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<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Title and Citation</th>
<th>Similarity Index</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lee, Chih-Yuan S. Doherty, William J.</td>
<td>&quot;Marital satisfaction and father involvement during the transition to parenthood.&quot;, Fathering, Spring 2007 Issue</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Amy J. Rauer</td>
<td>&quot;The Role of Husbands' and Wives’ Emotional Expressivity in the Marital Relationship&quot;, Sex Roles, 05/2005</td>
<td>&lt; 1%</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Zeynep Hamamci</td>
<td>&quot;Dysfunctional Relationship Beliefs in Marital Conflict&quot;, Journal of Rational-Emotive &amp; Cognitive-Behavior Therapy, 09/2005</td>
<td>&lt; 1%</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Mehall, Karissa Greving Spinrad, Tracy L.</td>
<td>&quot;Examining the relations of infant temperament and couples' marital satisfaction to mother and father&quot;, Fathering, Wntr 2009 Issue</td>
<td>&lt; 1%</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Story, L.B.</td>
<td>&quot;Understanding marriage and stress: Essential&quot;</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
questions and challenges", Clinical Psychology Review, 200401


Chapter-One

INTRODUCTION

Marriage is one of the ancient, closest, and most important complex human relationships. It is the base of a society since it results in the formation of family. Its most important characteristic is that it gives social acceptance or sanction to human relationships in the form of acceptance of sexual union of the opposite sexes.

Marriage

Marriage in hindi refers to “udhaah” which means to take “vadhu” into “var’s” house (Basu & Akbar, 2005). Marriage is legal, religious and social union of two opposite sexes in to a family life. The main objective of marriage includes begetting children, raising providing financial and social support to children and spouse (Gupta & Sharma, 2009).

Marriage is essential for human’s deepest needs for companionship, affection and sexual expression (Singh, 2008). Marriage has been defined as a relationship between man and woman which involves mutual dependence and obligation (Anand, Shekhar, Jayakumari & Somasundaram, 2009). Marriage is a social, religious, spiritual, and legal union of individuals, where interpersonal and sexual relationships are accepted by state and religion (Dhar, 2013). Marriage in India is determined by caste system, dowry payments, age, order of birth among siblings and arrangement of primary and monetary needs of family and other systems to which the couple belong (Sheela & Audinarayana, 2003).

Hence, we can say that marriage is an entrance of two opposite sexes to enter into family life which is accepted by social, religion, and law. Husband, wife and children are ought to be in group which is supported by religion or law and they should get
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

social economic functions, and bear their socialization. Marriage provides a secure and protected satisfaction of his needs for companionship, affection and sexual expression (Coleman, 1964).

It has been found that marriage has mental and physical health benefits for the spouses (Burman & Mangolin, 1992; Waite & Gallagher, 2000). When a long-term marriage is mutually satisfying, the partners are less prone to the negative effects of life stresses, while in distressed marriage partners are more prone to the negative effects of stress (Ditzen, Hoppmann & Klump, 2008; Harford & Markman, 1997).

Marriage may be stable or unstable depending upon the nature of interaction between the partners. A stable marriage is one in which relationship ends with the death of one of the spouse. On the other hand, divorce and separation define an unstable marriage (Corsini & Auerbach, 2000; Kluwer, 2010).

There are various factors which affect the stability of marriage. Interaction between husband and wife is an important phenomenon which determines the nature and stability of marriage. A good interaction may enhance the marital satisfaction, and hence stability of marriage. Marital satisfaction also determines the nature and quality of interaction between husband and wife and therefore both affect each other.

Marital Interaction

Newcomb, Turner and Coners (1965) define interaction as a process which refers not just to what goes on with each of the interacting person but also to what goes on between them. Accordingly marital interaction refers to what goes on within and between husband and wife. Epstein and Baucom (1989) have outlined three specific features of marital interaction: behavioral, cognitive, and affective. Researches on marital interaction clearly reveal three peculiar features of the interactions, i.e.,
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

behavioral, cognitive and affective. It has been reported that distressed couples involve less in recreational activities together, spends less time together (Tulane, Skogrand & Defraine, 2011), rate the time together more negatively, display negative behavior when together, one-half or one-third sex than normal, make more negative statements, are more confronting, complaining, defensive and reciprocate more the negative behavior than non-distressed couples. They are likely to interpret more negatively spouse’s statements and intentions, interpret that causes of spouses positive behavior as global and pervasive (Gottman & Levenson, 2000).

It is observed that major cause of marital conflicts in India, is dowry system and in-laws in joint family system. Caste system is also an important factor for marriage in India (Despande, 2002; Gupta, 2000; Mayer, 1997; Srinivas, 1996) and one who defies this system faces social rejection (Dhar, 2013; Sommer et al., 2001), psychological fear, decision to go ahead in a social context (Dhar, 2013). Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1995) found that happy couples have mutual respect, enjoy and cherish each other’s company as compared to unhappy couples. Happy couples are close and compatible (Olson, Olson Sigg, & Larson, 2008).

