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INTERPERSONAL INTIMACY

AND

ADAPTATION TO STRESS

THROUGHOUT THE ADULT LIFE

by

Lawrence John Weiss B. A., University of California Berkeley 1969 M. A., University of California San Francisco 1974

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

PSYCHOLOGY

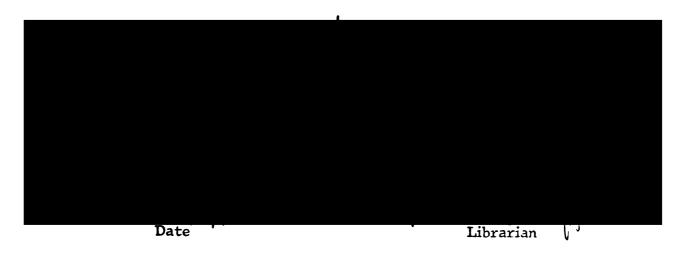
in the

GRADUATE DIVISION

(San Francisco)

of the

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA



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ABSTRACT

INTERPERSONAL INTIMACY AND ADAPTATION TO STRESS THROUGHOUT THE ADULT LIFE

Interpersonal intimacy, a physical and emotional closeness between two human beings, has not only been defined as a human need, but one with basic, primary or instinctual characteristics which are developmentally determined. Theorists have argued that a lack of fulfillment in intimacy can result in various forms of maladaptation. This study was designed to assess the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to stress by

- delineating the important dimensions of intimacy;
- (2) determining what constitutes a higherlevel (i.e., greater depth or degree)of intimacy among friends and spouses;
- (3) exploring the similarities and differences within the level of intimacy across the adult life, especially between younger and older adults; and finally

 (4) testing the hypothesis that the mediating effect of intimacy on the association between stress and adaptation is greater for older adults than younger adults.

A correlational design provided the operational model. The cross-sectional sample consisted of 171 urban men and women, mainly white, middle and lower-middle class, ranging in age from 21 to 72, drawn from San Francisco's Human Development and Aging Research Program's Study of Transitions. The administration of structured tests in an interview format consisted of a 16-item Intimacy Ranking instrument developed by the investigator, a stress index: the Life Event Questionnaire and adaptation measures, including the Symptoms Check-List and the General Morale Index, developed by Lowenthal and Associates. Pearson Correlation Coefficients were computed for the association between stress and adaptation according to level of intimacy among friends and spouses.

The results indicated that men and women conceive friendship and spouse intimacy differently. These differences contributed to the establishment of four intimacy profiles, which provided the operational definition of higher levels of intimacy. The qualitative components of reciprocal affection, understanding, and self-disclosure were found to provide the underlying core of intimacy. Significant differences in spouse intimacy were found across adult life stages,

Abstract

with intimacy generally decreasing from younger adults to older adults. This decrease in the level of intimacy across the adult life supports a theory of deterioration or disenchantment of marital relations. On the other hand, friendship intimacy did not differ between adult life stages, but the men did have a significantly higher level of intimacy than the women. The results of the major hypothesis focusing on the relationship between intimacy and adaptation indicated significant differences between the correlation of stress and adaptation for various levels of intimacy by younger and older adults. More specifically, higher levels of intimacy among younger adults decreased adaptation to stress, while the reverse was the case for older adults. Therefore, intimacy seems to serve as a critical intervening, mediating, or buffering factor in adaptation to stress for older people, but not younger people, and this relationship is more powerful for married couples than friends. This buffering effect occurs only for the men's morale, but both morale and psychosomatic symptoms for the women. Lastly, the mediating function of intimacy seems to be limited by a ceiling effect, whereby beyond a certain critical point, intimacy does not function as effectively in a mediating capacity.

In sum, intimacy is defined differently for men and women, as well as friends and spouses. The level of friendship intimacy remains constant across the adult life, but intimacy among spouses decreases from younger to older adults. Spouse intimacy becomes a critical intervening, mediating or buffering factor in adaptation to stress for older people, but not for younger people.

PREFACE

This dissertation was completed with the help of several very special people: Professor Marjorie Fiske, my chairperson, mentor, and inspirational thought; Professor Irving Rosow, my clear, critical eye, and supportive hand; Professor David A. Chiriboga, my ever-present feet and guiding hand; Professor Robert Pierce, my data organizer and tuned ear; Joan Mello, my neat + fast dexterity, and most lovely lady; Professor Maureen O'Sullivan, my beginning force and childhood fancy; Dr. Sandra Weiss, my heart and soul, the essence of my life from adolescence to old age. Also, this dissertation was completed with the help of several very special organizations: PHS Training Grant No. HD 00238 from the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD).

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Research also supported by the University of California at San Francisco Graduate Division's Patent Fund Award.

Thanks to all the very special parts.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION, LITERATURE REVIEW, AND HYPOTHESES

Introduction

This dissertation explores the nature of intimacy and its effect on adaptation to life stress. Interpersonal intimacy, a physical and emotional closeness between two human beings, has not only been defined as a human need, but one with basic, primary or instinctual characteristics (Bowlby, 1958; Freud, 1922; Harlow and Zimmerman, 1959; Maslow, 1954). As a basic need, theorists have argued that a lack of fulfillment in the sphere of intimacy can result in various forms of maladaptation (Jourard, 1964; Montagu, 1966; Otto and Mann, 1968). Jourard (1964:16-48) argues that "when we are not truly known by other people in our lives, we are misunderstood ... worse, when we succeed too well in hiding our being from others, we tend to lose touch with ourselves, and this loss of self contributes to illness in its myriad forms." He goes on to say that the inability to disclose oneself to another, an important dimension of intimacy (Taylor, 1968), is literally a lethal aspect of the male role, contributing to shorter life expectancy in men.

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Several social and psychoanalytic theorists have posited intimacy as a need which is developmentally determined and fulfilled. Sullivan (1953) postulates that the development of an intimate relationship with a member of the same sex, a "chum," is a major developmental task achieved during preadolescence. Brikson (1959) also describes a similar developmental process in relation to a member of the opposite sex during late adolescence and early adulthood. Intimacy, or its qualitative dimensions, also appears in the literature as a phenomenon in later adulthood. For example, in his work Rosow (1967) found that friendship patterns (even though not qualitatively defined), within varying residential concentrations of the aged peers provide support for each other in times of illness or need (one key dimension within intimate relationships). In addition, Lowenthal and Haven (1968), in their work with an older sample, found that the existence of a confidant (another important dimension within intimate relationships) acted as a buffer for older adults against the impact of social life stress. In light of such findings, an examination of intimacy as a developmental phenomenon, with differential meaning for adaptation in earlier and later adulthood, appears necessary.

While the link between intimacy and one's state of well-being or adaptation in later life may seem evident, there is actually little documentation of the role intimacy plays as a resource for adaptation in the face of stress. Research has established that in normal aging, with the loss of various social life roles,

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the aged become isolated and alone (Townsend, 1963). This reduction in social interactions has a deleterious effect on their feeling of well-being (Lowenthal, Berkman and Associates, 1967), in particular when social withdrawal is involuntary (Lowenthal and Boler, 1965; Gubrium, 1974). Whether such reductions in social interaction of later adulthood are accompanied by definitive changes in the qualitative nature of intimacy is not known. Perhaps developmental changes in the nature of interpersonal intimacy contribute to a decrease in the sense of well-being in the older person (e.g. Pineo, 1961). It is known, however, that the process of loss rather than the state of isolation has a much more serious consequence in adaptation. Further, Lowenthal (1964b) and Gubrium (1976) make the additional point that life-long isolation may be adaptive. In fact, both authors suggest that life-long isolation may be very adaptive in old age, since if there is no one to lose, one does not have to experience a loss and the accompanying trauma. On the other hand, for those people who experience the stressful impacts of loss, especially of significant others (e.g. spouse, family member, or friend) which inevitably result with increasing age, a variety of adaptations must also occur (Morris, 1956; Parkes, 1971). The positive psychological resource that close, intimate relationships afford in meeting these and other life stresses as one ages, has been relatively ignored and therefore demands some systematic exploration.

In addition, the degree to which a relationship contributes to coping to life stress may depend on the level or degree of the intimacy established. That is, the level of adaptation may vary according to the depth of the intimate relationship and not just to the presence or absence of another person, as previous research has indicated (Lowenthal and Haven, 1968). Levels of intimacy would seemingly vary throughout the life span from its beginnings in early adulthood to the later stages of life, influenced, for example by such situational factors as the culmination or termination of the parental role.

Therefore, the goal of this research is (1) to define the important dimensions of interpersonal intimacy; (2) to determine what constitutes a higher level (i.e. greater depth or degree) of intimacy within various relationships; (3) to explore the differences found within intimate relationships across the adult life; and finally (h) to assess the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to life stress (especially in older adults).

Statement of the Problem

Does a relationship exist between interpersonal intimacy and adaptation to life stress throughout the adult life? Contrary days

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Literature Review

In order to fully grasp an understanding of the definition of interpersonal intimacy and to assess the impact that it might have on adapting to life stress, one first has to establish why such an important phenomenon has been relatively ignored by the social scientist. Therefore, this review of the literature begins with an historical perspective on man's flight from tenderness and the scientific study of interpersonal intimacy and then traces some of the beginning attempts in studying the developmental process and depth of interpersonal relationships. This is primarily accomplished by first putting interpersonal intimacy into an adult developmental perspective by discussing Sullivan's (1953) and Erikson's (1963) approaches. Then through the exploration of why people associate with or are attracted to one another, some groundwork in attempting to understand deeper associations through a levels-of-relatedness approach is accomplished. Studies of interpersonal attraction are included because intimacy is assumed to vary in degree, proceeding from superficial to deeper and broader interaction. These varying levels of interaction involve qualitatively different dimensions and are examined in a framework of exchange theory. However, the limitations of such a perspective become evident resulting in a levels-of-relatedness approach. Finally, the literature review concludes with a discussion of the levels of intimacy and its potential impact on adaptation to stress.

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Flight from Tenderness

The wysteries of liking and loving have occupied the minds of men and women for centuries. But it has only been within the last two decades that social scientists have systematically investigated such concepts as love and intimacy. The explanation for such a belated exploration by the social scientist is not due to the unavailability of the necessary technological equipment (Zajonc, 1966), but rather to the assumption or misconception that such essentials to life and growth could not be studied scientifically, since their meaning lay primarily in tradition, folklore, and common sense. Several factors influencing this scientific neglect can be attributed to the relatively personal, private and secretive nature of the concept of intimacy itself. The traditional taboo against the invasion of one's private life, especially with respect to emotionally laden feelings of an intimate other, has dampened the needed scientific exploration. This taboo, coupled with the complexity of the concept and its methodological problems, have contributed the most to this scientific neglect.

The reluctance of social scientists to explore intimacy and loving relationships may also be attributed to what Gordon Allport (1968) has called a flight from tenderness. Allport observed that psychologists, in their research and in their theory, devote far more attention to aggressive, hostile, prejudiced behavior than to the softer acts of sympathy and love, which are equally important •

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ingredients of social life. This flight from tenderness and the need for increased scientific knowledge about love and intimacy was also expressed earlier in 1956 by Theodore Newcomb and again in 1958 by Harry Harlow in their addresses to the American Psychological Association. Since these major appeals, there has been an explosion of scientific work exploring the more "positive" elements of interpersonal relationships.

Only recently, then, have the social scientists followed in the foststeps of the poets, novelists, and philosophers and developed a fuller understanding of the underlying mechanisms involved in such "common-sense" phenomena as love or intimacy. These social scientists have become committed to the position that an understanding of love and close intimate relationships is possible, desirable, and will significantly add to our understanding of human behavior.

A Developmental Perspective on Intimacy

Several psychoanalytic and social scientists have stressed the importance of developing a capacity for intimacy in early childhood by focusing on the relationship between mother and infant and its implications for future interaction with others. Notable psychoanalytical examples would be, of course, Freud (1955), as well as many of the neo-Freudians such as Fromm (1956) and Spitz and Wolf (1946). More recently, such social scientists as Harlow (1958), Bowlby (1969), and Chevalier-Skolnikoff (1971)

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have contributed to this notion of a developing capacity for intimacy. The majority of both the theoretical and the empirical works on intimacy have dealt with the firm establishment of the mother-infant relationship as a basis for future identity and intimacy.

