1984

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DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDE TOWARD MARRIAGE AND FAMILY LIFE AMONG SINGLE ADULT OFFSPRING OF INTACT-HAPPY, INTACT-UNHAPPY AND DIVORCED FAMILIES

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Faculty of the Graduate School
University of the Pacific

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Dorothy L. Anacleto
May 1984
This dissertation, written and submitted by

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Dated Mar 30 1984
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to extend my sincere gratitude to Dr. Edward Pohlman, Chairman, for his guidance, assistance, and intellectual stimulation throughout this study.

To Dr. Jack Mason, Dr. Fred Muskal, Dr. Joseph Anastasio and Dr. Walter Nyberg my thanks for their invaluable comments and assistance.

Special thanks to Dr. Bobby Hopkins for his time and effort in the programming of this study for the computer.

Many thanks to those instructors who allowed me time to administer the AMAI in their classes: Barbara Broer, Joan Ray, Ron Payne, Dr. Volbrecht and Dr. Chaubal. Special thanks to Mr. Ronald Murdoff for his cooperation and assistance during the testing of the subjects and the many years of support he has extended to me since we met as teacher and student in my first Psychology class.

To my children, Lisa, Ken, Sara, Ceci and Mike, I wish to express my thanks for their patience, laughter and loyalty - one more time.
Differences in Attitude Toward Marriage and Family Life Among Single Adult Offspring of Intact-Happy, Intact-Unhappy and Divorced Families

Abstract of Dissertation

Purpose: Children of divorced parents seem to have more divorces when they themselves marry. If an "intergenerational transmission" effect exists, differences in attitude should exist even before marriage. What differences in attitude exist, if any, between the offspring of divorced parents and of intact-happy parents?

Procedure: The Anacleto Marital Attitude Inventory (AMAI) was developed with 92 Likert-scaled items. Internal consistency (.88), Reliability (.81), and Concurrent Validity (.65) for the total test as well as for 8 subscales were judged satisfactory. Higher scores show more healthy attitudes. The AMAI was administered to 353 single adults drawn from a community college, a university, and trade schools in the Central Valley of California. They were adult single offspring of (1) divorced, (2) "intact-happy", (3) "intact-unhappy" parents, classified from questionnaire answers. It was hypothesized that Group 2 would have healthier attitudes than Group 1, Group 2 healthier attitudes than Group 3 and Group 1 healthier attitudes than Group 3.

Findings: Contrary to predictions, Group 1 had significantly healthier attitudes than Group 2 on the total AMAI and the Sex attitudes subscale. These differences were not strong, though significant at the .001 level because of the large N's. Still this contrast to the hypotheses and previous literature invites further study. Explanations for these findings include: parents having custody teaching appropriate and healthy attitudes toward marriage; interest and self-sought education about marriage by the children, to avoid the dissolutions suffered by their parents; more rational, cognitive understanding of marriage shown on the AMAI which may or may not translate into improved relationships. Hope for a better relationship may prompt this population to seek divorce more readily. Stronger differences, also true at the .001 level, were found by sex for the AMAI as a whole, on 6 of the 8 scale comparisons. Females were found to have healthier attitudes than males. Sex differences such as these may suggest socialization variations. Marital relationships potentially could suffer from such differences. No interaction effects for Group status by sex were found.
CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

Introduction

Marriage has been a universal institution for as long as humankind can remember or record, but industrialized society has changed the basic purpose of marriage. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, marriage was a functional relationship to rear children and to share work and economic responsibilities for all family members (Nye and Berardo, 1973). Today romantic love and its growth are the reasons for marriage (Cadwallader, 1976). Romantic love is idealistic and sentimental, with personal satisfaction derived from the response of the loved one to this devotion; whereas mature or conjugal love is more tolerant, empathetic, and less reliant on the reaction of the loved one (Cavan, 1966). As this romantic type of love relationship is not easy to maintain under the best of circumstances, many marriages in our society are experiencing difficulties, some of which end in divorce. Statistics show that divorces have risen dramatically. There were
8.5 marriages and 2.2 divorces per 1,000 people in 1960 compared to 10.6 marriages and 5.3 divorces in 1983 (World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1981). Presently there is approximately one divorce for every two marriages.

Of those marriages ending in divorce, well over three-fifths involve children who are affected in some manner by this event (Public Health Service, 1971). Considering the pervasiveness of the problem, it is logical that social scientists should study the effects of divorce on those involved. Mueller and Pope (1977), from their compilation of various studies, concluded that children are affected by their parents' divorces and ultimately may experience problems in their own marital relationships.

A downward economic trend is usually encountered by the mother following the divorce (Bane, 1976; Brandwein, Brown and Fox, 1974). This economic instability may cause many women to turn to the welfare system for help in the form of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) payments, according to a national study conducted by Moles (1976) who used public assistance and decennial census data for his research.
The economic problems associated with divorce also place considerable emotional strain on the mother and children as Bane (1976) concluded after reviewing the literature. The children of divorced couples may suffer from anxiety and loss of self-esteem according to Rosenberg (1972). Weiss (1976), using interviews, concluded that during the period prior to the divorce many children suffer mild to severe emotional upsets which either subside with the passage of time or may continue producing persistent behavioral problems.

Differences have been found between children's reactions to divorce depending upon their perceptions of their parents' relationship. If the child perceived the marriage as happy, the adjustment was more difficult; while those who knew of their parents' marital discord reported greater security and happiness after the divorce, according to survey data collected by Landis (1960).

Other studies on the child's adjustment have focused on the period one year after the divorce. Kelly and Wallerstein (1976) concluded from clinical data that most children accepted the divorce as final and were adjusting to life fairly well. Conflicting evidence was found for the sexual identification of
father-absent boys. Santrock (1975), using interviews, found no differences between boys raised without fathers and boys raised with fathers. Other studies, gathered by Sebald (1976), indicate that boys are affected adversely by father absence. Girls also seem to have some behavioral problems following the divorce and separation from the father, according to Hetherington (1973). As a whole, the children from broken homes were functioning well as far as personality adjustment was concerned, according to Thomas (1968), who used interviews to collect her data. Nye (1957) concluded that children from divorced and separated families were better adjusted than those from conflict-ridden homes. Conflict-ridden homes are defined as those where the parents exist in a state of chronic conflict from which neither parent gains any positive satisfaction.

There is a small amount of evidence that points toward a transmission effect of divorce from one generation to another. It seems logical that if trauma is experienced in childhood, the adult will exhibit some differences from those who did not experience trauma during their developmental processes. The following studies provide evidence supporting the transmission hypothesis.
Knox (1970), using survey data, and Womble (1966) cite a tendency for students whose parents were divorced to be more romantically inclined than students whose parents remained married. They interpret this finding by assuming that more mature love exists in unbroken homes and that this modeling in the home provides a more realistic outlook toward love for the children. Divorced parents, on the other hand, provide a model for romantic love in the opinion of these authors.

Two studies (Mueller and Pope, 1977; Pope and Mueller, 1976) indicate that transmission of divorce from one generation to another occurs for females, both black and white. White males and rural black males display transmission effects also. Urban black men had more disruption in their own marriages if their homes of orientation had been intact. Intergenerational transmission of divorce does exist according to these data and should be considered as an outcome of divorce.

The purpose of this study is to look systematically at attitudes of unmarried young adults concerning marriage. Differences between the adult offspring of intact and divorced or separated families will be compared. Until this time, no studies have provided data on attitudinal differences between such
groups prior to the marriage of the adult offspring.

Statement of the Problem

Presently one divorce occurs for every two marriages. Three-fifths of these marriages involve children. The effects of divorce supposedly occur immediately and in some manner are presumed to follow the child into his later life in the form of his/her own marital instability. Information is needed concerning what differences in attitude, if any, exist between the adult offspring of divorced versus intact homes. This information could prove to be theoretically and pragmatically useful to social scientists. Hopefully, with this information it would be possible to formulate therapy and educational programs to alleviate this transmission effect.

This is a study of marital attitudes. Over 350 post-secondary students were used in this research. The students were evaluated by placing them into three groups related to their family of orientation. These groups were divorced, intact-happy and intact-unhappy families. The marital attitudes of the groups were compared for relationships between their present attitudes and their developmental histories.
Overview of Research Methodology

The subjects were drawn from first-year college, business, beauty, and trade school students. The subjects were selected by using different classes to obtain the needed sample. This sampling procedure does not insure a random sample.

On the basis of their answers concerning personal information, each student was placed into one of three groups - divorced families of orientation, intact-happy families of orientation, or intact-unhappy families of orientation. Self-report is not an optimal means for such placement but the only avenue available for this study. A copy of the "Personal Information Sheet" used to place the subjects into different groups is included in Appendix A.

This study used a design involving a posttest only with a comparison group (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). The comparison group was the intact-happy families of orientation as these were the closest to a control group which this study can provide.

The first group consisted of the offspring of divorced or separated parents and are referred to as Group 1. To be assigned to this group, the subject
had to have experienced the divorce of his/her parents before the age of 13. The reason for the 13 year old cut-off was that as children enter adolescence they are not as dependent upon their parents emotionally and so divorce may not affect them as greatly as younger children. This is not to say that it does not affect them. It is merely harder to ascertain to what degree the divorce or separation of their parents affected them.

The offspring of intact-happy families, which was used as the comparison group, is referred to as Group 2. These subjects are the offspring of marriages which did not experience a divorce and which are considered by the offspring to have been happy regardless of any conflict which occurred.

The third group consisted of those offspring who identified themselves as coming from intact-unhappy families. Intact-unhappy families were defined as those in which conflict occurred between the parents and were considered to be unhappy by the offspring. Children of intact-unhappy homes were found to exhibit more deviant behavior, more stress and strain on personality, and less positive affect toward parents than the children of divorced parents (Nye, 1957). This group will be referred to as Group 3.
Instrumentation

A search was conducted to find an attitudinal scale adequate for this study. Straus and Brown (1978), in their book *Family Measurement Techniques: Abstracts of Published Instruments, 1935-1974*, compiled all published scales. No attitudinal scale was located which had the scope or adequate reliability and validity for this study.

The author devised the Anacletto Marital Attitude Inventory (AMAI). This instrument was modeled after Olson's (1967) Interpersonal Relationship Inventory.

