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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA  
GRADUATE COLLEGE

SOME STRESS FACTORS IN COUNSELED AND NON-COUNSELED ADULTS

A DISSERTATION  
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY  
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EARNEST H. WOTRING, JR.

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SOME STRESS FACTORS IN COUNSELED AND NON-COUNSELED ADULTS

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NANCY NEAL ROBERTSON WOTRING

MY WIFE AND BELOVED FRIEND

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES .....	iv
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION .....	1
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE .....	7
III. METHODOLOGY .....	42
IV. PRESENTATION AND RESULTS .....	46
V. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS .....	56
VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	63
REFERENCES .....	66
APPENDIX I .....	75
APPENDIX II .....	80
APPENDIX III .....	85
APPENDIX IV .....	89
APPENDIX V .....	92

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Mean and Standard Deviation of Non-Counseled, Church Counseled, and Public Counseled Adults for the Inventory Variables .....	48
2. Mean, Standard Deviation and Grand Mean of Counseled and Non-Counseled for the Twelve Variables for Three Groups .....	49
3. Percentile of Counseled & Non-Counseled for the Nine Demographic Variables for Three Groups .....	96
4. <u>F</u> -Values and the Degrees of Freedom for Each Inventory Variable for Three Groups .....	50
5. Variable Name, Number <u>F</u> -Values, and Degrees of Freedom for Each Demographic Variable for Three Groups .....	51
6. Number of Cases Correctly Classified Into the Three Groups .....	52
7. <u>F</u> -Value, Degrees of Freedom for all Twelve Variables for Three Groups .....	53
8. The Number of Cases Correctly Classified into Three Groups for all Twelve Variables .....	54



SOME STRESS FACTORS IN COUNSELED AND  
NON-COUNSELED ADULTS

CHAPTER I

Introduction

A little child of seven wrote: "The tree said,  
'I am lonely, I am lonely.' And it whispered  
it, and then it got frightened and called out  
loud, 'I am lonely.' And that was the big,  
lonely wind, and I heard it and I was lonely too.  
(Phillips, 1960, p. 277)

The child's story describes the feelings of many people  
in our society. Where do all the lonely people come from?  
In the Annual Statistical Report of the Oklahoma Public  
Health Guidance Center, the following statement appears  
concerning the condition of confusion by many Oklahoma  
citizens:

An increase in the number of patients under care  
has occurred each year, with the 14,413 in fiscal  
year 1974 almost seven times the number in 1965.  
The increase from 1973 to 1974 was over one thousand  
patients in spite of a concurrent decrease in pro-  
fessional staff from over 206,000 man-hours to  
just under 197,000. Almost two-thirds (65.3  
percent) of the patients under care last year were

new patients who had never been served in the admitting clinic before. (OPHGC, 1974, p. 2)

Almost one in three marriages end in divorce in this country. Over 700,000 frustrated marriages ended in divorce in 1974, which is well over the previous high of 610,000 in 1946. (HEW, 1974, p. 12) The high divorce rate not only affects the men and women but also the children of these families as well. In addition, divorce is now noticeably beginning to affect jobs and occupations. (Brady and Levy, 1971, p. 13)

Personal problems, marriage problems, work problems, and all the many combinations create adequate reasons for individuals to seek counseling assistance. Because an increasing number of people are seeking some type of counseling aid, new approaches to counseling are appearing to help solve these problems. In the last ten years, Transactional Analysis, Reality Therapy, Gestalt Therapy, Encounter Groups, and Parent Effectiveness Training groups have appeared on the counseling scene, hopefully to provide answers to the many problems individuals encounter.

Millions of people are able to cope adequately with their frustrating situations. They appear secure in themselves, and in their marriages, and in their jobs. How do they differ from those who, for one reason or another, seek professional counseling?

Some recent studies have begun to explore the area of the interrelatedness of a person's life style. Friedlander (1973) of Case Western Reserve University is conducting research about an individual's life style which is particularly concerned with a conflict of values between an individual's personal life, i.e., his family, and community; and another part of his life, i.e., his occupational world. Both dimensions may have a different set of values. Both areas are important to him. Therefore, in some circumstances conflict may cause tremendous internal turmoil. He says:

Similarly, tensions are created in the interaction of two people with contrasting life styles. These tensions tend to result in a decreased effectiveness of the structure in accomplishing its tasks and a decreased fulfillment of the individuals involved in the structure.

(p. 330)

Also, Andrews and Withey (1974) are conducting research at the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, in the area of life's interrelatedness. They state:

. . . a person's overall sense of life quality is understandable as a combination of effective responses to life 'domains', which are of two types, role situations, and values. (p. 21)

They have developed a "Life Quality Survey" assessing perceived overall life quality in a community.

"Schedule of Recent Experience" is a research study conducted by Holmes and Rahe. (1967)

The scale has been used as a tool to investigate the similarities and differences among cultures, to study recall of life events and to evaluate the relationship of life change to the occurrence of disease. (p. 76)

Methodist Pastor-Counselors relate to persons who are content with themselves, with their mates and children, and with their jobs. In fifteen years of ministry, hundreds of persons have been observed at the First United Methodist Church of Edmond who felt that they were unable to deal with some of the obstacles thrown into their paths by life situations. Always the question arises: Why are some people able to withstand the pressures of life and others hardly able to withstand a small turbulence? The information gleaned from this study should be of value to all those in counseling, whether in a counseling center, private practice, or counseling in the public school systems.

The purpose of this study is to analyze membership in three groups, those seeking counseling from a church counseling center, those seeking counseling from a public funded counseling center, and those who had never received professional

counseling, in relation to their scores on three inventories and six demographic characteristics. The inventories will estimate a person's attitude about himself or herself, his or her marriage, and his or her attitude about his or her job. The demographic characteristics considered are age, sex, number of marriages, number of divorces, education level, income level, number of counseling sessions, self-reported problem areas, and occupation change.

#### Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to describe membership in three groups. The first group includes those adults from the population of Edmond, Oklahoma, who had never sought professional counseling. The second group includes adults from a church counseling center in Edmond, Oklahoma, who had received at least two counseling sessions from one of the three clergymen on the staff. The third group includes adults who had received at least two counseling sessions from the counseling staff of a public funded counseling agency in Edmond, Oklahoma.

The analysis was done in relationship to their scores on three inventories and nine demographic characteristics. The inventories estimated a person's attitude about himself, his marriage, and his attitude about his job; the demographic characteristics considered were age, the number of marriages,

the number of divorces, the education level, the number of occupational changes, the family income level, self-reported problem areas, sex, and the number of professional counseling sessions.

The general hypothesis, then, was that membership in the three groups, i.e., non-counseled, church counseled and public agency counseled, was related to the nine demographic and three inventory scale variables, and that these variables would discriminate among these three groups.

## CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

One of the main characteristics of society today is the incredibly rapid technological changes. A new kind of world is being created. This world presents man with unprecedented power and freedom, while at the same time it confronts him with equally unprecedented problems. In addition, the social order is in the midst of change. No institution better illustrates this than the American family. The family is undergoing modification and extension even in the conception of what it is.

Family Theories

According to Christensen (1964), the systematic study of the family has gone through three stages. The first encompassed the latter half of the nineteenth century which he labeled Social Darwinism. The second encompassed the first half of the present century which he labeled Emerging Science. Finally, he designated 1950 as marking the beginning of the era, which he labeled the Systematic Theory Building.

Another major theoretical influence on this decade of family research is the work of Parsons and his colleagues. Although the most relevant single contribution of this school of thought, Family, Socialization and Interaction Process (Parsons & Bales, 1955), was published five years prior to the

---

opening of the 1960's, its influence is still significant. The contribution of Parsons and his colleagues to family theory has been summarized well by Rodman. (1965)

In 1960 Hill and Hansen (1960) described the field of family theory in the decade of the sixties. After analyzing hundreds of articles on the family, they identified five general theoretical stances with which authors could be identified. They label them (1) institutional, (2) structural-functional, (3) symbolic-interactional, (4) situational, and (5) family development. Each is described in terms of the types of behavior with which it deals and the social space and time with which it concerns itself. Many of the key concepts of each are listed and some of the chief sociologists associated with each are cited.

Also to be noted is that by 1960, Sussman and his colleagues had successfully challenged the concept of the nuclear family in America and they began to delineate the factors that determine the degree of isolation or connectedness among adults. By the late 1960's only three of the original five family theories survived. Only the interactional, structure-functional, and family development theories have continued to generate fresh inquiry through the sixties.



To predict that family theory in the 1970's will have to deal increasingly with complex, multivariate models, with non-linear and noncontinuous functions, and with the specification of richer descriptions of family structure and developmental sequences seems safe enough. No longer can we consider this institution as only an agglomeration of parents, their children and maternal and paternal grandparents within easy reach, along with relatives in great variety and close proximity. Today there are small family units of biological origin as well as those of social composition. Mothers, fathers, and their children often live in houses separated by many miles from anyone related to them. These small, young families are literally thrown on their own resources and those of their communities for adequate functioning. At times these communities are able to fulfill the needs of these families. However, frequently the communities are inadequate in providing for their needs.