Two major theorists, Sullivan (1953) and Erikson (1963) are exceptions to the above emphasis on the development of a capacity for intimacy within infancy and instead view it as a vital developmental task for preadolescence and adolescence and the transition into adulthood. They both tend to de-emphasize the role of the relationship between mother and infant and establish intimacy as a separate, but equally vital, stage in their developmental theory. Intimacy, therefore, is posited as a need which is developmentally determined and fulfilled differently throughout various life stages.

Sullivan (1953), in his interpersonal theory of psychiatry, claims that a major developmental task during preadolescence occurs around the formation of a same-sex chum. This period, according to Sullivan, marks the beginning of genuine human relationships with peers, based on equality, mutuality, and reciprocity. This "chum" relationship entails the sharing of confidences and the advantage of collaboration in meeting and solving various life problems. Here collaboration means the adjustment of one's behavior to the expressed needs of the other person in the pursuit of increasingly mutual satisfactions. Also according to Sullivan, interior and a first first sector of the example of the first of the first of the first sector and the first

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Similarily, Brikson (1963) also proposes interpersonal intimacy as an important developmental stage that is vital to one's growth and adaptation throughout life. Differing from Sullivan's (1953) perspective, Brikson postulates that this stage of development occurs in late adolescence or young adulthood (not preadolescence) and with a member of the opposite-sex (not a same-sex chum). Brikson (1963) states that in becoming an adult, with adult liberties and responsibilities, one developmentally establishes social intercourse with the other sex in order to select a partner for an extended intimate relationship in marriage. In acquiring a sense of interpersonal intimacy and solidarity, one also avoids or overcomes a sense of isolation. This sense of isolation or social emptiness, a counter-developmental crisis, therefore, also serves as a motivating factor of finding solidarity in an intimate mate.

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This sense of intimacy in choosing a mate establishes a shared identity as well as adding the final strength needed in one's own sense of ego-identity. According to Erikson (1963), this is accomplished by having complementary ego-identities in some essential points which in turn fuses the marriage without the creation either of dangerous discontinuities of tradition, or of an incestuous sameness. Both of these, Erikson maintains, are apt to prejudice the offspring's ego development. He goes on to say that this sense of intimacy involves an ability and willingness to share mutual trust, to regulate cycles of work, procreation, and recreation for society, as well as the healthy development of the offspring. In short, Erikson's (1963) developmental stage of "intimacy vs. isolation" is solidified in marriage by a process of mutual verification through an experience of finding oneself, as one loses oneself in another.

Even though Erikson (1963) has identified intimacy as a critical developmental task in the transition from adolescence to adulthood, he fails to define it succinctly enough to put to empirical test. In fact, Gruen (1964) generally was unable to support Erikson's developmental theory when he attempted to apply it to empirical testing. Many clinicians, as Lowenthal and Weiss (1977:20) have pointed out, have found Erikson's developmental theory and the role of intimacy within it quite relevant to case studies of health people, as well as to those in the psychotherapeutic relationship (see e.g. Coles, 1967).

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Erikson, himself, has illuminated the importance of these principles within his own case studies and his biographical works (1958, 1969, 1975). He frankly admits, however, that his developmental stages in general, and "intimacy vs. isolation" specifically, are quite difficult to put to empirical test, and in fact, does not (and will not) attempt it (Erikson, personal communication, 1976).

The emphasis that both Erikson (1963) and Sullivan (1953) place on the role of interpersonal intimacy within the developing adult, cannot be ignored by the social scientist exploring the relationship between basic needs, need fulfillment, and adaptation throughout the life cycle. Fortunately, through their developmental theories, they expanded the role of intimacy, beyong the motherinfant relationship, to incorporate the developmentally determined capacity in equalitarian, reciprocal, extrafamilial relationships. Although the vitalness of this intimacy stage in fulfilling some of man's basic needs is clearly stated by both theorists, the various methods of fulfillment or important dimensions within an intimate relationship are not elaborated upon, and consequently vague enough not to be able to test empirically. Therefore, a major task of this study is to define and operationalize the concept of interpersonal intimacy (refer to Chapter II).

Even though both Erikson (1963) and Sullivan (1953) consider intimacy a basic developmental task, the timing or location of its importance as a developmental issue differs between them.

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On the one hand, Sullivan (1953) locates it in the pre-adolescent life stage, while Erikson (1963) locates it in the late adolescent/ young adulthood life stage. The implications of this life stage difference, therefore, not only suggest that different analytic or qualitative dimensions have to be considered in the definition and operationalization of intimacy, but also suggest that the effect friendship intimacy has on adaptation to stress differs from the effect spouse intimacy has on adaptation. If, for the moment, an association between intimacy and adaptation could be assumed, then Sullivan's (1953) theory would suggest that a "chum" (or friendship intimacy) would be a more powerful factor within the association to adaptation than another type of relationship. Erikson's (1963) theory, on the other hand, suggests that a relationship with an opposite-sex lover or spouse (spouse intimacy) would have a greater effect on adaptation to stress later on in life, than a same-sex chum. In short, the above two theorists locate initial development or origins of intimacy in two different life stages which in turn focus on two different types of relationship, implying differential effects on adaptation in later adult life stages.

One final developmental perspective that needs some explication is that since the initial development or origin of intimacy occurs during adelescence and the beginning stages of adulthood, the question arises of how intimacy varies throughout later life stages.

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Unfortunately very little scientific investigation has occurred which would shed light on the developmental life course perspective of intimacy. However, many developmental theorists maintain that interpersonal style and behavior qualitatively change with age. Consequently, the depth or level of intimacy and intimate relationships should also change with age or life stage. For example, Loevinger's (1966) theory of ego development maintains that as one increases in age or maturity (and in essence, increases in competence), a corresponding change in interpersonal style occurs. That is, one moves from a dependent, manipulative, and superficial style of interacting to a more conscientious, responsible, and considerate mode of interaction. This change in interpersonal style reflects a greater probability in older persons to have knowledgeable. respectful. concerned. and responsible relationships with significant others. According to Fromm (1956), the above four elements determine the success of all relationships; therefore, older persons potentially have closer, more successful intimate relationships than younger persons. On the other hand, these relationships are not necessarily closer or more intimate per se, but simply more resourceful to the considerate and responsible older person.

In other words, the older mature person may not have a greater degree of intimacy within his/her relationships than the younger less mature person, but the older persons' relationships may become more perceptively important, meaningful, mutually satisfying,

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or supportive due to his/her increase in considerate and responsible sensitivity. Even though this sensitivity may only be achieved by a select few, perhaps only to the self-actualized (Maslow, 1954), the point is that the potentiality is greater for the older person to accomplish closer. more intimate relationships. Confounding the assumption of this greater potentiality is the rather rapid social changes that have occurred in the moral attitudes and values associated with the establishment and maintenance of intimate relationships. One cannot ignore the increase in diverce rate, cohebitation, and promiscuous sexual and emotional expression among people, especially younger people. With such proliferation of relationships and sensitivity groups, one wonders what the impact of such attitudes and experiences has on the level of intimacy achieved. Perhaps the movement towards increased emotional expressivity and openness among the young generation contributes toward greater levels of intimacy. On the other hand, maybe this increase in expressivity and openness act as a substitute for intimacy. Whether in fact such changes have occurred, or whether they even affect the level of intimacy within relationships is beyond the scope of this research. What is important here, is the amount of association that intimacy has with age or developmental stage. This investigator proposes that changes not only occur in intimacy from its original inception during infancy, but also during adalthood from adolescence and/or young adulthood to the older

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adult life stages. These changes occur in the qualitative nature of perceived intimacy and in the degree or level of intimacy within relationships and its impact on adaptation.

In contrast to the above notion that intimacy increases from late adolescence or early adolthood to the older adolt life stages, many researchers (especially those dealing with the marital relationship) suggest the opposite, a decreasing affect with age or life stage. Investigators such as Elood and Wolfe (1960), Pineo (1961), Burr (1970), and Thurnher (1975) have documented a significant decrease in satisfaction or favorable perceptions with age or life stage. Such marital dissatisfactions peak during the period preceding the empty-nest stage and are followed by increased satisfaction in the postparental stages (Thurnher, 1975). There seems to be an antithesis between parenting and spousing, where parenting "interferes with the capacity of a spouse either to give or receive attention and love from the other spouse" (Bohannan, 1971: 58). If perceived dissatisfaction and conflicting parent and spouse roles reflect the amount or level of intimacy within a relationship, then a decrease in intimacy (or at least a waxing and waning) would seen to occur throughout older adult life stages. Therefore, in contrast to the potential for increasing levels of intimacy to occur with age or life stage, many researchers have found a declining tendency. The present study will shed some light on these contrasting views by assessing the level of intimacy throughout the adult life.

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In short, developmental theorists have established different life stages where intimacy is located as a vital task. The task for these differing life stages focuses on the development of intimacy between either a same-sex "chun" or an opposite-sex sponse relationship. The exphasis on these two types of relationship not only implies a different conceptual definition of intimacy for each, but also implies a different degree of impact on adaptation in later adulthood. In addition, since intimacy is conceived as beginning early in life, a developmental perspective necessitates viewing intimate relationships in later adult life stages. Some stress the potential for increased intimacy from early adulthood to later adulthood through greater competency, responsibility, or considerateness. Others emphasize a decrease in satisfaction or favorable perceptions. The present research will attempt to address this latter issue by first conceiving interpersonal intimacy in terms of a levels-of-relatedness approach, and then by assessing the degree of change over the adult life stages. Finally, the contribution of these differing levels of intimacy will be assessed for their degree of impact on adaptation.

A Levels-of-Relatedness Approach: Beyond Interpersonal Attraction and Exchange

Interpersonal intimacy is not a static state which once achieved remains constant. Instead, it is a dynamic process that changes over time within specific relationships. Therefore, in order to and the second secon

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conceptualize and define intimacy and determine what constitutes deeper degrees or levels of interpersonal relationships (which occurs in Chapter II), it seems necessary to this investigator to review the various theories of attraction and affiliation. That is, since intimacy varies in degree, proceeding from superficial to deeper and broader levels of interaction (including physical, emotional, and social levels), the literature on why people are attracted to, or affiliate with, one another at initial levels of a relationship will provide a foundation for the exploration and conceptualization of the important qualitative dimensions within deeper, more intimate levels. One common thesis that cross-cuts various levels of attraction and affiliation is that an exchange occurs between the interacting dyad. This exchange involves rewarding pleasures and satisfactions. The nature and function of these pleasurable, satisfying qualities within a dyadic exchange have been explored by the exchange theorists and are reported here. However, the focus of exchange theories on an economic exchange of commodities for profit seems incomplete when conceptualizing interpersonal intimacy. Therefore, the depth of exchange or a levels-of-relatedness approach is adopted and the importance of mutuality and altruism discussed accordingly.

Not until the middle to late 1950's did any social-psychological theorists systematically begin to explore the reasons why people are attracted to one another. A few examples are Festinger's social comparison theory (1954), Winch's complementary need theory

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(1958), and Heider's balance theory (1958). In general, the above literature on the formation of relationships, regardless of their theoretical orientation, essentially deals with whether or not similars are attracted to one another. On the other hand, Festinger (1954) and Heider (1958) focus on the conditions under which people are motivated to be with similar, as opposed to dissimilar, others. Both the motivation to evaluate the self through a comparison with similar others and the tendency toward a balanced or symmetrical relationship facilitate the predictability of another's behavior, as well as perform a validating function which increases one's confidence in his own cognitive and value orientations. On the other hand, Winch (1958) proposed that people are attracted to one another to fulfill complementary needs, which is a variant of similarity or more precisely, dissimilarity. He provided some evidence that people selected mates who had complementary personalities (e.g. the dominant with the submissive, the sadistic with the masochistic, or the succorant with the murturant). Unfortunately, Winch's methodology was weak, resulting in little supporting evidence (refer to Bowerman and Day, 1956; Rosow, 1957; Schellenberg and Bee, 1960; Banta and Hetherington, 1963). The concept of similarity and its relationship to interpersonal attraction persists and gains support with the work of several, more recent, researchers (e.g. Byrne and Associates, 1971; Lott and Lott, 1968, 1972). However, since most of the literature focuses primarily on the initial stages of acquaintance or affiliation,

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and not with more intimate relationships, the importance, generalizability, or even applicability of the concept of similarity/complementarity to deeper levels of intimacy needs further exploration.