The AMAI consists of eight scales with a total of 92 items. The scales are as follows: (1) Marital Relationships, (2) Communication, (3) Love, (4) Sexual Relations, (5) Finances, (6) Children, (7) Marital Roles, (8) Conflict.

The AMAI is an attitude survey which measures attitudes using a forced Likert scale. Items force choice among six options. High scores indicate a healthy attitude. Healthy attitudes were judged by four expert judges rating the AMAI independently. These judges consisted of two clinical psychologists, one licensed Marriage and Family Counselor and one
therapist who was both a clinical psychologist and a licensed Marriage and Family Counselor.

A description of the development of the AMAI and its reliability and validity is included in Chapter 3.

Hypotheses

All hypotheses will be tested at the .05 level of significance.

$H_1$: There will be significant difference between the offspring of divorced parents and the offspring of intact-happy families for the total AMAI, with the intact-happy offspring displaying healthier attitudes.

$H_2$: There will be significant differences between the offspring of divorced parents and the offspring of intact-happy families when tested separately on the Marital Relationships, Communication, Love and Sexual Relations scales of the AMAI, with the offspring of intact-happy families showing healthier attitudes.
$H_3$: There will be a significant difference between the offspring of divorced parents and the offspring of intact-happy families on the Finances scale of the AMAI, with the offspring of divorced parents showing healthier attitudes.

$H_4$: There will be a significant difference between the offspring of intact-happy and intact-unhappy families for the total AMAI, with the intact-happy offspring showing healthier attitudes.

$H_5$: There will be a significant difference between the offspring of intact-unhappy families and the offspring of divorced parents for the total AMAI, with the offspring of divorced parents showing healthier attitudes.

**Statistics**

The independent variables in this study were the conflict in the intact-unhappy families and the divorce of the parents. The dependent variables were the attitudes as measured by the AMAI.

All groups were subjected to a two-way analysis of variance by group and by sex.
Significance of the Study

1. To contribute to the body of knowledge concerning the effects of divorce on adult offspring.

2. To provide information which can be helpful when counseling children from divorced, intact-happy and intact-unhappy homes.

3. To provide information which might be used in Marriage and Family classes to change maladaptive attitude patterns.

4. To provide an attitudinal scale with good reliability and validity which is oriented toward marriage and the family.

Limitations of the Study

1. The study deals with attitudes of Americans about marriage and not with marital attitudes generally throughout the world.

2. The population was drawn from one city in the Central Valley of Northern California. This sample was not a random sample of the population as most subjects were white and enrolled in
post-secondary education.

3. The independent variable was rated by self-report. Divorced versus non-divorced were probably accurately reported; however, the "happy" versus "unhappy" status of intact marriages was a subjective, personal judgment.

4. As with all surveys, an assumption of honesty in all responses had to be made.

5. The overall validity coefficient of the AMAI is .65. Although this is a respectable level, it is modest. Lower-than-perfect correlation may be due to some weakness in the criterion measure ("blind" interview ratings) or in the attitude scale, or both. But this coefficient suggests some possible discrepancies between actual and reported attitudes.

Definitions

1. Healthy attitudes - Those attitudes which are considered to be advantageous to the stability and promotion of an existing marital and familial relationship.
2. Unhealthy attitudes - Those attitudes which are considered to be detrimental to the stability and promotion of an existing marital and familial relationship.

3. Intact-happy families - Those families which did not experience divorce or separation and were considered to be happy by the offspring, regardless of the degree of conflict experienced by the parents.

4. Intact-unhappy families - Those families which did not experience divorce or separation but were considered to be unhappy, with conflict between the parents, according to the offspring.

5. Intergenerational Transmission of divorce - A theory which suggests that if the parents have divorced, it is more likely that the offspring will ultimately divorce also.

Overview of the Study

Chapter 2 contains a review of the literature related to this study. Chapter 3 discusses the development of the AMAI and the methodology used
for this study. Chapter 4 reports the findings of the study and Chapter 5 discusses these findings and makes recommendations for future studies.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Marriage

Prior to the Industrial Revolution marriage was a union which produced children and had specific work roles for both participants. In many societies women were chattel to be sold for a bride price. In others, dowries were offered to prospective husbands as incentive to them to assume a marriage contract. Social and political ties were also forged through marriage. Thus marriage was a social and economic contract which produced children and a stable work force for the family-oriented agrarian society. Although love relationships were cherished prior to the Industrial Revolution, marriage continued to be a relationship involving work roles and the rearing of children - preferably as many as possible (Nye and Berardo, 1973; Schultz and Rodgers, 1975; Reiss and Hoffman, 1979).

With the advent of the Industrial Revolution, the marital relationship changed dramatically. Men became wage-earners and were no longer a part of the
family-oriented farming community (Hinkle, 1926). Middle class women remained in the home and fulfilled their required roles there. Many lower class women worked outside the home but this was not accepted by the mores of society. Dowries and bride prices became antiquated. The love relationship became one of the major criteria to form marriages, although both social class and economic considerations still prevailed into the early 20th Century (Nye and Berardo, 1973; Schultz and Rodgers, 1975; Reiss and Hoffman, 1979).

Love as a key factor in the American marriage grew steadily during the 20th Century. Burgess (1926) described love and its relation to marriage as follows:

It is in the United States that perhaps... the most complete demonstration of romantic love as the prologue and theme of marriage has been staged. The explanation lies not far afield. The relaxation of parental control over courtship has changed marriage into a romantic adventure instead of a serious and responsible undertaking in which not merely the family but the state was concerned p. 291.

Burgess felt that this infatuation with romantic love had existed for a prolonged period of time and was prevalent throughout the various social classes in the country.

Thirty years later DeRougemont (1956) continued to refer to the American obsession with love and marriage:
No other civilization [referring to the United States] has embarked with anything like the same ingenious assurance upon the perilous enterprise of making marriage coincide with love, and of making the first depend upon the second p. 292.

The media promote this love relationship (DeRougemont, 1956) and society obviously is supportive. Social scientists who study marriage are far less supportive of love as the only or major basis for marriage. They cite homogeneity of background, similar interests, good communication patterns and consensus of agreement concerning marital roles as being more important than love for marital stability (Burgess, 1926; DeRougemont, 1956; Reik, 1957; Knox, 1968; Womble, 1966; Kunz, 1969; Kerckhoff, 1976).

Change has continued, escalating greatly after the Second World War. Women, in increasing numbers, were employed outside of the home. Economic necessity as well as increased education and career interests were reasons for this change. During the Second World War women were forced to work due to the lack of male workers. Following the war, many women, especially the middle class, returned to their roles of wives and mothers. Many did not. Technology and bureaucracy increased dramatically, creating the need for more workers, particularly women. The nuclear family, although always a reality, became
more prevalent due to increasing mobility and choice. The extended family, although surviving particularly in the lower classes, decreased in importance for the society as a whole. Political and economic changes had greater effects on families than ever before (Norton and Glick, 1979; Nye, 1973). Social pressures were also much greater than during any other prolonged period in history. Society was dynamic and this greatly affected marriage.

Marriage has experienced many changes, the causes of which cannot easily be determined. Modern American marriage is a complex conglomeration of political, financial, social, religious, familial, and personal influences. These influences also ultimately effect the outcome of marriage -- a stable union, an unhappy, warring relationship, or divorce.

Women

Women and their roles both in and out of the home have greatly affected the state of marriage. What they do, where they are, and how they interact with their families is of great importance to the stability of the family. The same concerns regarding men are of
lesser importance to the stability of the family.

Women were the social directors for their husbands and children as well as assuming more responsibility for the economic fate of the family.

...women work assiduously at linking their family members to the larger society. They do this in both obvious and subtle ways. In the former case, they establish networks for their children and husbands in the community. In the latter, they pick up slack in the periods of economic crisis. They tighten up the household budget, and they care for a vast array of people who can no longer be supported by public institutions (Sokoloff, 1980,223).

Women were also responsible to produce workers; their children, who are self-disciplined, efficient, and submissive to authority (Sokoloff, 1980). Much of the present societal disruption is blamed on the family for not producing the workers desired by the society.

Over 50 percent of all women in the United States were employed outside of the home by the late 1970's. On the average they earned 35 percent less than their male counterparts, and did not have the prestige ascribed to men's positions. When they returned home, they were still expected to maintain the house in satisfactory condition and care for husbands and children. Stress results - first for the woman and
finally for the entire family unit. There are many possible outcomes to this stress, some of which are: confusion, hostility, reorganization to more manageable expectations, reassignment of work load, family disintegration, divorce (Sokoloff, 1980).

**Divorce**

Although divorce has been a fact historically, the frequency and social acceptability of it has increased dramatically since the beginning of the 20th Century and particularly since the Second World War. Experts see a correlation between political, economic, and societal changes and the rate and acceptability of divorce (Norton and Glick, 1979).

Expectations on the part of individuals as well as societies are also related to the dissolution of marriage. As marriage has changed rapidly, the expectations of what the roles and relationships should be has changed but slowly. This undoubtedly has placed greater stress on marital relationships causing some to end in divorce (Arkowitz, 1973).

During 1983 there were over 2,438,000 marriages in the United States, or 10.6 marriages for every 1,000
persons living in this country. This amounts to a 1 percent increase over 1982 figures. In 1972 marriages began to decline but in 1976 this trend turned and marriages have been on an upward sweep in rate since that time (World Almanac, 1981).

In 1983 there were over 1,219,000 divorces in this country, or 5.3 divorces for every 1,000 persons. There is currently one divorce for every two marriages. Divorce has increased 3 percent since 1980 and is 300 percent higher than it was in 1962 (World Almanac, 1981). Fluctuations in the rate vary considerably. Between 1976 and 1978, the rate per 1,000 held steady at 5.0 but began to rise again after that time (Norton and Glick, 1979).

Children are also involved in divorce. The decision of the parents to divorce changes the lives of the children. The following figures indicate the magnitude of this problem in our country.

In 1976 there were over one million divorces and in each divorce an average of 1.08 children were involved. This represents 1.5 percent of the total population in one year alone (Bloom et al., 1979). Parish (1981) cited a 700 percent increase in divorce in the last 50 years. He believes that currently 60 percent of all divorces involve children.
Bane (1976) estimated that 40 percent of the children in this country would be affected by divorce in the 1990's. In Bane's (1979) Survey of Economic Opportunity data she found the incidence of marital disruption to be over 45 to 50 percent of all marriages due to the death, divorce, separation or never-married status of the parents. Of these 30 percent will be divorce cases.