The question to be asked is this: Are the stresses and strains upon the family of today different from the family in the fifties and the sixties? Furthermore, what are some of the new unique pressures upon families of today?

Social scientists, like Marlow (1968) and Rossi (1968), are observing change in all contemporary institutions. Such changes do not mean decline necessarily, since old functions may become the mode for new social organizations. Existing

institutions may develop new specializations. They see continuous change in functions and behaviors as a characteristic of institutions. These changes create instability within the institutions and organizations creating further disharmony within marriage, the individual, and on the job.

#### Economic Pressures on Marriages

Unemployment is almost at the level of eight percent. Larger numbers of people are drawing unemployment checks or receiving some other form of economic aid. The resulting economic insecurity creates an added strain upon marriage relationships.

Curtright (1970) says:

In contrast to the lack of effect of educational level, we find that marital stability always increases as we move from the lowest to the middle, and then to the highest earnings interval. This is true for both whites and non-whites, and holds regardless of whether we do or do not control educational level. (p. 637)

Research further indicates that high income couples are more likely than low income couples to have feelings of mutual respect and affection. High income seems to produce a strong mutual positive evaluation of the husband's role as breadwinner. (Bradburn, 1969) Therefore, it is critical that the husband feel secure in his role as breadwinner in the marital relation-

ship. Is there any relationship between a person's attitude about his work and a person's ability to continue the upward climb in mobility? Roche and MacKinnon (1970) state that:

Long ago the average industrial worker reached the economic level at which his basic needs for food, shelter, health care and other externals have been met. His intangible needs for achievement and general self-satisfaction are not met as easily, even though quite basic. These needs can be met by work that is personally significant or meaningful to him. Today many employers are realizing that the effort they expend to provide the worker with meaningful work is not merely altruism. Meaningful work not only improves the worker's morale, and serves his human needs, but it increases his productivity and the general effectiveness of the organization. (p. 103)

Dentler and Pineo (1960) have demonstrated that the stages of the family life cycle are more highly correlated with family economic behavior than with the age of the head of the household or the length of marriage. These indexes could provide an alternative framework for analysis of marital success or failure.

Based upon information gathered from the Survey of Economic Opportunity, which the U.S. Bureau of The Census conducted in the spring of 1967 for the Office of Economic Opportunity, income is more significant than education in determining which men obtain divorces, particularly during the first ten years of marriage. Thus, the probabilities of divorce exceed twenty per thousand for white men in the lowest income level, whereas the probability of divorce never reaches twenty per thousand for any educational level. Men who are married less than ten years are three to four times as likely to obtain a divorce if their income is under three thousand dollars than if it were eight thousand dollars or more. In addition, the lowest probability of divorce shown is for men in the highest income level whose first marriage occurred ten years or more before 1967. (only two per year per one thousand men)

Menton (1968) notes the strong cultural emphasis upon the goal of economic success, in terms of both ultimate desirability and universal availability. However, the socioeconomic structure is such that those of lower status have, by definition, less means at their disposal for the attainment of this goal. The continual frustration of their attempts to attain the success they have learned to expect engenders anomie, which then increases the frequency of deviant behavior.

Lee's research (1974) indicates,...normlessness (anomie) was found to evidence inverse association with several indicators of socioeconomic status (most notably education, and occupational standing for men), with marital satisfaction. The latter relationship is stronger among the higher socioeconomic stratum, and among rural women. (p. 529)

The tendency according to a study by Gover (1963) is for non-employed wives to have, on an average, higher marital adjustment scores than employed wives. The difference in average scores in favor of the non-employed wives is larger in the lower than in the upper socioeconomic group. In contrast to this, Blood and Wolfe in their Detroit Study (1960) found that working wives of low-income husbands and non-working wives of high income husbands were equally satisfied with the marriages.

That black people and others with low incomes and little education are more likely to be dissatisfied with marriage comes from Renee. (1970) She reports this difference persists, regardless of other conditions, but it is sharply reduced for husbands at higher socioeconomic levels. Also, as noted by Blood and Wolfe (1970), Gurin, et.al., (1960), Bernard (1969), Landis (1963), Levinger (1966), Udry (1967), and Scanzoni (1968) the relationship between marital satis-

faction and socioeconomic status is stronger for blacks than for whites.

Levinger (1966) studied the marital dissatisfaction of six hundred couples who were divorce applicants with children under age fourteen. In general, her findings indicate that spouses in middle-class marriages are more concerned with psychological and emotional interaction, while the lower-class partners saw as more salient in their lives financial problems and unstable physical actions of their partners. This finding might be interpreted to mean that until the basic economic needs are met in marriage, the partners cannot be concerned with the psychological and emotional aspects.

Udry (1967) found that the higher educational status have lower disruption rates, which are true for males, females, whites, and non-whites. The lowest marital stability is in the lowest status occupations for men, and the highest stability is in the highest status occupations.

Findings from the study by Levinger (1966) who examined the causes of marital dissatisfaction, are that husbands and wives differ in the basis of their marital satisfaction. Her findings indicate that lower-class wives are considerably more likely than middle-status wives to complain about financial problems, physical abuse, and drinking. Middle-class

husbands parallel their wives in their significantly greater concern with lack of love. On the other hand, they are significantly less likely than lower class husbands to complain of their wives' infidelity.

In addition, Monahan (1962) observed that the duration of marriage varies from area to area, from time to time, and from one class to another population class. He found that couples have longer marriages when it is the first marriage, when they have children, and when they are in a higher socioeconomic occupation and when they live in less metropolitan but middle-sized population areas.

Examination of data permits some expansion of previously accepted findings and a new perspective on happiness and stability. The essence of the results suggests that the role of the husband is more crucial to marital happiness than social scientists had believed previously. This may be even more critical than any other single variable.

In sum, the research (corroborates findings which were generally established) in the 1950's and in the beginning of the 1960's. A positive relationship exists between marital happiness and higher occupational status, income, and educational levels for husbands. A positive relationship exists between husband and wife similarities in socioeconomic status.

Role Expectation and Marital Satisfaction

In order to provide two groups who were highly differentiated on the Locke and Terman Marital Happiness Scale Luckey (1960) selected eighty-one couples from the University of Minnesota from a much larger subject pool. Analysis of the data reveals that satisfaction in marriage is related to the congruence of the husband's self-concept and that held of him by his wife. The relationship does not hold for concepts of wives. Happiness is also related to congruence of the husband's self-concept and his concept of his father, and congruence of the wives' concepts of their husbands and concepts of their fathers. In short, when husband and wife agree that he is as he wants to be (which tends to be like his father), both are happier.

In an elaboration of these data, Luckey (1960b) noted that less satisfied husbands see their fathers as being less loving, cooperative, and responsive than themselves. One result is that less adequate fathers inhabit role identification, so that less satisfied husbands are unsure of themselves in their male role.

A further line of evidence that the husband's instrumental role is important to marital happiness comes from Blood and Wolfe (1960) in their area probability sample study of nine hundred Detroit wives. They found that an important



source of marital satisfaction for the wife is the husband's prestige or social standing in the community; the higher the status, the greater the wife's satisfaction.

In a separate study, Stuckert (1963) arrived at the same conclusions with regard to the wife. He too, found that it is important for marital satisfaction that the wife accurately perceive her husband, but it is not as important for marital satisfaction that the husband understand his wife.

Taylor (1967) found that a greater similarity between self-perception and the spouse's perception of self is related to good marital adjustment and that empathic accuracy is more significant with respect to the perceptions of the husband than to perceptions of the wife. A positive relationship between marital happiness and the favorableness of the male's self-description has also been reported by Katz, et.al., (1963). The findings of three different studies: Westley and Epstein (1960), Aller (1962), and Cutler and Dyer (1965), support the evidence that role perceptions and performance along traditional lines is significant for marital happiness.

From Luckey's (1964a) investigation of whether people who like being married see different personality traits in their spouses from those who do not like being married, the following facts emerge. Satisfied persons see their spouses as being moderately managerial, competitive, modest, docile,

cooperative, and responsible. They characterize spouses as considerate, helpful, tender, big-hearted, friendly, neighborly, and warm. Unsatisfied persons see their spouses as impatient with the mistakes of others, cruel, and unkind, frequently angry, hard-hearted, gloomy, frequently disappointed, bitter, complaining, jealous, and slow to forgive.

