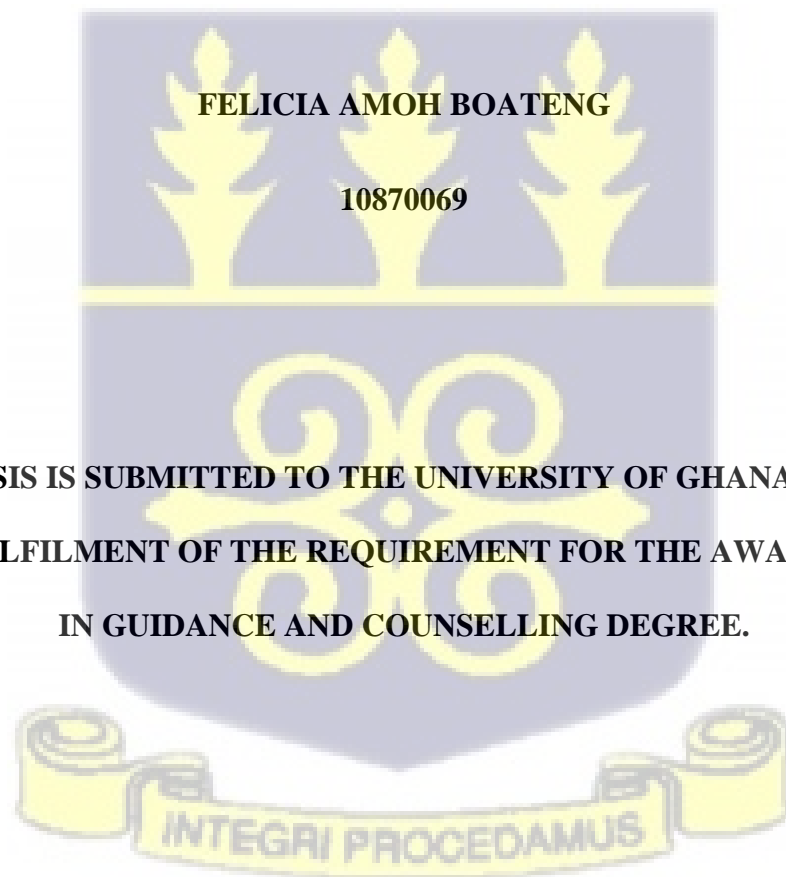


University of Ghana <http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh>

METHODIST UNIVERSITY COLLEGE GHANA

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

**INFLUENCE OF PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS ON MARITAL SATISFACTION
AMONG MARRIED COUPLES AT ACCRA METROPOLITAN AREA**



**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN
PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MPhil
IN GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING DEGREE.**

September 2020

DECLARATION

I, Felicia Amoh Boateng, wish to declare that except for reference and other citations, which have wholly been acknowledged, this work is originally done by me as a student after a research conducted under the supervision of Rev Prof. Daniel Yao Bruce and Dr. Peter Abomah as part of satisfying my obligation to the Department of Psychology, Methodist University College Ghana. This work has not been submitted in whole or in part for any University degree.



FELICIA AMOH BOATENG

04/09/2020

SIGNATURE

DATE

(STUDENT)

This work has been submitted for examination with our approval.



Supervisor's Signature:

Date: 04/09/2020

Name: Rev Prof. Daniel Yao Bruce



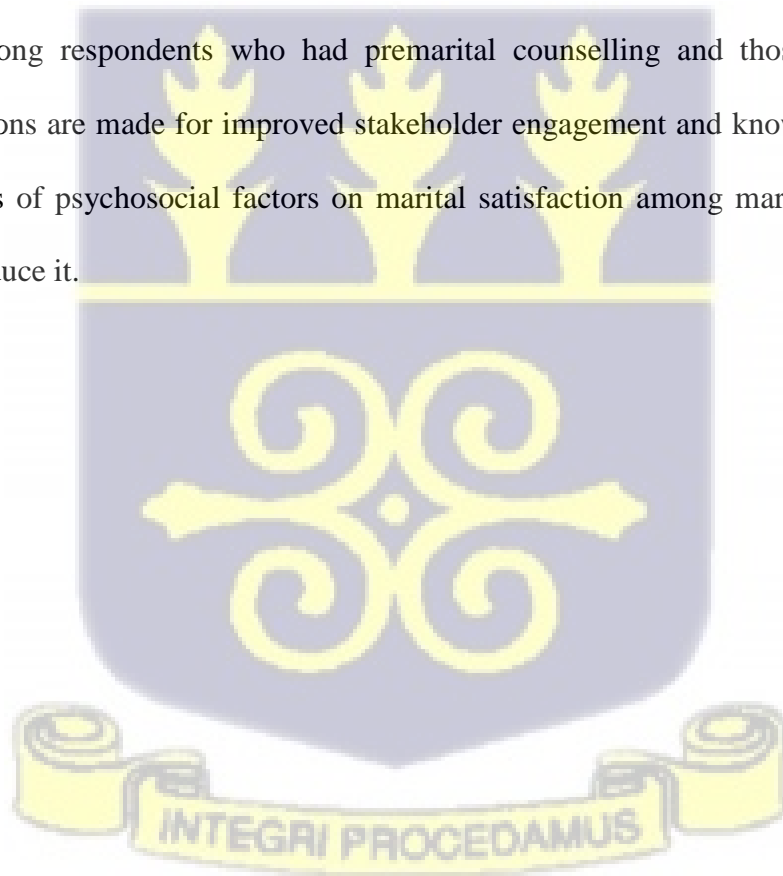
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ABSTRACT

The study assessed how psychosocial factors affect marital satisfaction among married couples living within Accra. Based on this, hypotheses formed included whether there would be a significant difference among respondents in age at marriage, premarital counselling, level of education, gender, each on marital satisfaction, and whether parental stress will negatively correlate with marital satisfaction. Convenient sampling was used to sample 389 married persons. Instruments used were Marital Satisfaction Inventory and Parental Stress Scale. Hypotheses was tested using Univariate analysis and Pearson Correlation tests. A significant difference was found among respondents in gender, age at marriage and level of education. Parental stress was negatively correlated with marital satisfaction. No significant difference was found among respondents who had premarital counselling and those who did not. Recommendations are made for improved stakeholder engagement and knowledge about the negative effects of psychosocial factors on marital satisfaction among married couples and strategies to reduce it.



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To all who in diverse ways helped in the realization of this research, I am profoundly grateful.



DEDICATION

To my husband, Nathaniel and wonderful children, this journey has not been easy but with your love and unflinching support, it has come to a successful end.



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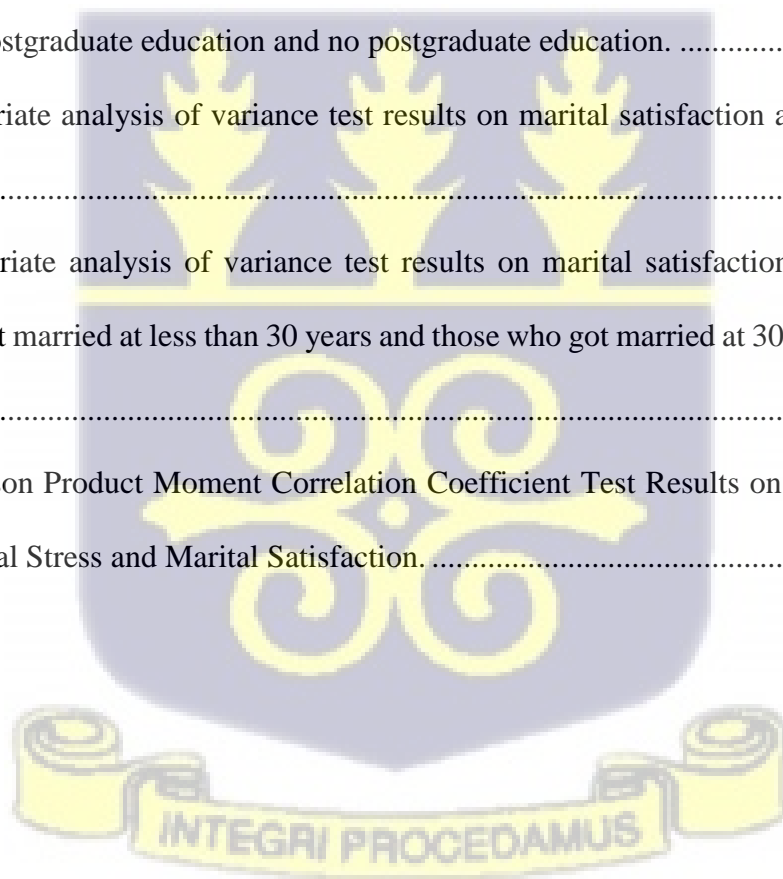
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Abra (2001) has defined marriage as a union between a male and female who live together and are biologically unrelated. Advantages such as being sexually gratified, love, companionship and acceptable means of childbearing are derived from this union (Abra, 2001). Adigeb and Mbua (2015) also defined marriage as vital and a basic human relationship because it makes provision for the ultimate structure for establishing a family and rearing a child. Fincham and Beech (2002) also defined marriage as a union which brings two persons together which lasts until one or both persons die. Marriage is the institution endorsed for setting up and nurturing family life in every known culture (Brown, 1991; Nunkuya, 2003). According to Litzinger and Gordon (2005), marriage is an essential institution in the African sociocultural setting.

Additionally, it is seen as one of the stages of growth and development, as such, some scholars argue that marriage is one of the markers of adulthood, particularly in the African context. A satisfying marriage is of central importance in building a stable and fully functioning family institution in any society. The importance of marriage cannot be underestimated as it provides social, economic, and emotional benefits to partners (Abed, Aliasghar & Hamidreza, 2015). Marriage is expected to promote physical well-being since it offers adequate emotional, social support and control which are key processes to discovering and fulfilling the reason for an individual's existence (Choi and Marks, 2008).

Olson and Olson (2000) emphasized the importance of the marital institution as the most nourishing and enduring asset in human relationship. Generally, married persons show content with life and demonstrate mental wellness (Rosen-Grandon, Myers & Hattie, 2004).

Also, according to Lehnart and Neyer (2006), it was discovered that people who have relationships that are worthwhile are less likely to be moody and get easily irritated or frustrated. They are less likely to be shy and have a higher level of self-confidence. Individuals in healthy relationships, overall, are generally happier, and being in such relationships gives everyone a desired purposeful and productive existence. Successful marriage is associated with both physiological and psychological health.

One of the most vital objectives of entering marriage is the desire to have a satisfying marriage (Heshmati, Behnampour, Arabameri & Kohan, 2016). Satisfaction in marriage is a complicated and multi-faceted occurrence. It has been substantially explored by the most varying empirical fields (Rebello, Silva & Brito, 2014). According to Schoen and Weinick (1993), satisfaction in marriage refers to a universal assessment of the condition of one's marriage. This reflects how happy one is in the marriage and how well one can operate optimally in the marriage. (Schoen and Weinick, 1993). Using an evolutionary approach, satisfaction in marriage reflects a mental condition of balanced mechanisms that keeps track of the advantages and expenses of marriage to an individual (Zainab, Nasir, Ruzy & Noraini, 2012). Marital satisfaction is the bedrock upon which a marriage succeeds or thrives amidst all the ups and downs that a couple may encounter throughout their marriage journey.

Baumeister (2006) also defined satisfaction in marriage as a cognitive situation that mirrors the rewards and costs incurred by being married as envisioned by a person. Hence, the more losses a marriage partner imposes on a person, the less satisfied that person generally is in the marriage and with the marriage partner and vice versa. Satisfaction in marriage is a subjective affair in marriage which can only be assessed by each married person in response to the degree of fulfilment in marriage (Kaplan & Maddux, 2002). According to Kaplan and Maddux (2002), satisfaction in marriage reflects what each married person expects and desires in their marriage. There are many public health implications that come with a satisfied marital

relationship (Halford, Markman, & Stanley, 2008). Some include emotional and psychological well-being, greater happiness, and high life satisfaction (Waite & Gallagher, 2000). Thus, an individual who is satisfied in the marriage is less prone to suffer from depression (Williams, 2003), experiences better self-assessed health, and productive end-result (Umberson, Williams, Powers, Liu, & Needham, 2006). Marital satisfaction, therefore, can be referred to as an individual's personal marriage encounter in terms of when their needs are met, and their personal expectations are materialised (Adigeb & Mbua, 2015).

In my opinion, the authenticity of the marriage is shaped by the happiness of each partner and how enjoyable the marriage is to each partner irrespective of what may come their way as a couple. As such, it takes the persevering and relentless effort and commitment of each of the couple to ensure that each other is happy as individuals and in the relationship as well. The expectations of the married couples as well as that of the people within their sphere of influence and that of the society at large create poor marital satisfaction when unmet due to one reason or another. Although, it is believed that marital satisfaction is necessary not only for the stability of the marriage, but also for the spouses to interconnect with each other, additional fact-finding is required in this field (Dzadey, 2015).

However, studies have shown within some decades that marital satisfaction is not so easily attained (Rosen-Grandon, 2004). This is so because a broad scope of both cognitive and socio-demographic factors should be considered when analysing satisfaction in marriage (Rosen-Grandon, 2004). These factors can affect the thinking, feeling, behaviour, communication, and other marital interactions of the husband and wife (Rosen-Grandon, 2004). Family life and marital satisfaction are especially important and are recognised as principal predictors of general living standard (Shek, 1995; Stutzer & Frey, 2006). However, satisfaction in marriage can have an impact not only on the somatic and psychological health of both partners (Holt-Lunstad, Birmingham & Jones, 2008). It also affects the growth of children,

their general wellbeing, academic attainment, skills they use to communicate and relate with others (Cummings & Davies, 2010).

Nevertheless, most married couples in an unhappy marriage quickly resort to the breakdown and dissolution of their marriage as the ultimate solution. Several studies have indicated that the rate of divorce is on the increase. The Registrar of marriages at Accra Metropolitan Assembly has records of divorces under the Customary Law Marriage. Divorce has progressively impacted several individuals in Ghana for the past three decades. Accra Metropolitan Assembly (AMA; 2008) indicates that out of over 1,647 registered marriages, there were 664 divorces between 2006 and 2007 in Accra alone. Alarming rates retrieved from the Head Office of Legal Aid Ghana (2011) specifies that within a period of 14 months at least 40% of marriages contracted yearly in the region split-up (Oppong Asante, K., Osafo, J., & Nyamekye, G., 2014). This implies that the rate of divorce is increasingly alarming and that the issues of marriage need to be critically assessed in order to put the right measures in place to deter married couples who intend to tread the same path.

There are several factors that influence marital satisfaction among couples. Several studies have been conducted on some of these factors which include the level of education (Nwafor, 2009), marital communication, spousal respect and forgiveness (Offei- Kwapong, 2018), age (Dzadey, 2015), number of children, time spent together, depression, affection, and sexual activities (Adigeb & Mbua, 2015), among others. A research by Guo and Huang (2005) found age, gender, educational attainment, number of children, presence of male children, and health conditions as significant determinants of satisfaction in marriage. Pimentel (2000) also suggests that education and income could affect satisfaction in marriage. In this study, the focus would be on the influence of psychosocial factors (age at marriage, gender, level of education, premarital counselling, and parental stress) on marital satisfaction.

According to Target (1980), elements such as the mode of communication between couples at home, marriage relationship, the presence of children, influence of in-laws, couples' meeting the sexual desires of each other, and reconciling occupational differences contribute to marital dissatisfaction. Others are lack of love and moral commitment, lack of financial comprehension, and domestic violence (Target, 1980). The phenomenon has also created mental and communal insecurities among individual couples (Ellis & Harper, 2005). This has resulted in increase in prostitution among married women and men, inattentiveness in their workplaces, break-up, rise in children's deviant behaviour, and reckless behaviour by both married men and women (Ellis & Harper, 2005).

It is undeniably true that married couples who go along with each other enjoy companionship with their family and friends, solve problems together, are quite satisfied in their marriages, demonstrate satisfaction with the personality habits of their partners, and are highly satisfied with their marital and sexual life. The danger of uncertainty associated with the problem of lack of satisfaction in marriage has therefore created grave challenges to marriage therapists. To this Owuamanam and Osankinta (2005) ascertain that in African societies and specifically in Nigeria, some marriages even collapse before their first anniversaries. Being aware of the components that lead to dissolution of the African family, may be the fundamental step in coming up with programs that can be used to address the reported rise in divorce in that country (Takyi, 2001).

The society in which the family is the foundation would be strongly built if marriage is healthy and stable, and the couples are satisfied. One of the vital functions of modern marriages is to reach a state of marital satisfaction in the home (Adigeb & Mbua, 2015). Satisfaction in marriage remains an extensively researched topic in the area of marriage and family psychotherapy (Adams, 1988; McKenry and Price, 1988; Nye, 1988; Spanier and Lewis, 1980). Many intellectuals have identified issues that involves many details and exchange of views

notwithstanding abundant research in this area (Zainah, Nasir, Ruzy, & Noraini, 2012). There is, therefore, the need to add on to research in relation to the study of the factors of marital satisfaction. This would help marriage therapists and all stakeholders to identify variables that could predict a great outcome of marital success. This is because people get into marriage and look forward to having a satisfying marriage, which is conceived as a successful marriage in promoting marital satisfaction and family stability.

1.2 Problem Statement

The impact of satisfaction in marriage on an individual's welfare, psychological wellness, and the family of that individual is very vital. This calls for the urgency to comprehend the elements that may influence satisfaction in marriage and the measures required to enhance it. Many studies have been carried out on divorce. A common example is the research conducted by Acheampong and Heaton (1989). The findings show an alarming concern of increasing divorce rates in Ghana. Divorce appears to be the ultimate result of dissatisfaction in marriage until the right strategies are adopted in resolving the marital issues.