Dowry is the tradition observed in arranged married, and even after a considerably a longer period, brides are forced to fulfill the dowry demands through their parents. Another factor is sex-roles which are extremely favorable for males. Expansion of education and constitutional arrangements make girls to think and treat themselves equal to boys, but after marriage, situation is not similar, they are forced many times to adopt traditional sex roles. Many married youths are under strong influence of their parents and other older family members and society fellows due to strong bondages and cultural values. They prefer to obey uncritically the saying of their parents and older persons. Parents and other senior relatives of young husbands many times
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

misguide them against their wives in the name of tradition, and use moral force to comply those (Singh, 2008). Tulane, Skogrand and DeFraine (2011) found in laws to be cause of marital distress. Waller and McLanahan (2005) found that couples differ in their expectations of relationship and in this gender difference play a important role and this results in marital distress.

The situation may be vice-versa; parents of wives also misguide their daughters. It is clear that these inferences of parents are due to strong attachment and may lead marital conflicts. These are some social factors which prevail in Indian societies which are different from the western societies where these factors are given less importance due to nuclear family system and individualistic societies (Singh, 2008).

Marital distress, a major personal and social problem of present era is a result of dysfunctional marital interaction. Marital interaction of distressed couples has three specific features. Cognitions are distorted and or in appropriate affection are mixture of emotions as anger, depression, anxiety, and jealousy. Marital distress is rising at an alarming rate in the west. Though, marital conflict was not a serious problem in India, however it is taking a serious shape at present.

Negative marital interaction is found in higher intensity in distressed or unhappy couples as compared to non-distressed or happy couples (Griffin, 2003). The distressed or dissatisfied couples are more negative in their attitudes and behavior (Buehler & Gerard, 2002; Fiorito, 1977; Gottman, 1979; Schaap, 1984). Non-distressed couples are found to be more positive. Positivity is reflected in couples through emotional expression, behavior exchange, and problem solving behavior and also in verbal behavior (Gottman, 1979). Distressed or dissatisfied couples lacks in “positive cues of affect”. The positive cues of affect means empathetic smile, warm, tender voice, attention (Gottman, 1979; Rubin, 1977). Distressed or dissatisfied
couples show more negative affect in terms of their spousal inattention, duplicating voice and crossing over arms (Gottman, 1979; Rubin, 1977) and; more forceful acts in their behavior like leaving the field, using an outside power to force the other to agree (Barry, 1968; Raush et al., 1974); more negative social reinforcement like turn off, put down, disagree, criticize (Birchler, 1972; Hahlweg, Helmes, Steffen, Schidler, Revenstorf, & Kunert, 1979; Vincent, 1972) and more defensive behaviors like disagreement and disapproval of other (Sprenkle, 1975). Distressed or dissatisfied couples are found to lack in social reinforcement like approval, agreement, assent (Birchler, 1972; Hahlweg, Helmes, Steffen, Schidler, Revenstorf, & Kunert, 1979; Revenstorf, Vogel, Wegener, Hahlweg & Scindler, 1980; Vincent, 1972).

Distressed or dissatisfied couples are also found by poor reconciling acts like changing the subject, using humor, accepting the other’s idea (Barry, 1968; Raush, Barry, Hertel, & Swain, 1974), facilitative behavior like positive descriptives about partner along with paraphrasing (Wegener, Hahlweg & Scindler, 1979) and supportive behaviors like outcome agreement, process agreement, self-confidence (Sperenkle,1975).

Non distressed couples are found to be more intimate, less concern about touching their body or touch themselves less and use more open body language than distressed couples (Beier & Stenberg, 1977). Distressed couples are found to use less eye contact (Beier & Stenberg, 1977; Birchler, 1972; Hahlweg, Helmes, Steffen, Schidler, Revenstorf, & Kunert, 1979; Vincent, 1972). While in some studies it has been found that they use more eye contact (Haynes, Follingstad & Sullivan, 1979). The distressed couples keep more interpersonal distance (Beier & Stenberg, 1977). The distressed couples sometimes show more silence (Birchler, 1972; Hahlweg, Helmes, Steffen, Schidler, Revenstorf, & Kunert, 1979; Vincent, 1972). Sometimes they are found to
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

be over talkative too (Beier & Stenberg, 1977) and sometimes they are found to be speaking in high pitch (Foy, 1977). Mangolin and Wampold (1981) found that the interactions as negative reciprocations.

Harfold and Markman (1977) found that the vulnerability of stress is higher in distressed couples as compared to happy couples. Sexual interactions of husband and wife have found to be contributing factor in marital happiness (Hicks & Platt, 1977). Marital satisfaction leads to marital happiness which leads to great source of happiness (Argyle & Henderson, 1985). Julien, Markman and Lindhal (1989) found couple who experience high marital satisfaction had higher mutual feelings of emotions as compared to couples who were found to be low in marital satisfaction. The low marital satisfaction showed, high destruction, forceful behavior after conflict distress.

Smith, Vivian and O’ Leary (1919) studied premarital problem solving discussion and found it to be correlated with marital unhappiness and not to be predictor of post-marital satisfaction. Honeycutt (2009) found that husband's happiness to be predicted by wife's responsiveness. It was also found that the "we"ness in couples increases marital happiness which also predict stability in marriage.