Marlow (1968) found males in "beginning families" to be much less satisfied with the marriage than their wives. In the "preschool" stage, husbands and wives were at the same level of satisfaction. Then wives appear to be less satisfied than their husbands over a period of time; but husbands continued to be satisfied with their wives during the same time period. Marlowe concluded that male disenchantment had already set in during the "beginning families" stage. This would explain the lack of change for males between stages. Such an interpretation fits the suggestion of Pineo (1961) that disenchantment in marriage comes earlier for males than females. Rossi (1968) suggests that perhaps experiences before the arrival of children influence male disenchantment, while for females dissatisfaction is correlated with the arrival of children.

Then after the childbearing phases both husband and wives have substantial increases in marital satisfaction through the "retirement" stage with an apparent temporary setback just before the husband retires. The data collected

by Rollins and Feldman (1970) suggests that the experiences of childbearing and childrearing have a rather profound and negative effect on marital satisfaction for wives, even for their basic feelings of self-worth in relation to their marriage.

In a different study Dentler and Pineo (1960) have demonstrated that the stages of the family life cycle are more highly correlated with family economic behavior than with the age of the head of the household or the length of marriage. These indexes could provide an alternate framework for analysis of marital success or failure. Perhaps this is partly a consequence of the great reduction in positive companionship experiences with their husbands instigated by the pressures of childbearing responsibilities. On the other hand, the loss of companionship seems to occur for husbands without a decrease in marital satisfaction. The most devastating period of marriage for males appears to be when they are anticipating retirement.

Marital satisfaction might be influenced more by occupational experiences for husbands than the event and developmental level of children in their families. It seems that men are influenced more by events both before and after there are children in families while women are influenced more by the presence of children. (Rollins and Feldman, 1970, p. 26)

Job Satisfaction and Marital Satisfaction

Psychologists and industrial relations researchers are reporting more and more on industrial morale and on the attitudes of workers in factories. Also, our society is becoming characterized by the individual's struggle for personal meaning and by his feelings of increasing powerlessness. Some research indicates that the sense of meaninglessness and of powerlessness is probably most intense on the job. As Green (1968) said:

We have learned to view the worker as the way he is and what he shall do with his life. The difficulty is, however, that today men must do this increasingly in a society that lists among its primary purposes the efficient production of goods and services, rather than the celebration of human dignity. They have to undertake their self-definition in an environment that has purpose of its own and for that reason, does not necessarily have room for individuals to express their own purposes. (p. 35)

The environment has long been recognized as a source of influence on the individual's behavior. Until recently, researchers had made few systematic attempts to explore the influences of an organization's climate on the behavior of

employees. Organizational climate has generally been defined as the individual's perception of his work environment. (Litwin and Stinger, 1968) It is often suggested (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974) that climate operates as a unitary "main effect" on all people. This, however, ignores the possibility that certain types of individual differences could affect an individual's perception of the organization's climate.

Argyris (1973), Pervin (1968), Lichtman and Hunt (1971), Friedlander and Margulies (1969), Schneider (1972), and Schneider and Bartlett (1970) expound the need to create and maintain congruence between the individual's needs and those of the organization. Congruence is concerned with the individual-organization fit. The argument is that for each individual there are environments which more or less match the individual's personality characteristics. Individuals congruent with their environment are higher performers and express more job satisfaction than do those individuals experiencing a lack of fit. The congruency framework assumes that individuals vary both in their sensitivity to different organizational climates and in their behavior. Several studies in the social-psychology literature provide support for the hypothesis that members of compatible groups are better satisfied than are members of incompatible groups. (Fry, 1965) (Smelser, 1961)

In the area of interpersonal compatibility Shaw (1971) suggests the presence of a need-complementarity-attraction relationship in work groups. Rychlak (1965) provides support for a relationship between need complementarity and interpersonal attraction in supervisor-subordinate pairs. DiMarco (1974) reports that superior-subordinate life style and interpersonal need compatibilities both are related to the subordinate's attitude toward the supervisor.

Recently Friedlander (1971) suggested that two sources of tension experienced by an employee are (a) the incompatibility between his life style orientation and (b) that of other organizational members. Therefore, it would appear that if tension results from the incompatibility between an employee's life style orientation and the orientations of other organizational members, this tension could affect the employee's satisfaction with various job dimensions.

The United States, with its free enterprise system, vast natural resources, and free market economy, provides unique opportunities for business establishments to grow and flourish. In turn each business establishment provides opportunity for personal advancement and the attainment of success. Under these circumstances, it would seem that the the means of attaining success--the contributive and causative success factors--would have been identified and clearly

defined. Strangely this is not the case. (Friedlander, 1971)

One of the primary conceptions about success is that it correlates with higher education. Therefore, millions of young people have oriented themselves to college preparatory programs in high school and subsequently have earned college degrees, anticipating meteoric rise to pre-advanced degrees, expecting even more prestigious positions and higher salaries. The result is a glut of over-educated young people who eventually find themselves at mediocre jobs, far below their skills. Many others are unable to find suitable work in their chosen profession and are learning trade skills in vocational school in order to gain employment. Obviously, some are finding suitable employment and they hope for advancement and career success. (Berry, 1973)

This study appears to show that people aspire to attainable goals. At the time of life when higher goals are no longer within reach, the individual stops striving and turns to life's pleasures and 'doing for others'.

Success might be thought of as the attainment of personal goals or satisfaction with one's immediate position and status in life, with

particular goals or positions reflecting differences in social status.

It would appear that, in the world of business and industry, success is somewhat synonymous with leadership ability. The common generalization is that the most successful persons in establishments are those who command top executive positions and that they possess leadership skills. (Berry, 1973, p. 36)

Herrell (1961) suggests that leadership performance depends upon personality. A leader in business cannot escape the fact that his attainment and retention of an executive position are highly dependent on results--his performances. Obviously, the sum total of personality factors determines whether or not a person will be accepted by subordinates, peers, and superiors and be allowed to progress and assume an executive position.

The argument that education is a contributive factor to success can be supported. One study summarizes this situation and indicates the sociological effects:

Education credentials have become the new property in America. Our nation, which has attempted to make the transmission of real and personal property difficult, has contrived to replace it with an inheritable set of values



concerning degrees and diplomas which will most certainly reinforce the formidable class barriers that remain, even without the right within families to pass benefices from parents to their children.

Employers can derive benefits from the employment of better-educated workers that outweigh the pathological correlates of 'excessive' education...The use of educational credentials as screening device effectively consigns a large number of people...to a social limbo defined by low skill no opportunity jobs in the peripheral labor market. (Berg, 1970, p. 186)

The same study also points out that social class differences are perpetuated by the educational attainment of the upper social classes. The poor are still not educated, (Reiss, 1966) but the rich are--and value their training:

To a man, the respondents assured us that diplomas and degrees were a good thing, that they were used as screening devices by which undesirable employment applicants could be identified, and that the credentials sought were indicators of personal commitment to

'good middle-class values', industriousness, and seriousness of purpose, as well as salutary personal habits and styles. (Reiss, 1966, p. 143)

Berg (1972) points out that educational requirements are used not only to select the best candidates for positions, supposedly based on educational attainment, but also to screen out persons who do not possess upper-and middle-class values and personality characteristics. Thus ironically and unrealistically, it appears that a young person should carefully select his parents and social background if he wants to be assured of the opportunity for education and an entry position in business and industry that will assure success.

We speak of self-development, but we are at a loss to know how to encourage it. Now, however, we can postulate a criterion: self-development is likely to be more effective when the task a person is engaged in is meaningful and motivational and when in doing it he receives understanding, imaginative, and capable support. "When these conditions are met, the job itself becomes a true learning situation, its ingredients are the motivators" (Berry, 1973, p. 42).

In addition to such frequently studied behaviors as turnover and productivity, there are other indicators of

these decisions to participate and perform. Non-participation, for example need not be physical. A worker can retreat from his or her work situation by means other than simply not showing up for work (as reflected in measures of turnover, absenteeism, or lateness). Also, he or she can withdraw psychologically through daydreaming, through a self-divestment of the psychological importance of work, or through the use of drugs to help him or her get through a day at work. In addition, conventional treatments of the decision to perform ignore the distinction between two types of non-performance: doing little or nothing (e.g. as reflected in poor quality or low quantity of output) and doing something that is, from an employer's perspective, counter-productive (e.g. damaging an employer's product or purpose). (Mangione and Quinn, 1975)

The first, and well-documented, assumption is that younger workers are less satisfied with their jobs than older ones. The resulting inference is that among individuals an association exists between job satisfaction and counterproductive behavior at work. The data indicates that this inference is supported only for a limited segment of the working population--men, thirty years or older. There is no support for the inference among the very group who was so critical to the young workers, presumably males. Young

workers do indeed exhibit the attitudes and behaviors often ascribed to them. However, on an individual level of analysis, these attitudes and behaviors were unrelated. The inference generates a "correct" prediction of an association between attitude and reported behavior only when it was not anticipated. Given the relation between age and job satisfaction for men over thirty, the relationship between age and counter-productive behavior would have to be in the high 90's to reduce the relation between job satisfaction and counter-productive behavior to a nonsignificant level. (Mangione and Quinn, 1975)

Jobs are the means by which individuals are lined to their employing organizations. The job, in many organizations, may be the major determinant of such factors as the amount and types of rewards available to the job-holder, the nature of supervision received by the employee, the degree of internal motivation to perform role-related duties. As a result, organizational roles should relate to such job-related attitudes as satisfaction with the work itself, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with supervisors, and performance motivation. (Hackman and Lawler, 1971) In addition, organizational roles may also have an impact upon the degree to which individuals are committed to their employing organizations and the bases for such commitment. (Lawler and Hall, 1970)

Therefore, employees in any given job, would be expected to have relatively homogeneous job and organization related attitudes.