Statistics available at the Accra Metropolitan Assembly, Ghana - Accra on customary marriage in 2008 indicates that out of 1,511 registered marriages, a total of 618 marriages were dissolved. In January 2007, out of the 136 registered marriages, 46 were also dissolved. According to the Head of Registry of Legal Aid, married women who apply for separation every week exceeds the number of married males (Asoodeh et al, 2010). All these account for a serious threat to social stability in the nation.

The Registrar Generals Department indicates that in the year 2010, the percentage of cases of terminations of marriages from the month of January to April points out that there will be more cases of divorce by the end of 2010 when compared to that of previous years (2009

and older). According to the Registrar General's report for the year 2008, about 10.3 percent of Christian marriages ended in divorce (Asoodeh et al, 2010).

Diener and Lucas, (2000) said they are still incompetent to decipher the convolution of the human relationships and what exactly precipitates the success or the failure of a relationship especially in the domain of marriage. This is because marital satisfaction is an indispensable aspect of family life that moulds people's fitness although both longitudinal and transversal studies have been performed. However, there is inadequate empirical research from a social psychological dimension that has investigated the concept of marriage and marital satisfaction in Ghana (Dzadey, 2015). It is in the light of this that this research work is trying to contribute to existing literature by exploring some psychosocial factors namely parental stress, premarital counselling (psychological factors), age at marriage, level of education and gender (social factors) to see the role they play in an individual's marital satisfaction.

1.3 Purpose of the study

This study seeks to assess some underlying psychosocial factors of marital satisfaction from the viewpoint of married persons in Accra Metropolitan Area. This would also aid in reducing the rate of emotional or psychological divorce or separation and to promote long, healthy and satisfying marriage relationships among couples and prospective married couples amidst all the challenges that may arise in their lifelong journey. This study would also complement the efforts of therapists and counsellors on issues pertaining to marriage, counselling and divorce which will further contribute to literature available in Ghana.

1.4 Aims and Objectives

The research aims mainly to examine and understand the influence of psychosocial factors on marital satisfaction among married people at Accra Metropolitan Area.

The specific objectives are:

1. To find if a difference exists in score of marital satisfaction between respondents who had premarital counselling and those who did not.
2. To investigate the impact of the level of education on marital satisfaction.
3. To examine the difference in marital satisfaction scores between male and female spouses.
4. To find out if a difference exists in score of marital satisfaction between married persons who married at less than 30years and those who married at 30years and above.
5. To assess the relationship between parental stress and marital satisfaction among married persons.

1.5 Scope of the Study

This study is limited to married couples living within Accra Metropolitan Area.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study among other things will draw the attention of married people to the ways and means of achieving satisfaction in marriage. This awareness will help manage risky behaviours of married persons that lead to divorce. The findings of this research will expose individuals who intend to get married soon to how to achieve a satisfying marriage and find alternative routes to separation or divorce.

It will also add up to the existing literature on marital issues and guide policy makers to make well- informed decisions in relation to the institution of marriage. In addition, this research can equip stakeholders in social welfare with the right plan and implementation strategies to educate the community about the need to be satisfied in their marriages with regards to the influence of psychosocial factors on marital satisfaction. In the long run, the application of knowledge obtained from this research would reduce tendencies of married persons to engage in divorce. Again, students and researchers conducting a similar study in the future can employ the findings as a source of reference.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter's focal point is on the theoretical and empirical evaluation on premarital counselling, parental stress, age at marriage, level of education and gender and how these psychosocial factors influence marital satisfaction.

2.1 Psychosocial Factors

In this research work, psychosocial factors are elements that impact married couples' psychological responses to marriage and its associated conditions, potentially causing psychological health problems and marital satisfaction/dissatisfaction. These are psychological and socio demographic factors that could affect husband's and wife's behaviour, thinking, feelings, communication, and other interpersonal interactions in marriage. As such, these factors need to be taken into consideration when evaluating satisfaction in marriage. The psychological factors in this study include premarital counselling and parental stress, and the socio demographic factors are age at marriage, level of education, and gender. Each of these factors and its implication on marital satisfaction are discussed in detail below

2.1.1 Premarital Counselling

Premarital relationship period is when two people decide to know more about each other and form love bonds essential to live together prior to marriage. Friendship before marriage and engagement are necessary for the purpose of being satisfied in marriage (Özgülven, 2000). Premarital counselling refers to “a therapeutic intervention for couple that

occurs before they live together as husband and wife” (Murray & Murray, 2004). It is also a “form of counselling which centres around how a man and a woman relate, and guides them to evaluate their relationship in view of their approaching marriage” that aids couples to know each other and to explore ways that will enhance the stability of their marital life (Diaz, 1966).

Premarital counselling programs are also offered to couples without distress in their relationship and are aimed to help prevent future distress. This is achieved by first drawing attention to the problems that are likely to occur. Next, it offers the avenue of providing the information, skills, or resources needed to prevent or improve these issues (Carroll & Doherty, 2003). Some researchers (Carroll & Doherty, 2003; Stanley, Amato, Johnson, & Markman, 2006) have recognized the importance of marriage preparation for premarital couples. Marriage preparation has been linked to improved satisfaction in marriage, increased loyalty to a spouse, and a 31% drop in the divorce rate (Stanley et al., 2006). Certain media reports in Ghana have attributed the high incidence of marriage breakdown to a lack of marriage preparation (Ghana News Agency, 2007a).

Marriages are deteriorating, and those entering marriages are not adequately prepared. In 2012, Ghana Statistical Service’s 2010 Population & Housing Census reported that closely 600,000 marriages contracted in Ghana have collapsed and over 300,000 ended in separation (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012). A leading Ghanaian Family and Marriage Counsellor suggests that one of the root causes for breakdown of marriages is lack of effective premarital counselling. He observes: “Lack of pre-marital counselling, absence of training in the home that prepares people for future courtship and marriage, or poor counselling that does not provide the important details of the meaning and purpose of marriage” (Kisseadoo, 2016).

In a research to find out how Pre-Marriage Counselling affects Marital Satisfaction of Newlywed Couples in Iran it was indicated that premarital education had a positive significant

effect on sexual, non-sexual and satisfaction in marriages of couples. Another research by Özgüven (2000), Tuğba and Melek (2010) indicated that enrolling in relationship program before marriage increases the chances of having a satisfying marriage. In their study they found that because early in the engagement process couples are not experiencing initial distress often, they see no reason to change (Sullivan, Pasch, Cornelius & Cirigliano, 2004). A study on the effects demographic variables have on satisfaction in marriage highlighted that comprehending the pressures and presumptions experienced by married couples that could be a stumbling block in attaining satisfaction in marriage, is vital for every married person to achieve a considerable level of marital satisfaction (Zainah, Nasir, Ruzy & Noraini,2012) .

2.1.2 Parental Stress

According to Deater-Deckard (1998); Holly, Fenley, Kritikos, Merson, Abidin & Langer (2019), parental stress is the anguish you experience when you feel you just cannot fulfil your duties as a parent. When the tasks assigned to you as a parent are too weighty or the resources needed are not enough to adequately carry out your roles as a parent, you are likely to experience parenting stress (Deater-Deckard, 1998; Holly, Fenley, Kritikos, Merson, Abidin & Langer, 2019). In other words, parental stress arises when parenting demands far outweigh the resources available to the parents that increases their chances of being successful in the parent role. Heightened levels of parenting stress hinder warm responsive parenting and inspires crude reactive caregiving. In this regard, parenting stress also influences the relationship between the parent and child negatively. External factors such as harsh economic conditions, having a child/ren with difficult temperament, medical, emotional, or behaviour problems, and having an inadequate support system or lower levels of social support can exacerbate higher levels of parental stress.

In the marital context, lower levels of social support are evident when either of the spouses (husband/wife) is more responsible for the daily upkeep of the children which results in a lower degree of marital satisfaction among the couples. In other words, a spouse is less happy if the partner imposes great demands. Likewise, an increase in the perceived rewards results in an increased content a married person is with the marriage and with his or her marriage partner. Low marital satisfaction lessened child outcomes in the Incredible Years Parent Training Program (Webster-Stratton, 1984), specifically that for mothers reporting low satisfaction in marriage. The results of several research indicate that parents who have children with disabilities experience higher stress in parenting, poorer cognitive wellness, and career suspension. They also lose their leisure time and are more likely to experience marital dissolution than parents with children who have no disabilities (Brobst, Clopton & Hendrick, 2009; McConkey, Truesdale-Kennedy, Chang, Jarrah & Shukri, 2008; Risdal & Singer, 2004; Rogers & Hogan, 2003).

2.1.3 Age at Marriage

Age at marriage is a key indicator of marital satisfaction among married couples. It is dependent on the specific environmental, economic, and cultural circumstances in any society. Generally, age ranging from 18 to 25 years and 24 to 30 years are the most suitable marriage ages for women and men, respectively. This is because some believe that marriage at older ages is accompanied with a higher quality of life and that marrying at the age of below 18 for women and 20 for men will likely be associated with divorce or marital failure and lower marital satisfaction or a decreased stability of marriage (Booth & Edwards, 1985). Most psychologists agree to the assertion that older people are level-headed in understanding than younger ones hence a strong positive correlation exists between age and understanding. It is said that communication serves as the engine of every healthy relationship and is fuelled by

“understanding”. Gordon (1994) attributed what goes wrong in marriage relationships partly to miscommunication. According to Dabone (2014), married persons who marry at younger ages are revengeful. They are seriously disoriented in so many ways. This is because of the changed life stage they find themselves. On the other hand, older married people have experienced a lot of life phenomena and have adapted themselves to these circumstances.

As a result, they are appreciative of the shortfalls of people especially their partners as compared to young people. African communities attach a great deal of importance to sustained and successful marriages because married couples who fall within that category are accorded much respect. This respect is what most old married people desire. Rogers and White (1998) are also of the viewpoint that what is perceived to be a difference between young married persons and old married persons is that old married people have a higher level of commitment than young married people rather than the age at which they got into marriage.

Age at the time of marriage has been the focus of most research in marital satisfaction (e.g. Lee, 1977; Booth & Edwards, 1985). There is a harmonious assertion that the younger an individual is at first marriage, the higher the likelihood of not being satisfied in the marriage. This implies that the younger one is when married, the higher one is likely to engage in divorce (Lee, 1977). People who marry at a younger age are more prone to marital instability than those who marry later in life. One major reason for addressing age is that factors which are negatively related to marital “success” (i.e. whether one divorces or remains married) include many which are related to age at time of marriage, such as low education, premarital pregnancy, short premarital acquaintance, personality maladjustment, and low socioeconomic background (Burchinal, 1965).

2.1.4 Level of education

One of the factors that can greatly affect marital satisfaction is the educational attainment or the couple's education. Ideally, the correlation that exists between spouses' educational attainment and marital satisfaction cannot be side-lined. Cambridge advanced Learners Dictionary (2003) defined education as the knowledge acquired from the process of teaching or learning in a school. Education is also defined as the application of knowledge in making use of one's potentials to the highest degree. In this light, the objective of education is to evolve the proficiency of students.

According to Nwafor (2009), the two primary reasons for education are to train the human mind in becoming a right thinker who can make good decisions and to equip one to embrace the broad world with a wholistic mind and adjust well to the increasing competitive world. While education can be formal or informal, the present research work is interested in the formal which refers to the type of education acquired in formal settings such as the schools. And informal education refers to the type of education acquired in an informal setting such as the home. However, what remains a predicament over the decades is the kind of relationship existing between educational attainment of spouse and marital satisfaction.

In recent times, Ghana has taken a drastic turn from what it used to be in the past two or three decades such that people have come to be fully aware of the importance of formal education and both males and female members of the society have accepted it. Unquestionably, quality education would not only make an individual ready to face the great challenges of our time, but it also positions individuals to obtain greater economic advantages, such as employability. A study carried out by Barongo, Okwara, Aloka, and Masoka (2015) indicated that couples who had the same level of Higher or Lower levels of education showed more satisfaction than, the couples with different levels of education (High-Low educational attainment). Also, couples with equal higher educational attainment (High-High) are more

satisfied than the couple with equal education (Low-Low). While the couple with equal low level of education (Low-Low) were more satisfied than the couple with unequal level of education (High-Low).

Another study by Nwafor (2009) which examined the influence of education attainment on marital satisfaction found that the level of education attainment significantly influences marital satisfaction. Their finding also harmonized with Walsterg, Walster & Bersched, (1978) equity theory. Thus, the more the costs incurred the relationship outweighs the rewards derived, the lower the level of satisfaction experienced by the individual in the relationship. And as observed by Sprecher (1995), inequality in relationship results in negative outcomes such as a decrease in commitment to the relationship, happiness and satisfaction with the relationship. The outcome is likely to be a relationship break up.

2.1.5 Gender

We must understand what “gender” is and how different it means from “sex” in this study. Gender is defined as individual’s ascribed role because of his or her sex in the society (Juni & Grimm, 1994). The terms “gender” and “sex” are often used homogenously, however, these terms are not synonymous. Sex refers to the biological difference between females and males, while gender refers to the social and psychological factors often associated with being female or male. While we tend to impose a gender-based classification system on the world, it is worth noting that gender is not just a binary concept, as maleness and femaleness can occur on a continuum, as can sex (Knox & Schacht, 1991). One can then say it is not the sex in itself that predicts marital satisfaction in this case as may be believed initially but rather the gender that is characterised by the role of an individual that is associated with his or her sex in the society (Juni & Grimm, 1994) indicating the extensive roles variables such as culture, race,

upbringing, values and beliefs play in an individual's gender makeup and its related marital satisfaction. Scholars of marriage assert that how men experience marriage differs from how women experience marriage.

Gender contributes essentially to numerous aspects of life and the way a woman and man relate. Different challenges that similarly affect marital satisfaction are experienced by both wives and husbands. For example, many husbands reported the increased pressure levels to meet both family and work demands and are more likely to want to spend more time with their spouse and children compared to wives (Roxburgh, 2006). There is also the difficulty for husbands understand and manage the wives' needs, emotions and demands. Males also struggle with the experience of rejection within the context of sexual intimacy and feeling unable to satisfy their wives' desired communication levels and styles (Thompson & Walker, 1989).

These and many other challenges may result in a decreased satisfaction in marriage for husbands. This may offset the discomfort wives tend to experience to the point in which husbands and wives are similarly satisfied or dissatisfied with their marriages. The route to marital discomfort mostly lies with the wife becoming dissatisfied in the relationship. Hence, wives are more likely to seek marital therapy (Doss, Atkins & Christensen, 2003) and to start the process of separation (Montenegro, 2004; Rokach, Cohen & Dreman, 2004). There is proof that marriage and division of household labour differ by socioeconomic status (Amato & Hohmann-Marriott, 2007), (Davis & Greenstein, 2004; Geist & Cohen, 2011; Warner, Lee, & Lee, 1986), and race (Amato et al., 2007).

Also, there is evidence that division of labour and childcare tasks evolve over the course of marriage. As children become a part of the home through birth and leave the home when they are older, and as the parents retire from full-time employment (Miller & Yorgason, 2009). According to feminist theory (Bernard, 1972) and evidence from empirical research (Grote &

Clarke, 2001; Stevens, Kiger & Mannon, 2005), these disparities in marital power and division of household labour that are associated with demographic factors may affect gender differences in marital satisfaction.

Women's second-in-command duty as wives is reflected as unequal control of money earned by both husband and wife, and double standards regarding sexual behavior (Finlay & Clarke, 2003; Walker & Thompson, 1995). This is so because unequal balance of control fuels less satisfaction in marriage (Ball, Cowan, & Cowan, 1995; Brezsnayak & Whisman, 2004; Gray-Little, Baucom, & Hamby, 1996). Hence wives are likely to experience a less satisfying marriage than husbands.

According to the feminist theory (Bernard, 1972), husbands have better health than wives. In support of her argument, there is empirical evidence that men derive more health benefits than women from being married (Waite, 1995). A nationally representative longitudinal study found that the transition to first marriage for men was associated with a 27.9% increase in the probability of being in excellent or very good health, compared to a 4.8% increase for women (Williams & Umberson, 2004).

Likewise, men's transition to remarriage was associated with a greater health benefit than for women. Men also benefit more than women from marriage because women shoulder the majority of nurturing a child and carrying out household chores (Bernard, 1972). Indeed, the unequal division of household labour and childcare has been a central focus of feminist theory and research (Ferree, 2010; Osmond & Thorne, 1993). The tasks assigned to women in marriage are nearly always more challenging than their husbands', especially for working-class women who experience extra responsibilities (being a wife, mother, homemaker, and employee). Usually, the emotional suppositions of women are often unmet by men because women and men are socialised differently.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Dynamic Goal Theory

The dynamic goal theory of marital satisfaction suggests that personal growth goals, instrumental goals, and companionship goals are the three types of marital goals (Li & Fung, 2011). Companionship goals refer to the need for a sense of belonging and relatedness in the marriage specifically in intimacy and commitment. Personal growth goals refer to the need for the desire to improve oneself in the marriage. Spouses can help each other in achieving this goal through affirmation and provision of support.

Instrumental goals are about the need for spouses to contribute to household tasks and other duties assigned to each other, such as child nurturing, and financial management of family funds. The level of significance of each of the marital goals experience varying changes across adulthood. Generally, couples at a younger age prioritize personal growth goals, couples who are middle-aged prioritize instrumental goals, and couples at an older age also prioritize companionship goals. The importance of marital goals is also affected by other elements, such as life transitions and cultural values and practices of each married person. Awuah (2013) stated that the extent to which the goals an individual set in marriage are attained predicts their level of marital satisfaction.

