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Familial Conflict and the Psychological Adjustment of Graduate Students

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FAMILIAL CONFLICT AND THE PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT OF GRADUATE STUDENTS

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VITA

The author, Marcia Herman Vickman, was born on August 7, 1965 in Indianapolis, Indiana. She is the daughter of Avrum S. Herman and Dr. Barbara F. Herman. On September 3, 1989 she was married to Philip J. Vickman.

Marcia attended elementary school and high school in Indianapolis. She attended Indiana University and graduated in 1987 with a Bachelor of Arts in psychology and sociology and a certificate in Jewish studies. Marcia was a member of the Psi Chi and Alpha Kappa Delta honor societies.

Following her graduation from Indiana University Marcia moved to Chicago, Illinois to pursue a Master of Arts at Loyola University.

Between September 1988 and May 1989 Marcia counseled students at Oakton Community College in Des Plaines, Illinois and Lincoln Junior High School in Park Ridge, Illinois.

In July 1988 Marcia began employment as Case Coordinator at Maine Center for Mental Health in Park Ridge, Illinois. Two years later Marcia became a member of the Crisis Intervention Services team at Maine Center. In October 1990 Marcia accepted a position as Psychotherapist at Maine Center for Mental Health. Marcia was awarded a Master of Arts in Community Counseling in January 1991.

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INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

During the last fifty years, the divorce rate in the United States has risen dramatically. In 1940 there were 264,000 divorces and annulments granted (National Center for Health Statistics, 1989). Forty one years later, the American divorce rate reached a record high with 1,213,000 divorces and annulments granted (National Center for Health Statistics, 1989).

In the late 1970's the rate of divorce fluctuated slightly and even began to decline by 1982 (Kantrowitz, Wingert, Gordon, Michael, Witherspoon, Gonzalezin & Turque, 1987; National Center for Health Statistics, 1989). In 1986 the rate of divorce in the United States was estimated to be 1,178,000 legal marital dissolutions granted, which was the lowest rate in 11 years (Kantrowitz et al., 1987; National Center for Health Statistics, 1989). Although the rate of divorce in the United States has decreased in recent years, the number of marriages that are legally terminated remains high (Martin & Bumpass, 1989).

Each year over one million children experience parental divorce (Crawford, 1988). In 1979, Glick (Glick, 1979)

made a prediction based on the trends in the divorce rate between 1960 and 1978. He predicted that by 1990, 32% of all American children will have experienced a divorce. In 1986, Glick and Lin estimated that approximately 40 to 50 percent of the American children born in the late 1970's and early 1980's will experience parental divorce.

These predictions, although seemingly high, may actually be underestimates of the number of American children experiencing parental divorce (Farber, Primavera & Felner, 1983). This is because divorce records only require parents to indicate information regarding their children under 18 years of age. (Farber et al., 1983). Information regarding children under age 18 is relevant for custody and support considerations. Since parental custody and support are no longer mandatory for children over 18, divorcing parents are not required to allocate financial support for their young adult children (Farber et al., 1983).

Research on children of divorce has expanded over the last twenty five years in response to the dramatic rise in the rate of divorce. The research, however, has focused primarily on preschool age children and adolescents (Cooney, Smyer, Hagestad & Klock, 1986; Farber et al., 1983).

Preschool age children seem, at the time of divorce, to suffer the most adverse consequences to the marital dissolution (Wallerstein, 1984, 1987/88). Although

their reactions appear to be extreme, they tend to adjust completely within approximately two years following the separation (Wallerstein, 1984, 1987/88).

A substantial portion of divorce research has also focused on adolescents. This is because adolescence is a time of transition (Montemayor, 1983). Individuals become particularly vulnerable during life transitions (Felner, Farber & Primavera, 1980). The changes initiated by transition are accompanied by demands on the individual to adapt (Peterson & Hamburg, 1986).

Adolescence is a period marked by physical, emotional and maturative changes in the child. These transitional changes cause stress and challenge the individual's coping abilities (Peterson & Hamburg, 1986).

Adolescents who experience parental divorce are faced with an additional transition at a critical time in their lives (Peck, 1989). Parental disharmony and subsequent separation/divorce may interfere with the adolescent's primary efforts to expand his/her social relations outside the family (Forehand & McCombs, 1989; Long, Forehand, Fauber & Brody, 1987; Peck, 1989). The multiple changes in the family environment and the adolescent's inner transitions heighten his/her vulnerability (Peck, 1989). The risk of developing maladjusted coping behaviors (Peterson & Hamburg, 1986) and emotional problems (Peck, 1989) is

especially great for adolescents of divorce.

Another critical transitional period in life is that of young adulthood (Farber et al., 1983). While adolescents are learning to accept their social independence outside the family, young adults actually become physically, emotionally, socially and economically independent (Cooney, 1988). Young adults assume new roles within society as well as within the family. Like adolescents, these individuals depend heavily on the stability of the familial environment while they are preparing for adulthood (Cooney, 1988).

Young adults from divorced families may not have the stability that most children receive from traditional nuclear families. According to Schwartz (1987), stability is the primary need of all children of divorce. Parental disharmony and divorce may result in additional demands on the young adult at a time when he/she is concentrating on his/her own independence (Forehand & McCombs, 1989). The young adult's planned physical and emotional departure from the family may be postponed by parents' needs for emotional, financial or social support (Cain, 1989; Cooney, 1988), or the experience of physical and emotional departure from the family may be initiated prematurely by parents, before the young adult is ready, due to upsets in parental resources (Cooney, 1988).

The transitional period of young adulthood is often overlooked because many people believe that by the time an individual reaches adulthood he/she is able to resist any negative occurrences in the family (Bonkowski, 1989).

Because of this assumption, relatively little research has focused on the psychological effects of divorce and familial conflict on individuals beyond adolescence (Cooney et al., 1986; Farber et al., 1983). However, recent research is beginning to reveal that adults are not immune to problems within their families of origin (Bonkowski, 1989; Cain, 1989; Cooney et al., 1986).

Bonkowski (1989) investigated the effects of parental divorce on forty two adults who were between 18 and 30 years of age when their parents ended their marriages. None of the adults in the study was receiving mental health treatment. Bonkowski (1989) concluded that several years following parental divorce many of the adult subjects experienced a lingering sadness. The adults were able to master the social and developmental tasks in their own lives, although they were burdened with the stress and sadness that accompanied the loss of their intact family of origin.

Cain (1989) investigated the impact of divorce on forty eight non-clinical college students. All of the students experienced parental divorce after they had left

for college. Cain (1989) found that over half of the students in the sample reported wrenching pain in response to the physical and emotional division of the family. The adults in the study were also more likely to be angry with and to blame the parent they believed responsible for the marital dissolution. They also expressed deep concern for the welfare of the parent they felt had been abandoned. Peck (1989) reported similar conclusions.

In an exploratory investigation by Cooney et al. (1986), thirty nine college students completed questionnaires and a semi-structured interview in an attempt to identify critical issues in their divorce experience. The subjects in the study ranged in age from 18 to 23 and had experienced parental divorce within 3 years prior to the investigation. Subjects expressed difficulty dealing with the multiple transitions associated with parental divorce. They reported that their parents' divorce seemed to heighten the stress they already experienced along with their transition into college life. Eighty five percent of the students expressed displeasure regarding going home for holidays and vacations. These students found school breaks to be stressful occasions in which they had to travel back and forth between parental homes. Cooney et al. (1986) also found that women were more likely to report experiencing emotional upset and anger as a result of parental

divorce. This is consistent with the results of Farber et al. (1983).

Glenn and Kramer (1985) investigated the effects of parental divorce on the psychological well-being of white adults. The data was pooled from eight U.S. national surveys. All of the adult children of divorce had experienced family dissolution by age 16. Glenn and Kramer (1985) found the effects of divorce were more negative for females on five of the eight dimensions of psychological well-being. These dimensions were happiness, health self-rating, satisfaction with friendships, family life and the community. The only negative effect on males of divorce was on the dimension of happiness. Glenn and Kramer (1985) concluded that the long-term negative effects of divorce are more prevalent in women than men.

The results of these studies indicate that there is often a lingering impact from parental divorce on adult children. Further research is clearly needed to determine the extent that parental divorce during childhood has on adults.

In addition, Emery (1982) points out that many marriages characterized by conflict do not end in divorce. The children of these marriages are subject to continuous strife and adversity.

A substantial portion of the research of divorce-

related effects on children has been devoted to the study of familial conflict. In the last several decades, divorce investigators have concluded that the presence of familial conflict prior to and following parental separation are primary indicators of children's later adjustment. However, research on the long-term effects of familial conflict on adult children is absent from the literature.

This investigation will attempt to reduce this deficit by investigating the effects of familial conflict on the psychological adjustment of adults enrolled in graduate courses.

Rationale for the Study

It is common in divorce research for the custodial parent to respond to questions regarding familial conflict and their child's adjustment (Burchinal, 1964; Christensen, Phillips, Glasgow & Johnson, 1983; Fulton, 1979; Gassner & Murray, 1969; Kurdek, 1988b; Porter & O'Leary, 1980; Saayman & Saayman, 1989). In a recent study, however, Strangeland, Pellegreno and Lundholm (1989) found that parents' perceptions of their children's adjustment were not always accurate. They concluded that parents should not speak for their children, especially in the areas of school adjustment, parent relationships, helpfulness at home, sleep disturbance, feelings of security and trust and the child's desire to marry. Because of the unreliability

of parental perceptions, subjects' perceptions of familial conflict will be assessed in this study.

Many investigators agree that the adverse effects of familial disharmony and divorce are primarily behavioral in nature (Block, Block & Gjerde, 1986; Block, Block & Morrison, 1981; Emery, 1982; Emery & O'Leary, 1982; Kaye, 1988/89; Rutter, 1971; Stolberg, Camplair, Currier & Wells, 1987; Whitehead, 1979). However, recent research representing the majority of studies involving older adolescents and adults, reveals that the long-lasting effects of divorce tend to be primarily psychological in nature (Amato, 1988; Bonkowski, 1989; Cain, 1989; Cooney, 1988; Farber et al., 1983; Glenn & Kramer, 1985; Grossman, Shea & Adams, 1980; Luepnitz, 1979). Therefore, the present study attempts to assess subjects' psychological adjustment.

The construct of psychological adjustment can be defined in many ways. An individual's self-concept has been reported to be a good measure of his/her mental health (Roid & Fitts, 1988). It has also been noted that one's level of self-concept varies under various circumstances, such as a change in family structure (Parish, 1988; Parish & Nunn, 1981). Because of this, a measure of self-concept is appropriate in studies of familial conflict and post-divorce adjustment.

In social learning terms, when an individual believes

he/she has the power to act on his/her environment, the individual is said to have an internal locus of control. If an individual, on the other hand, believes he/she is unable to alter his/her environment, the individual is said to have an external locus of control (Lefcourt, 1982).

Lefcourt (1982) indicates that one may perceive a lack of control over aversive life conditions in order to help create a passive acceptance of the situation. In addition, an individual experiencing feelings of being overwhelmed in response to a crisis situation will perceive he/she is helpless or external.

It is possible that children of familial conflict and divorce may perceive a loss of control over their environment because they are, in actuality, powerless over their parents' relationship (Schwartz, 1987). One's perceived locus of control has also been linked to the incidence of negative life events, state and trait anxiety, social support and depression (Lefcourt, 1982). This is evident in studies by Hetherington (1972) and Kappes (1980).

Many investigators have reported that children of familial conflict and divorce frequently experience an increased level of anxiety in relation to parental marital tension and/or dissolution (Amato, 1988; Anthony, 1974; Atkeson, Forehand & Rickard, 1982; Hetherington, 1972; Wallerstein, 1984; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1980; Wigle

& Parish,1988).

Adolescent girls from divorced families expressed a general feeling of anxiety and powerlessness (Hetherington, 1972). Their scores on the Internal-External Control Scale revealed little feelings of personal control over their lives. These girls also expressed low sense of self-esteem. Thus, a measure of locus of control would be advantageous in assessing adjustment to parental disharmony or divorce.

Because there seems to be a relationship between an individual's self-esteem/self-concept, level of anxiety (Kappes, 1980) and locus of control (Hetherington, 1972), measures of all three were included in this investigation to determine subjects' psychological adjustment.

Definitions

An intact family will be defined as one in which subject's parents have an intact marriage and occupy the same residence.

A divorced family will be defined as one in which subjects' parents have divorced or are separated.

Current level of perceived familial conflict will be defined as subjects' score on the conflict subscale on the Counseling Form of the Family Environment Scale (Moos, 1974). The conflict subscale measures the amount of openly expressed anger, aggression and conflict among family mem-

bers (Moos & Moos, 1986). Subjects will be asked to refer to their families of origin when answering these questions. Low conflict will be defined as subjects' score of zero, one, two or three on the conflict subscale. High conflict will be defined as subjects' score of six, seven, eight or nine on the conflict subscale. Subjects with scores of four or five will be excluded from the study in order to maximize the differences between the low and high conflict groups.

Perceived level of familial conflict during subjects' childhood will be defined as subjects' response to this question on the personal history form:

> While you were growing up, which of these conflict levels best describes the level of conflict within your family of origin (this may include conflict between parents, parents and children and/or conflict between siblings)?
>
> a. very low conflict _____
> b. low conflict _____
> c. average to low conflict _____
> d. average to high conflict _____
> e. high conflict _____
> f. very high conflict _____

Psychological adjustment will be defined as subjects' scores on the Trait Form of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, STAI (Speilberger, 1983), the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale, ANSIE (Nowicki, 1990) and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, TSCS (Roid & Fitts, 1988).

Limitations of the Study

This study included data from individuals enrolled in graduate courses at two midwestern universities. One was a large, religiously affiliated university in a large urban location. The second was a small, secular university in a mid-size urban location. Subjects were predominantly White although there were several Black, Hispanic and Asian participants. Subjects' socioeconomic status was not assessed in the present investigation. It is important to note that the results of this study cannot be generalized to other populations.

Other limitations include the possibility of sampling bias due to subjects' participation on a voluntary basis. In addition, because many of the subjects may be required to carry out investigative studies or reviews as a requirement for their graduate degree, they may have felt an obligation to participate in the present study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Introduction

In the early years of divorce research it was inferred that regardless of the mediating variables, parental divorce was associated with adverse effects in children's adjustment (Dancy & Handal, 1984; Ellison, 1983; Enos & Handal, 1986; Herzog & Sudia, 1973; Hetherington, 1966; Kurdek, Blisk & Siesky, 1981; Levitin, 1979; Nye, 1957; Shaw & Emery, 1987; Shybunko, 1988/89). It was believed that among children of divorce there was a higher rate of delinquency and behavior problems (Levitin, 1979) as well as deficits in children's sex-role development, resulting from father absence (Hetherington, 1966; Kersey, 1973).

Physical Wholeness Position

The theory that views divorce as the primary variable affecting children's adjustment is referred to as the physical wholeness position (Dancy & Handal, 1984; Enos & Handal, 1986). This view is composed of two hypotheses. First, it is assumed that a child's age and sex at the time of divorce are associated with the child's post-divorce adjustment. Second, it is believed that divorce per se has

a negative effect on children's adjustment (Dancy & Handal, 1984; Enos & Handal, 1986).