Cohan and Bradbury (1997) found angry newlywed wives had, ore marital adjustment to major interpersonal events resulting in the reduction of depressive symptoms and which resulted in increase in marital satisfaction. It has been found that marital distress is linked with depression and immune competence among women. Kiecolt – Glaser et al (1993) found that negative interaction in couple’s decreases immunity especially among women increases arousal and increases anger. Rosen, Myers and Hattie (2004) found that love and loyalty to the spouse results in marital satisfaction. Feeney (2002) found that increase in attachment leads to increase in marital
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

satisfaction. Kazdin (2000) and Greef (2000) found that good communication between couples results in good marital satisfaction. Gupta (1992) and Greef (2000) found that negative correlation between self-disclosure and marital satisfaction. Gottman (1998) found that lack of acceptance of spouse towards one another decreases marital satisfaction. Researchers over last 40 years have established the importance of not only behavior economics but also cognitive, meditational, and affective aspects of dyad interaction (Baucom & Epstein, 1990).

Komarovsky (1962, 1976) found husband in dissatisfied marriage do not self-disclose while husband in satisfied marriage self-disclose. Gottman and Porterfield (1981) found wives were able to decode the meaning of their husband’s messages. It was also found that decoding was much more in satisfied marriage as compared to dissatisfied marriages.

Distressed or dissatisfied couples enjoyed less recreation together (Birchler & Webb, 1977) and had sex less as compared to non distressed couples (Birchler & Webb, 1990). Distressed couples make more negative statements and less positive ones (Gottman, 1979). It has been found that dissatisfied couples are also more confronting, complaining, as well as defensive towards their partner (Ting-Toomey, 1982). Distressed couples do not interpret objectively (Gottman, Notarious, Markman, Bank & Yoppi, 1976). Rosowsky, King, Coolidge, Rhoades and Segal (2013) found moderate correlation between husband and wife’s marital satisfaction. Husband’s satisfaction was found to be higher than wife’s satisfaction.

Spouse’s judged love as valuable characteristics of marriage (Broderick, 1981). Levenson & Gottman (1983) found an association between arousal level of husband and wife measured physiologically, and cross-sectional measured marital satisfaction. Haas (1970) found that spouses come from happy families had an excellent chance of
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

happy marriage. Successful parental marriage provides model for their children to copy after finding homes of their own (Koller & Cause, 1965).

Greeff and Malherbe (2001) concluded that intimacy increases marital satisfaction in women. Incompatibility in marital role expectation is negatively associated with marriage success. Conflict management is strongly associated with satisfied relationship (Halford & Markman, 1977). Acitelli (1992) and Harrell (1990) observed that relationship awareness occur when both members begin to think about how to interact and how to compare and contrast their respective roles. Though, such awareness is more characteristic of women than of men, marital satisfaction increases when husbands talk about relationship.

Demand-withdraw pattern

Demand-withdraw pattern are a behavior between partners where one spouse criticize behavior of another and pressurize to change (Holley, Haase & Levenson, 2013). Demand withdraw is characterized by the communication pattern in which one spouse avoid to talk about problem of the other spouse (Christensen, 1988; Eldridge & Christensen, 2002). Relationship has been found between changing demand – withdraw pattern and stages in mid-life and later life (Barnes & Parry, 2004; Pruchno & Rosenbaum, 2003; Moen, Kim, & Hofmeister, 2001: Wruzus, Hanel, Wagner, & Neyer, 2013). Holley, Haase & Levenson (2013) found that husbands and wives both show increase in avoidance behavior over time. Heavey, Layne and Christensen (1993) found that demand or withdrawal tendencies are responsible for conflict (Christensen, 1987; Caughlin, 2002; Shoham & Rohrbaugh, 2002; Watzlawick, Beavin & Jackson, 1967). Papp, Kouros and Cummings (2009) found that withdrawal occurred in home frequently in case when discussion involved marital relationship. Demand pattern predicted negative emotion and tactics during marital interaction and
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives led to decreased levels of conflict resolution. The pattern was linked to spousal depression as well.

The hostile communication such as demand-withdraw in marital interaction is found to be a predictor of marital dissatisfaction (Courtnage & Whisman, 2003; Eldridge & Christensen, 2002). Demand-withdraw interaction is identified by criticizing, complaining or suggesting change while spouse or partner tries to change the topic or avoid it, remain silent or leave the room and is found to negatively correlate with relationship adjustment (Christensen & Hevey, 1993; Hevey et al., 1993). Birditt et al (2010) found that withdrawal alone predicted divorce only for husbands.

Julien, Markman, Leveille, Chartrand and Begin (1994) found that wives were more emotionally distressed from their husbands after the statements which undermine the wife’s marriage. Heffner et al (2006) found that husbands withdraw is influenced by wives demanding behavior.

Roberts (2000) found positive correlation of partner’s hostile responsiveness and marital dissatisfaction. Canary, Cupach & Messman (1955) have found disengaging style of demand withdraw pattern as a defensive form of conflict.