Also, he cited critical thinking and problem-solving skills, effective communication, among others, as facilitators of organizational goals. Prioritized marital goals can also influence the modes of marital interaction to attain higher satisfaction in marriage. As such, this current theory offers a simplified way to combine previous studies about marital satisfaction from the developmental perspective. It also adds on to both the research works already carried out on satisfaction in marriage and how the various prioritized goals enhance a satisfying marriage. In summary, this theory indicates that marital satisfaction is regulated by the fulfilment of each of the prioritized marital goals during certain stages of development in the marriage.

This theory is applicable to this study because it goes a long way in explaining and creating the understanding that marital satisfaction is on an individual basis and dependent on the individual's own prioritized goal for the marriage. Failure to achieve these set goals result in marital satisfaction and vice versa.

2.2.2 Social Exchange Theory

Homans (1961) centrally ideates the way people relate to each other based on costs incurred and benefits obtained from their interaction. He originally adopted the term “social behaviour” for what subsequently was referred to as social exchange. He stated, “Social behaviour is an exchange of goods - material goods but also non-material ones, such as the symbols of approval or prestige (Homans, 1958, p. 606),” and afterwards in his publication, social behaviour is recognized “as an exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons (Homans, 1961, p. 13).” Having a conversation with someone costs you time and energy (Redmond, 2015). This can be neutralized by the benefits gained for instance growth of a relationship and confirmation of your worth.

The theory concerns how several people interact with one another. Thibaut and Kelley (1959), Homans (1958), and Blau (1964) also addressed how this theory also influences how individuals generally behave. This theory generally applies to how people relate with one another. Blau (1964) annotated social exchanges as “voluntary actions individuals engage in that are motivated by what they are expected to gain from those actions (p. 91).” He lays much emphasis on the fact that the action is non- mandatory to differentiate it from behaviour that is constrained. The definition of Homans draws attention to the fact that people are aware of being liable to a cost because they look forward to receiving a benefit which should either balance

the cost induced or exceed it. The rewards we obtain can be either inherent (love) or external (providing support with household tasks). The dependence of at least one of the partners on the other is what leads to this phenomenon known as social exchange. Blau (1964) stated that to meet the personal goals of an individual, a reciprocation must occur with some other individual. For instance, being cherished, earning a salary, being assisted with an assignment you lack knowledge about, or getting a pay-check all constitute social exchange.

Blau(1964) categorized social exchanges into two main roles “to establish bonds of friendship, and to establish super-ordination over others (p. 89).” Continuously engaging in social exchanges builds more trust, and interdependence in close relationships. A balanced, reciprocal, interdependent relationship is created when the personal goal of each partner is being met. However, super-ordination occurs when social exchanges take place continuously to the point where the other partner becomes over-dependent on the person meeting the partner’s needs. Exchanges can be inherent or discussed with the other person involved (Molm, 2003).

When people incur a cost while meeting the needs of their partners without making known to them exactly what they expect in return even though they expect something in return, this is termed as reciprocal exchanges. Exchanges of that nature are not coerced and usually happen due to the establishment of relationships created by earlier productive exchanges (Mitchell, Cropanzana & Quisenberry, 2012). Nonetheless, discontentment and a pessimistic effect on the relationship evolves when there is failure to repay the debt or favour. On the other hand, when people discuss emphatically what they expect in return for meeting the needs of their partner, negotiated exchanges occur. These may include going on a date, dashing a friend some money, selling your used clothes. However, with negotiated social exchanges, expectations are likely to be unsaid (Redmond, 2015).

Additionally, scholars have identified that the outcome of a social exchange process is affected by the duration of a relationship. Thus, at the initial phase of a relationship which is termed as ‘the honeymoon phase’, the couple may ignore some costs they incur which is contrary to what happens in an older relationship. Hence, with reference to cost-benefit analysis, the duration of a relationship directly affects how that relationship is evaluated by the couple (Long- Crowell, 2016).

In relation to this study, marital satisfaction is greatly affected when individuals in a marital relationship compare the cost and benefit of their marriage to their past pre-marital relationship and life as a single individual and realise that the cost is significantly higher than the benefits they are getting from the marriage. This leads to unhappiness in marriage and eventually marital dissatisfaction if it persists. Another factor too is that when marital expectation is high because of one’s past romantic relationship, it leads to marital disappointment. Hence, increased chances of marital happiness and satisfaction is fuelled by having lower comparison and marital expectation levels. The social exchange theory, therefore, goes a long way to throw more light on the factors that leads to marital satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

2.2.3 Equity Theory

According to Asoodeha, Khalilib, Daneshpourc & Lavasanib (2010), equity theory lays emphasis on people’s response to and handle situations in which they feel the rewards they are receiving are lesser than the costs they are incurring. Equity theory lays emphasis on having benefits that are equal to the contributions (Walster, &Traupmann, 1980). Everyone may not consider equity as vital in their relationships (Buunke & Van Yperen, 1991). Mckenzie (2003) revealed that the absence of equity results in less satisfaction in close relationship. People

consider themselves to be under-benefited or over-benefited in inequitable relationships. When people receive lesser benefits than contributions made as compared to their partner, under-benefited inequity occurs. On the other hand, when people receive more benefits than costs incurred in comparison to their partner, over-benefited inequity occurs (Guerrero, La Valley & Farinelli, 2008). Many studies have reported that women experience under-benefited inequity more often as compared to men (Utne et al, 1984; Saginak, & Saginak, 2005). In a study by Pillemer, Hatfield, & Sprecher (2008) on the importance of fairness and equity for the marital satisfaction of older women in the USA, the outcome was that (85%) of them regarded their marriages to be equitable.

In relation to this study, people experiencing equity in marriage should be more satisfied than those who are not experiencing it in marriage. The marital discomfort experienced correlates with the severity of inequity experienced in the marriage (Walster, Traupmann & Walster, 1978) leading eventually to an increase in marital dissatisfaction, and in worst case scenarios, a dissolution of the marriage.

2.2.4 Erikson's Psychosocial Theory of Human Development

The psychosocial theory of human development as established by Erikson (1963) stress the cognitive tasks that are distinctive in the growth of everyone from birth to death. He focused more on the sociological processes and how it affects the satisfaction of the individual. To achieve this, he paid more attention to the roles played by the family and the larger society in the growth of the individual. This growth process occurs across eight stages in the life of every individual. He emphasizes that the outcome of the passage through each stage is in two folds – a resolution or crisis on conflict. Therefore, each of the stages constitute a pairing of the most positive and most negative aspects of the crisis period. He then indicated that to equip the

individual with the required skill necessary for the next stage, it is sufficient for the resolution of a crisis to be made.

Evidently, this research is focused on the sixth stage of the psychosocial theory of development. Intimacy versus isolation (the sixth stage), deals with how couples interact socially. This includes building familiar work relationships, establishing reciprocal friendship, and intimacy. Erikson theorized that the major challenge among married couples stems from having a sense of fulfilment by interacting with others instead of avoiding partnerships and becoming socially and personally isolated. The resolution of this conflict is vital in determining whether the adult is more concerned with making the partner more satisfied in the marriage. This is achieved by creating a household with an equitable division of labour (Erikson, 1987). As a result, the adult who achieves that as well as helping others to grow develops the personal integrity needed to face the final crisis of life.

The import of this theory in this study highlights how satisfaction in marriage is sustained through intimacy shared among married persons and the need to create and sustain a satisfied home. This is achieved by sharing intimate thoughts and feelings, offering up their own identity, and seeing it reflected in their loved ones. Married persons must develop their ability to form deep intimate relationship with each other to enhance satisfaction in the marital home. This theory encourages married persons to form deep emotional attachments, develop love and affection for one another for satisfaction in the marriage relationship to be materialised.



2.2.5 Cognitive-Relational Model of Stress (Lazarus, 1991)

This model of stress dwells on a cycle of appraisal of environmental stress how to cope with the stress afterwards. Appraisal of stress in the environment and methods of coping are mediating measures that seek to diminish the intensity of stress. This model is also referred to as the Transactional model Lazarus Theory. Precursors that start the cycle of the appraisal activity include the following:

Stressors: There are the immediate causes of the stress, such as a frozen computer screen, being scolded, or losing money. General stressors include:

Deprivation: Being uncertain or lacking knowledge about what you want or lack of understanding about something.

Difficulty: Not being able to take the appropriate measures.

Threat: Anticipated possibility of danger or harm.

Harm: Physical or cognitive impairment. The main source is the physical surroundings. Negative imaginations also play a vital role.

Stress is a cumulative process. One large stress is the sum of many small stresses. The merging of several factors can produce severe stress. In addition to direct stressors, other contextual factors contribute appreciably to the process of appraisal. Context is vital in yielding an explicit interpretation in any appraisal, whether driven by stress or not. In stressful situations, appraisal comes to play when environmental factors may heighten the stress or constrain coping. The appraisal process is affected by the internal human aspects of the individual undergoing. Some people are more susceptible to stress because of their personality (as in neuroticism in the big five personality model). On the extreme end, those who actively take risks have a high stress threshold. An essential factor to consider is the ability of the person to cope with stressful situations once they happen. Thus, some people are more capable in

handling stressful situations than others. Other diverse personal factors can be a contributory factor to how people perceive stress, such as their level of extroversion.

Appraisal is often misjudged as a single activity but is made up of two distinct components. These include assessment of the situation (primary appraisal) and identifying what to do about the situation (secondary appraisal). Appraisal is the **'thinking stage'**. Here, aspects from the antecedents are taken and coping actions are thought of in connection with that. It takes place as a response to stress, even though the person may not perceive what occurred as 'stress' but as an 'issue'.

Primary appraisal: In primary appraisal, first, people appraise for short-term threat to needs. Next, they appraise for longer-term impact on personal and organisational goals. They may also give their attention to seeking opportunities and looking forward to challenges. This may be short and internal. It may also access external knowledge from other people.

Secondary appraisal: Here, people usually decide what can be done to lessen the feelings of stress. What they choose to do may depend to a large extent on how conversant they are with the situation and the means they can adopt. These choices are often spontaneous and flawed and yet can be functional. There is a kind of fight or flight option in deciding what to do. The person may either try to look for means to address the situation inducing the stress or just give oneself up to the stress.

This theory is therefore applicable to this study since it addresses stress on the cognitive-relational principles which emphasizes that one's interpretation of stress is defined by how one interprets the cycle of appraisal of stress induced by the physical environment as well as cognitive factors and its subsequent coping which the researcher believes will help in discussing the findings on stress and marital satisfaction.

2.3 Review of Related Studies

2.3.1 Marital Satisfaction among Couples

According to Hinde (1997), satisfaction in marriage refers to how a married person generally interprets the marital relationship. Satisfaction in marriage also refers to how a married person subjectively assesses the specific components within her or his marriage (Durodoye, 1997). Fatehizadeh, & Ahmadi (2006) are also of the view that satisfaction in marriage plays a huge role in stabilising the marriage. According to Garcia & Rivera (1999), satisfaction in marriage is considered at three levels. These levels include satisfaction with one's spouse, satisfaction with family life, and the general satisfaction with life.

Some researchers have focused on the relationship between stability and marital satisfaction (Utne, et al., 1984; Givertz, Segrin, & Hanzal, 2009), and equity and marital satisfaction (Saginak, & Saginak, 2005; Davis, Emerson, & Williams., 1997). Asoodeha, Khalilib, Daneshpourc & Lavasanib (2010) are of the view that a relationship in which one is satisfied forms a fundamental and complicated aspect of intimate relationships. Wong and Goodwin (2009) demonstrated that in Britain, Hong Kong, and China, the most important factors in marital satisfaction comprises financial stability in the family, a firm relationship and cooperation with the spouse, and support related to the wedding. A person's ideas about himself is influenced by beliefs and cultural values (Markus, & Kitayama, 1991).

There are many public health implications that come with a satisfied marital relationship (Halford, Markman, & Stanley, 2008). Some include emotional and psychological wellbeing, greater happiness, and high life satisfaction (Waite & Gallagher, 2000). According to Baumeister (2006), satisfaction in marriage is a cognitive state that mirrors the anticipated benefits and cost incurred in the marriage to a person (pp. 541). The greater the costs incurred

in a marriage, the more the partner experiences less satisfaction. Similarly, the greater the perceived benefits obtained, the greater the satisfaction experienced in the marriage and with the marriage partner.

Litzinger and Gordon (2005) defined marriage as an essential institution in the African sociocultural setting. According to their research, marriage is seen as one of the stages of growth and development, as such, some scholars argue that marriage is one of the markers of adulthood, particularly in the African context. However, marriage which is seen as an important institution in the African setting is under threat due to the rate at which individuals are engaging in the practice of divorce thereby undermining its value and sacredness. In recent times, individuals who are not satisfied with their marriages opt for divorce as a quick way out (Dabone, 2014). Divorce has been a serious issue in Ghana for decades and has progressively affected several individuals (Oppong Asante, Osafo & Nyamekye, 2014).

Marital satisfaction is made up of multiple dimensions of concepts that includes factors such as child nurturing styles, sexual relations, personality features, and financial matters (Tazekand, Nafar and Keramati, 2013). As Hakins said quoted from Ahuyi (2004), marital satisfaction refers to a maturing cognitive emotion of reciprocal fulfilment, accomplished amusement and a productive outlook for the wife and husband. Using conflict resolution style, spouse self-disclosure, and self-disclosure (Hatch & Bulcroft, 2004) enhances a mutual satisfaction in marriage.

Fincham, Beach & Davila (2004) emphasised that the style adopted in resolving conflict and one's ability to show feelings in the first five years of life predetermines satisfaction in marriage. Other factors considered in relation to satisfaction in marriage can be affected by couple's mutual agreement on the style of relation, how they express their emotions, sexual relation, activities engaged in during leisure time, sharing of household tasks, duration of

spending time with each other, external network and supply (Vangelisti & Huston, 1994) and incompatible explanations (Bradbury, Beach, Fincham, and Nelson, 1996).

Studies and findings on some psychosocial factors and its relation to marital satisfaction; these proposed factors which are premarital counselling, level of education, parental stress, gender, and age at marriage are presented as follows:

2.3.2 Age at Marriage and Marital Satisfaction

Anim (2013), in a study examined how much discomforted men and women are in their marital relationships and the psychosocial factors that are linked with distress in marriage. A total of eighty (80) married men and women made up of 40 husbands and 40 wives were used as respondents. The Marital Happiness Scale, and a questionnaire that measured demographic characteristics were adopted to gather data. Two research questions were answered, and one hypothesis was tested. Findings revealed that wives scored higher distress than husbands in marriages. Psychosocial areas which showed as areas of high distress in marriages include communication, time spent together, sex relations, and friendliness. The study revealed that the lower the age of wives, the higher their distress. An explanation given was that wives can handle their discomforts better as they grow. That of husbands, on the other hand was not correlated.

Additionally, a study conducted by Dabone (2014) using 320 registered married people (160 males and 160 females) which assessed if age differences influenced couple satisfaction within the Sunyani Municipality in the Brong Ahafo Region using the Marital Satisfaction Inventory was used for the study. The study discovered that both old (112) and young (208) married couples were not satisfied with their marriages. Furthermore, the younger a couple the higher their levels of marital dissatisfaction. Hence, age differences do little to influence marital

satisfaction among couples. However, Dabone (2014) failed to provide reasons as to why both older and younger couples have similar levels of satisfaction in marriage.

On the contrary, Madanian and Mansor (2013) conducted a study in which 29 female students and 18 male students from the Iranian University in Malaysia were evaluated to check their satisfaction in marriage considering factors such as age, level of education, number of children, length of marriage and level of finance. Data were collected using Latifeh-Shafeq Marital Satisfaction Instrument and was analysed using Winstep software, version of 3.6. A higher percentage of participants were satisfied in marriage. Age, number of children and length of marriage were proven to have some negative impacts on satisfaction in marriage. The results indicated that participants with younger ages were more satisfied in marriage than participants who got married at older ages.

The findings were like the findings of Amato & Booth (1997) and Glenn (1990). They confirmed that the age at which people marry influenced the difference in the quality of marriage. Furthermore, this finding is in line with findings of Aghajanian (1986). This researcher expressed that the likely reasons for separation in Iranian culture is the fact that the males are more inclined to marry younger women. This is so because they believe that if they marry a younger female, they can socialize with them according to their norms and values (Aghajanian, 1986). Moreover, these findings as compared to findings of Jose & Alfons (2007) revealed that middle aged adults encounter more challenges in their marriage than younger or older age adults.



2.3.3 Level of education and Marital Satisfaction

Heaton (2002) investigated information from the 1995 National Survey of Family Growth in United States of America. His results indicated that marriages contracted after 1980 are getting increasingly stable and aimed to find possible explanations for this change. Heaton (2002) discovered that among women who were more educated or who married at an older age, there were lower cases of marriages being dissolved. As a result, he concluded that age at marriage influenced to a great extent the trends in marital dissolution. He also stated that women who married at older ages had more marriages that were satisfying. He also found that marriages were more secured if the husband was older or more educated, but not so in the case of the wife who was older or more educated. Oranthinkal and Vansteenwegen, (2006) examined whether differences in age and level of education predicts level of marital satisfaction among respondents. Their findings indicated that educated couples were more satisfied. Their finding reinforced that of Madanian and Mansor (2013).

