duration of residence in the North or West and family stability among African Americans. Although selective return migration to the South contributes to this association, it can account for only a minor part of the variation in family patterns by migration history. It is concluded that there is no evidence to support previous assumptions that southern migrants carried a dysfunctional family culture with them to the North and West, and thereby destabilised the non-southern African American family. Rather, changes indigenous to the North and West were responsible, for example, structural changes in the economy or the emergence of
an inner-city "oppositional culture" that does not emphasise traditional family patterns or transitions.

Hoodfar (1997) studied on the influence of large-scale male migration from Egypt to the Arab oil-producing countries on domestic budgeting and the position of wives within low-income Cairence households. The data, drawn from a sample of 42 households which includes income-earning women and non-wage earning women, indicate that less educated women and those who were primarily homemakers frequently managed to renegotiate a more favourable financial arrangement with their husbands during and after migration, and raise their status and decision-making power within the household. On the other hand, contrary to common-sense assumptions, educated and income-earning women were more likely to lose access to their husbands' income and to major decision-making opportunities, resulting in lowered status within the household. To protect their interests, many women in these groups appealed to the traditional and Islamic division of domestic responsibilities, which hold men financially responsible for the family's upkeep.

The review of the literature on migration problems reveals that the effect of migration on family and society are many. The effects are both positive and negative in nature. Some of the major effects are the conjugal separation, female centred families, inter-dependence among relatives and more dependence on friends, increased work load and emotional problems for women and also comparatively greater freedom for women. The major impact of migration is felt by the wives of the male migrant by the way of disturbed emotional health, economic burden, and dual role responsibilities.
The available studies are mostly sociological or economic analysis of the migrant’s problems. There is a need to study in depth, the psychological implications of migration for the wives and children in terms of their emotional health, feeling of loneliness, problems of adjustment, marital difficulties etc.

2.4 Review on Marital Counselling.

Marital counselling and therapy are directed toward improving the couple’s relationship, primarily involving approaches, techniques, and methods designed to modify the non-functional or enhance the functional aspect of the couple’s relationship. Couples seek counselling or therapy when their relationship has reached a state of unhappiness and dysfunction that is intolerable to one or both of the partners or when they desire a greater enrichment of a marriage that is functioning well.

The term “marriage counselling” and “marriage therapy” are currently used interchangeably. They may be seen at the two sides of a continuum, with a strictly cognitive, problem solving approach at the counselling end and a psycho-dynamic approach with an emphasis on the unconscious at the therapy end. Here, in this section, the term “therapy” will be understood to include counselling.

2.4.1 Models of marriage therapy

The following six models have been selected from reviews of the preferred or most frequently practised forms (Humphrey, 1983). (1) Individual. In this early model of marriage therapy a husband and wife each have separate therapist. Here the focus is on the intra-psychic material underlying the relationship. Today such
therapy is usually not considered marriage therapy. (2) Collaborative. In collaborative marriage therapy, both partners are seen individually during the same period of time by different therapist. With the client’s permission the therapist consults or collaborate about the therapies, preferably at regular intervals. (3) Concurrent. Concurrent therapy is the model in which the same therapist sees both spouses in individual therapy only. (4) Conjoint. In conjoint therapy the marital partners are seen together in the same session by the same therapist(s). (5) Tandem. In tandem therapy individual therapy sessions and conjoint marriage therapy sessions are held alternately by the same therapist. (6) Group. There is an increasing use of couples group therapy combined with other models of therapy.

2.4.2 Theories of marriage therapy

As the marriage therapy field developed, it adopted aspects of various therapeutic theories to inform the marriage therapy process. The three major approaches today are those based on the psychoanalytic, behavioural, and system theories (Paolino and McCrady, 1978).

Psychoanalytic theories. The psychoanalytic approaches address itself to understanding the unconscious conflicts that affect the marital relationship. There is an emphasis on the concept of transference, which can be explained as the reaction of the spouse that is similar to the way the spouse reacted as a child to his or her parent. Psychoanalytic theory also emphasises the meaning of level of individuation in mate selection. Meissner (1978) postulate that couples “tend to choose partners who have achieved an equivalent level of immunity, but who have adopted opposite patterns of defensive organisations.
Since the marital dyad creates a family unit of interacting persons, it is important that therapist-researchers explore the conscious as well as the unconscious motivation of the dyadic choice of mate, experiences and conflicts that pre-dated the marriage and the influence of those on current interaction.

**Behavioural theories.** Behaviour theory operates on learning principles, is outcome-oriented, and is directed to positive behaviour change, to problem solving, and to accomplishment of tasks. Originally, its major emphasis was on building positive interaction through a social reinforcement reward system, but recently the emphasis has shifted to problem solving and communication training (Weiss, 1978).