Past and present research has focused on each of these hypotheses. Findings regarding the degree of influence that age and sex have on children's post-divorce adjustment have been mixed. According to Stolberg et al. (1987) individual factors such as child's age and sex at the time of separation or divorce may have an impact on the child's risk for psychological distress. This is because the individual variables are reflective of the developmental tasks the child faces at any given time.

Among preschool age children, divorce is reported to be associated with problems of bedwetting, increased irritability (Fulton, 1979), disturbances in eating and sleeping as well as faulty perceptions of their parents' separation (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980).

Crossman and Adams (1980) indicated that preschool age children from single-parent families were likely to be more hostile, aggressive, anxious and easily distracted than children from intact families. They also found the children from single parent families to be developmentally delayed, especially in the area of vocabulary.

Stolberg and Anker (1983) found children of divorce differed from children from intact families on measures of cognitive/perceptual style. The children from single-

parent families tended to perceive their environmental stimuli as being disorganized. The younger children of divorce tended to perceive the stimuli much more negatively and disorganized.

Hetherington (1966) found that boys who were under four years of age at the time of parental separation/divorce displayed problematic sex-typed behaviors. Jacobson (1978a) reported that the younger the child is at the time of parental separation the more likely the child is to be negatively affected. Jacobson, however, reported that children seven to thirteen years of age at the time of separation were more likely to be negatively affected overall than those between three and six years.

Wallerstein (1984, 1987/88) indicated that the youngest children at the time of divorce seem to suffer the greatest adverse consequences from the marital dissolution. However, the children who were older at the time of separation seem to suffer greater long-term effects in their overall adjustment. This is because the older children remember conflict and negative feelings from their intact family life. They become burdened with feelings of anger toward parents, fear of abandonment and loss of the noncustodial parent, possibly lasting for years into the future (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1976).

Among younger elementary school aged children, divorce is reported to be associated with feelings of intense sadness, depression and anxiety (Lowery & Settle, 1985), as well as aggressive and regressive behaviors (Johnston, Campbell & Mayes, 1985). They are also especially vulnerable to fears of abandonment stemming from the instability of the family environment and often express anger toward the custodial parent for causing the divorce (Despert, 1962; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976).

Older elementary school aged children were the most likely to experience intense anger toward parents as well as somatic symptoms in response to the increased stress they experienced from the family dissolution (Fulton, 1979; Johnston, et al., 1985; Wallerstein & Kelly,1976). These children were also reported to have problems in academic performance (Johnston et al., 1985).

Shybunko (1988/89) found that preadolescent children of divorce had greater behavior problems when rated by teachers than children from intact families. Hess and Camara (1979) reported similar results.

Adolescents in their study, according to Wallerstein and Kelly (1980), were prone to acute depression, age-inappropriate behaviors and sexual and delinquent acting out behaviors. Hetherington (1972) also found adolescent girls from divorced families to interact inappropriately

with males. These behaviors included early dating and sexual intercourse.

In a study of Canadian adolescents, Saucier and Ambert (1983) found that adolescents from separated/divorced families engaged in more health-risk behaviors than other adolescents.

Figure 1 illustrates studies showing the age of the child at the time of divorce is related to the child's post-divorce adjustment (see Figure 1).

In contradiction, many studies have found no relation between a child's age at the time of parental divorce and the child's post-divorce adjustment (Dancy & Handal, 1984; Enos & Handal, 1986; Forehand et al. 1988a; Kalter & Rembar, 1981).

Forehand et al. (1988a, 1988b) failed to find a strong association between divorce and negative correlates in adolescent functioning when investigating early adolescent adjustment to recent parental divorce. Several investigators concluded that a child's age at the time of parental divorce was not related to his/her overall level of future adjustment (Gibson, 1969; Kalter & Rembar, 1981).

Kalter and Rembar (1981) did find, however, a significant relationship between child's age and different constellations of emotional and behavioral difficulties that

Author	Hetherington	Hetherington	Wallerstein & Kelly	Kelly & Wallerstein	Jacobson	Hess & Camara	Fulton
Year of Study	1966	1972	1976	1976	1978 I	1979	1979
# of Subjects	64	24	31	26	51	32	560 parents
Age of Subjects	9-12	13-17	9-10	7-8	3-17	9-11	Minors
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Clinic	Clinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	Lower class	Lower class	Middle class	Middle class	----	----	----
Assessment Device	Observation	Observation & interview	Interview	Interview	Interview	Questionnaire & interview	Interview
Individual Assessed	Child	Child & mother	Child	Child	Child & parent	Child, parents & teacher	Parents
Assessed Behavior	Sex-typed behavior	Sex-typed behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Post-divorce adjustment
Results	Disruption in sex-typed behaviors of boys under 4 years when father left	Early father absence related to disruptions in sex-typed behaviors of girls	Age-related adjustment problems resulting from parental divorce	Age-related adjustment problems resulting from parental divorce	Poorer adjustment in children youngest at time of parental separation	Age-related adjustment problems in children of divorce	Age-related adjustment problems in children of divorce

Figure 1. Studies showing age of the child at the time of divorce is related to the child's post-divorce adjustment.

Figure 1. (continued)

Author	Crossman & Adams	Stolberg & Anker	Saucier & Ambert	Wallerstein	Johnston, Campbell & Mayes	Wallerstein	Shybunko
Year of Study	1980	1983	1983	1984	1985	1987/88	1989
# of Subjects	23	79	4539	30	44	2000	30
Age of Subjects	3 1/2- 5	6-16	Adolsecent	12-17	6-12	Young adult	9-12
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Clinic	Clinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	----	Lower class	----	Middle class	Lower middle class	Middle class	Middle class
Assessment Device	Interview & pre- & post-tests	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Interview	Questionnaire & interview	Interview	Questionnaire & interview
Individual Assessed	Child & parent	Child & parent	Child	Child	Child & parents	Young adult	Child, parent & teacher
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment & intelligence	Psychological adjustment	Health-risk behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Age-related delayed development in children from single-parent	Age-related adjustment problems in children of divorce	Greatest health-risk behaviors in adolescents of divorce	Age related to adjustment to parental divorce	Age-specific adjustment problems in children of divorce	Age-related adjustment problems resulting from parental divorce	Age-related adjustment problems in children of divorce

children are likely to experience depending on the timing of parental divorce in their lives. This is consistent with the conclusions of several other investigators (Atkeson et al.,1982; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Peck, 1989; Runyon & Jackson, 1987/88; Wallerstein, 1983a, 1984; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976; Wallerstein, Corbin & Lewis, 1988).

This pattern is characterized by an acute time-limited crisis lasting approximately two years, with the first year being the most difficult (Hetherington, 1979, 1989; Hetherington Cox & Cox, 1978, 1982; Kalter & Rembar, 1981; Kolevzon & Gottlieb, 1983; Sandler, Wolchik, Brauer, Fogas, 1986; Stolberg et al., 1987). This is because of the heightened emotional stress brought on by family dissolution (Hetherington, Stanley-Hagen & Anderson, 1989; Kurdek et al., 1981), leading to separation phobias, anxiety reactions, ego regressions and sleep disturbances experienced by the children (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1983b).

These emotional and behavioral problems were not necessarily associated with children's future level of adjustment. The initial reactions to the stresses of divorce dissipate as the family environment reaches a new level of equilibrium (Kurdek & Siesky, 1980a). Other investigators reported similar results (Emery, 1988; Hetherington, 1979, 1989; Hetherington et al., 1978, 1982, 1989; Kulka & Weingarten, 1979; Kurdek et al., 1981; Stol-

berg, Kiluk & Garrison, 1986).

Figure 2 illustrates studies showing no relation between age of the child at the time of divorce and the child's overall level of future adjustment (see Figure 2).

Other investigators failed to find a relation between length of time since parental separation and children's level of functioning (Heath & Lynch, 1988; Lussen, 1988; Mechanic & Hansell, 1989; Shaw & Emery, 1987). This was reported to be the result of continued familial stressors in the post-divorce family that obstruct a new level of equilibrium (Emery & Shaw, 1987; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Levitin, 1979; Nye, 1957; Shaw & Emery, 1987; Wallerstein, 1983b, 1985; Walsh & Stolberg, 1988/89).

When sex of the child was considered Stolberg et al. (1987) reported that males, in general, tend to display more anti-social, impulsive and less controlled behaviors than females. Many investigators reported similar findings (Block et al., 1986; Block et al., 1981; Emery & O'Leary, 1982; Lowery & Settle, 1985; Porter & O'Leary, 1980; Rutter, 1970; Whitehead, 1979). Girls tend to display fewer negative interactions than do boys (Block et al., 1986; Block et al., 1981; Hetherington, 1979; Porter & O'Leary, 1980; Rutter, 1970,1979 Stolberg et al., 1987).

In an investigation by Kaye (1988/89), five years after parental divorce, the grades and achievement test

Author	Gibson	Kalter & Rembar	Dancy & Handal	Enos & Handal	Stolberg, Camplair, Currier & Wells	Forehand, McCombs, Brody, Fauber & Long
Year of Study	1969	1981	1984	1986	1987	1988
# of Subjects	411	144	80	823	129	96
Age of Subjects	8-9	7-17	12-17	13-18	7-13	11-15
Clinic/Nonclinic	----	Clinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----
S.E.S.	Working class	----	Lower class	----	----	----
Assessment Device	Interview	Interview	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire & observation
Individual Assessed	Child & family	Child & parents	Child	Child	Child & parent	Child, parent & teacher
Assessed Behavior	Delinquency	Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Age at time of parental divorce not related to delinquency	Age at time of parental divorce not related to behavior problems	Age at time of parental divorce not related to adjustment	Age at time of parental divorce not related to adjustment	Age at time of parental divorce not related to psychological adjustment	Age at time of parental divorce not related to adjustment

Figure 2. Studies showing no relation between age of the child at time of divorce and overall level of future adjustment.

scores of boys from divorced families were lower than all of the other children in the sample. This difference may result from the boys' disruptive behaviors in the classroom interfering with their learning process (Kaye, 1989).

Whitehead (1979) investigated relations between marital discord and parents' ratings of their children's behavior problems. In the sample of 2,775 British children, she found that parents indicated problematic behaviors from girls as well as boys. Hodges, Buchsbaum & Tierney (1983) noted that children may be more likely to act out in the home, rather than in school, if the environment is tense and parents are strict.

One possible reason for the behavioral and academic differences noted between boys and girls may result from a tendency for boys to act out in school more frequently, and for girls to act out at home (Whitehead, 1979). Another possibility is that girls may be more able to handle familial stress than boys (Rutter, 1970; Sandler et al., 1986) or that the effects of the stresses may be delayed and emerge at some transitional point in the future for the girls (Hetherington, 1972, 1989).

Emery and O'Leary (1982) indicated that girls may respond to stress in less aggressive, less obvious ways than do boys. Kurdek (1988b) reported that boys and girls may be equally affected by parental divorce. Boys, howev-

er, may be more likely to externalize behaviors while girls tend to internalize (Kurdek, 1988b; Wallerstein et al., 1988).

In a study of the effects of divorce on adolescents, Slater, Stewart & Linn (1983) found females to experience greater vulnerability to the effects of divorce than males did. The males in the study seemed to be more resilient to the family break-up and were even seen to benefit from the experience. Females expressed consistently lower scores than males on measures of total self-esteem, achievement orientation and intellectual-cultural orientation (Slater et al., 1983).

Several investigators found that adolescent girls who had experienced parental divorce were more likely to be involved with alcohol, drugs and sexual acting out behaviors that necessitated clinic referral than other children of divorce (Farber et al., 1983; Kalter & Rembar, 1981; Lussen, 1988). Hetherington (1972) reported similar results. She found female adolescents whose parents were divorced demonstrated inappropriate interactions with males. Among these behaviors were early dating and sexual intercourse, attention seeking from and an increased dependence on males. Also noted were the girls' high levels of anxiety and feelings of powerlessness. In a study by Farber et al. (1983), female adolescents were seen as having

more problems coping with parental divorce than were adolescent boys. They were also more likely than boys to seek mental health counseling in an attempt to cope with the life transition.

Wallerstein (1987/88) and Wallerstein et al. (1988) reported that many young women experience a delayed effect from parental divorce. This reaction is known as the "sleeper effect". These women experience overwhelming fears and anxieties related to issues and decisions regarding commitment, love and sex as responsible adults (Wallerstein et al.,1989). The young women begin to make connections between their feelings and actions and the marital experiences of their parents. Wallerstein (1987/88) concluded that although the adverse effects of divorce may not be as immediate as those for boys, girls may experience serious delayed effects at a transitional point in their lives.

Figure 3 illustrates studies showing a relationship between sex of the child and adverse effects in post-divorce adjustment (see Figure 3).

Some investigators agree that any differences in the post-divorce adjustment of boys and girls tend to diminish with time (Hetherington et al., 1982). Boys, however, generally take longer to achieve stability (Hetherington et al., 1978, 1982; Stolberg et al., 1987; Wallerstein et al.,

Author	Rutter	Whitehead	Hetherington	Porter & O'Leary	Block, Block & Morrison	Emery & O'Leary
Year of Study	1971	1979	1979	1980	1981	1982
# of Subjects	----	2775	----	64	100	50
Age of Subjects	9-12	7	----	5-16	3-11	8-17
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----	Clinic	----	Clinic
S.E.S.	----	----	----	----	Middle class	Variety
Assessment Device	Literature review	Questionnaire	Literature review	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire
Individual Assessed	Child	Teacher & physician	----	Parents	Parents & teacher	Child & parent
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Behavior	Adjustment	Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Boys exposed to parental conflict display poorer adjustment	Boys exposed to parental conflict display poorer adjustment	Impact of parental discord & divorce more negative for boys	Impact of parental discord & divorce more negative for boys	Poorer adjustment in boys exposed to parental conflict	Parental discord related to conduct problems in boys

Figure 3. Studies showing relation between sex of the child and adverse effects in post-divorce adjustment.

Figure 3. (continued)

Author	Slater, Stewart & Linn	Hodges, Buchsbaum & Tierney	Block, Block & Gjerde	Kurdek	Kaye
Year of Study	1983	1983	1986	1988	1989
# of Subjects	217	90	4-7	----	457
Age of Subjects	16	Pre-school	3-7	----	6-12
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	Variety	----	Middle class	----	----
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Observation & Q-Set	Literature review	Academic records
Individual Assessed	Child	Parent	Child, parents & teacher	----	Child
Assessed Behavior	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Academic performance
Results	Impact of parental discord more negative for girls	Greater maladjustment in boys exposed to parental conflict	Impact of parental discord more negative for boys	Boys & girls are affected differently by parental discord	Impact of parental divorce most negative for boys

1988).

In research conducted by Forehand et al. (1988a) the sex of the child was not found to be a mediating factor affecting post-divorce adjustment. This finding is consistent with the results of other investigators (Emery & O'Leary, 1984; Enos & Handal, 1987; Grossman et al., 1980; Hetherington, 1989; Kurdek et al., 1981; Reinhard, 1977; Stolberg et al., 1987; Vess, Schwebel & Moreland, 1983).