One proposition that is characteristic of the different types or levels of relationships is that an exchange occurs within the dyad. This exchange involves need fulfillment or other satisfying and rewarding interpersonal qualities. Exchange theory essentially promotes the same fundamental thesis as does reinforcement, learning, or behavioral theory; that is, people are attracted to those who reinforce or reward them. The exchange theorists, such as Thibaut and Kelley (1959) and Homans (1956, 1961), emphsize the importance of reward and cost factors in interpersonal functioning. Thibaut and Kelley (1959) focus primarily on the early stages of exchange within relationships and state that experiencing good outcomes at initial contacts leads to the anticipation of similar outcomes in the future and, therefore, the desire to repeated interaction. The important properties, however, shift as the relationship develops. For example, in initial encounters, interaction is guided by cultural norms and socially acceptable behaviors, which convey little information about potential interpersonal rewards and costs. Individuals gradually gain more information about one another with the passage of time, allowing greater predictability for future interaction. Therefore, as knowledge increases and finer judgments are made between individuals, each person builds a more

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complex cognitive model of the other. This later more complex model, in turn, operates on different properties of attraction than at initial stages of the relationship. Thibaut and Kelley (1959) imply a systematic developmental process whereby a relationship proceeds from superficial, normative stages to more intimate areas of exchange as the relationship grows.

In a similar approach, Homans (1956, 1961) also effers an economic exchange of profit and loss in the arena of the interpersonal marketplace. Borrowed from operant learning theory, Homans defined rewards as involving interaction with a positive exchange of objects, symbolic signs or attitudes and feelings. One of Homan's basic hypotheses is that the greater the exchange of rewards, the greater the repetition of activity which led to them. Continuation of an exchange depends upon each person perceiving some profit, where rewards are greater than costs. However, research has failed systematically to explore the actual nature of rewards in close, intimate relationships. Instead, an assumption is usually made about the reward or cost value of the situations, and if differences in attraction occur, these differences are assumed to occur in the intrinsic reward value without consideration of the situation. In other words, since research has shown that such dimensions as spatial proximity, cooperativeness, physical attraction (or beauty), similarity in background,

attitudes or personality all lead to attraction, then they also are presumed to be rewarding. Little research has specifically addressed the issue of determining the conditions under which most of these and the other factors act as rewards, especially with varying levels of intimacy within different relationships. Therefore, determining the nature of rewards is, in itself, a difficult task. Not only may a multitude of things be rewarding (or punishing) to any individual, but they may also vary with different situations and times. The cliche that one-man's-meat-isanother-man's-poison is quite applicable here. Further analysis is needed to determine the specific properties involved in interpersonal needs and gratification of those needs.

A further elaboration of the definition of pleasures, satisfactions, or gratifications within the interpersonal context involves delineating the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and environmental factors. Intrapersonal factors involve the internal gratifications of processes linked to personality dynamics (e.g. beliefs, values, attitudes, interests) and depends upon satisfactions through congruency or similarity, complementarity, and so on, as well as capacity to love or be intimate. Interpersonal factors are intrinsic to the social relationship itself (e.g. liking or support), and reflect a degree of mutuality and appropriate sequencing of behaviors which are specific to each relationship. The environmental factors involve aspects of the physical or structural, nonverbal, and socio-psychological situation (e.g. physical proximity

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or role affiliation). All factors, however, contribute to and perhaps are essential in determining the nature of interpersonal rewards.

Many theorists have contributed in their own way to further the understanding or meaning of rewards and costs. For example, psychoanalysts claim that emotional disturbances originate from unsatisfactory interpersonal exchanges. Unsatisfactory exchanges lead to insecurity and aloneness, while security, esteen, and lack of anxiety result from satisfactory or rewarding exchanges. These rewards are derived from interpersonal contact and interaction; they overcome the insecurity of isolation (see e.g. Horney, 1939; Sullivan, 1953; Fromm, 1956). While dealing with rewards on an attraction or acquaintance process level, Newcomb (1961) described three specific types of reward provided by another: respect, trust, and liking. Respect incorporates a positive orientation of another based on some area of expertise (including the moral and spiritual realms), trust is based on another's degree of helpfulness and sincerity, while liking is a more complex, generalized state of attraction. An additional perspective comes from Schutz (1958), where he describes interpersonal rewards under the rubric of compatibility. He defines compatibility as a property of a relationship between two or more persons, between an individual and a role, or between an individual and a task situation, that lead to mutual satisfaction of individual and interpersonal needs

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and harmonious co-existence. Not only do various meanings of reward come from the behavioral or exchange theorists, but also

from psychoanalytic or other social science traditions as well, covering a variety of theoretical approaches. The implication of these various meanings is that there is no general consensus concerning the important social needs or the means for satisfying these needs.

In short, social rewards differ among people, times, and places, but the importance of these rewards for social or interpersonal validation and approval remains. In other words, within initial superficial relationships, the important dimensions for being attractive may change from "good clothes" to "coolness," depending on the time. place. and social reward hierarchy, but the same process prevails. In addessing the rewarding qualities of a friend, lover, or spouse, however, the process goes beyond this kind of social prestige hierarchy. Instead, there are more individual differences as to what is satisfying or pleasurable. Some people are rewarded more by similar others, especially similarity in values, beliefs and attitudes, while other people are rewarded more by complementarity. For example, the aggressive or assestive type of person may receive more positive gratifications from a submissive, passive, and unquestioning type than someone similar to himself. Each person then, has his own hierarchial structure of rewards. depending upon his needs and preferences.

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The important dimensions of interpersonal reward vary according to the type of relationship and the level or developmental stage at which the relationship is functioning. The qualities that are important in a casual business associate are not necessarily important in a close friendship, let alone a love relationship. Nor do the important qualities necessarily remain the same as a particular relationship progresses from an initial acquaintance to a deeper level of intimacy. Since such dimensions as type and stage of relationship need to be taken into consideration, a more fluid conception is necessary. The fluid (readily changeable) nature of rewards exchanged between persons then must go hand-inhand with the changing form of a relationship in its breadth and depth.

When discussing exchange theory, or the various dimensions associated with rewards, one cannot help but react to the main postulate that human relationships are based primarily on egocentrism. Certainly, something is missing when one conceives social interaction, particularly close intimate relationships, solely or simply as an exchange of commodities or values for profit. Elan (1964) noted that there is also a sense in which human commodities or values are more like artistic creations than like economic goods. Established standards of quality or beauty cannot be applied to all situations. In fact, new standards have to be established for such artisitic creations as a love relationship between a man and a woman. That such an intimate relationship is motivated only by what each person .

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> The set of a configuration of a set of a set of the full mean function and the set of a set of the set can get from the other is difficult to accept. Such a devicus power game of profit is in sharp contrast to the popular belief that love is fostered by the joy of giving, at least as much as the desire to receive.

Exchange theory then provides some insight and understanding of human relationships, but certainly is not complete. For example, people do give to, make sacrifices for, or behave altruistically on the behalf of others, without any expectation of immediate profit in return. This approach is contrary to exchange theory. Such acts of self-sacrifice for the welfare of others are quite evident in our everyday lives. This demonstrated selfless concern for others, even though occasionally displayed in interactions with strangers, primarily emerges in close relationships. In partial support, Beeson and Lowenthal (1975) found that the health problems of children are more stressful to a parent than that person's own health problems. As intimacy develops and two individuals become more knowledgeable of each other, their lives intersect more and they develop the mutual capacity to experience each other fully, empathically. This capacity to experience one another's feelings and the ability to help each other brings intrinsic pleasure or internal reciprocal rewards. These rewards are quite different from the egocentric, external rewards expected at early stages of relationships, where motivation for helping another comes from the expectation of receiving something in return. These intrinsic rewards may be motivated by a basic sense of responsible moral duty,

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considerateness, or empathy, more strongly manifested in intimate relationships. Therefore, the principles of interpersonal exchange theory most commonly apply to encounters at the beginning stages of a relationship, such as strangers or casual acquaintances. At later stages of a relationship, or higher levels-of-relatedness (Levinger, 1964), one seems to be more motivated and increasingly concerned by what can be given to the other, rather than taken from the other, thus extending beyond the concept of exchange into higher levelsof-relatedness. Emphasizing this element of altruistic expression in closer, more intimate relations is in no way an attempt to eliminate or dismiss reciprocity or mutuality as a necessary condition to maintain viable intimacy. On the contrary, this author suggests that true mutuality develops only with higher levels of intimacy which is manifested through altruistic expressions of shared responsibility, considerateness, and empathy. In support of this connotation, Scotland (1969) claims that if we communicate our feelings and perceive mutual similarities with another, there is a greater probability for empathy which in turn facilitates altruistic behavior. In addition, Rubin (1970) states that empathy and altruistic behavior are important sources of affection and when intense reflect a mutual caring and love. In other words, mutual altruistic expressions and behaviors result from and produce higher levels-of-relatedness.

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Levels-of-relatedness appear to be contingent upon depth and cross-cut various role relationships. Newcomb's (1961) analysis of the acquaintance process was one of the initial explorations that provided some supporting evidence for the existence of various levels-of-relatedness. He studied the development of friendships within a college student dormitory and the changing patterns over a sixteen week period. The early stages in the acquaintance process were characterized by a high degree of similarity of biographical characteristics, while within the later stages the attraction for each other was based primarily on attitude and value similarity. Times, the levels-of-relatedness here are reflected in the progression from superficial, objective characteristics at the outer or peripheral layers of personality to the closer, more centralized or core layers of personality within an intimate acquaintance.

Kerckhoff and Davis' (1962) filtering theory of pair formation is a similar approach to Newcomb's (1961), but with a more direct influence from Winch's (1958) complementary need theory, as well as Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) exchange theory. Filtering theory affords a model for differentiating qualities of interpersonal intimacy as to higher levels or depth of relatedness. Keriskhoff and Davis' data were collected from dating couples at different times during the courtship process. They propose that a series of successive filters operate in the development of intimacy, progressing from superficial to deeper aspects of the relationship. That is, •

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the "filter" involving similarity in backgrounds and other social status factors operate initially. Then, in the early stages of a relationship, beyond the initial contact, similarity in attitudes and values (value consensus) comes to the fore. Finally, complementarity of deeper social or personality needs becomes an important "filtering" factor in longer-term, intimate relationships. Unfortunately, Levinger, Senn, and Jorgensen (1970) were unable to clearly replicate the above results from Kerckhoff and Davis.

In an earlier study, however, Levinger (1964) provided some support to the theory of levels-of-relatedness. He collected data on students who rated the importance of 33 characteristics on influencing their feelings for others. He found that subjects rated easily visible characteristics (such as physical attractiveness) as more important for initial levels of involvement and more reciprocal deeper characteristics (such as ability to give and receive love) as important for later involvement. In fact, in a more recent work, Levinger and Snoek (1972) propose a theoretical framework for social relations based on levels-of-relatedness or depth of exchange. Their framework consists of three levels (refer to Figure 1):

- (1) Unilateral awareness of the other person;
- (2) Bilateral surface contact (superficial, stereotypical role relations);

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(3) Matuality (continuum of various levels of reciprocity dealing with shared knowledge, assumed responsibility, and development of interdependence).

This positive transitional process moves from the initial approach, through affiliation and into attachment, reflecting a surface-todepth progression of involvement. This framework not only proposes levels of interpersonal relatedness, but also that these levels possess different qualities associated with intimacy.

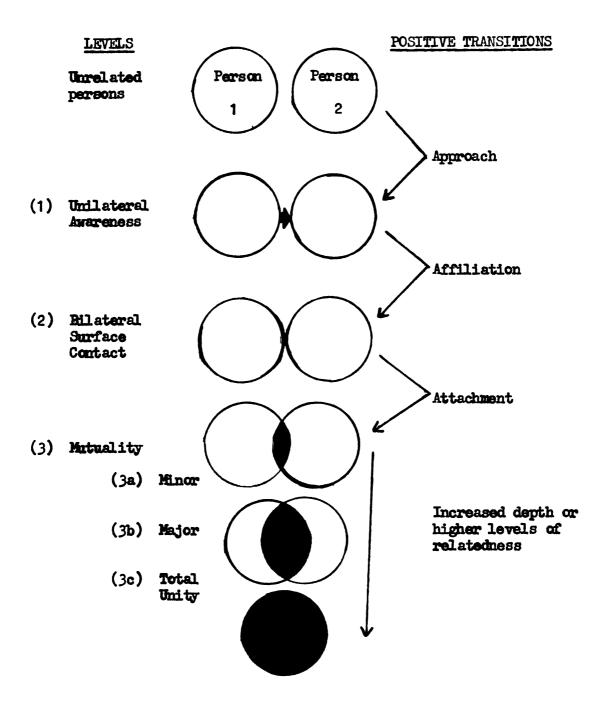
Duck (1973), in his work on friendship and friendship formation, has deduced a similar theory of various levels of relatedness. Duck's study in particular illuminates the progression from similarities among new acquaintences in such things as interests, activities, physical characteristics or attractiveness, roles and styles of interaction to deeper aspects of compatibility in "psychological constructs" at later stages of intimacy. Duck defines such constructs in terms of Kelly's (1955) personal construct theory. For example, such constructs as sociable-shy, ambitious-not ambitious, moodyconsistent, etc., were deemed "psychological" in nature and in fact, could be associated with personality characteristics. Lischeron and La Gaipa (1970) and Canfield and La Gaipa (1970) found also that personality characteristics become more important as the relationship progresses. Clearly, there are distinct levels of intimacy beyond interpersonal exchange which possess different qualities of interpersonal relatedness. Before defining intimacy or establishing what constitutes higher levels of intimacy (which occurs in Chapter II), the next section puts intimacy into a stress-adaptation framework.