In addition, the Stone and Porter (1975) study finds that the job an individual holds is associated not only with attitudes about the work itself but also relates to other attitudes as well (e.g. satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion prospects, etc.). The degree to which the job affects the individual's attitudes is revealed by the high (53%) discriminatory power achieved when individuals' attitudes were viewed in relation to their job group membership.

Herzberg (1968) states:

The growth or motivation factors that are intrinsic to the job are: achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth or advancement.

The dissatisfaction-avoidance or hygiene factors that are extrinsic to the job include: company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security. (p. 86)

It was hypothesized (Metersky, 1974) that job attitudes are not only determined by the presence and strength of Herzberg's factors but also by the total environment in which the subject operates. Work and community environment are integral parts of this situation space with each affecting the other. The interrelatedness of the person and the total environment or situation, which is considered relevant to defining a theory of motivation, parallels Lewin's concept of life space. Individual psychological processes are, in Lewin's words (Metersky, 1974),

always to be derived from the relation of the concrete situation, and, as far as internal forces are concerned, from the mutual relations of the various functional systems that make up the individual. (p. 30)

The measurements of causal variables were made via the perception of the individual whose behavior was being studied. The climate was a primary situational determinant of job satisfaction, but the value of individual employees were hypothesized as moderating the climate-satisfaction relationship. For employees who place great importance on the work situation, the most prominent climate dimensions reflect close personal friendships among fellow workers and feelings of movement and accomplishment with regard to task activity. For those who see the work situation as being less

important, the key dimensions appear to be high spirit and low disengagement. Close relationships are not sought, but a friendly climate is essential to maintain the individual's personal connection with the work unit. In the former group, people seek close relationships with positive movements which are potentially enhancing to many facets of their lives. In the latter group, the emphasis is on maintaining pleasant relationships and reducing the annoyances of dissension and disruption with little concern for the kind of growth and dynamism.

A constructive task-orientation on the part of management appears to be the key climate variable for satisfying employees who most value their work as a source of fulfillment. To satisfy the needs of such employees, a climate must be created in which management is seen as constructively task-oriented in its dealings with employees. (Friedlander and Margulies, 1969)

An old assumption is that every job is capable of engaging the human qualities of an individual and that, in the Protestant tradition, each job has the potential of being a "calling". This concept is reinforced by the idea that the job is the primary focus of a person's life. During the years of the small farmer and the independent entrepreneur, this may have been true; but under present conditions,

when almost all people work for organizations whose survival is dependent on generating profits and operating efficiently, the needs of the individual are subordinated to the goals of the organization. The implementation of automation throughout the American work-world raises questions about the logic of continuing to encourage people to believe that their jobs should be the central focus of their lives. Arguments over whether automation increases or decreases the number of jobs do not address themselves to the critical issue of whether the jobs created can carry the weight of importance given to work. A recent U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Report (1973) stated:

It is illusory to believe that technology is opening new high-level jobs. Most new jobs offer little in the way of 'career' mobility--lab technicians do not advance along a path and become doctors. Many workers at all occupational levels feel locked-in, their job, mobility blocked, the opportunity to grow lacking in their jobs, challenge missing from their tasks....For some workers, their jobs can never be made satisfying, but only bearable at best.



While new industries have appeared in recent decades that need a well-educated work force, most employers simply raised educational requirements without changing the nature of the jobs... For a large number of jobs, education and job performance appear to be inversely related.

(p. 20)

In regard to college graduates, Denitch (1974) has commented:

Whole generations trained to think in terms of social issues are offered roles as powerless, well-paid employees. Those with specific skills find their work compartmentalized and routinized. The shift in the authority of engineers and skilled scientists in industry also reduces them to a new highly-trained working class.

(p. 176)

It is also suggested that:

What dominates our type of society is not the internal contradictions of the various social class systems but the contradictions between the needs of these social systems and the needs of individuals. This can be interpreted in moral terms, which has aroused scant sociological

interest because there is nothing more confused than the defense of individualism against the social machinery. (Touraine, 1974, p. 185)

In summary, an individual who, in the work world, has a satisfying enjoyable experience feels better about themselves and consequently relate in a more pleasant manner with their marriage partner. The reverse appears also true; persons who do not enjoy their job may bring into the marriage relationship their job dissatisfactions creating disharmony and marital discord. It seems that men are more likely to bring home to their marriage their job dissatisfaction feelings than do women. (Lawler, 1970) Therefore, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is one of the contributing factors to marital harmony or discord.

#### Personal Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Thus, the family and occupation are two areas of great potential dissatisfaction. Could these areas of dissatisfaction be grounded in a person's basic dissatisfaction with himself? An early proponent in personality theory suggests people appear to be discontent with themselves and with all aspects of life.

Freud (1933) said:

Culture has to call up every possible reinforcement to erect barriers against the aggressive

instincts of man...hence, too, its ideal command to love one's neighbor as oneself, which is really justified by the fact that nothing is so completely at variance with human nature as this. (p. 44)

Freud believed that the basic direction of a person's life is generally determined at an early age (about five years), even though it did occasionally change and could be altered by psychoanalysis. According to Freud, moral, good, and unselfish behavior is unnatural, but it could occur if the individual learns to repress or redirect his id. Freud called this "sublimation". Some mental illnesses are the result of a super-ego that is too unrealistic, resulting in the inability of the patient to cope with conflict.

However, Frankl (1967) feels that man experiences frustrations:

...not because of conflicts between drives and instincts, but rather from conflicts between various values; in other words, from moral conflicts or, to speak in a more general way, from spiritual problems. Among such problems, existential frustration often plays a large role.

(p. 132)

For Frankl, existential frustration would be "the striving to find a concrete meaning in personal existence...the

will to meaning". (p. 133)

Another personality theorist, Maslow, explains why people experience frustrations. His theory is similar to Frankl's. Maslow (1954) suggests:

It is better to consider neuroses rather related to spiritual disorders, to loss of meaning, to doubts about the goals of life, to grief and anger over a lost love, to seeing life in a different way, to loss of courage or of hope, to despair over the future, to dislike for oneself, to recognition that one's life is being wasted, or that there is no possibility of joy or love, etc., etc.,....These are all fallings away from full-humanness, from the full blooming of human nature. (p. 27)

Some people mature physically, but psychologically remain children. Immature adults are unwilling to develop their talents and skills. Because they have never developed workable methods of relating to other people they are dull. Frustrations cause people to picture life as they wish it were. They have difficulty in seeing life as it is. (Maslow, 1954)

Perls (1971) believes that people are frustrated and anxious because there

...is a gap between the now and the then. If you are in the now; you can't be anxious, because the excitement flows immediately into ongoing spontaneous activity. If you are in the now, you are creative, and inventive. If you have your senses ready, you have your eyes and ears open, like every small child, you find a solution. We discover that the meaning of life is that it is to be lived, and it is not to be traded and conceptualized and squeezed into a pattern of systems. We realize that manipulation and control are not the ultimate joy of life. (p. 13)

Steiner (1974), a transactional analysis theorist, says

that:

If people are unhealthy, unhappy, uninterested in learning, uncooperative, selfish, or disrespectful of life, it is the result of external oppressive influences, which overpower the more basic positive tendency that is built into them. Even when overpowered, this tendency remains dormant, so that it is always ready to express itself when oppression leaves. Even if it is not given a chance to be expressed in a person's lifetime, this human life tendency is passed on

to each succeeding generation of newborns.

(p. 3)

According to this theory, people are, by nature, capable of living in harmony with themselves, each other, and with nature, if they are left alone and given adequate nurturing. Personal frustrations are externally imposed upon a capable, healthy organism.

In summary, humans are exceptionally complex organisms with a multidimensional personality influenced by hereditary factors, family factors, and societal pressures. No two personality theorists agree on the correct combination of factors which would, if placed in proper relationship, produce an adaptive human organism. Discussions continue concerning what creates a healthy, happy, contented individual. There is also a divergence of opinions about what constitutes an unhappy, sad, or malcontented individual. The most appropriate remark that can be stated at this time is that some individuals seem to fit some theorists' views and other individuals seem to comply with other theoretical frameworks.