In addition, Grossman et al. (1980) found that male college students who had experienced parental divorce as young children held higher ego-identity achievement scores than males from intact families and females from divorced and intact families. Contrary to the expectations of the investigators, parental divorce was not associated with lower ego-identity scores among all of the young adults in the study. Stolberg et al. (1987) concluded that a child's individual variables such as age and sex have little influence on his/her later psychological adjustment.

Figure 4 illustrates studies showing no relationship between sex of the child and the child's overall level of future adjustment (see Figure 4).

The second hypothesis of the physical wholeness position is that divorce per se has a negative effect on children's psychological adjustment. In a sample of 2,402 boys, Douglas, Ross, Hammond and Mulligan (1966) found that

Author	Reinhard	Grossman, Shea & Adams	Kurdek, Blisk & Siesky	Hetherington, Cox & Cox	Vess, Schwebel & Moreland	Emery & O'Leary
Year of Study	1977	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
# of Subjects	46	294	58	----	219	132
Age of Subjects	12-18	18-21	8-17	Preschool age	17-57	Grades 2-5
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	Middle class	----	Middle class	Middle class	----	----
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire	Questionnaire
Individual Assessed	Child	Child	Child & parent	Child & parent	Adult child	Child & parent
Assessed Behavior	Reactions to parental divorce	Ego development	Adjustment	Adjustment	Sex-role development	Behavior
Results	No difference in reactions to parental divorce by sex	Males and females from divorced families did not display inferior ego development	Sex not related to post-divorce adjustment	Sex differences disappear 2 years post-divorce	Parental divorce not related to children's sex-role development	no sex-related differences noted between boys & girls exposed to parental conflict

Figure 4. Studies showing no relation between sex of the child and overall level of future adjustment.

Figure 4. (continued)

Author	Enos & Handal	Hetherington	Stolberg, Camplair, Currier & Wells	Forehand, McCombs, Brody, Fauber & Long
Year of Study	1987	1987	1987	1988
# of Subjects	68	120	129	96
Age of Subjects	15	Pre-adolescent	7-13	11-15
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	Class III	----	----	----
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire	Questionnaire & observation
Individual Assessed	Child	Child	Child & parent	Child, parent & teacher
Assessed Behavior	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Sex not related to long-term post-divorce adjustment	No sex-related differences in post-divorce adjustment	no differences found between adjustment of boys & girls	no sex-related differences found between adjustment of boys & girls

children of divorced parents were almost twice as likely to be associated with delinquent behavior than children from intact families. In this study, social class was controlled for by taking into account parental occupation and educational information.

In a study of 411 boys, Gibson (1969) found boys from divorced families were more likely to be found delinquent than boys who had lost a parent through death. In a Canadian sample of 4,539 adolescents, Saucier & Ambert (1983) found that adolescents from separated/divorced homes engaged in more health-risk behaviors than adolescents from intact homes.

Stolberg & Anker (1983) found children of divorce to demonstrate inappropriate interpersonal behaviors and unusual behavior patterns that were not evident in children from intact families. Camara and Resnick (1988) reported similar conclusions.

Parish & Nunn (1981) and Nunn and Parish (1987) reported that divorced and unhappy intact families may be associated with children's reduced or faulty physical and psychological need fulfillment. This may lead to overdependence on parental support and approval.

Crossman and Adams (1980) investigated 23 preschool age children from middle class, divorced and intact families. They concluded that children from single parent

families may be delayed in their intellectual development, especially in the area of vocabulary. They, however, reported that a preschool experience would most likely remedy this deficiency.

Glenn & Kramer (1985) compared adult children of divorce with adults who had lost a parent through death and adults from intact families on measures of psychological well-being. These measures included happiness, health, excitement and satisfaction with various aspects of life. They found that the adult children of divorce, and especially the females, scored lower on almost all of the measures than did the other adults in the study. Similar results were found by Parish (1988a).

Parish (1988b) found that the 126 adult children of divorce in his study chose significantly more "hateful" adverbs when responding to questions regarding their perceptions of how their parents acted toward one another. This finding is important because children's perceptions of their parents' loving actions toward one another have been related to children's self-concepts (Parish, 1988b).

Fulton (1979) assessed parental reports of their children's post-divorce adjustment. Two years after the final decree the majority of the 560 parents interviewed reported that their children had been negatively affected by the divorce process. Most believed that for the most

part the divorce had made life better but the children had suffered in the process. Wallerstein (1987/88) reported similar results.

Wallerstein (1983b, 1984, 1987/88) and Wallerstein et al. (1988) also observed that some of the divorce-related feelings and attitudes of the children were likely to remain for years after the initial time-limited crisis. Some of these enduring emotions were anger at parents, neediness, feelings of being overburdened, concern with being unloved and unlovable and an overall sense of vulnerability.

Wallerstein (1983b) noted that the long lasting effects of divorce on children were not predictable at any point in the divorce process. In fact, years after the marital disruption, some children seemed more troubled than they had been initially (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein, 1983b, 1987/88; Wallerstein et al., 1988). After five years, moderate to severe depression was observed in one third of the children in the sample who had not displayed such difficulties at the time of parental separation (Wallerstein, 1983b; Wallerstein et al.,1988). Hodges et al., (1983) reported similar results in their investigation of 90 preschool children.

These divorce-related effects are incorporated into the overall functioning of the child's personality, self-

concept, attitudes and relationships for the rest of his/her life (Wallerstein, 1983b). Several investigators reported that adolescents from divorced families expressed anxiety related to their own future marriages (Amato, 1988; Anthony 1974; Wallerstein, 1984; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974). Slater et al., (1983) found that the females in their study expressed similar fears.

Amato (1988) also found that college age young adults from divorced families expressed less idealized views of marriage, fewer reservations regarding sexual involvement and less desire to commit to marriage than young adults from intact families.

Figure 5 illustrates studies showing negative effects of divorce on children (see Figure 5).

More recent research has not supported the assertion that the event of divorce, alone, has a long-term, negative effect on children (Anthony, 1974; Atkeson et al., 1982; Camara & Resnick, 1988; Drill, 1987; Despert, 1962; Enos & Handal, 1886; Ellison, 1983; Forehand et al., 1988b; Furstenberg & Nord, 1985; Herzog & Sudia, 1973; Hess & Camara, 1979; Kurdek, 1988b; Levitin, 1979; Long, Forehand, Fauber & Slater, 1988; Mechanic & Hansell, 1989; Partridge & Kotler, 1987; Raschke & Raschke, 1976; Reinhard, 1977; Saayman & Saayman, 1989; Sprenkle, 1988; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; Wallerstein et al., 1988; Wood, 1987).

Author	Douglas, Ross, Hammond & Mulligan	Gibson	Kelly & Wallerstein	Fulton	Crossman & Adams	Parish & Nunn
Year of Study	1966	1969	1976	1979	1980	1981
# of Subjects	2042	411	26	560	23	132
Age of Subjects	8-17	8-9	9-10	Minors	Preschool age	Grades 5-8
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	Variety	Working class	Middle class	----	----	----
Assessment Device	Police & court records	Interview & court records	Interview	Interview	Interview & pre- & post-tests	Questionnaire
Individual Assessed	Child	Child	Child	Parents	Child & parent	Child
Assessed Behavior	Delinquent behavior	Social handicap	Adjustment	Adjustment	Intelligence & adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Greater rate of delinquency in children of divorce	Greater rate of delinquency in children of divorce	Children of divorce display problems in adjustment	Parents felt their divorce negatively effected the children	Delayed development in children of divorce	Poorer adjustment in children of discord & divorce

Figure 5. Studies showing negative effects of divorce on children.

Figure 5. (continued)

Author	Saucier & Ambert	Stolberg & Anker	Slater, Stewart & Linn	Wallerstein	Hodges, Buchsbaum & Tierney	Wallerstein
Year of Study	1983	1983	1983	1983	1983	1984
# of Subjects	4539	79	217	----	90	30
Age of Subjects	12-19	6-16	16	13-28	4	12-16
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Nonclinic	Clinic
S.E.S.	----	Lower class	Variety	Middle class	Middle class	Middle class
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Interview	Questionnaire	Questionnaire & interview
Individual Assessed	Child	Child & parent	Child	Child	Parent & teacher	Child & parent
Assessed Behavior	Health-risk behavior	Psychological adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Increased health-risk behavior in children of divorce	Poorer psycho-social adjustment in children of divorce	Poorer psychological adjustment in females of divorce	Poorer adjustment in children of divorce	Poorer adjustment in males of divorce	Poorest adjustment in children older at time of parental divorce

Figure 5. (continued)

Author	Glenn & Kramer	Nunn & Parish	Wallerstein	Parish	Parish	Amato
Year of Study	1985	1987	1987/88	1988A	1988B	1988
# of Subjects	----	632	2000	822	126	2544
Age of Subjects	18 & older	Grades 5-10	Young adult	College age	College age	18-34
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	----	----	Middle class	----	----	----
Assessment Device	Interview	Questionnaire	Interview	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Interview
Individual Assessed	Adult child	Child	Young adult	Young adult	Young adult	Adult child
Assessed Behavior	Psychological adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Evaluations of family	Perceptions of parents	Attitude toward marriage/family
Results	Poorer psychological adjustment in females of divorce	Divorced families related to poorer adjustment in children	Long-term effects of parental divorce emerge in females' young adulthood	Females of divorce have more negative attitudes toward family	Young adults of divorce had negative perceptions of parents	Adult children had less idealized views of marriage

According to Shybunko (1989) children from divorced and intact families do not differ significantly with regard to social competence, parent-rated behavior problems and ego development. Several other investigators reported similar results (Hodges, Wechsler & Ballantine, 1979; Wood, 1987). Shybunko concluded that after a period of at least two years, parent-child relationships and children's adjustment are not necessarily impaired as a result of marital dissolution.

Nye (1957) found that there were no significant differences in the school adjustment of children from unhappy intact families and children of divorced parents. Kelly and Berg (1978) found similar results when investigating children's attitudes and emotions about their parents' divorce.

Burchinal (1964) found that the children from divorced families in his study did not differ significantly from children from intact families on measures of social relationships, participation in extracurricular activities, school performance or perceived number of friends. He also concluded that adolescents from divorced families in his study did not find their parents' divorce to be the overwhelming factor in their lives that many investigators had previously believed. This is consistent with the findings of Kurdek and Siesky (1980a).

Hess and Camara (1979) found that the quality of familial relationships in many divorced families is frequently very similar to the relationships in many intact families. In fact, they found that some children from intact families displayed more stress and aggression than many children from divorced families. They concluded that marital status was no more closely related with child development outcomes than the quality of familial relationships. Berg & Kelly (1979) reported similar results. Hodges et al. (1983) drew similar conclusions when investigating the quantity and quality of parenting in divorced and intact families.

In another study, Grossman et al. (1980) administered three different assessments of ego functions to 294 college students. The data suggested that there was no significant effect on the ego functions of subjects from divorced families as compared to subjects from intact families.

In a study of social and academic adjustment of adolescents, Long and Forehand (1987) found that the children from divorced families thought more poorly of themselves than did children from intact families. However, when teachers were asked about these children's social and academic performance, they were unable to find any differences between the children from divorced or intact families.

Stress from parental divorce may interfere with a child's normal development by distracting his/her mental and emotional energy (Cooney,1988; Hess & Camara, 1979; Peterson & Hamburg, 1986). These interferences, however, tend to subside over time (Hess & Camara, 1979). The extent to which they subside may be determined by the quality of post-divorce familial relationships (Hess & Camara, 1979).

These investigators assume that negative effects on children result from the mediating variables associated with divorce, rather than divorce itself.

Figure 6 illustrates studies showing that divorce per se is not directly harmful to children (see Figure 6).

It is evident from the research reviewed in this chapter thus far that support for the two hypotheses of the Physical Wholeness Position have been mixed. The results of many investigations have given support to the assumption that a child's age and sex at the time of divorce are associated with the child's post-divorce adjustment as well as the hypothesis that divorce per se is harmful to children. However, there has also been a great deal of research that has cast doubt on the validity of the assumptions of the Physical Wholeness Theory. Because the research has not drawn clear conclusions regarding the Physical Wholeness Position, the Psychological Wholeness Posi-

Author	Nye	Burchinal	Reinhard	Kelly & Berg	Berg & Kelly	Raschke & Raschke
Year of Study	1957	1964	1977	1978	1979	1979
# of Subjects	780	1566	46	488	57	289
Age of Subjects	Grades 9-12	Grades 7 & 11	12-18	9-15	9-15	Grades 3, 6 & 9
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	----	----	Middle class	----	----	----
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire & interview
Individual Assessed	Child	Parents	Child	Child	Child	Child
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Reaction to parental divorce	Psychological adjustment	Self-esteem	Self-concept
Results	Children of divorce do not show poorer adjustment	Parental divorce not detrimental for children	Children did not react negatively to parental divorce	Children of family discord adjusted less well than children of divorce	No difference in self-esteem of children intact conflictual or divorced families	No difference in self-concept of children from intact or divorced families

Figure 6. Studies indicating that divorce per se is not directly harmful to children.

Figure 6. (continued)

Author	Levitan	Hess & Camara	Kurdek & Siesky	Grossman, Shea & Adams	Kurdek & Siesky	Ellison
Year of Study	1979	1979	1980A	1980	1980B	1983
# of Subjects	----	32	132	294	130	20
Age of Subjects	----	9-11	5-19	College age	5-19	8-12
Clinic/Nonclinic	----	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	----	----	Middle class	----	Middle class	Variety
Assessment Device	Literature review	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire	Interview
Individual Assessed	----	Child, parents & teacher	Child	Young adult	Child & parent	Child & parents
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Perceptions of parental divorce	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Psychosocial adjustment
Results	Divorce not necessarily detrimental for children	Divorce not worse than familial discord	Parental divorce not overly distressing for children	Family background not predictive of adjustment	Parental divorce not necessarily detrimental for children	Parental discord worse than parental divorce

Figure 6. (continued)

Author	Furstenberg & Nord	Enos & Handal	Long & Forehand	Partridge & Kotler	Drill	Sprenkle
Year of Study	1985	1986	1987	1987	1987	1988
# of Subjects	2279	823	----	54	276	----
Age of Subjects	7-11	13-18	----	Adolescent	18-23	----
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----
S.E.S.	----	----	----	----	----	----
Assessment Device	Interview	Questionnaire	Literature review	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire	Literature review
Individual Assessed	Child	Child	----	Child & mother	Adult child	----
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	----	Adjustment	Long-term adjustment	----
Results	Parental divorce not necessarily detrimental for children	Parental divorce not related to psychological adjustment	Parental divorce not necessarily detrimental for children	Family type not related to adjustment in children	Parental divorce not necessarily detrimental for children	Family type not predictive of adjustment in children

Figure 6. (continued)

Author	Kurdek	Long, Forehand, Fauber & Slater	Shybunko	Saayman & Saayman	Mechanic & Hansell
Year of Study	1988B	1988	1989	1989	1989
# of Subjects	20	35	30	103	1067
Age of Subjects	10	11-15	9-12	9	Grades 7, 9 & 11
Clinic/Nonclinic	----	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	----	----	Middle class	Middle class	Low/middle class
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire & interview	Interview
Individual Assessed	Child & mother	Child, mother & teacher	Child, parent & teacher	Parent	Child & parent
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Family type not predictive of adjustment in children	Parental divorce not necessarily detrimental for children	Family type not related to adjustment in children	Parental divorce not necessarily detrimental for children	Family type not related to adjustment in children

tion has been devised.