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Figure 1

LEVELS-OF-RELATEDNESS



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Levels of Intimacy: Its Impact on Adaptation to Stress

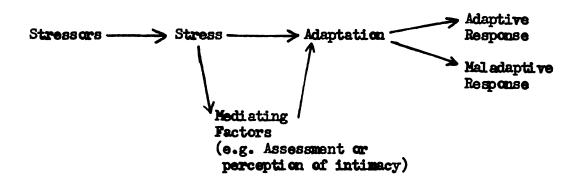
In exploring the relationship between the level of intimacy and adaptation to stress (external to the relationship), it is necessary to: first, establish the relationship between social stress and adaptation; secondly, establish the role of social interaction variables as mediators; thirdly, assess the relationship between intimacy and adaptation, and the potential, causal or mediating effect that various levels of intimacy have on adaptation; finally, assess the potential for intimacy to act as a greater adaptative resource for elder adults than younger adults. A discussion of the above domains lead to a statement of the hypotheses and the analytic schema.

The research literature is abundantly supplied with works that suggest and support the rather impressive relationship between social stress and physical or mental adaptation. Dating back to Selye's (1956) pioneering studies of the effects of stressful stimuli on laboratory animals, there have been many experiments on human and animal subjects demonstrating the relationship between social stress and adaptation. Levine and Scotch (1970) identified four additional major sources of evidence (beyond laboratory studies) that support the notion that stress relates or contributes to physiological dysfunction, disease, mental disorder, and socially pathological behavior: (1) clinical impressions; (2) variation in prevalence of the disorder; (3) empirical, epidemiological studies; and (4) logic and common sense. Without further elaboration, the most important

here are the empirical sources of evidence. Unfortunately, there is much diversity and ambiguity in the definition of concepts utilized (e.g. Janis, 1958; Lazarus, 1966). However, investigators such as Holmes and Rahe (1967), Lowenthal, Berkman and Associates (1967), Dodge and Martin (1970), and Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend (1970) have contributed greatly to an understanding of the conceptualization of stress, adaptation, and the resulting relationship.

The framework for conceptualizing stress and adaptation utilized within this research is a modification of Selye's (1955) paradigm of the stress response, translated into social and psychological terms by Dohrenwend (1961) and Rahe and Holmes (1966), and adjusted to accommodate social interaction variables as intervening or mediating factors (Lowenthal, Berkman and Associates, 1967). Figure 2 diagrams this conceptual framework.

Figure 2



Stress-Adaptation Model

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This stress-adaptive framework displays stressors as antecedent events or agents in one's life producing a condition of stress or emotional discomfort. An assumption is made that the greater amount of negative events. the greater the stress. In addition, stress is conceived as having a direct or causal relationship with adaptation and the level of adaptive or maladaptive response. Most important, this figure contains the element of mediating or intervening factors that increase or decrease the impact of stress on adaptation and the adaptive response. Mediating factors consist of external and internal resources, but the present model focuses primarily on external resources or social interaction variables that potentially provide social support and consequently influence the level of adaptation. For example, Dohremwend and Dohremwend (1970) report on two external mediating factors, social class and race. In addition, Lowenthal, Berkman and Associates (1967) found that social interaction variables, such as level of social and organizational activity or marital status, are related to the degree of adaptation or psychiatric inseriment. More importantly, however, Lowenthal (1964a) provided evidence for the importance of social supports in adapting to the stress of hospitalization and later on (Lowenthal and Haven, 1968) concluded that the presence of an intimate relationship serves as a buffer (or mediating factor) in adapting to such stresses as widowhood and retirement. Stress is not only conceived as having a direct or causal relationship with adaptation, but mediating factors

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also influence the association. Social interaction variables and intimate relationships are conceived as external mediating factors influencing the impact of stress on adaptation.

Even though the present framework views interpersonal intimacy primarily as a mediating factor, the possibility remains that a direct or causal relationship may exist between intimacy and adaptation. That is, the level of intimacy may directly influence one's morale and level of functioning regardless of the amount of stress present. This relationship would state that the more intimate or closer one person is to another, the happier, more satisfied and physically better adapted that person would be. On the other hand, those people who have superficial or shallow relationships or who are isolated and alone would have a potentially greater risk of being maladaptive. There is no doubt that isolation and interaction are closely related to morale and that a reduction in social interaction has a deleterious effect on the feeling of well-being (Lowenthal and Boler, 1965). The potentially powerful impact of the loss of a significant other or the failure of a relationship on one's morale is rather obvious. However, what is not obvious is the extent to which intimacy is a buffer against stress (or a resource in coping with it). Consequently, a test of this association is incorporated into the present research and explored before the assessment of intimacy as a mediating resource or buffer.

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In the past, interpersonal intimacy has not only been defined as a human need, but one with basic or instinctual characteristics (e.g. Maslow, 1954; Bowlby, 1958; Harlow and Zimmerman, 1959). As a basic need, it has been argued that a lack of fulfillment of interpersonal intimacy can inhibit psychological health, growth or development (Erikson, 1963; Maslow, 1954; Sullivan, 1953), or worse, can result in various forms of maladaptation (Jourard, 1964; Montagu, 1966; Otto and Mann, 1968). In Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy, intimacy (or the need for belongingness and love) follows the satisfactions of the basic physiological and safety needs, and ameliorates, mediates, or at least decreases the feelings of loneliness, isolation, rejection, rootlessness, or strangeness that comes about with being human.

Such a need for contact with others can be documented or observed in a variety of ways. For example, extreme forms of social isolation, as portrayed in various literary works (e.g. Comrad, 1910; Slecum, 1948; Weisberg, 1951; Burney, 1952), or displayed in the symbolic form of a catatonic state, both depict the devastating qualities of lack of intimate contact with others. Harlow and Zimmerman (1959) in their work with animals empirically demonstrated that a lack of physical contact or intimacy between an infant and its mother (or surrogate mother) produced disturbance and maladaptation later on. In another very illustrative example,

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Spitz and Wolf (1946) found that institutionalized infants who did not receive physical contact and who were left isolated within their cribs became withdrawn, and had a higher illness and mortality rate than those infants who had human contact. Therefore, it is quite peasonable to assert that there is a close association between the lack of physical and emotional contact among higher animals, including man, and a variety of forms of maladaptation or illness, including death.

In addition to loneliness as a motivating force to affiliate and establish physical and/or emotional intimacy, there is evidence that anxiety and stress also motivate people to affiliate with others. Anciety refers to an uneasy feeling and behavioral state (not a trait) of apprehension and tension caused by danger or misfortune. Schachter (1959) supported the above notivation in his well-known work on anxiety and affiliation. He first created an anxiety-provoking situation with female college students with the anticipation of a painful electric shock and then asked them if they wanted to wait alone or with other subjects for a few minutes prior to the experience. The high-anxiety subjects (these anticipating a strong "painful" electric shock) chose to wait with other students more frequently than the low-anxiety subjects (mild shock). In addition, the subjects chose to affiliate selectively. That is, they only chose others who were also waiting for the same experiment, not just anybody. Schachter's (1959) interpretation of the results indicated that subjects chose to wait with others in order to: (1) directly reduce

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their anxiety, and (2) evaluate the reasonableness of their own feelings and emotions. Several experiments support one or both of the above explanations as to what predisposes individuals in an anxious state to choose to wait with others (e.g. Wrightsman [1960], Gerard and Rabbie [1961], Gerard [1963], Rabbie [1963]). Regardless of the underlying explanation, there is general support that anxiety or stress increases an individual's need for affiliation with others in a similar situation.

In mether well-known experiment, Sarnoff and Zimbardo (1961) not only replicated Schachter's (1959) results but introduced a different dimension by varying the anxiety-provoking stimulus. They demonstrated that anxiety produced by instructions to suck on objects associated with infantile oral behavior reduced affiliative tendencies. One explanation offered by Sarnoff and Zimbardo (1961) for those who chose not to affiliate, was that they did not want to take the chance of being <u>made</u> increasingly anxious by having other people around while performing such an infantile act. Gerard and Rabbie (1961), tend to support this explanation, in that the subjects who were <u>most</u> anxious in their experiment chose to wait alone, while generally the highly anxious group of subjects wanted to wait with others.

In a different kind of experiment, Sheatsley and Feldman (1964) found that respondents who were most disturbed by the assassination of John F. Kennedy were most desirous of being alone in the days following the killing. Finally, Latane and Wheeler (1966)

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found in their somewhat more recent study of naval recruits who participated in the clean-up of an airplane accident (including human body parts) and who were rated as "highly emotional" men, indicated little desire to talk to others the week after the experience. But those men who were rated as non-emotional and participated in the anxiety-provoking clean-up, clearly indicated a greater desire to talk and be with others. In short, the above studies suggest to this author that it is not so much the type of anxiety situation experienced, or maybe even the type of emotion produced, but rather the intensity of the experience that determines the desire to affiliate or not. Therefore, when the intensity is overwhelming, one may not tend to seek self-evaluation and social approval through affiliating with others, but rather privacy and isolation.

When discussing affiliation or more interpersonally intimate relationships and their impact on stress, there is some additional evidence that has to be taken into consideration concerning physiological reactions. Bouard (1959) proposed that the physical presence of others, particularly those with whom one is familiar (e.g. friends), during the stressful experience will inhibit, mask, or screen the stressful stimuli enough to minimize its effect. This is also supported by Back and Bogdonoff (1964), in their study comparing small groups of strangers and friends experiencing the physical stress of blood withdrawal. In their study, a group of

friends had a lower level of fatty acids in their blood than did a group of strangers experiencing the same stress. Experiencing stress in the company of friends as opposed to any "body" therefore, seems to inhibit the full impact of the stressor.

The mediating, inhibiting, or "buffering" affect that the presence of others has on experiencing stress, occurs in a psychological as well as a physiological level. Several animal and human studies suggest that the mere presence of others diminishes or eliminates disturbances and discomfort during stressful circumstances (e.g. Davitz and Mason, 1955; Bouard, 1959; Mason, 1960; Mandlebaum, 1952; Schachter, 1959). In addition, the recent childbirth practices of having the man or father present during the delivery process reflects a practical application of the above buffering affect. The research literature on animals has long established that the "herding instinct," or the tendency for affiliation among the same species, serves as a definite survival mechanism (Lorenz, 1966), and directly reduces fear or anxiety (Latane and Glass, 1968), After a review of the research literature on humans, as well as some of his own work, Rubin (1973) concludes that we also affiliate with others when we are afraid, and in addition, we are attracted to those whom we feel provide us with protection, security, and a yardstick for self-confirmation.

On a more global or encompassing level, it seems reasonable to logically extend the above and conclude as Bruhn and Associates (1966) that emotional support through intimate relationships within our social environment somehow provides protection from various troubles and stresses of everyday life. Bruhn et al. (1966), in their large scale community study, found that a cohesive, mitually supportive community, with strong family and neighborly ties, could counteract the effects of predisposing disease factors and in fact had a lower mortality rate due to heart disease, as compared to a similar community or to the U.S. as a whole. Therefore, it not only seems evident that the more presence of others during stressful situations has an impact on both physiological and psychological adaptation, but clearly more qualitative aspects within the relationship or the social environment (such as mutual support and cohesiveness) seem to affect the outcome even more. In addition, this "buffering" effect appears to extend beyond the particular time and place of the stress into one's general state of physical and mental well-being. Further research evidence of this "buffering" effect, however, is quite sparse; therefore the primary objective of this study is to explore the relationship between the qualitative aspects of intimacy and adaptation to stress.