Roberts (2000) also found that husband’s hostile behavior decrease wife’s satisfaction. It was also reported that angry withdrawal involves behavior such as stone walling, leaving room, pouting and maintaining silence. It has been found that wives demand and husband withdraw leads to marital distress (Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Gottman & Levenson, 2000; Roberts and Krokoff, 1990; Rubin, 1983; Rugel, 1997). It has been found that withdrawing and avoiding each other are at least two types of behavior shown by couples engaged in conflict (Canary, Cupach & Messman, 1955; Flitzpatrick, 1998; Van de Vliert & Euwema, 1994).
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

Affect

Birchler, Weiss and Vincent (1975) found less negative affect and more positive affect in non distressed marriages. Changes in patterns of negative affect and negative affect reciprocity is found more among distressed than non distressed couples (Gottman, 1979; Hahlway, Revenstorf & Schnidler, 1983; Jacobson, 1977, 1978). Gottman (1979) found that husband uses every possible ways to manage level of negative affect in order to avoid escalation. In dissatisfied marriage when rational, avoiding style of husband receives emotional, engaging style of wives, it results in escalation of negative affect by females and withdrawal by males. Marital dissatisfaction is characterized by less positive affect, more negative affect, more reciprocity of affect which means that one partner would dominate the exchange of affect (Bradbury & Karney, 2004; Gottman, 1979, 1980; Schaap, 1982).

Levenson and Gottman (1983) found wife’s to use more negative interaction than husbands during problem area discussion. It was also found that negative affect in the problem area to be more than events of the day. Wives in dissatisfied marriages reported less positive affect. Wives in dissatisfied marriages showed more reciprocation than their husbands. Husband’s in dissatisfied marriages were found to reciprocate wife’s positive affect (Levenson & Gottman, 1983). Anitill and Conton (1987) found that wives to use more negative affect expressions than husband. It was also found that men disclose less to their wife in long - term marriage. Levenson and Gottman (1983, 1985) found that husband emotionally withdrawals leads to marital dissatisfaction among wives.

Emotional Expressivity

It has been found that communication problem is this most common and complaint of couples (Geiss & O’Leary, 1981). Communication has been reported to be implicit in
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

the construct (Rauer & Volling, 2005; Waldinger et al, 2004). Women are more accountable than men regarding tenure of the marriage (Cancian & Gordon, 1988). Women can act as emotional anchor in their marriages (Alexander & Wood, 2000). Women are more expressive on wide number of emotion. Contrary to these findings, Ingoldsby, Horlacher, Schvendeveldt and Matthews (2005) found that women and men do not differ in emotional expressiveness. It was also found that emotional expressiveness has high correlation with marital adjustment.

Rauer and Volling (2005) found that relationship in which wife is low in emotional expressivity than husband report more conflict and less marital love than spouses were couples are found to be low in negative expressivity. It was also found that only husband’s positive expressivity was associated with marital love and its maintenance. Noller and Fitzpatrick (1990) association between couple’s emotional disclosure and is discrepancies to be more in distressed couples. Spreher and Sedikides (1993) found strong association between tenure of relationship and wife’s positive expression of emotions.

Lippert and Pragers (2001) found husbands who showed more positive emotional expressivity affected individuals (own) marital satisfaction. Marital functioning such as satisfaction to be strongly related to negative emotional expressiveness for both couples (Rauer & Volling, 2005). Halberstaelt et al (1995) and Wong, McElwain, & Halberstadt (2009) found negative emotion expressiveness deteriorates marital satisfaction.

Behavioral interaction

Levenson and Gottman (1983) found dyadic pattern in distressed marriages as wives to be highly reactive while husband to be under aroused and un-reactive. Gottman
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

(1979) found dyadic interactions in distressed marriages to be stereotyped, rigid or restricted in positive affective interactions. It was also found that talk-silence patterns of interaction discriminate distressed from non distressed marriages. Weigel and Ballard- Reisch (2008) found that relationship maintenance behaviors lead not only individual’s own relationship satisfaction but also their partner’s satisfaction.

Gottman, Coon, Carrege and Swanson (1988) found positive affect or emotions to be predictor of marital stability. Griffin (1993) found that wives held negative affect stage longer than husband. The distressed or unhappy couples experienced negative affects of fears, anger and sadness, fear of the impending interaction, anger toward each other and sadness about the black prospects of their marriage (Lawrence & Bradbury, 2001).

Noller and Roberts (2002) found that recognition of emotions to have positive relationship with marital satisfaction. Gotman and Levenson (2002) found volatile positive and negative affect to be predictor of short marriage length. It was also found that “neutral affective style” predicts long marriage length for divorcing couples. Bradbury & Karney (2004) found that when husband’s are high in their positivity, their wife’s satisfaction decline more than double the average and it was also not found to be detrimental to marriage in nature. The marital interaction in which wife’s problem solving and support was negative produced high levels of marital distress.

Hostile behaviors are causal in the decrease of marital satisfaction and that leads to dissolution (Matthews, Wickrama & Conger, 1996; Pasch & Bradbury, 1998). Defensiveness, stubborn and withdrawal patterns predicted marital dissatisfaction in marriage. Conflict engagement in both husband and wife was found to predict marital satisfaction. Distressed couples lack in companionate or friendly expectations from their marriage and they usually avoid conflict in daily life (Krokoff et. al, 1988).
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

Notarious and Vanzetti (1983) suggested that conflict avoiding couples of distressed marriages develop sense of “relational efficacy”.

