PREDICTORS OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP QUALITY OF YOUNG ADULTS

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(anywhere
I go you go, my dear;
and whatever is done
by only me is your doing, my darling)
e.e. cummings

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Predictors of Interpersonal Relationship Quality of Young Adults

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which selected personal, interpersonal, and family characteristics predicted interpersonal relationship quality in young adults. Multiple regression analysis was used to test the research hypotheses. The personal variable, relational anxiety, and the interpersonal variable, ability to manage interpersonal conflict effectively, were found to be significantly related to interpersonal relationship quality. Implications for further research and practice were discussed.

Introduction

The last half of the 20th century has been marked by change and transition for American families. Minuchin (1984) observed that although change is nothing new for families, change seems to be happening much faster than in the past. According to Furstenberg, Nord, Peterson, and Zill (1983), "the experience of growing up has probably changed as much in the past several decades as in any comparable period in American history" (p. 667).

Divorce and its aftermath represent one of the more important of the changes in family life. From 1965 to 1975 the divorce rate in this country increased 116% (United States Department of Education, 1991). The cohort of children born during that period are now young adults, and their family life experiences were in a number of ways far different from those of earlier cohorts. For example, more of today's young adults lived at least part of their childhood with a single parent, or in a family in which there was a stepparent; many more of their mothers were employed outside the home. Statistics indicate that in 1965 about 10% of children under the age of 18 lived in single-parent homes compared with about 22% in 1989. In 1987 there were an estimated 4.3 million remarried families that included children under the age of 18. In 1960, 39% of married women with children worked outside the home, but by 1990, 74% of married women with families and 86% of divorced women with children were in the labor force (Glick, 1988; U.S. Department of Education, 1991).

The high rate of divorce and the fairly well-established fact that adult children of divorce are themselves more likely to divorce (Glick, 1988; Glenn & Kramer, 1987; Greenberg & Nay, 1982; Mueller & Pope, 1977; Pope & Mueller, 1976) raise concern for the well-being of young adults, especially their ability to establish and maintain close relationships (Glenn & Kramer, 1985). In spite of the fact that the generation that is approaching adulthood today may have come from diverse family backgrounds, and faced challenges far different from those of a similar cohort 50 years ago, Glick (1988) observed, "the preferred goal of most young adults will continue to be a permanent first marriage" (Glick, 1988, p. 872).

The establishment of intimate relationships is a central issue for young adults. McGoldrick and Carter (1982) proposed a systemic version of the family life cycle that begins with the "unattached young adult" who is "between families" (McGoldrick & Carter, 1982, p. 176). According to this conceptualization, the basic task of the young adult at this stage is to come to terms with his or her family of origin. This involves attaining appropriate autonomy while establishing a "comfortable interdependence" with the parental generation (Cohler & Geyer, 1982, p. 209). Young adulthood is considered the cornerstone of adulthood. "It is a time to formulate personal life goals and to become a 'self' before joining with another to form a new family subsystem" (McGoldrick & Carter, 1982, p. 175). In a similar manner, from the psychosocial perspective of Erikson (1963, 1968), identity formation is the central task of adolescence, and the establishment of an intimate mode of interpersonal relationship is the major developmental issue for young adults. Successful resolution of this central task of young

adulthood is reflected in a capacity to commit oneself to enduring intimate relationships that are characterized by a high degree of closeness and communication (Orlofsky, in press).

There is some evidence in the literature that parental divorce may have a negative effect on the ability of some young adults to form intimate relationships (Chess, Thomas, Korn, Mittelman, & Cohen, 1983; Kalter, Riemer, Brickman, & Chen, 1985; Southworth, & Schwarz, 1987; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989). However, research findings concerning the long-term effects of divorce for children are often contradictory (Amato & Keith, 1991; Lauer & Lauer, 1991; Raschke, 1987), indicating the complexity of the issue. The well-being of young adults, including the ability to establish close interpersonal relationships, appears to be related to a range of personal and family factors (Amato & Keith, 1991; Cooper, Holman, & Braithwaite, 1983; Emery, 1988a; Hess & Camara, 1979; Pett, 1982; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980).

A search of the literature revealed relatively little information concerning the factors that contribute to intimacy formation in young adults. An assumption of this research was that the quality of close interpersonal relationships is an important measure of social competence and well-being in young adults (Erikson, 1968). Several personal, interpersonal, and family relationship variables were identified as relating to the healthy development of young adults and to their capacity to form close interpersonal relationships. Using a family systems perspective, the purpose of this study was to test a model of personal, interpersonal, and family factors as predictors of the quality of interpersonal relationships of young adults.

Theoretical Background

Family systems theory is based on Bertalanffy's (1968) definition of a system as an organization of mutually dependent parts operating within a broader social context (Hill, 1972; Walsh, 1982). The essential point of a systems perspective is a concern for wholeness and organization rather than an examination of individual parts in isolation (Robinson, 1980). Bronfenbrenner (1979) described human development as occurring in an ecological environment of nested contexts, specifically, the cultural and social beliefs and attitudes surrounding the family, the social supports available, the immediate family interaction, and the individual psychological competencies of the developing child (Kurdek, 1981). Kurdek emphasized the importance of considering the interaction of a number of variables from different systems levels. The present research focused on individual development within the context of the family system.

Interpersonal Relationships of Young Adults

Bowen (1971) contributed some important ideas to family systems thinking that are relevant to the development of intimacy in young adults. One of these is the concept of differentiation of self, which refers to the relative ability of individuals to manage individuality and togetherness in their lives. According to this concept, individuals have both a capacity for intellectually determined (the intellectual system) and emotionally determined (the emotional system) functioning. When these two systems remain functionally separate and in harmony, the individual has the choice of operating in either mode. When the two systems do not remain separate and balanced, the person's thinking and behavior tend to become more emotionally determined, and they may become

increasingly reactive to emotionality in others. In poorly differentiated individuals, emotions and forces toward togetherness are predominant, and they have difficulty viewing their world objectively. Individuals tend to be attracted to and marry partners who have a similar level of differentiation. More highly differentiated people are more likely to have relationships in which there is a balance between togetherness and individuality.

Problems in this stage are usually related to a young person remaining inappropriately dependent or breaking away in a pseudo-independent cutoff. The concept of emotional cutoff describes the way some young adults deal with unresolved fusion in families of origin by distancing themselves physically or emotionally or both. Cutoffs never resolve emotional relationships, and young people who attempt to separate from their families in this way do so reactively, and in fact remain emotionally bound to the family system. People who are cut off from important family relationships are particularly vulnerable to intense fusion in other relationship systems (Bowen, 1971; Kerr, 1981).

Resolving relationship issues with the family of origin involves a gradual shift to an adult-to-adult relationship with one's parents, where there is mutual respect and a personal form of relating "in which young adults can appreciate parents as they are, needing neither to make them into what they are not, nor to blame them for what they could not be. Neither do young adults need to comply with parental expectations and wishes at their own expense" (McGoldrick & Carter, 1982, p. 177). Cohler and Geyer (1982) observed that the extent to which this separation can be negotiated depends on the life experiences of both

generations, including the capacity of each generation to achieve separation.

According to Carter and McGoldrick (1980), the family is an emotional system that moves through time. The family system has both a vertical and a horizontal axis. The vertical flow in a system includes patterns of relating and functioning that are transmitted down the generations in a family. The horizontal axis includes anxiety produced by stress in a family as it moves through time, coping with the changes and transitions of the family life cycle. These include both the predictable developmental stresses and unpredictable life events. When there is intense stress in the vertical axis, even a small amount of stress on the horizontal axis produces great disruption in the family. The more successful a young adult is in coming to terms with family of origin issues, the fewer vertical stressors will follow him or her into the new family's life cycle (McGoldrick & Carter, 1982).

Erikson conceived of human development as a lifelong process occurring within a context of interpersonal, environmental, and cultural factors (Goldstein, 1984). The central task of young adulthood, according to Erikson's (1963; 1968) theory, is to establish an intimate mode of personal relationship. A person who has the capacity for intimacy is able to "commit himself to concrete affiliations and partnerships and to develop the ethical strength to abide by such commitments even though they may call for significant sacrifices and compromises" (Erikson, 1963, p. 263). Orlofsky (in press) described intimacy as a continuously evolving capacity and lifelong concern that meets its first test during young adulthood "when individuals are faced with the task of choosing long-term, perhaps life-long partners and

establishing bonds of mutual love." Tesch and Whitbourne (1982) observed that although the intimacy versus isolation issue is of great concern during early adulthood, many people do not resolve or even confront true intimacy until well into adulthood.

Family Variables

The parent-child relationship appears to contribute to the quality of young adults' interpersonal relationships. The socialization of children occurs in the context of the parent-child relationship (Peterson & Rollins, 1987). An authoritative style of parenting, characterized by parental support and inductive control, has been linked to positive child outcomes in the areas of cognitive, emotional, and social development (Buri, Kirchner, & Walsh, 1987; Demo, Small, & Savin-Williams, 1987; Felson & Zielinski, 1989; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Gecas & Seff, 1990; Hoelter & Harper, 1987; Kurdek, 1981; Peterson & Rollins, 1987; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). When support is not available within the family, adolescents tend to define themselves more in terms of dating relationships. Parental divorce and remarriage are factors that may at least temporarily contribute to lower support available to children (Hoelter & Harper, 1987).

Cohesive families provide love and support, and adaptability is related to a type of discipline that reflects a belief in the adolescent's ability to determine his or her life course (Openshaw & Thomas, 1986). Identity achievement during adolescence is best achieved when there is a balance between family connectedness (cohesion) and encouragement of individuality (adaptability) (Campbell, Adams, & Dobson, 1984). In divorced families a democratic style of family

leadership and cohesion were associated with significantly more positive child and parental functioning (Elwood & Stolberg, 1991).

The literature supports the importance of a strong parental marriage to the intimate relationships of children. For example, happy parental marriages contribute to more positive attitudes toward marriage and courtship progress in young women (Long, 1987). An unhappy marriage in the parental generation has been strongly related to unhappy family and marital relationships of married children (Booth & Edwards, 1989). A study by Amato (1991) demonstrated that although attitudes toward divorce have gradually become more accepting, there continues to be a widely-held belief that parental divorce has primarily negative consequences for children. Research also has only gradually shifted from a focus on the pathological aspects of divorce to a redefinition of divorce and its related forms as normative family processes (Ahrons & Rodgers, 1987; Walsh, 1982). A current view holds that although divorce may be a source of considerable stress, it is not the divorce itself but the process that begins somewhere in the past before the divorce and continues afterwards that predicts the adjustment of children (Cherlin, Furstenberg, Chase-Lansdale, Kiernan, Robins, Morrison, & Teitler, 1991; Emery, 1988b).

Ahrons (1979) proposed the concept of the binuclear family in which the original nuclear family is reorganized into two interrelated households. Under the best of circumstances, boundaries in the family are realigned and the focus of the parents shifts from the spousal relationship toward a new relationship that is focused on the welfare of their children. Ahrons and Rodgers (1987) defined a functional divorce as "one in which spouses are able to move through the transitions of

disorganizing the nuclear family without creating severe debilitating crises for themselves and other family members" (p. 131). Factors related to favorable long-term post-divorce adjustment in children are financial resources, cooperation between parents in their parental role, an authoritative style of parenting on the part of the custodial parent, and regular contact and a positive relationship with the non-custodial parent (Emery, 1988b; Kurdek, 1981).

Research indicates that parental conflict that is open and ongoing, whether or not the parents are divorced, has both immediate and long-term negative consequences for children (Chess et al., 1983; Ellison, 1983; Emery, 1982; Emery & O'Leary, 1982; Hetherington, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1979; Kalter, 1987; Porter & O'Leary, 1980; Raschke, 1987), although the effects of conflict may be more deleterious in divorced families (Hetherington & Camara, 1984). Styles of conflict resolution and the degree of cooperation between parents in both divorced and intact families have been found to predict levels of adjustment in children. Hostile, angry, and avoidant parental conflict styles contribute to ongoing conflict and polarized family relationships. Cooperation between parents and the use of compromise produce positive resolution of conflict and increased closeness among family members (Camara & Resnick, 1989).

Based on the existing literature, therefore, young adults' perceptions of the parental relationship, parents' use of a reasoning style of conflict resolution, the quality of their relationship with mother and with father, and family adaptability and cohesion were hypothesized to demonstrate positive relationships with the interpersonal relationship quality of young adults. In addition,

parents' use of threats and of violence to resolve conflict were hypothesized as having a negative relationship with interpersonal relationship quality; further, parental marital status and gender of the subject were hypothesized to demonstrate an association with interpersonal relationship quality.

Personal and Interpersonal Variables

Self-esteem was described by Rosenberg (1965) as the positive or negative attitude toward self as object. Clinebell and Clinebell (1970) contended that there is a direct relationship between self-esteem and intimacy: "a robust sense of one's worth is an essential part of a firm sense of identity; as such, it is a necessary foundation for depth relationships" (p. 71). Further, a person who considers herself or himself to have little value and to be unlovable expects rejection, and rather than risk rejection avoids closeness. This type of person may marry only to get as he or she feels they have little to give. Erikson (1963; 1968) also conceptualized self-esteem as contributing to a strong sense of identity. A person who is unsure of his or her identity may avoid close relationships or "throw himself into acts of intimacy that are 'promiscuous' without true fusion or real self-abandon" (Erikson, 1968, p. 135).

Anxiety has been associated with both parental divorce and conflict. In the immediate aftermath of divorce, children and adolescents may experience acute anxiety related to feelings of fear and vulnerability (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Given time and reasonably favorable circumstances, most children are able to adjust to the changes in their families (Hetherington, 1979). A few studies report, however, that as girls from divorced families approach adulthood, when

relationships with males and issues of intimacy and commitment are at the forefront developmentally, they may experience a delayed reaction to the divorce of their parents in the form of depression and increased anxiety (Hetherington, 1972; Kalter et al., 1985; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989).

Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1989) observed that although young adult males may be concerned about the same issues, they do not seem to experience a similar degree of anxiety in their relationships with females. Guttman (1989), in a study of male Israeli soldiers ages 19 to 21, reported no differences between men from divorced homes and those from intact family backgrounds on measures of intimacy. Keith and Finlay (1988) reported that parental divorce appeared to have no effect on higher status males, indicating that economic and social class factors may mediate the effects for men.

In other studies, parental conflict that is open and ongoing, but not divorce, was related to anxiety among children and adolescents (Holman & Woodroffe-Patrick, 1988; Slater & Haber, 1984). Lauer and Lauer (1991) argued that young adults from problematic family backgrounds are as capable of having relationships that are as meaningful as young people from happy homes. Due to their experiences they may have more doubts and anxieties about their relationships, placing their relationships at increased risk.

The importance of effective conflict management to interpersonal relationships has been dramatically demonstrated in the work of Gottman (1991) and colleagues. Gottman claims to be able to predict with more than 95% accuracy couples at risk for divorce based on observation of the way individuals respond to conflict early in their relationships.

There appears to be little consensus in the literature about how individuals develop a particular style of response to conflict in close relationships. Kalter (1987) described the capacity to modulate aggressive impulses as one of the developmental achievements of childhood and adolescence. This capacity, as well as other important developmental tasks, is the result of an ongoing, caring relationship between parent and child as well as the mutual support and respect between parents that a child observes and absorbs. In an environment of mutual caring and respect the growing child learns to balance his or her own needs with those of others, developing socially adaptive behavior and the ability to be appropriately assertive.

Based on the existing literature, therefore, self-esteem and conflict management skills were hypothesized to have a positive relationship with interpersonal relationship quality in young adults, and anxiety was hypothesized to have a negative relationship. Since previous studies supported the investigation of the role of parental marital status in predicting interpersonal relationship quality in young adults, this variable was included in the research model. In addition, because of the reported differences between males and females in their approach to intimate relationships, gender of subject was also included as a predictor variable (Guttman, 1989; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989). See Figure 1 for a diagram of the hypothesized model.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Methods

Subjects and Procedure

Subjects for this purposive non-randomized study were students at a southwestern university, recruited from the fall and spring enrollments of a course entitled Human Development in the Family. Participation was voluntary. From the fall enrollment of 254 students, 211 (83%) completed the questionnaires, and from the spring enrollment of 241 students, 210 (87%) participated. From the total of 421 questionnaires that were completed, a final sample was selected of 356 students (84% of the total number) who were between the ages of 18 and 24, and who had specified parental marital status as married, separated, or divorced.

The sample was 85% female (n = 303) and 14% male (n = 50), with a mean age of 19.97. Three subjects did not indicate gender. Eighty-nine percent (89%) of the subjects were Caucasian (n = 317), with Native American 5% (n = 17), and African American 3% (n = 12) as the next largest groups, and other 3% (n = 10). Religious preference was indicated as Protestant 73% (n = 260), Catholic 15% (n = 54), Jewish .3% (n = 1), and 11% other (n = 41). Sixty-four percent (n = 227) described themselves as moderately religious, 18% (n = 66) as very religious, 17% (n = 61) as not very religious, and .6% (n = 2) as not religious at all. Current relationship status was reported as 91% single (n = 323), 3% married (n = 12), and 6% engaged (n = 20). Fifty-eight percent (n = 206) reported currently being in a steady relationship, but this figure is not exact since some subjects responded in more than one category (e.g., engaged and going steady).

Family background information indicated that 66% (n = 235) of the parents' marriages were intact, and 34% (n = 121) were divorced or separated. A majority of both parents were employed. Of the fathers, 93% were employed (n = 332), .8% were unemployed (n = 3), 2.5% were retired (n = 9), and 3.4% (n = 12) were deceased or not reported. The mothers were reported as 79% employed (n = 277), 21% not employed (n = 74), .6% retired (n = 2), and .8% (n = 3) either deceased or not reported. Family income was reported by 85% of the subjects as moderate to moderately high (n = 302), high 8% (n = 30), moderately low to low 6% (n = 23). Estimated income levels were consistent with the occupational categories of the parents. A majority of fathers (69%, n = 227) were classified as professional/technical or managers/administrators. Occupations of the remaining 31% of fathers included sales, craftsmen/operatives, farming and service work. Mothers were classified as 54% (n = 147) professional/technical or managers/administrators, and 26% (n = 71) clerical workers, with the remaining 20% as sales persons, craftsmen/operatives, laborers, farmers and service workers.

Measures

The self-report questionnaire used in this study included previously established instruments and revisions of previously established instruments. A standard fact sheet was used to assess demographic characteristics.

The Interpersonal Relationship Scale (IRS). A modification of the Interpersonal Relationship Scale (Guerney, 1977; Schlein, 1971) was used to measure trust and intimacy in the close interpersonal relationships of dating/premarital young adults. The original Likert-type scale of 52 items was used. Sample items were, "In our relationship I am cautious

and play it safe," and "I can express strong, deep feelings to my partner." Response choices ranged from 1 = "strongly agree" to 5 = "strongly disagree." The original instructions were modified to request the subject to "think about a close relationship you are currently involved in, or an important relationship you have been in in the past." While Guerney (1977) reported a two-month test-retest reliability of .92, a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .95 was established with the current sample.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE). Self-esteem was measured using the Guttman format Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1979). A Guttman scale typically consists of a relatively small number of items that measure a unidimensional concept, such as self-esteem, and is constructed in such a way that a subject's answering pattern can be predicted from the total score (Isaac & Michael, 1981; Kerlinger, 1986). Based on responses to 10 items that "deal with a general favorable or unfavorable global self attitude" (Rosenberg, 1979, p. 292), a set of six scales resulting in a single score were used. Scale item I of the RSE was contrived from the combined responses to items 3, 7, and 9; scale item II was based on combined responses to items 4 and 5; scale items III, IV, and V were based on responses to items 1, 8, and 10; and scale item VI was based on responses to items 2 and 6 (Rosenberg, 1979). Sample items were, "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself," and "I certainly feel useless at times." Responses were measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = "strongly agree" to 4 = "strongly disagree." Rosenberg (1979) reported a coefficient of reproductibility of .92, a coefficient of scalability of .72, and test-retest reliabilities of .85 and .88.

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI). Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene (1970) identified two types of anxiety as state anxiety and trait anxiety. State anxiety was defined as a transitory emotional state that occurs in response to a specific stimulus. Trait anxiety was defined as a global, relatively stable characteristic of an individual. This study utilized the state scale only. Instructions for the state scale were modified by asking the subject to think about being in a committed relationship, either one in which they were presently involved, or a future relationship, and to report their emotional response to each statement. The state scale consisted of 20 items that were measured on a 4-point summated rating scale. Response choices ranged from 1 = "not at all" to 4 = "very much so." Sample items were as follows: Anxiety present, "I am tense"; anxiety absent, "I feel calm," and "I feel secure." Reported internal consistency reliability coefficients for the state scale ranged from .83 to .92 (Spielberger et al., 1970). A Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .94 was established, based on the current data.

Conflict Resolution Scale. The conflict management skills of young adults in close interpersonal relationships were measured using the conflict resolution subscale of PREPARE (Fournier, Olson, & Druckman, 1982). Although the scale was designed for engaged couples, the items measure the way conflict is handled by an individual in a relationship. Instructions were altered for this study by asking that subjects think of a close relationship they were presently involved in or a past close relationship as they responded to each statement. The 10 items were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 = "strongly agree" to 5 = "strongly disagree.". Sample items

were, "In order to end an argument, I usually give in," and "When we are having a problem, I can always tell my partner what is bothering me." Based on data obtained from the present study, internal consistency reliability using Cronbach coefficient alpha was .77, slightly higher than the previously reported reliability of .72 (Fournier et al., 1982).

Parent-Child Relationship Survey. Fine, Moreland, and Schwebel (1983) developed this instrument to assess adults' (over age 18) perceptions of the quality of their current relationship with each parent. The relationship dimensions assessed by this scale were the adults' perceptions of their relationships with their parents in regard to trust, closeness, role clarity, perceptual accuracy, anger, communication, respect, and the influence the parent has in their life. Separate 24-item scales were provided for assessing the current status of the relationship with each parent. Sample items were, "How much time do you feel you spend with your father (mother)?", and "How confident are you that your mother (father) would help you when you have a problem?" Items were measured on a seven-point summated scale that varied according to the question. For example, response choices for the first sample item were, "1 = almost none, 7 = a great deal," and for the second sample item, "1 = not at all, 7 = extremely." Authors of the instrument reported internal consistency reliabilities of .94 and .96 (Fine et al., 1983). Internal consistency reliabilities based on the current sample using Cronbach's coefficient alpha were .94 for the mothers scale and .97 for the fathers scale.

Parental Relationship Quality. The perceived quality of the parental relationship was measured by a modified version of the Quality of Coparental Communication Scale (Ahrons, 1983) which measures the

general level of conflict, communication, and support in coparental relationships of divorced couples. The original instrument consisted of two subscales, one addressing conflict (four items), and the other addressing support issues (six items). Because the original scale measured parents' perceptions of their relationships, and the present study focused on young adults' perceptions of parental relationships in intact, separated, or divorced families, items were eliminated that applied only to a divorced situation, and the remaining items were reworded to obtain the subject's perception. For example, the item, "When you and your former spouse discuss parenting issues, how often does an argument result?" was changed to "When your parents discuss parenting issues, how often does an argument result?" Three items that referred specifically to divorced parents were eliminated. The resulting seven items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 = "always" to 5 = "never." Reliability of .86 based on the present sample using Cronbach's coefficient alpha was within the previously reported range of .74 to .88 (Grotevant & Carlson, 1989).

Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS). Perceptions of specific styles of parental conflict resolution were assessed using the Conflict Tactics Scales (Straus, 1979). The CTS measures the use of three modes of dealing with family conflict: (a) the reasoning scale that taps the use of rational discussion, argument, and reasoning; (b) the verbal aggression scale that assesses the use of verbal and non-verbal acts that symbolically hurt another, or the use of threats; and (c) the violence scale that assesses the use of physical force. This study utilized the Father-Mother Conflict Resolution version of Form A, a

self-report instrument composed of a child's perception of 15 possible parental responses to conflict. The items were rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 = "never" to 5 = "more than once a month." For this study the three modes of conflict were treated as three separate scales. Examples from each of the scales were: parents' use of reasoning (PUR), "tried to discuss the issue relatively calmly"; parents' use of threats (PUT), "yelled and/or insulted"; and parents' use of violence (PUV), "threw something at the other person." Internal consistency reliabilities for Form A were reported ranging from .44 to .91 (Straus, 1979). Internal consistency reliability was established using Cronbach's coefficient alpha based on the present data: .78 for parents' use of reasoning, .89 for parents' use of threats, and .94 for parents' use of violence.

Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scale III (FACES III). The two dimensions of family functioning (i.e., cohesion and adaptability) were measured using the "real" form of FACES III (Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell, 1979). The "real" form assesses how individual family members perceive their family to be at the present time, as opposed to the "ideal" form that measures how they would like it to be. The 20-item self-report instrument is based on the Circumplex Model of Family Systems. High scores represent balanced functioning in the areas of cohesion and adaptability, and low scores represent extreme types or unbalanced levels of family functioning (Olson, 1991). Adaptability refers to the ability of a system to change its power structure, role relationships, and rules in response to stress and change, and cohesion is defined as the degree of emotional bonding among family members (Olson et al., 1979). The twenty items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale

ranging from 1 = "almost never" to 5 = "almost always." A sample question from the cohesion scale was, "We like to do things with just our immediate family," and from the adaptability subscale, "Children have a say in their discipline." For the purposes of scoring and analysis, the two subscales were treated as two separate scales, family cohesion (FAMC) and family adaptability (FAMA). Based on the present data, internal consistency reliabilities using Cronbach's coefficient alpha were family cohesion .91 and family adaptability .76, in contrast to previously reported reliabilities of .77 for cohesion, and .62 for adaptability (Grotevant & Carlson, 1989).

Results

The means and standard deviations are reported in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

The matrix of bivariate correlations was examined to identify possible multicollinearity.

Insert Table 2 about here

A correlation of .75 was used as an indicator of multicollinearity. None of the bivariate correlations exceeded this predefined cutoff.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to estimate the proportion of the variance in the criterion variable, quality of interpersonal relationships, that was accounted for by the predictor variables: conflict resolution, self esteem, state anxiety, relationship with father and with mother, the perceived parental relationship, the

parents' use of reasoning, threats, and violence, family cohesion, and family adaptability. A dummy variable for parental marital status (married coded 1, and separated or divorced coded 0) was included as a predictor variable in each regression equation to test for differences between young adults from intact and maritally disrupted family backgrounds. A second dummy variable of gender (male coded 1, female coded 0) was included as a predictor in each regression equation to test for gender differences in interpersonal relationship quality.

In the first regression equation, the model achieved significance, with the primary independent variables accounting for 46% of the variance in interpersonal relationship quality (F = 22.36, p < .0001; see Table 3).

Insert Table 3 about here

Conflict resolution and state anxiety yielded significant beta coefficients in the model (p < .0001; see Table 3). Specifically, conflict resolution resulted in a significant positive beta coefficient in relation to interpersonal relationship quality, while state anxiety yielded a significant negative relationship to interpersonal relationship quality. The other variables, gender, family adaptability, parental marital status, parents' use of reasoning, relationship with mother, parents' use of violence, relationship with father, parents' use of threats, self esteem, parents' relationship and family cohesion were not significantly related to interpersonal relationship quality.

Regression equation with interaction variables

Because parental marital status was a variable of particular interest in this study, in a second equation, in addition to the primary independent variables, an additional set of variables was entered to test for possible interaction between marital status and the primary independent variables. A set of interaction terms was computed by multiplying parental marital status (coded 1 = married, 0 = divorced or separated) by each of the continuous variables in the original model (i.e., conflict resolution, self esteem, state anxiety, relationship with father, relationship with mother, parents' relationship, parents' use of reasoning, threats, and violence, family cohesion, and family adaptability). Results of the multiple regression analysis using this total set of variables indicated the variance in the dependent variable increased from 46% to 49% (F = 12.85, $p < .0001$; see Table 4).

Insert Table 4 about here

As in the original model, conflict resolution and state anxiety remained significant variables (p = .0001; see Table 4). Family adaptability was also significantly related to interpersonal relationship quality ($p <$ .05; see Table 4). None of the interaction terms were significantly related to the criterion variable. The extent to which multicollinearity existed within the model was examined more precisely by conducting a tolerance test using the default value of .01 as the low level for tolerance. No variable was found to exceed this value.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which selected personal, interpersonal, and family factors predicted the interpersonal relationship quality of young adults. Partial support was found for the research hypotheses, particularly those regarding conflict management and anxiety. None of the interaction terms, which were included in the second equation to test for possible interaction between parental marital status and each of the predictor variables, was found to have a significant relationship with interpersonal relationship quality. This research, therefore, failed to support parental marital status as an important variable in predicting relationship quality in young adults.

Research indicates that the ability to manage conflict effectively is essential to the viability of marital relationships (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Gottman, 1991). It is not surprising, therefore, that conflict management skills showed a strong relationship with interpersonal relationship quality in young adults. The findings of this study suggest that individuals who are anxious and fearful, especially in regard to close interpersonal relationships, are less able to establish and maintain the personal boundaries necessary to close interpersonal relationships.

Bowen (1971) described the two forces in human emotional systems as togetherness (fusion) and individuality (autonomy). The quality of relationships depends on the ability of the persons involved to achieve a functional balance between emotions and intellect. When anxiety or intense emotional reactivity takes over, fusion rather than true mutuality occurs (Kerr, 1981). At higher levels of differentiation the

"I" position is predominant. "The 'I' position defines principle and action in terms of 'this is what I think or believe' and 'this is what I will do or not do,' without impinging one's own values and beliefs on others" (Bowen, 1972, p. 140). Lerner's (1990) definition of intimacy reflected Bowen's position. Intimacy requires that we be "who we are" in a relationship and allow the other person to do the same. "'Being who we are' requires that we can talk openly about things that are important to us, that we can take a clear position on where we stand on important emotional issues, and that we clarify the limits of what is acceptable and tolerable to us in a relationship" (p. 3).

As predicted, there was a strong negative relationship between state anxiety (anxiety related specifically to being in a close relationship) and interpersonal relationship quality. The results did not provide support for a relationship between parental marital status and relational anxiety, nor was gender a significant factor. The absence of gender differences may be related to the relatively small number of males in the sample.

Although self-esteem was significantly correlated with interpersonal relationship quality in the bivariate analysis, it was not found to be a significant factor in the multivariate model. This result suggests the possibility of a curvilinear relationship between self-esteem and interpersonal relationship quality, with moderate levels of self-esteem predicting higher quality interpersonal relationships. The relatively high mean score for self-esteem indicates the need for further research in this area using alternative measures of self-esteem, as well as a more heterogeneous sample.

The data failed to support the hypotheses concerning relationships with either parent, the parents' relationship, parents' use of reasoning, threats, and violence, family cohesion, or family adaptability. It is important to learn more about how families may best contribute to the ability of young adults to establish and maintain intimate relationships. A model using path analysis is needed to test for possible indirect relationships.

The sample used in this research was predominantly Caucasian, middle class, Protestant, and female. It would be inappropriate, therefore, to generalize the findings to a larger population. Further research is needed using a random sample that represents a more diverse population from different geographical locations. The strong association between anxiety and interpersonal relationship quality indicates a need for further study using other measures of anxiety to clarify relationships and differences.

A systems perspective suggests that the quality of intimate relationships in young adults is influenced by a number of interacting variables from different systems levels (Kurdek, 1981). Other important areas for research would be the influence of family size, sibling configuration, and sibling relationships, as well as peer relationships. The contributions of the larger social and cultural environment to the behavior and attitudes of young adults in regard to intimate relationships is another important potential area for research.

The results of this study suggest a number of issues for family educators and for clinical practice. For example, for family therapists working with young adults and families with young adult members, separation and individuation from family of origin are major issues.

Anxiety may be viewed as a symptom of emotional fusion with the family of origin (Lauer & Lauer, 1991). The therapeutic task is to assist family members toward the resolution of problematic issues, and to help move the young person toward a more adult-to-adult relationship with his or her parents. The goal is not total independence but a comfortable interdependence with the family of origin. "Some balance must be struck between the attainment of appropriate autonomy and the continuing need that all adults have for help from others . . ." (Cohler & Geyer, 1982, p. 208).

The results of this study clearly indicate that success in intimate relationships is related to the ability to achieve a balance between separateness and togetherness that is reflected in the ability to be appropriately assertive concerning one's own needs and limits in a relationship. Managing conflict effectively is an important skill that needs to be addressed in both educational and therapeutic settings.

The model that was developed appeared to explain a significant portion of variance in interpersonal relationship quality of young adults. The purpose of the research was to begin to explore an area that has received little empirical attention. The importance of the study may lie in the number of directions for further research that its findings suggest.

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Table 1

Scale Means and Standard Deviations

	M	SD	Theoretical Range	Actual Range*
Interpersonal Relationship	216.60	28.14	52-260	129-260
Conflict Resolution	34.03	7.77	10-50	13-50
Self-esteem	1.60	1.43	0-24	0-6
State Anxiety	36.19	11.20	20-80	20-72
Relationship with father	122.29	35.43	24-168	30-167
Relationship with mother	140.44	23.18	24-168	45-168
Parents' Relationship	24.29	6.08	7-35	7-35
Parents' use of Reasoning	20.03	8.14	0-40	0-40
Parents' use of Threats	14.17	11.55	0-50	0-50
Parents' use of Violence	4.33	9.96	0-60	0-60
Family cohesion	36.09	8.99	10-50	10-50
Family Adaptability	24.83	6.96	10-50	10-43

*controlled for missing values

Table 2

Correlation Matrix of Primary Variables

	IRQ	CR	SE	SA	RF	RM	PR
IRQ	1.00						
CR	0.59****	1.00					
SE	-0.31****	-0.30****	1.00				
SA	-0.57****	-0.48****	0.49****	1.00			
RF	0.13**	0.12*	-0.16***	-0.12*	1.00		
RM	0.13**	0 07	-0.18****	-0.12*	0.14**	1.00	
PR	0.13**	0.10*	-0.19****	-0.16**	0.60****	0.23****	1.00
PUR	-0.08	-0.06	-0.03	0.05	0.15**	0.04	0.18****
PUT	-0.12*	-0.12**	0.11*	0.12*	-0.28****	-0.19****	-0.47****
PUV	-0.05	-0.12*	0.12*	0.07	-0.38****	-0.08	-0.40****
FC	0.18****	0.15**	-0.25****	-0.24****	0.36****	0.59****	0.43****
FA	0.02	-0.08**	-0.07	-0.04	0.11*	0.16***	0.15**
PMS	0.09*	0.09*	-0.06	-0.05	0.38****	0.13**	0.47****
G	-0.12*	-0.13**	-0.05	0.06	0.02	-0.04	-0.03

IRQ = Interpersonal Relationship Quality; CR = Conflict resolution; SE = Self-Esteem;

SA = State Anxiety; RF = Relationship with Father;

RM = Relationship with Mother; PR = Parents' Relationship;

PUR = Parents' use of Reason; PUT = Parents' use of Threats;

PUV = Parents' use of Violence; FC = Family Cohesion: FA = Family Adaptability;

PMS = Parental Marital Status; G = Gender

*$p \leq .05$; **$p \leq .01$; ***$p \leq .001$; ****$p \leq .0001$

Table 2 (Continued)

	PUR	PUT	PUV	FC	FA	PMS	G
IRQ							
CR							
SE							
SA							
RF							
RM							
PR							
PUR	1.00						
PUT	0.16***	1.00					
PUV	0.01	0.54****	1.00				
FC	0.10*	-0.29****	-0.12*	1.00			
FA	0.13**	-0.08	-0.00	0.42****	1.00		
PMS	0.09*	-0.17***	-0.27****	0.19****	0.01	1.00	
G	0.07	0.05	0.08	-0.02	0.02	0.04	1.00

Table 3

Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Personal, Interpersonal, and Family Variables with Interpersonal Relationship Quality: Step 1

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.59****	1.48	0.17	0.41	8.71	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.31****	-0.03	0.93	0.00	-0.03	0.97
State Anxiety	-0.57****	-0.91	0.13	-0.36	-7.14	0.00****
Relationship with father	0.13**	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.83	0.40
Relationship with mother	0.13**	0.08	0.06	0.06	1.22	0.22
Parents' relationship	0.13**	0.05	0.28	0.01	0.18	0.86
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.08	-0.15	0.15	-0.04	-1.01	0.31
Parents use of threats	-0.12*	-0.07	0.13	-0.03	-0.56	0.58
Parents' use of violence	-0.05	0.23	0.14	0.08	1.60	0.11
Family cohesion	0.18****	-0.14	0.19	-0.04	-0.75	0.46
Family adaptability	0.02	0.21	0.18	0.05	1.13	0.26
Parents' marital status	0.09*	2.38	2.77	0.04	0.86	0.39
Gender	-0.12*	-3.62	3.34	-0.04	-1.08	0.28

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.68
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.46
F - Value	22.36****

$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 4

Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Personal, Interpersonal, and Family Variables, and Interaction Terms with Interpersonal Relationship Quality: Step 2

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.59****	1.42	0.30	0.39	4.68	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.31****	-0.18	1.58	-0.01	-0.12	0.91
State Anxiety	-0.57****	-1.18	0.21	-0.47	-5.60	0.00****
Relationship with father	0.13**	0.02	0.06	0.02	0.29	0.77
Relationship with mother	0.13**	0.10	0.10	0.08	1.03	0.30
Parents' relationship	0.13**	-0.28	0.40	-0.06	-0.70	0.49
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.08	-0.18	0.28	-0.05	-0.66	0.51
Parents' use of threats	-0.12*	0.12	0.21	0.05	0.60	0.55
Parents' use of violence	-0.05	0.10	0.20	0.04	0.49	0.63
Family cohesion	0.18****	-0.07	0.30	-0.02	-0.25	0.80
Family adaptability	0.02	0.73	0.33	0.18	2.18	0.03*
Parents' marital status	0.09*	0.90	29.79	0.02	0.03	0.98
Gender	-0.12*	-3.35	3.44	-0.04	-0.97	0.33
Conflict resolution X Parental Marital Status	0.26****	0.08	0.37	0.05	0.23	0.82
Self Esteem X Parental Marital Status	-0.16***	-0.12	1.96	0.00	-0.06	0.95
State Anxiety X Parental Marital Status	-0.12*	0.42	0.26	0.28	1.57	0.12
Father Relationship X Parental Marital Status	0.13**	0.12	0.09	0.28	1.26	0.20
Mother Relationship X Parental Marital Status	0.11*	-0.07	0.13	-0.16	-0.51	0.61

Table 4 (Continued)

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Parents' Relationship X Parental Marital Status	0.13**	0.40	0.57	0.18	0.70	0.49
Use of reasoning X Parental Marital Status	0.04	0.08	0.33	0.04	0.26	0.80
Use of threats X Parental Marital Status	-0.06	-0.28	0.28	-0.11	-1.02	0.31
Use of violence X Parental Marital Status	-0.08	0.07	0.30	0.02	0.23	0.82
Family Cohesion X Parental Marital Status	0.12**	-0.28	0.40	-0.19	-0.70	0.48
Family Adaptability X Parental Marital Status	0.07	-0.75	0.40	-0.35	-1.87	0.06
Multiple Correlation (R)			0.70			
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)			0.49			
F - Value			12.85****			

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

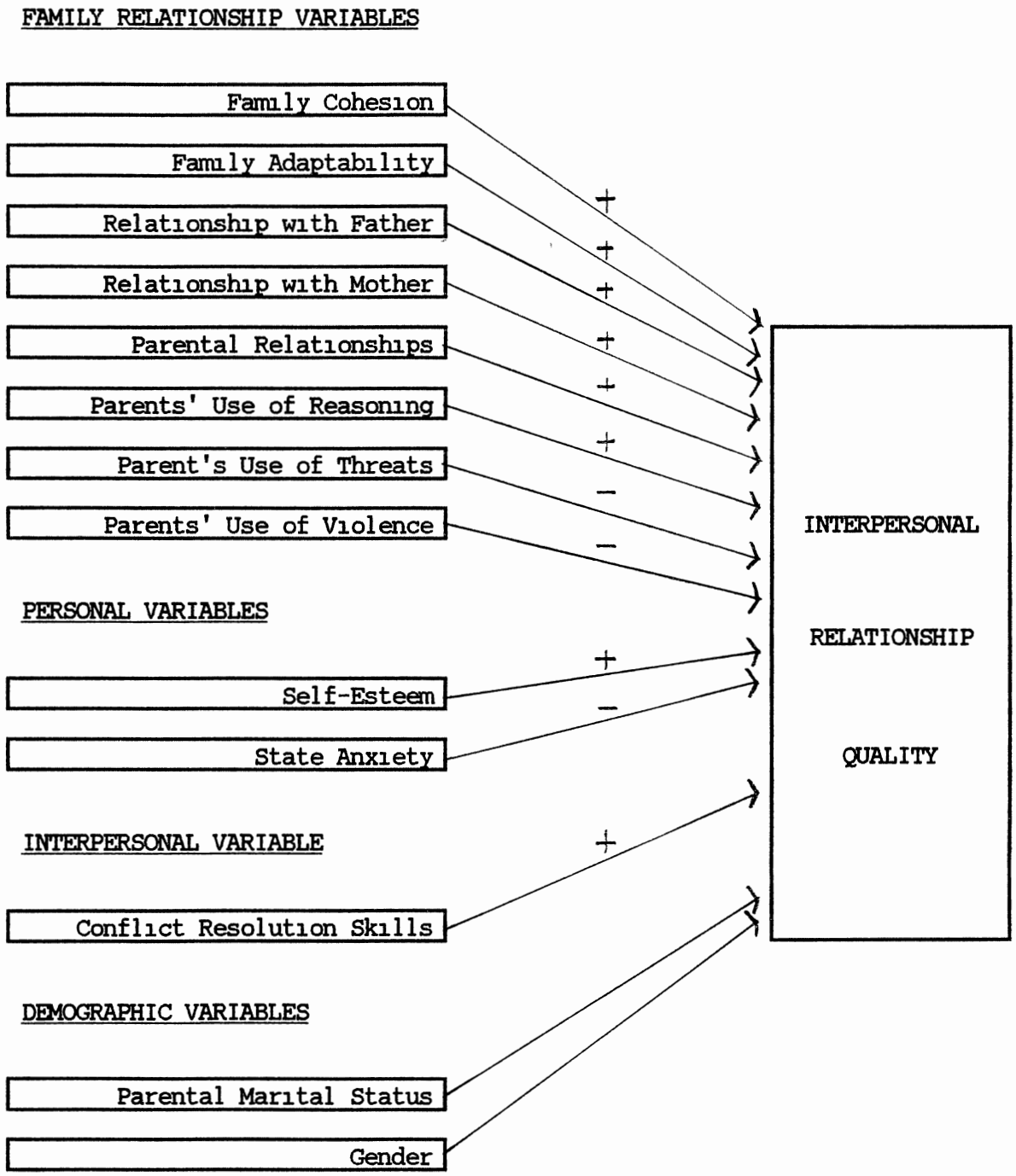

Figure 1. Conceptual Model of Predictors of Interpersonal Relationship Quality of Young Adults

The Interpersonal Relationship Scale: A Validation Study

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the Interpersonal Relationship Scale. Using factor analysis, six factors representing trust and intimacy were identified. Concurrent validity for the scale and internal reliability estimates for each of the subscales were established. This preliminary testing indicated that the Interpersonal Relationship Scale was a reliable and valid measure for use in research.

Introduction

The high rate of divorce among children of divorced parents (Glick, 1988) has contributed to concern about the quality of intimate relationships in young adults (Glenn & Kramer, 1985). Glenn and Kramer (1985) commented, "...the increase in the proportion of adults who are children of divorce in the next few decades will lead, in the absence of countervailing influences, to a steady and non-trivial decline in the overall level of well-being of the American adult population" (p. 911).

In recent years, researchers have sought to understand and assess factors that contribute to greater marital instability among young adults whose parents divorced when they were children. For example, findings suggest that children of divorce were less likely to have had parents who provided adequate spousal role models (Pope & Mueller, 1976); they may be less trusting and more cautious about entering a committed relationship (Booth, Brinkerhoff, & White, 1984; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989); and they may be less committed to marriage and more willing to resort to divorce when marital problems arise (Glenn & Kramer, 1987). Lauer and Lauer (1991) argued that adults from divorced backgrounds are as capable as others of establishing intimate relationships, but they may have more doubts and anxieties about their relationships, thereby placing their relationships at increased risk.

Theorists having widely differing world views have identified the formation of intimate relationships as one of the major tasks of young adulthood. From a family systems perspective, Carter and McGoldrick

(1980) designated "Unattached Young Adult" as the first stage in the family life cycle. The primary task of the young adult is to come to terms with his or her family of origin as a basic requirement for becoming a "self" and joining with another to form a new family subsystem. From an individual, psychodynamic point of view, Erikson (1963; 1968) identified the development of a sense of identity as the major task of adolescence and the development of a capacity for intimacy as the task of young adults. Erikson was among the first of the psychodynamic theorists to emphasize the importance of the interpersonal, environmental and cultural factors in development (Goldstein, 1984), thereby providing a bridge toward a more contextual, systemic focus.

A number of measures have been developed to assess the quality of intimate relationships. For example, several assessment procedures are available to study relationship quality in the context of marriage (e.g., Fournier, Olson, & Druckman, 1982; Schafer & Olson, 1981; Spanier, 1976), and for other types of close interpersonal relationships such as those of engaged couples (Fournier et al., 1982), and social relationships in general (Miller & Lefcourt, 1982). Stephen and Markman (1983) designed an instrument to measure the development of a shared world view in couples. Measures of single aspects of psychosocial intimacy such as trust (Larzelere & Huston, 1980), self-monitoring (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985), self-disclosure (Jourard, 1971), and romantic love (Rubin, 1970) are also available. A number of these instruments are self-report measures providing an assessment of a relationship from an individual perspective; however, the focus is on intimacy as the quality of a relationship. Several measures are based

on Erikson's conceptualization of intimacy as an individual capacity. The Intimacy Status Interview (Orlofsky, Marcia, & Lesser, 1973) was developed to measure intimacy capacity in college men. Tesch and Whitbourne (1982) expanded the intimacy status measure to apply to women as well. A self-report measure, the Psychosocial Intimacy Questionnaire (Tesch, 1985) was developed to use with adults and adolescents in same- and opposite-sex relationships.

One of the issues in both the theory and measurement of intimacy is the question of whether intimacy is a property of individuals in a relationship or of the dyad (Acitelli & Duck, 1987; Stephen & Markman, 1983). Acitelli and Duck (1987) argued that intimacy is best understood as a function of both the qualities individuals bring to relationships as well as the nature of the interaction between them. In their words, "individual capacities should not be identified as ends in themselves but, to the extent that they influence intimate behavior between partners, so that intimacy is seen as a particular blend of individual and social influences" (p. 299). The PREPARE-ENRICH Inventories were identified as one of the few tools specifically designed to provide "systematic and objective assessments of both personal and relationship issues for couples" (Fournier et al., 1983, pp. 229-230). These measures were developed to use with married couples (ENRICH) and engaged couples (PREPARE).