Glick (1979) estimated that by 1990 only 56 percent of all children will live with both of their natural parents. Fifteen percent are expected to live with a parent and step-parent and twenty-five percent to be living with one parent.

The remarriage of divorced persons is highly likely. Glick and Norton (1971) estimated that one half of all divorced persons remarry in three years and four-fifths remarry within fifteen years.

Thus, there appears to be a generally high regard for the ideal of being married, but a current inability on the part of growing numbers of couples to achieve and sustain a high level of satisfaction in this sphere without making at least a second attempt (Norton and Glick, 1979, 18).

Cherlin (1979) found that a similarity of earnings between husbands and wives tended to be associated with the probability of divorce. The analysis of
this interview data of white, urban females shows some causal links: insecurity of the partners when earnings are too similar, economic independence of the wife with ultimate change in marital status, confusion of roles within the marriage causing disruption.

Divorce has many causes, none of which can be clearly ascertained by the observer or participants. With a divorce rate of one for every two marriages contracted, divorce is a reality in our society. For the disrupted family itself - husband, wife and children, it is a living reality with which they must cope.

Effects of Divorce on Children

Divorce has been frequently studied in recent years. The effects on children have been one area which has received much attention. Studies vary in their focus but from the number of studies alone, it appears evident that divorce leaves many emotional scars. In time most children appear to recover from the trauma of divorce. The data cited here reflect some of the problems which children of divorce encounter. This study is interested in these early effects which may carry over into the adulthood of these children of divorce.
Economic Effects

The most pervasive problem facing women after a divorce is downward economic mobility. As most women have custody of their children, this problem greatly affects the lives of the children. Female-headed families are the largest sub-group living below the poverty level in this country (Wattenberg and Reinhardt, 1979). There is no one factor which causes this level of poverty. Many factors are involved which will now be discussed.

Job instability and/or low income are major factors which contribute to the economic instability of the post-divorce, mother-headed family (Brandwein and Brown, 1974; Houck, 1975; Moles, 1976; Brown, Feldberg and Kohn, 1976; Bane 1976; Wattenberg and Reinhardt, 1979; Hetherington, 1979; Kohn, Brown and Feldberg, 1979; Bane 1979; Longfellow, 1979; Sokoloff, 1980; Espenshade, 1979; MsQueen, 1979). The lack of educational and/or vocational training of the female is also a factor which prevents her from attaining better job stability and wages (Hetherington, 1979; Bane, 1979; Brown, Feldberg and Kohn, 1976; Brandwein, Brown and Fox, 1974). Inconsistent child support payments or none also contribute to
the downward economic trend of the mother-headed family (Hetherington, 1979; Bane, 1979; Espenshade, 1979). Many families are forced to become dependent upon the public welfare system (Bane, 1979; Hetherington, 1979; Bane, 1976; Brandwein, Brown and Fox, 1974; Moles, 1976, 1977). All these factors must be faced by the woman while adjusting to her new status as a single woman and parent. The children, too, must learn to cope with a new financial life-style which may be far different than that enjoyed prior to the divorce of their parents.

**Loss of Mothering**

Two factors contribute to the loss of mothering of the children following divorce. Firstly, the mother is emotionally unable to be supportive of her children due to her own distress (Houck, 1975; Trotter, 1976; Brown, Feldberg, and Fox, 1976; Longfellow, 1979; Hetherington, 1979; Wattenberg and Reinhardt, 1979; Kaplan and Sidney, 1979). This loss also involves communication patterns which may never be restored. Loneliness and insecurity are likely to be the results for the children as well as a growing distrust of the
parent. A feeling of rejection can also result.

Secondly, employment outside of the home prevents the mother from providing adequate emotional support for the children (Bane, 1976, 1979; Kohn, Brown and Feldberg, 1979; Hetherington, 1979; Longfellow, 1979). Too many responsibilities and lack of energy are important factors in this situation. The children again feel rejected and do not understand the many stresses to which the parent is being subjected.

**Emotional Outcomes**

Few children are spared any emotional reaction to the divorce of their parents. The majority suffer mild to severe emotional repercussions to the divorce, both during the pre-divorce, separation period and after the divorce is final (Nye, 1957; Landis, 1960; McDermott, 1970; Rosenberg, 1972; Houck, 1975; Weiss, 1976, 1979; Gardner, 1976; Bane, 1976; Mack, 1976; Trotter, 1976; Sorosky, 1977; Feiner, 1977; Brun, 1978; Magrab, 1978; Longfellow, 1979; Hetherington, 1979; Hetherington, Cox and Cox, 1979; Hess and Camara, 1979; Levitin, 1979; Kurdek, 1980; Franke et. al., 1980; Parish and Dostal, 1980; Anderson and Anderson, 1981; Parish, 1981; Bernard and Nisbett, 1981; Pett, 1982). So many researchers have
observed this effect that it appears to be a common occurrence with the children of divorce.

Rozman (1976) likens the emotional effects of divorce to the grieving process of terminally ill patients as described by Kubler-Ross. Wallerstein and Kelley (1974/1976/1979/1980) and Kelley and Wallerstein (1976/1979) have studied the emotional impact of divorce on children longitudinally for five years. Initially there was much emotional distress and disorganization in the lives of the children during the first two post-divorce years. Preschool and kindergarten children feared the abandonment of their parents and loss of nurturance. Children six to nine years old had conflicts with loyalty toward their parents. Children nine to twelve years old expressed anger toward one or both of their parents, while adolescents felt a sense of loss due to the divorce.

Five years after the divorce 34 percent of the children were coping very well, 29 percent were considered in the average or normal emotional range and 37 percent had not recovered from the divorce experience and were displaying emotionally maladaptive behaviors. These children described themselves as unhappy and dissatisfied with their lives in the post-divorce family.
Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979) in a two year longitudinal study found girls adjusted more quickly than boys to the divorce. By the end of one year most girls had adjusted but boys required two or more years to adjust. They concluded that more research was needed to identify factors which intensify or ameliorate the effects of divorce on children.

Another emotional stress placed on the child may be the psychological deterioration of the parent. Psychosis and suicide are both more frequently observed in the divorced population (Bloom, White and Asher, 1979; Briscoe et al., 1973). Certainly an excessive stress on the parent will also have some effect on the life and emotional well-being of the child.

The effects of divorce are also displayed in behavioral and learning problems in the school setting (Kelley and Wallerstein, 1979; Wallerstein and Kelley, 1979; Felner, 1977).

The many studies cited above indicate emotional stress following divorce. Some are passing while others persist. How long and to what degree these stresses continue in the lives of the children is of great importance to this study. If children are changed after divorce, then they may carry these changes into their adulthood in the form of different attitudes.
Father Absence

Father absence has been viewed in varying ways by the researchers. Longfellow (1979) believes that the father's absence affects the mother's interaction with her children, thus, the effect on the children being indirect. Thomes (1968) found that there were few differences in 9 to 11 year old children whose fathers lived in the home versus those who had absent fathers. The results of this study did not support the hypothesis that boys are more affected by father absence than girls. Santrock (1975) drew the same conclusions.

Hess and Camara (1979) found that interaction of children and absent fathers is important to the well-being of the child. This study differed from the others in that interaction did occur although the father was not present in the home.

Girls were found to be more flirtatious with men if they were raised in a home without a father's presence (Hetherington, 1973). Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979) found that boys had a more difficult time adjusting to divorce than girls. Whether this is a function of the absence of the father was not addressed.
Divorce has many and varied effects on the children involved, as noted above. Although most children adjust within the first two years following the divorce, it is likely that some attitudinal differences have occurred from their experiences. There is some evidence in the literature that their behavior in later years differs from the offspring of intact homes - the most significant difference being the intergenerational transmission of divorce to the child's own marital relationship(s).

Transmission Effects

The intergenerational transmission of divorce is a theory which suggests that if a person's parents are divorced that person is more likely to resort to divorce in his/her own marital relationships. This theory is based on the premise that changes occur in the child at the time of the divorce and directly thereafter which affect his adult marital behavior. The following studies have addressed this theory in varying ways.

Some studies have noted that the children of divorced families do not want to marry at all, or
believe that they will marry later and use great care in their choice of a mate (Sorosky, 1977; Landis, 1960; Arkowitz, 1973; Wallerstein and Kelley, 1974; Gardner, 1976; Levinger and Moles, 1976). No studies have been made which find if these beliefs turn into actual behaviors in the later lives of the children.

Hetherington (1979), in her study of mother-headed families, found an intergenerational transmission effect but usually with those children who had resided with the mother following the divorce:

In addition, there seems to be a generational transmission effect of marital instability, and both the male and female children from single parents are themselves more likely to divorce. This does not seem to be attributable solely to having only one parent, since it is more likely to occur if the child has lived with a single mother than a single father and in families where separation has been caused by divorce rather than death. It may be that greater stresses and different life-styles are associated with being a single mother than with being a single father and with being divorced than with being widowed p. 131.

Duncan and Duncan (1969) studied statistical information from the Moynihan Report (1962) concerning the relationships between men's families of orientation and their occupational status in adulthood. They found that men from intact families had greater socioeconomic stature than did men from separated or divorced families.
However, data bearing on this study indicated that no intergenerational transmission of family instability exists for either white or black men. This data is questionable as many respondents failed to report on their family backgrounds and yet they were included in the survey although they had actually supplied no information in this area.

Studies of intergenerational transmission of Blacks has yielded varied results. McQueen (1979) believes that economic deprivation, demographic imbalances, and changing social norms cause divorce in Black households. He also found no intergenerational transmission effect. Furstenberg (1979) found no intergenerational transmission effects and again pointed to economics as a major cause of marital dissolution among Blacks. Heiss (1972) in his study of Black families found that only middle-class Blacks were affected and particularly women whose families had been disrupted while they were still quite young. No firm conclusions were reached in this study.

Charles W. Mueller and Hallowell Pope are well-known for their focus in research on intergenerational transmission of divorce and are the authors of that phrase. In one study (Pope and Mueller, 1976), five national
survey data sources were used. Subjects provided data about their parents' marriages and their own marital status. Findings indicated more marital dissolution if the parents' marriages had ended in divorce or separation. Females, both white and black, displayed marked consistency in this pattern. White men and black farm-raised men also displayed this pattern, but for urban black males there was greater marital instability if the men came from intact homes. This last effect was not understood by the researchers.