There are inevitable frustrations with marriage, with jobs, and with one's own self. Everyone, regardless of age, economic status, occupation, or marital status at some time in their lives finds life perplexing, confusing, and disoriented. What do people do in times of stress and frustration? Some

seek the assistance of professional counselors. What are the characteristics of the person who solves his own problems? In comparison, what is the characteristic of a person who seeks professional help? These are the basic questions of this study.

### Definitions

Life Style--encompassing the beliefs and preferences of the individual. (Friedlander, 1973, p. 1) This composite of beliefs and preferences is incorporated into an individual's selective process enabling them to evaluate and then react toward any particular set of environmental stimuli in a way that will be of benefit to them.

Job Status--having been employed full time (40 hours a week or more) or part-time ( 20 hours a week or more) during the last six months at the same job. (Harzberg, 1968, pp. 82-91; Reif, 1974, pp. 73-79; Waller, 1973, pp. 61-62)

Job Satisfaction--an individual experiencing a job as being satisfying enough to remain employed at that particular job for two or more years.

Marital Satisfaction--an individual who is currently experiencing marriage with the same person as being satisfying enough to have remained married to that same individual for two or more years.

Individual Satisfaction--an individual who has found life satisfying enough that they have not sought professional counseling for the last two or more years.

Counseled Individuals--a person who has received two or more counseling sessions from a professional counselor.

Non-counseled Individuals--a person who has not received any or only one counseling session from a professional counselor during the past two years.

Professional Counselor--a clergyman, psychologist, a psychiatrist, or a psychiatric social worker.

Church Counseling Center--Persons who come to the First United Methodist Church Counseling Center are active (average two worship services a month) church members.

Public Counseling Center--Persons who come to the Edmond Guidance Center are not active in Church or other Civic Activities.

Ex Post Facto Research--

...is a systematic empirical inquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of independent variable because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulable. Inferences about relations among variables are made, without direct intervention, from concomitant variation of independent and dependent variables.

(Kerlinger, 1973, p. 379)



Ex post facto research has three major weaknesses ....: 1. the inability to manipulate independent variables, 2. the lack of power to randomize, and 3. the risk of improper interpretation.

In other words, compared to experimental research, other things being equal, ex post facto research lacks control; this lack is based on the third weakness: the risk of improper interpretation.  
(p. 390)

Further:

It can even be said that ex post facto research is more important than experimental research. This is, of course, not a methodological observation. It means, rather, that the most important social scientific and educational research problems do not lend themselves to experimentation, although many of them do lend themselves to controlled inquiry of the ex post facto kind. If a tally of sound and important studies in the behavioral sciences and education were made, it is possible that ex post facto studies would outnumber and outrank experimental studies.  
(p. 392).

## CHAPTER III

MethodologyThe Sample

The first sample was seventy-one adults, i.e., who were over eighteen and under sixty-five years old, and who had participated in two or more counseling sessions from one of the three clergymen of the First United Methodist Church of Edmond, Oklahoma, during the first six months of 1976. Thirty of these adults were selected at random, using random numbers, to complete the inventories and demographic questionnaires.

The second sample was fifty-three adults who had participated in two or more counseling sessions from the staff at the Edmond Guidance Center, Edmond, Oklahoma. Thirty of these adults were selected at random, using random numbers, to complete the inventories and demographic questionnaires.

The third sample was one hundred and fifty adults who were members of five Edmond, Oklahoma, civic organizations, i.e., Junior Chamber of Commerce, Junior Chamber of Commerce Janes, Lions Club, Rotary Club and the Edmond Business and Professional Women's Club. These adults had not received any professional counseling and represented those Edmond, Oklahoma, adults who had successfully learned to cope with stresses and

strains of personal problems, marriage problems, and occupational problems. Sixty of these adults were selected at random using random numbers, to complete the inventories and demographic questionnaires. The inventories and demographic questionnaires were administered during the first six months of 1976.

Instruments. The differences between the three groups was determined through an examination of three areas:

1. Self-satisfaction was examined with the use of the Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis Inventory (Johnson & Taylor, 1967, see Appendix 1);

2. Marital satisfaction was examined with the use of Scale of Marriage Problems Inventory (Swenson & Fiore, 1975, see Appendix 2); and

3. Occupational satisfaction was examined with the use of An Index of Job Satisfaction Inventory (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951, see Appendix 3).

The first two pages of these inventories included demographic information, age, number of marriages, number of divorces, education level, occupation changes, family income level, self-reported problem area, sex and the number of counseling sessions. (see Appendix 4)

Data analysis. The primary statistical method was a discriminant analysis as presented in BMD07M. (p. 233)

this program performs a multiple group discriminant analysis. A set of linear classification functions is computed by choosing the independent variables in a stepwise manner. The variable entered at each step is selected by one of four available criteria, and a variable is deleted when its F-value becomes too low. Using these functions and prior probabilities the posterior probabilities of each case belonging to each group is computed. (Sampson, 1973)

The goal of this statistical technique is to assign group membership.

In this ex post facto design, group membership was known, and the goal was to investigate relationships between the twelve variables and group membership. Stated another way, to what degree do those variables discriminate between counseled and non-counseled individuals, and what combination of variables provide the best system for classifying subjects into the three groups.

Beginning with a single variable as a predictor, the computer program provides an F-value and a classification matrix. At each step of the program, one variable is selected and entered into the set of discriminating variables. The classification power changes at each step as the program reevaluates and accounts for, variance as each variable

entered in the step-wise manner. If the  $F$ -value became too low, the variable was deleted. This procedure treated all variables as continuous and showed the interaction of variables.

### Limitations

This study is limited by certain parameters. The most important of these limitations are:

1. The three instruments used to measure self-satisfaction, i.e., Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis Inventory (Johnson & Taylor, 1967); marital satisfaction, i.e., Scale of Marriage Problems Inventory (Swenson & Fione, 1975); and occupational satisfaction, i.e., An Index of Job Satisfaction Inventory (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) have the limitation of being short. Longer inventories might produce different results.
2. There is nothing absolute about the nine demographic variables chosen. As an example, the number of children living with the parents might have been a significant demographic variable.
3. The subject sample is limited to white suburban persons. The results might be different if the subject sample were from a minority segment of the population or if the subject sample had been taken from the welfare roles from a given community.
4. The subject sample is limited to married persons. Would the results have been different if the subject sample had been divorced persons?

## CHAPTER IV

Presentation and Results

The purpose of this study is to analyze membership in three groups, those seeking counseling from a church counseling center, those seeking counseling from a public funded counseling center, and those who had never received professional counseling, in relation to their scores on three inventories and nine demographic characteristics. The inventories will estimate a person's attitude about himself or herself, his or her marriage, and his or her attitude about his or her job. The demographic characteristics considered are age, sex, number of marriages, number of divorces, education level, income level, number of counseling sessions, self-reported problem areas, and occupation change.

The research was directed toward answering these questions:

1. How well does each variable classify or separate the subjects into the non-counseled, the church counseled, and the public counseled groups?
2. How well does each variable classify or separate the subjects into the non-counseled and the counseled groups?
3. Which variables best describe the subjects of the non-counseled, the church counseled, and the public counseled groups?

At first a multivariate analysis, BMD07M (Sampson, 1973) was used to classify individual subjects into a non-counseled group, a church counseled group, and a public agency counseled group on the basis of the twelve variables, using a BMD07M stepwise discriminant analysis computer program.

A summary of the size of samples, means and standard deviations for each of the inventory variables for each group is presented in Table 1. The demographic variables are age, number of marriages, number of divorces, educational level, occupation change, income level, self reported problem areas, sex, and number of counseling sessions. A summary of the size of sample, mean, and standard deviation for each of the demographic variables for each group is presented in Table 2.

The next step in the program was to consider each of the variables, uninfluenced by others, to see how effectively each discriminated between the three groups of subjects. Based on each variable as a predictor, the program provided an F-value probability statement regarding each individual's likelihood of being included in each one of three groups.