A study was designed to examine the relationship between parental marital status and other personal and relationship variables and the quality of interpersonal relationships of young adults. An assessment tool was needed for the study that would tap both individual and relationship aspects of close interpersonal relationships of young

adults who were not married, most of whom were not engaged, and who may or may not be dating steadily. From a search of available measures, the Interpersonal Relationship Scale (Schlein, 1971) appeared to fulfill the requirements of this project. The purpose of the present study was to establish reliability and validity for this scale.

The Interpersonal Relationship Scale

The Interpersonal Relationship Scale (IRS) was developed by Schlein (1971) in collaboration with Guerney and Stover for use in a research project to evaluate the effectiveness of PRIMES (Program for Relationship Improvement by Maximizing Empathy and Self-Disclosure), a relationship enhancement program for dating/premarital couples (Guerney, 1977; Schlein, 1971). PRIMES emphasized effective communication as essential not only for close relationships but as a major component of mental health, and an indicator of maturity in interpersonal functioning. In the process of developing an instrument for the study to measure the quality of interpersonal relationships, Schlein (1971) identified trust and intimacy as two correlates essential to communication within an intimate interpersonal relationship. Trust was described as most likely to occur where two people are positively oriented to each other's welfare. Intimacy was proposed as the core of interpersonal competencies in a conjugal relationship. A number of concepts were identified as attributes or correlates of intimacy such as empathy, genuineness, and self-disclosure, and "acceptance, respect and admiration, understanding, friendship and companionship, ease in communication, sharing, caring and concern, wanting to please, striving for mutual goals, interdependence, pride, trust, belonging together, similarity of thought, indebtedness, gladness and peace, expansion,

reciprocity, and sexual relations" (Schlein, 1971, pp. 14-15). The scale was constructed from an original pool of 106 items that reflected the constructs of trust and intimacy. A panel of eight judges with expertise in the field of interpersonal relationships rated each item according to its capacity to measure the two constructs. Through a process of revision and elimination, a 52 item scale was devised that specifically dealt with trust and intimacy in a dating/premarital relationship.

Although Schlein (1971) discussed a number of concepts related to close interpersonal relationships, the specific dimensions of intimacy within the scale were not examined. In the current study, in addition to establishing reliability and validity for the scale, a factor analysis was performed to identify the particular dimensions the IRS measures.

Sample and Procedure

This study was part of a larger study titled Predictors of Interpersonal Relationship Quality of Young Adults. Subjects for this purposive, non-randomized study were students recruited from the fall and spring enrollments of an undergraduate course entitled Human Development in the Family. Participation was voluntary. From the fall enrollment of 254 students, 211 (83%) agreed to complete the questionnaires, and from the spring enrollment of 241 students, 210 (87%) participated. From the total of 421 questionnaires that were completed, a final sample of 356 students was selected who were between the ages of 18 and 24, and who had specified parental marital status as married, separated, or divorced. The sample consisted of 85% females (n = 303), and 14% males (n = 50). Three subjects did not indicate

gender. The mean age was 19.97. A majority, 89%, were Caucasian (n = 317), with Native American 5% (n = 17), and African American 3% (n = 12) as the next largest groups, and 3% (n = 10) representing all other groups. Current relationship status was reported as 91% single (n = 323), 3% married (n = 12), .3% previously married (n = 1), and 6% engaged (n = 20). Fifty-eight percent (n = 206) reported currently being in a steady relationship, but this figure is not exact as some subjects reported in more than one category (e.g., engaged and going steady). Parental marital status was reported as 66% intact (n = 235), and 34% divorced or separated (n = 121). Family income was estimated by 85% as moderate to moderately high (n = 302), 8% high (n = 30), and 6% moderately low to low (n = 23).

The original instructions for the IRS were, "This is a questionnaire to determine the attitudes and feelings you have in your relationship with your partner. We are interested in the relationship as it is, not in the way you think it should be. Please answer by giving as true a picture of your feelings and beliefs as possible." The instructions were modified as follows: "As you respond to the following statements, think about a close relationship that you are currently involved in, or an important close relationship you have been in in the past. Please answer the statements by giving as true a picture of your feelings and beliefs as they are now, or were when you were involved in the previous relationship, not the way you think it should be or should have been." Sample items were "In our relationship, I'm cautious and play it safe" and "I feel relaxed when we are together." Each item was rated on a five-point scale in a Likert format ("strongly agree" to "strongly disagree").

Analysis and Results

Means and standard deviations are reported for the IRS in Table 5

Insert Table 5 about here

An overall reliability estimate of the IRS (alpha = .95) was established using the SPSS (SPSS, Inc., 1988) reliability analysis, Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Construct validity was established using principal components factoring followed by varimax rotation, a procedure used in the exploratory testing of scales (Jackson & Chan, 1980; Kim & Mueller, 1978). The principal components factoring yielded 12 subscales. Six of the subscales contained two or less items having factor loadings above 30. For this reason, a second principal components factoring was done forcing the items into six factors. Based on the observation of Tabachnik and Fidell (1983) that factor loadings in excess of .30 are eligible for analysis, two items that failed to reach this level were dropped from further analysis. These two items were, "When serious disagreements arise between us, I respect my partner's position," and "I get a lot of sympathy and understanding from my partner." The six subscales that were created contained a total of 50 items and accounted for 46% of the variance in the scale.

In choosing labels to characterize each of the subscales, there were two considerations: (a) a unifying concept was identified for each group, with greater attention given to items having higher loadings (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983); and (b) the terms suggested by Schlein (1971) were given priority. Factor 1, representing 14% of the variance, contained 18 items that appeared to represent trust. The second item,

representing 10% of the variance, included 14 items that reflected issues related to self-disclosure. The remaining factors represented an additional 22% of the variance. The third factor (8%) contained four items that tapped the concept of genuineness. The fourth factor (6%) represented empathy and contained five variables. Comfort, represented in the fifth factor (5%), contained six items. The sixth factor (3%) included three items related to communication.

Reliability estimates for the six subscales were established using the SPSS (SPSS, Inc. 1988) reliability analysis, coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Reliability for the trust scale was .91; self-disclosure, .86; genuineness, .83; empathy, .77; comfort, .72; and communication, .71 (see Table 5). The item in the communication subscale, "I can accept my partner even when we disagree" (factor loading of .37) was found to lower the reliability coefficient of that scale to .63. This item also did not appear to contribute conceptually to the concept of communication, and it was therefore eliminated, resulting in a final total IRS scale of 49 items (see Table 6).

Insert Table 6 about here

Concurrent validity was established based on Pearson correlations among the IRS, the conflict resolution scale (CR) from PREPARE (Fournier et al., 1983), and the State scale (SA) from the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Speilberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970). Internal consistency reliability coefficients based on the present sample were: IRS, .95; CR, .77; and SA, .94. The conflict resolution scale was significantly and positively correlated (r = .59; p < .0001) with the IRS, and the State

Anxiety scale was significantly negatively correlated (r = -.58; p < .0001).

Discussion and Conclusions

This evaluation of the Interpersonal Relationship Scale supports the reliability and validity of the instrument. Principal components factoring followed by varimax rotation supported the construct validity of IRS by confirming that the scale measured the underlying dimensions of trust and intimacy as predicted by Schlein (1971). Schlein described trust as occurring when two people are positively oriented to one another's welfare. The trust scale appeared to correspond more closely to Larzelere and Huston's (1980) definition of dyadic trust as existing "to the extent that a person believes another person (or persons) to be benevolent and honest" (p. 596). In addition, the data supported Schlein's conceptualization of intimacy as a multidimensional construct reflecting the essential correlates of effective communication and marital adjustment. Concurrent validity was estimated in relation to the Conflict Resolution subscale and the State Anxiety subscale. The factor loadings and Cronbach's alphas indicate the IRS is appropriate for use in research.

The present study was based on a limited sample that was predominantly Caucasian, middle-class, and female. Further validation studies are needed with randomly selected subjects from diverse backgrounds and geographical locations. This preliminary testing of the IRS however, indicates that it is a useful measure of the quality of interpersonal relationships of young adults.

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Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities for the Subscales of the Interpersonal Relationship Scale

Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number of Items	Alpha
Trust	73.37	13.44	18	.91
Self-disclosure	57.26	9.24	14	.86
Genuineness	17.75	2.80	4	.83
Empathy	18.32	4.72	5	.77
Comfort	27.78	2.77	6	.72
Communication	9.30	.99	2	.71

Table 6

Principal Components Factoring Followed by Varimax Rotation for the Interpersonal Relationship Scale

Item	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6
TRUST (N = 346)*						
partner cannot be trusted	.81	.10	.06	.09	.14	.05
partner would lie	.73	.07	12	.09	.07	.09
I have to be alert	.62	.11	.19	.20	.11	.02
partner fears being caught	.62	.16	-.04	.15	-.07	.01
I don't trust too much	.60	.35	.13	.07	-.02	.13
gives objective account?	.59	.19	.06	.25	.03	.06
partner telling the truth?	.59	.27	.10	.15	-.02	.08
I expect to be exploited	.56	.10	.03	.31	.04	.10
partner can be counted on	.53	.08	.39	.06	.11	.02
partner would not cheat	.52	.10	.26	.01	.04	-.03
partner keeps promises	.51	.09	.40	.03	.12	.06
partner treats me fairly	.48	.12	.40	.30	.13	.06
partner's advice trustworthy	.44	.24	.19	.26	.09	.15
partner may hurt my feelings	.41	.14	.04	.41	.00	.05
partner pretends to care	.41	.25	.38	.24	.02	.12
says what he/she believes	.41	.24	.35	.02	.11	.11
does he/she really care?	.40	.34	.23	32	-.06	.06
I believe most things he/she says	.40	.13	.19	.11	.29	.09
SELF-DISCLOSURE (N = 350)*						
I can express feelings	.07	.66	.12	.10	.13	.25
I can express anything	.10	.63	.14	.19	.27	.04
I can expose weakness	.15	.60	.09	.19	.30	-.01
do not show deep emotions	.17	.60	.11	.06	.06	.10
I share problems	.12	.58	.07	.11	.38	.21
I tell things I'm ashamed of	.13	.55	.15	.03	.16	.13
It's hard to tell about myself	.16	.52	.02	.30	.07	.17
I tell about people disliking me	.17	.48	.17	-.13	.09	.19
we are very close	.26	.46	.26	.12	.31	.13
I'm cautious	.22	.44	.02	.17	.04	-.10
I discuss worries	.16	.43	.07	-.01	.14	.08
I'm afraid of making mistakes	.11	.38	.02	.29	-.02	-.01
I touch when feeling warm	.02	.35	.32	.18	.13	-.07
It's hard to act natural	.27	.34	.16	.18	.11	.11
GENUINENESS (N = 355)*						
partner really cares	.22	.26	.74	.06	.07	.12
interested in my welfare	.22	.18	.70	.10	.20	.12
partner's promises sincere	.52	.13	.63	.13	.18	.01
partner practices what he/she preaches	.45	.06	.48	.24	.16	.05
EMPATHY (N = 355)*						
fear I may be misunderstood	.22	.05	.10	.67	.05	.14
partner misinterprets	.22	.08	.13	.64	.11	.07
I may regret what I do or say	.16	.21	.00	.45	.03	.18
partner doesn't understand	.34	.39	.17	.44	.10	.18
partner has hidden reasons	.38	.19	.17	.43	-.02	.06

Table 6 (Continued)

Item	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6
COMFORT (N = 355)*						
when I face trouble	.02	34	04	01	.65	.03
when I'm lonely	.01	.12	12	00	.65	14
I feel comfortable	.02	09	03	05	.57	-.03
when I receive bad news	.04	30	14	01	.44	.12
I feel relaxed	.22	.22	21	20	.40	.18
I face life with confidence	.19	.33	.17	.13	.33	.22
COMMUNICATION (N = 355)*						
I listen to my partner	05	25	.01	12	.12	.69
I understand my partner	.12	.13	.13	.23	.07	.65
Eigen value	33.91	7.92	4.53	2 95	2.55	2.01
Proportion of variance	14.50	9.85	8.01	5.60	4.92	3.49
Cronbach alphas	.91	86	.83	.77	.72	.71

* Variations due to missing values

Appendix A

Literature Review

Introduction and Rationale

> When social changes come rather suddenly, as they have during successive periods since the National Council on Family Relations was organized, the problem of adjustment is especially great and leads to increasing signs of personal and family stress (Glick, 1988, p. 871).

Glick, as well as other demographers and researchers, documented the dramatic changes that have taken place in families within the past fifty years. Although the generation that is approaching adulthood during the last decade of the twentieth century may have come from diverse family backgrounds and faced challenges far different from those of a similar cohort 50 years ago, Glick (1988) argued, "the preferred goal of most young adults will continue to be a permanent first marriage" (p. 872). Further, Glick tentatively observed that the possible rapid spread of the AIDS virus may contribute to more early and permanent first marriages. These observations suggest questions concerning the quality of interpersonal relationships of young adults, as well as the factors that contribute to successful relationships.

McGoldrick and Carter (1982) proposed a systemic version of the family life cycle that begins with the "Unattached Young Adult" who is "Between Families" (p. 176). According to this conceptualization, the basic task of the young adult at this stage is to come to terms with his

or her family of origin. This involves attaining appropriate autonomy while establishing a comfortable interdependence with the parental generation (Cohler & Geyer, 1982). Problems in this stage are usually related to the young adult remaining inappropriately dependent or else breaking away in a pseudo-independent cutoff. According to Bowen's (1971) theory of family systems, young adults who cut off emotional ties with parents do so reactively and, in turn, remain emotionally dependent. Young adulthood is seen as the cornerstone of adulthood, "It is a time to formulate personal life goals and to become a 'self' before joining with another to form a new family subsystem" (McGoldrick & Carter, 1982, p. 175).

In a similar manner, from an intrapsychic perspective, Erikson (1963; 1968) identified identity formation as the central task of adolescence, and the establishment of an intimate mode of interpersonal relationship as the major developmental issue for young adults. Successful resolution of this central task of young adulthood is reflected in a capacity to commit oneself to enduring intimate relationships that are characterized by a high degree of closeness and communication (Orlofsky, in press).

Concern about the relationship between parental marital status and interpersonal relationship formation in young adults is related, in part, to the reported high rate of divorce among children whose parents were divorced or separated (Glenn & Kramer, 1987; Glick, 1988; Greenberg & Nay, 1982; Mueller & Pope, 1977; Pope & Mueller, 1976). In a ten-year follow-up report from the California Children of Divorce Project, Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1989) noted, "At entry into young adulthood, every child in our study is afraid of repeating his or her parents'

failure to maintain a loving relationship" (p. 56). Cherlin, Furstenberg, Chase-Lansdale, Kiernan, Robins, Morrison, and Teitler (1991) contended that it is not divorce but the process that begins somewhere in the past and continues afterwards that predicts the adjustment of children. Other empirical evidence points specifically to parental conflict rather than divorce as a key factor in adjustment of children (Amato & Keith, 1991; Chess, Thomas, Korn, Mittleman, & Cohen, 1983; Emery, 1982; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1979; Kalter, 1987). Research concerning factors that contribute to the adjustment of young adults is often conflicting and inconclusive (Glenn & Kramer, 1987; Guttman, 1989; Kulka & Weingarten, 1979; Nock, 1982), indicating the need for further research in this area.

A search of the literature revealed little information concerning the factors that contribute to interpersonal relationship formation in young adults. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to examine how personal, interpersonal, and family variables predicted interpersonal relationship quality in young adults. An assumption of this research was that the quality of close interpersonal relationships is an important measure of social competence and well-being in young adults (Erikson, 1968). A number of factors were identified as predictors of well-being in older adolescents and young adults, and therefore predictors of the quality of interpersonal functioning. These factors included self-esteem (Clinebell & Clinebell, 1970; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986), anxiety (Lauer & Lauer, 1991; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980), the ability to manage interpersonal conflict (Gottman, 1991; Kalter, 1987), perceptions of relationships with both parents (Elwood & Stolberg, 1991; Hoelter & Harper, 1987;

Peterson & Rollins, 1987) and the parents' relationship with one another (Booth & Edwards, 1989; Long, 1987), parental conflict tactics (Camara & Resnick, 1989; Emery, 1982), family styles of cohesion and adaptability (Campbell, Adams, & Dobson, 1984; Openshaw & Thomas, 1986), the parental marital status (Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989), and gender (Guttman, 1989). Family systems theory provided an integrative framework for this study which was concerned with individual development occurring in a contextual framework of family relationships.

This review of the literature was organized according to the following major headings: (a) introduction and rationale; (b) theoretical background; (c) interpersonal relationship quality; (d) personal and interpersonal variables; (e) family variables; and (f) conclusion. These major headings relate closely to the two articles that are a part of this dissertation, and provide both a view of the theoretical bases for the study as well as a review of relevant research.

The theoretical background section focuses on relevant family systems assumptions and concepts, the family developmental perspective, and the divorced family system. Later sections review selected research related to the variables used in the current study.

Theoretical Background

Family Systems

General Systems Theory as described by Bertalanffy (1968) provides the basis for the family systems perspective, the view that a family is a system having properties and operating in accord with the rules and principles that apply to all living systems. Like other systems, the family is composed of interrelated parts that operate within the context

of a broader sociocultural system. A change in one part of the system brings about changes in other parts of the system (Hill, 1972; Walsh, 1982).

Bronfenbrenner (1979) described human development as occurring in an ecological environment of nested contexts, including the cultural and social beliefs and attitudes surrounding the family, the social supports available, the immediate family interaction, and the individual psychological competencies of the developing child (Kurdek, 1981). Kurdek emphasized the importance of considering the interaction of a number of variables from different systems levels. In a closely related conceptualization, Peterson and Rollins (1987) described parent-child socialization as occurring in terms of the family role system and surrounding social networks. They argued that dyadic conceptualizations are too limited because "families and social networks are organized systems of intercontingent relationships that affect each other directly and indirectly" (Peterson & Rollins, 1987, p. 496). The nature of the parental interaction, for example, may indirectly impact the quality of the parent-child relationship. In a study of styles of conflict resolution and cooperation between divorced parents, Camara and Resnick (1989) demonstrated that parents who used compromise to resolve differences were more likely to have positive relationships with their children. On the other hand, conflict avoidance tactics on the part of the mother appeared to contribute to a poor father-child relationship.

Circular causality is a similar concept which describes the complex nature of family interaction. A change in one part of the system affects all other parts of the system and in turn affects the first member or part of the system (Simon, Stierlin, & Wynne, 1985). An

example of this type of interaction is provided by Peterson and Rollins (1987). A father's use of coercion in his role as child-socializer may contribute to the child's displacement of anger in the form of non-compliant behavior with mother who, in turn, responds with higher levels of coercion in her child-socializer role.

Bowen (1971) contributed some key ideas to family systems theory that are relevant to the young adult stage of development. Specifically, individuals are conceptualized as having both a capacity for intellectually determined (the intellectual system) and emotionally determined (the emotional system) functioning. When these two systems remain functionally separate and in harmony the individual has the choice of operating in either mode. When they do not remain separate and in harmony, and instead become out of balance, a person loses the ability to choose, and behavior and thinking become more emotionally determined. Individuals whose functioning is determined by emotions, over time tend to become more poorly differentiated and to be increasingly more influenced by the emotionality of others. For these individuals emotions are predominant and they have difficulty viewing their world objectively. Individuals tend to be attracted to and to marry partners who have a similar level of differentiation. More highly differentiated people are more likely to have relationships in which there is a balance between togetherness and individuality.

For adolescents, separating and individuating in a family that is characterized by emotional fusion or enmeshment is problematic. The concept of emotional cutoff describes the way some young adults may deal with unresolved fusion in families of origin by distancing themselves physically or emotionally or both. Emotional cutoff is described by

Kerr (1981) as a paradox "in that it at one and the same time reflects a problem, solves a problem, and creates a problem" (p. 249). A cutoff reflects the underlying fusion between generations, solves the problem by reducing anxiety temporarily, and creates a problem by isolating and alienating family members. People who are cut off from important family relationships are particularly vulnerable to equally intense fusion in other relationship systems (Bowen, 1971; Kerr, 1981).

Some other important characteristics of family systems are nonsummativity, equifinality, communication, family rules, homeostasis, morphogenesis, boundaries, and hierarchy (Broderick & Pulliam-Krager, 1979; Minuchin, 1974; Simon et al., 1985; Walsh, 1982). Nonsummativity refers to the nature of a family system as more than the sum of its parts. Rather than a collection of individuals, the family is viewed as an organization characterized by interlocking patterns of behavior; in Bateson's (1979) terms, patterns that connect. Equifinality posits that the same end may be achieved by alternative paths. This principle implies that it is not possible to make deterministic predictions concerning developmental processes. Communication serves two functions for families, the report aspect which conveys information or feelings and the command aspect which defines the nature of the relationship. All behavior is regarded as communication. Family rules function to maintain a stable system by prescribing and limiting members' behavior through the norms by which family behavior is measured, and they may be either implicit or explicit.

Homeostasis refers to the equilibrium maintained by a system through self-regulation. When deviation from a family norm is too great, a negative feedback process is activated to regulate tension and

restore the system to its former equilibrium. When deviations exceed the system's ability to maintain a steady state, morphogenesis (or change) occurs in the system. A relatively small amount of change may trigger positive deviation by amplifying feedback to produce a disproportionately larger system change. A family's long-term well-being depends on the adaptability of the system, its ability to change and adapt in response to crisis situations or stress that results from normal developmental processes (Simon et al., 1985; Walsh, 1982).

Boundaries delineate the elements belonging to the system and those belonging to its environment (Broderick & Pulliam-Krager, 1979). Minuchin (1974) described families as subsystems within a broader environmental context. Further, individuals, dyads, triads, and other groups within the family are subsystems within the larger family system. In order for families to function, subsystem boundaries must be clear and well enough defined to allow members to carry out functions without interference, while remaining open enough to allow contact from the outside. A closely related concept is that of the structural hierarchy which refers to the boundary differentiation of roles and generations. Due to the interdependence of family members within a system, when a family member is gained or lost through death, marriage, divorce, or other transition, family members must reorganize and establish new rules that redefine relationships and clarify new boundaries and hierarchical structures (Ahrons & Rodgers, 1987; Emery, 1988a; Walsh, 1982).

Family Development Perspective

The family developmental perspective adds a temporal dimension to the concept of the family as a system. This perspective has become increasingly well-integrated into family systems theory (Walsh, 1982)

and shares many of the same concepts and characteristics. According to Carter and McGoldrick (1980) family systems move through time in stages that are precipitated internally by the social and maturational needs of its members, and externally by the expectations and constraints of society.

Life-span developmental scholars propose that change and development are influenced by age-graded, non-normative, and history-graded factors (Hetherington & Baltes, 1988). Age-graded factors are related to the developmental tasks of individual family members that are the products of age and/or societal expectations. Non-normative events that impact change and development are the more unpredictable occurrences such as mental or physical illness, unemployment, or divorce. History-graded influences occur in the changing social-historical context. They may be economic conditions, war, natural disasters, or social changes that affect almost everyone within a particular cohort (Hetheringon & Baltes, 1988).

Carter and McGoldrick (1980) viewed the family as an emotional field composed of at least three generations. The nuclear family serves as a subsystem reacting to past and present relationships within the larger multi-generational system. Within this model, the flow of anxiety is both vertical and horizontal. The vertical flow in a system includes patterns of relating and functioning transmitted down the generations, and includes the attitudes, expectations and loaded issues that an individual experiences in his or her family of origin.