Higher transmission effects were noted for whites if the child did not live with either parent. For males who did not live with either parent, the rate was 25 percent. If the male lived with his mother, the rate was 11 percent. Information on blacks showed no clear patterns. For white females, there was less likelihood of marital instability if their mothers did not remarry. For whites, both male and female, there is more intergenerational transmission if the children reside with the mother rather than the father. This finding agrees with Hetherington (1979). The authors conclude:
Social learning theorists note that children learn roles by direct instruction from parents, by interacting with them, and by observing them, particularly in interaction with each other (Pope and Mueller, 1976, 52).

The Mueller and Pope (1977) study used National Fertility Survey data and included white, non-institutionalized U.S. females who came from either intact or voluntarily dissolved homes and who were under 45 years of age in 1970. It was found that women from intact homes are generally older, better educated, and usually not pregnant at the time they marry. They also tend to marry older, never-married and higher-status males than do women from disrupted homes. The number of siblings in the disrupted homes appeared to have an influence on females if there were more than one sibling in the family. Intact families did not have this effect.

Mueller and Pope concluded that the role theory for intergenerational transmission of marital instability might be incorrect. They noted that high risk mate selection may be the causal linkage in the transmission effect. They also noted that they were unable to control for attitudinal differences which could be related to this transmission effect.
Social and economic conditions were also cited as being direct causes for marital instability in the second generation. This was the first study which addressed the idea that attitudes might differ between adults who came from divorced families and adults who came from intact relatively happy homes. They related this difference in attitude to the transmission effect but had no proof that the two were in fact related.

Greenberg and Nay (1982) conducted a study to investigate possible differences in attitude and coping styles between adult offspring of divorced, intact-happy and intact-unhappy families. Three hundred ninety-seven students were studied - 198 came from intact homes and 99 were from broken homes (59 experienced some sort of voluntary disruption and the remainder experienced the death of one or both of the parents). Average age of the participants was 18.4 years. Each subject was tested on a variety of measurements: Perception of Parents' Marital Happiness, Attitude to Marriage Scale, Divorce Opinionnaire, Social Activity Questionnaire, Dating Adjustment Scale, and reactions to three filmed vignettes titled "Three Styles of Marital Conflict".
The only significant difference found between the groups was an attitudinal difference toward divorce. Offspring of divorced parents were more accepting of divorce than those from intact families, regardless of whether the families were happy or unhappy. No other differences were noted.

The literature has revealed a high divorce rate and a large number of children who are involved in these divorces. The literature points toward various maladaptive effects which divorce has on children such as emotional, financial and loss of nurturance. From the studies, it appears that when these children of divorce reach adulthood, than they are more likely to divorce than other adults whose parents remained married. Various ideas have been circulated as reasons for the intergenerational transmission effect of divorce. One of the factors which has been mentioned and tested was basic attitudinal differences. No difference were noted beyond the fact that young adults from divorced homes were more supportive of divorce than young adults from intact homes. This paper intends to study attitudinal differences, as the author believes that the trauma of divorce changes the child's attitudes and these changes are carried into adulthood and can be measured by a competent testing instrument.
CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURES

This chapter describes the development of the inventory used to test the dependent variables. The subjects chosen and the testing procedures are discussed. Statistical procedures for the processing of the data gathered are noted.

The Development of the Anacleto Marital Attitude Inventory

In 1980, when this study began, an intensive search of all possible attitude scales was conducted. Straus and Brown (1978) published a compilation of all testing instruments related to marriage and the family over many years. Each instrument published in the book contained the following information: variable(s) measured, test description, length of test, references and availability. All tests which looked promising were obtained from the author or American Society for Information Science (ASIS) or National Auxiliary Publications Service (NAPS), Microfiche Publications to check reliability and validity for the purposes of
this study.

Available information concerning Olson's inventory did not present research evidence as to reliability and validity. It had nine subscales. There were no "right" or "wrong" answers to the attitude statements and no scores to evaluate the beliefs expressed. The author dropped the ninth scale, Religion, completely from her inventory as she did not feel it could be measured adequately for the general population. In the original 120 item AMAI the author used 22 items with Olson's wording, 52 items with modified wording and 46 items of her own design. On the final 92 item AMAI 18 items remain with Olson's original wording, 40 items were modifications of his original wording and 38 items were the author's design. Appendix C contains a copy of the AMAI and the changes described in this chapter. It also indicates which items were originally contained in Olson's inventory.

General Description

The Anacleto Marital Attitude Inventory (AMAI) consists of eight scales: (1) Marital Relationships, (2) Communications, (3) Love, (4) Sexual Relations,
The AMAI is an attitude survey which measures attitudes using a Likert scale. Instead of allowing a "Neutral" response as the center of 5 Likert-type alternatives, what might be called a "forced-Likert" format was used. Respondents had six options on each item and thus had to lean toward agreement or disagreement. The six options were: strongly agree, agree, slightly agree, slightly disagree, disagree, strongly disagree. High scores indicate a healthy attitude while low scores indicate an unhealthy attitude toward marriage-related subjects. Some items were worded so that "agree" represented a healthy attitude, and others so that "agree" represented an unhealthy attitude. Items were reverse weighted accordingly, so that higher scores meant a more healthy attitude on each item.

Development of Items and Scales

Originally the AMAI contained 120 items (15 per scale). Content validity was assessed by four expert judges who independently rated each item as being either healthy or unhealthy. Healthy items were described as
those which would be conducive to a happy marital relationship and unhealthy attitudes were described as being detrimental to a happy and successful marital relationship.

A .75 inter-judge reliability correlation was the lowest level of acceptance per item. If any item fell below this level, it was deleted from the inventory. Sixteen items were removed from the AMAI using this process. Appendix B contains a copy of the occupations and licensing of the judges. Appendix C contains a copy of the original 120 item inventory. Those items which were retained are indicated and also the healthy versus unhealthy judgement is noted.

In the Fall of 1980, the AMAI was administered to 509 Junior College students. These students were enrolled in Introduction to Psychology, Marriage and Family, English 1A, English 1B, and Experimental Psychology classes. These classes were used because the author knew the instructors and they agreed to allow the students to take the inventory during class time to control the testing situation. All students voluntarily took the AMAI. No other criteria on the part of the participants were required. The subjects ranged in age from 17 to 52. The mean age was 19.2. Males and females
were almost equally represented with more females than males.

Frequencies were evaluated to detect which items did not clearly differentiate between responses. If items tended to have most responses in both "slightly agree" and "slightly disagree" categories, they were deleted from the study. Twelve items were found to display this problem and were dropped from the AMAI. These items are also noted in Appendix C.

Thus 16 items were eliminated due to judges' inconsistencies and 12 due to unclear response patterns. The final number of items contained on the AMAI is 92.

Reliability

Internal Consistency was assessed on the remaining 92 items of the AMAI using Coefficient Alpha with the same sample of 509 Junior College students. Coefficient Alpha for the total test instrument was found to be adequate at .88. Subscale Coefficient Alpha's were as follows:
A Pearson correlation was run on 509 subjects' responses to check total-item correlation. All items were acceptable and above a .48 correlation coefficient. Thus the AMAI became a 92 item attitude scale.

Temporal stability was appraised using 86 students from San Joaquin Delta Junior College who were enrolled in an Introduction to Psychology class. In the Spring of 1981, they were tested with the AMAI twice using the test-retest method. Retesting occurred between 5 to 15 days after original testing. The resulting Pearson r's were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Relationships</th>
<th>.61</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual Relations</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finances</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Roles</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Concurrent validity was adjudged in February of 1982 using 35 Junior College students enrolled in an Introduction to Psychology class. They were volunteers and were administered the AMAI and then interviewed. The time between administration of the AMAI and the interviews was one hour to two days. A structured interview was compiled for this purpose. The author interviewed the subjects without any knowledge of their responses to the AMAI. The results of this validity study were positive (.29 to .45) but low on all scales and also for the total test (.49).
A second concurrent validity check was conducted during July of 1982 using volunteers from another Introduction to Psychology class. The structured interview was expanded to include more items. Copies of the two inventories are found in Appendix D. The same methodology was employed for administration of the AMAI and structured interview. The resulting r's were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital Relationships</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love</td>
<td>.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual Relations</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finances</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Roles</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary

The above description of the development of the AMAI indicates that it has attained the status of an acceptable testing instrument. Internal consistency for the total test was .88, test-retest reliability was .81 and concurrent validity was .65. Future work
with the AMAI might include factor analysis and criterion validity studies using a variety of criteria.

Scales did not consistently attain the high correlation of the total test instrument but were within acceptable levels.

The AMAI was validated using Junior College students who were for the most part in their late teens and early twenties. Most were also unmarried. Thus validation has been established for the population which this study intends to investigate.
METHOD

Subjects

Subjects were 125 male and 238 female students who were tested between February 1981 and June 1983. The following is a breakdown of the numbers tested from each school:

San Joaquin Delta College, Stockton, Ca.
Psychology and English classes
81 males, 175 females

University of the Pacific, Stockton, Ca.
Biology and Geology students
22 males, 22 females

Humphreys College, Stockton, Ca.
Psychology and History classes
15 males, 20 females

DeLoux Schools of Cosmetology, Stockton, Ca.
No specific classes
4 males, 8 females

Teller Training Institute, Stockton, Ca.
Personnel Management class
1 male, 2 females

Consolidated Welding School, Stockton, Ca.
No specific class
2 males, 1 female

The subjects were volunteers who ranged in age from 17 to 28 years with a mean age of 20.0. They received neither pay nor academic credit for their participation. Subjects completed the AMAI with
standard instructions during class time. Standard instructions are included in Appendix E. The sample is not a random sample of the general population. All subjects had received high school diplomas and were enrolled in post-secondary education. This educational level made it more likely that respondents could understand the items of the AMAI and answer them in a manner consistent with their personal attitudes. A Crosstabs analysis found no significant differences between groups of subjects. These factors suggest that failure to reject the null hypothesis concerning demographic contrasts reflects comparability in subgroups.

Procedures

Subjects were divided into three groups on the basis of their answers to personal information gathered at the time of the administration of the AMAI. These groups include: (1) the offspring of divorced parents, (2) the offspring of intact-happy families, (3) the offspring of intact-unhappy families. The number of respondents for each group is as follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Offspring of divorced parents</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offspring of intact-happy homes</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offspring of intact-unhappy homes</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offspring of deceased parents (not used)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although self-report is a less-than-optimal means to place respondents into groups, it was the most feasible one available for this study. Longitudinal studies provide more reliable grouping but they also involve a much greater expenditure of time and money, both of which were unavailable in this particular project.