Tucker and O'Grady (2001) also included a discussion of intelligence, as measured by educational attainment level, in their study. They looked at factors related to satisfaction in marriage, including age at marriage, attractiveness, and educational level. Respondents were rated on a 15-item Likert scale. They found that participants judged similarities in educational levels to be a vital factor in determining whether the couple was likely to have satisfaction in marriage. An essential aspect of this study was that people of higher educational levels were only seen as having more satisfying marriages if the education level was the same as that of their spouse. Lower-educated couples were also considered as having satisfying marriages if they were matched similarly to their spouse in level of education. Dyadic satisfaction among real-life couples was not assessed.

Bumpass (2003) in his study with 210 married people in the United States revealed that 105 participants whose levels of education were higher indicated higher marital satisfaction as

likened to participants with lower levels of education. On the marital satisfaction inventory score sheet to these married people, Bumpass (2003) stated that respondents whose levels of education were higher scored 3.6 which were higher than the average of 2.0. They added that married people whose levels of education were lower scored an overall of 2.7 which was also above average. In their conclusion they stated that married people whose levels of education were higher showed increased levels of satisfaction in marriage than their counterparts whose levels of education were lower. Also, Acheampong and Heaton (1989) conducted a study in Ghana on how some demographic factors correspond to the timing of divorce. In this study they quoted studies to show that higher educational attainment lowered the divorce and separation rates. It seems likely that education correlated positively with marital satisfaction as few available studies (as quoted above) concerning the influence of education on satisfaction in marriage show.

However, in a research conducted by Dabone (2014) on marital satisfaction among married persons living within the Sunyani Municipality of the Brong-Ahafo Region of Ghana. 320 respondents were sampled using purposive and quota sampling. The level of marital satisfaction was assessed with four variables- sex, religion, age and educational levels of respondents. A descriptive survey was employed. A Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI) was used to solicit for respondents' view. The results showed that married people in the Sunyani Municipality were not satisfied with their marriages. The study also found that the higher educated married people were significantly more dissatisfied than married persons with lower levels of education. Some of the reasons given by some stakeholders of education and respondents were that so much education is taking place on marital issues in their communities, churches, mosques, airwaves and so many social gatherings, so much so that wherever pockets of people meet, it is one of the issues commonly discussed. The people with lower levels of education have therefore taken advantage of these forms of education.

2.3.4 Gender and Marital Satisfaction

Shek (1995) suggested that there are two likely reasons for gender differences in marriage. The first reason is based on the difference in roles apportioned to men and women in a marriage. As a result, women feel that derive less benefit from a marriage. Therefore, women develop a negative perception about marriage. This is because the female roles carried out are usually tedious and less gratifying compared with the roles of the husband. Also, married women who are fully employed are plagued with more responsibilities, and role conflicts within their families. The second proposed reason is a contrast in expectations between married women and married men. Married women experience less satisfaction in marriage because their expectations of intimacy and emotional support in a marriage tend to be unreasonably high whereas men are customarily not socialised to offer this kind of support in a marriage (Fowers, 1991).

Moreover, men and women are traditionally socialized differently. Some researchers have indicated that emotional spousal support predicts higher satisfaction in marriage (Mickelson, Claffey & Williams, 2006). Again, the differences in marital satisfaction between married women and married men might be due to the dissimilarity in expression of their feelings. Women tend to cope with their emotions by seeking instrumental and emotional support (Simon & Nath, 2004) and verbally expressing what they are experiencing in their personal lives (Simon & Nath, 2004), while men are more emotionally reserved (Matud, 2004) and possibly avoid avenues to talk about such sensitive topics as their marital relationship.

Jackson, Miller, Oka, and Henry (2014) in the meta-analysis empirically tested the assertion that women confront lower satisfaction in marriage than men which produced contradictory results. A total of 226 independent samples with a combined sum of 101,110 participants were included in the meta-analysis. Overall results indicated a statistically significant yet exceedingly small gender differences in marital satisfaction between wives and

husbands, with wives not considerably less satisfied than husbands. After running a moderator analysis, however, the outcome was that this difference was due to the inclusion of clinical samples, with wives in marital therapy 51% less likely to be satisfied in their marriages than their husbands. The effect size for nonclinical community-based samples indicated no significant gender differences among couples in the general population. Additional moderator analyses indicated that there were also no gender differences when the levels of marital satisfaction of husbands and wives in the same relationship (i.e., dyadic data) were compared.

2.3.5 Parental Stress and Marital Satisfaction

A study by Bodenmann and Cina (2005) suggests a lasting connection between stress and relationship outcomes. The study illustrates that everyday stress often precipitates a retrogression in relationship. Another study by Randall and Bodenmann (2009), also confirmed that stress can improve or stagnate well-being in close relationships. This is so because the quality of a relationship is the primary medium of satisfaction in life. In another study by Anthony (2008), dyadic relationships including marital satisfaction was found to exert a solid influence on family cohesion and adaptability among married parents in South California. A recent meta-analytic study revealed that although couples who have no children experience a reduction in marital satisfaction over time, parents are significantly less satisfied than non-parents are, and the number of children is reliably related to marital dissatisfaction (Twenge, Campbell & Foster, 2004).

Being the parent of a child at a very tender age is also linked with lower marital satisfaction in some studies (Crnic & Booth, 1991). Parenting more than two children (Twenge et al., 2004) was also found to negatively influence satisfaction in marriage. Crnic and Booth (1991) reported that the growth changes in the child, especially when the child is at a tender

age, may worsen the minor stressors that parents deal with. According to Bradbury, Fincham & Beach (2000), some studies confirm that spouses, after the birth of their first child regarded that standard of their relationship and their contentment with family life as inhibited as compared to the period before their child came into their lives. Married persons and especially women who are parents are more prone to partly ignore the needs of the other spouse. This is partly due to an emotional increase of attention and attachment to the new-born, and the arduous task of responding promptly to the infant's needs.

Jill Hess (2008) indicated in his study that marital satisfaction and parental stress are associated in several ways. Satisfaction in marriage is most significantly correlated in the areas of parental discomfort and challenges faced in parent child interactions. However, a contradictory research finding by Merrifield (2010) revealed that, as satisfaction in marriage of mothers increased, their parenting stress decreased. Several studies also reinforced this finding (Gerstein, Crnic, Blacher, & Baker, 2009). Another research by Lavee, Sharlin and Katz (1996) examined the assertion that the effect children have on the marriages of their folks is triggered by stress in the parental task. A multivariate model was used to assess the association between the parenting stress of fathers and mothers and their mental well-being and understanding of marital quality.

In addition, the effects of 6 other variables were assessed. Among these variables were 2 competing roles namely mother's employment and household division of labour, 2 children-related variables namely number and age composition, marital duration, and economic distress. Data were assembled from both the husband and the wife among 287 intact couples who had children living at home. Using structural equation modelling, data from both parents were investigated jointly to examine the mutual effect of the married couple on one another. The findings showed that parenting stress was affected by the number of children and economic distress for both fathers and mothers. Other roles did not have any effect on parenting stress.

For both spouses, mental wellness, and the level of understanding of marital quality were negatively affected by parenting stress. Significant correlation was found between husbands' and wives' parenting stress, as well as a mutual effect of how each of them recognised marital quality on each other.

2.3.6 Premarital counselling and Marital satisfaction

A comprehensive and meta-analytic study conducted by Carroll and Doherty (2003) on how productive premarital counselling was. The mean effect size was .80. This means that the average couples that participated in a premarital counselling program were better off than 79% of those who did not (Carroll and Doherty, 2003). Their findings recommended that the couples who took part in premarital counselling had increased rates of being satisfied and experiencing stability within their marriage. Couples who enrolled in premarital counselling programs had lower rates of divorce than couples who did not take part in a premarital prevention program.

Schumm, Resnick, Silliman, and Bell (1998) carried out a study on Premarital Counselling and Satisfaction in marriage among civilian wives of US military personnel. Among couples who gave an account of a joint participation in premarital counselling, results indicated that both enrolling in premarital counselling and having more satisfaction with the counselling experience had increased levels of being satisfied in marriage. Nonetheless, among couples who had diverse opinions about going for premarital counselling, results were still favourable but less consistent (Schumm, Resnick, Silliman, & Bell, 1998). In another study, after analysing the data obtained from the survey, it was revealed that taking part in premarital education was a precursor to elevated levels of fulfilment and dedication in marriage. Lower levels of conflict and divorce were found to be as a result of taking part in premarital education programs (Stanley, Amato, Johnson, & Markman, 2006). Due to the benefits of premarital

counselling, various religious leaders in a church, temple or other religious institutions viciously encourage premarital counselling for all engaged couples (Meyers, 2011).

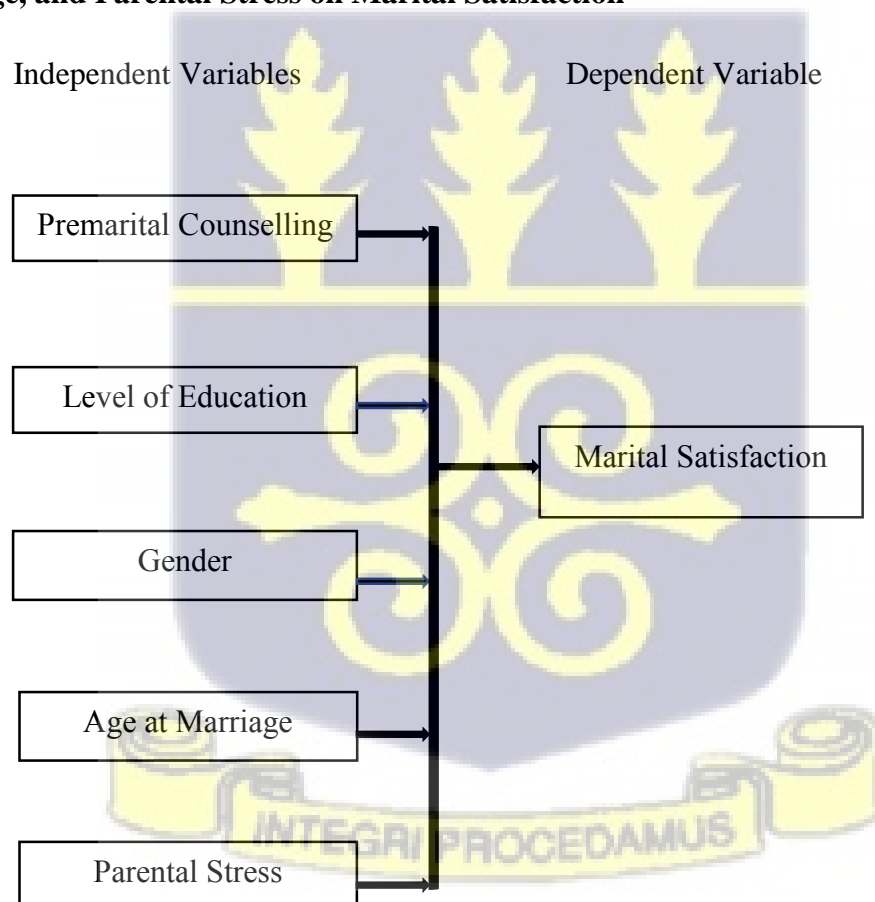
However, Meyers (2011) further indicated that although studies such as that of Schumm et al (1998), Carroll and Doherty (2003) and Hudson (2008) stated that married persons who had counselling before getting married have decreased levels of marriage breakdown as compared to their counterparts who had no counselling before marriage, these studies are generated with few notable flaws (Carroll and Doherty, 2003; Hudson, 2008; Schumm, et al., 1998), For instance, there are other mediating variables that may help couples to stay together (Meyers, 2011). Thus, most of the couples who are given such counselling have strong religious values. It is unfeasible to obtain with effort what helps if two people stay together in the season of marital challenges. The probable reason may include holding on strongly to religious values, premarital counselling or the social support provided because of one's association to a religious community (Meyers, 2011). Hence, premarital counselling may not necessarily be the reason for marital satisfaction.

Fawcett, Hawkins, Blanchard, and Carroll (2010) concluded that “we do not see good evidence yet for a positive effect of premarital education on relationship quality/satisfaction, at least over the short time frame of the typical study” (p. 225). Adding to this assertion is Sullivan and Bradbury's (1997) findings that after marital outcomes was assessed in 60 couples after 18 months, no differences existed in satisfaction in marriage and secureness between couples who took part in premarital preparation and those who did not. Cunderlach (1985) conducted a study to determine whether there is an association between current satisfaction in marriage and premarital counselling among two sample populations. The results indicated that virtually no correlation exists between premarital counselling and current marital satisfaction.

In general terms, several studies have supported the fact that premarital counselling leads to marital satisfaction among couples. This is because couples who undergo premarital counselling are enlightened about effective strategies that when applied in the face of marital difficulties would enhance their marital relationship. On the other hand, some researchers have challenged the reliability of the claim that premarital counselling leads to marital happiness and satisfaction.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 Influence of Premarital Counselling, Level of education, Gender, Age at marriage, and Parental Stress on Marital Satisfaction



It could be deduced from the conceptual framework in Fig. 1 above that marital satisfaction (dependent variable) is influenced by psychosocial factors such as premarital counselling, level

of education, gender, age at marriage, and parental stress (independent variables). To examine the level of marital satisfaction among respondents, these factors must therefore be assessed.

2.5 Statement of Hypotheses

1. Married persons who partake in premarital counselling will have significantly higher levels of marital satisfaction than those who do not go for premarital counselling.
2. Married persons who have acquired a postgraduate level of education will have a significantly lower level of marital satisfaction than married couples who have acquired a Diploma/Undergraduate level of education.
3. Gender will significantly impact on marital satisfaction.
4. Married persons who got married at less than 30years would have a more satisfying marriage than those who got married at 30years and above.
5. There will be a significantly negative correlation between parental stress and marital satisfaction.

2.6 Operational definition of terms

1. Marital satisfaction- In this study refers to how well the needs of a married person are met in the marriage.
2. Age at marriage- It is defined in this research work as the actual age at which married persons got into marriage, which is categorized as less than 30years, and 30 years and above.
3. Level of education- In this research work refers to the formal education achieved by a married person which categorized into Postgraduate education and No Postgraduate education.

4. Premarital counselling- Involves being equipped with adequate resources including gaining in-depth knowledge about each other as married couples to-be and overcoming possible marital challenges that may arise in marriage.
5. Parental stress- A condition that arises when married persons with children are overwhelmed with childcare tasks or are unable to meet the wholistic needs of their children.
6. Psychosocial factors- These are a combination of psychological factors such as parental stress and premarital counselling, and social factors such as age at marriage, gender, and level of education.
7. Gender- The roles associated with the sex(male/female) of the married person in a heterosexual union as culturally compatible in Ghana.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter highlights the area of study, design of the research, the target population, sampling size and sampling technique, materials for data collection, procedure, ethical consideration, and analysis of the results.

3.1 Research Design

A quantitative method design was adopted for the data collection among married respondents. The research design specifically took the form of a survey by use of questionnaires. The main purpose of this study is to gather information from married people in the Accra Metropolis about their beliefs, opinions, characteristics about the influence of psychosocial factors (age at marriage, parental stress, gender, level of education, premarital counselling) on marital satisfaction.

Therefore, a descriptive survey was employed for the study to obtain quantitative data from the respondent for analysis since the research is temporal and would be conducted within a limited time frame.

3.2 Study site

The study conducted was restricted to Accra Metropolis in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. Respondents were sampled from Accra Metropolitan Area (AMA), the capital city of Ghana. Accra is bounded to the South by the Gulf of Guinea, and the North by Ga West Municipal. The Accra Metropolitan Area (AMA) is part of the 216 Metropolitan, Municipal

and District Assemblies (MMDAs) in Ghana. It is among the 16 MMDAs in the Greater Accra Region with ten Sub Metropolitan District Councils made up of 72 communities.

The population and housing census conducted in 2010 indicated that the population of Accra Metropolitan Area was 1,665,086. Females constituted 51.9 percent and males constituted 48.1 percent (GSS, 2012). The age distribution of the population shows that 12.4 percent fell within the age group 20-24 followed by 11.5% who fell within the 25- 29 age group. In almost all the age groups of the population females account for a higher percentage. Statistically, for every 100 females, there were about 93 males within the Metropolis (GSS, 2012).

The marital status of the population in 2010 who were 12years and older was 1,275,440. About 49 percent were never married, 36.3 percent were formally married (customary, church or ordinance) while 2.6 percent were separated. As age increases, the pattern of individuals who have never married declines steadily as married population increases with age until age group 40-44 years where it tends to reduce as a result of deaths, divorce, or separation between married couples.

3.4 Sampling size and Sampling technique

The Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table for determining sample size was applied to sample 389 participants for the study. Anon-probability sampling technique (convenience sampling) was employed for the study.

Despite the short fall of non-probability sampling technique, it is relatively, cheaper, quicker, and easier to reach out to. Thus, it is not complicated, swift, and inexpensive. In many cases, participants can be reached easily to be a part of the sample. As such, for this study, convenient sampling, a type of non-probability sampling technique was therefore used. The

researcher created an online survey and shared a link on social media with contacts. Also, convenience sampling was used to gather data quickly in order to meet the required targeted number of respondents, and the data collection would commence even within a few hours.

Three hundred and ninety -four (394) participants filled the online survey based on their availability at the time of data collection and because they were willing to participate voluntarily in the research within the time frame given (7 weeks). Respondents included in this study were married men and women who are Ghanaians with ages between 18-55 years. Out of the total number of data collected, five (5) were incompletely filled and so the remaining three hundred and eighty- nine (389) was used for data analysis.