The horizontal flow in the system includes the anxieties and stress on the nuclear family as it moves through time, including both the predictable developmental stresses and the unpredictable events such

as divorce, the birth of a defective child, untimely death or chronic illness, or societal issues such as war or economic conditions. Enough stress on the horizontal axis, or a small stress on the horizontal axis combined with intense stress on the vertical axis, will create great disruption in the family system. In this view, the degree of anxiety that is engendered by stress on the vertical and horizontal axes at points where they intersect is the key to how the family will manage transitions throughout its life (Carter & McGoldrick, 1980). Furthermore, the more successful a young adult is in coming to terms with his or her family of origin, the fewer vertical stressors will follow them into their new family's life cycle (McGoldrick & Carter, 1982).

According to Mattesich and Hill (1987), the family has five basic tasks: physical maintenance, socialization, morale maintenance, social control, and the acquisition and launching of members. Family growth may be continuous or discontinuous. Continuous growth is associated with an orderly progression through the stages of the life cycle. Discontinuous changes are the critical transition points that require major reorganization and a qualitative shift in a family's role complex. "The life history of a specific family, with all its idiosyncracies can be roughly portrayed through the concepts applicable to any family" (p. 444).

Divorced Family Systems

Unlike other systems, in families new components (members) can only be incorporated through birth, adoption, or marriage, and they leave only through death (Terkelson, 1980). Carter and McGoldrick (1980) proposed a model of stages in the family life cycle. As in other

stage theories, each stage represents a transitional emotional process that must be negotiated successfully before moving on to the next stage. The Carter and McGoldrick (1980) model includes additional steps that are required when a parental divorce occurs, and also for the establishment of post-divorce and remarried families. A divorce requires a period of mourning, followed by a restructuring and realignment of relationships as parents establish separate lives. When this is successfully accomplished, the divorced parents are able to continue an effective parenting relationship (Carter & McGoldrick, 1980). The model implies that children must also mourn the loss of an intact family and all that means to them, including the hopes and dreams and expectations associated with a former way of life, the loss of daily contact with one parent, and often the time and emotional presence of the other. This type of model would also suggest the possibility that failure to mourn sufficiently during the early post-divorce period may predict difficulty for a young person in negotiating the later expectable developmental stages.

Divorce, according to a systems perspective, represents a structural change in which the system is divided into two subsystems. A family member cannot leave the system through divorce, nor does divorce signify the end of the family. Although relationships change and boundaries are redefined, the tasks of the family remain the same (Ahrons & Rodgers, 1987; Goldsmith, 1982).

Ahrons (1979) developed the concept of the binuclear family in which the original nuclear family is reorganized into two households, one headed by the father and the other by the mother. New rules and boundaries are established that redefine the relationship of the spouses

to one another and to each of their children. "Even though the physical presence of one spouse is lost, the family must still take that spouse into account in various ways and he/she must take the family into account" (Ahrons & Rodgers, 1987, p. 43). Ahrons (1979) defined the binuclear family as follows:

> The reorganization of the nuclear family through divorce frequently results in the establishment of two households, maternal and paternal. These two interrelated households, or nuclei of the child's family of orientation, form one family system - a BINUCLEAR FAMILY SYSTEM. The centrality of each of these households will vary among postdivorce families. Some families make very distinct divisions between the child's families and secondary homes, whereas in other families these distinctions may be blurred and both homes have primary importance. Hence, the term BINUCLEAR FAMILY indicates a family system with two nuclear households, whether or not the households have equal importance in the child's life experience (p. 500).

Frequently, one of the households will have primary importance in the lives of the children. Usually this results when one parent is awarded custody of the children and the role of the other parent is circumscribed by some type of visiting arrangement. The involvement of non-custodial parents with their children may range from total absence or very limited contact to involvement on a daily basis (Ahrons & Rodgers, 1987).

Ahrons and Rodgers (1987) challenge the myth of the single-parent family as an attempt to close the ranks by excluding the problem member. "This coping strategy has been common both to divorced families and to our thinking about them" (p. 107). These authors charge that researchers and clinicians help reinforce the idea of single-parent families as being representative of divorced families in general. They argue, however, that single-parent families are created following a divorce only when one of the parents has no further contact and performs no parental functions. More frequently, divorced families reorganize into interrelated maternal and paternal households, forming a binuclear family. The way a family reorganizes structurally and redefines itself socially determines how well the family copes and masters this important transition (Ahrons & Rodgers, 1987).

Interpersonal Relationship Quality

Schlein (1971) investigated the effectiveness of a program designed to teach interpersonal and relationship skills to dating/premarital couples. PRIMES (Program for Relationship Improvement by Maximizing Empathy and Self-Disclosure) emphasized effective communication as essential not only for close relationships but as a major component of mental health, and an indicator of maturity in interpersonal functioning. In the process of developing an instrument for the study to measure the quality of interpersonal relationships, Schlein identified trust and intimacy as two correlates essential to communication within an intimate interpersonal relationship. Trust was described as most likely to occur when people are positively oriented to each other's welfare. Intimacy was proposed as the core of interpersonal competencies in a conjugal relationship. A number of

concepts were identified as attributes or correlates of intimacy, such as empathy and self-disclosure, and "acceptance, respect and admiration, understanding, friendship and companionship, ease in communication, sharing, caring and concern, wanting to please, striving for mutual goals, interdependence, pride, trust, belonging together, similarity of thought, indebtedness, gladness and peace, expansion, reciprocity, and sexual relations " (Schlein, 1971, pp. 14-15). Intimacy, as conceptualized in Schlein's study, was a multidimensional concept which remained somewhat nebulous. One of the purposes of the present study was to explore the nature of intimacy, especially as it applies to the relationships of young adults.

Intimacy

A family life cycle perspective posits that certain physiological and emotional tasks must be mastered in each stage in order for individuals to achieve personal satisfaction and understanding of self and others (Meyer, 1980). From this perspective the young adult is described as one who had just completed adolescence, the developmental stage in which the task was to establish an identity through developing an increased sense of autonomy, while retaining a sense of connectedness to the family of origin (Peterson & Leigh, 1990). Only then may a young adult be ready to become fully responsible for his or her life, to embark on a career, and to choose a life-partner.

Separation from parents is a gradual process, one that continues into adulthood. Cohler and Geyer (1982) speculate that for many adolescents, college provides an institutional support for separation by providing physical distance, and emotional separation may occur gradually in a socially approved manner. For those who do not attend

college, many continue to live at home longer. Among working-class families, research shows that as many as 40% of young adults and their spouses continue to reside in parents' homes for a period following marriage (Cohler & Grunebaum, 1981). According to a family systems perspective, the manner in which separation takes place and the ability of a young person to establish autonomy while maintaining a comfortable and appropriate interdependence with parents depends upon the capacity of both generations for individuation (Cohler & Geyer, 1982; McGoldrick & Carter, 1982).

For Erikson (1963; 1968), the pivotal stage of the life cycle was adolescence with a central task of developing a strong sense of identity. This stage provided the foundation for the adult stages that follow. A young person who has established a strong sense of self is ready to fuse his or her identity with that of others, and this capacity signals the beginning of the next stage, that of young adulthood with its central task to establish an intimate mode of personal relationship. A person who has a capacity for intimacy is able to "commit himself to concrete affiliations and partnerships and to develop the ethical strength to abide by such commitments even though they may call for significant sacrifices and compromises" (Erikson, 1963, p. 263). According to Erikson (1968), the young person who is not sure of his or her sense of identity:

> shies away from interpersonal intimacy or throws himself into acts of intimacy which are "promiscuous" without true fusion or real self abandon. . . . in late adolescence he may settle for highly stereotyped interpersonal relations and come to retain a <u>deep sense of isolation</u> (pp. 135-136).

Intimacy requires a capacity for openness, sharing, and trust in close relationships with others, and in intimate sexual relationships, the ability to abandon the self in sexual play and orgasm without fear of boundary or ego loss (Orlofsky, in press). Like Freud, Erikson based his model on male development (Gilligan, 1982). Erikson (1968) described the sequence for women as somewhat different from that of males in that a woman's identity formation is not complete until an intimate relationship has been established. In other words, identity for a woman, according to Erikson's conceptualization, occurs in the context of an intimate relationship. In either case, when all goes well developmentally, identity and intimacy converge in young adulthood (Erikson, 1968; Josselson, 1973; Levitz-Jones & Orlofsky, 1985).

According to Erikson's model, development occurs through a series of stages. Each stage represents a crisis that is precipitated by the developing individual's psychological needs in interaction with the environment (Goldstein, 1984). Success in each stage depends on the favorable resolution of preceding stages, beginning with the establishment in infancy of a basic sense of trust. Unresolved developmental conflicts and unsuccessful resolution of previous stages tend to accumulate from one stage to another. In this sense, then, the person who is capable of achieving intimacy has successfully resolved developmental conflicts involving trust, autonomy, initiative and identity (Erikson, 1968; Goldstein, 1984; Orlofsky, in press). Each stage is described in terms of two extreme outcomes, one leading toward greater mastery of the environment, or strength, and the other to maladaptation or lack of growth (Erikson, 1968). For young adults, successful resolution of the crisis of intimacy is reflected in a

capacity to commit themselves to enduring intimate relationships, and failure leads to isolation, withdrawal into self, and the inability to maintain close relationships (Orlofsky, in press).

Intimacy is often thought of as something that occurs between people. For example, Schaefer and Olson (1981) conceived of intimacy as a relationship in which a person shares intimate experiences with another in several areas (emotional, sexual, social, intellectual, and recreational) with the assumption that such experiences will persist over time. Clinebell and Clinebell (1970) viewed intimacy as mutual need satisfaction. Erikson (1963; 1968), on the other hand, conceptualized intimacy as a capacity that a person develops during the course of human development. Each of these writers conceptualized intimacy as a process as opposed to a static quality. Orlofsky (in press) described intimacy as a continuously evolving capacity, a lifelong concern, involving relationships of varying intensity and duration. Intimacy faces its first major test during young adulthood "when individuals are faced with the task of choosing long-term, perhaps life-long partners and establishing bonds of mutual love . . ." (Orlofsky, in press, p. 3). These bonds provide the foundation for two people to deal cooperatively with the tasks of adulthood.

Orlofsky, Marcia, and Lesser (1973) operationalized Erikson's construct of identity in a way that is consistent with the idea of intimacy as a process. Using a structured interview technique, the Intimacy Status Interview locates individuals in one of five statuses or categories that describe differing styles of coping with relationships. The statuses range from the "intimate" who has close relationships with both males and females as well as an enduring committed love

relationship, to the "isolate" who withdraws from social situations and maintains only a few casual acquaintances (Orlofsky, in press). The intermediate categories are "preintimate," which is similar to intimate, but the individual has yet to enter into an enduring love relationship, the "pseudointimate" who has entered into a somewhat permanent relationship that is characterized by lack of closeness or depth, and the "stereotype" individual who maintains a number of relationships on a superficial level (Orlofsky, in press; Orlofsky, Marcia, & Lesser, 1973). These five statuses were originally developed to describe the interpersonal styles of men. Levitz-Jones and Orlofsky (1985) and Tesch and Whitbourne (1982) added additional "merger" categories which describe persons who enter either committed or uncommitted relationships but relinquish autonomy in the process. These additional statuses were developed to encompass the more dependent style of relating that is characteristic of some women, making the measure more valid for use with both sexes (Levitz-Jones & Orlofsky, 1985; Orlofsky, in press; Tesch & Whitbourne, 1982).

An interesting study is reported by Orlofsky (in press) comparing scores of college men on measures of intimacy status with scores on Constantinople's (1969) Inventory of Psychological Development, a measure composed of self-report scales based on Erikson's first six stages of trust, autonomy, initiative, industry, identity, and intimacy. Intimates and preintimates scored highest on all six scales. Pseudointimates and stereotypes appeared to have a basic sense of trust but scored low from autonomy onward, indicating that their difficulties first began when issues of separateness and self control were at stake. Isolates scored lowest on five scales beginning with a basic sense of

trust, providing support for the theory that each stage builds upon the other, and that unsuccessful resolutions tend to accumulate from one stage to the next. The only scale on which isolates scored high was industry, possibly reflecting a preoccupation with work in an effort to avoid the anxiety associated with interpersonal relationships.

Other important characteristics of Erikson's theory make it appropriate to the present study. Unlike perspectives which define normality cross-sectionally at a single point in time, Erikson conceptualized personality development as a lifelong process which proceeds in sequential stages across the life-span (Walsh, 1982). In addition, rather than emphasizing instinctual factors in development, Erikson emphasized the interplay between the innate capacities of an individual and environmental factors (Goldstein, 1984).

Trust

The issue of trust may be especially relevant for young women from divorced families. Southworth and Schwarz (1987) reported that the experience of parental divorce appears to have long-term effects on trust in the opposite sex and plans for the future. The findings of Kalter, Riemer, Brickman, and Chen (1985) also suggested that young women from divorced families often have negative views not only of men, but of themselves as women, and that they are uneasy about the prospect of marriage. In a ten-year follow-up report from a longitudinal study of children of divorce, Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1989) described a subgroup of young women followed since childhood as highly anxious and unable to trust in heterosexual relationships: "So preoccupied are they with expectations of betrayal that they really suffer from minute to minute, even though their partners may be completely faithful" (p. 62).

For men the picture appears to be different, for example, Keith and Finlay (1988) speculated that social class and economic resources may mediate the effects of divorce for men; but, in general, the probability for male children of divorce marrying was somewhat lower. Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1989) described the young men in their study who were between the ages of 19 and 29 as lonely and unhappy and apparently unable to have lasting relationships with women.

Schlein (1971) identified trust as well as intimacy as an element of interpersonal relationship quality, but failed to define this construct conceptually. Larzelere and Huston (1980) identified honesty and benevolence as two aspects of interpersonal trust. Benevolence concerns the degree to which a person is genuinely interested in the welfare of another, and honesty is the extent a person can take his or her partner's word concerning future intentions. In order for intimacy and greater vulnerability to develop in a relationship, both attributes must be present. According to this conceptualization, trust exists "to the extent a person believes another person (or persons) to be benevolent and honest" (Larzelere & Huston, 1980, p. 596). Further, dyadic trust involves benevolence and honesty in relating to a significant other, and is associated with characteristics such as love, self-disclosure and commitment.

Erikson's (1963; 1968) theory suggests another aspect of the relationship between trust and intimacy. The successful resolution of each developmental stage, or crisis, depends on a favorable resolution of the preceding stages. In the first stage an infant is expected to develop a basic sense of trust, "the cornerstone of a vital personality" (Erikson, 1968, p. 96). A solid sense of trust is the foundation for

subsequent crises involving autonomy, initiative, industry, and identity, and sets the stage for a young adult experience of intimacy.

Personal and Interpersonal Variables and Interpersonal Relationship Quality

Self-esteem

Erikson (1968) described self-esteem as a quality that develops gradually from the omnipotence of infantile narcissism to a mature sense of identity that makes intimacy possible. Self-esteem is based on "the rudiments of skills and social techniques which assure a gradual coincidence of play and skillful performance, of ego ideal and social role, and thereby promise a tangible future" (p. 71). Clinebell and Clinebell (1970) in discussing the relationship between intimacy and self-esteem stated "a robust sense of one's worth is an essential part of a firm sense of identity; as such, it is a necessary foundation for depth relationships" (p. 71). Further, a person who considers herself or himself to have little value, to be unlovable, expects rejection, and rather than risk rejection avoids closeness. This type of person may marry only to get as he or she feels they have little to give (Clinebell & Clinebell, 1970).

Rosenberg (1965) described self-esteem as the positive or negative attitude toward self as object. A person having high self-esteem "respects himself, considers himself worthy. . . . low self-esteem on the other hand implies self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction, self-contempt" (p. 31). Gecas and Schwalbe (1986) argued that self-esteem has at least two components, self-worth and self-efficacy. Self-worth is a moral component reflecting how well a person feels he or she is living up to some standard of conduct. Self-efficacy refers to one's

sense of competence or effectiveness in dealing with the social or physical environment. Further, self-esteem may be expressed in terms of "self-attributions," or coming to know ourselves by observing our own behavior and its consequences, or "reflected appraisals," coming to see ourselves as others see us (Gecas, 1982; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986). Cooley (1902) termed the reflected appraisals of the primary group as the "looking glass self." In the family context one's initial self-concept is formed. This process later extends to the neighborhood and to other groups that are important in a child's life. Rosenberg (1965) reported that extreme maternal indifference toward a child is associated with low self-esteem and is in fact more harmful than punitive behavior.

A large body of research documents the relationship between various family factors and the development of self-esteem in children and adolescents. A number of studies reported a strong negative association between parental conflict and self-esteem (Amato, 1988; Emery, 1982; Long, 1986; Raschke & Raschke, 1979; Slater and Haber, 1984). Amato (1988) investigated the effect of parental divorce on self-esteem and sense of power. No significant association was found between self-esteem and the childhood experience of divorce. However, children of divorce were found to have a lowered sense of power that was largely mediated through lower levels of educational attainment. Although there is little evidence in the literature to support a direct association between parental divorce and self-esteem, at least two studies (Holman & Woodroffe-Patrick, 1988; Glenn & Kramer, 1985) argue that family structure is an important variable that cannot be dismissed. Studies of college students from intact and divorced families (Boyd, Nunn, & Parish, 1983; Parish & Wigle, 1985) reported that young adults

from divorced families viewed themselves and their families more negatively than those from intact families.

Self-esteem in children and adolescents shows a strong relationship with parental support (Coopersmith, 1967; Felson & Zielinski, 1989; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Hoelter & Harper, 1987; Openshaw & Thomas, 1986). Further, there may be a reciprocal effect in that supportive parental behavior contributes to child self-esteem, and behavior on the part of children which reflects high self-esteem in turn influences the level of parental support (Felson & Zielinski, 1989). Parent-child relationships characterized by shared activities and communication as well as emotional support were related to adolescent self-esteem in a study by Demo, Small and Savin-Williams (1987). In research concerning the relationship of children's self-esteem to parental self-esteem, marital satisfaction, and parental nurturance, only parental nurturance was related to child self-esteem (Buri, Kirchner, & Walsh, 1987).

Cooper, Holman, and Braithwaite (1983) examined the relationship between family cohesion and children's self-esteem. This study was notable because it took into consideration children's perceptions of closeness not only with parents but also among siblings. Five major family types were identified: two-parent and one-parent cohesive families, the isolated child form in which children perceive themselves to be isolated within the family. the divided family in which parents are divided and children attach themselves to either mother or father, and the parent-coalition family in which two cohesive groups are formed, the parents in one group and the children in the other. Children who felt isolated within the family were found to have the lowest self-

esteem. Children in two-parent cohesive families had the highest self-esteem, followed by children in cohesive single-parent families, illustrating that family structure alone does not have the most damaging effect on children's self-esteem.

Anxiety

Anxiety has been associated with both parental divorce and conflict. Adolescents and children frequently experience acute anxiety related to feelings of fear and vulnerability in the aftermath of divorce (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Preadolescent girls appear to adjust better to the divorce of their parents than either boys or adolescents (Hetherington, 1972; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989). However, there is evidence that some young women in their late teens and early twenties may experience a delayed reaction to parental divorce in the form of anxiety and depression when faced with issues of intimacy and commitment (Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989). A related finding was reported by Hetherington (1972) in a study of adolescent girls, ages 13 to 17, who lived with single divorced mothers most of their lives. These girls displayed significantly more anxious and dependent behavior when interacting with males compared to girls from either intact homes or whose fathers had died. Kalter et al. (1985) observed, "the potential negative effects of parental divorce on girls do not come sharply into focus until adolescence or young adulthood. The problems in feminine self-esteem and heterosexual adjustment may not emerge until these issues become centrally important developmentally" (p. 539).

Parental conflict has been associated with a more generalized anxiety in children and adolescents. Using anxiety as a dependent

variable, Holman and Woodroffe-Patrick (1988) and Slater and Haber (1984), found that on-going high conflict in families, but not parental divorce, was related to increased anxiety. Fauber, Forehand, Thomas, and Wierson (1990) demonstrated that the effects of parental conflict on internalizing behavior in children (withdrawal, anxiety) are mediated through disrupted parenting, such as psychological control or withdrawal that may result from parental conflict.

Boys and girls tend to respond differently to either parental divorce or to intense conflict within an intact family. Boys typically act out their pain and anxiety through externalizing or undercontrolled behavior, while girls are more likely to respond with overcontrol, becoming anxious and withdrawn (Emery, 1982; Emery & O'Leary, 1982; Guidubaldi & Perry, 1985; Hetherington, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1979; Zaslow, 1988). Social and emotional disturbances in development in girls usually disappear within two years following parental divorce, but many boys continue to show developmental deviations and behavior disorders much beyond that period of time (Guidubaldi & Perry, 1985; Hetherington, 1979). For some girls, anxiety and depression may resurface during late adolescence or early adulthood, as described by Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1989).

Conflict Management

The interpersonal independent variable that was studied was the ability of young adults to manage disagreements and conflict in close interpersonal relationships, or conflict management skills. The importance of effective conflict management to the quality of interpersonal relationships has been dramatically demonstrated in the work of Gottman (1991). Gottman claims to be able to predict with more

than 95% accuracy couples at risk for divorce based on observation of the way individuals respond to conflict early in their relationships.

Lerner (1989) related intimacy to setting limits and managing conflict in interpersonal relationships. Intimacy, according to Lerner, requires that we "be who we are" (p. 3) in a relationship and allow the other person to be the same. This means that we have the ability to talk openly about things that are important to us, that we take a clear position on important emotional issues, and that we clarify the limits of what is acceptable and tolerable in the relationship.

A similar definition is provided by Orlofsky (in press). While the isolated person presents a picture of interpersonal withdrawal and anxiety, the relationships of a person who has the capacity for intimacy "are characterized by a high degree of personal communication and mutual understanding" (p. 3). A person who is capable of intimacy is comfortable with feelings and able to conceptualize feelings and communicate on a feeling level. The individual who is uncomfortable with feelings and unsure how to express them or even to think about them, is likely to deal with feelings through either explosive discharge or denial. This type of person is more likely to avoid close interpersonal relationships, and to remain on a superficial level in relationships with others.

Minimal scholarship is available regarding how individuals develop a particular style of response to conflict in close personal relationships. One theory of how people learn to manage conflict and aggression is Bandura's (1969) social-learning theory of identificatory processes. According to this model, complex repertoires of behavior are acquired through observation of the response patterns of parents and

other powerful models. According to social learning theory, behavior is learned through identification, which is defined as "the process in which a person patterns his thoughts, feelings or actions after another person who serves as a model" (p. 214). Children tend to identify with powerful models, and those whose behavior is rewarded in the form of control over certain desired resources. When the aggressive behavior of a model is highly effective, the observer tends to identify with the aggressor, even though the observer dislikes or even fears the model (Bandura, 1969).

The principle of vicarious reinforcement refers to the idea that the observation of rewarding or punishing consequences to a model affects the degree to which an observer is willing to engage in a particular modeled behavior. Through vicarious reinforcement and the covert rehearsal of the behavior of powerful models, "children frequently acquire and retain on a long-term basis adult-rewarded but child-prohibited behavior patterns that are not reproduced until the child has reached the age or social status that makes the activity appropriate or acceptable" (Bandura, 1969, p. 241). Bandura (1969) cautions that identification is a continuous process involving multiple models in addition to parents, including peer influences and mass media.

> Although a family can provide general prescriptions for conduct, parental models cannot possibly serve as primary sources of the elaborate skills and modes of behavior required at different stages of social development. Complex cultural patterns of behavior are, in large part, transmitted and regulated at a social-systems level (p. 255).