Dissatisfied or unhappy wives complain their husbands to be withdrawn and dissatisfied or unhappy men complain their wife’s to be too much in conflict (Locke, 1956; Terrman et al, 1938). Rubin (1979) found that husbands in unhappy or distressed marriages show withdrawal negative affect. Komarovsky (1962) found that husbands in happy or satisfied marriages are self disclosed but in unhappy or dissatisfied marriages husbands are withdrawn in nature.

Communication

Communication skills affect marital interaction (Burleson & Denton, 1997). Communication skills are acquired abilities that involve using various interpretive and symbolic resources in the effort to achieve certain social outcomes. Communication has been described as a factor that plays central role in marriage (Burleson and Denton, 1997, Carroll, Hill, Yorgason, Larson & Sandberg, 2013). Communication problem has been described as one of the important problem in relationship (Cunningham, Braiker & Kelley, 1982; Geiss & O Leary, 1981; Hahlweg, Revenstorf & Schindler, 1984). A communication behavior has been linked not only with difficulty in problem solving behaviors but also to other important tasks in marriage (Bradbury & Karney, 2004). Quality of communication has been found to be best predictor of relationship (Holman, 2001).

Lack of communication skills of one or both of the spouses has been identified as the important reason of marital-conflict and predictor of marital dissatisfaction (Baucom & Adams, 1987; Fincham, 2003; Karney & Bradbury, 1995; Tulane, Skogrand & Defraine, 2011; Smith, Vivian & O’Leary, 1991; Weiss & Heyman, 1997). Stanley, Markman and Whitton (2002) found that positive communication increases
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

relationship quality. Distressed couples lack in communication skills (Burger & Jacoson, 1979; Cahn, 1990; Olson, Olson Sigg, & Larson, 2008; Markman & Floyd, 1980) and often misinterpret basic communication as compared to non-distressed couples (Noller, 1980). Markman (1979, 1981) found unrewarding communication patterns in the premarital period of the engaged couples predicts marital dissatisfaction. Couples who cannot manage their conflict skillfully through communication are less satisfied (Fichten & Wright, 1983; Gottman, 1979; Kurdek, 1995; Morgolin & Wanpold, 1981). Destructive communication skill is associated with marital dissatisfaction (Stiffert & Schwarz, 2011).

Stanley, Markman and Whitton (2002) found that those couples who deal conflict with positive communication have higher relationship quality. Communication skill training has been identified as a means of improving couples satisfaction (Hahlweg, Revenstorff, Shindler & Jacobson, 1989; Markman, REnick, Floyd, Stanley & clements, 1983; Turkewitz & OLeary, 1981).

Gardner and Wampler (2008) found that behavior patterns and emotions during episodes of communication have association with relationship quality and marital outcomes. Christensen and Shenk (1991) found that non-distressed partners have more constructive communication during the discussion and divorced couples have more avoidance demand-withdraw communication during their discussion. They also found that distressed couples have low levels of communication levels as compared to distressed couples. Communication skills level differentiates satisfied dissatisfied couples (Holtzworth – Munroe & Jacobson, 1991; Jacobson, Waldron & Moore, 1980).

“Communication behavior” refers to verbal and non–verbal action that the speaker actually emits and that are observable by others” Burleson and Denton (1992). It has been found that differences in distressed and non distressed couples communication
behavior (Boland & Follingstand, 1987; Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1990; Schaap, 1984). Burleson (1992) found that communication involves message production, message reception, interpreting and storing, coordinated interaction and social perception. Markman (1984) and Perrone and Worthington (2001) found that communication effectiveness predicts marital satisfaction. Baccus (1987) found that distressed couples have low levels of communication effectiveness than non-distressed couples. The distressed couples also show low level of perceptual accuracy than non-distressed couples. Dehle et al (2001) found that when a spouse perceives support through communication, it increases marital relationship. Abrupt communication was found significant predictor for family distress (Bateson, Jackson, Haley & Weakland, 1956 ; Watzlwick, Beavinn & Jackson, 1967). Interpersonal distance is result of affect in-regulation not unclear communication (Gottman, 1943). Husbands rejecting influence from their wives was found predictor of divorce while women rejecting influence from husbands was found predictor of divorce (Gottman et al 1998).

**Violent behavior**

Violent couples physically abusive towards their wives (Babcock et. al, 1993). Violent husband show less social support than non-violent husband (Holtzworth – Munroe, Stuart, Sandin, Smutzler & Mclaughlin, 1997). They were also found to be more belligerent or domineering, and were more contemptuous. Haefner, Notarius and Pellegrini (1991) found satisfaction to be related to spouse’s behavior. Vanzetti, Notarious and Nee Smith (1992) found relationship enhancing attributes more in satisfied couples.