Psychological Wholeness Position

The focus of divorce research has shifted to a theory known as the psychological wholeness position (Dancy & Handal, 1984; Ellison, 1983; Enos & Handal, 1986). This view presumes that perceived family conflict is the primary variable affecting children's post-divorce psychological adjustment (Atkeson et al., 1982; Bishop & Ingersoll, 1989; Block et al., 1986; Christens et al., 1983; Demo & Acock, 1988; Ellison, 1983; Emery, 1982,1988; Emery & O'Leary, 1982; Enos & Handal, 1986; Forehand et al., 1988a, 1988b; Gassner & Murray, 1969; Glenn & Kramer, 1985; Hess, 1986; Hess & Camara, 1979; Hetherington, 1979, 1989; Hetherington et al.,1982, 1989; Hutchinson & Spangler-Hirsch, 1988/89; Jacobson, 1978b; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Kurdek & Siesky, 1980b; Long & Forehand, 1987; Long et al., 1987; Long et al., 1988; Luepnitz, 1979; Maskin & Brookins, 1974; Nelson, 1981; Oppawsky, 1989; Parish & Nunn, 1981; Rutter, 1971; Saayman & Saayman, 1989; Shaw & Emery,1987; Slater & Haber, 1984; Slater et al., 1983, 1988; Stolberg et al., 1987; Vess et al., 1983; Whitehead, 1979; Wood, 1987).

According to the psychological wholeness position, family conflict includes the quality of the parental relationship, the degree of parental harmony (Hess & Camara, 1979; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976) and the degree of conflict

within the family unit such as between parent and child and between siblings (Enos & Handal, 1986). According to Hetherington et al. (1982), overt parent-child and/or husband-wife conflict have a similar adverse effect on children.

Hess and Camara (1979) focus on the importance of the quality of familial communication, trust and support that family members share. Stolberg et al. (1987) reported that an accurate picture of post-divorce adjustment can only be acquired through investigation of all the mediating factors of divorce. This is consistent with the findings of Shaw and Emery (1987). These variables include familial, environmental and individual factors within the family unit (Stolberg et al., 1987). Stolberg et al. (1987) proposed that these mediating variables should be investigated and considered together.

Several investigators agree that parental conflict creates a tense and stressful environment for family members (Farber et al.,1983; Hess & Camara, 1979; Long et al., 1988). Children may become confused and distressed and often have difficulties coping with ordinary life events and transitions. This is because of the mental and emotional distractions within the family (Weiss, 1979). Children are exposed to dysfunctional models of conflict resolution and often mirror the problematic learned behav-

iors in their own social relations (Hess & Camara, 1979; Long et al., 1988; Tschann, Johnston, Kline & Wallerstein (1989).

In his review of divorce research, Emery (1982) concluded that interparental conflict has been associated with behavior problems in children regardless of their parental marital status, the occurrence of conflict before and/or after divorce or the subjects being from clinic or nonclinic populations.

Stolberg et al. (1987) found marital hostility to have immediate and long-term effects on the adjustment of children from divorced as well as intact families. This is consistent with the report by Kalter (1987). Gassner & Murray (1969) reported that hostility between parents was associated with neurosis and problematic behaviors in children.

Vess et al. (1983) reported that parental conflict was associated with problematic sex-role development of college students whose parents divorced when they were young children.

Ellison (1983) reported that from the child's perspective there seems to be a very strong relationship between degree of perceived parental harmony and children's post-divorce adjustment. In fact, Rosen (1979) interviewed 92 nine to twenty-eight year old individuals who firmly be-

lieved that their parents' separation was more beneficial than the family living together in conflict. Other investigators drew similar conclusions (Burchinal, 1964; Grossman et al., 1980; Hetherington, 1979; Lamb, 1977; Neugebauer, 1988/89; Nye, 1957; Oppawsky, 1989; Sprenkle, 1988).

Grossman et al.(1980) found that the subjects in their study who were from high conflict homes, regardless of child's sex or parental marital status, reported more negative and distressful psychological symptoms than did children from low conflict homes. These psychological symptoms included low self-concept (Bishop & Ingersoll, 1988; Slater et al., 1983; Slater & Haber, 1984; Raschke & Raschke, 1979), anxiety, depression, somatic complaints and reduced internal control (Enos & Handal, 1986). This is consistent with the findings of other investigators (Dancy & Handal, 1984; Parish & Nunn, 1981).

Figure 7 illustrates studies showing that familial conflict adversely affects children (see Figure 7).

Continued Familial Conflict

It is important to understand that families and relationships do not end during or after divorce (Hess & Camara, 1979; Hetherington et al., 1989; Shybunko, 1989; Wood, 1987). The familial relationships must adjust to the change of marital dissolution. Post-divorce adjustment is

Author	Nye	Burchinal	Gassner & Murray	Rutter	Maskin & Brookins	Kelly & Wallerstein
Year of Study	1957	1964	1969	1971	1974	1976
# of Subjects	780	1566	60		126	26
Age of Subjects	Grades 9-12	Grades 7 & 11	6-16	9-12	13-17	7-8
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Clinic
S.E.S.	---	---	Middle class	---	---	Middle class
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Interview	Literature review	Treatment program	Interview
Individual Assessed	Child	Parent	Parent	---	Child	Child
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Neurosis	Adjustment	Recidivism	Adjustment
Results	Parental divorce is not worse than familial conflict	Parental divorce is more favorable than familial conflict	Parental conflict was related to adjustment problems in children	Increased rate of disorder in boys whose parents were in conflict	Family harmony related to treatment success of the delinquent	Post-divorce adjustment was related to familial equilibrium

Figure 7. Studies indicating that familial conflict adversely affects children.

Figure 7. (continued)

Author	Lamb	Kelly & Berg	Rosen	Berg & Kelly	Hess & Camara	Hetherington
Year of Study	1977	1978	1979	1979	1979	1979
# of Subjects	---	488	92	57	32	----
Age of Subjects	---	9-15	9-28	9-15	9-11	----
Clinic/Nonclinic	---	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	
S.E.S.	---	---	Middle class	----	----	----
Assessment Device	Literature review	Questionnaire	Interview & projective tests	Questionaire	Questionnaire & interview	Literature review
Individual Assessed	---	Child	Child & parent	Child	Child, parents & teacher	----
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Self-esteem	Adjustment	Perception of parental divorce
Results	Divorce can be beneficial when it terminates hostilities	Parental divorce is more favorable than familial conflict	Parental divorce is more favorable than familial conflict	Children of discord had lowest self-esteem	Children's adjustment predicted by family process not family background	Parental divorce is more favorable than familial conflict

Figure 7. (continued)

Author	Raschke & Raschke	Luepnitz	Whitehead	Porter & O'Leary	Kurdek & Silsky	Grossman Shea & Adams
Year of Study	1979	1979	1979	1980	1980B	1980
# of Subjects	289	24	2,775	64	130	294
Age of Subjects	Grades 3,6 & 8	College age	7	5-16	5-19	18-21
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	----	----	----	----	Middle class	----
Assessment Device	Questionnaire & interview	Interview	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire & interview
Individual Assessed	Child	Adult child	Teacher & physician	Parents	Child & parent	Child
Assessed Behavior	Self-concept	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Ego development
Results	Children of familial discord had lower self-concepts	Parental divorce is more favorable than familial conflict	Parental discord was associated with emotional disturbance in children	Parental discord was related to adjustment problems in children	Parental conflict was related to adjustment problems in children	Parental harmony was associated with better adjustment

Figure 7. (continued)

Author	Nelson	Parish & Nunn	Emery	Emery & O'Leary	Ellison	Christensen, Phillips, Glasgow & Johnson
Year of Study	1981	1981	1982	1982	1983	1983
# of Subjects	31	132	----	50	60	45
Age of Subjects	4-14	Grades 5-8	----	8-17	8-12	4-12
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----	Clinic	Nonclinic	Clinic
S.E.S.	----	----	----	Variety	Variety	Middle class
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Literature review	Questionnaire	Interview	Questionnaire & observation
Individual Assessed	Child & parent	Child	----	Child & parent	Child & parents	Child & parent
Assessed Behavior	Psychosocial adjustment	Psychological adjustment	----	Adjustment	Psychosocial adjustment	Parental characteristics
Results	Parental discord was associated with adjustment problems in children	Family harmony is am important mediator of adjustment in children	Parental discord was related to adjustment problems in children	Marital discord was related to delinquency in children	Parental harmony was related to better adjustment in children	Behavior problems were associated with marital discord

Figure 7. (continued)

Author	Slater Stewart & Linn	Vess Schwebel & Moreland	Slater & Haber	Dancy & Handal	Glenn & Kramer	Enos & Handal
Year of Study	1983	1983	1984	1984	1985	1986
# of Subjects	217	219	217	80	----	823
Age of Subjects	16	17-57	Adolescent	12-18	18 and older	13-18
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	Variety	----	----	Class III	----	----
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionaire	Questionnaire	Interview	Questionnaire
Individual Assessed	Child	Child	Child	Child	Child & parent	Child
Assessed Behavior	Self-image	Sex-role development	Psychological adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Psychological adjustment
Results	Familial conflict was related to lower self-esteem	Parental divorce was more favorable than familial conflict	High conflict produces poorer adjustment	Psychological and social adjustment are related to perceived family conflict	Negative effects on children most likely from parental conflict	Psychological adjustment was related to percieved level of familial conflict

Figure 7. (continued)

Author	Hess	Block, Block & Gjerde	Long & Forehand	Hetherington	Partridge & Kalter	Long, Forehand Fauber & Brody
Year of Study	1986	1986	1987	1987	1987	1987
# of Subjects	----		----	----	54	40
Age of Subjects	----	3-7	----	----	Adolescent	11-15
Clinic/Nonclinic	----	Nonclinic	----	----	Nonclinic	nonclinic
S.E.S.	----	Middle class	----	----	----	Mean of 36 on Meyers & Bean
Assessment Device	Literature review	Observation & Q-Set	Literature review	Literature review	Interview & questionnaire	Questionnaire, grades & observation
Individual Assessed	----	Child, parent & teacher	----	----	Child & mother	Child, mother & teacher
Assessed Behavior	----	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	adjustment	Adjustment	Competence
Results	Exposure to parental conflict associated with poorer adjustment	Pre-separation parental conflict may lead to adjustment problems	Low parental conflict associated with less problems in children	Children from high conflict homes are likely to suffer behavior problems	Quality of family interaction influences adolescent outcome	Parental conflict associated with adolescents' perceived competence

Figure 7. (continued)

Author	Kalter	Shaw & Emery	Stolberg, Camplair, Currier & Wells	Demo & Acock	Emery	Sprenkle
Year of Study	1987	1987	1987	1988	1988	1988
# of Subjects	----	40	129	----	----	----
Age of Subjects	----	5-12	7-13	----	----	----
Clinic/Nonclinic	----	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----	----	----
S.E.S.	----	Lower class	----	----	----	----
Assessment Device	Literature review	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Literature review	Literature review	Literature review
Individual Assessed	----	Child & mother	Child & parent	----	----	----
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Parental anger is a stressor for children regardless of marital status	Parental conflict predicted child behavior problems	Parental marital hostility was related to poorer adjustment	Child adjustment related to parental discord not marital status	Family process is best predictor of childrens' psychological health	Children in low conflict homes fare better than children in high conflict homes

Figure 7. (continued)

Author	Forehand, McCombs, Brody, Fauber & Long	Long, Forehand, Fauber & Slater	Kurdek	Slater & Calhoun	Neugebauer	Tschann, Johnson Kline & Wallerstein
Year of Study	1988	1988	1988	1988	1989	1989
# of Subjects	96	35	20	253	40	178
Age of Subjects	11-15	11-15	6-17	Mean age 19	7-18	2-18
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----	Clinic
S.E.S.	11-58 on Meyers Bean	----	Middle class	----	----	Middle class
Assessment Device	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Questionnaire	Interview	Questionnaire, interview & projective measures
Individual Assessed	Child, mother & teacher	Child, mother & teacher	Child & mother	Child	Child	Child
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Social adjustment	Perceptions of parental divorce	Adjustment
Results	Strong relation between parental conflict and adolescent adjustment	Interparental conflict was associated with adjustment problems in adolescents	Relationship between children's divorce adjustment and inter-parental conflict	Family conflict and background associated with long-term social adjustment	Parental hostility negatively affected children's opportunities for parental contact	Pre- and post-divorce conflict are associated with impaired child adjustment

Figure 7. (continued)

Author	Saayman & Saayman	Mechanic & Hansell	Oppawsky
Year of Study	1989	1989	1989
# of Subjects	103	1067	22
Age of Subjects	Mean age 10	Grades 7-11	2-18
Clinic/Nonclinic	----	Nonclinic	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	Middle class	----	----
Assessment Device	Questionnaire & interview	Interview	Interview & projective test
Individual Assessed	Parent	Child & parent	Child
Assessed Behavior	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Children's perceptions of parental divorce
Results	Parental conflict is a determinant of psychological maladjustment in children	Higher levels of family conflict associated with poorer adjustment in children	Parental conflict led to negative reactions & hindered adjustment

dependent on how well family members are able to adapt their relationships to the new familial environment (Kurdek, 1981; Oppawsky, 1989; Shybunko, 1989; Wallerstein, 1984). Because there are few rules or guidelines for parental conduct in post-divorce relationships, heated arguments frequently occur (Johnson, 1988).

Hess and Camara (1979) reported that post-divorce family relationships have a greater effect on children than the divorce itself. According to Tschann et al. (1989) it is likely that parents who had a highly conflictual marriage will experience a great deal of post-separation hostility. In addition, Hetherington et al. (1982) found that many of the divorced families in their study demonstrated as much conflict or more than they had when the family was intact.

Although both pre- and post-divorce conflict are associated with adverse consequences in children (Jacobson, 1978b), several investigators concluded that current conflict within the family has the greatest negative impact on children (Emery, 1982; Hetherington et al., 1982; Wood, 1987). This is because children are less affected by conflict that has dissipated with time (Hetherington et al., 1982).

Several investigators noted that some post-divorce families were characterized by more turbulence and hostili-

ty than they had prior to the marital dissolution (Hetherington et al., 1982; Wallerstein, 1987/88).

Many investigators agree that when parental conflict continues even after divorce the children suffer the most adverse emotional and behavioral consequences (Atkeson et al., 1982; Camara & Resnick, 1988; Ellison, 1983; Emery, 1982; Enos & Handal, 1986; Forehand et al., 1988b; Hetherington et al., 1982; Johnston et al., 1985; Kalter, 1987; Kelly, 1988a; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Kurdek, 1988b; Long & Forehand, 1987; Long et al., 1988; Nelson, 1981; Runyon & Jackson, 1987/88; Rutter, 1971; Slater & Haber, 1984; Wallerstein, 1987/88).