Kalter (1987) provided a different rationale from a closely related but more psychodynamic point of view. According to this model, one of the developmental achievements of childhood and adolescence is the capacity to modulate aggressive impulses. This capacity, as well as other important developmental tasks, is the result of an ongoing, caring relationship between parent and child as well as the mutual support and respect between parents that a child observes and absorbs. In this environment of mutual caring and respect the growing child learns to balance his or her own needs with those of others, and to develop socially adaptive behavior and the ability to be appropriately assertive. Difficulties in modulating aggression derive from experiences that (a) stimulate a child's level of aggressive impulses, and (b) interfere with the capacity to manage these impulses adaptively. A home in which there is a lack of caring or nurturance, or one in which there is a great deal of turmoil and conflict increases the likelihood of a child developing disturbances in modulating aggression. These include the emergence in the child of externalizing, aggressive behavior problems, or the "more silent manifestations of maladaptive defenses against anxiety and guilt associated with aggression, e.g., depression, inhibitions, and passivity (or lack of appropriate assertiveness)" (Kalter, 1987, p. 589).

A report from an on-going study of post-divorce family functioning (Camara & Resnick, 1989) indicated that conflict resolution style rather than the amount of conflict, combined with the degree of cooperation between parents, predicted child adjustment. Further, children directly or indirectly learn how to handle conflict situations from their parents. The authors suggest that learning to compromise and negotiate

is especially important for children in the latency stage of development "because the child at this stage is engaged in a struggle between industry and inferiority in developing competence in work and play" (p. 572). The importance of this research lies in the demonstration of the fact that it is not the amount or level of parental conflict that is harmful to children. In fact, children may learn positive methods of resolving conflict from their parents, whether or not married, and the skills they learn may influence the styles of conflict management they carry with them into adulthood.

Family Variables and Interpersonal Relationship Quality

Parent-Child Relationships

The quality of parent-child relationships appears to be indirectly related to interpersonal relationship quality by contributing to the psychological adjustment of young adults. Research indicates that the effects of the relationship with mothers and fathers may be different for boys and girls.

Parenting behaviors that combine support and inductive control have been identified as most effective in producing positive child outcomes (Gecas & Seff, 1990; Peterson & Rollins, 1987; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). Supportive parental behavior is characterized by warmth, affection, nurturance, and acceptance. Parental induction is defined as attempts to control behavior through the use of reasoning, explaining, and pointing out the possible consequences of actions (Openshaw & Thomas, 1986; Peterson & Rollins, 1987). Parental support and inductive control are related to such positive outcomes in children as self-esteem

(Openshaw & Thomas, 1986; Coopersmith, 1967), and social competence (Gecas & Seff, 1990; Peterson & Leigh, 1990; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). Maccoby and Martin's Fourfold Typology of Parenting Styles (1983) describes parenting styles based on the dimensions of warm-cold versus permissive-strict. Briefly described, the four styles of parenting are: (a) authoritarian-autocratic style: parents are in control, strict limits are set on children's expression of needs, and parents make the rules; (b) authoritative-reciprocal style: parents are warm and accepting and involved with their children, and they set and enforce behavioral limits; (c) indulgent-permissive: parents take a tolerant and accepting attitude toward children's expression of needs; there are few rules or limits and minimal control efforts; (d) indifferent-uninvolved: parents are minimally involved in meeting children's needs; parental behavior may range from apathy and indifference to being hostile and abrasive toward a child's needs for affection (Bohrnstedt & Fisher, 1986). Maccoby and Martin (1983) suggested that positive affective outcomes in children result when parents are warm and involved but set and enforce rules and limits.

Bohrnstedt and Fisher (1986) tested the Maccoby and Martin hypothesis by comparing the effects of a young adult's current role performance and relationship with parents as a child and adolescent on the young person's affective functioning. Self-esteem was found to be a function of satisfaction with current role performance. Depressed affect, on the other hand, appeared to be a more stable personality characteristic than self-esteem, and showed some interesting correlations with parenting styles. A strict father and a cool mother, or an authoritarian mother regardless of the father's style were related

to higher levels of depression in young adults. Indulgence on the part of the father, but not the mother, was found to be detrimental. The general conclusion was that at least one warm-strict (authoritative-reciprocal) parent is needed during the adolescent stage of development to avoid depression as a young adult.

There have been reports concerning the differential effects of parental behavior on boys and girls. Gecas and Schwalbe (1986) found that self-esteem in boys was related to parental inductive control, whereas self-esteem in girls was related to support. Surprisingly, fathers appeared to have a stronger effect than mothers on the self-esteem of both male and female adolescents.

Demo, Small, and Savin-Williams (1987) demonstrated that the quality of family communications was a critical factor in family relations. For both boys and girls, parent-adolescent communication and participation were strongly related to self-esteem. However, it appeared that parents tended to be more responsive to boys than to girls in terms of control and support and, therefore, self-esteem of boys was more closely tied to family relations. In addition, fathers' self-esteem was found to be positively related to the level of communication with their children, and mothers' self-esteem was negatively related to stress associated with parenting an adolescent, demonstrating a circular effect in family relations.

Parental conflict and divorce have been identified as particularly disruptive to parent-child relationships. Fine, Moreland, and Schwebel (1983) compared groups of college students from divorced and intact families to determine the effects of divorce on parent-child relationships. The parents of the divorced family group had divorced

before the students were 11 years of age. Separate measures were obtained for the young adults' perceptions of relationships with mother and with father. Relationship dimensions studied were closeness, trust, role clarity, perceptual accuracy, anger, communication, respect, and influence. The results indicated that although divorce may have a long-term effect on young adults' relationships with their parents, there was no evidence that these parent-child relationships were unhealthy. Rather, the quality of relationships in divorced families were rated as average, compared with above average in the parent-child relationships in intact families. Both boys and girls from divorced families perceived their relationships with both parents as less positive, and females perceived mothers more positively than did males. Factors that attenuated the negative consequences of divorce were perceptions of positive pre-divorce family life and relationships, a higher quality post-divorce parental relationship, and higher socioeconomic status.

Parental conflict has been found to be detrimental to children regardless of family structure (Emery, 1982; Hess & Camara, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1982; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Parents who are hostile and angry with one another may have little energy left over to invest in parenting and the stress and conflict in the parental relationships may affect children indirectly through disruptions in the parent-child relationship. Using path analysis, Fauber et al. (1990) demonstrated that the relationship between parental conflict and adjustment problems in young adolescents was mediated primarily through parental rejection/withdrawal. In turn, parental rejection/withdrawal was associated with higher levels of child adjustment problems.

Conflict in intact families was found to have a more direct effect on children's behavior. The results of a similar investigation (Kline, Johnston, & Tschann, 1991) suggested that marital conflict contributes to children's behavior and adjustment problems through decreased warmth and empathy in the mother-child relationship. In this study, fathers' parenting behaviors were significantly related to child adjustment at the time of the filing of the divorce, but showed little effect two years afterwards.

Parental Relationship

Previous scholarship supports the importance of a strong parental marriage to intimate relationship in their children. Booth and Edwards (1989) reported that adult children who perceived their parents' marriage to have been unhappy had less happy marriages, reported more disagreements and behavioral problems, less interaction with their spouses, lower commitment to marriage, and greater marital instability. In a study of the courtship progress of college women, Long (1987) reported that subjects who perceived their parents' marriage to be happy (they remained together and had low conflict) had more positive attitudes toward marriage and were making more courtship progress.

Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen, and Wilson (1989) described a strong family as a low stress family. In this type of family parents tended to express satisfaction with their marital relationship and with their quality of life. Four variables that reflected marital strength and were identified as critical in distinguishing between high and low stress families were family and friends, sex, finances, and personality. In addition, healthy communication in families was described as involving patterns in which

"parents focus attention, share meaning, and communicate with one another and with their children" (Singer & Wynne, 1966, p. 261).

There is a widely-held belief that divorce has primarily negative consequences for children. An interesting recent study by Amato (1991) demonstrated that although attitudes toward divorce have become more accepting, children of divorce continue to be viewed more negatively than those from two-parent homes. Research has gradually shifted from a focus on the pathological aspects of divorce to a redefinition of divorce and its related forms as normal family processes (Ahrons & Rodgers, 1987; Walsh, 1982). A current view holds that although divorce may be a source of considerable stress, it is not the divorce itself but the process that begins somewhere before the divorce and continues afterwards that predicts the adjustment of children (Cherlin et al., 1991; Emery, 1988b).

The divorce literature stresses the continuing importance of the parental relationship to the long-term well-being of children. For example, Ahrons (1979) proposed the concept of the binuclear family in which the original nuclear family is reorganized into two interrelated households. Under the best of circumstances, boundaries in the family are realigned and the focus of the parents shifts from the spousal relationship toward a new kind of relationship that is focused on the welfare of their children. A functional divorce is defined as "one in which spouses are able to move through the transitions of disorganizing the nuclear family without creating severe debilitating crises for themselves and other family members" (Ahrons & Rodgers, 1987, p. 131). Factors related to favorable long-term post-divorce adjustment in children are financial resources, controlled parental conflict before

and after divorce, parental cooperation and agreement on issues related to discipline, an authoritative style of parenting on the part of the custodial parent, and regular contact and a positive relationship with the non-custodial parent (Emery, 1988a; Kurdek, 1981).

Parental Conflict

The relationship between parental conflict and a young person's ability to manage conflict in his or her own intimate relationships is not well established. There has been speculation concerning a role model hypothesis based on learning theory (Glenn & Kramer, 1987; Kalter, 1987; Pope & Mueller, 1976). According to this perspective, children may learn maladaptive ways of resolving conflict and interacting socially from parents who serve as particularly powerful role models. Booth and Edwards (1989) suggest that interparental turmoil may influence the adult relationships of children indirectly by interfering with the type of support and control that encourages interpersonal competence.

Conflict is inevitable in human relationships, and the absence of conflict is not an indication of healthy family functioning (Straus, 1979; Galvin & Brommel, 1986). Avoidance of conflict may lead to more serious problems when anger and dissatisfaction in a relationship are not addressed. "If conflict is suppressed, it can result in stagnation and failure to adapt to changed circumstances, and/or erode the bond of group solidarity because of an accumulation of hostility" (Straus, 1979, p. 75). It has been empirically established that styles of conflict resolution rather than the degree of conflict determines whether the outcome is constructive or destructive (Camara & Resnick, 1989; Galvin & Brommel, 1986).

In the past there has been some controversy concerning whether the parental divorce or interparental conflict is more strongly associated with child behavior problems. The idea that divorce itself has negative consequences regardless of circumstances (Bowlby, 1973) gave rise to the popular negative image of the "broken home" (Amato, 1991). However, current evidence supports Hetherington's (1979) contention that children function more adequately in a relatively harmonious single-parent family than in either an intact or divorced home where there is interparental conflict (Emery, 1982; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1979; Kalter, 1987). According to Chess et al. (1983), parental conflict rather than divorce-separation with conflict predicts poor adult adaptation. In either intact or divorced homes, research has shown that a mutually supportive and cooperative parental relationship is essential for individual and family functioning (Ahrons & Rodgers, 1987; Longfellow, 1979).

In a study of the coping responses of preschool children to the verbal anger of adults, Cummings (1987) found evidence that the background verbal anger of adults stresses small children and challenges their ability to adapt. A recent report of a major longitudinal study of more than 20,000 children in Great Britain and the United States (Cherlin et al., 1991) concluded that children's academic and behavioral problems can be predicted years before a divorce or separation takes place. Child problems were traced to three sources: (a) the effect of growing up in a dysfunctional family, defined as a home where serious problems of the parents or the children make normal development difficult; (b) severe and protracted marital conflict which may or may not lead to divorce; and (c) the difficult transition that occurs after

parents separate, including emotional upset, decreased income, diminishing parenting, and continued conflict (Cherlin et al., 1991).

There is considerable evidence that parental conflict, but not divorce, has negative consequences for children's self-concept and self-esteem (Emery, 1982; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1976; Long, 1986; Raschke & Raschke, 1979; Slater & Haber, 1984). Raschke and Raschke (1979), for example, found no correlation between family structure and self-concept in elementary school children. Self-concept, however, was found to be negatively related to parental conflict and positively correlated with parental happiness.

In a study of high school students, Amato (1986) studied the relationship between self-esteem and parental conflict in a sample of Australian primary and secondary school children. Results indicated a strong negative association for primary school girls, but not for boys. In addition, there was a deterioration of children's relationships with their fathers among younger females and older males and females. An interesting finding was that a positive relationship with only one of the parents seemed to buffer the negative effects of parental conflict. A longitudinal study by Chess et al. (1983) linked parental conflict at ages three and five to poor early adult behavioral and psychological functioning. In an investigation of the relationship between family factors and courtship attitudes and behavior of college students, Booth, Brinkerhoof, and White (1984) demonstrated that post-divorce parental conflict coupled with deterioration in parent-child relationships increased courtship activity but adversely affected the quality of courtship relations, especially for males. In addition, post-divorce conflict appeared to stimulate cohabitation among females, a finding the

authors speculated may be related to a lack of trust and fear of being hurt.

Using a systems perspective, Camara and Resnick (1989) investigated the associations among marital, parental, and parent-child relationships in intact and divorced families as they related to the social and emotional development of children. Their findings indicated that the level of cooperation and style of conflict resolution predicted levels of adjustment in children. In divorced families cooperation between parents was significantly related to children's relationship with the non-custodial parent, but not with the custodial parent. In two-parent households parental cooperation was associated with the quality of the mother-child relationship, but not with the father-child relationship. Verbal threats of physical violence on the part of fathers contributed to poor father-child relationships, but when compromise was used father-child relationships were positive. Mothers' verbal aggression was related to negative relationships with both parents, and her use of conflict avoidance was associated with poorer father-child relationships. Overall, hostile, angry, and avoidant conflict styles on the part of parents contributed to more conflict and polarized family relationships. Cooperation between parents and the use of compromise produced positive resolution to conflict and increased closeness among family members (Camara & Resnick, 1989).

Family Functioning: Cohesion and Adaptability

The family styles of cohesion and adaptability appear to be indirectly related to interpersonal relationship quality by contributing to the type of family functioning that is associated with healthy

development. The Circumplex Model of family systems, developed by Olson and colleagues (Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell, 1979), is a "category system or typology" based on the concepts of cohesion and adaptability (Openshaw & Thomas, 1986). From a conceptual clustering of over 50 concepts used to describe family dynamics, the three concepts of cohesion, adaptability, and communication emerged as an index of overall family functioning (Olson et al., 1989). The dimensions of cohesion and adaptability were organized into a graphic form depicting 16 possible combinations of the two variables representing 16 variations of family functioning. Cohesion is defined as "the emotional bonding that family members have toward one another," and adaptability as "the ability of a marital or family system to change its power structure, role relationships, and relationship rules in response to situational and developmental stress" (Olson et al., 1989, p. 48). Communication is considered to be a facilitative dimension that allows movement along the other two dimensions.

Originally the Circumplex Model, as measured by FACES III, was considered to be a curvilinear model with mid-range scores representing problematic family functioning. Based on evidence from research using non-clinical samples, Olson (1991) recently advised that cohesion and adaptability appear to be linear measures, with higher scores indicating more favorable levels of family adjustment than lower or moderate scores.

An increasing number of research studies may be found that are based on a family systems perspective and utilize either one or both of the cohesion and adaptability measures. In a literature review, Openshaw and Thomas (1986) established that adolescents develop positive

self-esteem in families where (a) they receive the love and support of both parents; (b) the type of discipline used reflects a belief in the adolescent's ability to determine his or her life course; and (c) communication is direct, clear, specific, and honest. In other words, families that promote healthy functioning in adolescents are cohesive, adaptable, and communicate effectively (Openshaw & Thomas, 1986).

In a study of stress and levels of cohesion and adaptability in families with adolescents, Olson et al. (1989) obtained perceptions from three family members (mother, father, and adolescent) of family cohesion and adaptability to determine levels of family stress. The findings indicated that low stress families tended to be balanced, to have optimal levels of cohesion and adaptability. Low stress families relied more heavily on marital strengths, showed good parent-adolescent communication, and worked toward resolving stress rather than waiting until things improved. Parents also tended to express satisfaction with their marital relationship and quality of life. Four variables that reflected marital strengths and were identified as critical in distinguishing between high and low stress families were family and friends, sex, finances, and personality.

These concepts have proven useful in studies of alternate family forms such as single parent and remarried families. For example, family cohesion, conflict, family organization, and communication styles and the adjustment of family members from divorced homes were the focus of the study by Elwood and Stolberg (1991). Adjustment of the custodial parents and child were found to be related to high cohesion and democratic family style, while members of families characterized by a laissez-faire style and high conflict showed significantly poorer

adjustment. Another family systems analysis was that of Kanoy, Cunningham, White, and Adams (1984) who investigated the interrelationships between patterns of family interaction and the well-being of children from both intact and divorced homes. The results provided additional support for earlier evidence that family relationship variables are better predictors of children's behavior than parental marital status (Hess & Camara, 1979), and that parental interaction and well-being are key factors in children's post-divorce adjustment (Pett, 1982; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980).

Conclusion

Meyer (1980) observed that any period of an individual's life must be evaluated from the perspective of his or her entire life cycle. By the time a person leaves adolescence and enters the phase of life known as adulthood, many factors have coincided to influence who the person is and what he or she may become. No young adult had any choice in parents, or social class, or many of the experiences that contributed to the kind of person he or she becomes. For most young adults it may be said that the stories of their lives were to a great extent written for them. Young adulthood is the time of life young people begin to write their own stories through the choices and decisions they make at that critical time. Ironically, even these choices and decisions are often constrained by the past.

The challenge for those who care about children is to learn more about what they need so that the stories each generation writes may be better than those of the past. This must be what family research is all about.

The high rate of divorce during the last half of this century and the fairly well-established fact that adult children of divorce are more likely to divorce (Glick, 1988; Glenn & Kramer, 1985; Greenberg & Nay, 1982; Mueller & Pope, 1977; Pope & Mueller, 1976) have raised concern for the well-being of young adults, especially their ability to establish and maintain close relationships, and inspired this comment: "the increase in the proportion of adults who are children of divorce in the next few decades will lead, in the absence of countervailing influences, to a steady and non-trivial decline in the overall level of well-being of the American adult population" (Glenn & Kramer, 1985, p. 911). Little research has been done concerning the factors that contribute to interpersonal relationship quality in young adults. The present research was intended to be exploratory and to suggest directions for future research.

It was not intended that this literature review would be comprehensive. Rather, it represents a selection from a vast body of literature in the form of research articles and theoretical writings related to the variables that were considered. An effort was made to include current research as well as seminal writings from earlier decades that continue to be influential.

Appendix B

Methodology

Introduction

This study examined predictors of the level of interpersonal relationship quality of young adults. Predictor variables of primary interest were personal, interpersonal, and family variables that were identified through a search of the literature as related to interpersonal relationship quality. In addition, two demographic variables, gender of subject and parents' marital status, were also included as predictor variables. Therefore, the predictor variables used in this study to predict the criterion variable of interpersonal relationship quality of young adults were the subjects' perceptions of self-esteem, trait anxiety, state anxiety, conflict management skills, relationship with father, relationship with mother, perceptions of the parental relationship, parents' use of reasoning, parents' use of threats, parents' use of violence, family cohesion, family adaptability, parents' marital status, and gender of the subject.

The research method was a cross-sectional correlational design using multiple regression analysis to predict a criterion variable from a set of predictor variables. Data was collected at one point in time through the use of a questionnaire. This research method was chosen because the goal of the research was to determine relationships among preexisting variables which could not be controlled or manipulated (Spector, 1981). Isaac and Michael (1981) observed that correlational

research is appropriate where variables are very complex and do not lend themselves to the experimental method and controlled manipulation. Further, the fact that relational patterns are often arbitrary and ambiguous is a limitation of this type of research.

Kerlinger (1986) described multiple regression analysis as an efficient and powerful tool for testing hypotheses and making inferences concerning the complex phenomena of social science research. This method of analysis provides information concerning the relative influence of each independent variable on the dependent variable, as well as their combined influence. Kerlinger warned, however, that multivariate analysis may be difficult to use and to interpret, based not only on the complexity of the method, but more so because of the complex nature of behavioral science phenomena.

Sample and Procedure

Subjects for this purposive, non-randomized study were recruited from the fall and spring enrollments of the course entitled Human Development in the Family (FRCD 2113) in the Department of Family Relations and Child Development of Oklahoma State University. In each of the two semesters, students in FRCD 2113 met twice weekly in large groups of approximately 250 students for a lecture format. In addition, students attended one of nine smaller discussion groups for one hour each week. These groups each consisted of 20 to 30 students.

Data was collected using a self-report survey instrument. These questionnaires were distributed to each of the discussion groups during the last week of the fall semester and the second week of the spring semester. Time required to complete the instrument ranged from approximately 20 to 60 minutes. A cover letter accompanying the

questionnaire (see Appendix H) described the nature of the research project and assured subjects of the confidentiality of their responses. Students were cautioned to refrain from writing their names or other identifying information on the questionnaires. Following completion, questionnaires were collected randomly. Although the individual instruments were numbered for coding and analysis, there was no way of linking the number with the identity of the subject. Subjects were also informed that participation in the project was voluntary and that there was no penalty if they did not choose to participate. From the fall enrollment of 254 students, 211 (83%) agreed to complete the questionnaires, and from the spring enrollment of 241 students, 210 (87%) participated. From the total of 421 questionnaires that were completed, a final sample of 356 students (84%) was selected who were between the ages of 18 and 24, and who had specified parental marital status as married, separated, or divorced.

The sample consisted of 85% females (n = 303), and 14% males (n = 50), with a mean age of 19.97. Three subjects did not indicate gender. A majority, 89%, were Caucasian (n = 317), with Native American 5% (n = 17), and African American 3% (n = 12) as the next largest groups, and other 3% (n = 10). Religious preference was indicated as Protestant 73% (n = 260), Catholic 15% (n = 54), Jewish .3% (n = 1), and 11% other (n = 41). Sixty-four percent (n = 227) described themselves as moderately religious, 18% (n = 66) as very religious, 17% (n = 61) as not very religious, and .6% (n = 2) as not religious at all. Current relationship status was reported as 91% single (n = 323), 3% married (n = 12), .3% previously married (n = 1), and 6% engaged (n = 20). Fifty-eight percent (n = 206) reported currently being in a steady

relationship, but this figure is not exact as some subjects reported in more than one category (e.g., engaged and going steady).

Responses concerning parental marital status indicated that 66% (n = 235) of the parents' marriages were intact, and 34% (n = 121) were divorced or separated. Family income was estimated by 85% as moderate to moderately high (n = 302), high 8% (n = 30), moderately low to low 6% (n = 23). A majority of both parents were employed. Of the fathers, 93% were employed (n = 332), .8% were unemployed (n = 3), 2.5% were retired (n = 9), and 3.4% (n = 12) were deceased or not reported. The mothers were reported as 79% employed (n = 277), 21% not employed (n = 74), .6% retired (n = 2), and .8% (n = 3) either deceased or not reported (see Table 7).

Insert Table 7 about here

Based on Duncan's Revised Socioeconomic Index of Occupational Status (Featherman & Stevens, 1982), 69% of fathers (n = 227) were classified as professional/technical or managers/administrators, and 54% of mothers (n = 147) were in these categories. In addition, 10% of fathers (n = 33) and 8% of mothers (n = 23) were in sales; 2% of fathers (n = 7) and 26% of mothers (n = 71) were listed as clerical workers. Among the fathers, 14% (n = 45) were classified as craftsmen/operatives/laborers, but only 3% (n = 8) of mothers were in these categories. Three percent (n = 10) of fathers were classified as farmers and farm managers and 3% (n = 9) were service workers compared with .4% (n = 1) mothers listed as farmer, and 9% (n = 24) mothers as service workers. The service

category included law enforcement personnel as well as occupations such as waiter and janitor (see Table 8).