3.5 Materials/Instruments

The main data collection instrument was a questionnaire made up of demographic data such as age, occupation, area of residence, sex, duration of courtship before marriage, premarital counselling, duration of marriage, level of education, age at marriage and number of children. A set of questionnaire were also used for the data collection via Kobo ToolBox which is an integrated set of tools used for building forms and gathering feedback from interview conducted especially in difficult field settings. It is a mobile app tool which is used in collecting and analysing data and allows for the collection of data offline and submission of the data when internet connectivity is available. With this tool, after gathering the data, it is automatically uploaded in SPSS. It allows for skip patterns (Question/s associated with a conditional response) to be used and it enhances efficiency, saves time, and reduces cost and errors. Using this tool minimizes enumeration errors because as data is collected, it can be validated within the shortest possible time. Errors of transcription are eliminated totally.

Working with KoBo ToolBox is much faster because analyses of the data collected can be done a short while after gathering data. The tool used comprised the following standardized scales.

3.5.1 Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI)

For this study, the 30 main items in the instrument were developed by Essuman (2010) for married people to assist them in finding out whether they are satisfied in their marriages. The items have been categorised into seven scales. Each of these scales helps married persons to find out how satisfied a married person is in his or her marriage. The scales are named as listed below: Scale 1: Relationship (six items), Scale 2: Affection, Love and Appreciation (five items) Scale 3: Character (six items) Scale 4: Temperament (three items) Scale 5: In-law Issues (three items) Scale 6: Marital Roles (three items) Scale 7: General Evaluation (four items) The inventory was designed with both positive and negative items. The negative items were 15 whilst the positive items were 15. The Marital Satisfaction Inventory (MSI) has undergone face and content validity. The items were scrutinized and reviewed to improve the content and make the language clear and simple to understand (Essuman, 2010). Again, the inventory has been used for similar studies in other parts of the country. According to Essuman (2010), a reliability study was undertaken using the alpha coefficient method for the inventory. The study realised a reliability coefficient of 0.79.

The Marital Satisfaction Inventory is scored on a four-point Likert scale of measurement of Very True (VT) =4 to Not at all true (NAT)= 1. The options of the items were weighted in the Likert format with VT = 4, T = 3, NT = 2 and NAT = 1. The inverse is true for the negative items. The score of a respondent ranges from 30 to 120. The weights were equated to a maximum of 4 and a minimum of 1 to reflect the averages, using the number of items as a

denominator. To interpret the score a person gets on the inventory, score bands were used. The greater the score the more satisfied a person is in marriage. Thus for

Not at all satisfied we have an interval of 1.0 – 1.5

Not satisfied we have an interval of 1.6 – 2.5

Satisfied we have 2.6 – 3.5

Very satisfied we have 3.6 – 4.0

3.5.2 Parental Stress Scale (PSS)

The Parental Stress Scale is a self-report scale created by Berry and Jones (1995). PSS contains 18 items constituting pleasure or positive themes of parenthood such as emotional benefits, self-enrichment, personal development, and negative components such as demands on resources, opportunity costs and restrictions. Participants are asked to agree or disagree with items considering how they normally relate with their child. They are to rate each item on a five-point scale of strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The use of the scale is for the evaluation of parental stress for both mothers and fathers and for parents of children with and without clinical problems. The Parental Stress Scale exhibited satisfactory levels of internal reliability (.83), and test-retest reliability (.81) (Berry & Jones, 1995). The scale demonstrated satisfactory convergent validity with various measures of stress, emotion, and role satisfaction. These include anticipated stress, work/family stress, loneliness, anxiety, guilt, satisfaction in marriage, instrumental support, marital faithfulness, job satisfaction, and social support. Discriminant analyses demonstrated the ability of the scale to discriminate between parents of typically developing children and parents of children with both developmental and behavioural problems.

To compute this scale, the parental stress score, items 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 17, and 18 were reverse scored as follows: (1=5), (2=4), (3=3), (4=2), (5=1). The scores were then summed up. The total is however the parental stress scores of that individual. The eight positive items are scored in the reverse to obtain scores ranging from eighteen (18) to ninety (90). More stress is indicated by higher scores on the scale and lower scores indicate less parenting stress.

3.6 Procedure

The researcher created an online survey using Kobo Toolbox and shared the link on social media with 400 contacts. The reason for conducting the study was explained before sharing the link created. The contacts fell within the category of married couples living within the Accra Metropolitan Assembly who further shared the link with their contacts who also fell within the same parameters. Data collection lasted for seven (7) weeks. On the average, at least 5 responses were received per day.

3.7 Ethical Consideration

Respondents' consent was sought before sharing the link created. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, the identity of the respondents was not stated in the survey and given in the final report. In specific terms, the questionnaire did not require respondents to produce their names. Other information provided by the respondents were respected and treated confidential. This was done by using the data collected for this research only which would be used only for academic purposes. According to the privacy policy of Kobo ToolBox, registered users have sole entitlement to their application data and Kobo Toolbox does not engage in selling, sharing, or using that information to third parties. Again, Kobo ToolBox employs the best practices to protect against unapproved access of data owned by its users. Additionally,

the researcher did not exploit the participants either mentally or physically before, during and after their participation in the study. Thus, informed consent and the participants' right of withdrawal were ensured.

3.8 Data analysis

Descriptive statistics, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test (a statistical association technique where strength of relationship between two variables are observed), and Univariate Analysis of Variance (used to describe, summarize, and find patterns of the individual independent variables on one dependent variable- marital satisfaction. Thus, it describes, summarizes, and find patterns within all the independent variables used to measure marital satisfaction at once hence maintaining the alpha level since the analysis is run once) within the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 was used to analyse the data.

3.9 Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis One: Married persons who partake in premarital counselling will have significantly higher levels of marital satisfaction than those who do not go for premarital counselling. This hypothesis was analysed using the Univariate analysis of variance test.

Hypothesis Two: Married persons who have acquired Postgraduate education will have a significantly lower level of marital satisfaction than married couples who have no postgraduate education. This hypothesis was tested with the Univariate analysis of variance test.

Hypothesis Three: Males will have a more satisfying marriage than females This hypothesis was analysed with the Univariate analysis of variance test.

Hypothesis Four: Married couples who got married at less than 30years would have a more satisfying marriage than those who got married at 30years and above. This hypothesis was analysed with the Univariate analysis of variance test.

Hypothesis Five: A significant negative relationship will exist between parental stress and marital satisfaction. This hypothesis was analysed with the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents results derived from testing the various hypotheses and ends with a summary of results.

4.1 Demographic data of respondents

Table 1: Respondents' Sex, Age Range and Level of Education.

Variable	N	%
Sex		
Male	182	46.8
Female	207	53.2
Age		
Youth (<35 Years)	205	52.7
Adults (35 and Above)	184	47.3
Educational Level		
Postgraduate Education	247	63.5
No Postgraduate Education	142	36.5
Total	389	100

Table 1 shows that 46.8% were males while 53.2% were females. This shows that most respondents were females. It is further shown that, 52.7% of respondents were youth (less than 35 years), and 47.3% were adult (35 years and above). In addition, 63.5% of the respondents had Postgraduate level of education and 36.5% had No Postgraduate education.

Table 2: Duration of Respondents' Courtship before Marriage, Age at Marriage, and Duration of Marriage.

Variable	N	%
Courtship Duration		
Less than 5 years	314	80.7
5 Years or more	75	19.3
Age at Marriage		
Less than 30 years	236	60.7
30 years and above	153	39.3
Marriage Duration		
Less than 5 years	198	50.9
5 Years or more	191	49.1
Total	389	100

Table 2 shows that 80.7% and 19.3% of respondents had courted for less than 5 years and 5 years or more respectively. In addition, 60.7% of respondents had been married at less than 30 years of age, and 39.3% had been married at 30 years and above. It is further shown that 50.9% and 49.1% of respondents were married for less than 5 years and more than 5 years respectively.

Table 3: Respondents' Status on Premarital Counselling, Children and Employment

Status

Variable	N	%
Premarital Counselling		
No	57	14.7
Yes	332	85.3
Children		
No	83	21.3
Yes	306	78.7
Employment Status		
No	55	14.1
Yes	334	85.9
Total	389	100

Table 3 shows that 85.3% had premarital counselling while 14.7% did not have premarital counselling. Again, 21.3% of the respondents had no children while 78.7% had children. Table 3 finally indicates that 14.1% of the respondents were currently unemployed while 85.9% of the respondents were currently employed.

Table 4: Overall Mean of the respondents on the Marital Satisfaction Inventory

All MSI Items	Mean	SD	N
Male	2.416	0.15427	182
Female	2.386	0.15414	207
Overall	2.400	0.15472	389

Table 4 shows that the mean for all the respondents' marital satisfaction was 2.400 at 95% confidence interval. This falls within the score band of 1.6 – 2.5. This implies that married persons in the Accra Metropolitan Area are not satisfied in their marriages. This table also shows that males had scored higher levels of marital satisfaction than females.

Table 5: Means of the respondents who have children on the Parental Stress Scale

All PSS Items	Mean	SD	N
Male	33.24	7.020	154
Female	37.75	7.724	150
Overall	35.47	7.703	304

Table 5 shows that the mean for all the respondents who had children parental stress was 35.47 which indicates a lower score on parental stress. It also shows that females scored higher on parental stress than males

4.2 Testing of hypotheses

Hypothesis One: Married persons who partake in premarital counselling will have significantly higher levels of marital satisfaction than those who do not go for premarital counselling. This was tested using the Univariate analysis test and the result is presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Univariate analysis of variance test results on marital satisfaction among married persons who had premarital counselling and those who did not.

Groups	M	Mean difference	df	F	P
No Premarital Counselling	2.405	0.005			
Premarital Counselling	2.400				
			1	0.05	0.822

Table 6 shows that the mean for couples who had premarital counselling (M= 2.400) and those who had no premarital counselling (M= 2.405) with a mean difference of .005. The results $F(1, 384) = .050, p = .822$. This shows that no difference exists between the level of marital satisfaction among couples who had premarital counselling and those who did not. This implies that married persons who had premarital counselling and those who did not have premarital counselling have similar levels of marital satisfaction. Hence the first hypothesis which states that married persons who partake in premarital counselling will have significantly higher scores in marital satisfaction than those who do not go for premarital counselling is rejected.

Hypotheses Two: Married persons who have acquired a postgraduate level of education will have a significantly lower level of marital satisfaction than married couples who have no postgraduate education. This was tested using the univariate analysis test and the result is presented in Table7.

Table7: Univariate analysis of variance test results on marital satisfaction between married persons with postgraduate education and no postgraduate education.

Groups	M	Mean difference	df	F	P
No Postgraduate Education	2.419	.032			
Postgraduate Education	2.387				
			1	3.89	0.049

Table7 shows that the mean for couples who have acquired a postgraduate level of education (M= 2.387) and those who have no postgraduate education (M= 2.419) with a mean difference of .032. The result [$F_{(1, 384)} = .380, p = .049 < 0.05$]. This shows that a significant difference exists between the level of marital satisfaction among married persons with postgraduate education and those with other education. Thus, married persons who have acquired postgraduate education have lower levels of marital satisfaction than those who have acquired other education. Hence, the second hypothesis which states that married persons who have acquired a postgraduate level of education will have a significantly lower level of marital satisfaction than married couples who have acquired No Postgraduate education is accepted.

Hypothesis Three: Gender (male/female) will have a significant impact on marital satisfaction. This hypothesis was analysed with the univariate analysis test and the result is presented in Table 8.

Table8: Univariate analysis of variance test results on marital satisfaction among males and females.

Groups	M	Mean difference	df	F	P
Male	2.424	.043			
Female	2.381				
			1	6.872	0.009

Table 8 shows that the mean for male married persons (M= 2.424) and female married persons (M= 2.381) with a mean difference of .043. The results [$F_{(1, 384)} = .872, p = .009 < 0.05$]. This indicates that the findings were statistically significant. Hence gender has a significant impact on marital satisfaction. In consequence, the third hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis Four: Married persons who got married at less than 30years would have a more satisfying marriage than those who got married at 30years and above. This hypothesis was tested with the univariate analysis test and the result is presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Univariate analysis of variance test results on marital satisfaction among married persons who got married at less than 30 years and those who got married at 30 years and above.

Age at marriage	M	Mean difference	df	F	p
<30 years	2.425	.046			
30 years and above	2.380				
			1	7.385	0.007

Table 9 shows that the mean for married persons who got married at less than 30 years of age (M= 2.425) and those who got married at 30years and above (M= 2.380) with a mean difference of .046. The results [$F_{(1, 384)} = 7.385, p = .007 < 0.05$]. This shows that the finding was statistically significant. This implies that married persons who got married at less than 30years of age have a more satisfying marriage than those who got married at 30years or more. Hence hypothesis four is accepted.

Hypothesis Five: A significantly negative correlation will exist between parental stress and marital satisfaction. *This hypothesis was tested with the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test.*

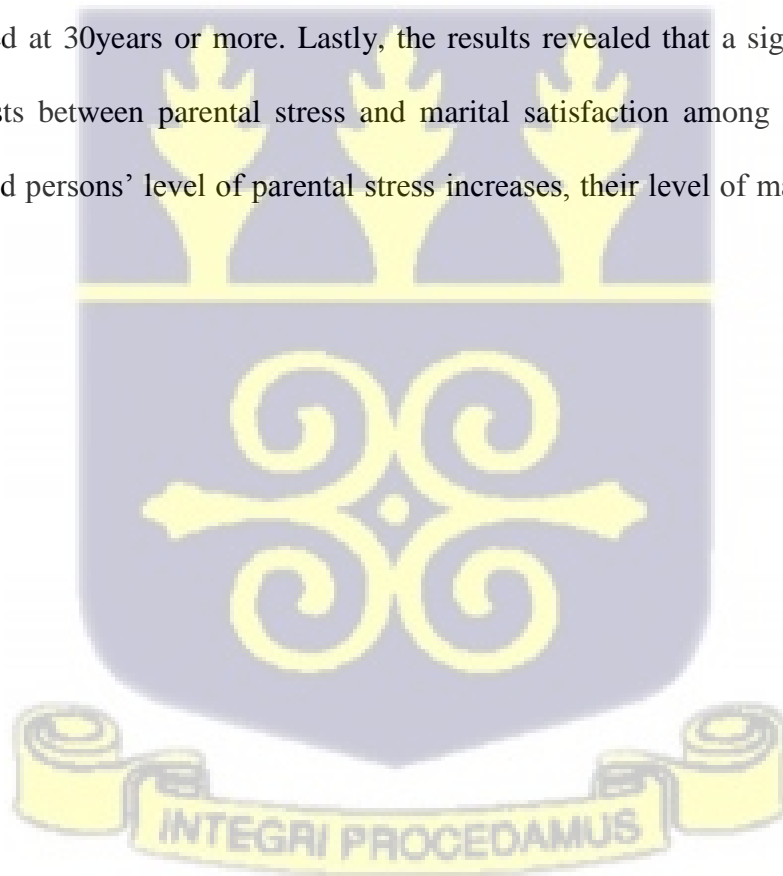
Table10: Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient Test Results on the Relationship between Parental Stress and Marital Satisfaction.

Variables	M	r	P
Parental Stress	35.47		
Marital Satisfaction	2.400		
		-.208	.000

Table 10 shows that respondents' mean score on the Parental Stress scale (M= 35.47) and Marital Satisfaction scale (M= 2.400) was tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test to find whether parental stress will have a significantly negative correlation with marital satisfaction. The results ($r = -.208, p = .000$) reveals that a significant negative correlation exists between parental stress and marital satisfaction among married persons. This implies that as married persons' level of parental stress increases, their level of marital satisfaction also decreases. Hence, the fifth hypothesis is accepted.

4.3 Summary of Results

After data analysis, the results revealed that married persons who went through premarital counselling were less satisfied in their marriages than those who did not go through premarital counselling. Meanwhile, the outcome showed that a significant difference exists between the level of marital satisfaction among married persons with postgraduate education and those with no postgraduate education such that married persons who have acquired postgraduate education had lower levels of marital satisfaction than those who have acquired other education. Similarly, the results revealed that female married persons experienced less satisfaction with their marriages than male married persons. Likewise, the results revealed that married persons who got married at less than 30yrs had a more satisfying marriage than those who got married at 30years or more. Lastly, the results revealed that a significant negative correlation exists between parental stress and marital satisfaction among married persons. Thus, as married persons' level of parental stress increases, their level of marital satisfaction also decreases.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion for the various tested hypotheses, as well as the relevance, limitations, conclusion, and recommendations of the study.

5.1 Discussion of results

The first hypothesis which stated that “Married persons who partake in premarital counselling will score higher on marital satisfaction than those who did not partake in premarital counselling” was rejected. Hence, the result indicated that there is no significant difference between those who had premarital counselling and those who had no premarital counselling did not as suggested in many findings around the area of premarital counselling and marital satisfaction.

This finding is reinforced by Sullivan and Bradbury (1997) who discovered that couples who took part in premarital programs were not more satisfied in their marriages than those who did not take part in premarital programs. This finding supports that of Cunderlach (1985) in calling attention to the fact that premarital counselling plays no role in ensuring that marriages would succeed or fail. This present study, therefore, seems to agree with these findings and seems to suggest that premarital counselling does not make a difference in enhancing marital satisfaction.