Ficthen and Wright (1983) found that distressed wives showed more negative behaviors than husband. Husband’s negative behavior and wives negative behavior were found to correlate highly.
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

Upbringing
Marital dissolution has been found to be associated with problematic childhood. Parental divorce has been linked to their children’s proneness to divorce (Amato, 1996; Bradbury & Karney, 2004; Feng, Giarusso, Bengston & Frye, 1999; Amato & DeBoer, 2001). Amato and DeBoer (2001) also found that spouses reported engaging in disruptive behaviors more often and more doubtful about their future of marriage. Feng et al (1999) found that parental divorce of wife’s predicted wife’s early marriage, which later resulted in her divorce. Conger, Cui, Bryant and Elder (2000) found that the relationship quality of children with their romantic partner was higher when they saw their parents to be nurturing, involved and supportive. Jacquet and Surra (2001) found that wife’s from divorced parents reported more conflict in their relationship, less trust, satisfaction as compared to wife’s with intact families.

Children
Negative co-relations have been found between the presence of children and marital satisfaction (Tulane, Skogrand & Defraine, 2011). High levels of marital satisfaction during the prenatal period of child and after that the marital satisfaction declines over time (Cox, Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999). It was found that presence of individual differences in marital satisfaction in initial level and over change of time. Paley, Burchinal and Payne (1999) found that couples who had planned pregnancies reported slightly more marital satisfaction as compared to couples who had unplanned
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

pregnancies. It was also found that parents of girls had decreased marital satisfaction as compared to parents of boys gradually over time.

Couples who showed positive problem solving communication had more marital satisfaction after the birth of first child (Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999). Husband and wives did not differ significantly in marital satisfaction (Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999). Marital satisfaction was found to be significantly related to the gender of the first born child i. e., boy or girl marital satisfaction was also found to be significantly related to whether the prenatal problem solving style of couples was negative and positive.

Husband was reported highly positive in his interaction with wife before birth of child had highest level of marital satisfaction (Cox, Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999). Partners in couples where wife had low positive problem solving and husband had high positive problem solving reported slightly more marital satisfaction than couples in which both partners had high positive problem solving (Cox, Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999). Change in the patterns of marital relationship was obtained and the changes were related to planned pregnancy, depressive symptom of partners couple s problem solving- behavior and also gender of the child (Cox, Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999).

**Birth of a son Vs Birth of a daughter**

Spanier and Glick (1981) found women who had at least one son stayed in their first marriage more as compared to those with all daughters. Morgen, Lye and Condran (1988) found that women who had daughters had more marital separation than women who had sons. Couples who had first child as son were actively involved in parenting especially by father whereas mothers activity didn’t differed between sexes of child
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

(Cox, Owen, Lewis & Henderson, 1984). Cultural bias has been found towards first born child as males (Pederson, 1982). Cox, Payne, Burchinal and Payne (1999) found divorce to occur more in couples who have only daughters and no sons.

Planned Vs unplanned pregnancy

Mixed finding on the impact of planned and unplanned pregnancy have been found (Belsky, Ward & Rovine, 1986). Unplanned pregnancies are found to be stressful (Neugarten, 1979). Marital satisfaction was found to be related significantly to planed pregnancy and unplanned pregnancy (Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999).

Problem solving

Marital satisfaction and problem –solving interactions decline over period of time (Cox, Payne, Burchinal & Payne, 1999). Conflict has been found to be necessary and to improve adjustment among couples to keep their marriage satisfactory (Cox, Brooks-Gunn & Paley, in press, Wilson & Gottman, in press).

Fals – Stewart and Birchler(1988) found distressed husband showed poor problem–solving skills. Higher stress hormone reactivity during problem solving discussions has been found to lower marital satisfaction (Glaser, Bane, Glaser & Malarkey, 2003).

Cognition

Halford and Sander (1990) found that when one partner experience hyper vigilance (an enhanced state of sensory sensitivity accompany by an exaggerated intensity behavior whose purpose is to detect threats) after repeated experiences, their physiological aroused may throw them into fight mode, or, when completely overwhelmed, shut down the system completely too stone wall.

Dildar, Bashir, Shoaib, Sultan and Saeed (2012) found emotional intelligence to positively correlate with marital adjustment. No effect where found between gender
and age. Family income was found to have direct relationship with marital adjustment. Mohammad, Mokhtaree and Sayadi (2012) found that emotional intelligence between men and women did not differ significantly. Emotional Intelligence relationship with age was not found statistically significant. The relation between young and middle-aged group was not found statistically significant. Unmarried women from nuclear families demonstrated better adjustment and emotional maturity than rural married women from joint families who reported high degree of frustration, underscoring the interaction effects of mental health and demographic variables of location and marital status (Chouhan & Bhandari, 1993). Unmarried working women experienced more emotional insecurity than their married counterparts, divorced women experienced significantly more anxiety and insecurity than married and single women (Mrinal et al, 1997).


**Cognitive Complexity**

Cognitive complexity and aspects of marital interaction are related (Applegate, 1990; Burleson, 1987; Denton, 1995). Burleson and Denton (1992) found positive correlation between cognitive skills. Positive association was found between couples cognitive complexity and marital satisfaction. Couples who were at predicting the impact of messages on one another had positive feeling for each other. The cognitive complexity and PFS (positive feeling for spouse) scores were found to be
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

unassociated among non–distressed couples. Predictive accuracy and perceptual accuracy was found to be positively associated with positive liking of spouse in non-distressed marriages while these were not significantly related in distressed couples.