Insert Table 8 about here

Measurement

The survey instrument consisted of previously established instruments or modifications of established instruments (see Table 9).

Insert Table 9 about here

A standard fact sheet was constructed to collect demographic information (see Appendix G). Permission was obtained to use and/or revise the instruments from authors or copyright holders when this was appropriate (see Appendix H). Six graduate students completed the questionnaire to determine the time required and to evaluate the clarity of the instructions and the wording of the items before it was administered.

The Interpersonal Relationship Scale (IRS).

The Interpersonal Relationship Scale (Guerney, 1977; Schlein, 1971) was a 52-item scale developed to assess trust and intimacy in the close interpersonal relationships of dating/premarital couples. The original instructions for the scale were: "This is a questionnaire to determine the attitudes and feelings you have in your relationship with your partner. We are interested in the relationship as it is, not in the way you think it should be. Please answer the statements by giving as true a picture of your own feelings and beliefs as possible." In order to apply to respondents who were not currently in a close

relationship, as well as to those who were, the instructions were modified as follows: "As you respond to the following statements, think about a close relationship you are currently involved in, or an important close relationship you have been in in the past. Please answer the statements by giving as true a picture of your feelings and beliefs as they are now, or were when you were involved in the previous relationship, not the way you think it should be, or should have been."

The IRS was developed by Schlein (1971), in collaboration with Guerney and Stover, for use in a research project designed to evaluate the effectiveness of a relationship enhancement program for dating/premarital couples, PRIMES (Program for Relationship Improvement by Maximizing Empathy and Self-Disclosure) (Guerney, 1977; Schlein, 1971). The scale was constructed from an original pool of 106 items that reflected the constructs of trust and intimacy. A panel of 28 judges with expertise in the field of human relationships rated each item according to its capacity to measure the two constructs. Through a process of revision and elimination, the number was reduced to 52 items. All items were described as dealing specifically with trust and intimacy as they applied to dating/premarital relationships.

The items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 = "strongly agree" to 5 = "strongly disagree." Sample items were, "In our relationship I am cautious and play it safe," and "I can express strong, deep feelings to my partner." Scores ranged from 52 to 260 with high scores indicating higher quality relationships. A previously established two-month test-retest reliability was reported at .92 and concurrent validity correlations ranged from .55 to .79 (Guerney, 1977). A Cronbach coefficient alpha based on the present data was .95.

Construct and concurrent validity were also established. These procedures and the results are described in detail in Manuscript II of this dissertation.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE).

Self-esteem was measured using the Guttman format Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1979). Based on responses to 10 items that deal with "a general favorable or unfavorable global self-attitude" (Rosenberg, 1979), a set of six scales resulting in a single score was used. Guttman scales typically consist of a relatively small number of items that measure a unidimensional concept, like self-esteem, and are constructed in such a way that a subject's answering pattern can be predicted from the total score (Isaac & Michael, 1981; Kerlinger, 1986). Scale item I of the RSE was contrived from the combined responses to items 3, 7, and 9; scale item II was based on combined responses to items 4 and 5; scale items III, IV, and V were based on responses to items 1, 8, and 10; and scale item VI was based on combined responses to items 2 and 6 (Rosenberg, 1979). Sample items were, "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself," and "I certainly feel useless at times." Subjects were asked to strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with each item. Scores ranged from 0 to 6 with lower scores indicating higher self-esteem. Rosenberg (1979) reported a coefficient of reproductibility of .92, a coefficient of scalability of .72, and test-retest reliabilities of .85 and .88. Construct, convergent, and discriminant validities were also previously established.

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI).

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970) was comprised of two separate 20-item scales that

measured two distinct anxiety concepts, state anxiety (SA) and trait anxiety (TA). State anxiety was defined as a transitory emotional state "characterized by subjective, consciously perceived feelings of tension and apprehension, and heightened autonomic nervous system activity" (Spielberger et al., 1970, p.3) that occurs in response to a specific stimulus; and trait anxiety was conceptualized as a global, relatively stable characteristic.

Permission was obtained from the publisher to modify the instructions for the state scale (see Appendix H). The original instructions required the subject to respond in terms of their feelings at a particular moment in time. In order to measure anxiety associated with close committed relationships, the instructions were modified as follows: "As you respond to the following statements, think about a committed interpersonal relationship that you are currently involved in, or a close relationship in the past. If you have never been in a committed intimate relationship, consider a close friendship. Please answer the statements by giving as true a picture of your feelings and beliefs as they are now, or were when you were involved in the previous relationship, not the way you thing it should be, or should have been."

Permission was also obtained from the publisher to include the following three sample items (see Appendix H): items indicating the absence of anxiety: "I feel calm," and "I feel secure," and to indicate the presence of anxiety: "I am tense." The four response categories for the trait scale were, 1 = "almost never," 2 = "sometimes," 3 = "often," and 4 = "almost always"; and the state scale responses were, 1 = "not at all," 2 = "somewhat," 3 = "moderately so," and 4 = "very much so."

Scores ranged from 20 to 80, with higher scores indicating higher levels of anxiety.

Previously established test-retest reliabilities for the trait scale were relatively high, .73 (104) days to .86 (20 days). Because the state scale reflected the influence of situational factors, test-retest reliabilities were relatively low, .16 to .54. Internal consistency reliability coefficients for the state scale ranged from .83 to .92, and internal reliability of the trait scale was reported as equally high. In addition, concurrent validity was established for both scales (Spielberger et al., 1970). Internal consistency reliability coefficients based on the present sample were .91 for trait anxiety and .94 for state anxiety.

Conflict Resolution Scale (CR).

The conflict management skills of young adults in close interpersonal relationships were measured using the conflict resolution subscale of PREPARE (Fournier, Olson, & Druckman, 1982), an inventory designed to assess personal and relationship issues for couples who planned to marry. Permission to use this scale was obtained from the first author. Although the scale was designed for engaged couples, the items measured the way conflict was handled by the individual in a relationship and was therefore considered appropriate for use in the present investigation. The original instructions applied to engaged couples. Instructions were altered for this study by asking that subjects think of a close relationship they were presently involved in or a past close relationship as they responded to each statement.

The subscale (CR) consisted of ten items designed to measure the way individuals handled conflict and resolved differences in close

relationships. Sample items were, "In order to end an argument, I usually give in,'" and "When we are having a problem, I can always tell my partner what is bothering me." The items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 = "agree strongly" to 5 = "disagree strongly." Scores ranged from 10 to 50, and higher scores indicated higher levels of conflict management skills. Previously established reliability coefficients for this scale were Cronbach's alpha = .72, and test-retest = .76 (Fournier, Olson, & Druckman, 1982). Cronbach's coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability based on the present study was .77.

Parent-Child Relationship Survey.

The Parent-Child Relationship Survey (Fine, Moreland, & Schwebel, 1983) consisted of two separate 24-item scales designed to assess adults' (over age 18) perceptions of their relationship with mother (RM) and with father (RF). The original instructions for the two scales requested simply that the subject complete the questions about their fathers or mothers. The following introductory statement was added: "The items in this section ask about your relationship with each of your biological parents. If you are adopted, consider your adoptive parents in answering these items. If a biological parent has been absent most of your life, and a stepparent has taken his/her place, consider these parents as you answer."

The scales were developed for use in a research project conducted by the authors on the long-term effects of divorce on college students' relationships with their parents. The relationship dimensions assessed by these scales were trust, closeness, role clarity, perceptual accuracy, anger, communication, respect, and the influence the parent has in the subject's life. Sample items were "How much time do you feel

you spend with your father (mother)?" and "How confident are you that your mother (father) would help you when you have a problem?" Items were measured on a 7-point summated scale, and response choices varied according to the wording of the question. For example, response choices for the first sample item ranged from "1 = almost none" to "7 = a great deal," and for the second sample item, "1 = not at all," to "7 = extremely." The range of scores for each scale was 24 to 168, with higher scores representing more positive relationships. Face validity was reported, as well as internal consistency reliabilities of .94 for the mother scale and .96 for the father scale (Fine et al., 1983). Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the present study was .94 for the mother scale and .97 for the father scale.

The Quality of Coparental Communication.

The perceived quality of the parental relationship was measured by a modified version of the Quality of Coparental Communication Scale (Ahrons, 1983), an instrument designed to measure a general level of conflict, support, and communication in the coparental relationships of divorced couples. The original instrument consisted of two subscales, one addressing conflict (four items), and the other addressing support issues (six items). Permission to revise the instrument to meet the needs of the present study was obtained from the author. Because the scale (PR) was intended to measure the child's perception of the relationship between parents in intact as well as separated or divorced marital relationships, items were eliminated that applied only to a divorced situation, and the remaining items were reworded to obtain the subject's perceptions. For example, the item, "When you and your former spouse discuss parenting issues, how often does an argument result?",

was changed to "When your parents discuss parenting issues, how often does an argument result?" The resulting 7-item scale was measured on a 5-point Likert-type response scale which ranged from 1 = "always" to 5 = "never." Scores ranged from 7 to 35, and items were re-coded in the analysis in order for higher scores to reflect more positive parental relationships. Internal consistency reliabilities for the original two scales were .74 to .88 (Grotevant & Carlson, 1989). Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability based on the modified version used in the present study was .86.

Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS).

Perceptions of specific styles of parental conflict were measured by the Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979). The instructions for the CTS requested that the subject respond about parental disagreements that occurred during the past year. The instructions for the present study asked the subject to respond concerning the last year they lived at home. The CTS measured the use of three modes of dealing with family conflict: (a) the reasoning scale which tapped the use of rational discussion, argument, and reasoning; (b) the verbal aggression scale which assessed the use of verbal and non-verbal acts which symbolically hurt another, or the use of threats; and (c) the violence scale which assessed the use of physical force. This study utilized the Father-Mother Conflict Resolution version of Form A, a self-report instrument composed of a child's perception of 15 possible parental responses to conflict. For scoring purposes the three modes of conflict tactics were treated as three separate scales: Parents' use of reasoning (PUR) consisted of the first four items, parents use of threats (PUT) consisted of items 5 through 9, and parents' use of violence (PUV)

consisted of items 10 through 15. Examples of items from each of the scales were: parents' use of reason, "tried to discuss the issue relatively calmly"; parents' use of threats, "yelled and/or insulted"; and parents' use of violence, "threw something at the other person." The items were rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 = "never" to 5 = "more than once a month." The range of scores for PUR was 0 to 40, with higher scores indicating more frequent use of reasoning. The range of scores for PUT was 0 to 50, and for PUV was 0 to 60. Higher scores on these scales indicated more frequent use of threats or of violence to resolve parental conflict. Concurrent and construct validities were established and internal consistency reliabilities for Form A were reported ranging from .44 to .91 (Straus, 1979). Cronbach's coefficient alpha based on the present data was .78 for parents' use of reasoning, .89 for parents' use of threats, and .94 for parents' use of violence.

Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scale III (FACES III).

The two dimensions of family functioning (i.e., cohesion and adaptability) were measured using the "real" form of FACES III (Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell, 1979). The "real" form assessed how family members perceived their family to be at the present time, as opposed to the "ideal" form which measured how they would like it to be. The original instructions for FACES III were: "The following statements describe common family situations. Please place the number (1-5) that you believe best describes your family as you see it now." The instructions were modified as follows:

> Think about the family in which you grew up, especially during the years you were in high school. If you lived in

more than one type of family situation during that time, for example, if your parents were divorced and you lived with your mother part of the time and your father part of the time, think of the family situation in which you spent the most time, or the one you feel was the most important during those years. Decide for each statement below how often the situation occurred in your family.

The 20-item self-report instrument was based on the circumplex model of family systems. FACES III is currently considered a linear measure with high scores representing balanced functioning in the areas of cohesion and adaptability, and low scores representing extreme types or unbalanced levels of family functioning (Olson, 1991). Family cohesion was defined as the degree of emotional bonding among family members. Adaptability referred to the ability of a family system to change its power structure, role relationships and rules in response to stress and change (Olson et al., 1979).

The twenty items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = "almost never" to 5 = "almost always." A sample question from the cohesion subscale was "We like to do things with just our immediate family," and from the adaptability subscale, "Children have a say in their discipline." For purposes of scoring and analysis, the two subscales were treated as two separate scales, family cohesion (FAMC) and family adaptability (FAMA). The range of scores for each of the scales was 10 to 50, with higher scores indicating higher functioning on the two dimensions. Construct validity was established. Previously established test-retest reliability over a 4-week period was .83, and internal consistency reliabilities were .77 for cohesion and

62 for adaptability (Grotevant & Carlson, 1989). Internal consistency reliability coefficients based on the present study were family cohesion .91 and family adaptability .76.

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were tested:

1. The young adult's level of self-esteem (RSE measure) was predicted to be positively related to interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure).

2. The young adult's level of state anxiety (SA measure) and trait anxiety (TA measure) were predicted to be negatively related to interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure).

3. The young adult's conflict management skills (CR measure) was predicted to be positively related to interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure).

4. The young adult's perceptions of relationship with father (RF measure) and relationship with mother (RM measure) were predicted to be positively related to interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure).

5. The young adult's perceptions of the parental relationship (PR measure) was predicted to be positively related to interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure).

6. The young adult's perceptions of parents' use of reasoning (PUR measure) was predicted to be positively related to interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure).

7. The young adult's perceptions of parents' use of threats (PUT measure) and parents' use of violence (PUV measure) were predicted to be negatively related to interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure).

8. The young adult's perceptions of family cohesion (FAMC measure), and family adaptability (FAMA measure) were predicted to be positively related to interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure)

9. Parental marital status was predicted to demonstrate a relationship with interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure).

10. The gender of the young adult was predicted to demonstrate a relationship with interpersonal relationship quality (IRS measure).

Data Analysis

This section will describe the steps taken to test the hypotheses. The variables used in this study were continuous variables with the exception of two categorical variables, gender and parental marital status. A dummy variable for parental marital status (married coded 1, and separated or divorced coded 0) was included as a predictor variable in each regression equation to test for differences between young adults from intact and maritally disrupted family backgrounds. Similarly, gender (male coded 1, female coded 0) was included as a predictor in each regression equation to test for gender differences in interpersonal relationship quality.

Frequencies, means, and standard deviations were obtained for each of the demographic variables, individual scale items, and scale totals. To ensure internal consistency reliability and in order to compare previously established internal consistency reliability coefficients with those based on the data collected for this study, Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was obtained on each of the designated scales except RSE.

Linearity is a basic assumption of the regression model (Berry & Feldman, 1985; Kerlinger, 1986). This assumption states that for each

independent variable (X_1), the amount of change in the mean value of the dependent variable (Y) associated with a unit increase in the independent variable, holding all other independent variables constant, is the same regardless of the level of the independent variable (Berry & Feldman, 1985). A one-way analysis of variance was conducted on each of the independent variables to confirm a linear relationship with the dependent variable. An examination of the data indicated there were no significant deviations from the linear for any primary variable.

Further, the matrix of bivariate correlations was examined to identify possible multicollinearity. Kerlinger (1986) observed that the ideal predictive situation exists when correlations between the independent variables and the dependent variables are high, and correlations among the independent variables are low. This situation, Kerlinger continued, reflects the difficulty of interpreting the results of most regression analyses, since in much research the independent variables are correlated.

Berry and Feldman (1985) asserted that typically multicollinearity is not a problem if no correlation exceeds some pre-defined cutoff, usually 80. Based on this information, $\underline{r} \geq .75$ was set as an indicator of possible multicollinearity in the present study. Berry and Feldman (1985) warned that an appropriate cutoff value is difficult to define, as a number of factors may contribute to the problem, including sample size and the purpose of the analysis.

A further examination of the bivariate correlations indicated relatively high correlations between state anxiety and trait anxiety ($\underline{r} = .68$), and between self-esteem and trait anxiety ($\underline{r} = .72$). In order to reduce the possibility of multicollinearity, and because state

anxiety was the variable of greater interest in the present study, trait anxiety was dropped from one set of the regression analyses. This analysis was described in Manuscript I of this dissertation. For the purpose of comparison, details of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis including trait anxiety may be found in Appendix F.

In step 1 of the first regression equation, the young adults' perceptions of self-esteem, state anxiety, conflict management skills, relationship with father, relationship with mother, the parental relationship, parents' use of reasoning, threats, and violence, family cohesion, and family adaptability, and the demographic variables, parental marital status and gender, were entered into the regression equation as independent variables. Interpersonal relationship quality was the dependent variable.

In step 2, in order to test for possible interaction between marital status and the primary variables, interaction terms consisting of each of the primary continuous variables by parental marital status were entered into the equation along with the primary and the demographic variables as independent variables. Interpersonal relationship quality was entered as a dependent variable. The extent to which multicollinearity existed within the model was examined more precisely by conducting tolerance tests using the default value of .01 as the low level for tolerance.

The original 52-item Interpersonal Relationship Scale was used in this analysis. An evaluation study of the IRS was described in Manuscript II of this dissertation.

Table 7

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Characteristic	n	percent
Age		
18	43	12.07
19	97	27.25
20	116	32.58
21	53	14.89
22	29	8.15
23	10	2.81
24	8	2.25
(Mean age = 19.97, Standard Deviation = 1.36)		
Gender		
males	50	14.04
females	303	85.11
not reported	3	.84
Ethnic background		
African American	12	3.37
Asian American	5	1.40
Native American	17	4.78
Hispanic	3	.84
Caucasian	317	89.04
Other	2	.56
Relationship status		
single	323	90.73
married	12	3.37
previously married	1	.28
engaged	20	5.62
Currently in a steady relationship		
yes	206	57.86
no	149	41.85
not reported	1	.28
(some subjects reported in more than one category, i.e., engaged and steady relationship)		
Religious background		
Protestant	260	73.03
Catholic	54	15.16
Jewish	1	.28
Other	41	11.52
How religious		
very	66	18.54
moderately	227	63.76
not very	61	17.13
not at all	2	.56
Parental marital status		
intact	235	66.01
divorced/separated	121	33.99
Family income		
high	30	8.43
moderately high	144	40.45
moderate	158	44.38
moderately low	17	4.78
low	6	1.68
not reported	1	.28

Table 8

Parental Employment*

Occupation	Fathers		Mothers	
	N	percent	N	percent
professional, technical, and kindred workers	102	30.82	104	37.96
managers and administrators except farm	125	37.76	43	15.69
sales	33	9.97	23	8.39
clerical & kindred workers	7	2.11	71	25.91
craftsmen & kindred workers	29	8.76	4	1.46
operatives except transport	13	3.93	4	1.46
laborers except farm	3	.91		
farmers & farm managers	10	3.02	1	.36
service workers	9	2.72	24	8.76
Total Employed	331	92.98	274	76.97
Unemployed	3	.84	74	20.79
Retired	9	2.53	2	.56
Not Reported	13	3.65	6	1.68
Grant Totals	356	100.00	356	100.00

*Based on Duncan's Revised Socioeconomic Index of Occupational Status (Featherman & Stevens, 1982)

Table 9

Instruments used in Predictors of the Interpersonal Relationship Quality of Young Adults

Variables	Scale	Alpha (orig)	Alpha (cur)	No Items	No. * Cases	Mean	SD	Item Mean
Trust and Intimacy	Interpersonal Relationship Scale (IRS) (Guerney, 1977) MI		95	52	340	216 68	28 61	4 17
Conflict Resolution Skills	Conflict Resolution Subscale of PREPARE (Fournier, Olson, & Druckman, 1982) MI	72	77	10	352	34 06	7 75	3 41
Self Esteem	Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1979)			10	352	34 06	7 75	3 41
Trait Anxiety	State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) (Spielberger, Gorusch & Lushene, 1970) MI#	83 to 92	91	20	351	40 50	9 98	2 02
State Anxiety			94	20	351	36 09	11 28	1 80
Relationship with Father	Parent-Child Relationship Survey (Fine, Moreland & Schwebel, 1983) MI	96	97	24	347	122 42	35 74	5 10
Relationship with Mother		94	94	24	352	140 86	22 98	5 87
Parents' Relationship	Quality of Coparental Communication (Ahrons & Goldsmith, 1981) MS	74 to 88	86	7	341	24 43	6 13	3 49
Parents' use of reasoning	Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) (Straus, 1979) MI	44 to 91	78	8	336	20 23	8 07	2 53
Parents' use of threats			89	10	340	14 12	11 58	1 41
Parents' use of violence			94	12	341	44 31	9 97	36
Family cohesion	Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scale Scale III (FACES III) (Olson, Sprenkle & Russell, 1979) MI	77	91	10	350	36 08	9 01	3 61
Family adaptability		62	76	10	342	24 98	6 99	2 50

* variations due to missing values; SD = standard deviation

MI = Modified Instructions, MS = Modified Scale, MI# - only the State Anxiety Scale was modified

Appendix C

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Appendix D

Supplemental Analysis I: Regression Analysis of the Personal and Interpersonal Variables and the Family Variables With Interpersonal Relationship Quality

Analysis

In the following two hierarchical multiple regression equations, the personal and interpersonal variables and the family variables were entered in two separate equations to determine the relative influence of the three types of variables on interpersonal relationship quality. In step one of the first equation, self-esteem, trait anxiety, state anxiety, and conflict resolution skills and the demographic variables were entered as predictor variables, and interpersonal relationship quality was the criterion variable. In step two, interaction terms consisting of the personal and interpersonal variables by parental marital status, and the primary personal, interpersonal, and demographic variables were entered as predictor variables, and interpersonal relationship quality as the criterion variable. The results of this procedure indicated none of the interaction terms was significantly related to interpersonal relationship quality at the .05 level. A tolerance test using the default value of .01 as the low level for tolerance was run to test for multicollinearity.

In step one of the second equation, a similar procedure was conducted using family variables, relationship with father, relationship with mother, parents' relationship, parents' use of reasoning, parents'

use of threats, parents' use of violence, family cohesion, family adaptability, gender, and parental marital status as predictor variables, and interpersonal relationship quality as the criterion variable. In step two, interaction terms consisting of these family variables by parental marital status were entered along with the primary family and demographic variables as the predictor variables, and interpersonal relationship quality as the criterion variable. Again, no interaction terms were significantly related to interpersonal relationship quality at the .05 level. A second tolerance test using the default value of .01 as the low level of tolerance was run to test for multicollinearity.

Results

In the first step of the first hierarchical multiple regression equation, the personal, interpersonal, and demographic variables were entered as predictor variables with interpersonal relationship quality as the criterion variable. The predictor variables accounted for 47% of the variance in the criterion variable ($F = 51.54$, $p < .0001$; see Table 10).

Insert Table 10 about here

Conflict resolution and state anxiety were significant variables in the model ($p < .0001$), conflict resolution having a positive relationship, and state anxiety having a negative relationship with interpersonal relationship quality (see Table 10). In the second step, in addition to the personal, interpersonal, and demographic variables, interaction terms consisting of the personal and interpersonal variables by parental

marital status were entered into the equation. The predictor variables in this second step accounted for 48% of the variance in the criterion variable (F = 32.04, p < .0001; see Table 11).

Insert Table 11 about here

Conflict resolution and state anxiety were again found to be significant (p < .0001; see Table 11).

In the first step of the second hierarchical multiple regression equation, family and demographic variables were entered as predictor variables with interpersonal relationship quality. The predictor variables in this step accounted for only 7% of the variance in the criterion variable (F = 2.41, p < .01; see Table 12).