Within the preceding, some evidence was provided showing the impact that a variety of relationships may have on the adaptation to loneliness, anxiety, fear, and various other life stresses.

Additionally, all of us through our personal experience could attest to the tremendoubly important value that close significant others play in our life crises, both in their creation and resolution. An intimate other may provide emotional support and understanding, intellectual congruence, or merely physical contact and availability. There is a definite need for empirical research to extend beyond Schachter's (1959) concept of selective affiliation during specific anxiety situations within the laboratory and to explore closer, real life relationships and their influences on the accompanying stresses and strains of daily life.

This investigator hopes to prove that the potential for intimacy to act as an adaptive resource varies from one life stage to another, but generally is greater for older adults. This statement is not based on the research literature per se, but generates from two co-existing perspectives: (1) developmental maturation increases the probability for the older person to develop and foster increased considerate and responsible sensitivity to others; and (2) diminishing resources and a generally constricting live space for the older person necessitates greater potential for existing intimate relationships to become more important in adaptation.

It has been quite well established that with advancing age there is a decline in the number of roles, amount of interaction, and in the variety of social contacts (Riley and Foner, 1968). This decline generally constricts or limits the amount of resources

available to the older person, whether it was involuntary or a selective withdrawal. Much controversy within the research literature has brewed over the years regarding the socio-psychological impact of this declining involvement in various social roles and networks. Originally, Cumming and Henry's (1961) disengagement theory essentially triggered a multitude of studies, including those that generated an alternative, "activity" theory (Maddox, 1963). Additional research, however, did not support the major propositions and relationships advocated by activity theory. Lemon, Bengtson and Peterson (1972) found only the presence of social activity with friends related to life satisfaction, not the fequency with which they interacted. They concluded (as does this investigator) that it is the quality or type of interaction, rather than quantity, that is important for the saliency of social interaction to achieve an increase in life satisfaction and adaptation.

Lowenthal and Haven (1968) in a pioneering study of 280 community-resident aged in San Francisco attempted to explore the relationship of interpersonal intimacy as a buffer or resource in adaptation to stress. Lowenthal and Haven (1968:20) concluded that "the presence of an intimate relationship serves as a buffer both against gradual social losses in role and interaction and against the more traumatic losses accompanying widowhood and retirement." These findings are significant in that they go beyond the quantity of social relationships which was characteristic of previous research (see for example, Lowenthal, 1964).

However, the conceptual and operational definitions of intimacy are weak and in the authors own words: "our own approach was a simple -- if not crude -- one" (Lowenthal and Haven, 1968:22). An intimate relationship, in this study, was assessed by the respondents' self-definitions in regard to having a confident. More recently, Lachman and Chiriboga (1977) in their research on separation and divorce found similar results. In other words, they found that the presence of a confidant tended to act as an adaptive resource for middle aged and older persons, but had no effect on younger adults experiencing the same stress of separation or divorce. For purposes of the present study, the unidimensional approach employed above is insufficient to explore such a complex phenomena as interpersonal intimacy. However, their findings are intriguing and lend support to the hypotheses proposed here, consequently demanding further research employing a more encompassing definition, with a more rigorous, systematic methodology.

In sum, intimacy, briefly defined as an emotional closeness between two people, has been traditionally ignored as an area of scientific investigation. The relative complexity of the concept, the methodological problems, as well as what Allport (1968) called the flight from tenderness, have all contributed to its scientific neglect. The foundation for investigation, however, was laid with Conversión cerreres restructions de la construcción de la

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the advent of the psychoanalytic tradition with the emphasis on the mother-child relationship, and especially those social scientists explasizing depth within interpersonal relationships. thus facilitating the eventual exploration and understanding of such phenomena as intimacy or love. The theories promoted primarily by Erikson (1963) and Sullivan (1953) proclaim the importance of intimacy (with friends and spouses) as a vital developmental stage. When this stage is unfulfilled, it presumably leads to devastating forms of maladaptation. Unfortunately, neither Erikson's nor Sullivan's theory defined intimacy succinctly enough to allow for a clear categorization or operationalization of the important components. To achieve this definition along with a greater understanding of intimacy, one has to study the process by which people attain interpersonal depth or closeness. This process of intimacy appears to progress from a superficial to a greater depth and breadth of interaction, implying that such interaction involves qualitativaly different dimensions. Therefore, Chapter II will define intimacy both for friends and spouses and determine what constitutes depth in order to test the hypotheses concerning the relationship between intimacy and adaptation throughout the adult life.

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Hypotheses

This dissertation seeks to increase an understanding of the relationship between interpersonal intimacy and adaptation to stress throughout the adult life. Intimacy was defined and considered within each hypothesis in two ways: (a) closest friend, (b) spouse. In order to focus the research, the following hypotheses were investigated:

- I. There is a significant positive correlation between adaptation and level of intimacy.
- II. The level of intimacy is more strongly associated with adaptation among older adults than younger adults.
- III. The correlation between adult life stress and adaptation differs significantly for varying levels of intimacy.
- IV. The effect of the level of intimacy on the correlation between adult life stress and adaptation is greater for older adults than younger adults.

In order to test the above four hypotheses (the fourth hypothesis being the major focus), the qualitative dimensions and levels of intimacy for adult men and women must be defined. Chapter II focuses on the development of a conceptual and operational definition of intimacy. These definitions were established by considering the parameters, by support through the existing literature, and by determining the criteria for deeper levels of intimacy.

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CHAPTER II

INTIMACY DEFINED: CONCEPTUAL AND OPERATIONAL METHODS

Introduction

The preceding review has demonstrated the potential contribution of intimacy to adaptation throughout adult life. In this chapter, a definition of the concept is provided, along with a way to operationalize it. In order to accomplish the defining task, it is not only important to consider the various conceptual approaches represented in the literature, but also to describe the step-by-step process that this investigator has taken to assess the important and relevant variables contained within intimate relationships as assessed by certain segments of our society. This chapter defines interpersonal intimacy by identifying the important dimensions of intimacy and levels of intimacy through a jurtaposition of the conceptual and operational methods employed.

Friendship, Love and Intimacy

In the preceding chapter, intimacy was provisionally defined as a physical and emotional closeness between two persons. The word itself, however, is derived from two Latin words meaning "to make known" and "innermost." The focus in this study goes beyond

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familiarity with the public self, or persona of another, as well as their more superficial social relations, and emphasizes the subjectively appraised qualities that are involved in sustained close relationships. These close relationships involve individuals who occasionally share or reveal their "innermost" selves to each other. Most typically, this process is found in either same-sexed friendship or heterosexual love relationships involving spouses and/or lovers.¹ In order to define intimacy, therefore, its association to such phenomena as friendship and love must be clarified with respect to the accompanying feelings, thoughts, and behavioral predisposition of individuals in such relationships.

Clearly, as stated earlier, there are levels of relatedness that are contingent upon depth and which cross-cut various role relationships. At a most basic level, Marwell and Hage (1970) rated and factor analyzed 100 different dyadic role relations and found that the factor of intimacy or emotional closeness cross-cut all these relations. Levinger and Snoek (1972) also abstracted a single factor of interpersonal relatedness that approximates this dimension of intimacy, proceeding from more surface contact to a deep sense of mutuality. Dahms' (1972) concept of intimacy also

¹ This investigator acknowledges that there is no theoretical reason why friendship must be the same-sex or lovers/spouses the opposite-sex. This research, however, will confine itself to the most common and prototypical cases: same-sex friends and opposite-sex lovers/spouses.

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involves a level approach, but one proposing three interrelated domains: intellectual, physical, and emotional. He states that all three are necessary components of intimacy, but that they coexist in a hierarchical structure predicted upon development: individuals first develop intellectual intimacy, then progress to the physical realm, and eventually to a higher emotional level. The concern of this research is not whether such progression occurs, or whether intimacy exists in different role relationships, but rather to identify the important dimensions of intimacy with special attention to those distinguishing dimensions which constitute greater depth or higher levels.

The dimensions of interpersonal intimacy were developed in a series of preliminary studies. The first preliminary study consisted of the empirical generation of 26 potentially important dimensions for both same and opposite sex relationships. The second preliminary study consisted of the pre-testing and formulation of an intimacy instrument, the Weiss' Intimacy Ranking (WIR); 16 independent dimensions established by this second preliminary study define the parameters of intimacy. Each of these dimensions is clarified and supported by the research literature. The final preliminary study consisted of establishing an intimacy criterion by the determination of what constitutes higher levels of intimacy. (1) الأعراق الذي الأولى المعادلين بالمعادلين والعادي المعادل المعاد المع معاد المعاد الم المعاد الم المعاد الم المعاد المعا معاد المعاد المعاد ا

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Generation of Important Dimensions

The first step in empirically generating and pooling the important dimensions of intimacy systematically occurred through the analysis of open-ended questions concerning the perception of important dimensions within friendships. These questions consisted of a description of the respondent's three closest friends, a statement as to why they were important to the respondent, and a more abstract question dealing with what makes a person a close friend. These questions were administered in an interview format during 1968-69 to a non-normative sample drawn from the Haman Development and Aging Research Program's Longitudinal Study of Transitions at the University of California, San Francisco. The sample consisted of 216 urban men and women, mainly white, middle and lower-middle class, and ranged in age from 16 to 67. A more detailed description of the sample and procedures used can be found in Weiss and Lowenthal (1975). The respondents' detailed descriptions were then content-analyzed into 16 dimensions, which are listed in Table 1.

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TABLE 1

Dimensions Generated from Friendship Study

1. Similar general behaviors, personalities, or likes

(e.g. similar ways of thinking; we are just alike; common goals; have things in common; same things are important; likes same things; enjoy same things/outlook; think same things; same feelings)

2. Similar or common interests, ideas, values, beliefs, and attitudes

(e.g. share interests and ideas; we have common attitudes; same opinions; agreement of ideas; similar values)

3. Shared experiences (past focus)

(e.g. same experiences; did things together; shared a lot; we've been through a lot together; we grew up together; same background; we've been in fights together)

4. Sharing of activities (present/future focus of engaging in; active)

(e.g. we do the same things; we work together; drinking companions; we play golf together; we like the same activities; we enjoy doing the same things; we socialize together)

5. Verbal communication (talking to or with)

(e.g. we talk to each other; she listens to me; communicate well together; we can argue with each other; we have good conversations; easy to talk to)

6. Trustworthy

(e.g. trusting; being level; don't criticize each other)

7. Confidant

(e.g. talk problems with; confide in; say anything to; talk to seriously; not withholding anything; discuss things openly; mutual sharing of one's inner life; sharing problems with each other)

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TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)

8. Supportive or Dependable

(e.g. helps me; depend on, if needed; they'd do anything for me; he's willing to help me; we do things for each other; she gives to me; he supports me; she cares about me; he's concerned; he is considerate or thoughtful; she represented stability)

9. Understanding, Accepting, or Empathic

(e.g. understands me; able to empathize; sympathetic ear; she is accepting; knowledge of one another; able to be up and down with; compassionate; truthful; accommodating; rapport; a bond)

10. Fun (active enjoyment or entertainment)

(e.g. I have fan with her; I enjoy his company; we play with each other; enjoyable to be with)

11. Likable, Comfortable, or Compatible

(e.g. I feel at ease with him; I like to be with him; he is nice to be with; we get along well; I can be free with him; he makes me feel good; she is pleasant to be with; we appreciate each other; he is a good companion; she's companionship; I feel casual around him; our families get along; I don't get bored or tired with him; we never fight with each other)

12. Duration (length or time known)

(e.g. I have known him a long time; we have been friends since childcod; we have been friends a long time; I have known her for 5 years (or greater) or since...; constancy)

13. Preximity or Convenience (Code only in why important)

(e.g. we see each other frequently; he lives close by; I see him all the time; we spend a lot of time together; we're neighbors)

14. Respecting

(e.g. I respect him, she values me; I idolize him; he impresses me; I look up to him)

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TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)

15. Learning or Advice

(e.g. he taught me a lot; she gives me advice; I can learn from him)

16. Instrumental or Useful

(e.g. he provides social contacts; she has different ideas or experiences)

Since, in contrast to the previous research, the present research incorporated heterosexual love relationships as well as friendships, a necessary second step in generating important intimacy dimensions was to include any that might be exclusively applicable to an oppositesex love situation. This expansion of the list of potentially important dimensions included three that were not reported for same-sex friendships: provides sexual satisfaction, is physically attractive, and excites passion ate feelings (or we feel a strong emotional attraction for each other). The rationale for including these dimensions may be found in the next major section of this chapter, "Dimensions of Interpersonal Intimacy."