On the other hand, Smith (2012) stated that premarital counselling focuses on strengthening and solidifying relationships before and after the marriage ceremony as a strategy to the prevent the occurrence of future divorce and throw light on acquiring the right resources that will help them avoid or manage future conflict in a more effective way. In consequence,

couples who go for premarital counselling have higher marital satisfaction than those who do not go for premarital counselling since enrolling in premarital counselling will help couples to know each other better before entering marriage. Myers (2011) and Smith (2012) also stated in their respective books that premarital counselling plays a significant role in preventing failed marriages (divorce or separation) and rather leads to marital satisfaction. Carroll and Doherty (2003) also stated that to ameliorate high levels of discomfort in marriage and divorce among couples, numerous policy makers, scholars, and educators, have recommended premarital educational programs such as premarital counselling.

This research's finding may not necessarily imply that premarital counselling is neither good nor important. However, reasons that can best explain this result are as follows; First, premarital counselling is well structured in the developed countries where most of the studies are done in this area. Thus, the counsellors are well trained and certified and the premarital counselling programs intensively cover important areas of marriage. In Africa and to be specific Ghana, a personal examination however, indicates that most of the "counsellors" who take individuals who are about to get married through premarital counselling are lay counsellors who do so by virtue of age, experience in marriage, position such as elders of a church, pastors' wives who have either a certificate of 6 months training in ministry or who in most cases are equally not professionals (Dzadey, 2015). The time span of the counselling is usually done by personal discretion, religious values, personal moral values and cultural values, and the specific of the counselling programs are usually sketchy and not guided due to lack of continuous training on ethics and no access to ethical codes (Ketor, 2018). Additionally, there is no common format for counselling couples. According to Ketor (2018), lay counsellors especially pastors and marriage counsellors are plagued with the conflict in identifying the person receiving their services as a church member or a client which compromises the therapeutic relationship, and the issue of interference from superiors (pastors, colleagues).

Second, according to Duncan, Childs & Larson (2010) and Hawkins, Blanchard, Baldwin & Fawcett (2008), premarital counselling fundamentally focuses on skills, and involves in-depth work between therapists and couples and focuses problems that are more specific to the personal problems of the clients. As such, premarital counsellors adopt a variation of theoretical orientations such as behavioural couple therapy, and emotionally focused couple therapy (Bruun & Ziff, 2010). Therefore, clinical intervention should be guided by sound theoretical reasoning and family intervention systems which should stem from a well-grounded theory of family development to enhance how effective the intervention would be.

Kepler (2015) also asserted that according to social exchange theory, couples are motivated or discouraged based on the severity or warmth of the outcome associated with the costs and rewards. In other words, when positive behaviour exceeds the negative behaviour, marital satisfaction increases (Kepler, 2015). Premarital counselling and counselling married couples focus on raining the partners on how to convey and receive relevant information as well as other ways to enhance and sustain a satisfying, healthy marriage. The results obtained, however, indicate that although majority of the respondents had premarital counselling, they are not satisfied in their marriages. It is in the light of this that premarital counselling in Ghana must be assessed critically to point out the fundamental areas that must be included in the premarital counselling process in order to achieve its ultimate aim to enhance marital satisfaction.

The second hypothesis which stated that “Married persons who have acquired a postgraduate level of education will have a significantly lower level of marital satisfaction than married couples who have No postgraduate education” was accepted. Hence, the result indicated that a statistically significant difference exists in marital satisfaction between those who had Postgraduate education and those who have No postgraduate education. The above findings support that of Dabone (2014) who stated that there is significant difference between married

people with JSS to Diploma education and those with GCE A level to master's education regarding their marital satisfaction. Thus, in the study conducted by Dabone (2014), it was to the researcher's dismay to find out that those respondents who had lower JSS to Diploma education showed higher marital satisfaction than those with GCE A level to Masters and above education.

Again, a study conducted by Nwafor (2009) on the influence of education attainment on marital satisfaction revealed that the level of education attainment significantly influences marital satisfaction. Russell, Baker & McNulty (2013) also agreed with the findings of the current study when they observed that obtaining new education did not denote marital satisfaction instead attachment anxiety interacted to predict if one is satisfied in marriage or not. Another study by Edwards (2009) revealed education as part of the elements that affect satisfaction in marriages among couples. In addition, educational attainment, age, and gender were notable in determining if married couples are satisfied in marriage.

Imhonde, Aluede and Ifunanyachukwu (2008) also found that the relationship between education and satisfaction in marriage when compared with other variables that influence marital satisfaction was significant. This finding is also supported by Zare and Montazeri (2019) whose study revealed that as the level of education among women increases, there was a decrease in how they were satisfied in marriage. Since an increased level of education results in an increase in the awareness of society, standards of living, expectation levels, and needs, this reduces the extent to which they are satisfied in marriage (Zare & Montazeri, 2019).

The outcome of the findings of this study is contrary to that of some major studies which concluded that married people with higher levels of education show higher satisfaction in their marriages than married persons with lower levels of education (Bumpass, 2003). In addition, in the findings of Madanian and Mansor (2013) respondents who had a lower level of education were less satisfied in marriage. This finding conforms to that of Lincoln, Taylor and Jackson (2008) and Karney and Bradbury (1995) who demonstrated that individuals with lower

levels of education are not satisfied in marriage and end up in divorce. Many studies conducted in Iran have found that the positive association between educational level and marital satisfaction was statistically significant (Maghsoodi, Moidfar & Tavakol, 2011).

However, it does not imply that a deficiency of this will lead to lack of understanding among couples, because each of them interpret such factors based on the cognitive background of the woman and the man (Moosavi, 2012). Another contrary finding, according to Rachel, Jessica, Michael & Christine (2013), revealed that level of education and marital satisfaction in second marriages was positively associated such that the degree to which those with a graduate school education were satisfied (114) in second marriages was higher than those (104) with high school education.

In the study conducted by Dabone (2014), he mentioned that the perception most Ghanaians and for that matter people in the municipality hold is that those with higher levels of education are well informed. Thus, they understand issues better than those with lower levels of education. Although it was therefore expected that these assertions would be reflected in the results, the results showed otherwise. Upon seeking possible explanations of the outcome from some stakeholders of education and the respondents themselves, Dabone (2014) discovered that people with lower levels of education were making time for and making good use of the essential education on marital issues through various platforms such as in the churches, mosques, and several social gatherings, so much so that wherever pockets of people meet, marital issues are among the topical issues discussed (Dabone, 2014).

On the contrary, people who have attained higher levels of education rather focus more on pursuing further studies, building their career, and achieving financial security such that the need to meet the needs of their spouses is undermined either consciously or unconsciously resulting in spending less time together. Another probable reason is that, although it could be that the lower educated are more prone to pressures associated with finances and similar issues

that could affect relationships negatively, and could possess less skills and abilities that make relationships work, married partners with different levels of education could have distinct levels of commitment to the relationship, which makes them quit relationships at different levels of satisfaction (Boertien, Scheve & Park, 2012).

The nature of decision-making in the marriage is also a possible contributing factor such that in a marriage where either of the spouse dictates how various issues are handled in the home would always bring up conflicts especially among couples with different levels of education resulting in lower marital satisfaction among spouses. Education may impart feelings of self-worth and self-confidence which results in a change of values and attitudes especially among married couples with different levels of education thereby increasing their level of marital expectations and reduce their level of dependency on their spouse. This leads to inequity in the marriage such that either of the couple perceives himself or herself to be under-benefited or over-benefited resulting in marital distress and, eventually dissolution if the situation is not properly handled.

According to Anim (2011), western education has birthed the ‘emancipation’ of women and that may be a precursor to marital discomfort in a society where male supremacy is not as potent as it used to be. An educated wife may seek to share the same level of authority in the marriage and may not respect or regard the final decisions of her husband in their marital home. Some highly educated couples find it difficult agreeing who has the higher authority in the marriage- the husband, wife, or both? The response of many educated women is that it is both because both should exert the same authority in the marriage. These ideas stir up some wives to behave in ways that deviate from traditionally acceptable ways in their relationships thereby creating a lot of tension in communication and a reduction in how satisfied they are in the marriage (Anim, 2011).

This finding is also supported by dynamic goal theory (Li & Fung, 2011) which suggests the understanding of instrumental goals, personal growth goals, and companionship goals to enhance satisfaction the marriage. This finding implies that prioritised marital goals and especially personal growth goals (pursuing higher levels of education) may have affected the patterns of marital interaction among respondents to enhance the achievement of marital satisfaction especially through lack of affirmation and a deficit in provision of support from their spouse.

The third hypothesis which stated that gender (male/female) will have a significant impact on marital satisfaction was accepted. This implies that in this study, it has been revealed that male spouses are more satisfied than female spouses in their marriages. This finding was supported by Afolabi, Oladotun, Chinedu & Tolulope (2017) which showed that a significant relationship between gender and marital satisfaction females were more satisfied with their marriage. There is confirmatory evidence of the difference between the way a man and a woman will fare on marital satisfaction (Johnson & Lebow, 2000; Walker, 1999). Essentially, marriage could be described as a relationship with benefits for men than women, because men indicate that they are more satisfied in their marriages than women, (Clements & Swensen, 2000, Baslow, 1992; Heyn, 1997, Schumm, Webb, & Bollman, 1998) and women have more negative experiences than men, (Heaton & Blake, 1999), and this seems to be similar in cultures around the world, (Rhyne, 1981, Basat, 2004).

This finding is also supported by Dabone (2014) who indicated in his study with a similar finding that women exhibit a higher level of commitment, especially in marriage. Once they enter marriage most of them throw in their all and especially those with children. It is, therefore, not surprising that similar results were obtained. Rollins and Feldman (1970) also reinforced Dabone, (2014) by stating that husbands interpret marriage more dissimilarly than

wives and that how marital satisfaction in men and women is as a result of dissimilar events within or outside the marriage and influence by other family members. Gottman and Silver (1994) further noticed that the difference existing between female and male married couples in the satisfaction of their marriages was significant. This was made evident in his study on why marriages succeed or fail in New York.

According to Jackson, Miller, Oka & Henry (2014), in 1972, a prominent family scholar Jesse Bernard famously stated, “There are two marriages in every marital union, his and hers. And his . . . is better than hers” (p.14). Based on Bernard’s compelling assertion, family scholars have assumed that women consistently experience less satisfaction in their marriages than men (Connides, 2001). For instance, one group of scholars reported that “women consistently report lower marital quality than men in national surveys” (Umberson, Williams, Powers, Liu, & Needham, 2006, p. 3). Indeed, many studies have found that wives’ reports of marital satisfaction are significantly lower than husbands’ (Kamp Dush, Taylor, & Kroeger, 2008; Myers & Booth, 1999; Stevenson & Wolfers, 2009; Whiteman, McHale, & Crouter, 2007). For example, national surveys of married adults in the United States in 1980 and 2000 found that, on average, women reported lower levels of marital quality (Amato, Booth, Johnson, & Rogers, 2003).

On the contrary, Dzadey (2015) in her study had a differing result that gender difference does not exist in marital satisfaction. An earlier study on the subject matter done by Blazer (1963) found no difference between male and female married people in his study on complimentary need fulfilment and marital happiness of husbands and those of wives. Several other studies have found no differences in gender as well (Broman, 2005; Kurdek, 2005). For instance, using national probability data from the National Study of Families and Households, Gager and Sanchez (2003) found no differences in the mean levels of husbands’ and wives’ marital satisfaction.

Moreover, after a comparison was made among paired husbands' and wives' scores of satisfaction in marriage, a greater number of married persons were found to have had the same score. Among those with different scores, 11.0% of the couples were made up of a very satisfied husband and an unsatisfied wife, whereas 9.9% of the couples fell within a very satisfied wife and an unsatisfied husband. Likewise, Broman (2005) found that gender difference in marital quality was not statistically significant after analysing results from the American Changing Lives survey which consisted of a large national data set of married individuals. In addition, there is a question as to how differently men and women are satisfied in their marriages among those studies in which the difference found was significant. For example, Whiteman, McHale & Crouter (2007) found that women's mean score on the level of their marital satisfaction was lower than men and it was at a statistically significant level. However, the actual difference was very moderate. Using a scale of marital quality that ranged from 7 to 63, women's mean score was only 1.38 points lower than men. Likewise, after reporting that women reported lower levels of marital quality than men in their national studies, Amato et al. (2007) qualified their findings by stating that the differences were small.

The Industrial Revolution, which moved husbands from working with their wives on family farms and businesses to factories and outside businesses entrusted women with the foremost responsibility of household chores. Although research suggests that husbands' level of participation in household tasks has increased (Sayer, 2005), the household tasks wives still perform are relatively larger (Baxter, Cummins, & Yiolitis, 2000) as well as taking care of the child(ren) (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). Evidence suggests that husbands refuse to accept their wives' efforts to distribute more equally household chores and taking care of the child(ren) hence wives are altogether distressed about this situation (Dempsey, 2000). This results in wives being less satisfied in marriage (Grote & Clarke, 2001; Stevens, Kiger, & Mannon, 2005).

In addition to being responsible primarily for taking care of the child(ren), wives also provide greater emotional support to their husbands and monitor the emotional quality in dealing with situations that arise in the relationship (Loscocco & Walzer, 2013). Research has found that emotion work is more closely tied to gender than are childcare and household chores (Erickson, 2005). Wives are generally more aware of the emotional climate of the relationship (Croyle & Waltz, 2002). The result of this variation is that perceptions of disparity in emotion work are associated with women being less satisfied in marriage (Croyle & Waltz, 2002; Duncombe & Marsden, 1995; Strazdins & Broom, 2004).

Overall, women and men have contrasting perspectives about marital satisfaction. Gender fundamentally contributes to how a woman and man relate and in many aspects of life. As such, women have a different opinion about what it means for them to be satisfied in their marriages as compared to men such that women view, communication, understanding, family relationships, agreement, and income by both spouses as factors that enhance marital satisfaction, while in a man's opinion, spouse's education, income by both spouses, understanding, agreement, family relationships, and communication are factors needed in creating satisfaction (Ayub, 2012). The score obtained by women on the Marital Satisfaction Inventory reflects the fact that in our society, women are known to express their emotions more readily and candidly than men.

This finding is supported by the equity theory, social exchange theory and dynamic goal theory. In relation to equity theory, wives would feel under-benefited because of lack of support from their husbands in household tasks, and childcare. This is likely to develop in wives a perception that the relationship is unfair hence making them easily irritated. The longer this feeling of unfairness (lack of equity) persists, the further the level of marital satisfaction decreases. With social exchange theory, in a situation where a partner incurs more costs than rewards in the marriage especially in comparison to a past relationship or life as a single

individual, this is likely to result in unhappiness in marriage and eventually a reduction in marital satisfaction if it lingers. According to dynamic goal theory, the more frequent the prioritized marital goals of each spouse are met in the course of a certain stage of physical development, the more satisfied one is in the marriage such as family finance and household tasks.

The fourth hypothesis which stated that ‘Married persons who got married at less than 30years would have a more satisfying marriage than those who got married at 30years and above’ was accepted. Hence, the difference in marital satisfaction between those who got married at less than 30years and those who got married at 30years and above is statistically significant such that those who got married at less than 30years would have a more satisfying marriage than those who got married at 30years and above.

This finding was reinforced by Alder (2010) in a study to determine if a relationship exists between marital satisfaction and age at the time of marriage using the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976). It was found that as age at the time of marriage increased, marital satisfaction of participants decreased. Other research works have also found age at which participants enter into marriage as one of the most essential factors in predicting satisfaction in marriage a stable marriage, and sexual adjustment (Bumpass & Sweet, 1972; Dabone, 2014; Jose & Alfons, 2007; Rotz, 2016).

On the contrary, couples’ age can affect marital satisfaction either positively or negatively. There is consensus that the younger the age of marriage, the more prone one is to marital dissolution (Amato & Hohmann- Marriott, 2007, 2007; Lee, 1977; Tilson & Larsen, 2000). Those who marry in their teen age experience the worst of marital satisfaction because of some social threats to marriage, (Stanley, Markman, St. Peters & Leber, 1997), conversely, 20 agers experience more marital satisfaction, (Tzeng, 1992). Pearson correlation test using demographic variables found a direct correlation between marital satisfaction and the age at

marriage in a study conducted by Hajihassani and Sim (2019) on marital satisfaction among girls with early marriage in Iran.

People who marry at older ages handle situations in a matured manner, adopting the right strategies to cope with problems they encounter and as such, they are more likely to enjoy their marriages (Hajihassani and Sim, 2019). The results obtained by Dzadey (2012), however, indicated no correlation exists between age at which respondents marry and how satisfied they are in their marriages. Thus, no relationship was found between age at the time of marriage and how much respondents were satisfied with their marriages. Therefore, she concluded that absence of a significant correlation confirms that how old one is at time of marriage may not determine future marital happiness as asserted in previous research. Lee (1977) found that age at time of marriage correlates positively with marital satisfaction after controlling for the antecedent variables of length of marriage, education, socioeconomic background, and religious importance. Thus, the older one is at the time of marriage, the more satisfied one could be in the marriage. He postulated that those who marry at a young age may be aware of the fact that they are likely to marry again in case a divorce occurs and may then be unwilling to endure a situation of not being satisfied in their marriages.

Booth and Edwards (1985) conducted a research as a follow-up to the research carried out by Bumpass and Sweet (1972) and Lee (1977). He also found that because of inadequate preparation before marriage, getting married at an older age increased the likelihood of being satisfied in the marriage. They hypothesized that this situation could be due to inadequate mentors or from insufficient exposure to these mentors because of premature ending of their “marriage apprenticeship” (p. 68) because of early marriage. They felt that people who married at a younger age were likely to suffer from marital discomfort related to marital role performance resulting in marital dissatisfaction. Booth and Edwards used the Marital Instability Index (Booth, Johnson, & Edwards, 1987) as well as multiple items to assess role performance, alternatives to

the present marriage, and external pressure for marriage. They found that for those who married early (before age 20), marital instability is more prevalent. Those who married in their twenties as well as those who married later than their twenties scored the lowest on marital instability. Hence, in their opinion, a curvilinear relationship exists between marital stability and age.