The Personal Information Sheet was used to place subjects into the different groups and is included in Appendix A as mentioned in Chapter 1. The method used to decide placement is also included.

This study used a design involving a posttest only with a comparison group (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). The comparison group was the adult offspring of intact-happy families as they were the closest to a control group which this study could provide.

The first group consisted of the offspring of divorced parents and is referred to as Group 1. These subjects experienced the divorce for their parents prior to age 13. As mentioned in Chapter 1, although attitudes
are affected by divorce during teenage years, the degree may vary more than with younger children and so they were deleted from the study.

The offspring of the intact-happy families was used as the comparison group and is referred to as Group 2. These subjects were the offspring of marriages which did not experience divorce and which were considered by the offspring to have been happy regardless of any conflict which might have been experienced by the parents.

The third group consisted of those offspring who identified themselves as coming from intact-unhappy homes. Intact-unhappy homes were defined as those in which conflict occurred between the parents and were considered to be generally unhappy by the offspring. This group is referred to as Group 3.

Forty-eight subjects were not studied due to the demise of one or both of their parents or the divorce or separation of the parents after the age of 13.

Statistics

The independent variables in this study are the conflict in the intact-happy families and the divorce of the parents in the divorced group. The dependent variables are the attitudes of the respondents as
measured by the AMAI.

All groups were subjected to a two-way analysis of variance. Group differences and sex differences were studied. All analyses of variance were tested at the .05 level of significance.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study are reported in this chapter; summary and conclusions will be discussed in Chapter 5. The statistics reported are for the hypotheses tested; only the scales "Marital Relationships", "Communications", "Love", "Sexual Relations", and "Finances" were tested. The scales "Children", "Marital Roles", and "Conflict" had no hypotheses connected directly to them and have not been included in this section. They are, of course, part of the total scale discussed below.

Hypothesis H1

A significant difference ($p < .01$) was found between Group 1 (adult offspring of divorced parents) and Group 2 (adult offspring of intact-happy families) for the total AMAI. The results suggested that Group 1 had healthier attitudes than Group 2. Directionality of results was reversed from those hypothesized. Table 1 gives the results of the analysis of variance for Groups 1 and 2.
Significant sex differences were noted ($P < .000$). Females displayed healthier attitudes than males. A 0.000 significance level can be interpreted as almost certainly not being a chance trend. It also should be noted that because of large N's a highly significant trend may or may not be an important trend. These results will be discussed more fully in Chapter 5. Interaction effects were not significant for Sex by Group comparisons. Table 2 shows the means, standard deviations, and number of subjects by group and by sex. The exceptionally large error term noted in Table 1 refers to unexplained variance and is to be expected in analysis of variance studies with large N's.

**Hypothesis H2**

No significant difference was found for the scale "Marital Relationships" between Groups 1 and 2. Significant sex differences were noted ($p < .01$). Females displayed healthier attitudes than males. Interaction effects were not significant for Sex by Group comparisons. Table 3 gives the results of the analysis of variance for Groups 1 and 2. Table 4 shows the means, standard deviations, and number of subjects by group and by sex.
Table 1
Analysis of Variance for Total AMAI using Group 1 versus Group 2 and Males versus Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Effects</td>
<td>36198.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18099.3</td>
<td>19.764</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>28588.9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28588.9</td>
<td>31.219</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>6480.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6480.5</td>
<td>7.077</td>
<td>0.008*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Group</td>
<td>131.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>131.8</td>
<td>13.224</td>
<td>0.705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>253667.4</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>915.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>289997.9</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>1035.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
Means for Groups 1 and 2, Males and Females, and Total Population for the Total AMAI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 - &quot;Divorced&quot;</td>
<td>386.7</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 - &quot;Intact-Happy&quot;</td>
<td>375.3</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>364.3</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>386.1</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>378.7</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3
Analysis of Variance for "Marital Relationships" scale using Group 1 versus Group 2 and Males versus Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Effects</td>
<td>297.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>148.9</td>
<td>6.162</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>228.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>228.3</td>
<td>9.446</td>
<td>0.002*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>59.9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>59.9</td>
<td>2.479</td>
<td>0.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Group</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>6697.0</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6995.0</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4
Means for Groups 1 and 2, Males and Females, and Total Population for "Marital Relationships" Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 - &quot;Divorced&quot;</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 - &quot;Intact-Happy&quot;</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
No significant difference was found for the scale "Communications" between Groups 1 and 2. Sex differences and interaction effects were not significant. Table 5 gives the results of the analysis of variance for Groups 1 and 2. Table 6 shows the means, standard deviations, and number of subjects by group and by sex.

No significant difference was found for the scale "Love" between Groups 1 and 2. Sex differences and interaction effects were not significant. Table 7 gives the results of the analysis of variance for Groups 1 and 2. Table 8 shows the means, standard deviations, and number of subjects by group and by sex.

A significant difference ($p < .05$) was found for the scale "Sexual Relations" between Groups 1 and 2. The healthier attitudes were displayed by Group 1 which was not as predicted. Significant sex differences were noted ($p < .05$). Females displayed healthier attitudes than males. Interaction effects were not significant for Sex by Group comparisons. Table 9 gives the results of the analysis of variance. Table 10 shows the means, standard deviations, and number of subjects by group and by sex.
Table 5
Analysis of Variance for "Communications" Scale using Group 1 versus Group 2 and Males versus Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Effects</td>
<td>101.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>2.082</td>
<td>0.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>3.278</td>
<td>0.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>0.385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Group</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>0.238</td>
<td>0.626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>6722.0</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6828.8</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6
Means for Groups 1 and 2, Males and Females, and Total Population for "Communications" Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 - &quot;Divorced&quot;</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 - &quot;Intact-Happy&quot;</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 7

Analysis of Variance for "Love" Scale using Group 1 versus Group 2 and Males versus Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Effects</td>
<td>59.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>1.308</td>
<td>0.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>1.774</td>
<td>0.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td>0.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Group</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>0.567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>6281.2</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6347.9</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 8

Means for Groups 1 and 2, Males and Females, and Total Population for "Love" Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 - &quot;Divorced&quot;</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 - &quot;Intact-Happy&quot;</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9

Analysis of Variance for "Sexual Relations" Scale using Group 1 versus Group 2 and Males versus Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Effects</td>
<td>717.6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>358.8</td>
<td>7.503</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>436.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>436.4</td>
<td>9.127</td>
<td>0.003*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>253.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>253.8</td>
<td>5.307</td>
<td>0.022*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Group</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>1.859</td>
<td>0.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>13247.5</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14054.1</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10

Means for Groups 1 and 2, Males and Females, and Total Population for "Sexual Relations" Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 - &quot;Divorced&quot;</td>
<td>59.1</td>
<td>7.49</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 - &quot;Intact-Happy&quot;</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>7.88</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>7.39</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypothesis H3

No significant difference was found for the scale "Finances" between Groups 1 and 2. Significant sex differences were noted ($p \lessdot .01$). Females displayed healthier attitudes than males. Interaction effects were not significant for Sex by Group comparisons. Table 11 gives the results of the analysis of variance. Table 12 shows the means, standard deviations, and number of subjects by group and by sex.

Hypothesis H4

No significant difference was found between Group 2 (adult offspring of intact-happy families) and Group 3 (adult offspring of intact-unhappy families) for the total AMAI. Significant sex differences were noted ($p \lessdot 0.000$). Females displayed healthier attitudes than males. Interaction effects were not significant for sex by group comparisons. Table 13 gives the results of the analysis of variance for Groups 2 and 3. Table 14 shows means, standard deviations, and number of subjects by group and by sex.
Table 11
Analysis of Variance for "Finances" Scale using Group 1 versus Group 2 and Males versus Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Effects</td>
<td>360.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>180.1</td>
<td>6.107</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>240.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>240.6</td>
<td>8.159</td>
<td>0.005*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>106.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>106.4</td>
<td>3.608</td>
<td>0.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Group</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>1.569</td>
<td>0.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>8170.0</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8576.6</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12
Means for Groups 1 and 2, Males and Females, and Total Population for "Finances" Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 - &quot;Divorced&quot;</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 - &quot;Intact-Happy&quot;</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13
Analysis of Variance for Total AMAI using Group 2 versus Group 3 and Males versus Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Effects</td>
<td>19499.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9749.7</td>
<td>10.885</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>18487.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18487.0</td>
<td>20.639</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>1156.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1156.4</td>
<td>1.291</td>
<td>0.257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Group</td>
<td>659.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>659.7</td>
<td>0.736</td>
<td>0.392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>194371.9</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>895.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>214530.9</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>975.1</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14
Means for Groups 2 and 3, Males and Females, and Total Population for Total AMAI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 - &quot;Intact-Happy&quot;</td>
<td>375.4</td>
<td>31.56</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3 - &quot;Intact-Unhappy&quot;</td>
<td>382.3</td>
<td>28.21</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>363.8</td>
<td>29.11</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>382.9</td>
<td>31.97</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>376.1</td>
<td>32.19</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypothesis H5

No significant difference was found between Group 1 (adult offspring of divorced parents) and Group 3 (adult offspring of intact-unhappy families) for the total AMAI. Significant sex differences were noted ($p < .01$). Females displayed healthier attitudes than males. The sex differences noted for Hypotheses H1, H4 and H5 are repetitious as are the means, standard deviations and number of subjects. They are reported for each hypothesis for the sake of clarity. Interaction effects were not significant for Sex by Group comparisons. Table 15 gives the results of the analysis of variance. Table 16 shows the means, standard deviations, and number of subjects by group and by sex.