Zamsky (1997) found communication differences in distressed and non-distressrd couples as attributing factors to race, socio economic and marital satisfaction. Van Widenfelt (1995) found non-distressed couples differ in problem solving skills which require high cognitive skills. Vuchinich (1985) in a study of dinner time disputes found 67% couples ended in stand offs. Mendelson (1971) and Morse (1972) found that problems of distressed couples are centred on communication and content aspect. Busch (1975) found that acceptance and rejection changes frequently in distressed couples.

Comorbidites

Biglan et al (1985) and Sandberg et al (2012) found causal association between marital interaction and depression. Mclabe and Gotlib (1993) found depressed wives to become more negative in their interaction. Marital quality and depressive symptom are highly correlated (Downey & Coyne, 1990; Bach, Sandeen & O Leary, 1990). Depression was found related to less positive marital interaction for wives when pregnancy was planned and for husband when pregnancy was unplanned. (Cox, Paley,Burchinal &payne,1999). Ramano et al (1991) found pain patients to show more “solicitous” behavior. Turk, Kern and Rosanbreg (1992) found positive attention of pain from spouse. Partners who have depressive symptoms reported less marital satisfaction at initial stage or phase and marital satisfaction decline gradually over time (Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999). Unhappy couples suffer from high level of stress physical injuries. (Glaser and Newton, 2001; Lavaleker, Kulkarni & Jagtap 2010; Neff & Karney, 2004)
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

Lavaleker, Kulkarni and Jagtap (2010) also found the same result. Hayden et al (1998) found mother and father involvement to be strongly related to couples interactions. Divorce and separation results in phycho-pathology, accidents which can be fatal also, increase in immune-suppression (Boom et al, 1978, Buman & Mangolin, 1992). Hawkins and Booth (2005) found that low quality, long term marriage to have significant negative effect on one’s overall well being, lower overall happiness, poor life satisfaction, poor health and psychological distress.

**Personality**

Happy couples are compatible in their personality (Olson, Olson- Sigg, & Larson, 2008). Couples who are similar in behaviors perceive themselves as happier (Actelli, Keny & Weiiner, 2001; Barton & Catell, 1972; Dryer’ & Horwitz, 1997).

Kilmann and Vendemia (2013) found personality differences in married couples for marital distress. It was also found that longer married distressed couples were less impulsive, exploitive, and insensitive as compared to short or intermediate marriages. Husband’s marital distress was found to be associated with impulsive, narcissistic and competitive characteristics. Wife’s marital distress was found to be associated with discrepancies of spouse’s self centeredness. The “behavioral acting out” factor was found to make significant impact on marital distress. The factor significantly differentiated longer married couples from shorter married couples. Wives were found to be more ego centric than husband and was identified as a cause of marital distress.

Shiota and Levenson (2007) contradicted the above studies and found that the couples who are similar in their personality characteristics have decreased marital satisfaction over time. Neuroticism has been found to cause marital distress (Barry, 1970; Doherty & Jacobson, 1982; Fisher & McNulty, 2008; Gattis, Berns, Simpson, & Christensen,
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

2004; Terman & Buttenweiser, 1935; Zaleski & Galkowska, 1978). Kelly and Coonley (1987) found that neuroticism of husband and wife as well as impulse control are strong predictors of marital dysfunction or distress whereas life events had negligible influence. Rajah, Nagarajan and Sundaram (2010) found maladaptive personality traits in the partners responsible for marital distress. The anxious or dependent traits and anankastic traits were found more in husbands and histrionic traits was fond more in wives.

Gattis, Berns, Simpson, and Christensen (2004) found that distressed couples and non-distressed couples showed significant differences neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness scales and for the positive expressivity measure in small measures. It was also found that no satisfaction difference between husband and wife. It was also found that similar personality traits of spouses predict marital happiness.

Submissive wife’s report more marital dissatisfaction (Blum & Mehrabian, 1999). Caughlin, Huston & Houts (2000) found that high trait anxiety results in negative marital relationship, resulting in partner’s marital dissatisfaction. Kurdek (1993) found that spouse’s who widely differs in their personality characteristics have high risk of conflict and termed his theory “Spousal discrepancy theory”. Kurdek (1991) found that couples who differ more on expressiveness end as separated or divorced.

Kilmann (2012) found personality factors such as greater distance, apathy, hostility and domineering in husbands, wife’s reported higher passiveness and submissiveness responsible for marital distress. Marital partners change and mature during course of time which can effect marital satisfactionor dissatisfaction levels for one or both the spouses (Berscheid, 1998; Nichols & Pace-Nichols, 1993; Parke, 1998; Shiota & Levenson, 2007). Bondenman (1997) reported that “dyadic coding” along with stress was a predictor of stability and happiness.
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

Conflict

Marital conflict is a kind of interaction in which partners try to resolve their differences (Montogomery, 1989). Happy or non distressed couples have better conflict resolution than unhappy or distressed couples (Olson, Olson Sigg, & Larson, 2008). Donnellan, Assad, Robins & Conger (2007) found conflict management to be key feature of marital satisfaction. Phillips (1975) found that dissatisfied couples spend approximately 180 hours per year during conflict and were more frequent whereas satisfied couples spent 16 hour per year in conflict and were less frequent.