**System theories.** In general the term “system” is applied loosely to a variety of theories addressing themselves to the interaction of the couples as a unit. The system approach highlights the organisation of the parts within the whole of the relationship, the patterned rather than the linear interaction and the importance of the context. Of prime significance are the concepts of homeostasis and feedback.

There are similarities and differences in the approaches to marriage / family counselling and individual / group counselling. A major similarity between marriage / family counselling and individual or group counselling is that they centres on theories. Some theories used in individual or group counselling (eg. Person centred approach, Gestalt therapy, Transactional Analysis and Reality therapy) are also used with couples and families (Horne and Passmore, 1991, p. 12). Marriage / family counselling and individual counselling share a number of assumptions. They both recognise the importance the family plays in the life of the individual. They both also focus on problem behaviours and conflict between the
individual and the environment. But the difference is that individual counselling usually treats the person outside his/her family, whereas marriage / family counselling generally includes as many of family members as possible. Further, marriage / family counselling works at resolving issues within the family as a way of helping individual family members better cope with the environment (Nichols, 1984, p.71).

2.4.3 Studies on marital counselling

The field of marital counselling/ therapy in India is not as recent as is believed. Indian folklore, epic poems and scriptures are replete with reference to advice and suggestion given by a wide range of persons including family members, doctors, lawyers, and priests, both, to married persons as well as to those on the threshold of marriage, on the appropriate ways of handling a marital relationship. The focus has always been on the maintaining and strengthening of marital bond. Marital counselling theory, finds its roots in the west, focuses on the above mentioned aspects to some extend. However with the changing face of marriages in the west, the emphasis in marital counselling theory today is more on the areas of mate selection, decision making in marriage, handling sexual problems in marriage, and working out parenting as a joint responsibility. Marital problems are viewed as a manifestation of pathology among its partners (Strean, 1985, p.104) or as a result of dysfunctional communication between the partners (Satire, 1967, p.67). It is also assumed that marital partners are adult, independent persons, who hold clear-cut status-roles in marriage, and have a couple identity, and the family unit is largely nuclear in structure.

The realities of Indian situation is quite different. In India marriage take place more between families than individuals and the family unit is extended in
spirit. Marital counselling / therapy, therefore, must widen its scope to family counselling / therapy for effective result.

The researches on marital counselling / therapy are only few in India. Channabasavanna and Bhatti’s (1985) study of 30 women who had neurotic symptoms examines the process of therapy in the context of the western based role expectation model in its Indian adaptation, as it is seen to influence the quality of marital life and treatment of marital problems. In the Indian context these roles are culturally bound but shaped by the individual family to some extent. Further, each spouse has a set of roles towards his/her families. The author argues that these role expectations of families influence the spouses. Expected role playing also need to be imbibed similarly by both the spouses and when does not happen, there is marital disturbances. From this perspective the focus of therapy is seen to understand the quality of the marital relationship and the relationship between family of orientation and the couple. That both the husband and the wife involved in the therapy rather than the wife alone marks a significant step towards handling the core of the problem.

In Mohan’s (1972, pp. 232-239 ) analysis of 57 cases it is found that it is rarely the marital partners brings up the problem of marital conflict; the family, after having tried its own efforts at conciliation and compromise, seek help for the problem. In the study Mohan points out the relative ineffectiveness of non-directive analytical therapeutic intervention vis-à-vis didactive / directive therapy. In a comparison between 25 patients handled through non-directive therapy, and 32 handled through directive therapy, the findings indicate that a majority of the former dropped out after two to three session and only six continued for varying length of time. Mohan argues that this high drop-out rate occurs because people
cannot adjust to non-directive therapy in a context where people are not trained to make their own choice. Mohan argues that in this context directive approach was more helpful. Thus the goal of therapy was not to foster independence but adjustment and encourages of interdependence, characteristic of Indian life. Though Mohan does not elaborate up on the specific directive intervention techniques, the research highlights the need to develop specific directive techniques, namely, use of authority, suggestion, etc. in the repertoire of marital counselling techniques for the use in traditional societies like India.

There are many western studies on marital therapy. Regardless of the professional affiliation and curriculum content, the reasons marriage and family counselling has become popular are largely due to the need for it. Gurman and Kniskern (1981) report that approximately 50% of all problems brought to counsellors are related to marriage and family issues.

Hampson et al., (1999) conducted a study to assess the effectiveness of couples therapy and to establish the characteristics and qualities of couples who do best in treatment. Evaluations were undertaken of 139 couples attending a non-laboratory sliding-fee clinic in Dallas, Texas. Findings indicated a direct link between the number of sessions and goal attainment, where couples attending just one or two sessions had the lowest goal attainment. In addition, significant family functioning qualities were found to be associated with success, and more competent couples did better in therapy. Furthermore, it is noted that couples without children fared better in treatment than did those with children. Overall, it was observed that remarried couples without children fared best in treatment, followed by first-married couples with no children, first-married couples with children, and remarried couples with children.
In his research about marital counselling Gurin (1960, p.287) found that advice on how to settle a dispute or resolve an issue was the benefit clients frequently reported. Another benefit is therapeutic intervention. Here the counsellor helps the patients to gain insights into their emotional difficulties and gradually restore their confidence and love, thus creating conditions for decisions and co-operation.