The results reported in this chapter are interesting. The directionality of all significant hypotheses was reversed from the predicted outcomes. Although these differences are statistically significant, their importance may not be great. The difference in means between Groups 1 and 2 in Hypothesis H1 is slight, implying a large degree of overlap between the groups. On the other hand, the sex differences noted in six of the eight
hypotheses may be more important as there is a 20-plus point difference between means for these comparisons. Again there appears to be quite a degree of overlap but the differences are greater and more consistent. All results will be discussed in Chapter 5.
### Table 15

Analysis of Variance for Total AMAI using Group 1 versus Group 3 and Males versus Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Effects</td>
<td>9923.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4961.5</td>
<td>5.432</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>9547.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9547.0</td>
<td>10.452</td>
<td>0.002*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>187.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>187.0</td>
<td>0.205</td>
<td>0.652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex X Group</td>
<td>924.9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>924.9</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>0.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>94998.8</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>913.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105846.7</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>989.2</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 16

Means for Groups 1 and 3, Males and Females, and Total Population for the Total AMAI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 - &quot;Divorced&quot;</td>
<td>386.7</td>
<td>32.41</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3 - &quot;Intact-Unhappy&quot;</td>
<td>382.3</td>
<td>28.21</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>372.0</td>
<td>29.11</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>392.3</td>
<td>31.97</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>385.7</td>
<td>32.19</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

It is estimated that fifty percent of all U.S. marriages end in divorce. The effects on the family, especially the children, vary greatly. Some literature has reported an intergenerational transmission effect of divorce from one generation to another. If this is true, then the children of divorce involved should have attitudes which vary from other children not affected by this phenomenon. The purpose of this study was to determine if attitudes between the offspring of divorced parents and the offspring of intact-happy families differed on a variety of marriage-related attitudes.

The Anacleto Marital Attitude Inventory was developed to measure various attitudes relating to marriage and the family. The final inventory consisted of ninety-two items. Reliability (test-retest) and concurrent validity was obtained for the total inventory as well as for the eight scales. A Likert scale was used to rate responses. The inventory measured healthy
versus unhealthy attitudes, with higher scores relating to healthier attitudes.

The Anacleto Marital Attitude Inventory (AMAI) was administered to three hundred fifty-three unmarried adults who were enrolled in post-secondary education in the Stockton area of Northern California. Personal information questions were used to divide the subjects into three groups: Group 1 - adult offspring of divorced parents; Group 2 - adult offspring of intact-happy families; Group 3 - adult offspring of intact-unhappy families. The analysis of variance procedure was used to evaluate differences between groups and also between sexes. It was hypothesized that:

**H1**: There will be a significant difference between the offspring of divorced parents and the offspring of intact-happy families for the total AMAI, with the intact-happy offspring showing healthier attitudes.

**H2**: There will be significant differences between the offspring of divorced parents and the offspring of intact-happy families when tested separately on the Marital Relationships, Communications, Love and Sexual Relations scales of the AMAI, with the intact-happy offspring showing healthier attitudes.
H3: There will be a significant difference between the offspring of divorced parents and the offspring of intact-happy families on the Finances scale of the AMAI, with the offspring of divorced parents displaying healthier attitudes.

H4: There will be a significant difference between the offspring of intact-happy families and the offspring of intact-unhappy families on the total AMAI, with the intact-happy offspring displaying healthier attitudes.

H5: There will be a significant difference between the offspring of divorced parents and the offspring of intact-unhappy families on the total AMAI, with the offspring of divorced parents displaying healthier attitudes.

Significant differences were noted for Hypothesis H1 and the Sexual Relations scale of Hypothesis H2. No other significant differences were found for the other Hypotheses. Significant sex differences were noted for six of the eight hypotheses tested.
Hypothesis H1

A significant difference between Group 1 (adult offspring of divorced parents) and Group 2 (adult offspring of intact-happy families) was found for the total AMAI. The direction of this difference was not as predicted. The results indicate that Group 1 had healthier attitudes than Group 2. The findings are also at variance with current societal beliefs and research findings which imply that divorce causes children to have unhealthy, maladaptive attitudes and behaviors toward marriage, the final outcome of such inappropriate attitudes and behaviors being the ultimate dissolution of their own marital relationships.

If we accept the beliefs and implications of past research, we must reject the findings of this study on the basis of a Type I error and accept the possibility that no difference between groups exists. A Type I error means that in the broad population there is no difference between the two groups, such as the divorced and intact-happy, but that a sampling accident has been made which makes it appear that a difference does exist.

Inadequate Measures

A routine explanation for failure to find large differences, involves criticizing the measuring instruments. Less-than-perfect validity always implies the possibility of some insensitivity of measures.
Mean Difference Between Groups

There was an 11 point difference in the means of Groups 1 and 2. This compares with standard deviations in the range of 31.5 to 32.5. This difference was significant at the 0.000 level. Although this is a highly significant finding, it may not be as important as it appears. The overlap between the two samples is great. It is an often overlooked factor of statistical interpretation that with very large N's, a very small difference or small trend will be "statistically significant". This simply means that it is not a sampling accident. But the trends may be so small as to be of little or no practical importance. Realistically the two groups may not differ as greatly as the significance implies. If interpreted in this manner, the findings should be accepted with care. In the present case, the 11 point difference in the means is small in comparison to the standard deviations. Thus the overlap in groups and the relatively minor real differences must be stressed.
Parental Teaching

If we accept the findings as true, we must explore why the divorced parents group has healthier attitudes than the intact-happy family group. Perhaps a change to healthier attitudes in the adult offspring of divorced parents occurs through increased interaction and/or instruction of appropriate martial attitudes by the custodial parent. Although the behavior of the custodial parent has proven to be inadequate to sustain a marital relationship, his/her attitudes and beliefs may be healthy and realistic when communicated to his/her child. As most women have custody of their children and this study has shown that women have healthier attitudes than men, it is possible that women may convey to their children their more healthy beliefs. Modeling is usually a better teacher than lecturing but if lecturing is offered with love and concern by a parent, the effects could be much greater than previously was believed.
Self Education

Another explanation for this phenomenon is the behavior of the children themselves. Perhaps these children seek out information concerning marriage in the schools, the media, and social interactions because they have suffered from their parents' divorce and wish to be more informed. Self-education, from whatever source or sources, could greatly alter the attitudes of these subjects.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the emotional stress and rejection which these children experience during the first few years following the divorce may encourage the young person to look for better alternatives of interaction within the marital state (Bane, 1976, 1979; Kohn, Brown and Feldberg, 1979; Hetherington, 1979; Longfellow, 1979). An intellectual and rational acceptance of these attitudes may occur during the developmental years. The assimilation of this learning could result in healthier attitudes as reflected in this study.

Ideally, future studies need to be longitudinal to study this factor. This would require highly sophisticated testing instruments.
Educational Level of the Subjects

An alternative explanation for these findings is the educational level of the subjects. All subjects had high school diplomas and were pursuing post-secondary education. Perhaps the educational level disqualified a particular segment of the population, thus producing results which are true only of some segments of the population. For the purposes of this study a truly random sample of the entire population was an impossibility.

Those persons who did not continue their education after high school, those people who did not finish high school and those people who were married soon after high school had no chance to be included in this study. Also at each educational institution only certain classes were used in this study. This excluded many students and may have provided a non-random sample even of those populations. Of course these classes were all general education classes and theoretically open to all students at each institution. Later studies might attempt a more random sampling procedure to verify the results obtained in this study as well as looking for differences.
Emotional Effects

If healthier attitudes do in fact exist for the adult offspring of divorced parents perhaps they have a lower tolerance for less-than-adequate conditions in a marital relationship. The possibility exists that when faced with a marital relationship which is not as healthy as their expectations, they are more likely to dissolve it. This could account for the intergenerational transmission effect. Since most divorced people eventually remarry, (see Chapter 2 for further discussion on this point), this effect could be observed as a sign of hope by the individual, rather than of despair (Glick and Norton, 1971). Idealistic expectations and divorce-modeling by the parents may be the variables which ultimately cause a greater likelihood of divorce in this population. Further studies with these dependent variables would be interesting if coupled with methodology similar to this study.

The intergenerational transmission effect may be true for another reason. Rationally and intellectually the children of divorce may learn the proper attitudes and behaviors for a healthy, successful marital relationship, but emotionally they may retain the
insecurities and maladaptive attitudes learned during the trauma of divorce. When faced with situations similar to their parents', these emotions reassert themselves and all the learned adaptive attitudes and behaviors take second place to the emotional reactions of the now-adult children of divorce (Nye, 1957; Landis, 1960; Bane, 1976; Hetherington, 1979; Wallerstein and Kelly, 1974, 1976, 1979, 1980). At this point it is likely that the person will react as his/her parents did. First with inappropriate behaviors which put excessive strains on the marriage and ultimately with divorce. It would be most interesting to follow the subjects of this study over the next few years to observe their marital success. This would give much better understanding to the findings of this study.

It should be noted that certain stereotypes exist toward marriage and divorce. Both society in general and the research community believe that intact marriages are better than divorce. Divorce has a negative connotation which has changed in recent years but is still prevalent to some degree. It may be that the persistence of the hypothesis of an "intergenerational transmission" of divorce, may be due in part to social scientists' bias that divorce is a disaster and negative experience, rather than ever a positive or wise solution to a difficult problem.
Intergenerational Transmission

The results of the present study throw into doubt the hypothesis of the transmission effect. The present results show a tendency for the offspring of divorced parents to display, slightly but significantly, healthier attitudes than the children from intact-happy families. The possibility exists that transmission of divorce from one generation to another is not a viable theory. Or perhaps this transmission effect is not as strong as formerly believed and should be studied and questioned more thoroughly in the future. Greenberg and Nay (1982) did not find differences, although they used methods other than those of the present research to collect their data. Hopefully further research will provide more consistent results.

A review of other studies does not settle the matter. Some authors did not find any effects (Duncan and Duncan, 1969; McQueen, 1979; Furstenberg, 1979; Heiss, 1972). One study by Duncan and Duncan (1969) had doubtful results because of methodological questions. Other studies have found transmission effects (Hetherington, 1979; Pop and Mueller, 1976; Mueller and Pope, 1977). These used large data bases and their results appear
to be valid. Greenberg and Nay (1982) studied attitudinal differences and found no significant results except that children of divorce are more tolerant of divorce than children from intact families. The issue remains open.