Partner self-evaluations were linked with self evaluation and marital interaction during a conflict discussion (Mendolia, Beach & Tesser, 1996). Brown and Smith (1992) found that during conflict husband’s blood pressure increases with increase hostile feelings while wife’s blood pressure didn’t increase however, anger hostile, coldly assertive style occurred. Escudero, Rogre and Gutierrez (1997) found distressed couples partners showed dominations. Segrin, Tricia and Domschke (2009) found that couples with low marital satisfaction were more negative and showed more belligerence behavior.

Kelly and Conley (1987) found that distressed couples lack in basic skills and more prone to escalation during conflict. Segrin, Hanzal & Domschke (2009) found that distressed couples have difficulty in conflict management, resolving differences, to meet each other’s need and emotional intimacy. These factors are responsible for successful marriage. Noller and Feeney (1998) found that in distressed marriages spouse’s their suppress or inhibit real feelings to expressing order to avoid conflict and then starts behaving differently. Distressed couples use more controlling skills forcefully (Billings, 1979; Grey-Littl’e & Burk, 1983). Levenson and Gottman (1983) found that distressed couples have greater physiological relatedness association with
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

marital dissatisfaction. Physiological linkages such as heart-rate, skin conductance and pulse transmission was found to be stronger during conflict as compared to low conflict events of the day discussion. Glaser and Newton, (2001) noted that marital conflict and poor health are related.

Kelly et al (1978) concluded that females cries and sulk to criticize that husband for lack of consideration of her feeling and for insensitivity to his effect on her. The husband shows anger, rejects the females fear, to logical and less emotional. Parsons and Bales (1955) found that during conflict wives are more coercive personality attacking than men and that man were resolving and reconciling than women. Frankenhaeuser (1975) found males to be more sensitive than females and the effects of normal weaning deviates. Gottman (1998) found that intervention techniques like marital therapy significantly reduce the divorce rates. After marital therapy the couples had increased level of marital satisfaction. All therapies are effective and there exist a large replase effect. The study also found out that couples whose interaction where harsh or punishing had least hope of improving these interaction in the future and their marital satisfaction drastically. Gigy and Kelly (1992) found that the reason of divorce to be distance and isolation of partner and a diminishing “marital friendship”.

Dysfunctional relationship beliefs

Dysfunctional beliefs are highly predictive of marital distress (Addis & Bernard, 2002; Eildeson & Epstein, 1982; Epstein & Eildeson, 1981; Ellis, 1986; Ellis, 2003; DiGuisepppe & Zee, 1986). Hamamci (2005) noted that high correlation between marital conflict and dysfunctional relationship beliefs. This relation also resulted in higher stress.
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

Similar results were found (Epstein, Baucom and Rankin, 1993). Contrary to above findings Haferkamp (1994) found no relation between difference in religious belief and conflict in marriage.

Religiousness

Marks (2005) found that couples sharing same religious values leads to increase in their marital interaction. Religious participation and spirituality can increase problem solving and increase marital quality (Beach, Fincham, Hurt, McNair & Stanley, 2008; Lambert & Dollahite, 2006), restricts or act as barrier to behaviors which ruins marital relationship such as drug abuse, infidelity and crime (Edin & Kefalas, 2005).

Hunler and Gencoz (2005) found religiousness to predict marital satisfaction. It was also found that problem solving ability was not enhanced by religiousness. Religiosity i.e. strong religious beliefs increase marital satisfaction (Bahr & Chadwick, 1985; Call & Heaton, 1997; Thomas & Cornwall, 1990).

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Various studies has been carried out showing relationship between marital satisfaction or dissatisfaction and various dimensions of marital interaction such as communication, problem-solving, demand-withdrawal pattern and other related factors but none of the study reveal relationship between wife’s maternal home attachment, maternal support, birth-order etc. The present study aims to explore variables which predict wife’s marital interaction in light of parental support, attachment with maternal home, parental income, birth order, education, and tenure of marriage. Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives in the present study has been defined as the negative interaction between husband and wife.
OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH

1. a. To explore whether marital interaction is determined by parental support in wives.
   b. Whether the above said effects are different in wives who are divorce seekers from those seeking marital counselling.

2. a. To explore whether marital interaction is determined by attachment with maternal home in wives.
   b. Whether the above said effects are different in wives who are divorce seekers from those seeking marital counselling.

3. a. To explore whether marital interaction is determined by wife’s parental income.
   b. Whether the above said effects are different in wives who are divorce seekers from those seeking marital counselling.

4. a. To explore whether marital interaction is determined by birth order, education and tenure of marriage.
   b. Whether the above said effects are different in wives who are divorce seekers from those seeking marital counselling.

HYPOTHESES

1. It is hypothesized that parental support of wives would influence the marital interaction, and the effects would be different in divorce seekers from those seeking marital counselling.

2. It is hypothesized that attachment with maternal home of wives would influence the marital interaction, and the effects would be different in divorce seekers from those seeking marital counselling.
Marital interaction of dissatisfied wives

3. It is hypothesized that parental income of wives would influence the marital interaction, and the effects would be different in divorce seekers from those seeking marital counselling.

4. It is hypothesized that birth order, education and tenure of marriage would influence the marital interaction, and the effects would be different in divorce seekers from those seeking marital counselling.