In addition, a few other items were conceived and thought applicable to intimacy by a multi-disciplinary team of social scientists. Four social scientists were asked to review the list of possible dimensions. On the basis of their responses, five items were added: "Is the same age"; "Is the same sex"; "Has a complementary personality"; "Has a similar educational, religious,

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or ethnic background"; and "Would help me out in a crisis." No items were omitted from the original list, but a few were considered to be too encompassing and separated accordingly. For example, similar interests was parceled out from similar attitudes, ideas, beliefs, etc., and dimension #11 (Table 1) was also separated into two statements: "Likes me" and "Is comfortable and easy to be with." These procedures yielded 26 potentially important intimacy dimensions (Table 2).

TABLE 2

POTENTIALLY IMPORTANT INTIMACY DIMENSIONS

		Table 1 Item Reference
1.	Has a similar personality	1
2.	Has similar attitudes (ideas, values, beliefs, morals, ethics)	2
3.	Has a similar educational, religious, or ethnic background	New
ц.	Is about the same age	New
5.	Is the same sex	New
6.	Shares activities with me	4
7.	Likes me	11
8.	Is dependable and trustworthy	6 and 8
9.	Is supportive and accepting	8 and 9
10.	Is easy to talk to	5

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TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)

		Table 2 <u>Item Reference</u>
11.	I respect him or her	14
12.	We have known each other for a long time	12
13.	We live near each other	13
14.	Is physically attractive	New
15.	Would help me out in a crisis	New
16.	Is enjoyable, entertaining company	10
17.	Has a complementary personality	New
18.	Has similar interests	2
19.	Has shared past experiences with me	3
20.	Knows me well	9
21.	Provides sexual satisfaction	New
22.	Excites passionate feelings	New
23.	Does something very well	15
24.	Is comfortable and easy to be with	11
25.	Is useful to me	16
26.	Is someone I can confide in	7

Pre-Testing and Formulation of Intimacy Instrument:

WIR (Weiss' Intimacy Ranking)

The intimacy statements shown in Table 2 were next pre-tested on a small convenience sample (preliminary study 2) in order to determine the degree of intercorrelation among dimensions,

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and their importance in close significant relationships. This substudy also functioned to reduce the number of intimacy dimensions to a manageable amount. The pre-test consisted of 26 respondents who sorted the 26 intimacy statements in order of their importance, with reference to their closest significant other (either same or opposite-sex relationship). The sample consisted of 6 men and 20 women, mainly colleagues and associates of this investigator, ranging in age from 20 to 65. The sample was one of convenience with no pretensions of achieving randomness or representativeness. The method of data collection consisted of rank ordering the 26 dimensions (ranging from high = 1 to low = 26) according to their perceived importance by each respondent. The method of data analysis consisted of obtaining the sums of the mean ranks given each dimension by the 26 individuals. The intercorrelations among these rankings were examined using the Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient. Appendix I contains the resulting intercorrelation matrix for all 26 items.

The results indicated that there were only two groupings of three essentially equivalent items with substantial intercorrelations. For each group, one representative was selected on the basis of its high average rank and low variance across respondents. For example, item #20 (Table 2) "Knows me well" replaced Item #12 "We have known each other for a long time," and item #19 "Has shared past experiences with me." In addition, item #6 "Shares activities with me" . .

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replaced item #2 "Has a similar educational, religious, or ethnic background," and item #25 "Is useful to me." The remaining items were then subjected to criteria designed to eliminate those items thought to be relatively non-significant within an intimate relationship. Those statements that nearly everyone placed at the bottom of the ranks (24 or less) or those which no one considered as very important (higher than 5) were consequently eliminated from the list. The following items were eliminated from Table 2 accordingly:

Item #4	-	Is about the same age
Item #5	-	Is the same sex
Item #10	- (Is easy to talk to
I tem #13	-	We live near each other
Item #23	-	Does something very well

Finally, item #1 "Has a similar personality" was combined with item #17 "Has complementary personality." Even though each item originated from apparently opposing theoretical perspectives, neither seemed to carry enough weight to obtain a high average rank. Therefore, both were combined to tap a greater proportion of the variance, since they represented alternatives to the same dimension -- personality.²

² In the final analysis, only a portion of WIR's 16 dimensions were utilized for determining a higher level of intimacy. This dimension, "Has a similar or complementary personality," was not included.

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The sixteen items that remained had very few high intercorrelations, signifying that probably no pair of items tapped the same dimension. Since trivial or irrelevant items had been excluded by elimination of those statements which did not have at least some high ranks, the remaining statements were designated as the parameters of interpersonal intimacy. The sixteen dimensions are listed randomly in Table 3. These dimensions of intimacy provde the content for the measuring instrument used in this research, WIR. The validity and reliability of this instrument will be discussed in Chapter III, Methods.

TABLE 3

WIR

(Weiss' Intimacy Rankings)

- 1. Has a similar or complementary personality
- 2. Has similar interests
- 3. Has similar attitudes (ideas, values, beliefs, morals, ethics)
- 4. Shares activities with me
- 5. Likes me
- 6. Is comfortable and easy to be with
- 7. Is enjoyable, entertaining company
- 8. Knows me well
- 9. I respect him or her
- 10. Is supportive and accepting
- 11. Is dependable and trustworthy
- 12. Would help me out in a crisis

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TABLE 3 (CONTINUED)

- 13. Is someone I can confide in
- 14. Is physically attractive
- 15. Provides sexual satisfaction
- 16. We feel a strong emotional attraction for each other

Since the parameters of intimacy were primarily formed through an open-ended, inductive method, corroboration of these dimensions through conceptual definition and clarification seemed necessary. This clarification was achieved by defining and supporting each of the 16 dimensions through the existing research literature.

Dimensions of Interpersonal Intimacy

The sixteen dimensions which make up WIR are listed in Table 3 and each one reviewed here, in order to provide some conceptual support and understanding to intimacy and its multi-dimensional definition.

Dimension 7: Has a Similar or Complementary Personality

The concept of similarity has stimulated the greatest amount of research. Several types of similarity have been investigated, including interests (refer to Dimension #2), attitudes (refer to Dimension #3), and the sharing of activities (refer to Dimension #4).

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This first dimension, similarity (or complementary) of personality has probably received the most experimental attention. For example, during the 1940's, Reader and English (1947) found that friends' personalities had a significantly higher positive correlation to one another than non-friends' personalities. They explained this finding by the existence of strong narcissistic tendencies which lead an "individual to love in another person that which he sees in himself" (p. 216) and likes. More recently, Izard (1960) also found significant correlations in personality profiles of liked others (friends) as opposed to disliked others among college freshmen. In 1963, Izard was unable to replicate this finding with an older sample of college seniors. He attributed the difference to an increase in maturity, warranting a decrease in the necessity to see similar personality traits in friends. However, Dymond (1954) and, more recently, Cattell and Nesselroade (1967) have provided support that emphasizes the importance of similar personalities among happily married spouses.

On the other hand, several other investigators (e.g. Bonney, 1952; Hoffman, 1958; Miller, Campbell, Twedt, and O'Connell, 1966; Byrne, Griffitt, and Stefaniak, 1967) have concluded that personality similarity is not a sufficient condition for attraction to take place. In addition, if a particular personality characteristic was dialiked within oneself but recognized as being similar within another, it would not facilitate attraction. Therefore, whether friends or spouses are selected or bonded on the basis of personality

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is in doubt. In fact, Maslow (1950) emphasizes that healthy, selfactualized people only need similarity in basic traits (e.g. honesty or sincerity), while they otherwise seek differences more than average people. Winch (1958) proposed that the important factor influencing marital choice was personality dissimilarity or need complementary. In other words, Winch claims that individuals seek marital partners who possess the very qualities which they themselves lack, such that each complements the other. For example, those persons who were high on dominance would tend to choose marital partners who were low on dominance or high on submissiveness, and vice versa. Winch's theory of complementary personality needs sparked debate on whether similarity or complementary is a primary component of intimacy, whether similarity and complementary are incompatible, in addition to other conceptual and methodological problems (Rychlak, 1965; Miller et al., 1966; Wright, 1965, 1968). Unfortunately, most of the research that has been attempted to replicate Winch's original data has failed to support his findings (e.g. Bowerman and Day, 1956; Banta and Hetherington, 1963; Schellenberg and Bee, 1960; and Becker. 1964). Due to the wealth of negative findings and a refocusing on semantic rather than empirical issues, the controversy over whether personality similarity or complementarity is more important has been somewhat resolved by recognizing that an either/or position is too restrictive and incorporating both into a single design (Tharp, 1963; Levinger,

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1964; and Wright, 1968). As early as 1957, Rosow pointed out the restrictiveness of an either/or position and that, in fact, it was incompatible with the facts. Rosow (1957) claimed that personality needs were dealt with too discretely and independently, that a global or holistic approach (cf. Ktsanes [1955] or Roos [1956]) would yield more favorable results; and indeed, that both similarity and dissimilarity were manifest across any range of intimate happy couples. A promising explanation as discussed in Chapter I, which originally was suggested by Maslow (1950) and advocated by Kerchkoff and Davis (1962), Murstein (1961), Levinger (1964), and Duck (1973), suggested that filtering factors or levels of relatedness need to be taken into consideration in friend and spouse relationships. That is, the importance of similar or complementary personalities may vary at different stages or levels of a relationship. Perhaps there are basic personality similarities without which intimacy could not develop and a subsequent appreciation of differences or complementary fit which follows.

Dimension 2: Has Similar Interests

The second dimension of interpersonal intimacy, "Has similar interests," is not as widely researched as similar or complementary personalities. One study which gives some support to the inclusion of similar interests as an important dimension among friends was conducted by Miller, Campbell, Twedt, and O'Connell (1966).

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In this investigation, the authors found that a variety of dimensions emphasizing similarity were important. Among these dimensions, was similar interests. One of the main findings by Miller et al. (1966) was that perceived similar reputations of friendship pairs was caused by the generalizability of a variety of other similar dimensions found to exist among the pairs, including similar interests.

The realm of everyday personal experiences supports the concept of similar or common interests as a facilitator of interpersonal relationships. It would seem reasonable to assume that if two people discovered that they shared some particular interest (e.g. in art history), that in itself would tend to increase the desire for continued interaction. This continued interaction would lead to an increase in knowledge and other shared common interests, which would in turn facilitate liking or attraction for each other, unless, of course, the interaction revealed increasingly dissimilar interests. Also, it is generally recognized that communication within a dyadic relationship is important, and having a common interest in and personal concern for particular topics of conversation would facilitate communication. Thus, the inclusion of the "similar interests" dimension seems important in conceptualizing interpersonal intimacy for it may shed some light on the actual distinctions in types of similarity needed.

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Dimension 3: Has Similar Attitudes

The dimension of similar attitudes incorporates similar ideas, values, beliefs, morals, and ethics. Probably the most observable and frequently explored dimension of interpersonal intimacy has been linked to the expression of similar (as opposed to dissimilar) attitudes. Similar attitudes about such topics as religion, politics or morals have been associated with positive feelings and interpersonal attraction. A great deal of research, generated from a variety of theoretical perspectives, has been stimulated from this attitude similarity-attraction proposition. Only a brief review will appear here in order to give some justification to attitude similarity as an important, relevant dimension of intimacy.

Some of the first work done on assessing the degree of association between similar attitudes and attraction between friends and spouses occurred in the 1930's. Newcomb and Svehla (1937) and Schooley (1936) found that spouses' attitudes on such topics as economics, politics, religion, birth control, war, and other issues, were positively cerrelated with one another. Winslew (1937) found that friends also held similar attitudes on a variety of issues. Whether, in fact, these similar attitudes existed before the relationship and therefore helped in its formation, or whether similar attitudes resulted from centimed interaction is epen to further question. .