Some Stress Factors

48

TABLE 1

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF NON-COUNSELED, CHURCH  
COUNSELED, AND PUBLIC AGENCY COUNSELED ADULTS  
FOR THE INVENTORY VARIABLES

Variable	Non-Counseled		Church Counseled		Public Agency Counseled		Grand Mean
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	
10. Self Atti- tude Scale	25.68	4.66	21.53	6.77	23.33	6.13	24.06
11. Marriage Atti- tude Inventory	7.45	3.51	14.53	5.53	23.83	5.86	13.32
12. Job Attitude							



Variable	Non-Counseled		Counseled		Counseled		Mean
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	
10. Self Atti- tude Scale	25.68	4.66	21.53	6.77	23.33	6.13	24.06
11. Marriage Atti- tude Inventory	7.45	3.51	14.53	5.53	23.83	5.86	13.32
12. Job Attitude Inventory	27.63	6.39	27.57	6.90	27.90	6.18	27.68

TABLE 2

MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND GRAND MEAN OF  
COUNSELED AND NON-COUNSELED FOR THE TWELVE VARIABLES FOR THREE GROUPS

Variable	Key	Non-Counseled (N=60)		Church Coun- seled (N=30)		Public Agency Counseled (N=30)		Grand Mean
		$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	
Age	2=21-30 yrs 3=31-45 yrs	2.83	.74	2.60	.62	2.93	.69	2.80
No. Marriages	2=1 marriage 3=2 marriages	2.05	.28	2.13	.35	2.13	.35	2.09
No. Divorces	1=0 divorces 2=1 divorce	1.08	.28	1.17	.38	1.13	.35	1.12
Educ. Level	3=H.S.+Tech Sch 4=college grad	3.80	.99	3.97	.89	3.73	.98	3.83
Occu. Changes	2=1 change 3=2 changes	2.22	1.28	2.70	1.53	2.57	1.33	2.43
Income Level	1=\$5-10,000 2=\$11-20,000	1.20	.44	2.00	1.01	1.60	.86	1.50
Problem Area	2=marriage 3=job	2.65	1.01	2.50	1.01	2.67	1.21	2.62
Sex	1=female 2=male	1.57	.87	1.73	.87	1.90	.61	1.69
No. Counsel Sessions	1=0 2=1-2	1.45	.50	1.43	.50	1.47	.51	1.45
. Self Scale	32 possible +	25.68	4.66	21.53	6.77	23.33	6.13	24.06
. Marriage Scale	44 possible	7.45	3.51	14.53	5.54	23.83	5.86	13.32
. Job Scale	36 possible +	27.63	6.40	27.57	6.90	27.90	6.18	27.68

Some Stress Factors

50

Table 4 presents the F-value, the Degree of Freedom, and the number of cases correctly classified according to the F-value, for each Inventory Variable.

TABLE 4

F-VALUES AND THE DEGREES OF FREEDOM FOR EACH  
INVENTORY VARIABLE FOR THREE GROUPS

Inventory Variable Entered	<u>F</u> -Value to Enter or Remove	
11. Marriage Scale	121.72*	DF2/117
10. Self Scale	5.78*	DF2/116
12. Job Scale	.03	DF2/115

Inventory Variable Entered	F-Value to Enter or Remove	
11. Marriage Scale	121.72*	DF2/117
10. Self Scale	5.78*	DF2/116
12. Job Scale	.03	DF2/115

\*Significant at .01 level

THE NUMBER OF PERSONS CORRECTLY CLASSIFIED FOR EACH  
INVENTORY VARIABLE FOR THE THREE GROUPS

	Non Counseled (%)	Church Counseled (%)	Public Counseled (%)
Non-Counseled (N=60)	52 (87%)	8 (13%)	0 (%)
Church Counseled (N=30)	5 (17%)	23 (77%)	2 (6%)
Public Agency Counseled (N=30)	0 (0%)	6 (20%)	24 (80%)

Table 5 presents the variable name and number, the F-value and the degrees of freedom for each demographic variable.

TABLE 5  
VARIABLE NAME, NUMBER, F-VALUES, AND  
DEGREES OF FREEDOM FOR EACH DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE FOR THREE  
GROUPS

Variable	No.	<u>F</u> -Value	D.F.
Income Level	6	12.29*	2/117
Age	1	2.82*	2/116
Occupation Change	5	2.04*	2/115
Sex	8	.99	2/114
No. Marriages	2	.54	2/113
No. Divorces	3	.69	2/112
Problem Area	7	.46	2/111
Education Level	4	.26	2/110
No. Counseling Sessions	9	.04	2/109

\* Significant at .01 level

# Some Stress Factors

52

Table 6 presents the number of cases correctly classified into the three groups using all of the demographic variables.

TABLE 6  
NUMBER OF CASES CORRECTLY CLASSIFIED INTO THE THREE GROUPS

	Non Counseled (%)	Church Counseled (%)	Public Counseled (%)
Non-Counseled (N=60)	39 (39%)	8 (13%)	13 (22%)
Church Counseled (N=30)	8 (27%)	18 (60%)	4 (13%)
Public Agency Counseled (N=30)	13 (43%)	7 (23%)	10 (33%)

Table 7 presents the variable name and number, the F-value, and the degree of freedom for all twelve variables. Table 8

Non-Counseled (N=60)	39 (39%)	8 (13%)	13 (22%)
Church Counseled (N=30)	8 (27%)	18 (60%)	4 (13%)
Public Agency Counseled (N=30)	13 (43%)	7 (23%)	10 (33%)

---

Table 7 presents the variable name and number, the F-value, and the degree of freedom for all twelve variables. Table 8 presents the number of cases correctly classified into groups using all twelve variables. These tables illustrate the multiple discriminant analysis yielded by the program in a step-wise program, with one variable selected and entered into the set to discriminate at the end of each step. The variables are selected on the basis of having the largest F-value, and the greatest decrease in the ratio of within groups variance to total variance. The classification power changes at each step as the program reevaluates the accounts for variance as

each variable is entered in the stepwise manner. If the F-value becomes too low, the variable is deleted.

TABLE 7

F-VALUE, DEGREES OF FREEDOM FOR ALL TWELVE  
VARIABLES FOR THREE GROUPS

Variable	No.	<u>F</u> -Value	D.F.
Marriage Scale	11	121.72*	2/117
Income Level	6	10.47*	2/116
Age	1	2.35*	2/115
Self Scale	10	1.92*	2/114
Occupation Change	5	1.74*	2/113
Sex	8	1.27	2/112
Problem Area	7	1.21	2/111
Education Level	4	.61	2/110
Job Scale	12	.51	2/109
No. Divorces	3	.42	2/108
No. Counseling Sessions	9	.21	2/107
No. Marriages	2	.17	2/106

\* Significant at .01 level



TABLE 8

THE NUMBER OF CASES CORRECTLY CLASSIFIED INTO THREE GROUPS  
FOR ALL TWELVE VARIABLES

	Non Counseled(%)	Church Counseled(%)	Public Counseled(%)
Non-Counseled (N=60)	55 (92%)	4 (6%)	1 (2%)
Church Counseled (N=30)	3 (10%)	23 (77%)	4 (13%)
Public Agency Counseled (N=30)	1 (3%)	6 (20%)	23 (77%)

The variable having the largest  $F$ -value is selected first for entry. In the case of the inventory variables, the marriage scale carried the highest  $F$ -value, 121.72. The next entry, in order of  $F$ -value magnitudes, were self inventory scale,  $F=5.78$ , and job inventory scale,  $F=.023$ . In the case of the demographic variables, family income level  $F=12.30$ . The next entries, in order of  $F$ -value magnitudes, occupation change  $F=.83$ , number of divorces  $F=.68$ , problem areas  $F=.43$ , and education  $F=.15$ . In the case of all twelve variables, the marriage inventory scale carried the highest  $F$ -value, 121.72.

The next entries, in order of  $F$ -value magnitudes, income level,  $F=10.47$ ; age,  $F=2.35$ ; self scale,  $F=1.91$ ; occupation changes,  $F=1.74$ ; sex,  $F=1.27$ ; problem area,  $F=1.20$ ; education level,  $F=.61$ ; job scale,  $F=.51$ ; number of divorces,  $F=.42$ ; number of counseling sessions,  $F=.21$ ; number of marriages,  $F=.17$ .

Summary

In summary, the BMD07M multivariate analysis program (Sampson, 1973) was able to classify the sample subjects into the non-counseled, the church counseled, and the public counseled groups on the basis of nine demographic variables and three inventory variables. The BMD07M computer program calculated the variable with the largest  $F$ -value (marriage scale inventory - 121.72) and then recalculated for the next largest  $F$ -value variable, and progressed in a stepwise manner until all twelve variables had been selected according to their respective  $F$ -values. The BMD07M multivariate analysis program next calculated those subjects who had been correctly classified into the three groups for all twelve variables. The data from the calculations are found on Tables 1 - 8, with the exception of Table 3 which is a percentage table for the nine demographic variables. (Appendix V)

## CHAPTER V

Discussion of Results

The purpose of this study was to study the difference between counseled and non-counseled adults. The first group included sixty persons from the general adult population who had never received counseling from a professional counselor. The second group included thirty adult persons who had received counseling from a church counseling center. The third group included thirty adult persons who had received counseling from a public-funded counseling agency. All were from Edmond, Oklahoma.