Johnston et al. (1985) found that post-divorce conflict was associated with various somatic problems, along with anxiety and depression in children. Long et al. (1988) found that after divorce, continued parental conflict was related to children's lower grade point averages and greater feelings associated with anxiety.

McKinnon and Wallerstein (1988) indicated that the anger and hostilities that are aroused during the separation process continuously affect and influence parents. Investigators have noted that at 2 months (Hetherington et al, 1982), one and 2 years (Nelson, 1988) and even 10 years following divorce (McKinnon & Wallerstein, 1988) a significant amount of anger and conflict remains evident between

ex-spouses. Such perpetual post-marital hostility often interferes with parental responsibilities (Neugebauer, 1989; Walsh & Stolberg, 1989).

Parents often become preoccupied with anger toward their ex-spouse to the point that the needs of the children are neglected (Wallerstein, 1983a). Ellison (1983) reported that a few of the parents in his investigation indicated that they had given priority to working through their own problems rather than helping with the difficulties of their children. Kressel (1988) reported similar results.

Wallerstein (1987/88) reported that children were more likely to fare well if their parents created a harmonious co-parenting relationship by putting their differences aside. Other investigators drew similar conclusions (Fine, Moreland & Schwebel, 1983; Kurdek, 1988a; McKinnon & Wallerstein, 1988). In addition to cooperative parenting, children adjusted well when they maintained easy access to and positive relationships with both parents (Glover & Steele, 1988/89; Hess, 1986; Kelly, 1988b; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Kressel, 1988; Kurdek, 1988a; Neugebauer, 1989; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989).

However, the increased contact between parents that accompanies visitation frequently becomes conflictual (Furstenburg & Nord, 1985; Hodges et al., 1983). Kelly and Wallerstein, (1976) noted that children were aware of the

continuing conflict and anger between parents as they experienced it repeatedly during visitation. In addition, parental hostility often interferes with a child's access to the noncustodial parent (Hess, 1986; Neugebauer, 1989; Schwartz, 1987). Parents may attempt to minimize the possibility of conflict with an ex-spouse by reducing or even denying their child access or visitation (Furstenberg, Nord, Peterson & Zill, 1983; Neugebauer, 1989; Schwartz, 1987).

Ellison (1983) noted that some of the parents in his investigation resisted cooperative parenting relationships with nonresident parents because they believed it opposed their attempts to be separate and independent. Parents who maintain such bitterness and resentment are unable to cooperate for the sake of their children (Steinman, Zemmelman & Knoblauch, 1985).

Wallerstein (1987/88) concluded that children tend to show improved adjustment when parents are able to put aside their differences and promote continuing positive relationships with both parents. However, in actuality, not many children of divorce experience such advantages (Wallerstein, 1987/88).

Wallerstein (1983b) and Kelly and Wallerstein (1976) found that in the presence of post-divorce parental hostilities, the children appearing to cope the most effectively

were those who distanced themselves psychologically from their parents.

Figure 8 illustrates studies showing that continued familial conflict leads to the most adverse consequences for children (see Figure 8).

The Present Investigation

The present investigation will attempt to add to the existing research on familial conflict and divorce that has been reviewed in this chapter. This investigation will help to determine whether continued familial conflict adversely affects the psychological adjustment of graduate students. This will be determined by replicating an investigation by Slater and Haber (1984). Slater and Haber (1984) investigated the effect of continued familial conflict on the psychological adjustment of adolescents. They concluded that adolescents from homes with high levels of conflict, regardless of their parental marital status, had higher levels of anxiety, more external locus of control and lower self-concept than adolescents from homes with low levels of conflict.

Slater and Haber (1984) measured anxiety by subjects' scores on the Trait Form of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. They measured locus of control by subjects' scores on the Locus of Control Scale for Children. Subjects' levels of self-concept were measured by their scores on the

Author	Rutter	Kelly & Wallerstein	Weiss	Nelson	Atkeson, Forehand & Rickard	Hetherington, Cox & Cox
Year of Study	1971	1976	1979	1981	1982	1982
# of Subjects	----	26	----	31	----	144
Age of Subjects	9-12	7-8	----	4-14	----	Preschool age
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	----	Nonclinic	Both	Nonclinic
S.E.S.	----	Middle class	----	----	----	Middle class
Assessment Device	Literature review	Interview	Interview	Questionnaire	Literature review	Questionnaire & interview
Individual Assessed	----	Child	Child & parent	Child & parent	----	Child & parent
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Current familial conflict most negatively affects children	Continued parental conflict leads to poorer adjustment	Post-divorce parental conflict negatively affects children	Post-divorce parental conflict negatively affects children	Post-divorce parental conflict negatively affects children	Current familial conflict most negatively affects children

Figure 8. Studies showing that continued familial conflict leads to the most adverse affects for children.

Figure 8. (continued)

Author	Ellison	Wallerstein	Slater & Haber	Johnston, Campbell & Mayes	Enos & Handal	Kalter
Year of Study	1983	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
# of Subjects	60	131	217	44	823	----
Age of Subjects	8-12	2-18	Adolescent	6-12	13-18	----
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Nonclinic	----
S.E.S.	Variety	Middle class	----	Low/middle class	----	----
Assessment Device	Interview	Interview	Questionnaire	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire	Literature review
Individual Assessed	Child & parents	Child	Child	Child & parents	Child	----
Assessed Behavior	Psychosocial adjustment	Adjustment	Psychological adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Long-term adjustment
Results	Post-divorce parental conflict negatively affects children	Post-divorce parental conflict negatively affects children	Current parental conflict negatively affects children	Current parental conflict negatively affects children	Current familial conflict negatively affects children	Current familial conflict causes distress for children

Figure 8. (continued)

Author	Long & Forehand	Wallerstein	Runyon & Jackson	Long, Forehand, Fauber & Slater	Kurdek	Kelly
Year of Study	1987	1987/88	1987/88	1988	1988	1988
# of Subjects	----	131	----	35	20	----
Age of Subjects	----	2-18	2-18	11-15	6-17	----
Clinic/Nonclinic	----	Clinic	Nonclinic	Clinic	Nonclinic	----
S.E.S.	----	Middle class	----	----	Middle class	----
Assessment Device	Literature review	Interview	----	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire	Literature review
Individual Assessed	----	Child	Child	Child, mother & teacher	Child & mother	----
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Familial conflict negatively affects children	Current familial conflict negatively affects children	Post-divorce parental conflict negatively affects children	Post-divorce familial conflict negatively affects children	Post-divorce parental conflict negatively affects children	Decrease in parental conflict beneficial for children

Figure 8. (continued)

Author	Forehand, Long & Brody	Camara & Resnick	Kressel
Year of Study	1988	1988	1988
# of Subjects	56	82	----
Age of Subjects	11-15	7-9	----
Clinic/Nonclinic	Nonclinic	Nonclinic	----
S.E.S.	----	Middle class	----
Assessment Device	Questionnaire & interview	Questionnaire & interview	Literature review
Individual Assessed	Child, mother & teacher	Child & parents	----
Assessed Behavior	Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment
Results	Continued parental conflict negatively affects children	Post-divorce parental cooperation benefits children	Continued parental conflict negatively affects children

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

The present study uses the same psychological inventories as the original investigation by Slater and Haber (1984). The only exception will be the substitution of the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale for the children's form used in the Slater and Haber (1984) investigation. The present study uses a nonclinic population as was used in the original study. Finally, the present investigation will assess subjects' own perceptions of the present and past levels of conflict in their families as did Slater and Haber (1984). This is because parents are not always aware of how familial conflict and/or divorce affect children (Stangeland et al., 1989).

The independent variables in this investigation are family intactness (intact vs. divorced), sex (male vs. female), and level of familial conflict (high vs. low), as determined by scores on the conflict subscale on the Counseling Form of the Family Environment Scale, FES (Moos & Moos, 1986). The dependent variables in this investigation are scores yielded on the Trait Form of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale (ANSIE) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS),

Chapter III will present the methods and procedures utilized in this investigation. Chapter IV will present

the results of the data analyses. Chapter V will present and discuss the conclusions drawn from the results of this study.

The following questions will be addressed: (1) Are there differences between male and female subjects from high and low conflict families in terms of their psychological adjustment?; (2) Are there differences between the levels of familial conflict subjects recall from their childhood in terms of their psychological adjustment as adults?; and (3) How does living at home with parents affect subjects in terms of their psychological adjustment?

The following null hypotheses will be tested in attempting to answer these questions:

1. There is no significant difference between male and female subjects from high and low conflict families in terms of their psychological adjustment.

2. There is no significant difference between the level of familial conflict subjects recall from their childhood and subjects' psychological adjustment as adults.

3. There is no significant difference between subjects presently living at home with parents and subjects not presently living with parents in terms of their psychological adjustment.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

One hundred and forty two graduate students served as subjects. Six students were eliminated from the investigation because both parents were indicated to be deceased on the personal history form. Students ranged in age from 21 years to 57 years. The average age was 30 years.

One hundred and three of the students (76% of the total sample) attended a large religiously affiliated university in a large midwestern city. There were seventy two female students and thirty one male students.

One hundred and one of these students were enrolled in courses in the School of Education and two students were enrolled in the School of Social Work within the same university. Sixty two of the students were earning degrees in counseling; thirteen were earning degrees in education; ten were earning degrees in school psychology; three were earning degrees in each of the following: college student personnel, research methodology, and educational psychology; two were earning degrees in each of the following: nursing and social work and one person was earning a degree in each of the following: leadership and policy studies,

school guidance, organizational development, and English. One student did not specify a graduate program.

Sixty one were masters level students, forty were doctoral level students and two did not specify the graduate degree they were seeking.

The remaining thirty three of the students (24% of the sample) were enrolled in courses in the Department of Counseling and Higher Education at a small secular university in a middle-sized midwestern city. There were twenty five females and eight males. Twenty five of the students were earning degrees in counseling, two were earning degrees in school administration, and one was earning a degree in each of the following: school psychology and social work. Two students did not specify a graduate program.

Twenty eight of these students were at the masters level while three were taking post-masters courses and two were non-degree seeking.

Thirty four of the one hundred and thirty six subjects had high levels of current familial conflict (as indicated by scores of 6-9 on the conflict subscale of the Family Environment Scale [FES]). Seventy five subjects had low levels of familial conflict (as indicated by scores of 0-3 on the FES). Subjects with midrange scores of four or five (27) were excluded from the analyses of the study.

In the investigation by Slater and Haber (1984), subjects' family intactness (intact vs. divorced) was used as a variable. In the present investigation only twelve subjects were from divorced families. Because the majority of subjects (89%) were from intact families of origin this variable was not included in the analyses of this investigation.

Procedure

A brief explanation of the study was given to the subjects during one of their graduate courses. Students were given a folder containing four psychological inventories and a personal history form. The personal history form gathered information on subjects' age, sex, family intactness, the graduate degree they were seeking and the graduate program they were in. Subjects' were given the option of indicating their race and religion on the form. Also assessed were subjects' perceptions of the level of conflict within their families of origin while they were growing up. Subjects were asked to indicate the early level of familial conflict using a six-point scale ranging from very low to very high (very low, low, average to low, average to high, high or very high).

A consent form was attached to the front of each folder. Students were asked to read the consent form prior to further explanation. The consent form indicated that

the investigation was a family environment study and that students should refer to their family of origin when answering questions on the inventories. The consent form also indicated that participation in the study was voluntary and that students could be assured of complete confidentiality. Students were asked to include their first name and phone number on the consent form to aide the investigator in collecting folders that were not turned in on time. Students were also asked to initial and date the consent form to show their agreement to participate. Consent forms were collected by the investigator.

Subjects were then given brief instructions on filling out the inventories and personal history form. They were also encouraged to read the instructions on each test booklet and answer sheet. Subjects were reminded to respond accurately and honestly. Subjects from Loyola University of Chicago were allowed to complete the inventories on their own time. They were asked to return the completed folders within one week to the Family Environment Study box on the receptionist's desk in the School of Education. Subjects from Butler University were given time to complete the inventories in class. Completed folders were collected by the investigator.

Instrumentation

The Family Environment Scale measures the social environmental aspects of families (Moos & Moos, 1986). It is a ninety item scale divided into ten subscales of nine true/false items each. The subscales are grouped into three underlying domains. These are the Relationship Domain (cohesion, expressiveness and conflict subscales), Personal Growth Domain (independence, achievement orientation and intellectual-cultural orientation and moral-religious emphasis subscales) and the Systems Maintenance Domain (organization and control subscales). High scores on the subscales indicate a strong presence of the particular constructs being measured, low scores indicate a weak presence of the variables.

Norms for the FES are based on 1,125 normal and 500 distressed families (Moos,1974). The sample includes families from all geographical areas of the country, all ethnic backgrounds, all age groups and all family types.

Internal consistency reliabilities reported for the ten subscales range from .61 to .78. Eight week test-retest reliabilities for 47 family members in nine families who took Form R ranged from .68 to .86. Retest reliabilities over a four month and a twelve month period indicated a fair amount of stability in the scales over time. Subscale stability coefficients ranged from .52 to .91.

Stability of family profiles over a four and twelve month interval revealed an average correlation of subscale means (at time 1 and time 2) of .78 and .71 for the four and twelve month periods respectively.

The face validity of the FES is good. This is because the wording of each of the ninety items reflects the subscale and the underlying domain that it belongs to. However, psychometric properties of validity have not been made available.

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory is a self-administered, forty-item measure of an individual's anxiety level (Speilberger, 1983). The inventory measures one's transitory feelings (state) and relatively stable (trait) feelings of anxiety.

The State-anxiety scale is made up of a twenty-item, four-point intensity scale requiring responses ranging from "not at all" to "very much so". These items require respondents to indicate how they are feeling at the time the test is being taken. The Trait-anxiety scale is made up of a twenty-item, four-point frequency scale requiring responses ranging from " almost never" to "almost always". Respondents are instructed to indicate how they usually feel. Scores on the State- and Trait-anxiety scales are generally between 20 and 80. The higher scores indicate higher levels of anxiety.

The internal consistency reliability of the Trait anxiety scale (as indexed by coefficient alpha) ranges from .89 to .91 across the sample of males and females in various lines of work and levels of educational attainment. The internal consistency of the State-anxiety scale ranges from .86 to .95. Test-retest reliabilities of the Trait-anxiety scale ranges from .65 to .86 for intervals ranging from one hour to one hundred and four days. The retest reliabilities for the State-anxiety scale ranges from .16 to .62 for the same time intervals (Speilberger, 1983).

The forty STAI items were factor analyzed and the homogeneity of the two individual scales was confirmed (Speilberger, 1983). The construct validity of the State-anxiety scale is reported to be good. The face validity of the Trait-anxiety scale appears to be good, although, psychometric properties of validity have not been made available. This is due, in part, because the construct of trait anxiety has yet to be defined according to other personality measures.

The Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale is a 40-item scale designed to assess an individual's perceived locus of control of reinforcement (Nowicki, 1990). The items were adapted from the Children's Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External scale. The adult form is appropriate for use with college and noncollege adults.