Patterson et al., (1975) found training sessions are effective in increasing the couples' ability to compromise and arrive at positive solutions in an atmosphere of relaxed-give-and take, while at the same time decreasing the amount of disruptive behaviour and “put downs”. The net result of such training session was generally an increase in marital satisfaction.

Johnson and Talitman (1997) conducted a study to examine the client variables expected to predict success in emotionally focused marital therapy—presently the second most validated form of marital therapy after the behavioural approaches. The association of attachment quality, level of interpersonal trust, level of self-disclosure, and traditionality with the therapy outcome variables-marital adjustment, intimacy, and therapist ratings of improvement—were examined. It was found that, overall, therapeutic alliance predicted successful outcome and that, in particular, a couple's satisfaction was predicted by the task dimension of the alliance.

Craig and Olson (1995) made a study to examine and describe the personality characteristics of 145 patients seen in outpatient marital therapy in private practice. Cluster analysis of the entire sample resulted in five separate typologies which were statistically significant and clinically meaningful and which
suggested different goals for counselling. Patients seeking marital therapy were significantly more tense, anxious, worrisome, suspicious, bold, and shrewd than the normal persons in the 16 PF standardisation sample.

O'Donohue and Crouch (1996) discuss whether or not communication training programmes in marital therapy have been sufficiently sensitive to the complexities of gender in communication. Existing data reveal that individuals tend to hold stereotypes of gender differences in language but that many of these purported differences have not been empirically confirmed. However, links between gender and such variables as the amount of conversation elicited, length of utterance, use of qualifying phrases, swearing, use of back channel cues, breaking of silences, function of tag questions, and compliment style have been revealed. Numerous limitations of the empirical literature investigating gender differences in communication behaviour are described, and the development of models of communication in which gender is recognised as having significant implications is proposed.

Sandberg and Harper (1999) made a study to determine the impact of depression on older couples and the implications for marital counselling. Data were drawn from a national survey of pre-retirement- and retirement-aged couples. The findings support two basic hypotheses—that depression in mature marriage is negatively related to marital quality and that hardiness mediates, although moderately, that negative relationship. It is concluded that increased hardiness could act as an essential part of the battle against depression in later life.

Clinical intervention may not be the only source of change in the behaviour of husbands and wives during marital therapy. Spouses may continue to influence
each other, though perhaps in ways different than they did before treatment. Viewed as a short longitudinal study of marital interaction, a pre-test-post-test trial of marital therapy can provide information on the short-term processes of interpersonal influence or interdependence that occur over the course of treatment. Moreover, interpersonal processes and treatment processes may combine to produce unique clinical outcomes.

Cook (1998) presents three structural equation models of marital interdependence that can be applied to pretest-posttest data from clinical trials of marital therapy. Modifications of these models that include a treatment variable are also presented. These models provide tests for treatment effects that are unique to interventions into relationship systems.

O'Farrell et al., (1998) gives a complete report of outcome data from a study of behavioural marital therapy (BMT) with and without additional couples relapse prevention (RP) sessions. Fifty-nine couples with an alcoholic husband, after receiving weekly BMT couples sessions for 5-6 months, were assigned randomly to get or not get 15 additional couples relapse prevention (RP) sessions over the next 12 months. Outcome measures were collected before and after BMT and at quarterly intervals for the 30 months after BMT. Results of the study is that BMT-plus-RP produced more days abstinent and greater use of the Antabuse Contract than BMT-only; and these superior drinking outcomes for BMT-plus-RP lasted through 18-month follow-up (that is, 6 months after the end of RP).

BMT-plus-RP had better wives' marital adjustment than BMT-only throughout the 30 months of follow-up, with the superiority of BMT-plus-RP over BMT-only being greatest for wives with poorer pre-treatment marital adjustment
during the later months of follow-up. BMT-plus-RP also maintained their improved marriages longer (through 24-month follow-up) than BMT-only (through 12-month follow-up). Irrespective of treatment condition, more use of BMT-targeted marital behaviours (e.g., shared recreational activities, constructive communication) was associated with better marital and drinking outcomes throughout the 30-month follow-up period whereas more use of the Antabuse contract was associated with better marital and drinking outcomes through 12-month follow-up.