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More recently, evidence provided by such divergent researchers as Newcomb (1961) and Byrne and Associates (1971) has established that attitudinal similarity produces liking or interpersonal attraction. Newcomb's (1961) approach was to examine the development of friendships over time, and he found that attraction is indeed predictable from actual attitudinal aggreement. On the other hand, Byrne and his associates! (1971) approach was onlite different, but with the same results. They emphasized an experimental methodology in a laboratory setting with "bogus-strangers," (an expose of strangers on paper controlled by experimentor). Byrne and Nelson (1965) compared the effect upon attraction of the proportion of similar attitudes expressed by a stranger with the total mumber of attitudes emmessed. The results indicated that interpersonal attraction is a positive linear function of the proportion of attitude statements attributed to an individual which are in agreement with the attitudes of the subject (also refer to Byrne and Clore, 1966; Byrne and Griffitt, 1966). There is no question that Byrne and his various associates have demonstrated the strong influence of similar attitudes on attraction within the confines of their "begus-stranger" paradigm. They are aware of the limitations that the laboratory setting presents, however, because in their own words, "whether the determinants of first impressions (due to limited time span) are precisely the same as the determinants of a prolonged friendship, of love, or of marital happiness is an

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empirical question and one requiring a great deal of research" (Byrne, Ervin, and Lamberth, 1970:158). Therefore, the strength of the association between similar attitudes and attraction may vary according to the type and length of interpersonal relationship being considered.

A few examples of investigations described in Chapter I that incorporate complexities such as the type and length of relationship into the design are Kerchkoff and Davis' (1962) filtering theories; Marstein's (1971) stimulus-value-role theory of marital choice; Levinger and Snoek's (1972) theory of levels of relationship; and Duck's (1973) theory of friendship formation. All of these approaches consider similarity, particularly similar attitudes, to be important in developing interpersonal relationships. The point or stage at which similar attitudes are most important varies with the different theories, but generally are considered more important at beginning or intermediate levels of intimacy than at later ones. In any case, similar attitudes play a significant role in the process of developing intimacy and are an essential dimension for exploration.

Dimension 4: Shares Activities with Me

A fourth dimension of intimacy, "Shares activities with me," is also related to the concept of similarity. Instead of focusing on the more global aspect of personalities, the more cognitive aspect of interests, or the affective components of attitudes,

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values. and beliefs. this dimension relates to the behavioral aspects of similarity. In this investigator's early work, shared behavioral experience was found to be the most frequently reported dimension in response to open-ended questions about the important qualities of close friends (Weiss and Lowenthal, 1975). Such commonalities of behavioral experience seem to solidify the bond between people, particularly when the relationship is formed during extremely stressful periods such as bomb crews during war (Rubin, 1973). Not only do shared past experiences provide a history for the relationship in which the participants can reminisce. but they also reflect a common vantage point from which to view one's present world. In other words, since an individual's perceptions are basically formed by his experiences, the more he shares that past with another, the more he perceives the other as "like him." This shared sense of reality, in turn, provides a means for self-validation (Sullivan, 1953), which is vital to growth and development.

In addition to the focus on past shared experience, this dimension also incorporates present activity sharing as well. Voluntary participation in activities with others not only reflects similar likes, but doing things together also increases the frequency of interaction and amount of exposure to the other, thus facilitating an increase in shared knowledge of one another and the development of more intimate behaviors. On the other hand,

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sharing activities may alienate, instead of solidify, along the lines of familiarity breeding contempt. However, Zajonc (1968) provides evidence that "mere repeated exposure" enhances positive attitudes towards the other. Some additional support for this principle of familiarity and its contribution to liking comes from Homan's (1961) theory of interpersonal exchange. Homans explains, "If they interact at all, they emit activities to one another;chances are that each one will find some of the other's activities valuable, ... And to this extent, each is apt to express favorable sentiment toward the other.... (1961:183-184). The proposition that shared activities lead to positive sentiments ignores the possibility of the other's activities being irritating or annoying which would in fact produce avoidance. However, if the activities are voluntary, then more pleasant activities are pursued and the reinforcing of plesant sharing persists (Rosow, 1977, personal communication). Therefore, the sharing of voluntary activities and their perceived value appears to generate attraction for the participants, encouraging a closer, more intimate relationship.

While both past and present shared experiences are important aspects within relationships, yet another important component is to have some commitment to future interaction. A very simple and concrete method for achieving such a commitment is to plan the sharing of activities. This futuristic perspective on relationships, opens up whole new horizons that easily lend themselves to the justification of commitment and an increase in intimacy. For example,

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Darley and Berscheid (1967) found that even without any intimate face-to-face contact, the anticipation of a shared experience is enough to increase liking of another. By planning similar activities and sharing in those, the implied operating principle is one of "self-attribution" (Bem, 1972). Self-attribution means that people's attitudes or attraction towards others are often shaped by their perception of their own actions. In other words, if two people plan activities and partake in the sharing of those activities, then in order to justify their actions, time, and energy spent together, they attribute them to an underlying feeling state, such as liking or loving. This, in turn, lends to an increase in commitment towards the relationship, which recycles back into an increased desire for sharing activities and spending more time together.

One last common sense aspect of "shared activities" that needs some elaboration is that the kinds of activities shared generally vary with age. That is, the sharing of, or interest in, specific activities usually changes from one developmental stage to another. For example, the desire to engage in 'cowboys and indians' generally declines between childhood and adulthood. So normally, by the age of 20 this particular activity is not likely to serve as a basis for forming or continuing attachments, no matter how important it may have been at age 5. Consequently, when one associates with others who share similar activities, other variables of similarity such as developmental stage or age, could become juxtaposed. This A sector and the sector of the sect

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relationship between variables of similarity and the dimension of "shares activities with me" may have important implications for intimate relationships.

Dimension 5: Likes Me

As noted in the previous four dimensions, similarity is an important determinant in interpersonal attraction among acquaintances, and to some degree, friends and spouses. Aronson and Worchel (1966) argue, however, that similarity is an important determinant in attraction because an individual interprets various similarities as reflecting liking for him. Their results, in fact, support the argument that "reciprocity-of-liking" has a significant effect on attraction, whereas attitudinal similarity has no effect. Byrne and Griffitt (1966) replicated the above study, and found that both liking and similarity are determinants, but liking is still the most powerful determinant of the two. McLaughlin (1970), Stalling (1970), and Murstein and Lamb (1971) also provide additional support for the importance of liking (or likeability) as a determinant of attraction. This knowledge or perception that another person "likes me" is rewarding and seems to have a reciprocal effect, producing liking and attraction for the other. Since this perceived or expressed affection from others produces liking, a cyclical trend towards increased intimacy would result, therefore, making this dimension extremely important in higher levels of intimacy.

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From a more theoretical perspective, the role that liking and esteem from others play are obviously quite valuable and rewarding. Since one likes those people who reward him (Homans, 1961), it follows that one should like people who like him or her (Berscheid and Walster, 1969). An investigation conducted by Backman and Secord (1959) has provided some evidence to support this. The frequency of this kind of evidence has facilitated the development of reciprocity-of-liking to be cited as not only necessary, but a basic principle of human behavior that does not need testing (Ossorio and Davis, 1966). This investigator accepts the importance of reciprocal liking and recognizes the need for further research to clarify the role of reciprocity in closer, more intimate relationships.

Berscheid and Walster (1969) elaborate on some conditions of reciprocal liking. For example, they concluded that esteem and liking are much more effective in producing reciprocal liking when they are congruent with the person's own evaluation of self or ideal self. In addition, the motive behind the expression of esteem, or the degree of ingratiation, has to be taken into consideration for reciprocity to occur (Jones, 1964). For example, the grounds for receiving and reciprocating esteem should not be patently false or else the motive (or ulterior motive) would be questioned, accuracy doubted, and expression of esteem rejected.

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The sequence of the expression of esteem or liking for another also affects the degree of reciprocity. In fact, Aronson and Linder (1965) found that the gain of esteem from others is more of a determinant of reciprocity than the absolute level of expressed esteem. Such conditions raise many questions as to the importance or complexity of the role of esteem, or liking for others in intimate relationships. Therefore, an investigation exploring this role, as it compares to other determining dimensions, seems quite appropriate.

This dimension, "likes me," may denote a component of reciprocity and certainly one of positive evaluation and affection. To experience affection from someone, is to experience an emotional warmth and closeness needed in intimate relationships. Unfortunately, the concept of liking is very complex, denoting different meanings for different people at different times. This complexity makes the dimension difficult to define succinctly. Instead, this investigator has chosen to accept this dimension as reflecting the general presence of reciprocal affection within the specific relationships being explored.

Dimension 6: Is Comfortable and Easy to be With

The next dimension of intimacy emphasizes the comfort and ease within the relationship. To be comfortable with someone is to have a companion in which the social masks are not needed. To be more at ease, that is, less gaarded and less angious, with a > end of the set of the set

 particular person implies an openness and spontaneity that lets one really be oneself without social airs or inhibitions. The degree of comfort one experiences with another is then an indicator of the anount of quiet presence and compatibility existent within the relationship. The development of such a dimension within a relationship would seemingly have to occur over a period of time and involve different types or areas of compatibility. Schutz (1958) describes and provides some support for three distinct areas of compatibility: affection, control, and inclusion. If an individual's expressed needs in the areas of affection, control, and inclusion are in alignment with those of his intimate other, then the degree of comfort or ease in the relationship would appear to be high. While this sixth dimension does not single out the above three specific areas of compatibility, it does incorporate them and attempts to acknowledge "comfort and ease" as being on a continuum of perceived importance for various intimate relationships.

Since the intensity and demanding nature of relationships vary, those relationships that are easy and relaxed may function as a refuge and relief from other intense, more anxiety producing ones, as well as other anxious situations. For example, social mythology has often caricatured male friends as seeking each other's company on a regular basis as a respite from their more intense and demanding relationships with females. This less intense or demanding kind of relationship may enable friends to be more socially at ease and free from worry, doubt, and fear.

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This comfortable dimension in a relationship does not necessarily make it more intimate. However, comfort and ease may be an important aspect of an intimate relationship, expressing the freedom to put one's feet up, lean back, and be contented with the sheer presence of another human being and with oneself. The concept of comfort connotes a relieving, soothing, and encouraging process that exists in an empathic setting.

In short, to be comfortable and easy to be with, stresses the absence of vexations, worrisome, irritating, or painful matters, while at the same time indicating a pleasant, relaxed, warm, contented feeling within the relationship. Unfortunately, to this investigator's knowledge, there is no research which deals directly with assessing the degree of importance that this dimension of comfort and ease occupies within intimate relationships. Since different relationships contain different degrees of ease and comfort, the present investigation will begin to examine this dimension as it contributes to closer, more intimate relationships.

Dimension 7: Is Enjoyable, Entertaining Company

The seventh dimension of interpersonal intimacy, "is enjoyable, entertaining company" also reflects a source of pleasure and satisfaction, as does the previous dimension of comfort and ease. To be enjoyable or entertaining, however, emphasizes the <u>active</u> diversion toward pleasure, while comfort and ease emphasizes the pleasurable feeling state of a relaxed atmosphere.

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To have an enjoyable or entertaining relationship with a friend or spouse seems part and parcel of the establishment and maintenance of intimacy within that relationship. Framme (1973) claims that as enjoyment becomes more habitual, so does love and that this is how we come to love with greater pleasure, constancy, and depth. In consideration of this statement, the dimension would seem to increase in value through experience and over time, resulting in greater degrees of intimacy. On the other hand, actively enjoying one's company or diversionary amasement as a means to increase personal pleasure within the relationship might be more important at earlier stages of interpersonal intimacy such as the beginnings of an acquaintance. To actively have fun with a companion undeniably contributes to the creation and continuation of satisfaction within the relationship. To what degree, however, this enjoyment is an assumed condition or a significantly important contributing factor to close, intimate relationships needs to be explored.

Dimension 8: Knows Me Well

The eighth dimension, "knows me well," is a direct offshoot from the literal Latin meaning of intimacy, "to make known." To know or be able to recognize the qualities of another person seems an essential component of an intimate relationship. Friedell (1969) clarifies this concept by suggesting that merely knowing something about someone is quite different than having shared knowledge of

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one another. He emphasizes that shared knowledge goes beyond knowing another's attitudes or beliefs, and rather implies a mutual or reciprocal process that enables the development of joint views, goals, and decisions. Methodologically, Friedell (1969), even suggested counting the number of items of information held in common by the participants in order to measure the degree of intimacy. Such measurement is not the domain of this research since only a unidirectional perception of an intimate other will be considered, not a transactional assessment between intimates.