Insert Table 12 about here

Only gender was found to have a significant relationship with interpersonal relationship quality (p < .05: see Table 12). Family cohesion approached significance at p = .06. The negative beta coefficient for gender indicated that women's scores were significantly related. In the second step of the second equation, in addition to the family and demographic variables, interaction terms consisting of the continuous family variables by parental marital status were entered. This model accounted for 9% of the variance in the criterion variable (F = 1.81, p < .05; see Table 13).

Insert Table 13 about here

In this step there was again a significant relationship between female gender and interpersonal relationship quality ($p < .05$: see Table 13). In neither the first or second equations were any of the interaction terms significant variables.

These results indicate that overall the personal variables, self-esteem, state anxiety, trait anxiety, and the interpersonal variable, conflict resolution, account for a sizable portion of the variance in interpersonal relationship quality, and that the family variables account for a relatively low proportion of variance. Further, with the exception of a modest relationship with female gender, parental marital status had relatively little influence on interpersonal relationship quality of young adults.

Table 10

Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Personal and Interpersonal Variables with Interpersonal Relationship Quality: Step 1

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.59****	1.44	0.17	0.39	8.59	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.30****	0.52	1.13	0.03	0.46	0.64
Trait Anxiety	-0.45****	-0.11	0.19	-0.04	-0.56	0.58
State Anxiety	-0.58****	-0.94	0.14	-0.37	-6.81	0.00****
Parents' marital status	0.10*	2.89	2.36	0.05	1.22	0.22
Gender	-0.12**	-3.74	3.24	-0.04	-1.15	0.25

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.68
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.47
F - Value	51.54***

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 11

Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Personal and Interpersonal Variables and Interaction Terms with Interpersonal Relationship Quality: Step 2

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.59****	1.28	0.30	0.35	4.32	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.30****	2.20	1.86	0.11	1.18	0.24
Trait Anxiety	-0.45****	-0.47	0.32	-0.16	-1.46	0.14
State Anxiety	-0.58****	-1.17	0.22	-0.46	-5.31	0.00****
Parental marital status	0.10*	-39.04	21.10	-0.65	-1.85	0.06
Gender	-0.12**	-3.51	3.26	-0.04	-1.08	0.28
Conflict resolution X Parental Marital Status	0.27****	0.27	0.36	0.16	0.74	0.46
Self esteem X Parental Marital Status	-0.14**	-2.78	2.33	-0.13	-1.19	0.23
Trait anxiety X Parental Marital Status	-0.03	0.57	0.40	0.41	1.42	0.16
State anxiety X Parental Marital Status	-0.11*	0.38	0.28	0.26	1.36	0.17
Multiple Correlation (R)		0.69				
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)		0.48				
F - Value		32.04****				

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 12

Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Family Variables with Interpersonal Relationship Quality: Step 1

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Relationship with father	0.13**	0.06	0.06	0.07	1.01	0.31
Relationship with mother	0.13**	0.03	0.08	0.02	0.36	0.72
Parents' relationship	0.13**	0.09	0.37	0.02	0.24	0.81
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.08	-0.31	0.19	-0.09	-1.60	0.11
Parents use of threats	-0.12*	-0.11	0.17	-0.04	-0.62	0.54
Parents' use of violence	-0.05	0.15	0.19	0.05	0.79	0.43
Family cohesion	0.18****	0.46	0.25	0.14	1.85	0.06
Family adaptability	0.02*	-0.17	0.24	-0.04	-0.71	0.48
Parents' marital status	0.09*	2.78	3.63	0.05	0.76	0.44
Gender	-0.12*	-8.91	4.33	-0.11	-2.06	0.04*

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.26
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.07
F - Value	2.41**

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 13

Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Family Variables and Interaction Terms with Interpersonal Relationship Quality: Step 2

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Relationship with father	0.13**	0.11	0.07	0.14	1.56	0.12
Relationship with mother	0.13**	0.10	0.13	0.08	0.72	0.47
Parents' relationship	0.13**	-0.22	0.52	-0.05	-0.44	0.66
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.08	-0.50	0.36	-0.14	-1.36	0.18
Parents use of threats	-0.12*	0.00	0.27	0.00	-0.01	0.99
Parents' use of violence	-0.05	0.27	0.27	0.09	0.99	0.32
Family cohesion	0.18****	0.57	0.38	0.18	1.52	0.13
Family adaptability	0.02*	0.45	0.44	0.11	1.02	0.31
Parents' marital status	0.09*	40.40	27.33	0.68	1.48	0.14
Gender	-0.12*	-8.62	4.44	-0.10	-1.94	0.05*
Father relationship X Parental Marital Status	0.13**	-0.04	0.12	-0.08	-0.29	0.77
Mother relationship X Parental Marital Status	0.11*	-0.11	0.17	-0.27	-0.65	0.52
Parents' relationship X Parental Marital Status	0.13**	0.44	0.74	0.20	0.59	0.56
Use of reasoning X Parental Marital Status	0.04	0.28	0.43	0.12	0.64	0.52
Use of threats X Parental Marital Status	-0.06	-0.15	0.36	-0.06	-0.41	0.68
Use of violence X Parental Marital Status	-0.08	-0.38	0.39	-0.09	-0.98	0.33
Family cohesion X Parental Marital Status	0.12**	-0.26	0.51	-0.17	-0.50	0.61

Table 13 (Continued)

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Family adaptability X Parental Marital Status	0.07	-0.87	0.52	-0.40	-1.65	0.10
Multiple Correlation (R)		0.30				
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)		0.09				
F - Value		1.81*				

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Appendix E

Supplemental Analysis II: Regression Analysis of the Dimensions of Interpersonal Relationship Quality

Principal components factoring with varimax rotation applied to the Interpersonal Relationship Scale (IRS) yielded the six factors of trust, self-disclosure, genuineness, empathy, comfort, and communication. A description of this analysis may be found in Manuscript II of this dissertation. Estimates of internal consistency reliability for the six subscales using Cronbach's alpha were: trust scale, .91; self-disclosure, .86; genuineness, .83; empathy, .77; comfort, .72; and communication .71. In order to determine the relationship between the six subscales of the IRS and the predictor variables described in the methodology section of this dissertation, six separate multiple regression analyses were performed using each of the subscales as criterion variables. This Appendix will briefly describe the results of these analyses.

In each of the six regression analyses, the personal variables, (i.e., self-esteem, state anxiety, and trait anxiety), and the interpersonal variable (i.e., conflict resolution) and family variables (i.e., relationship with father, relationship with mother, parents' relationship, parents' use of reasoning, parents' use of threats, parents' use of violence, family cohesion, and family adaptability) and parental marital status and gender of subject were entered as predictor variables with each of the subscales of IRS as criterion variable. In

the first analysis, the predictor variables accounted for 37% of the variance in the trust factor (F = 13.92, p < .0001; see Table 14).

Insert Table 14 about here

Conflict resolution and state anxiety were significantly related to trust (see Table 14). Specifically, conflict resolution yielded a significant positive beta coefficient in relation to trust, while state anxiety manifested a significant negative coefficient (see Table 14).

In the second regression analysis, the predictor variables accounted for 32% of the variance in self-disclosure (F = 11.31, p < .0001; see Table 15).

Insert Table 15 about here

In this regression equation, in addition to conflict resolution and state anxiety, relationship with mother and family adaptability were significantly related to self-disclosure. Conflict resolution, relationship with mother, and family adaptability resulted in significant positive beta coefficients with respect to self-disclosure (see Table 15). In contrast, state anxiety manifested a significant negative beta (see Table 15).

In the third regression analysis, the predictor variables accounted for 24% of the variance in the criterion variable, genuineness (F = 7.74, p < .0001; see Table 16).

Insert Table 16 about here

Conflict resolution manifested a significant positive beta coefficient in relation to genuineness, and state anxiety yielded a significant negative beta coefficient at a somewhat lower level (see Table 16). In addition, parents' use of reasoning manifested a significant negative beta coefficient (see Table 16), and parents' use of threats yielded a significant positive beta coefficient in relation to genuineness (see Table 16).

In the fourth regression analysis, the primary predictor variables accounted for 47% of the variance in the criterion variable, empathy (F = 21.17, p < .0001; see Table 17).

Insert Table 17 about here

In this equation, conflict resolution and state anxiety were significantly related to empathy. Conflict resolution manifested a significant positive beta coefficient (see Table 17), and anxiety yielded a significant negative beta with respect to empathy (see Table 17).

In the fifth analysis, the predictor variables accounted for 16% of the variance in the comfort factor (F = 4.67, p < .0001; see Table 18).

Insert Table 18 about here

Conflict resolution yielded a significant positive beta coefficient in relation to comfort. Self-esteem yielded a positive beta coefficient; however, due to the way self-esteem was scored, the positive beta in this case indicated that lower self-esteem was related to comfort. Additionally, state anxiety manifested a strong negative beta coefficient in relation to comfort (see Table 18).

In the sixth and final regression analysis, the predictor variables accounted for 14% of the variance in the communication factor ($F = 3.96$, $p < .0001$) (see Table 19).

Insert Table 19 about here

State anxiety was the only predictor variable in this equation to show a significant relationship with communication. State anxiety yielded a significant negative beta coefficient (see Table 19).

Summary

The results of these analyses indicated that the primary variables used in this study explained a significant portion of the variance in each of the six factors. The predictor variables accounted for the highest proportion of variance in empathy (47%), followed by trust (37%), self-disclosure (32%), genuineness (24%), comfort (16%), and communication (14%). State anxiety had a significant negative relationship with each of the six factors of the IRS. Conflict resolution had a significant positive relationship with all the factors except communication; the relationship between conflict resolution and comfort was relatively modest ($p < .05$). Relationship with mother, and family adaptability were both positively related to self-disclosure.

Low self-esteem was related to the comfort factor, parents' use of reasoning was negatively related to the genuineness factor, and parents' use of threats was positively related to genuineness.

Table 14

Multiple Regression of Primary Variables with Trust

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.52****	0.58	0.09	0.34	6.55	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.31****	-0.18	0.58	-0.02	-0.31	0.76
Trait Anxiety	-0.43****	-0.12	0.10	-0.09	-1.20	0.23
State Anxiety	-0.50****	-0.30	0.07	-0.26	-4.11	0.00****
Relationship with father	0.11*	0.03	0.02	0.07	1.22	0.22
Relationship with mother	0.06	-0.02	0.03	-0.03	-0.48	0.63
Parents' relationship	0.06	-0.18	0.14	-0.08	-1.26	0.21
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.11*	-0.12	0.08	-0.07	-1.52	0.13
Parents use of threats	-0.10*	-0.06	0.07	-0.05	-0.93	0.35
Parents' use of violence	-0.02	0.12	0.07	0.09	1.60	0.11
Family cohesion	0.15**	0.06	0.10	0.04	0.56	0.57
Family adaptability	-0.04	-0.05	0.09	-0.03	-0.55	0.58
Parents' marital status	0.07	1.29	1.42	0.05	0.91	0.36
Gender	-0.04	0.37	1.71	0.01	0.22	0.83

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.61
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.37
F - Value	13.92****

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 15

Multiple Regression of Primary Variables with Self-Disclosure

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.43****	0.34	0.06	0.29	5.37	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.22****	0.17	0.42	0.03	0.41	0.68
Trait Anxiety	-0.33****	0.04	0.07	0.04	0.53	0.59
State Anxiety	-0.48****	-0.30	0.05	-0.37	-5.76	0.00****
Relationship with father	0.10*	-5.31	0.02	0.00	-0.04	0.97
Relationship with mother	0.16**	0.05	0.02	0.13	2.21	0.03*
Parents' relationship	0.16**	0.13	0.10	0.08	1.23	0.22
Parents' use of reasoning	0.00*	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.42	0.68
Parents use of threats	-0.11*	-0.02	0.05	-0.03	-0.49	0.63
Parents' use of violence	-0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.94	0.35
Family cohesion	0.17***	-0.12	0.07	-0.12	-1.73	0.08
Family adaptability	0.11*	0.18	0.07	0.14	2.65	0.01**
Parents' marital status	0.08	0.32	1.01	0.02	0.32	0.75
Gender	-0.14**	-2.26	1.22	-0.08	-1.85	0.06

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.57
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.32
F - Value	11.31****

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 16

Multiple Regression of Primary Variables with Genuineness

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.40****	0.10	0.02	0.29	5.21	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.15**	0.20	0.13	0.11	1.54	0.12
Trait Anxiety	-0.29****	-0.03	0.02	-0.11	-1.37	0.17
State Anxiety	-0.36****	-0.04	0.02	-0.17	-2.56	0.01**
Relationship with father	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.25	0.80
Relationship with mother	0.10*	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.83	0.41
Parents' relationship	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.50	0.62
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.16**	-0.06	0.02	-0.17	-3.38	0.00***
Parents use of threats	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.14	2.25	0.02*
Parents' use of violence	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.62	0.54
Family cohesion	0.14**	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.54	0.59
Family adaptability	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.39	0.70
Parents' marital status	0.04	0.10	0.32	0.02	0.32	0.75
Gender	-0.09*	-0.22	0.38	-0.03	-0.57	0.57

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.49
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.24
F - Value	7.74****

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 17

Multiple Regression of Primary Variables with Empathy

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.63****	0.30	0.03	0.49	10.28	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.35****	-0.25	0.19	-0.08	-1.31	0.19
Trait Anxiety	-0.46****	-0.03	0.03	-0.07	-0.99	0.32
State Anxiety	-0.49****	-0.07	0.02	-0.18	-3.09	0.00**
Relationship with father	0.13**	0.07	0.01	0.04	0.74	0.46
Relationship with mother	0.12**	0.02	0.01	0.07	1.46	0.14
Parents' relationship	0.14**	0.00	0.05	-0.01	-0.13	0.90
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.06	-0.01	0.02	0.02	-0.41	0.68
Parents use of threats	-0.15**	-0.03	0.02	-0.07	-1.34	0.18
Parents' use of violence	-0.11*	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.91	0.36
Family cohesion	0.14**	-0.06	0.03	-0.11	-1.75	0.08
Family adaptability	-0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.76	0.45
Parents' marital status	0.11*	0.49	0.46	0.05	1.06	0.29
Gender	-0.13**	-0.82	0.56	-0.06	-1.47	0.14

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.68
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.47
F - Value	21.17****

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 18

Multiple Regression of Primary Variables with Comfort

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.22	0.04	0.02	0.12	2.06	0.04*
Self Esteem	0.00	0.44	0.14	0.23	3.15	0.00**
Trait Anxiety	-0.15**	-0.01	0.02	-0.02	-0.25	0.80
State Anxiety	-0.32****	-0.08	0.02	-0.35	-4.91	0.00****
Relationship with father	0.03	1.88	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.97
Relationship with mother	0.08	0.01	0.01	0.09	1.48	0.14
Parents' relationship	0.07	0.04	0.03	0.08	1.10	0.27
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.04	-0.01	0.02	-0.02	-0.46	0.65
Parents use of threats	-0.04	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.18	0.86
Parents' use of violence	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.06	0.86	0.39
Family cohesion	0.06	-0.03	0.02	-0.09	-1.21	0.23
Family adaptability	0.08	0.04	0.02	0.09	1.60	0.11
Parents' marital status	0.02	10.10	0.34	-0.02	-0.29	0.78
Gender	-0.12*	0.56	0.41	-0.07	-1.37	0.17

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.40
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.16
F - Value	4.67****

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 19

Multiple Regression of Primary Variables with Communication

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.20****	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.90	0.37
Self Esteem	-0.14**	0.07	0.05	0.10	1.32	0.19
Trait Anxiety	-0.25****	-0.01	0.01	-0.10	-1.12	0.26
State Anxiety	-0.30****	-0.02	0.01	-0.22	-3.02	0.00**
Relationship with father	0.16***	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.94	0.35
Relationship with mother	0.17***	0.00	0.00	0.11	1.74	0.08
Parents' relationship	0.19****	0.02	0.01	0.12	1.52	0.13
Parents' use of reasoning	0.01	0.00	0.01	-0.03	-0.61	0.54
Parents use of threats	-0.05	0.01	0.00	0.08	1.21	0.23
Parents' use of violence	-0.05	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.31	0.76
Family cohesion	0.19****	-0.00	0.01	-0.01	-0.13	0.90
Family adaptability	0.06	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.56	0.57
Parents' marital status	0.13**	0.09	0.13	0.04	0.69	0.49
Gender	-0.07	-0.13	0.15	-0.04	-0.88	0.38

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.38
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.14
F - Value	3.96****

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Appendix F

Supplemental Analysis III: Hierarchical Multiple Regression of the Primary Predictor Variables Including Trait Anxiety with Interpersonal Relationship Quality

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to estimate the proportion of the variance in the criterion variable, quality of interpersonal relationships, that was accounted for by the predictor variables: conflict resolution, self esteem, state anxiety, trait anxiety, relationship with father and with mother, the parents' relationship, the parents' use of reasoning, threats, and violence, family cohesion, family adaptability, respondents' gender, and the marital status of the parents. In the first regression equation, the primary independent variables accounted for 47% of the variance in the criterion variable (F = 20.85, $p < .0001$; see Table 20).

Insert Table 20 about here

Conflict resolution and state anxiety yielded significant beta coefficients in the model ($p < .0001$; see Table 20). Specifically, conflict resolution resulted in a significant positive beta coefficient in relation to interpersonal relationship quality, while state anxiety yielded a significant negative relationship to interpersonal relationship quality. The other variables, gender, trait anxiety,

family adaptability, parental marital status, parents' use of reasoning, relationship with mother, parents' use of violence, relationship with father, parents' use of threats, self esteem, parents' relationship and family cohesion were not significantly related to interpersonal relationship quality.

Regression equation with interaction variables

Because parental marital status was a variable of particular interest in this study, in a second equation, in addition to the primary independent variables, an additional set of variables was entered to test for possible interaction between marital status and the primary independent variables. A set of interaction terms was computed by multiplying parental marital status by each of the continuous variables in the original model (i.e., conflict resolution, self esteem, trait anxiety, state anxiety, relationship with father, relationship with mother, parents' relationship, parents' use of reasoning, threats, and violence, family cohesion, and family adaptability). Results of the multiple regression analysis using this total set of variables indicated the variance in the dependent variable increased from 47% to 49% ($F = 12.14$, $p < .0001$; see Table 21).

Insert Table 21 about here

As in the original model, conflict resolution and state anxiety remained significant variables ($p = .0001$; see Table 21). Trait anxiety was found to be significant in this equation at the $p < .05$ level. Family adaptability and the trait anxiety interaction term were also significant ($p = .05$; see Table 21).

The third and final equation in this level of hierarchical analysis was the multiple regression of the primary variables and the one significant interaction term, state anxiety X parental marital status with the dependent variable. The variance accounted for in this model was very close to that of the original equation, 47% (F = 19.98, $p < .0001$; see Table 22).

Insert Table 22 about here

Conflict resolution and state anxiety were significant ($p < .0001$). Trait anxiety and the trait anxiety interaction term were also found to be significant at the $p < .05$ level (see Table 22). The extent to which multicollinearity existed within each model was examined more precisely using the default value of .01 as the low level for tolerance.

Table 20

Hierarchical Multiple Regression of the Primary Predictor Variables Including Trait Anxiety with Interpersonal Relationship Quality: Step 1

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.59****	1.45	0.17	0.40	8.42	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.31****	0.65	1.14	0.03	0.57	0.57
Trait Anxiety	-0.46****	-0.21	0.20	-0.07	-1.05	0.30
State Anxiety	-0.57****	-0.84	0.14	-0.33	-5.84	0.00****
Relationship with father	0.13**	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.82	0.41
Relationship with mother	0.13**	0.08	0.06	0.06	1.24	0.22
Parents' relationship	0.13**	0.04	0.28	0.01	0.15	0.88
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.08	-0.16	0.15	-0.05	-1.10	0.27
Parents use of threats	-0.12*	-0.07	0.13	-0.03	-0.53	0.60
Parents' use of violence	-0.05	0.23	0.14	0.08	1.62	0.11
Family cohesion	0.18****	-0.16	0.19	-0.05	-0.85	0.40
Family adaptability	0.02	0.22	0.18	0.05	1.19	0.23
Parents' marital status	0.09*	2.34	2.77	0.04	0.84	0.40
Gender	-0.12*	-3.66	3.34	-0.04	-1.10.	0.27

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.68
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.47
F - Value	20.85****

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 21

Hierarchical Multiple Regression of the Primary Predictor Variables Including Trait Anxiety and Interaction Terms with Interpersonal Relationship Quality: Step 2

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.59****	1.27	0.31	0.35	4.11	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.31****	2.16	1.92	0.11	1.12	0.26
Trait Anxiety	-0.46****	-0.73	0.34	-0.26	-2.12	0.04*
State Anxiety	-0.57****	-0.94	0.24	-0.38	-3.94	0.00****
Relationship with father	0.13**	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.14	0.89
Relationship with mother	0.13**	0.10	0.10	0.08	1.01	0.31
Parents' relationship	0.13**	-0.29	0.40	-0.06	-0.73	0.47
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.08	-0.22	0.28	-0.06	-0.78	0.44
Parents use of threats	-0.12*	0.14	0.21	0.06	0.66	0.51
Parents' use of violence	-0.05	0.12	0.20	0.04	0.58	0.56
Family cohesion	0.18****	-0.13	0.30	-0.04	-0.43	0.66
Family adaptability	0.02	0.66	0.33	0.16	1.97	0.05*
Parents' marital status	0.09*	-30.26	33.33	-0.51	-0.91	0.36
Gender	-0.12*	-3.17	3.43	-0.04	-0.92	0.36
Conflict resolution X Parental Marital Status	0.26****	0.24	0.37	0.15	0.66	0.51
Self Esteem X Parental Marital Status	-0.16***	-2.80	2.39	-0.14	-1.17	0.24
Trait Anxiety X Parental Marital Status	-0.04	0.83	0.42	0.61	1.96	0.05*
State Anxiety X Parental Marital Status	-0.12*	0.14	0.30	0.10	0.48	0.63
Father Relationship X Parental Marital Status	0.13**	0.13	0.09	0.30	1.37	0.17

Table 21 (Continued)

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Mother Relationship X Parental Marital Status	0.11*	-0.06	0.13	-0.16	-0.50	0.62
Parent Relationship X Parental Marital Status	0.13**	0.42	0.57	0.19	0.73	0.46
Use of reasoning X Parental Marital Status	0.04	0.12	0.33	0.05	0.38	0.70
Use of threats X Parental Marital Status	-0.06	-0.29	0.27	-0.11	-1.07	0.28
Use of violence X Parental Marital Status	-0.08	0.05	0.30	0.01	0.16	0.87
Family Cohesion X Parental Marital Status	0.12**	-0.22	0.40	-0.14	-0.54	0.59
Family Adaptability X Parental Marital Status	0.07	-0.70	0.40	-0.32	-1.73	0.08
Multiple Correlation (R)			0.70			
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)			0.49			
F - Value			12.14****			

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Table 22

Final Multiple Regression of Original Model Including Trait Anxiety and Significant Interaction Term with Interpersonal Relationship Quality: Step 3

Variable	r	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
Conflict Resolution	0.59****	1.45	0.17	0.40	8.48	0.00****
Self Esteem	-0.31****	0.61	1.13	0.03	0.54	0.59
Trait Anxiety	-0.46****	-0.54	0.25	-0.19	-2.15	0.03*
State Anxiety	-0.57****	-0.84	0.14	-0.34	-5.91	0.00****
Relationship with father	0.13**	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.65	0.52
Relationship with mother	0.13**	0.07	0.06	0.06	1.15	0.25
Parents' relationship	0.13**	0.03	0.28	0.01	0.11	0.92
Parents' use of reasoning	-0.08	-0.16	0.15	-0.05	-1.09	0.28
Parents use of threats	-0.12*	-0.08	0.13	-0.03	-0.60	0.55
Parents' use of violence	-0.05	0.23	0.14	0.08	1.57	0.12
Family cohesion	0.18****	-0.16	0.19	-0.05	-0.82	0.41
Family adaptability	0.02	0.22	0.18	0.05	1.21	0.23
Parents' marital status	0.09*	-18.86	10.26	-0.32	-1.84	0.07
Gender	-0.12*	-4.11	3.33	-0.05	-1.23	0.22
Trait anxiety X Parental Marital Status	-0.04	0.52	0.24	0.38	2.14	0.03*

Multiple Correlation (R)	0.69
Multiple correlation squared (R^2)	0.47
F - Value	19.98****

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ****$p \leq 0.0001$

Appendix G

Instruments Used in Study

SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

1. Birthdate_____
(month/day/year)

2. Gender: Male____; Female____

3. Ethnic background

___ Afro-American (Black)
___ Asian-American
___ Caucasian (White)
___ Native American (Indian)
___ Hispanic American
___ Other (please specify)
_____

4. Relationship Status

___ Single, never married
___ Single, divorced/Single, widowed
___ Married, first marriage
___ Married, previously married
___ Married, separated
___ Engaged to be married

5. Religious Preference

___ Assembly of God
___ Baptist
___ Catholic
___ Christian
___ Episcopal
___ Jewish
___ Lutheran
___ Methodist
___ Other

How religious do you consider yourself to be:

___ Very religious
___ Moderately religious
___ Not very religious
___ Not religious at all

6. Are you currently in a steady relationship?

___ Yes
___ No
___ If yes, for how many months?

If you are not in a steady relationship, have you been in one in the past?