Higher scores yielded on this inventory indicate a more external locus of control while lower scores indicate a more internal locus of control.

Norms for the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Locus of Control scale (ANSIE) are based on 156 college students and 33 adults. The adults ranged in age from 26-30 years. All of the subjects were white. The adults were volunteers from the community and were members of the upper-lower and lower-upper middle classes. Split-half reliabilities reported for the ANSIE have been in the .60's for college and community samples.

The Rotter I-E Scale, the most widely used locus of control scale, has been criticized because its scores have been shown to be significantly related to social desirability (Nowicki, 1990). Therefore, discriminative validity of the ANSIE was considered to rule out any relation between test results and social desirability. One hundred and sixteen college students completed the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. ANSIE scores were not found to be related to scores of social desirability (Nowicki, 1990). In addition, no relation was found between Scholastic Aptitude Test scores and scores on the ANSIE (n=48, r=.11) (Nowicki, 1990).

Test retest reliabilities for college subjects have been reported to be .83 (n=48) and .65 (n=70) over a six

week period and a seven week period, respectively. Retest reliabilities were also reported to be .56 (n=854) for community college students over a period of one year.

The construct validity of the ANSIE was investigated using two college student samples and a sample of adults from the community. The ANSIE and the Rotter I-E scales were administered to the subjects. In all of the samples, the two measures were significantly correlated (r=68, df=47, p,.01, r=.48, df=37, p,.01). The results indicated that both measures assess the same construct, although not in the same manner.

The Tennessee Self Concept Scale consists of one hundred self-descriptive items requiring answers ranging from "completely false" to "completely true" (Roid & Fitts, 1988). The Counseling Form yields the following scores: a) self criticism, b) variability across dimensions, c) distribution of responses and d) length of time to complete the inventory.

Norms of the TSCS are based on a sample of 626 individuals who represented a variety of racial, social, geographical, economic and educational diversity. Individuals varied in age (between 12 and 68 years) and there was approximately an equal number of men and women.

Test-retest reliabilities over a two week interval for all of the TSCS scales ranged from .60 to .90 (Bentler,

1972). These estimates were based on a sample of sixty college students. A measure of internal consistency reliability is necessary to determine homogeneity of items within the scales; however, an estimate has not been made available at this time.

Design and Statistical Analysis

The variables of interest in this investigation are: (1) current level of familial conflict (low or high, as measured by the conflict subscale on the Counseling Form of the Family Environment Scale); (2) psychological adjustment (as measured by subjects' scores on the Trait Form of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, STAI, the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale, ANSIE and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, TSCS); (3) subjects' perceived level of familial conflict during childhood (as assessed on the six-point scale ranging from very low to very high); and (4) whether subjects were currently living at home with their parents.

Hypothesis I stated that there is no significant difference between perceived level of conflict and gender on subjects' psychological adjustment (scores on the STAI, ANSIE and TSCS). An analysis of variance will be carried out on the data.

Hypothesis II stated that there is no significant difference between the level of familial conflict subjects'

recall from their childhood (very low to very high) and subjects' psychological adjustment (scores on the STAI, ANSIE and TSCS). A one way analysis of variance will be performed on the data.

Hypothesis III stated that there is no significant difference between subjects presently living at home with parents and subjects not presently living with parents in terms of their psychological adjustment (scores on STAI, ANSIE and TSCS). A one way analysis of variance will be carried out on the data.

Chapter III has discussed the research methodology of the present investigation. Included have been descriptions of the sample, procedure, instrumentation, statistical design and analyses performed. Chapter IV will describe the goals of the study and the results of the statistical procedures.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Chapter IV discusses the results of the statistical analyses performed on each of the three hypotheses in the investigation. Each hypothesis is discussed in a separate section of the chapter. The first section focuses on whether or not subjects' sex and current level of familial conflict have an effect on their psychological adjustment. The second section discusses whether or not the level of familial conflict that subjects recall during their childhood is related to their psychological adjustment. The third section covers whether or not subjects presently living with parents differ from subjects not presently living with parents in terms of their psychological adjustment.

Section I: Hypothesis I

The first null hypothesis was: There is no significant difference between subjects' sex and current level of familial conflict and their psychological adjustment.

Psychological adjustment was assessed using three psychological inventories. The Trait Form of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) was used to determine

subjects' level of anxiety. The Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External scale (ANSIE) was used to determine subjects' locus of control. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) was used to determine subjects' level of total self-esteem and their self-concepts on eight subscales. The subscales include physical self-concept, moral-ethical self-concept, personal self-concept, family self-concept, social self-concept, identity self-concept, self-satisfaction and behavior self-concept.

The variables of interest in this analysis are sex, current level of familial conflict (low vs. high) and the eleven dependent measures. This demonstrates a 2 X 2 design. Multiple analyses of variance were carried out on the data, one analysis for each dependent variable.

Table 1 illustrates the two-by-two statistical design used to analyze Hypothesis I (see Table 1).

Subjects were divided into two groups depending on their current level of familial conflict. Subjects with scores of 0 through 3 on the conflict subscale of the Family Environment Scale were categorized as "low conflict". Subjects with scores of 6 through 9 on the conflict subscale were categorized as "high conflict". Subjects with medium range scores of 4 and 5 were eliminated from the study in order to maximize the differences between the low and high conflict groups.

TABLE 1

TWO-BY-TWO STATISTICAL DESIGN USED TO ANALYZE HYPOTHESIS I.

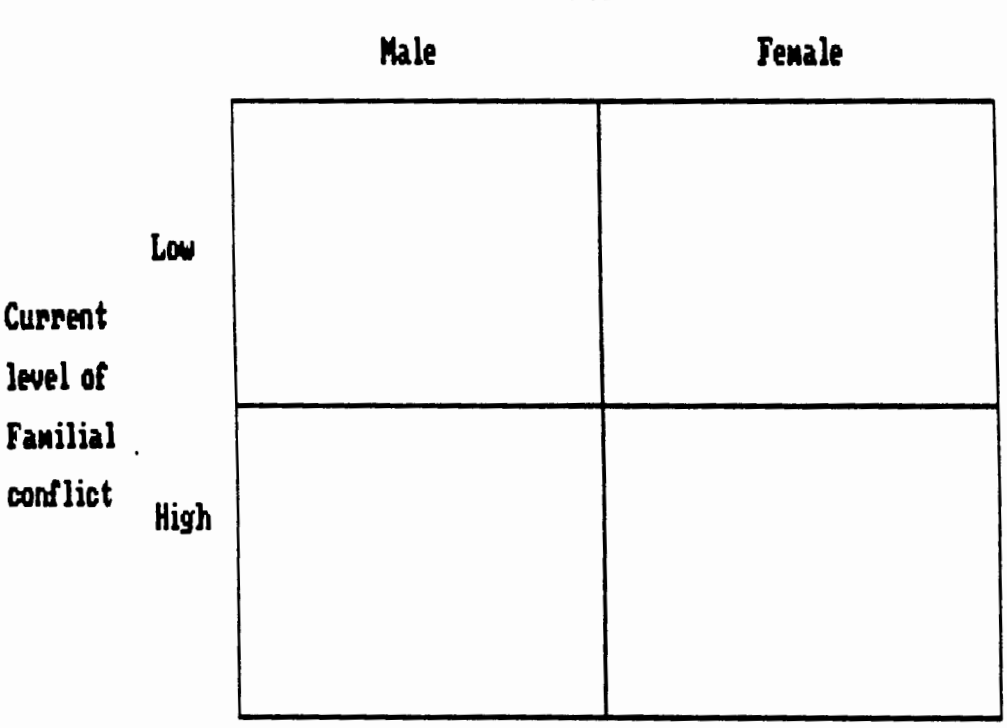

Table 2 provides a summary for these analyses including means, sample sizes, computed F ratios along with an indication of whether or not the analysis was significant (see Table 2).

Results from analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the Trait Form of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) showed a main effect of high conflict to be associated with higher scores of anxiety, $F(1,108)=16.48$, $p < .001$. A main effect was also found indicating that females had higher scores of anxiety than did males $F(1,108)=4.34$, $p < .05$. No significant interaction effects were found.

Results from analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the total self-esteem scale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) showed a main effect of high conflict to be associated with lower scores of total self-esteem, $F(1,106)=13.19$, $p < .001$. There was no significant difference between males and females on scores of total self-concept. No significant interaction effects were found.

Results from analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the physical self subscale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale showed a main effect of high conflict to be associated with lower scores of physical self-concept, $F(1,106)=6.21$, $p < .05$. A main effect was also found

TABLE 2

MEAN SCORES FOR THE HIGH AND LOW CONFLICT GROUPS ON THE TRAIT FORM OF THE STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY (STAI), ADULT NOWICKI-STRICKLAND INTERNAL-EXTERNAL SCALE (ANSIE) AND THE TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE (TSCS).

	$\bar{X}$ for each Group				
Variable	High Conflict	High N	Low Conflict	Low N	F Ratio
STAI					
Trait Anxiety	41.44	34	33.67	75	16.48***
TSCS					
Total self-esteem	331.91	32	359.47	75	13.19**
Physical self	64.66	32	69.24	75	6.21**
Moral-ethical self	70.56	32	75.01	75	6.33*
Personal self	65.66	32	70.97	75	9.65**
Family self	63.16	32	73.17	75	28.75***
Identity	119.75	32	128.65	75	12.09**
Self-satisfaction	106.12	32	114.49	75	7.13*
Behavior	105.94	32	116.41	75	15.90***
Social self	67.81	32	71.08	75	NS
ANSIE					
Locus of Control	10.12	34	8.93	75	NS

Note: The higher the score, the more of the element described for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS).

* = $p < .05$

** = $p < .01$

*** = $p < .001$

NS = difference is not significant.

indicating that females showed lower scores of physical self concept $F(1,106)=6.58$, $p < .05$. No significant interaction effects were found.

Table 3 illustrates the two main effects for sex found on the Trait Form of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) physical self subscale (see Table 3).

Results from analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the moral-ethical self subscale on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale showed a main effect of high conflict to be associated with lower scores of moral-ethical self-concept, $F(1,1.06)=6.33$, $p < .05$. No significant difference was found between males and females on the moral-ethical self subscale. No significant interaction effects were found.

Results from analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the personal self subscale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale showed a main effect of high conflict to be associated with lower scores of personal self-concept, $F(1,106)=9.65$, $p < .01$. No significant difference was found between males and females on the personal self subscale. No significant interaction effects were found.

Results from analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the family self subscale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale showed a main effect of high conflict to be

Table 3

MEAN SCORES SHOWING SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES ON THE TRAIT FORM OF THE STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY AND THE TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE PHYSICAL SELF SUBSCALE

	$\bar{X}$ for each Group				
	Males	N	Females	N	F Ratio
STAI					
Trait Anxiety	32.91	33	37.47	76	4.34 *
TSCS					
Physical Self	71.09	33	66.43	74	6.21 *

Note: The higher the score the more of the element described for the STAI and TSCS.

* = $p < .05$

associated with lower scores of family self-concept, $F(1,106)=28.75$, $p < .001$. No significant difference was found between males and females on the family self subscale. No significant interaction effects were found.

Results from analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the identity subscale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale showed a main effect of high conflict to be associated with lower scores of identity self-esteem, $F(1,106)=12.09$, $p < .01$. No significant difference was found between males and females on the identity subscale. No significant interaction effects were found.

Results from analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the self-satisfaction subscale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale showed a main effect of high conflict to be associated with lower scores of self-satisfaction, $F(1,106)=7.13$, $p < .01$. No significant difference was found between males and females on the self-satisfaction subscale . A two-way interaction was found among sex, current conflict and self-satisfaction, $F(1,106)=4.23$. $p < .05$. The interaction indicates that females from high conflict families scored lowest on the self satisfaction subscale.

Table 4 illustrates the two-way interaction effect among sex, current conflict and self-satisfaction (see Table 4).

Table 4

TWO-WAY INTERACTION EFFECT AMONG SEX, CURRENT CONFLICT AND TSCS SELF-SATISFACTION SUBSCALE

	Current Conflict		
	Low	High	
Sex			
Male	$\bar{X}$ = 113.76 N = 25	$\bar{X}$ = 115.87 N = 8	F= 4.23 p < .05
Female	$\bar{X}$ = 114.86 N = 50	$\bar{X}$ = 102.88 N = 24	

Note: The higher the score, the more of the element for the TSCS self-satisfaction subscale.

The interaction effect indicates that females from high conflict families of origin had lower scores on the Self-Satisfaction Subscale on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS).

Results from analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the behavior subscale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale showed a main effect of high conflict to be associated with lower scores of behavioral self-concept, $F(1,106)= 15.89$, $p < .001$. No significant difference was found between males and females on the behavior self concept subscale. No significant interaction effects were found.

Results from ANOVAs analyzing sex and current conflict by scores on the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale and on the social self subscale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale did not reveal significant main effects or interactions.

Section II: Hypothesis II

The second null hypothesis was: There is no significant difference between the level of familial conflict subjects recall from their childhood and subjects' psychological adjustment as adults.

Subjects were divided by the level of familial conflict they indicated on the personal history form that they recalled from their childhood. Subjects' responded to

conflict levels ranging from very low (1), low (2), average to low (3), average to high (4), high (5) to very high (6).

A one way analysis of variance was used on the data to determine whether there were any significant differences among the means of the six levels of early familial conflict and subjects psychological adjustment as adults.

The results of the analysis revealed that there were significant differences among the early familial conflict level groups (1-6) and five of the eleven dependent variables of psychological adjustment.

Table 5 provides a summary of the means showing significant differences among the levels of early familial conflict in terms of subjects' psychological adjustment.

Results showed that higher levels of familial conflict during subjects' childhood tend to be associated with higher levels of anxiety on the Trait Form of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory $F(5,107)=4.16$, $p<.01$. A post hoc analysis specifically revealed that subjects indicating there was a low level of familial conflict during their childhood (group 2) differed significantly from subjects indicating that the levels of familial conflict during their childhood were average to high (group 4) and high (group 5).

Results revealed that higher levels of familial conflict during subjects' childhood were significantly associ-

TABLE 5

MEAN SCORES SHOWING SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES AMONG THE SIX LEVELS OF EARLY FAMILIAL CONFLICT ON THE STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY (STAI) AND THE TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE (TSCS)

$\bar{X}$ for each group

Variable	Very Low Conflict	Low Conflict	Average To Low Conflict	Average To High Conflict	High Conflict	Very High Conflict	F Ratio
STAI							
Trait Anxiety	34.07	31.03	34.95	38.71	41.87	42.20	4.16 **
TSCS							
Total Self Concept	356.08	363.04	366.10	342.46	326.77	325.60	3.51 **
Family Self	72.00	75.50	74.65	66.07	61.23	64.00	8.05 ***
Identity	124.23	130.11	132.10	123.11	118.38	119.00	3.56 **
Behavior	117.54	117.54	117.40	110.32	103.69	103.40	4.01 **

Note: The higher the score, the more of the element described for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS).
**=p<.01
***=p<.001

ated with lower total self-concept scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) $F(5,105)=3.51$, $p<.01$. Subjects who recalled that there was a high level of familial conflict during their childhood (group 5) differed significantly from subjects indicating that the levels of familial conflict during their childhood were low (group 2) and average to low (group 3).