Alcoholics with more severe marital problems had more abstinent days and maintained relatively stable levels of abstinence if they received BMT-plus-RP, while their counterparts who received BMT-only had fewer abstinent days and showed a steep decline in abstinent days during the 30 months of follow-up. Furthermore, alcoholics with more severe alcohol problems used the Antabuse contract more and showed a less steep decline in use of the Antabuse contract in the 30 months of follow-up if they received BMT-plus-RP than if they received BMT-only.

The conclusion of the study is that for the entire sample, BMT-plus-RP produced better marital outcomes throughout the 30 months of follow-up and better drinking outcomes during and for the 6 months following RP sessions, relative to BMT-only outcomes. For alcoholics with more severe marital and drinking problems, BMT-plus-RP produced better drinking outcomes than BMT-only throughout the 30-month follow-up period.

O'Farrell et al., (1998) investigated changes in sexual adjustment of male alcoholics before and after receiving alcoholism counselling with and without
marital therapy. Subjects were randomly assigned to a no-marital-treatment control group or to a behavioural marital therapy (BMT) or an interactional couples therapy group. Impotence decreased after counselling regardless of whether the subjects received additional marital therapy. Husbands who received BMT reported higher frequency of wives' orgasm during intercourse and more increases in satisfaction with the privacy and context of their sexual activities than did couples in the other groups. The alcoholics still experienced over twice the rate of impotence reported by demographically similar non-alcoholics, however, and in terms of sexual satisfaction, BMT produced only modest improvements as viewed by husbands and no improvements from the perspective of the wives.

Waldron et al., (1997) examined the effect of couple socio-economic status (SES); pre-therapy marital adjustment; and therapist, husband, and wife defensiveness during the third session of marital therapy on post-therapy marital adjustment. Participants were 22 therapists and 88 couples. Each therapist treated 4 couples, 2 from the middle SES level and 2 from the lower SES level. Path analyses revealed that for husbands higher marital satisfaction before therapy was associated with higher adjustment at the end of therapy, but defensive therapist behaviour during therapy was associated with lower post-therapy adjustment. A similar pattern was found for wives, but this should be interpreted with caution owing to potential dependencies in the wives' post-therapy adjustment scores. Neither SES nor pre-therapy adjustment predicted therapist defensive behaviour in therapy, and SES did not predict marital therapy outcome variance. Results suggest that therapist defensive behaviour may reflect a style or characteristic of some marital therapists.
Crane et al., (1995) made a study to predict divorce in a marital-distressed and therapy-seeking population. The sample was from the case records of the Marriage and Family Therapy Clinic at Brigham Young University. Demographic and psychological data as well as Marital Status Inventory (MSI) and Marital Adjustment Test (MAT) scores were available for analysis. Statistical procedures successfully predicted marital status in a high percentage of cases. The most important findings were that wives' variables were more important in divorce prediction than were husbands'. In addition, marital quality was not found to be predictive of marital status.

Waring et al., (1998) studied about marital therapy and depression. Seventeen depressed married women were assigned to marital therapy or a waiting list control group. The couples received 10 sessions of Enhancing Marital Intimacy Therapy (EMIT), a structured technique involving the self-disclosure of personal constructs. The marital therapy group had a significant reduction in depressive symptomatology compared to the control group in this pilot study. EMIT may be a viable treatment for women whose depressive symptoms are initiated by the loss of hope of developing a close, confiding relationship.

Gray et al., (1996) made a study examined the association of marital power type to (a) marital adjustment and (b) response to behavioural marital therapy. A behavioural measure was used to classify 53 distressed couples into egalitarian, husband-dominant, wife-dominant, or anarchic power patterns. Marital adjustment was assessed by measures of marital satisfaction, desired relationship change, and 2 communication indexes. At pre-treatment, egalitarian couples showed the best overall marital adjustment, and anarchic couples showed the worst; at post-treatment, egalitarian and wife-led couples reported the highest
marital satisfaction, and anarchic couples reported the lowest. Wife-dominant couples improved the most, reporting increased marital satisfaction and demonstrating improved communication.

Friedman (1994) gives a theoretical therapy model. In it treatment is limited to six to eight sessions and focuses on special problems raised by the couple and on the couple's capacity to react positively to clinical suggestions. Each partner is asked to state separately their commitment to the marriage and to justify the single quality or behavioural change that would be necessary to make the marriage acceptable to them. The partners meet separately with the therapist for one session and then select one essential issue to work on in therapy. Highlights of this therapy model include homework assignments, negotiation of conflict issues, communication training, and free expression of feelings.

The researches on marital counselling in India are few. All we are getting is the western studies on marriage. The above review gives some of the available researches done in the field. The western models are formed with the assumption that marital partners are adult, independent persons who hold clear-cut status role in marriage, and have a couple identity, and the family unit is largely nuclear in nature. In India the situation is different, where the partners are young in age and emotionally immature and the marriage in India is more between families than individuals. So the review reveals the need of research in the field of marital counselling in the Indian context.