Hypothesis H2 - Sexual Relations

A significant difference for sexual attitudes was also noted with healthier attitudes observed for Group 1 in Hypothesis H2. Here again the results could be affected by instruction, modeling, or self-seeking education by the child. Our society has become much more open regarding sexual matters since the Sexual Revolution of the 60's and 70's. Sexual information is readily available if one desires it. The dating and ultimate remarriage of the custodial parent may well open the door to more sexual interests and education than the more stable lifestyles of children from intact families. Increased numbers of sex education courses throughout junior and senior high school also may have an effect on the sexual attitudes of the subjects of this study. Only further research dealing with some of these variables will be able to explain the results found in this study.
Sex Differences

Sex differences were noted in six of the eight hypotheses tested. These were: Total AMAI (Group 1 versus Group 2; Group 2 versus Group 3; Group 1 versus Group 3), "Marital Relationships", "Sexual Relations", and "Finances" scales. These findings are highly significant statistically. The differences between means is greater than for the group differences discussed above. There was a 20-plus point difference between males and females favoring healthier attitudes in females. This difference is large enough to make the findings more important. Still there is much overlap between males and females.

From these results, it appears that sex differences do exist in marital attitudes. Certainly the pervasiveness of sex differences in this study points to an important factor which may well lead to problems within a marriage. Consistently lower scores of males on the AMAI could be interpreted as a suggestion that male's socialization concerning marriage may be inadequate. These differences may well affect the outcome of marriages. If understanding, expectations, and hopes are not equal, the relationship may well
suffer until adjustments are made or the relationship is dissolved. More studies on this effect should be executed to ascertain if these results are valid.

Girls were found to adjust more quickly to the divorce than boys. It may well be true that females are better able to handle emotionally upsetting situations. This could account for the sex differences noted in this study. Perhaps women are not only socialized differently but also have the ability to recover more quickly and completely from emotional trauma. This too might prove an interesting study for future endeavors.

Plans for Future Studies

The author plans to continue analyzing data already collected in connection with this study and also to continue studying the attitudes of various groups in relation to marriage and the family. The sub-scales of the AMAI which were not analyzed in this study will be examined. Other independent and control variables will be analyzed such as social class, age, race, and religion. Those who were married were not analyzed but can be. Those subjects who were not used in this study
due to the death of a parent could form another group to be studied. There are many variations to be carried out using data already collected for the present study. Also, additional data may be gathered to explore related facets of the topic.

Conclusions

The findings of this study are unclear in the light of past research. Why subjects who came from divorced homes had healthier attitudes is unknown although some speculation has been offered. Further studies with similar populations and more random samples should be undertaken to ascertain if such findings can be replicated. The significant sex differences noted in six of eight hypotheses is also most interesting. If such sex differences are repeated, the specific areas of difference as well as the reasons for these differences should be studied. Larger and broader samples of subjects will be needed to conduct more conclusive research. This is a challenge which many studies find in their results and this one is no exception.
REFERENCES


Appendix A
PERSONAL INFORMATION SHEET

1. Sex:
   ______ Male
   ______ Female

2. Age:

3. Marital Status:
   ______ single
   ______ married
   ______ separated
   ______ divorced
   ______ living with someone. How long?

4. My college major is

5. My occupational goal is

6. Race:
   ______ Caucasian
   ______ Black
   ______ Hispanic
   ______ Oriental
   ______ American Indian
   ______ Other, please state

7. The religious preference of my family while I was growing up was

8. As a child, I attended religious services:
   ______ regularly
   ______ infrequently
   ______ only on religious holidays
   ______ only on special occasions

9. My father's major occupation is or was

10. My mother's major occupation is or was

11. The highest grade my father completed in school was:
    (circle one) 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 more

12. The highest grade my mother completed in school was:
    (circle one) 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 more

13. My parents are:
    ______ married
    ______ divorced
    ______ separated
    ______ one or both deceased
IF YOU ANSWERED "MARRIED", ANSWER QUESTIONS UNDER "A" BELOW
IF YOU ANSWERED "DIVORCED", ANSWER QUESTIONS UNDER "B" BELOW
IF YOU ANSWERED "SEPARATED", ANSWER QUESTIONS UNDER "B" BELOW
IF YOU ANSWERED "ONE OR BOTH DECEASED", ANSWER QUESTIONS UNDER "A" BELOW

Section A

Check the dot on the scale line below which best describes the degree of happiness, everything considered, of your parents' marriage when you were 13 years old. The middle point, "happy" represents the degree of happiness most people get from marriage. The scale gradually ranges on one side to those few who are very unhappy in marriage, and on the other, to those few who experience great joy in marriage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfectly Happy Unhappy</th>
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</table>

Please answer all the remaining questions in this section as you felt your parents' marital relationship was when you were 13 years old.

1. When disagreements arose, they usually resulted in:
   ____ father giving in
   ____ mother giving in
   ____ agreement by mutual give and take

2. My mother confided in my father:
   ____ in all things
   ____ in most things
   ____ rarely
   ____ almost never

3. My father confided in my mother:
   ____ in all things
   ____ in most things
   ____ rarely
   ____ almost never

4. My parents were:
   ____ extremely well-adjusted to each other
   ____ very well-adjusted to each other
   ____ satisfactorily adjusted to each other
   ____ somewhat unsatisfactorily adjusted to each other
   ____ poorly adjusted to each other
5. Considering everything, my mother's satisfaction with the marriage was:

_____ perfectly satisfied
_____ very well satisfied
_____ satisfied
_____ a little bit satisfied
_____ very dissatisfied

6. Considering everything, my father's satisfaction with the marriage was:

_____ perfectly satisfied
_____ very well satisfied
_____ satisfied
_____ a little bit satisfied
_____ very dissatisfied

7. If either or both of your parents are deceased, please answer the following:

My father died when I was ____ years old.
My mother died when I was ____ years old.

End of Section A

Section B

TO BE ANSWERED BY THOSE WHOSE PARENTS ARE DIVORCED OR SEPARATED

1. When my parents divorced or separated, I was ____ years old.

2. I lived with:
   _____ my father
   _____ my mother
   _____ other, please state_____________

3. If your father remarried, how old were you?_______

4. If your mother remarried, how old were you?_______

5. If you grew up living with a step-parent, do you consider that marriage to have been:

_____ very happy
_____ happy
_____ unhappy
_____ ended in divorce
6. If you grew up with a step-parent, what degree of affection do you feel for that person?
   - a great deal of affection
   - some affection
   - no affection
   - hostility

7. My step-father's major occupation is or was ____________

8. My step-mother's major occupation is or was ____________

End of Section B

Subjects were assigned to Group 1 if they answered Question 13 as either divorced or separated and they answered Section B Question 1 less than 14 years of age.

Subjects were assigned to Group 2 if they answered Question 13 as married and the scale in Section A in the first 4 positions.

Subjects were assigned to Group 3 if they answered Question 13 as married and the scale in Section A in the last three positions.
Appendix B
Occupations and Licensing of Judges

David Schroeder Ph.D. Licensed Clinical Psychologist.
Employment: Stanislaus County Mental Health, Modesto, Calif. and California State University Stanislaus as a part-time instructor.

Phillip Blakely Ph. D. Licensed Clinical Psychologist.
Employment: Private Practice, Modesto, Calif. and part-time instructor at California State University, Stanislaus.

Fred Richert M.A. Licensed Marriage and Family Counselor
Employment: San Joaquin County Marriage Counselor.

Appendix C
Anacleto Marital Attitude Inventory

Please respond to the following statements using the scale below. Answer as you personally feel, not as you think you should feel or as others think you should feel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Marital Relationships Scale

O* M 1. Most people understand themselves before marriage.

O* M 2. Relationship patterns are often difficult to change.

R - M 3. Each partner should fulfill all the emotional need of his/her mate.

R + M 4. Problems experienced during courtship may become more important after marriage.

R + M 5. People should have friends and activities separate from the marriage.

O* M 6. Most couples do not know each other well before marriage.

R - M 7. Everyone in the world has a partner who is perfect for him/her.

R + M 8. Friendship and companionship between partners are important for a successful marriage.

R - M 9. If you love someone, you will change those behaviors which are upsetting to the other person.

R - M 10. Marriage makes unsatisfactory relationships better.
11. Young couples should spend time with their parents occasionally.

12. Advice and opinions of others should not be important to the couple.

13. Diversity in a relationship is good.

14. People should have time to be alone.

15. A large church wedding creates a more stable union.

Communication Scale

16. If someone really loves another person, he/she will usually know what that person is feeling.

17. Negative comments should be avoided between marital partners.

18. Communication skills are relatively difficult to learn.

19. Positive feelings are easier to express than negative feelings.

20. Communication games are used more with marriage partners than with strangers.

21. Even when aware of communication patterns, they are difficult to change.

22. Women express feelings easier than men.

23. Non-verbal communication is sometimes more important than verbal communication.

24. After a time, a couple knows what the other person is feeling and what they want.

25. Communication becomes more clear and honest as a relationship progresses.

26. One spouse knows what the other wants without being told.
27. Arguments can be a positive form of communication.
28. It is not what one says but how one says it that matters.
29. Disagreements should be handled in private.
30. If communication becomes strained and no solutions are found, it is best to seek professional help.

Love Scale
31. Romantic love usually decreases after marriage.
32. The marital relationship takes priority over other family relationships.
33. A person can only love one person at a time.
34. When someone loves another, their wishes take second place.
35. Love is a cure for loneliness.
36. A satisfactory marriage could be accomplished with many different partners.
37. Married people usually love each other.
38. The primary reason to marry is because of love.
39. When a person loves someone, they love most things about them.
40. Partners only get as much love as they give after marriage.
41. When love exists between two people, most problems can be easily solved.
42. Love helps to soften the blows life deals people.
43. Marriage helps love to grow and mature.
44. Husbands and wives must work together to keep their love strong.
Loving relationships with others, although not sexual, can be an aid to marital happiness.

Sexual Relations Scale

Mutually satisfying sexual relationships are difficult to maintain.

The major cause of marital discord is an unsatisfying sexual relationship.

Normal sexual functioning is two to four times per week.

If sexual problems are encountered, a doctor would be one of the most competent professionals to turn to.

Sexual satisfaction depends more on a good relationship than on sexual techniques.

A person should be able to talk easily to one's mate concerning sexual matters.

Each partner should know the other's sexual preferences without being told directly.

To be sexually compatible, a couple should both reach orgasm during intercourse most of the time.

Communication skills and sexual satisfaction are related.

Men are more oriented to sex than women are.

Women feel that men should be sexually satisfied before they are.

Foreplay is an important component of a satisfying sexual relationship.

Different sexual techniques should be considered in a relationship.

Sex and love should be expressed together for a good sexual relationship.

Sex becomes less important as people grow older.
Finances Scale

R - S 61. Finances are not a serious cause for concern in the first years of marriage.