Results showed that higher levels of familial conflict during subjects' childhood were significantly associated with lower scores on the TSCS family self-concept subscale $F(5,105)=8.05$, $p<.001$. Subjects who recalled a high level of familial conflict during their childhood (group 5) differed significantly from subjects indicating that the levels of familial conflict during their childhood were very low (group 1), average to low (group 3) and low (group 2). In addition, subjects indicating that the level of familial conflict during their childhood was average to high (group 4) were significantly different from subjects indicating that the levels of familial conflict during their childhood were average to low (group 3) and low (group 2).

Results revealed that higher levels of familial conflict during subjects' childhood were significantly different from those with lower scores on the TSCS identity self-concept subscale $F(5,105) =3.56$, $p<.01$. Subjects indicat-

ing that there was a high level of familial conflict during their childhood (group 5) differed significantly from subjects indicating the levels of familial conflict during their childhood were low (group 2) and average to low (group 3).

Results showed that higher levels of familial conflict during subjects' childhood were significantly associated with lower scores on the TSCS behavior self-concept subscale $F(,)=4.01$, $P<.01$. Subjects indicating that there was a high level of familial conflict during their childhood (group 5) differed significantly from subjects indicating that the levels of familial conflict during their childhood were average to low (group 3) and low (group 2).

Results revealed that there were no significant differences between higher levels of familial conflict during subjects' childhood and scores on the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External scale or on the Tennessee Self-Concept subscales of physical self-concept, moral-ethical self-concept, personal self-concept, social self-concept or self-satisfaction.

Section III: Hypothesis III

The third null hypothesis was: There is no significant difference between subjects presently living at home with parents and subjects not presently living with parents in terms of their psychological adjustment.

Results of the one way analysis of variance revealed that there were no significant differences between subjects presently living with parents and subjects not living with parents on any of the eleven dependent variables of psychological adjustment.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The Problem

The escalation in the American divorce rate over the last fifty years has lead to a corresponding increase in research on the consequences of marital discord and divorce for children. Early research inferred that divorce per se was detrimental for the children involved. However, as the incidence of divorce became more common, the view that divorce per se was harmful to children became less accepted. Divorce researchers began to focus less on marital dissolution and more on the familial discord that precedes and follows a family break-up.

The majority of the research on familial conflict and divorce was aimed at the study of preschool age children and adolescents. Children in these age groups seem to appear at the greatest risk of adverse consequences from parental discord or divorce. Relatively little research in this area has been devoted to the study of the adult children of familial conflict or divorce.

The present study was designed to examine whether or not familial discord or parental divorce continues to have

an effect on the psychological adjustment of adult children. Measures of the adults' levels of trait anxiety, locus of control and self-concept were assessed in order to determine psychological adjustment in objective terms.

Method

Subjects

The sample for this study consisted of one hundred and forty two graduate students enrolled in education and counseling-related courses. Six students were eliminated from the study because both parents were indicated to be deceased on the personal history form. One hundred and three of the students attended a large religiously affiliated university in a large midwestern city. The remaining thirty three of the students attended a small secular university in a middle-sized midwestern city. Students ranged in age from 21 years to 57 years. The average age was 30 years. Ninety seven of the subjects were female and thirty nine were male.

Procedure

A brief explanation of the study was given to subjects during one of their graduate course sessions. Students were given a folder containing four psychological inventories and a personal history form. A consent form was attached to the front of each folder. Students were asked

to read the consent form for further explanation about the study. Students were then encouraged to read each test booklet and answer sheet for detailed instructions for filling out the inventories. The inventories were completed either in class or on the subjects' own time. Completed folders were collected by the investigator or instructions were given as to where to drop them off.

Instrumentation

Four psychological inventories and a personal history form were included in each folder. Students were asked to fill out the Counseling Form of the Family Environment Scale (FES), the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External scale (ANSIE) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS).

The Family Environment Scale (FES) consists of ninety true/false items measuring the social climate within a family. The inventory has ten subscales which assess cohesion, expressiveness, conflict, independence, achievement orientation, intellectual-cultural orientation, active-recreational orientation, moral-religious emphasis, organization and control. The present investigation used only subjects' scores on the conflict subscale. The conflict subscale consists of nine questions and measures respondents' perceptions of the openly expressed anger, aggression and conflict among family members (Moos & Moos,

1948). Subjects were asked to refer to their family of origin when responding to these questions.

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory is a forty item inventory assessing subjects' state (temporary, situational feelings) and trait anxiety (relatively stable feelings) (Speilberger, 1983). Only the twenty question Trait Form of the inventory was used in this investigation. This measure of subjects' relatively stable level of anxiety was included in the investigation as one part of the assessment of subjects' psychological adjustment.

The Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale is a forty item true/false measure of an individual's locus of control (Nowicki, 1990). The inventory was adapted from the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children. This inventory was utilized to assess one element of subjects' psychological adjustment.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale is a one hundred item inventory measuring subjects' level of self-esteem (Roid & Fitts, 1988). The Counseling Form (Form C) was used in this investigation. Form C provides scores on fourteen basic scales of self-esteem. Nine of those scales were used in this investigation. These included: total self-concept; physical self-concept; moral-ethical self-concept; personal self-concept; family self-concept; social self-concept; identity self-concept; self-satisfaction and;

behavior self-concept. A measure of self-concept was used because an individual's level of self-concept has been directly linked to his or her mental health (Roid & Fitts, 1988).

A personal history form was also included in the folder. The form gathered information on subjects' age, sex, parental marital status, whether or not the subject was living with parents and perceived level of familial conflict during childhood.

Design and Statistical Analysis

The five variables of interest in this investigation were: (1) sex (male or female); (2) level of family conflict (low or high as measured by subjects' scores on the conflict subscale of the Family Environment Scale); (3) subjects' perceptions of the level of familial conflict during their childhood (very low, low, average to low, average to high, high or very high); (4) whether subjects were presently living with their parents (yes or no); and (5) subjects' psychological adjustment (as determined by subjects' scores on the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale).

Hypothesis I stated that there is no significant difference between male and female subjects from high and

low conflict families in terms of their psychological adjustment. This hypothesis was analyzed by comparing the means of the two levels of sex (male and female) and the two levels of familial conflict (high and low) on the measures of psychological adjustment, the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. An analysis of variance was used to analyze the data.

Hypothesis II stated that there is no significant difference between the six levels of early familial conflict subjects recall from their childhoods (ranging from very low to very high) in terms of their psychological adjustment as adults. This hypothesis was analyzed by comparing the means of the six levels of early familial conflict and the three measures of psychological adjustment. The statistical analysis was accomplished by using a one way analysis of variance.

Hypothesis III stated there is no significant difference between subjects presently living at home with parents and subjects not presently living with parents in terms of their psychological adjustment. This hypothesis was analyzed by comparing the means of the subjects living with parents and those not living with parents on the three measures of psychological adjustment. The statistical analysis that was used on the data was a one way analysis

of variance.

Results

This investigation first examined the differences between subjects' sex and current level of familial conflict and their psychological adjustment. Significant differences were found on nine of the eleven variables of psychological adjustment. These variables were: trait anxiety (STAI); total self-concept (TSCS); physical self-concept (TSCS); moral-ethical self-concept (TSCS); personal self-concept (TSCS); family self-concept (TSCS); identity self-concept (TSCS); self-satisfaction (TSCS) and; behavior self-concept (TSCS). Significant differences were not found on the variables of locus of control (ANSIE) or social self-concept (TSCS).

This investigation next examined the differences between the six levels of familial conflict that subjects recalled from their childhood and their psychological adjustment. Significant differences were found on five of the eleven variables of psychological adjustment. These variables were: trait anxiety (STAI); total self-concept (TSCS); family self-concept (TSCS); identity self-concept (TSCS) and; behavior self-concept.

This investigation also examined the differences between subjects living with parents and subjects not living with parents in terms of their psychological adjustment.

No significant differences were found on any of the eleven variables of psychological adjustment.

In summary, the results of this investigation suggest that an individual's perceptions of the level of familial conflict in his/her family of origin seem to be an important influence in his/her psychological adjustment as an adult. The current level of familial conflict seems to be most strongly related to differences in psychological adjustment between adults from high and low conflict families of origin as evidenced by the results of the analysis of Hypothesis I. There also seems to be a long-term relationship between subjects' perceptions of the level of familial conflict during their childhood and their psychological adjustment as adults as evidenced by the results of the analysis of Hypothesis II. Also suggested by the results of this investigation is that an adult's residence with his/her parents, regardless of the level of familial conflict, does not seem to influence the individual's psychological adjustment as evidenced by the results of the analysis of Hypothesis III.

Discussion

This investigation found that males and females from high and low conflict families of origin differed on nine of the eleven variables of psychological adjustment. The results

indicated that adult children from high conflict families had higher levels of relatively stable anxiety. This finding supports the assumption that individuals tend to have increased levels anxiety in response to high levels of familial conflict. Slater and Haber (1984) drew similar conclusions in their investigation with adolescents. In addition, females in general, were found to have higher levels of trait anxiety than did males in the investigation. Emery and O'Leary (1982) reported that females tend to respond to stress in less obvious ways than do boys. The results of the present investigation seem to suggest that females may respond to stressors with increased anxiety.

Both males and females from high conflict families of origin were also shown to have lower total self-esteem on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). Slater and Haber (1984) also found that the adolescents in their investigation had lower total self-concept scores in response to high levels of familial conflict.

Similar results were also found in the present investigation on seven of the eight Tennessee Self-Concept Scale subscales. This was also the case in the Slater and Haber (1984) investigation. This may be a consequence of an unstable, conflictual family environment, possibly leading to neglect of the child's emotional needs.

Looking individually at each of the TSCS subscales the results of the present study indicate that higher levels of current familial conflict lead to an individual's tendency to view his/her appearance, sexuality and state of health more negatively than individuals from low conflict families (physical self). Females, in particular, scored lower on the physical self subscale. This may be a result of the emphasis that American society places on physical attractiveness and being healthy. Females, in general, seem to be greatly influenced by this emphasis and may have a tendency to be more critical of themselves and their physical self-image.

Individuals from high conflict families of origin were also more likely to view themselves negatively in terms of their moral worth and satisfaction with their sense of religion (moral-ethical self). Individuals from high conflict families showed a more negative sense of personal worth and adequacy (personal self) and similar negative feelings within their family of origin (family self). This may be associated with the lack of contentment and stability within a conflictual familial environment. Children may absorb a feeling of inadequacy or even take ownership of the family turmoil.

High conflict in the family of origin was also associated with poorer self perceptions and basic identity

(identity) as well as more negative feelings about his/her perceived self-image and overall self-acceptance (self-satisfaction).

Females from high conflict families of origin were found to have the lowest self-satisfaction scores. This is consistent with the results of Glenn and Kramer (1985). Glenn and Kramer (1985) found females from families of origin characterized by conflict to score significantly lower than males on dimensions of satisfaction with friendships, family life and community. In addition, several other investigators have concluded that the long-term effects of family turmoil and dissolution tend to be more negative for females (Cooney et al., 1986; Farber et al., 1983; Glenn & Kramer, 1985; Wallerstein, 1987/88; Wallerstein et al., 1988).

Finally, individuals from high conflict families of origin were shown to have more negative perceptions about their behavior and way of functioning (behavior). These adult children may have been exposed to dysfunctional parental modeling and, as adult children, may have underlying concern about the appropriateness of their own behavior.

The only TSCS subscale that did not reveal any differences between subjects was the social self subscale. This finding may be the result of an individual's social devel-

opment leading him/her to expand social relations outside the family (Forehand & McCombs, 1989; Long et al., 1987; Peck, 1989).

In addition, significant differences between subjects were not found on the locus of control variable as determined by scores the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Scale. Slater and Haber (1984) found that the adolescents in their study from high conflict families had less internal control than adolescents from low conflict families. This difference between adolescents and adults may be related to the possibility that adult children may distance themselves from their families of origin enough that they do not feel as influenced by them. It is also likely that individuals who are enrolled in courses at the graduate level may be aware of their own abilities to make changes on their environment. Another possibility is that these adult children may now have the responsibility of families of their own which may allow them to focus their attention less on their families of origin and more on their own nuclear families. Whether or not these adult children have families of their own was not assessed in this investigation.

The findings of this investigation suggest that there is a disturbing impact on the psychological adjustment of adult children resulting from past and present familial

conflict in their families of origin. This is consistent with the research on adult children of divorce (Bonkowski, 1989; Cain, 1989; Cooney, 1986; Farber et al., 1983; Glenn & Kramer, 1985; Peck, 1989).

As a result of these conclusions, it is vital for professionals working with children and families to be alert to the potentially damaging long-term effects that familial conflict may have on adult children. Early detection of familial conflict and subsequent intervention will help to avoid problems in the children's later psychological adjustment. Clinicians may need to educate parents about the rewarding effects of harmonious familial relations for themselves and their children. Parents who continue to relate to each other in conflict have a tendency to be less effective parents (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Such diminished capacity to parent leads to less time and discipline to the children. In addition, parents may also become less sensitive to the emotional needs of their children (Wallerstein, 1983a), possibly leading to poorer psychological adjustment in adulthood.

According to Wallerstein and Kelly (1980), parents involved in conflictual relationships welcome the guidance of a clinician when the services are offered at the right time. Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) add that early intervention is crucial for the success of clinical interven-

tion.

In addition to parental education and counseling, family counseling may be advised for families characterized by discord. This is consistent with the Structural approach to Family Therapy which assumes that problems in the marital relationship are likely to be related to problems within the children (Minuchin, 1974). Thus, in order to treat the problems most effectively, the family unit must be treated as a whole (Minuchin, 1974).

According to Goldenberg and Goldenberg (1985) individual therapy with a disturbed child will most likely not have a differential impact on his/her overall functioning. This is because the family will most likely reinstitute the problem through their dysfunctional relationships. Therefore, Goldenberg and Goldenberg (1985) advocate intervention at the family level in order to eliminate the familial problems as well as the symptoms of the disturbed child.

Although early intervention is optimal in order to avoid long-term disturbances in children's psychological adjustment resulting from familial problems, the damage may be repaired years later in therapy when the children become adults. These adult children may benefit from bringing their parents and/or siblings into their individual therapy sessions (Headley, 1977). Including parents and/or siblings in the individual therapy of an adult child may help

to explain the dysfunctional elements in the family's functioning and how those relations affect the adult child. This therapeutic technique allows the adult child to gain insight into the problems and idiosyncrasies of his/her family members. The adult child is helped to understand these as limitations and may be able to accept these imperfections in his/her family members. Ultimately, the adult child is helped to relinquish ownership of the familial problems resulting in a more positive psychological adjustment.

Further research in the area of familial conflict and divorce and the subsequent effects on adult children is mandatory to the continued understanding of appropriate and effective interventions to eliminate long-term problems in adjustment. Research should be directed at assessing the psychological adjustment of children in order to determine whether or not their emotional needs are being met.