The data from the three groups were obtained from the subjects' scores on three inventories and nine demographic characteristics. The review of literature dealing with marriage satisfaction, job satisfaction, and personal satisfaction resulted in the selection of the twelve variables which were analyzed as contributors to membership in the three groups. The study was directed toward answering the following three questions:

1. How well do the three inventories and nine demographic variables identify subject into non-counseled, church counseled, and public agency counseled groups?
2. How well do the three inventories and nine demographic variables identify the subjects into non-counseled

and counseled groups?

3. Which of the three inventories and nine demographic variables best describe the subjects of the non-counseled, church counseled, public agency counseled groups?

The data was analyzed through the use of a stepwise discriminant analysis, program BMD07M. (Sampson, 1973) This procedure treats all variables as continuous and shows the interaction of variables. Based upon each variable as a predictor, the program provided an F-value for each individual's likelihood of being included in the three groups. The multiple discriminant analysis of the composite of variables provided the order and contribution of each variable.

#### Findings

Seven of the variables; sex, problem areas, education level, job scale, number of divorces, number of counseling sessions, and number of marriages from the three groups had F-values lower than the table value required for statistical significance at either the .01 or the .05 levels.

Marriage scale, income level, age, self scale, and occupation change all had the table value required for statistical significance at the .01 level for the three groups. The most parsimonious composite, marriage inventory and income level, absorbed most of the variability of the other variables in the three groups.

The order and contribution of variables within the composite of the three groups were presented on Table 7. Marriage inventory scale which had by far the largest  $\underline{F}$ -value ( $\underline{F}=121.72$ ), was entered first, followed by income level ( $\underline{F}=10.47$ ), age ( $\underline{F}=2.34$ ), self-scale ( $\underline{F}=1.92$ ), and occupation change ( $\underline{F}=1.74$ ).

The results of this study in terms of the four specific questions are:

1. How well do the three inventories and nine demographic variables identify subjects into non-counseled, church counseled, and public agency counseled groups?

The marriage scale ( $\underline{F}=121.72$ ), income level ( $\underline{F}=10.47$ ), age ( $\underline{F}=2.35$ ), self-scale ( $\underline{F}=1.92$ ) and occupation change ( $\underline{F}=1.74$ ) were those variables that were best able to separate individuals into the three groups. These results are seen in Table 8. In this table it can be observed that 92% of the people from the non-counseled group have been correctly classified, 77% of the people from the church counseled group have been correctly classified, and 77% of the people from the public agency have been correctly classified.

2. How well do the three inventories and nine demographic variables identify the subjects into non-counseled and counseled groups? A second program was computed to ascertain whether or not there would be any significant diff-

erence among those variables that would differentiate among the groups if the church counseled group and the public counseled groups were combined into one group entitled the counseled group and the non-counseled group allowed to remain the same. The results did not show any significant differences. The same five variables that correctly classified the subjects into the non-counseled, the church counseled, and the public counseled groups also correctly classified the subjects into the non-counseled and the counseled groups. Because there was no significant difference between the data of the two BMD07M program analysis, it was decided that only the data from the non-counseled, church counseled, and public counseled grouping would be used for this study.

3. Which of the three inventories and nine demographic variables best describe the subjects of the non-counseled, church counseled, and public counseled groups?

The marriage inventory scale, the income level, the age of the subject, the self inventory scale and the number of occupational changes best described the subjects of the non-counseled, church counseled and public counseled groups.

Table 3 describes some percentage data about the persons of the three groups according to the nine demographic variables:

1. Age - Most of the subject sample in all three groups were between the ages of 31-45; 45% in the non-counseled group, 43% in the church counseled group, and 57% in the public

counseled group.

2. Number of Marriages - Most of the subject samples in all three groups had been married only once; 93% of the non-counseled group, 87% of the church counseled group, and 93% of the public counseled group.

3. Number of Divorces - Most of the subject samples in all three groups had not been divorced; 93% of the non-counseled group, 83% of the church counseled group and 93% of the public counseled group.

4. Educational Level - Most of the subject samples in all three groups had college degrees or advanced college degrees; 74% of the non-counseled group, 87% of the church counseled group and 82% of the public counseled group. The non-counseled group had the highest percentage of High school and Technical school graduates - 26%.

5. Occupational Changes - Most of the subject samples in all three groups had no occupational changes in the last three years or only one change; non-counseled - 98%, church counseled - 87%, and public counseled - 90%. However, it should be observed that the subjects in the church counseled group had 47% who had not had any occupational change and had 40% who had one change in the last three years. This was a higher occupational change than either the non-counseled or the public counseled group.

6. Income Level - Most of the subject samples in all three groups made between \$11,000 and \$30,000 a year income; the non-counseled - 68%, the church counseled - 80%, and the public counseled - 74%. The public counseled group had 10% of its subjects in the \$5,000 - \$10,000 category which was the lowest of all three groups. Both the non-counseled and the public counseled groups had 3% in the \$50,000 plus income level.

7. Reported Problem Areas - There were some major differences indicated among the three groups on the reported problem area variable. Self problems were the highest percentages from both the non-counseled and the church counseled groups (62% & 63% respectively). Marriage problems were the highest percentage in the public counseled group - 53%. The lowest percentage reported by the non-counseled group was marriage problems - 7%, job problems for the church counseled and the public counseled groups.

8. Sex - Most of the subject samples in all three groups were about evenly divided between males and females. There were more females in the church counseled group - 60% and there were more males in the public agency counseled group - 53%.

9. Number of Counseling Sessions - Most of the subject samples in the church and public counseled groups had from between one and five counseling sessions. The church counseling group had 74% in the 1 - 5 counseling sessions area and



the public counseling group had 77% in the 1 - 5 counseling session area. The highest percentage area for the church counseling group was one or two counseling sessions - 67%. The highest percentage area for the public counseling group was three to five counseling sessions - 40%. The lowest percentage area for the church counseling group was three to five counseling sessions - 7% and the lowest percentage area for the church counseling group was the five to ten counseling sessions area.

#### Summary

The data indicates that most of the variability is subsumed within the marriage inventory scale, the income level demographic variable, the self inventory scale, and the occupational change demographic variable. The marriage inventory scale alone accounts for almost enough variability to be able to differentiate among the non-counseled, the church counseled, and the public counseled groups. Income level and occupational change accounted for most of the variance within the nine demographic variables.

In conclusion, it seems that in this study, how a married person rates his marriage and himself, his income level, and the number of times he has changed occupations in the last three years, has an influence upon whether or not this married person will seek professional counseling.

## CHAPTER VI

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions presented here are based on the results of the selected procedures for analyzing the data, with consideration for the established limitations, and are confined to the subjects of this study. Of the individual variables considered as predictors of group membership, only the marriage scale inventory and family income level were effective enough to be considered useful in a practical sense; this was true for all three groups. It should be noted that the variable with the highest predictive power, the marriage inventory scale, was one of the three inventory scale variables, while the other high  $F$ -value variable was from the demographic variables.

While this study did provide information regarding the limited discriminating power of most of the variables selected for classifying this sample, and it did answer the four research questions, analysis of the present investigation raises further questions. For example, a concern of future researchers must be why so much time, energy, and money has been spent investigating job satisfaction and personal satisfaction of married persons when the more economical approach might be to investigate various aspects of a marriage relationship.

Also, it should be noted that neither the sex, problem areas, educational level, job scale, number of marriages, number of divorces, or number of counseling sessions play a significant role in determining those people who need counseling from those people who do not need nor seek counseling. However, it should be considered that income level, age, and occupational changes are disturbing enough to married persons that many seek counseling.

It might be inferred from the data of this study that married persons who are in the thirty to forty-five year age group and are having income difficulties might seriously consider an occupational change. It might be surmised that persons in a troubled marriage relationship should not place themselves under the added pressures of a new occupation. That this added pressure might cause a troubled married person to seek professional counseling appears to be a high probability. It would appear that the direction of research of men like Andrews and Withey (1973), Friedlander (1975), and Holms and Rahe (1967) points to a more composite investigation of man as a total person influenced significantly by a multitude of environmental factors. Most contemporary research tends to oversimplify the motivational influences upon an individual. It appears that a man or a woman is not simply a psychological - physical being determined exclusively by intra-psychic phenomena but a very complex organism influenced by many factors,

some of which are environmental in nature. Until researchers explore the potential influences upon the human organism, research will always be guilty of oversimplification. Also, researchers must begin to explore the many variables that have potential influential powers upon the single person utilizing various attitude and demographic variables.

That this data is extremely limited as to its generalizability is understood, however, it appears to be a step in the right direction. Perhaps this research will stimulate further investigations, including as many influential variables as possible. Perhaps now when a married person seeks counseling one of the first questions a counselor will investigate will be how stable is the marriage relationship, regardless of the initially reported reason for approaching a professional counselor.