Marriages contracted at an early age are likely to be more unstable since partners are more likely to have inaccurate assumptions paraphrased as a “maturity effect:” (Oppenheimer 1988). At noticeably young ages, people are often ignorant and are not sure about what they hope to be in the future or when they are older or what they are capable of. They are also more likely to form a wrong opinion about the traits of their partners. Some people at noticeably old ages are likely to share similar traits due to failure in discovering their potential and adequate self-knowledge while growing up whilst others due to their privilege of discovering their true potential at young ages contract highly stable marriages. Based on Oppenheimer’s observation (p. 572), “an early marriage may preclude a premarital matching on adult attributes that have not yet surfaced.” Thus, the “maturity effect” is much broader than just emotional maturity. It seems likely that the maturity effect also includes a learning effect. Individuals who enter marriage at an older age, after having spent most of the young adult years in the single state, probably has a deeper understanding of the foregone gains from marriage and is less likely to terminate the union even if it turns out to be quite far from perfect (Becker, 1973). Considering both men and women who marry at an older age, it has been suggested that habits developed because of living self-sufficiently gives rise to stress in their marriages (Glick and Norton, 1977).

Women who marry at an older age tend to do so when they have attained higher levels of education. Unfortunately, at the later ages at marriage there is greater likelihood of being exposed to the prospect of having had a previous cohabitation and/ or a child(ren) from a previous relationship, which can potentially destroy the marriage. Additionally, as a woman ages and gets to her late twenties or thirties without being in an intimate relationship, and with the

biological clock ticking, she may alter her preference for her ideal man and opt for a match that is far from the perfect choice of a partner (e.g., one who differs in religion, ethnicity, age, or education). In that case, the result would be a union that is under-benefiting and in like manner, a high possibility of consequent dissolution. Becker, Landes & Michael (1977) suggested that even though this impact, also termed as “the poor match effect,” concerns men and women, women are more prone to it since their ability to bear children begins to reduce at a much younger age in their case. If the poor match effect that emerges at the later ages at marriage is greater than or equal to the maturity effect, the observed total effect of age at marriage on marital instability (i.e. with the couple’s characteristics at marriage not controlled) would become positive beyond a certain age.

According to the dynamic goal theory, young couples lay emphasis on personal growth goals which is the desire to improve or actualize oneself. In respect to this finding, respondents’ results indicate that they receive affirmation and support from their spouses, and this is reflective in their marital satisfaction. On the other hand, older couples have lower marital satisfaction because their need for intimacy and a sense of belonging in the marriage as well as the commitment of their spouse is a challenge to having a satisfied marriage. Erikson’s psychosocial theory of development lays emphasis on the fact that at 18yrs to 40yrs, the extent to which deep intimate relationship is formed with each other enhances marital satisfaction as well.

The last hypothesis asserted that “There will be a significantly negative correlation between parental stress and marital satisfaction.” was accepted. Thus, a negative correlation exists between parental stress and marital satisfaction. This implies that as married persons’ level of parental stress increases, their level of marital satisfaction also decreases. Other studies which support the current result is the research finding by Merrifield (2010) which revealed that marital satisfaction of mothers was negatively related to how well they are able to execute their roles as

parents. Some studies also found a negative relationship between parenting stress and marital satisfaction e.g. (Gerstein, Crnic, Blacher & Baker, 2009). Another research by Lavee, Sharlin & Katz (1996) assessed the hypothesis that the effect of the presence of children on their parents' marriages is because of stress in the parental role. A multivariate model was used to assess the relationship between the parenting stress of fathers and mothers and their mental well-being and understanding of marital quality. The findings further suggested that for both husbands and wives, mental well-being and anticipated marital quality were affected negatively by parental stress.

Other studies have found a strong correlation between stress associated with parenting and satisfaction of mothers in marriage. For example, a few studies demonstrated an inverse relationship between parenting stress and marital satisfaction (Gerstein et al. 2009; Kersh, Hedvat, Hauser-Cram & Warfield, 2006; Mulsow, Caldera, Pursley, Reifman & Huston, 2002). According to the “spill-over hypothesis”, stress that is triggered in the process of carrying out duties as a parent may “spill over” and affect negatively marital relationships. Children exert age-appropriate requests on their parents’ time and their parent’s energy. An example is when children of age two to six are going through an unpleasant period which involves throwing tantrums and acting stubborn (Erikson 1950). This poses a great disturbance to married couples as it places additional strain on the role of parenting, parent–child relationships, and marriage, resulting in an early marital dissatisfaction. Consequently, such early marital dissatisfaction may multiply, become unbearably difficult to tolerate as time progresses, and potentially lead to marital dissolution (Hirschberger, Srivastava, Marsh, Cowan & Cowan, 2009). The results in this study also indicated that male spouses scored lower than female married persons on the parental stress scale.

Parents who have children with developmental delays (DD) experience more stress associated with parenting (Baker, McIntyre, Blacher, Crnic, Edelbrock & Low, 2003; Baxter,

Cummins, & Yiolitis, 2000; Oelofsen & Richardson, 2006; Webster, Majnemer, Platt, & Shevell, 2008). Research has proven that the discomfort associated with parenting as experienced by these parents stems more from disturbing child behaviour problems rather than child intellectual functioning (Baker, Blacher, & Olsson, 2005; Baker, Blacher, Crnic, & Edelbrock, 2002; Beck, Hastings, Daley, & Stevenson, 2004; Hastings, 2003; Neece, Green and Baker, 2012). Some studies also indicate that the psychological health and well-being of parents tends to decrease with increasing children's behaviour problems (Beck et al., 2004; Hassall, Rose, & McDonald, 2005; Hastings, 2003). This association has been found in specific conditions such as depression and how it influences marital satisfaction (Baker et al., 2005), but this has been particularly evident in stress associated with parenting.

Higher quality of marriage has related to lower stress in parenting. This is so for parents whose children are predisposed to developmental delays, even after accounting for some measures of social support such as socioeconomic status, child characteristics and other measures of social support (Kersh et al., 2006). In Chinese families, co-parenting alliance is closely linked to marital satisfaction where family integrity and family harmony is highly valued (Lam, Fielding, McDowell, Johnston, Chan, Leung, et al., 2012). This supports the "spill-over" and similarity hypotheses. Co-parenting alliance indicates co-operation and mutual understanding that encourages shared experience, hence marital satisfaction. On one hand, mothers who perceive that their husbands share similar childrearing values and work cooperatively in parenting feel the trust, emotional support, and mutuality from fathers. This solidifies family cohesion and increases family harmony. Consequently, marital satisfaction is increased.

As each family member belongs to several subsystems, e.g spousal and parental subsystems, he or she enters different complementary relationship with other members. Thus, a man relates to his wife both as a father and a husband. Likewise, a man relates to his wife as

both father and a husband. This reiterates that subsystems within the family are interwoven (Kwok, Cheng, Chow & Ling, 2015). As a result, behaviour and emotions experienced in dealing with childcare issues (e.g., parental subsystem) will be passed on to how married persons relate with one another (e.g. spousal subsystem) as well (Erel and Burman 1995). Numerous studies have shown that feelings of dissatisfaction within a marriage and conflicts among both parents would lead to nurturing the child in an unhealthy way and establishing an unfriendly relationship with the child (Erel and Burman 1995; Krishnakumar and Buehler 2000). This is termed the “spillover” effect (De Luccie, 1995).

The different values and variety in parenting styles among Chinese couples often precipitates conflict among married partners that disrupts family cohesion, and eventually leads to a poor satisfaction in marriage (Lam et al., 2012). This confirms Feinberg’s (2003) multi-domain model of co-parenting. It stated that co-parenting affected the course of the overall inter-parental relationship. Subsequently, this spilt over to the spousal level and influenced how they relate and their satisfaction in marriage. As parenting stress of mothers peaked, there was a decrease in their marital satisfaction. Again, this finding endorsed previous studies (Mulsow et al. 2002; Kersh et al. 2006).

On the contrary, in the research by Jill Hess (2008), he indicated in his study that marital satisfaction and parental stress corresponds in several ways especially in areas concerning parental distress and parent child interactions. Dzadey (2015) also reinforced the current result in her finding by indicating that a positive correlation does not exist between parental stress and marital satisfaction of couples. Several studies conducted have not identified these differences in marital satisfaction between parents of children who experience developmental delays (Donovan, 1988; Stoneman & Gavidia-Payne, 2006). However, within samples made up of families of children with developmental delays, studies have consistently found that high satisfaction in marriage compensates the experience of parenting stress. Thus, greater marital

quality in these parents predicts lower stress in parenting (Gerstein, et al., 2009; Kersh, et al., 2006).

The findings of this research in the 21st century could ,however, mean that in Ghana as compared to the western countries where most of the reviewed studies were done, Ghanaians who are married and living in the Accra Metropolitan area have become less probable in their ability to handle stress specifically parental stress just as the westerners. Irrespective of the high premium given to childbirth in Ghana, there is inadequate or a deficiency in family support among this target population such that few people or no one aside the parents (especially the mother) are involved in the child rearing process which means the stress associated with parenting which was usually shared with family and other significant others no longer exists. In consequence, parenting stress has escalated and is interfering with marital quality or satisfaction of the married individuals. According to several studies, parents with children who have disabilities experience a higher degree of stress associated with being a parent, deficiency in mental health, insufficient leisure time and are more prone to marital dissolution than parents whose children have no disabilities (Brobst, Clopton, & Hendrick, 2009; McConkey, Truesdale-Kennedy, Chang, Jarrah, & Shukri, 2008; Risdal& Singer, 2004; Rogers & Hogan, 2003).

This finding is also supported by the Lazarus Cognitive-Relational theory of stress which is a theory that follows a pattern of appraisal of identifying the situation (stressor), assessing the situation, and coming up with how to handle the situation (the second aspect of this model). Often, appraisal is recognised as an isolated activity but really comprises of two components namely the situation itself (primary appraisal) and recognising how to handle the situation (secondary appraisal). This coupled with the cognitive psychologist's assumption that “ the event itself does not that cause the reactions but the way the individual interprets the event can also explain the current result in a cultural aspect and how parenting stress could be viewed as a burden which will eventually negatively affect marital satisfaction. Crnic and Booth (1991)

indicated that parents who have a firm grip on the demands associated with developmental processes of children may be better at handling difficulties of parenting as and when they arise, as opposed to parents with inadequate or lack of understanding of children (Cronic & Booth, 1991). A developing child gains more abilities and skills and engages more in behaviour, which may eventually increase parental stress. How parents perceive these events or behaviours heightens their stress level more than the events themselves (Cronic & Booth, 1991).

5.2 Conclusion

This study examined the magnitude to which psychosocial factors such as premarital counselling, level of education, gender, age at marriage, and parental stress influences marital satisfaction among married couples living within Accra Metropolitan area. After data analysis, results showed that premarital counselling does not predict marital satisfaction since there was no significant difference existing among couples who underwent premarital counselling and those who did not undergo premarital counselling. Results also revealed that the difference in couples' level of marital satisfaction among married couples with postgraduate education and those with no postgraduate education is statistically significant such that married persons who have acquired postgraduate education have less satisfaction in marriage than married persons who have acquired other education. Similarly, the difference found in satisfaction in marriage among male and female married persons was statistically significant.

Again, the researcher accepted the hypothesis that the difference that exists between the level of marital satisfaction among married persons who got married at less than 30 years and those who got married at 30 years and above was significant such that married persons who got married at less than 30 years of age have a more satisfying marriage than those who got married

at 30years or more. Findings also indicated a significant negative correlation exists between parental stress and marital satisfaction among married persons. Thus, as married persons' level of parental stress increases, their level of marital satisfaction also decreases. Among married couples living within Accra Metropolitan area, a logical conclusion was drawn that the difference among married couples in relation to the level of education, age at marriage and gender was significant. It was also established that parental stress negatively influenced the level of marital satisfaction. However, respondents who were taken through premarital counselling and respondents who were not taken through premarital counselling had no statistically significant difference in their level of satisfaction in marriage.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

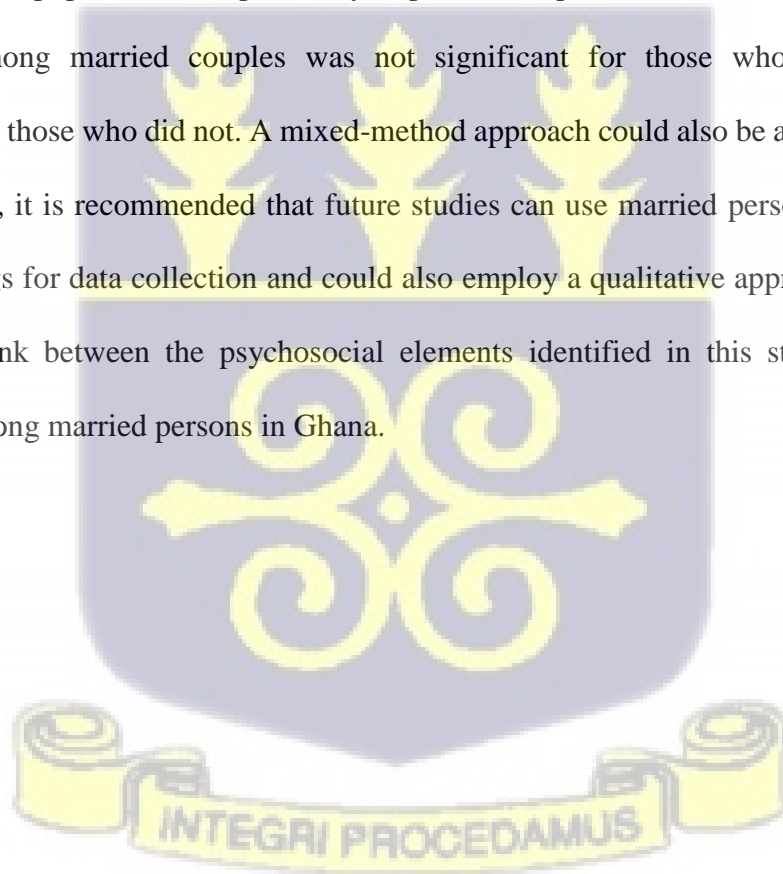
In this study, the sampling technique employed in collecting the data comes as a limitation that needs to be taken into consideration when generalizing the findings of the study with respect to the views of all married persons within Accra Metropolitan area. Thus, heterogeneity of respondents was a limitation for this study. Marginally, a greater percentage of the participants in the study had postgraduate education. In addition, a greater proportion of the sample had premarital counselling. Future studies should aim to recruit more diversified samples of respondents to enhance the generalizability of the results of this study.

5.5 Recommendations

It is recommended that well- structured and problem- focused premarital counselling should be offered by professional counsellors using a range of theoretical orientations and appropriate techniques to prepare individuals adequately for marriage. In relation to age at marriage, the pros and cons associated with being married at a young age or older age should be well communicated to potential married partners through various media platforms. Another

recommendation is that older married partners who are satisfied with their marriages should be encouraged to assist the younger married partners to attain marital satisfaction as well. Husbands should be encouraged to be more involved in household tasks and childcare to reduce the parental stress level of their wives to offer more support and enhance marital satisfaction of their wives. It is further recommended that wives should learn how to submit to their husbands irrespective of their level of education or employment status.

Again, it is recommended that further studies should be done targeting an even number of respondents in relation to the variables used in this study to ensure low variability in the data. It is also recommended that the researcher should do a follow-up study that is qualitative on the same target population to explore why respondents reported that the difference in marital satisfaction among married couples was not significant for those who had premarital counselling and those who did not. A mixed-method approach could also be adopted for future studies. Finally, it is recommended that future studies can use married persons living within the rural settings for data collection and could also employ a qualitative approach to examine in detail the link between the psychosocial elements identified in this study and marital satisfaction among married persons in Ghana.



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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am conducting a research in marriage in the Accra Metropolitan Area. I would be grateful if you could sincerely assist me by responding to the following questions. The researcher only wants to know the degree to which you agree to the following information and assures you of absolute confidentiality since the information you provide is completely anonymous and will be used only for the purpose of the study. Answering the questions in this survey could provide insight you could use to enhance your marriage.

SECTION A

1. Are you living in the Accra Metropolitan area?

(a) Yes (b) No

2. If yes, state area of residence.....

3. Age.....

4. At what age did you get married?.....

5. Sex

(a) Male..... (b) Female.....

6. For how many MONTHS did you court before marriage? *(Please multiply number of years by 12 to get the number of months)*

7. For how many MONTHS have you been married? *(Please multiply number of years by 12 to get the number of months)*

8. Are you currently working/employed?

(a) Yes..... (b)No.....

9. Do you have a child/children?

- (a) Yes..... (b) No.....