Research should also continue to focus on the effects of continued familial conflict on other populations of adults and young adults than was used in this study. In addition, research should be directed at the success rate of individual counseling with adult children of familial conflict to determine the most effective method of repairing the psychological damage that may have already taken place.

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APPENDIX A

Your first name_____

Your phone number ( )_____

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT STUDY

This is an investigation of your family environment and how the environment effects family members. Please refer to the environment of your **Family of Origin**, as it currently exists in your life at this time.

There are four short inventories to complete as well as a brief personal history form. Completion of the instruments should take between 30 minutes and one hour.

The folder containing your completed inventories and questionnaire should be returned as **soon as possible** to Jan, the receptionist at the front office window on the eighth floor of Lewis Towers. This folder **must** be returned no later than one week from today.

Participation in this investigation is completely voluntary and you may be assured of complete confidentiality.

Each folder has an identification number on it that matches the number in the right corner of this form. This is so I am able to check off the number on my list when this folder is returned. I ask that you include your first name and your phone number on this form so that in the event that this folder is not returned, you may be contacted. Your name will **never** be placed on this folder or on the inventories enclosed.

If, for any reason, you are unable to complete the inventories and history form enclosed, **PLEASE** do not take this folder. I need a completed folder from each volunteer in this investigation and I do not have any extra folders to spare.

When this investigation is complete, the results will be written up and made available to you. Copies of the results will be kept at the front office window on the eighth floor of Lewis Towers. A sign will be posted on the eighth floor informing you when the results are available.

Please initial this form as your agreement to participate as a volunteer in this research project and to return this folder within one week.

Initial_____

Date_____

Thank you for participating in this investigation.

APPENDIX B

PERSONAL HISTORY FORM

Please answer all questions on this form.

1. Your age_____

2. Your gender:
   a). Male_____ b). Female_____

3. Family intactness:
   a). Are your parents married?_____

   b). Are your parents divorced/separated?_____

   If your parents are divorced/separated, how many years have passed since they separated?_____

4. Are you presently living at home with your parents?_____

5. What graduate degree are you seeking?_____

6. What graduate program are you in?_____

7. What is your race? (optional)
   a). White_____ b). Black_____ c). Asian_____

   d). Hispanic _____ e). Other _____

8. What is your religion? (optional)_____

9. While you were growing up, which of these conflict levels best describes the level of conflict within your family of origin (this may include conflict between parents, parents and children and/or conflict between siblings)?

a). very low conflict_____

b). low conflict_____

c). average to low conflict_____

d). average to high conflict_____

e). high conflict_____

f). very high conflict_____

APPENXIX C

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT SCALE

FORM R

RUDOLF H. MOOS

INSTRUCTIONS

There are 90 statements in this booklet. They are statements about families. You are to decide which of these statements are true of your family and which are false. Make all your marks on the separate answer sheets. If you think the statement is *True* or mostly *True* of your family, make an X in the box labeled T (true). If you think the statement is *False* or mostly *False* of your family, make an X in the box labeled F (false).

You may feel that some of the statements are true for some family members and false for others. Mark T if the statement is *true* for most members. Mark F if the statement is *false* for most members. If the members are evenly divided, decide what is the stronger overall impression and answer accordingly.

Remember, we would like to know what your family seems like to *you*. So *do not* try to figure out how other members see your family, but *do* give us your general impression of your family for each statement.

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577 College Ave., Palo Alto, California 94306

APPENDIX D

STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY (FORM Y)

("Self-Evaluation Questionnaire")

Charles D. Spielberger, Ph.D.
Director, Center for Research in Community Psychology
University of South Florida, Tampa
in collaboration with
R.L. Gorsuch, R. Lushene, P.R. Vagg, and G.A. Jacobs

Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
577 College Ave., Palo Alto, CA 94306

APPENDIX E

Please answer the following questions the way **you** feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Don't take too much time answering any one question. Please indicate your True/False answers by placing a Y or an N in the blanks next to each question number.

1._____ Do you believe that most problems will solve themselves if you just don't fool with them?

2._____ Do you believe that you can stop yourself from catching a cold?

3._____ Are some people just born lucky?

4._____ Most of the time do you feel that getting good grades meant a great deal to you?

5._____ Are you often blamed for things that just aren't your fault?

6._____ Do you believe that if somebody studies hard enough he or she can pass any subject?

7._____ Do you feel that most of the time it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right anyway?

8._____ Do you feel that if things start out well in the morning that it's going to be a good day no matter what you do?

9._____ Do you feel that most of the time parents listen to what their children have to say?

10._____ Do you believe that wishing can make good things happen?

11._____ When you get punished does it usually seem it's for no good reason at all?

12._____ Most of the time do you find it hard to change a friend's (mind) opinion?

13._____ Do you think that cheering more than luck helps a team to win?

14._____ Did you feel that it's nearly impossible to change your parent's mind about something?

15._____ Do you believe that parents should allow children to make most of their own decisions?

16._____ Do you feel that when you do something wrong there's very little you can do to make it right?

17._____ Do you believe that most people are just born good at sports?

18._____ Are most of the other people your age stronger than you are?

19._____ Do you feel that one of the best ways to handle most problems is just not to think about them?

20._____ Do you feel that you have a lot of choice in deciding whom you friends are?

21._____ If you find a four leaf clover do you believe that it might bring you good luck?

22._____ Did you often feel that whether you did you homework has much to do with what kind of grades you got?

23._____ Do you feel that when a person your age decides to hit you there's little you can do to stop him or her?

24._____ Have you ever had a good luck charm?

25._____ Do you believe that whether or not people like you depends on how you act?

26._____ Did your parents usually help if you asked them to?

27._____ Have you felt that when people were angry to you it was usually for no reason at all?

28._____ Most of the time, do you feel that you can change what might happen tomorrow by what you do today?

29._____Do you believe that when bad things are going to happen they just are going to happen no matter what you try to do to stop them?

30._____ Do you think that people can get their own way if they just keep trying?

31._____ Most of the time do you find it useless to try to get your own way at home?

32._____ Do you feel that when good things happen they happen because of hard work?

33._____ Do you feel that when somebody your age wants to be your enemy there's little you can do to change matters?

34._____ Do you feel that it's easy to get friends to do what you want them to?

35._____ Do you usually feel that you have little to say about what you get to eat at home?

36._____Do you feel that when someone doesn't like you there's little you can do about it?

37._____ Did you usually feel that it was almost useless to try in school because most other children were just plain smarter than you are?

38._____ Are you the kind of person who believes that planning ahead makes things turn out better?

39._____ Most of the time, do you feel that you have little to say about what your family decides to do?

40._____ Do you think it's better to be smart than to be lucky?

APPENDIX F

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

William H. Fitts, Ph.D.

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INSTRUCTIONS

On the top line of the separate answer sheet, fill in your name and the other information except for the time information in the last three boxes. You will fill in these boxes later. Write only on the answer sheet. Do not put any marks in this booklet.

The statements in this booklet are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself. Please respond to them as if you were describing yourself *to yourself*. *Do not omit any item.* Read each statement carefully, then select one of the five responses listed below. On your answer sheet, put a *circle* around the response you chose. If you want to change an answer after you have circled it, do not erase it but put an *X* mark through the response and then circle the response you want.

When you are ready to start, find the box on your answer sheet marked *time started* and record the time. When you are finished, record the time finished in the box on your answer sheet marked *time finished.*

As you start, be sure that your answer sheet and this booklet are lined up evenly so that the item numbers match each other.

Remember, put a *circle* around the response number you have chosen for each statement.

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

You will find these response numbers repeated at the top of each page to help you remember them.

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
1.	I have a healthy body	1
3.	I am an attractive person	3
5.	I consider myself a sloppy person	5
19.	I am a decent sort of person	19
21.	I am an honest person	21
23.	I am a bad person	23
37.	I am a cheerful person	37
39.	I am a calm and easygoing person	39
41.	I am a nobody	41
55.	I have a family that would always help me in any kind of trouble	55
57.	I am a member of a happy family	57
59.	My friends have no confidence in me	59
73.	I am a friendly person	73
75.	I am popular with men	75
77.	I am not interested in what other people do	77
91.	I do not always tell the truth	91
93.	I get angry sometimes	93

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
2.	I like to look nice and neat all the time	2
4.	I am full of aches and pains	4
6.	I am a sick person	6
20.	I am a religious person	20
22.	I am a moral failure	22
24.	I am a morally weak person	24
38.	I have a lot of self-control	38
40.	I am a hateful person	40
42.	I am losing my mind	42
56.	I am an important person to my friends and family	56
58.	I am not loved by my family	58
60.	I feel that my family doesn't trust me	60
74.	I am popular with women	74
76.	I am mad at the whole world	76
78.	I am hard to be friendly with	78
92.	Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about	92
94.	Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross	94

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
7.	I am neither too fat nor too thin	7
9.	I like my looks just the way they are	9
11.	I would like to change some parts of my body	11
25.	I am satisfied with my moral behavior	25
27.	I am satisfied with my relationship to God	27
29.	I ought to go to church more	29
43.	I am satisfied to be just what I am	43
45.	I am just as nice as I should be	45
47.	I despise myself	47
61.	I am satisfied with my family relationships	61
63.	I understand my family as well as I should	63
65.	I should trust my family more	65
79.	I am as sociable as I want to be	79
81.	I try to please others, but don't overdo it	81
83.	I am no good at all from a social standpoint	83
95.	I do not like everyone I know	95
97.	Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke	97

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
8.	I am neither too tall nor too short	8
10.	I don't feel as well as I should	10
12.	I should have more sex appeal	12
26.	I am as religious as I want to be	26
28.	I wish I could be more trustworthy	28
30.	I shouldn't tell so many lies	30
44.	I am as smart as I want to be	44
46.	I am not the person I would like to be	46
48.	I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do	48
62.	I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are not living)	62
64.	I am too sensitive to things my family says	64
66.	I should love my family more	66
80.	I am satisfied with the way I treat other people	80
82.	I should be more polite to others	82
84.	I ought to get along better with other people	84
96.	I gossip a little at times	96
98.	At times I feel like swearing	98

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.	
13.	I take good care of myself physically	13	
15.	I try to be careful about my appearance	15	
17.	I often act like I am "all thumbs"	17	
31.	I am true to my religion in my everyday life	31	
33.	I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong	33	
35.	I sometimes do very bad things	35	
49.	I can always take care of myself in any situation	49	
51.	I take the blame for things without getting mad	51	
53.	I do things without thinking about them first	53	
67.	I try to play fair with my friends and family	67	
69.	I take a real interest in my family	69	
71.	I give in to my parents (Use past tense if parents are not living)	71	
85.	I try to understand the other fellow's point of view	85	
87.	I get along well with other people	87	
89.	I do not forgive others easily	89	
99.	I would rather win than lose in a game	99	

Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True
1	2	3	4	5

		Item No.
14.	I feel good most of the time	14
16.	I do poorly in sports and games	16
18.	I am a poor sleeper	18
32.	I do what is right most of the time	32
34.	I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead	34
36.	I have trouble doing the things that are right	36
50.	I solve my problems quite easily	50
52.	I change my mind a lot	52
54.	I try to run away from my problems	54
68.	I do my share of work at home	68
70.	I quarrel with my family	70
72.	I do not act like my family thinks I should	72
86.	I see good points in all the people I meet	86
88.	I do not feel at ease with other people	88
90.	I find it hard to talk with strangers	90
100.	Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today	100

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Tennessee Self-Concept Scale
Answer Sheet

Form C

ITEM	RESPONSE	ITEM	RESPONSE	ITEM	RESPONSE
13	1 2 3 4 5	7	1 2 3 4 5	1	1 2 3 4 5
14	1 2 3 4 5	8	1 2 3 4 5	2	1 2 3 4 5
15	1 2 3 4 5	9	1 2 3 4 5	3	1 2 3 4 5
16	1 2 3 4 5	10	1 2 3 4 5	4	1 2 3 4 5
17	1 2 3 4 5	11	1 2 3 4 5	5	1 2 3 4 5
18	1 2 3 4 5	12	1 2 3 4 5	6	1 2 3 4 5
31	1 2 3 4 5	25	1 2 3 4 5	19	1 2 3 4 5
32	1 2 3 4 5	26	1 2 3 4 5	20	1 2 3 4 5
33	1 2 3 4 5	27	1 2 3 4 5	21	1 2 3 4 5
34	1 2 3 4 5	28	1 2 3 4 5	22	1 2 3 4 5
35	1 2 3 4 5	29	1 2 3 4 5	23	1 2 3 4 5
36	1 2 3 4 5	30	1 2 3 4 5	24	1 2 3 4 5
49	1 2 3 4 5	43	1 2 3 4 5	37	1 2 3 4 5
50	1 2 3 4 5	44	1 2 3 4 5	38	1 2 3 4 5
51	1 2 3 4 5	45	1 2 3 4 5	39	1 2 3 4 5
52	1 2 3 4 5	46	1 2 3 4 5	40	1 2 3 4 5
53	1 2 3 4 5	47	1 2 3 4 5	41	1 2 3 4 5
54	1 2 3 4 5	48	1 2 3 4 5	42	1 2 3 4 5
67	1 2 3 4 5	61	1 2 3 4 5	55	1 2 3 4 5
68	1 2 3 4 5	62	1 2 3 4 5	56	1 2 3 4 5
69	1 2 3 4 5	63	1 2 3 4 5	57	1 2 3 4 5
70	1 2 3 4 5	64	1 2 3 4 5	58	1 2 3 4 5
71	1 2 3 4 5	65	1 2 3 4 5	59	1 2 3 4 5
72	1 2 3 4 5	66	1 2 3 4 5	60	1 2 3 4 5
85	1 2 3 4 5	79	1 2 3 4 5	73	1 2 3 4 5
86	1 2 3 4 5	80	1 2 3 4 5	74	1 2 3 4 5
87	1 2 3 4 5	81	1 2 3 4 5	75	1 2 3 4 5
88	1 2 3 4 5	82	1 2 3 4 5	76	1 2 3 4 5
89	1 2 3 4 5	83	1 2 3 4 5	77	1 2 3 4 5
90	1 2 3 4 5	84	1 2 3 4 5	78	1 2 3 4 5
99	1 2 3 4 5	95	1 2 3 4 5	91	1 2 3 4 5
100	1 2 3 4 5	96	1 2 3 4 5	92	1 2 3 4 5
		97	1 2 3 4 5	93	1 2 3 4 5
		98	1 2 3 4 5	94	1 2 3 4 5

NAME
AGE
SEX (Circle One) M F
EDUCATION (Number of Years)
ETHNIC BACKGROUND (Optional)
USUAL OCCUPATION
MARITAL STATUS
DATE
TIME STARTED
TIME FINISHED
TOTAL TIME

W-182B

APPROVAL SHEET

The thesis submitted by Marcia Herman Vickman has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Gloria J. Lewis, Director
Professor, Counseling and Educational Psychology, Loyola

Dr. Todd Hoover
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The final copies have been examined by the director of the thesis and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the thesis is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The thesis is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

October 29, 1990
Date

Gloria J. Lewis
Director's Signature