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APPENDIX I  
ATTITUDE INVENTORY

Taylor-Johnson Temperament Analysis Attitude Scale

The T-JTA and the MMPI K Scale were administered to 657 subjects. The subjects ranged in age from 15 to 81 years. The reliability (internal consistency) of the Attitude Scale was .83, computed by analysis of variance. The computation was based on the scores of 1215 subjects. The correlation with age was .37 for the Attitude scores and .24 for the K scores.

SCORING

Each positive response receives a two point score, each negative response receives zero points, each undecided response receives one point.

Scale range:

Negative Self Attitude --- 0

Positive Self Attitude --- 32

Appendix 1

Attitude Inventory

1. I am by nature, a forgiving person.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
2. I make unrealistic plans for the future, which later  
have to be abandoned.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
3. I often allow tension to build up to the point of  
feeling "ready to explode."  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
4. I always am trying to convert someone to a particular  
point of view.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
5. I find it difficult to follow definite plans.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
6. I get into difficulty occasionally because of some  
impulsive act.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided



7. I am easily taken advantage of by others.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
8. I sometimes become so emotional as to be unable to think or act logically.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
9. I have a quick temper.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
10. I sometimes get the uncomfortable feeling of being stared at or talked about.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
11. There are times when I feel discouraged or despondent over lack of progress or accomplishment.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
12. I am apt to be sarcastic when annoyed with someone.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
13. I feel a bit uncomfortable when expected to express enthusiasm over a gift.  
(a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided

14. I often have "the blues" or feel downhearted for no apparent reason.
- (a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
15. I am inclined to be shy and withdrawn.
- (a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided
16. I have periods of idleness when it is difficult to find any reason for either physical or mental effort.
- (a) decidedly yes (b) mostly so (c) mostly no  
(d) decidedly no (e) undecided

APPENDIX II  
MARRIAGE PROBLEMS INVENTORY

Scale of Marriage Problems

This Scale of Marriage Problems attempts to examine and measure the dimensions underlying marriage interactions. The reliability of the scores determined by Cronbach's alpha was .85.

SCORING

The answers to each item were added in the following way:

0 for each answer marked "This is never a problem."

1 for each answer marked "This is somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem."

2 for each answer marked "This is a serious problem or a constant problem."

Scale Range:

Negative Marriage Attitude --- 44

Positive Marriage Attitude --- 0

Appendix 2

Inventory of Marriage Problems

A--This is never a problem.

B--This is somewhat of a problem or an occasional problem.

C--This is a serious problem or a constant problem.

1. One partner feels that he or she always has to "give in" to spouse. ( )
2. One partner feels that he or she cannot individually "grow as a person" in the marriage. ( )
3. Husband and wife seem to want different things out of the marriage. ( )
4. Partner holds spouse "down" or prevents spouse from doing things that would make him or her a happier, more satisfied person. ( )
5. Partner often feels that he or she does not understand what spouse is upset about. ( )
6. Partner and spouse cannot seem to discuss things calmly without arguing or fighting. ( )
7. Some problems seem to linger in the marriage without getting solved. ( )
8. Although there are frequent arguments, couple is unable to find out what the real problem is. ( )
9. Slight arguments or disagreements seem to turn into crises

10. Husband and wife sometimes seem to be working "against" each other instead of working together to achieve a common goal. ( )
11. Either you or your spouse spends money without first consulting the other. ( )
12. Husband and wife disagree on the family budget, i.e., how much money should be spent on what, how much should be saved for the future, how much should be invested, etc. ( )
13. You feel that your spouse spends too much money on some things and not enough on others. ( )
14. You and your spouse live beyond your means. ( )
15. As a couple, you spent too much money when first married and are still trying to get out of debt as a result. ( )
16. Your spouse feels that you spend too much money on some things and not enough on others. ( )
17. Husband or wife is dissatisfied with the type of affection that is shown in public, i.e., handholding, kissing, etc. ( )
18. Husband or wife is dissatisfied with the amount of affection (too much, too little) that is shown in public. ( )

19. Either you or your spouse has an extra marital sexual involvement. ( )
20. Partner objects to some of the same-sex friends of spouse. ( )
21. Wife feels husband is not interested in what happened to her during the day. ( )
22. Wife feels husband does not share his day with her. ( )

APPENDIX III  
JOB INVENTORY



Job Inventory

"An attitude scale elicits an expression of feeling toward an object. It may be used directly with an individual to obtain such an expression. It permits quantification of the expression of feeling. These characteristics suggest the utility of attitude scaling methodology in developing an index of job satisfaction." (Brayfield, 1951)

SCORING

Each positive response receives a two point score, each negative response receives a zero point, each undecided response receives one point.

Scale range:

Negative Job Attitude --- 0

Positive Job Attitude --- 36

Appendix 3

Job Inventory

1. My job is like a hobby to me.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
3. It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
4. I consider my job rather unpleasant.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
5. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
6. I am often bored with my job.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
7. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
8. Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
9. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
10. I feel that my job is no more interesting than any other I could get.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided

11. I definitely dislike my work.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
12. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
13. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
14. Each day of work seems like it will never end.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
15. I like my job better than the average worker does.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
16. My job is pretty uninteresting.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
17. I find real enjoyment in my work.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided
18. I am disappointed that I ever took this job.  
(a) agree (b) disagree (c) undecided

APPENDIX IV  
INFORMATIONAL INVENTORY

Appendix 4

Informational Inventory

1. Age Group.

- ☐ under 21    ☐ 21-30    ☐ 31-45    ☐ 46-65  
☐ over 65

2. Religious preference.

- ☐ Protestant    ☐ Catholic    ☐ Jewish    ☐ Other  
☐ None

3. Present Marital Status.

- ☐ Married    ☐ Divorced    ☐ Separated    ☐ Widowed(r)  
☐ Never Married

4. Number of Marriages.

- ☐ 0    ☐ 1    ☐ 2    ☐ 3    ☐ 4+

5. Number of Divorces.

- ☐ 0    ☐ 1    ☐ 2    ☐ 3    ☐ 4+

6. Education Attained.

- ☐ Grade School    ☐ High School    ☐ Tech. School  
☐ College    ☐ Advanced Grad. Degree

7. Occupation changes in last three years.

- ☐ 0    ☐ 1    ☐ 2    ☐ 3    ☐ 4+

8. Family Income Level

- ☐ \$5,000 - \$10,000    ☐ \$11,000 - \$20,000  
☐ \$21,000 - \$30,000    ☐ \$31,000 - \$50,000  
☐ \$50,000+

9. I experienced the most problems during the last 12 months in the following area.  
☐ self (personal problems)    ☐ marriage    ☐ job
10. Sex  
☐ male    ☐ female
11. Number of counseling sessions with a professional counselor. (Minister, Psychologist, Psychiatrist, Social Worker)  
☐ none    ☐ 1-2    ☐ 3-5    ☐ 5-10    ☐ 10+

APPENDIX V

TABLE 3

Table 3 indicates the percent of persons as divided into their respective groupings for the nine demographic variables for all three groups.



TABLE 3

PERCENTILE OF COUNSELED & NON-COUNSELED FOR THE NINE  
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES FOR THREE GROUPS

Variable Number and Name	Non-Counseled (N=60)	Church Counseled (N=30)	Public Agency Counseled (N=30)
Age	21-30=35% 31-45=45% 46-65=20%	21-30=47% 31-45=43% 46-65=10%	21-30=30% 31-45=57% 46-65=13%
Number of Marriages	1=93% 2= 7%	1=87% 2=13%	1=93% 2= 7%
Number of Divorces	0=93% 1= 7%	0=83% 1=13%	1=93% 2= 7%
Educational Level	High School=21% Tech. School=5% College =52% Advanced Degrees=22%	High School=0 Tech School=13% College =57% Advanced Degrees=30%	High School=16% Tech School= 2% College =56% Advanced Degrees=26%
Occupation Change in Three Years	0=78% 1=20% 2= 2%	0=47% 3=3% 1=40% 4=3% 2= 7%	0=63% 1=27% 2=10%
Income Level	\$5,000-\$10,000=12% \$11,000-\$20,000=33% \$21,000-\$30,000=35% \$31,000-\$50,000=17% \$50,000+ = 3%	\$5,000-\$10,000= 7% \$11,000-\$20,000=30% \$21,000-\$30,000=50% \$31,000-\$50,000=13%	\$5,000-\$10,000=10% \$11,000-\$20,000=47% \$21,000-\$30,000=27% \$31,000-\$50,000=13% \$50,000+ = 3%
Reported Problem Areas	Self=62% Marriage=7% Job=31%	Self=63% Marriage=27% Job=10%	Self=33% Marriage=53% Job=14%
Sex	Female=50% Male=50%	Female=60% Male=40%	Female=47% Male=53%
Number of Counselling Sessions		1-2=67% 3-5= 7% 5-10=10% 10+=16%	1-2=37% 3-5=40% 5-10=10% 10+=13%