O M 62. It is important for each partner to have independent funds for which they do not have to account to their mate.

R - S 63. Wives should receive household allowances.

R - M 64. Savings are not as important as entertainment.

O* M 65. Credit should only be used in emergencies.

R - M 66. When people are married, all accounts should be in both names.

R + S 67. Regular income should be budgeted on a monthly basis.

O M 68. Time payments are a good way to furnish a house or apartment.

R - S 69. A wife's salary should be used for extras and not counted as regular income.

R + M 70. A part of each paycheck should be saved.

O N 71. A major financial consideration should be the purchase of a home.

R + N 72. Money should be budgeted for entertainment.

R - N 73. Money is not really important as long as the couple love each other.

R + N 74. A man should have steady employment before he marries.

O N 75. Most married women work.

Children Scale

O M 76. Mothers should have the primary childcare responsibilities during the child's early development.
R - S 77. Keeping a family together at all costs for the sake of the children is preferable to divorce.

R + S 78. Children are usually aware of conflict between parents.

R - M 79. Couples are usually happier after they have children.

R + M 80. A good marriage relationship reduces the problems of the children in the family.

R + M 81. Children can have a negative effect on a marriage.

R - S 82. Spouses will feel closer after having a child.

R + M 83. Children change the lifestyle of a couple.

R + S 84. It is better to wait at least a year after marriage before having children.

R - S 85. Most couples make good parents.

R + N 86. Children are expensive.

R + N 87. Childcare should be shared equally by the parents.

R + N 88. Parents should spend time away from their children.

R - N 89. Children should resemble their parents emotionally.

R - N 90. Families should have at least one son.

Marital Roles Scale

R + M 91. Marital relationships are better if couples share their activities.

R - M 92. The husband should have the last word on important decisions.

R - M 93. Men should have more time alone with their friends than women.
Although times are changing, men and women still have certain roles to perform which do not overlap.

Privacy from one's mate is important.

Household duties should be decided on the basis of interest and skills.

People should follow the roles which their parents displayed in their marriage.

Place of residence should be decided by the husband's occupation as the wife's job is only supplementary.

If both spouses are working, household responsibilities should be shared.

A good wife has a clean and neat house.

Household duties should be reassigned periodically.

Heavy household chores should be done by the husband.

Women should display feminine behavior.

Men should protect and defend women.

Women must be more willing to adapt to marriage than men are.

Conflict Scale

Few couples know how to fight constructively.

The passage of time resolves many problems.

One should not have to have help from a third party to resolve disagreements.

Individuals who love each other sometimes have heated arguments.
R + S110. Couples who argue constructively are more likely to stay together.

C - M111. Couples should fight over important issues.

R + S112. Problems can give partners a chance to grow and develop.

R - M113. The most severe conflicts occur during the first two years of marriage.

R - N114. Marriages are seldom strengthened by a quarrel.

R - N115. Friends should not give advice to married couples when arguments occur.

R - N116. It is often best to take the blame in order to resolve an argument.

O N117. Pouting is a poor method to resolve a disagreement.

R + N118. Discussion is the best means to resolve conflicts.

R + N119. Good marriages experience conflict occasionally.

R + N120. Separation can be used to resolve conflict.

Scale readings were added for the purposes of clarity for this paper and were not included in the inventory presented to students.

LEGEND

R = retained for final AMAI
+ = healthy attitudes
- = unhealthy attitudes
O = no consensus among judges, dropped
O* = no differences between responses, dropped
S = Same as Olson's original item
M = Modified from Olson's original item
N = New item
Appendix D
Validity Interview

First Attempt

1. Do you think married couples should spend free time apart from each other or together? Why?

Together_____ Apart_______

2. Do you believe that marriage improves relationships between people? Why?

Improves____ Destroy______

3. Does each person have a perfect mate? Yes____ No______ Why do you believe this?

4. How much time do you believe marital partners should spend apart? Give your answer on a percentage basis.

Apart______ Together________

5. Do you feel arguments are good or bad for a marriage? Why?

Good_____ Bad________

6. Should negative comments concerning a spouse be expressed or repressed?

Expressed_____ Repressed_______

7. Is verbal or non-verbal communication more important? Why?

Verbal____ Non-verbal_______

8. Do married couples, after a period of time, understand each other without words?

Yes_____ No________

9. How do you define love?

10. Do you feel that love increases or decreases after marriage? Why?

Increases____ Decreases______

110
11. Does each person have one true love?
   Yes_____ No_____ 

12. Does keeping love strong require much effort from the partners? Why?
   Yes_____ No_____ 

13. How important do you believe sex is in a relationship?
   Important____ Not important____ 

14. Are sex and love related? Why?
   Yes_____ No_____ 

15. Should couples discuss sex - both the negative and positive sides? Why?
   Yes_____ No_____ 

16. Can a marriage be successful if the sexual relationship is poor? Why?
   Yes_____ No_____ 

17. Who should manage the finances in a marriage? Why?
   Husband___ Wife___ Both___ 

18. How important do you believe finances are in a marriage? Why?
   Very____ Some_____ Not_____ 

19. Who should assume the most responsibility for the support of the family? Why?
   Husband___ Wife___ Both___ 

20. Do you believe money or love is more important to the stability of a marriage? Why?
   Money ______ Love______
21. Are children necessary to a good marriage? Why?
   Yes____ No____

22. Do children increase or decrease the happiness of a marriage? Why?
   Increase____ decrease____

23. Do most people make good parents? Why?
   Yes____ No____

24. What is the best time in a marriage to have children?
   _______years

25. How should household duties be assigned?
   Autocratic____ Democratic____

26. If a compromise cannot be made, who should make the final decision?
   Husband____ Wife____ Vary____

27. On a percentage basis, how much free time should husbands and wives spend together?
   _______Amount of time/week

28. Do you like or dislike the changing roles of men and women in our society today?
   Like____ Dislike____

29. Do you believe married couples should argue?
   Yes____ No____

30. Are arguments helpful or detrimental to a marriage? Why?
   Helpful____ Detrimental____ Varies____
31. How much conflict do intact marriages experience?

A lot  Some  A little

32. Should marital partners discuss their problems with others? Why?

Yes  No
Validity Interview
Second Attempt

1. When people are courting and experience problems, do you believe that marriage resolves these problems?
   Yes 1 2 3 4 5 6 No

2. How much should men adjust their behavior to satisfy their wives?
   A Lot 1 2 3 4 5 6 None

3. How much should women adjust their behavior to satisfy their husbands?
   A Lot 1 2 3 4 5 6 None

4. Do you believe that somewhere in the world there is a person with whom you can be perfectly happy?
   No 1 2 3 4 5 6 Yes

5. How much available time should married couples spend in activities with others?
   20% - 1, 30% - 2, 40% - 3, 60% - 4, 70% - 5, 80% - 6

6. Should people argue?
   Yes 1 2 3 4 5 6 No

7. Is verbal or non-verbal communication more important?
   Non-verbal 1 2 3 4 5 6 Verbal

8. Are communication patterns easily changed?
   No 1 2 3 4 5 6 Yes

9. Are positive or negative feelings easier to express?
   Negative 1 2 3 4 5 6 Positive
10. Do you believe the saying "Love means never having to say you are sorry"?
   False 1 2 3 4 5 6 True

11. Give me a definition of love?
   Mature 1 2 3 4 5 6 Romantic

12. Does love increase or decrease after marriage?
   Romantic decrease 1 Romantic increase 6
   Mature increase 5 Mature decrease 4

13. Do you believe that love grows naturally within marriage or must it be nurtured by the partners?
   Nurtured 1 2 3 4 5 6 Grows

14. Are marital or family relations more important?
   Marital 1 2 3 4 5 6 Family

15. Are sexual techniques or a good relationship more important?
   Good relationship 1 2 3 4 5 6 Sex

16. Should sexual matters, both negative and positive be discussed?
   Yes 1 2 3 4 5 6 No

17. Should both partners reach orgasm at the same time?
   No 1 2 3 4 5 6 Yes

18. Why do you believe this is best?
   Subjective answer

19. Give me your views on the sexual relationships of couples as they grow older.
   Positive 1 2 3 4 5 6 Negative
20. How do you believe money should be handles in a marriage?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Budgeted</th>
<th>1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equally</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No planning</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. Is love or money more important in a marriage?

Money 1 2 3 4 5 6 Love

22. Is the wife's income important?

Yes 1 2 3 4 5 6 No

23. Is saving money important?

Yes 1 2 3 4 5 6 No

24. How important is money during the early years of a marriage?

Important 1 2 3 4 5 6 Not important

25. How do you feel about the statement "Children are a blessing"?

Untrue 1 2 3 4 5 6 True

26. Do you believe that most people make good parents?

No 1 2 3 4 5 6 Yes

27. Who should assume the most responsibility for the care of the children?

Equally 1 2 3 4 Husband 5 6 Wife

28. When is the best time after marriage for the birth of the first child?

2 or more years 1 less than 1 year 6

29. What sex should the first child be?

Either 1 Girl 3 Boy 6
30. Give me your views on the Equal Rights Amendment?
   Pro 1 2 3 4 5 6 Con
31. Do you believe the husband or wife should make the major decisions for the family?
   Either or shared 1 Wife 5 Husband 6
32. How should household duties be assigned?
   Equally 1-2 Work consideration - 4 Roles - 6
33. Do you believe that the wage earner who makes the most money should have the most power to make decisions for the family?
   No 1 2 3 4 5 6 Yes
34. Define masculinity / femininity.
   Androgynous 1 2 3 4 5 6 Stereotypes
35. Is marriage strengthened or weakened by quarrels?
   No 1 2 3 4 5 6 Yes
36. Is silence, discussion or argument the best way to resolve conflicts?
   Discussion - 1, Silence - 4, Argument - 6
37. How much conflict do intact marriages experience?
   Some - 1, A little - 3, A lot - 6
38. Can separation be used to resolve conflicts?
   Yes 1 2 3 4 5 6 No
39. Can people who love each other argue heatedly?
   Yes 1 2 3 4 5 6 No
Appendix E
Verbal Instructions to Subjects

Please complete the questionnaire given to you. It is an attitude survey. Answer all statements as you actually feel, not as you believe you should feel or as others expect you to feel. Be as truthful as possible. If you have any questions please feel free to ask. I greatly appreciate your time in completing this survey.