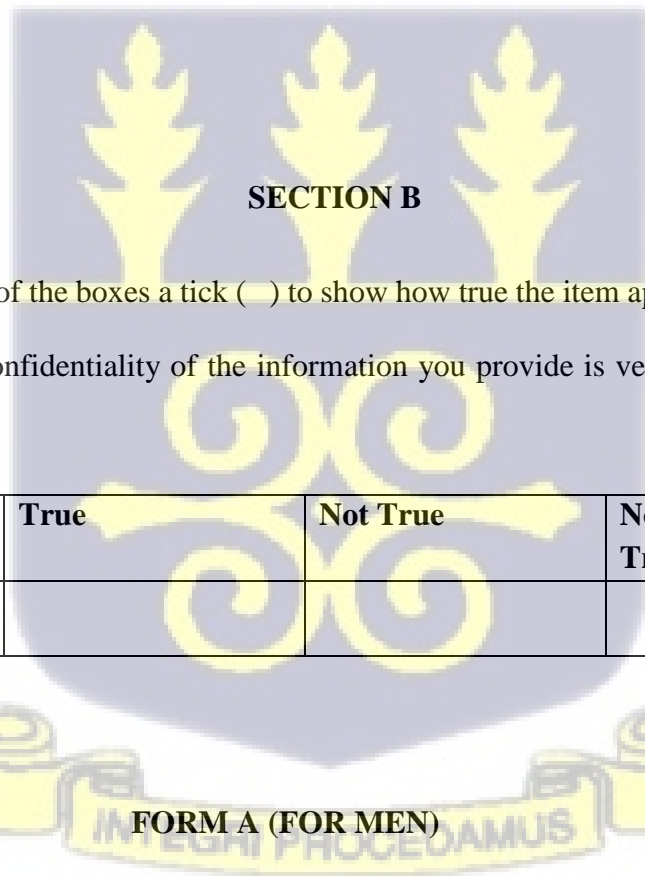
10. If yes, kindly indicate the number of children you have.....

11. Did you go through premarital counselling?

- (a) Yes..... (b) No.....

12. Level of education

- (a) JHS..... (c) Diploma/Undergraduate.....
 (b) SHS..... (d) Postgraduate.....



Kindly indicate in one of the boxes a tick () to show how true the item applies to you. See the example below. Confidentiality of the information you provide is very much assured.

Thank you.

Very True	True	Not True	Not At All True

FORM A (FOR MEN)

No.	Items	Very True	True	Not True	Not at All true
1	I always feel fulfilled, happy when I have my wife by me.				

2	I like the way my wife converses and shares her experiences with me.				
3	I am satisfied sexually with my marriage				
4	I am very disturbed because my wife does not appreciate all the sacrifices I put in my marriage				
5	We (I and my wife) quarrel over petty disagreements and each other's feelings very often				
6	My wife cannot be trusted. She is very cunning, not reliable.				
7	I will feel much happier if I move out of my present marriage.				
8	My wife is the best I can ever have.				
9	I like my wife a lot for her financial support in the marriage				
10	My wife always seeks my opinion on important issues concerning our marriage. I like this.				
11	My in-laws are very helpful and give me respect				
12	I am fed up with my wife because she is stubborn, never ready to change her bad ways (like her keeping bad friends).				
13	My wife is too cold for my liking. I do not enjoy her company.				
14	My wife is indifferent. She does not care about what I do with my life.				
15	My wife keeps her money to herself. She does not				

	contribute to the upkeep of the home and family				
16	I notice that my wife is becoming more attractive to me. I am growing to love her more and more.				
17	My in-laws are my worst enemies in my marriage. They make my life miserable.				
18	One thing I like about my wife is that she admits her faults and apologises.				
19	My wife is insolent. She speaks to me with respect				
20	Our conversation always ends in a quarrel. So we scarcely converse these days.				
21	I and my wife accept disagreement without hurting each other's feelings.				
22	My wife nags almost everyday and makes my life very uncomfortable				
23	My wife appreciates very much how I help her in the home (with the household chores).				
24	My wife does not like my relatives. She treats them badly when they visit. This makes me highly displeased				
25	I like the way my wife keeps in touch when she travels. She phones and converses to my liking.				
26	My wife cooks well and takes good care of the home. I love her for this.				
27	My wife respects and admires me very much. She says I work hard.				

28	My wife complains too much. Nothing I do at home pleases her				
29	My wife is fond of hitting me with objects to harm me when she angry. I feel unsafe because she is very violent.				
30	I enjoy my wife's company most times.				

FORM B (FOR WOMEN)

No.	Item	Very True	True	Not True	Not At All True
1	I always feel fulfilled, happy in the company of my husband.				
2	I like the way my husband converses and shares jokes with me.				
3	I am satisfied sexually with my marriage				
4	I am very worried because my husband does not appreciate all the sacrifices I put in my marriage				
5	We (I and my husband) quarrel over petty disagreements and each other's feelings very often.				
6	My husband is not trustworthy. He is cunning, not reliable.				
7	I will feel much happier if I move out of my present marriage.				

8	My husband is the best I can ever have.				
9	I like my husband a lot for helping me with the household chores.				
10	My husband always seeks my opinion on important issues concerning our marriage. I like this.				
11	My in-laws are very helpful and give me respect.				
12	I am fed up with my husband because he is stubborn, never ready to change his bad ways (like affairs with women).				
13	My husband is too cold for my liking. I do not enjoy his company.				
14	My husband is indifferent. He does not care about what I do with my life.				
15	My husband keeps his money to himself. He does not perform his financial duties for the upkeep of the home				
16	I notice that my husband is becoming more attractive to me. I am growing to love him more and more.				
17	My in-laws are my worst enemies in my marriage. They make my life miserable.				
18	One thing I like about my husband is that he				

	admits his faults and apologizes.				
19	My husband speaks to me harshly as if I am a child. I strongly dislike this.				
20	Our conversation always ends in a quarrel. So we scarcely converse these days.				
21	I and my husband accept disagreement without hurting each other's feelings.				
22	I thought it is only women who nag. My husband nags too much to my discomfort.				
23	My husband appreciates my cooking always. I like this.				
24	My husband speaks harshly and angrily to my relatives when they visit. This displeases me.				
25	I like the way my husband phones and converses when he travels. He does it frequently.				
26	My husband is committed. He gives enough house-keeping money and sometimes gives more.				
27	My husband has great respect for me. He admires my hard work at home.				
28	No matter how well I cook, my husband would find some fault. He is				

	always complaining about my cooking.				
29	My husband gets angry too frequently and beats me. I am thinking of reporting him to the police.				
30	I enjoy my husband's company most times.				

SECTION C

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following items by placing the appropriate number in the space provided. 1= Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree

1. ____ 1. I am happy in my role as a parent.
2. ____ 2. There is little or nothing I would not do for my child(ren) if it was necessary. 3. ____
3. Caring for my child(ren) sometimes takes more time and energy than I must give.
4. ____ 4. I sometimes worry whether I am doing enough for my child(ren).
5. ____ 5. I feel close to my child(ren).
6. ____ 6. I enjoy spending time with my child(ren).
7. ____ 7. My child(ren) is an important source of affection for me.
8. ____ 8. Having child(ren) gives me a more certain and optimistic view for the future. 9. ____
9. The major source of stress in my life is my child(ren).

10. ____ 10. Having child(ren) leaves little time and flexibility in my life.

11. ____ 11. Having child(ren) has been a financial burden.

12. ____ 12. It is difficult to balance different responsibilities because of my child(ren). 13.

____ 13. The behaviour of my child(ren) is often embarrassing or stressful to me. 14. ____ 14.

If I had it to do over again, I might decide not to have child(ren).

15. ____ 15. I feel overwhelmed by the responsibility of being a parent.

16. ____ 16. Having child(ren) has meant having too few choices and too little control over my life.

17. ____ 17. I am satisfied as a parent.

18. ____ 18. I find my child(ren) enjoyable.

THANK YOU



APPENDIX B

SPSS COMPUTATIONS

Frequency Table

Frequencies

Statistics															
		q3-- Please select Sex.	q2-- Select Age Category.	youthadult	marriagea ge	q11-- Level of education.	postgradu ate	q4-- Duration of courtship before marriage ?	q6-- Duration of marriage?	q9-- Do you have a child/childr en?	q9a-- How many children do you have	q7-- Are you currently working/e mployed?	q10-- Did you go through premarital counsellin g?	parentalstr ess	maritalsati sTOT
N	Valid	389	389	389	389	389	389	389	389	389	168	389	389	304	389
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	221	0	0	85	0

q3-- Please select Sex.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	182	46.8	46.8	46.8
	Female	207	53.2	53.2	100.0
Total		389	100.0	100.0	

q2-- Select Age Category.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-24	1	.3	.3	.3
	25-34	204	52.4	52.4	52.7
	35-49	143	36.8	36.8	89.5
	50-55	41	10.5	10.5	100.0
	Total	389	100.0	100.0	

Youthadult

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Youth (<35 Years)	205	52.7	52.7	52.7
	Adult (35 & Above)	184	47.3	47.3	100.0

Total	389	100.0	100.0
-------	-----	-------	-------

Marriageage

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid <30 years	236	60.7	60.7	60.7
30 years and above	153	39.3	39.3	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

q11-- Level of education.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid SHS	5	1.3	1.3	1.3
Diploma/Undergraduate	137	35.2	35.2	36.5
Post Graduate	247	63.5	63.5	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

postgraduate

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No	142	36.5	36.5	36.5
Yes	247	63.5	63.5	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

q4-- Duration of courtship before marriage ?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Less than 5 years	314	80.7	80.7	80.7
5 Years or more	75	19.3	19.3	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

q6-- Duration of marriage?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Less than 5 years	198	50.9	50.9	50.9

5 Years or more	191	49.1	49.1	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

q9-- Do you have a child/children?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No	83	21.3	21.3	21.3
Yes	306	78.7	78.7	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

q9a-- How many children do you have

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	61	15.7	36.3	36.3
2	56	14.4	33.3	69.6
3	40	10.3	23.8	93.5
4	8	2.1	4.8	98.2
5	3	.8	1.8	100.0
Total	168	43.2	100.0	
Missing System	221	56.8		
Total	389	100.0		

q7-- Are you currently working/employed?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No	55	14.1	14.1	14.1
Yes	334	85.9	85.9	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

q10-- Did you go through premarital counselling?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No	57	14.7	14.7	14.7
Yes	332	85.3	85.3	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

parentalstress

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	1	.3	.3	.3
	19	1	.3	.3	.7
	20	1	.3	.3	1.0
	22	8	2.1	2.6	3.6
	23	9	2.3	3.0	6.6
	24	1	.3	.3	6.9
	25	6	1.5	2.0	8.9
	26	17	4.4	5.6	14.5
	27	6	1.5	2.0	16.4
	28	12	3.1	3.9	20.4
	29	11	2.8	3.6	24.0
	30	15	3.9	4.9	28.9
	31	6	1.5	2.0	30.9
	32	13	3.3	4.3	35.2
	33	20	5.1	6.6	41.8
	34	31	8.0	10.2	52.0
	35	14	3.6	4.6	56.6
	36	10	2.6	3.3	59.9
	37	5	1.3	1.6	61.5
	38	8	2.1	2.6	64.1
	39	8	2.1	2.6	66.8
	40	11	2.8	3.6	70.4
	41	11	2.8	3.6	74.0
	42	13	3.3	4.3	78.3
	43	11	2.8	3.6	81.9
	44	12	3.1	3.9	85.9
	45	9	2.3	3.0	88.8
	46	8	2.1	2.6	91.4
	47	4	1.0	1.3	92.8
	48	6	1.5	2.0	94.7
	49	6	1.5	2.0	96.7
	50	4	1.0	1.3	98.0
	51	4	1.0	1.3	99.3
	52	1	.3	.3	99.7
	55	1	.3	.3	100.0
Total		304	78.1	100.0	

Missing System	85	21.9	
Total	389	100.0	

maritalsatisTOT

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 2.00	2	.5	.5	.5
2.07	8	2.1	2.1	2.6
2.10	5	1.3	1.3	3.9
2.13	5	1.3	1.3	5.1
2.17	6	1.5	1.5	6.7
2.18	1	.3	.3	6.9
2.20	10	2.6	2.6	9.5
2.23	13	3.3	3.3	12.9
2.24	2	.5	.5	13.4
2.27	29	7.5	7.5	20.8
2.28	1	.3	.3	21.1
2.30	24	6.2	6.2	27.2
2.32	1	.3	.3	27.5
2.33	28	7.2	7.2	34.7
2.34	2	.5	.5	35.2
2.37	40	10.3	10.3	45.5
2.38	2	.5	.5	46.0
2.40	39	10.0	10.0	56.0
2.41	2	.5	.5	56.6
2.43	16	4.1	4.1	60.7
2.45	1	.3	.3	60.9
2.46	1	.3	.3	61.2
2.47	48	12.3	12.3	73.5
2.48	3	.8	.8	74.3
2.50	36	9.3	9.3	83.5
2.53	27	6.9	6.9	90.5
2.57	11	2.8	2.8	93.3
2.60	7	1.8	1.8	95.1
2.63	4	1.0	1.0	96.1
2.73	3	.8	.8	96.9
2.77	5	1.3	1.3	98.2
2.86	1	.3	.3	98.5

2.87	1	.3	.3	98.7
3.00	5	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Postgraduate	0	No	142
	1	Yes	247
Marriageage	1	<30 years	236
	2	30 years and above	153
q3-- Please select Sex.	1	Male	182
	2	Female	207
q10-- Did you go through premarital counselling?	0	No	57
	1	Yes	332

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

F	df1	df2	Sig.
3.703	14	374	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + postgraduate + marriageage + sex + counselling

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.382 ^a	4	.096	4.118	.003
Intercept	990.105	1	990.105	42692.133	.000
postgraduate	.090	1	.090	3.890	.049
marriageage	.171	1	.171	7.385	.007
sex	.159	1	.159	6.872	.009
counselling	.001	1	.001	.050	.822
Error	8.906	384	.023		
Total	2250.039	389			
Corrected Total	9.288	388			

a. R Squared = .041 (Adjusted R Squared = .031)

Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intercept	2.340	.017	137.013	.000	2.306	2.373
[postgraduate=0]	.032	.016	1.972	.049	.000	.064
[postgraduate=1]	0 ^a
[marriageage=1]	.046	.017	2.717	.007	.013	.079
[marriageage=2]	0 ^a
[sex=1]	.043	.017	2.621	.009	.011	.076
[sex=2]	0 ^a
[counselling=0]	.005	.022	.225	.822	-.039	.049
[counselling=1]	0 ^a

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Estimated Marginal Means

1. Grand Mean

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
2.403	.012	2.380	2.426

2. postgraduate

Estimates

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

postgraduate	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
No	2.419	.016	2.387	2.450
Yes	2.387	.012	2.363	2.410

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

(I) postgraduate	(J) postgraduate	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b

					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
No	Yes	.032*	.016	.049	.000	.064
Yes	No	-.032*	.016	.049	-.064	.000

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contrast	.090	1	.090	3.890	.049
Error	8.906	384	.023		

The F tests the effect of postgraduate. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

3. marriageage

Estimates

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

marriageage	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
<30 years	2.425	.013	2.400	2.451
30 years and above	2.380	.016	2.349	2.411

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:

(I) marriageage	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
<30 years and above	.046*	.017	.007	.013	.079
30 years and above	-.046*	.017	.007	-.079	-.013

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contrast	.171	1	.171	7.385	.007
Error	8.906	384	.023		

The F tests the effect of marriage. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

4. q3-- Please select Sex.

Estimates

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

q3-- Please select Sex.	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	2.424	.013	2.398	2.451
Female	2.381	.015	2.351	2.411

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:

(I) q3-- Please select Sex.	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male Female	.043*	.017	.009	.011	.076
Female Male	-.043*	.017	.009	-.076	-.011

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contrast	.159	1	.159	6.872	.009
Error	8.906	384	.023		

The F tests the effect of q3-- Please select Sex.. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

5. q10-- Did you go through premarital counselling?

Estimates

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

q10-- Did you go through premarital counselling?	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
No	2.405	.021	2.364	2.447
Yes	2.400	.009	2.383	2.417

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(I) q10-- Did you go through premarital counselling?						
No	Yes	.005	.022	.822	-.039	.049
Yes	No	-.005	.022	.822	-.049	.039

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: maritalstisTOT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contrast	.001	1	.001	.050	.822
Error	8.906	384	.023		

The F tests the effect of q10-- Did you go through premarital counselling?. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

	Value Label	N
q3-- Please select Sex.	1 Male	154
	2 Female	150

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: parentalstress

q3-- Please select Sex.	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	33.24	7.020	154
Female	37.75	7.724	150
Total	35.47	7.703	304

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	382980.543	1	382980.543	247.453	.040	.996
sex	1547.687	1	1547.687 ^a	28.448	.000	.086
Error	1547.687	1	1547.687			

Error	16429.984	302	54.404 ^b			
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- a. MS(sex)
- b. MS(Error)

Expected Mean Squares^{a,b}

Source	Variance Component		
	Var(sex)	Var(Error)	Quadratic Term
Intercept	151.974	1.000	Intercept
sex	151.974	1.000	
Error	.000	1.000	

- a. For each source, the expected mean square equals the sum of the coefficients in the cells times the variance components, plus a quadratic term involving effects in the Quadratic Term cell.
- b. Expected Mean Squares are based on the Type III Sums of Squares.

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
q3-- Please select Sex.	1	Male	182
	2	Female	207

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: maritalstatisTOT

q3-- Please select Sex.	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	2.4159	.15427	182
Female	2.3861	.15414	207
Total	2.4001	.15472	389

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	2233.280	1	2233.280	25913.776	.004	1.000
sex	.086	1	.086 ^a	3.625	.058	.009
Error	9.202	387	.024 ^b			

- a. MS(sex)
- b. MS(Error)

Expected Mean Squares^{a,b}

Source	Variance Component		
	Var(sex)	Var(Error)	Quadratic Term
Intercept	193.697	1.000	Intercept
sex	193.697	1.000	
Error	.000	1.000	

a. For each source, the expected mean square equals the sum of the coefficients in the cells times the variance components, plus a quadratic term involving effects in the Quadratic Term cell.

b. Expected Mean Squares are based on the Type III Sums of Squares.