___ Yes
___ No

If you currently are not in a steady relationship but have been in one or more in the past, consider your most meaningful past relationship. How many months did that relationship last? _____

7. Parents marital status: This question concerns the current marital status of your biological parents. However, if you are adopted, answer these questions with your adoptive parents in mind.

___ Married and living together
___ Separated without intent to divorce
___ Separated with intent to divorce
___ Divorced and single, both
___ Divorced, mother single, father remarried
___ Divorced, father single, mother remarried
___ Divorced, both remarried
___ Single (partner deceased)
___ Remarried (partner deceased)
___ Both parents deceased

8. If one or both of your parents is deceased, how old were you when your parent(s) died?
_____

If your widowed parent has remarried, how old were you when he/she remarried? _____

9. If your parents are divorced or legally separated, please answer the following. If not, go on to question 10.

How old were you when your parents divorced or legally separated? _____
If father remarried, how old were you when he remarried? _____
If mother remarried, how old were you when she remarried? _____
With whom did you live following your parents' divorce or separation?
___ Primarily with father
___ Primarily with mother
___ About equally with both (they had joint custody)
___ Other living arrangement (please explain) _____

How frequently did you have contact with the parent with whom you did not live?
___ Daily
___ One to four times a month
___ Every few months
___ Once a year
___ Every few years
___ Never
___ Other (please explain) _____

If you lived with a parent and stepparent, how many years have they been married? ___

10. In this section, answer the questions about the parent(s), stepparent(s), or guardian(s) with whom you lived most of the time.

Is your father/stepfather/male guardian employed?
___ Yes ___ No ___ Retired

If your father/stepfather/guardian is employed, what is his job title? Please be specific. _____

Please give a full description of your father's/stepfather's, guardian's job, such as: "help build apartment complexes" or "oversees a sales force of 10 people."
_____

Is your mother/stepmother/female guardian employed outside the home?
___ Yes ___ No ___ Retired

If your mother/stepmother/female guardian is employed outside the home, what is her job title? Please be specific. _____

Please give a full description of her job, such as: "teaches chemistry in high school" or "works on an assembly line where car parts are made."
_____

11. Please indicate your family's income status:

___ High
___ Moderately high
___ Moderate
___ Moderately low
___ Low

THE INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP SCALE (IRS)
Schlein (1971)

Directions: As you respond to the following statements, think about a committed, intimate relationship that you are currently involved in, or close relationship in the past. If you have never been in a committed intimate relationship, consider a close friendship. Please answer the statements by giving as true a picture of your feelins and beliefs as they are now, or were when you were involved in the previous relationship, not the way you think it should be, or should have been. Read each statement carefully and circle the answer that you feel best describes your relationship.

SA	MA	U	MD	SD
STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	UNDECIDED	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

Your answers will be held in strictest confidence.

1. When serious disagreements arise between us, I respect my partner's position.	SA MA U MD SD
2. I feel comfortable expressing almost anything to my partner.	SA MA U MD SD
3. In our relationship, I feel I am able to expose my weaknesses.	SA MA U MD SD
4. In our relationship, I'm cautious and play it safe.	SA MA U MD SD
5. I can express deep, strong feelings to my partner.	SA MA U MD SD
6. I can accept my partner even when we disagree.	SA MA U MD SD
7. I believe most things my partner says.	SA MA U MD SD
8. I would like my partner to be with me when I receive bad news.	SA MA U MD SD
9. I would like my partner to be with me when I'm lonely.	SA MA U MD SD
10. I seek my partner's attention when I'm facing troubles.	SA MA U MD SD
11. I feel comfortable when I'm alone with my partner.	SA MA U MD SD
12. I'm afraid of making mistakes with my partner.	SA MA U MD SD
13. I feel relaxed when we are together.	SA MA U MD SD
14. I am afraid my partner will hurt my feelings.	SA MA U MD SD
15. I face my life with my partner with confidence.	SA MA U MD SD
16. I share and discuss my problems with my partner.	SA MA U MD SD
17. I understand my partner and sympathize with his/her feelings.	SA MA U MD SD
18. I listen carefully to my partner and help him/her solve problems.	SA MA U MD SD
19. I feel my partner misinterprets what I say.	SA MA U MD SD
20. My partner would tell a lie if he/she could gain by it.	SA MA U MD SD
21. In our relationship, I am occasionally distrustful and expect to be exploited.	SA MA U MD SD
22. I get a lot of sympathy and understanding from my partner.	SA MA U MD SD
23. There are times when my partner cannot be trusted.	SA MA U MD SD
24. We are very close to each other.	SA MA U MD SD
25. My partner doesn't really understand me.	SA MA U MD SD
26. I"m better off it I don't trust my partner too much.	SA MA U MD SD
27. I do not show deep emotions to my partner.	SA MA U MD SD

28. It is hard for me to act natural when I'm with my partner. SA MA U MD SD

29. My partner is honest mainly because of a fear of being caught. SA MA U MD SD

30. My partner pretends to care more about me than he/she really does. SA MA U MD SD

31. My way of doing things is apt to be misunderstood by my partner. SA MA U MD SD

32. I wonder how much my partner really cares about me. SA MA U MD SD

33. I sometimes wonder what hidden reason my partner has for doing something nice for me. SA MA U MD SD

34. It is hard for me to tell my partner about myself. SA MA U MD SD

35. I sometimes stay away from my partner because I fear doing or saying something I might regret afterwards. SA MA U MD SD

36. My partner can be relied on to keep his/her promises. SA MA U MD SD

37. The advice my partner gives cannot be regarded as being trustworthy. SA MA U MD SD

38. I don't believe my partner would cheat on me even if he/she were able to get away with it. SA MA U MD SD

39. My partner can be counted on to do what he/she says he/she will do. SA MA U MD SD

40. My partner treats me fairly and justly. SA MA U MD SD

41. My partner is likely to say what he/she really believes, rather than what he/she thinks I want to hear. SA MA U MD SD

42. It is safe to believe that my partner is interested in my welfare. SA MA U MD SD

43. My partner is truly sincere in his/her promises. SA MA U MD SD

44. There is no simple way of deciding if my partner is telling the truth. SA MA U MD SD

45. Even though my partner provides me with many reports and stories, it is hard to get an objective account of things. SA MA U MD SD

46. In our relationship, I have to be alert or my partner is likely to take advantage of me. SA MA U MD SD

47. My partner is sincere and practices what he/she preaches. SA MA U MD SD

48. My partner really cares what happens to me. SA MA U MD SD

49. I talk with my partner about why certain people dislike me. SA MA U MD SD

50. I discuss with my partner the things I worry about when I'm with a person of the opposite sex. SA MA U MD SD

51. I tell my partner some things of which I am very ashamed. SA MA U MD SD

52. I touch my partner when I feel warmly toward him/her. SA MA U MD SD

THE CONFLICT RESOLUTION SCALE
Fournier, Olson, and Druckman (1982)

53. In order to end an argument, I usually give in. SA MA U MD SD

54. I would not seek help from a professional even if we had serious relationship problems. SA MA U MD SD

55. When we are having a problem, I can always tell my partner what is bothering me. SA MA U MD SD

56. Sometimes we have serious disputes over unimportant issues. SA MA U MD SD

57. I go out of my way to avoid conflict with my partner. SA MA U MD SD

58. I sometimes feel our arguments go on and on and never seem to get resolved. SA MA U MD SD

59. To avoid hurting my partner's feelings during an argument, I would rather not say anything. SA MA U MD SD

60. I usually feel that my partner does not take our disagreements seriously. SA MA U MD SD

61. When we argue, I usually end up feeling responsible for the problem. SA MA U MD SD

62. When discussing problems, I usually feel my partner is trying to force me to change. SA MA U MD SD

ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE (RSE)
Rosenberg (1979)

The items in the following section ask about your thoughts and feelings about yourself.
Directions: Please read the following statements and circle the answer that best describes your feelings about yourself as follows:

SA	A	D	SD
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with my self. SA A D SD
2. At times I think I am no good at all. SA A D SD
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. SA A D SD
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people. SA A D SD
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. SA A D SD
6. I certainly feel useless at times. SA A D SD
7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others. SA A D SD
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself. SA A D SD
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. sa a d sd
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself. SA A D SD

STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY (STAI)
Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene (1970)

The entire inventory was included in the instrument used in this study. It is not reproduced here because the publisher, Consulting Psychologist Press, Inc., stipulated in the permission agreement, "You may NOT reproduce these items in your project report" (see Appendix H). However, permission was granted to reproduce the following sample items:

A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then circle the appropriate number to the right of the statement to indicate how you generally feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe your present feelings best.

Anxiety Present	not at all	somewhat	moderately so	very much so
I feel nervous and restless	1	2	3	4
Anxiety Absent				
I feel pleasant.	1	2	3	4
I feel satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4

FAMILY ADAPTABILITY AND COHESION SCALE III (FACES III)
Olson, Sprenkle, and Russell (1979)

This section asks about the family in which you grew up. Please read the directions carefully.

Directions: Think about the family in which you grew up, especially during the years you were in high school. If you lived in more than one type of family situation during that time, for example if your parents were divorced and you lived with your mother part of the time and your father part of the time, think of the family situation in which you spent the most time, or the one you feel was the most important during those years. Decide for each statement below how often the situation occurred in your family.

AN	OW	S	F	AA
ALMOST NEVER	ONCE IN A WHILE	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	ALMOST ALWAYS

Using the five responses listed above, please circle the answer that best describes your family as you saw it.

1. Family members ask each other for help.	AN OW S F AA
2. In solving problems, the children's suggestions are followed.	AN OW S F AA
3. We approve of each other's friends.	AN OW S F AA
4. Children have a say in their discipline.	AN OW S F AA
5. We like to do things with just our immediate family.	AN OW S F AA
6. Different persons act as leaders in our family.	AN OW S F AA
7. Family members feel closer to other family members than to people outside the family.	AN OW S F AA
8. Our family changes its way of handling tasks.	AN OW S F AA
9. Family members like to spend free time with each other.	AN OW S F AA
10. Parent(s) and children discuss punishment together.	AN OW S F AA
11. Family members feel very close to each other.	AN OW S F AA
12. The children make the decisions in our family.	AN OW S F AA
13. When our family gets together for activities, everybody is present.	AA OW S F AA
14. Rules change in our family.	AN OW S F AA
15. We can easily think of things to do together as a family.	AN OW S F AA
16. We shift household responsibilities from person to person.	AN OW S F AA
17. Family members consult other family members on their decisions.	AA OW S F AA
18. It is hard to identify the leader(s) in our family.	AN OW S F AA
19. Family togetherness is very important.	AN OW S F AA
20. It is hard to tell who does which household chores.	AN OW S F AA

PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP SURVEY
Fine, Moreland, and Schwebel (1983)

The items in this section ask about your relationship with each of your biological parents. If you are adopted, consider your adoptive parents in answering these items. If a biological parent has been absent most of your life, and a stepparent has taken his/her place, consider these parents as you answer.

Directions: Read each question carefully and circle the number that best describes how you feel or think about your biological father.

1. How much time do you feel you spend with your father? (1 = almost none, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How well do you feel you have been able to maintain a steady relationship with your father? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How much do you trust your father? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How confident are you that your father would not ridicule or make fun of you if you were to talk about a problem? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How confident are you that your father would help you when you have a problem? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. How close do you feel to your father? (1 = very distant, 7 = very close)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How comfortable would you be approaching your father about a romantic problem? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How comfortable would you be talking to your father about a problem at school? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How confused are you about the exact role your father is to have in your life? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How accurately do you feel you understand your father's feelings, thoughts, and behavior? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. How easily do you accept the weaknesses in your father? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. To what extent do you think of your father as an adult with a life of his own, as opposed to thinking of him only as your father? (1 = think of as only a father, 7 = see as adult with life of his own)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. How often do you get angry at your father? (1 = almost never, 7 = quite often)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. In general, how much do you resent your father? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. How well do you communicate with your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)

16. How well does your father understand your needs, feelings, and behavior? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)

17. How well does your father listen to you? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)

18. How much do you care for your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

19. When you are away from home, how much do you typically miss your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

20. How much do you respect your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

21. How much do you value your father's opinion? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

22. How much do you admire your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

23. How much would you like to be like your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

24. How much would you be satisfied with your father's life style as your own? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)

Circle the number that best describes how you feel or think about your biological mother.

1. How much time do you feel you spend with your mother? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = almost none, 7 = a great deal)

2. How well do you feel you have been able to maintain a steady relationship with your mother? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)

3. How much do you trust your mother? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

4. How confident are you that your mother would not ridicule or make fun of you if you were to talk about a problem? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)

5. How confident are you that your mother would help you when you have a problem? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)

6. How close do you feel to your mother? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = very distant, 7 = very close)

7. How comfortable would you be approaching your mother about a romantic problem? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)

8. How comfortable would you be talking to your mother about a problem at school? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How confused are you about the exact role your mother is to have in your life? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How accurately do you feel you understand your mother's feelings, thoughts, and behavior? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. How easily do you accept the weaknesses in your mother? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. To what extent do you think of your mother as an adult with a life of her own, as opposed to thinking of him only as your father? (1 = think of as only a father, 7 = see as adult with life of his own)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. How often do you get angry at your mother? (1 = almost never, 7 = quite often)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. In general, how much do you resent your mother? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. How well do you communicate with your mother? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. How well does your mother understand your needs, feelings, and behavior? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. How well does your mother listen to you? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. How much do you care for your mother? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. When you are away from home, how much do you miss your mother? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. How much do you respect your mother? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. How much do you value your mother's opinion? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. How much do you admire your mother? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. How much would you like to be like your mother? (1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. How much would you be satisfied with your mother's life style as your own? (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

THE QUALITY OF COPARENTAL COMMUNICATION
Ahrons and Goldsmith (1981)

The items in this section ask about the relationship between your biological parents as you see their relationship. Please think about your biological parents as you answer the following questions even though for some reason they may not presently live together. If one of your biological parents is deceased or has left the home and has no contact with the family, you may answer these questions about your parent and stepparent. If you are adopted, consider your adoptive parents.

Directions: The following questions are about how your parents communicate and support one another as parents. Using the five responses listed below, please circle your answer.

A	F	S	AN	N
ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	SOMETIMES	ALMOST NEVER	NEVER

1. When your parents discuss issues how often does an argument result?	A	F	S	AN	N
2. How often is the atmosphere one of hostility or anger?	A	F	S	AN	N
3. How often is their conversation stressful or tense?	A	F	S	AN	N
4. Do your parents have basic differences of opinion about issues related to child rearing?	A	F	S	AN	N
5. When one of your parents needs help or advice regarding you or your brothers or sisters, do they seek help from one another?	A	F	S	AN	N
6. Would you say that your father is a resource to your mother in raising you (and any brothers and sisters)?	A	F	S	AN	N
7. Would you say that your mother is a resource to your father in raising you (and any brothers and sisters)?	A	F	S	AN	N

CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE (CTS)
Straus (1979)

Directions: These questions ask about how your parents (refer to instructions for this section) usually handle disagreements and conflicts. Taking all disagreements into account (not just the most serious one), how often did they do the things listed during the last year you lived at home? Use the following scale to determine your answer and circle the appropriate response after each item for each parent.

0 Never	1 Once that year	2 Two or three times	3 Often, but less than once a month	4 About once a month	5 More than once a month

	FATHER	MOTHER
1. Tried to discuss the issue relatively calmly	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
2. Did discuss the issue relatively calmly	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
3. Got information to back up his or her side of things	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
4. Brought in someone else to help settle things (or tried to)	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
5. Argued heatedly but short of yelling	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
6. Yelled and/or insulted	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
7. Sulked and/or refused to talk about it	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
8. Stomped out of the room	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
9. Threw something (but not at the other) or smashed something	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
10. Threatened to hit or throw something at the other	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
11. Threw something at the other person	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
12. Pushed, grabbed, or shoved the other	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
13. Hit (or tried to hit) the other person but not with anything	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
14. Hit or tried to hit the other person with something hard	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
15. Threatened to break up the marriage by separation or divorce	0 1 2 3 4 5	0 1 2 3 4 5
16. Other. Please describe _____		

Appendix H

Cover Letter, Permission Forms and Correspondence, And Institutional Review Board Form

Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY RELATIONS
AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT
COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS

STILLWATER OKLAHOMA 74078-0337
242 HOME ECONOMICS
(405) 744-5057

Dear Student:

You are being asked to take part in a research project that is designed to gain a better understanding of how family backgrounds and experiences affect close relationships of college students.

You will be asked for information concerning yourself, your family and your relationships. Please remember that your answers will remain completely confidential as there is no way of identifying you individually with the questionnaire. Do not put your name or other identifying information on this questionnaire.

Your participation in this survey is voluntary and there is no penalty if you choose not to participate. However, if you choose not to fill out the questionnaire, please return the unanswered questionnaire at the end of class. It is important that you return the form.

We greatly appreciate your assistance in this research.

Sincerely,

Linda Robinson

Linda Robinson, Ph.D.
Project Director

Jane Garthoeffner

Jane Garthoeffner, M.S.W.
Research Assistant

JJ

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY
(213) 740-3533

TO: Researchers requesting information on the Binuclear Family Study

FROM: Constance R. Ahrons, Professor of Sociology and Principal Investigator

Enclosed are the major scales and items used in the longitudinal study on the Binuclear Family. Unfortunately, I am not able to send you the entire interview schedule as some of you have requested. The interviews are over 100 pages long and even though some of you have offered to pay I currently have no research assistants to coordinate that kind of effort. The last two pages of the scales contain the reliability coefficients in all three time frames. The scales must be used exactly as written if you want to use the reliabilities.

All the scales have been copyrighted so please cite them accordingly. You may either cite the study directly or one of the articles that contains reports of the findings based on those scales.

Also enclosed is a list of publications from the study should you want further information.

Good luck with your research! I would very much appreciated an abstract or copy or your findings as I try to keep some track of the research findings based on the instruments.

Consulting
Psychologists
Press, Inc.

Jane L. Garthoeffner and Linda C. Robinson
Oklahoma State University
Depart. of Family Relations and Child Development.
333F Home Economics
Stillwater, Oklahoma 77078-0337

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By Lisa Sisneros
Lisa Sisneros - Permission Specialist
Date 11/25/91

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By Jane L. Garthoeffner, Linda C. Robinson
Jane L. Garthoeffner and Linda C. Robinson
Date 11/27/91

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Jane L. Garthoeffner
Oklahoma University
Depart. of Family Relations and Child Development,
333F Home Economics
Stillwater, Oklahoma 77078-0337

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By Jane L. Garthoeffner
Jane L. Garthoeffner
Date 11/27/91

SAMPLE ITEMS FOR THE

STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY

FORM Y-2

by Charles D Spielberger, R L. Gorsuch, R Lushene, P R. Vagg, and G A Jacobs

A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below Read each statement and then circle the appropriate number to the right of the statement to indicate how you generally feel There are no right or wrong answers Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe your present feelings best

Anxiety Present	not at all	somewhat	moderately so	very much so
I feel nervous and restless	1	2	3	4
Anxiety Absent				
I feel pleasant	1	2	3	4
I feel satisfied with myself	1	2	3	4

You may change the format of these items to fit your needs, but the wording may not be altered. Please do not present these items to your readers as any kind of "mini-test," but rather as an illustrative sample of items from this instrument We have provided these items as samples so that we may maintain control over which items appear in published media. This avoids an entire instrument appearing at once or in segments which may be pieced together to form a working instrument, protecting the validity and reliability of the test.

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OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH

Proposal Title: Family Structure and Interpersonal Relationship Fromation of Young Adults

Principal Investigator: Linda Robinson / J Garthoeffner

Date: 11-18-91 IRB # HE-92-012

This application has been reviewed by the IRB and

Processed as: Exempt [X] Expedite [ ] Full Board Review [ ]

Renewal or Continuation [ ]

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s).

Approved [X] Deferred for Revision [ ]

Approved with Provision [ ] Disapproved [ ]

Approval status subject to review by full Institutional Review Board at next meeting, 2nd and 4th Thursday of each month.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reason for Deferral or Disapproval:

Signature: Marcia B. Tilley Date: 11-26-91

Chair of Institutional Review Board

VITA

Jane L. Garthoeffner

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: PREDICTORS OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP QUALITY OF YOUNG ADULTS

Major Field: Home Economics

Area of Specialization: Family Relations and Child Development

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Des Moines, Iowa, June 7, 1930, the daughter of Robert and Lucille Throdahl; married to William C. Garthoeffner; mother of Robert, Sam, and Peter Gresham.

Education: Graduated from St. Joseph Academy, Des Moines, Iowa, in June, 1948; attended Clarke College, Dubuque, Iowa, 1950 to 1952; received Bachelor of Education Degree from the University of Central Oklahoma, Edmond, Oklahoma, 1965; received Master of Social Work Degree from the University of Oklahoma, 1974; completed requirements for Doctor of Philosphy Degree from Oklahoma State University in December, 1992.

Professional Experience: Social Worker, Department of Human Services (Department of Institutions, Social and Rehabilitative Services), Oklahoma County, 1968 to 1973; Psychiatric Social Worker, Central Oklahoma Community Mental Health Center, Norman, Oklahoma, 1974 to 1976; Social Worker for the Deaf/Blind Unit and for the general program, Children's Convalescent Center, Bethany, Oklahoma, 1976 to 1979; Adjunct Professor, School of Social Work, Norman, Oklahoma, 1987 to 1988; Therapist IV, Clinical Supervisor, Red Rock Comprehensive Mental Health Center, Oklahoma City, 1979 to 1988; Consultant for family services, Youth Services for Oklahoma County, 1989 to 1991; private practice in marriage and family therapy, 1991 to present.

Professional Organizations: Kappa Omicron Nu, National Association of Social Workers, Academy of Certified Social Workers, American Association of Marriage and Family Therapy.