Also in support of the "knows me well" dimension, Jourard (1964) claims that when we are not know by others we tend to lose our "real" selves, a major contributor to various forms of illness. The process by which one becomes known by another is what Jourard terms "self-disclosure." Such self-disclosure is significantly greater in close, intimate relationships (Jourard, 1964). Furthermore, a reciprocity effect, in which those dyads moving toward greater intimacy tend to do so through increasing degrees of reciprocal self-disclosure (Taylor, 1968; Taylor, Altman, and Sorrentino, 1969), has also been observed. Levinger and Snoek (1972) point out that different items of sharable knowledge refer to different levels of personal significance or intimacy of disclosure. Their conceptual model is similar to social penetration theory (Altman and Taylor, 1973), which in turn, drew upon Lewin's (1964) field theory. Essentially, these conceptual approaches propose a series of concentric circles symbolizing a progression from peripheral,

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unimportant items of disclosure to centrally held, emotionally vital items of disclosure. This progression from surface to depth in items of disclosure, or sharable knowledge, reflects the level of intimacy between the pair. Knowledge of another through selfdisclosure, therefore, seems to have importance in the progression of intimacy. The extent of its importance is a concern of this research.

Dimension 9: I Respect Him/Her

The minth dimension included as a variable of interpersonal intimacy is "I respect him/her." This dimension may be defined as having a high or special regard for another person in terms of the qualities which he upholds. To respect someone is to express esteem or honor towards him. Several investigators have selectedout respect as an independent dimension of attraction (see e.g. Mettee and Aronson, 1974; Mettee, Hrelec and Wilkins, 1971; Bales, 1958; Kiesler and Goldberg, 1968; or Tedeschi, 1974) as well as a fundamental or necessary dimension of liking (Rubin, 1973). For example, Rubin states that "we like people who are intelligent, competent, and successful. These are the people who we are disposed to work with and to vote for. This aspect of liking corresponds to ... respect" (1973:215). He elaborates further on the concept of respect by incorporating it, along with affection, as the two fundamental, coexisting dimensions of liking (but not loving).

Most people, Rubin (1973) claims, receive differently weighted combinations of the two types of liking, such as much respect but little affection, or middling amounts of both. The exact importance that respect plays in closer, more intimate relationships and to the degree to which it may be negatively associated with affection remains to be seen.

Hattis (1965) and Driscoll, Davis, and Lipitz (1972), found that respect was an integral part of conjugal heterosexual love relationships. While this finding supports the existence of respect as a dimension in intimate relationships, the degree of importance respect may have necessitates further investigation. Especially in light of traditional sex-role stereotyping, with women as the socio-emotional experts and men as the instrumental. task-specialists (Parsons and Bales, 1955), the impact that sex role differences might have on respect in various intimate relationships is worthy of exploration. In addition, life stage or age differences have to be taken into consideration when evaluating the influence of sex-roles on intimate relationships. Neugarten and Gutmann (1964) reported that there are sex-role shifts from middle to old age. The women within their study reported a shift from interpersonal styles of commitment to mastery, whereas the opposite was true for the men. More recently, Lowenthal, Thurnher, Chiriboga, and Associates (1975) revealed dramatic sex differences in mastery among woman from passive to active (supporting Neugarten and Gutmann, 1964), but the opposite was not true for the men.

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In fact, Lowenthal (1975; 1977) elaborated on the concept of commitments and reported that each sex expressed a felt need for a strengthening of commitment (not just mastery) in an area other than the one to which their normative sex-roles had bound them. Respect, therefore, may shift in importance for men and women differently with advancing age. Without taking age into consideration, Reiss (1960) provided some support for these sex differences when he found that 70 percent of the women in his study considered it very important to have a loved one whom they could respect or look up to, while only 22 percent of the men felt respect to be very important. Therefore, any analysis of intimacy must examine the possible impact of sex differences on the value of respect in various intimate relationships, its relationship to affection (as measured by dimension #6), and any differences that might result from a change in commitments with advancing age.

Dimension 10: Is Supportive and Accepting

To be supportive and accepting in interpersonal relationships implies a maintenance function which serves to sustain the strength and condition of another or provide a basis for the nourishment and sustenance of the other. The literal meaning of supportive is "to hold up" or "bear the weight or stress of another," symbolically reflected in the giving of one's arm to another. Accepting means that one is received favorably, regarded as suitable,

acknowledged, or recognized as appropriate by another. Interpersonally, accepting may imply an approval of the other, in which the belief in and understanding of the other's desires and needs are central to the relationship. This dimension, therefore, incorporates a variety of apparently important functions, both on a physical and an emotional level, that seem essential to close, intimate relationships.

The importance of support and acceptance within intimacy is stressed by Maslow in his description of love. Maslow (1954; 1970) describes two different kinds of love: Deficiency-Love, which is needful, dependent, and more concerned with the passionate desire to possess; and Being-Love, which is characterized by autonomy, respect, admiration, caring, and an acceptance of the other person without any need to change him. This latter type of love is conceived by Maslow as being present among the more "self-actualized" lovers, in which the dimensions of acceptance and giving support are essential for this intimate relationship. More recently, Hattis (1965) and Driscoll, Davis, and Lipitz (1972) found that a more "conjugal" relationship involving mutual trust, respect, and acceptance existed more frequently in longer-term relations. In addition, Swensen and Gilner (1964) found that "verbal support" (both emotional and moral) is an important factor in the experiencing and expression of love throughout the life cycle. Therefore, not only does Maslow (1970:1954) provide support for the importance of

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this dimension in love relationships among more "actualized" types of people, but some additional research evidence is provided by such investigators as Hattis (1965) or Swensen and Gilner (1964), demonstrating the existence of support and acceptance as an important dimension in close intimate relationships.

Support and acceptance appear not only to be an important dimension, but crucial to psycho-social adaptation. Spitz' (1945) classic work with infants dramatically demonstrated the impact that insufficient support and nurturance have on increased susceptibility to disease and infant mortality. Such types of abnormalities have also been associated with lack of support in adulthood. For example, Van Heijningen (1966) has clinically observed that the beginning of coronary disease is frequently preceded by the rejection of a loved one. Worse, the death of a supporting spouse resulted in a 40% increase in subsequent death rate for widowers than their married peers within the first year after their spouse's death (Parkes, Benjamin and Fitzgerald, 1969). These findings indicate that the lack or loss of a significant other as a source of support may have an overwhelming and detrimental effect.

In addition, Robertson and Swinn (1968) provide further documentation for the importance of support and acceptance in adaptation to stress. They found a significant association between stroke patients' rate of recovery or rehabilitation and the amount of mutual understanding or empathy present within their family systems. The implications of such research can be summed in the .

following statement: The greater the degree of support and acceptance that a person's intimates provide, the better is his adaptation to such severe physical stresses as heart disease. Therefore, both the absence of support in maladaption as well as the function of support in adaptation have significance for intimate relationships which may affect one's ability to cope with stress.

Dimension 11: Is Dependable and Trustworthy

"Is dependable and trustworthy" means a reliance upon the other person for some aid or maintenance functions. To trust another implies belief in that person's willingness to give security. In a factor analytic study of expectations in friendship, Canfield and La Gappa (1970) found eight major factors in which the first factor, "gemuineness," indicates that liking induces trust across a variety of types of friendship. Studies such as the above, indicate that not only does an association exist between liking and trust, but this association cross-cuts various types of relationships.

However, it could be argued that the importance of having trust in another is a reflection of an already existing state of depth within the relationship, a depth wherein a feeling of security and commitment have already been established. Some support for this existence of depth is found in Driscoll, Davis,

and Lipitz' (1972) study, where mutual trust was found to be an integral component of longer-termed, conjugal love relationships, but not among courting couples. In addition, Reiss' (1960) wheel theory of the development of heterosexual love relationships emphasizes that those who already have good rapport and reveal more to each other in turn develop a mutual dependency (and trust) with each other. This mutual dependency and trust fulfill various needs which then result in an increasingly intimate relationship with each other. Consequently, when one is valued as dependable and trustworthy, two implicit assumptions seem to be operating: first, trust is reciprocal in nature; and secondly, trust deepens the relationship.

In recognition of the above assumptions, Rubin states: "At a desper level, the exchange of personal disclosures is in fact an exchange of trust. The disclosure shows that he likes and trusts the person to whom he discloses...It is by means of such reciprocal displays of trust and affection that people are most likely to move from acquaintanceship to friendship" (1973:163).

In other words, Rubin (1973) not only emphasizes that the process of reciprocal self-disclosure is a demonstration of the trust within a relationship, but that this reciprocal process, in turn, facilitates a gradual spiraling build-up of intimacy. In addition, Rubin introduces this process as a part of developing

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friendships, and is not just restricted to ongoing close, conjugal love relationships, as described by Driscoll, Davis, and Lipitz (1972). Further research is needed, however, in order to clarify the importance which trust and dependability play in interpersonal intimacy.

In short, the above findings reinforce the fact that trust and dependability represent a viable dimension within intimacy. The degree to which this dimension reflects depth within relationships, however, is uncertain, and necessitates further explication.

Mimension 12: Would Help Me Out in a Crisis

This dimension, "would help me out in a crisis," is a direct outflow of the two preceding dimensions, but is a specific, action-oriented variable. The emphasis of this dimension is on saving, rescuing, or succorance on the part of one's intimate who gives or provides what is necessary to satisfy one's impending needs. These provisions may range from material goods to empathic listening, or merely a physical presence during particularly stressful times. This helpful behavior in providing assistance or aid implies a furnishing of anything that relieves one's immediate wants or necessities, especially in times of difficulty and of distress. To Dahms (1972), a helping relationship implies accessibility, which is essential for another's psychological survival. The specificity and action orientation of this helping type of relationship makes this dimension distinct from an emotionally supportive or generally dependable one.

According to Fromm (1956), the central place that love and intimacy play in interpersonal relationships is based on the ultimate helplessness of all men: "Inasmuch as we are all human, we are all in need of help. Today I, tomorrow you." It is obvious from such writings that Fromm acknowledges the fact that love within intimate relationships is not completely altruistic, but rather based on a reliance upon others for reinforcements and help in times of need. His emphasis on man's basic helplessness is not only a statement of the importance of help within a relationship, but an emphasis on its essential nature within close intimate relationships.

Since many adults within our society seem to interpret the gift or act of receiving help as a reflection of incompetence, accompanied by feelings of dependency, inferiority, or inadequacy (Brammer, 1973), people's perceptions of its importance to intimacy may be weakened and influence their responses on a test accordingly. Nonetheless, "helps me out in a crisis" appears to have a great deal of impact as a dimension of interpersonal intimacy, justifying its further exploration.

Dimension 13: Is Someone I Can Confide In

The most literal meaning of being intimate is to disclose to another one's innermost thoughts and feelings. The act of disclosing confidences and disclosing personal information with another reflects a uniquely honest, open relationship, rich in emotion, A second secon

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empathy, and knowledge. Jourard (1964) describes this process of self-disclosure as necessary for the establishment of close relationships, as well as a requirement to keep in contact with ourselves. Very succinctly, he elaborates on the potential risks involved in not disclosing ourselves to others and claims that this lack of self disclosure contributes to various illnesses.

Each one of us, through our own personal experience, could attest to the relative importance that the availability or accessibility of a close significant other had in adaptation to various problems throughout life. In fact, lack of a close significant other to confide in is a clinically recognized reason for many who seek professional psychotherapeutic help. Generally speaking, in the psychotherapy setting, an underlying goal is the disclosre of one's self through verbalizing of personal problems which are disrupting one's life. As stated in a related paper (Lowenthal and Weiss, 1976), this process of self-disclosure during particular periods of disruption or crises, may be the only "therapeutic" action necessary, whether it be "cathartic" in the Aristotelian sense, or self-validating (Sullivan, 1953) in form. Therefore, the process of revealing personal information to others, may not only be important in the establishment and maintenance of close relationships, but a necessary requirement for survival.

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In discussing the importance of revealing one's self to others, Jourard (1964) notes its particular difficulty for males in our society. Since the stereotypical male role is defined as a pillar of strength, one that is instrumentally and achievement criented, there is no room for sentimentality or emotional expressiveness, the exact antithesis of what has been described as a requirement for sarvival. In fact, Jourard (1964) not only claims that man's inability to disclose himself to others is literally a lethal aspect of the male role, but this inability also contributes to a shorter life expectancy in males. Some supporting evidence is provided by Lowenthal, Berkman and Associates (1967) in their observation that windowerhood is often more traumatic for men then widowhood is for women. They explain this finding in part, on the basis that men are less likely to have other persons with whom they are intimate. They also provide some support for this interpretation with the finding that men identify their spouses as their confidentes more often than women do (Lowenthal and Haven, 1968). Whether these findings explain an increased susceptibility to maladaptation or shorter life expectancy for males is open to further research investigation. However, the impact on one's psychological health of having someone to confide in is important and must be recognized. In short, both men and women who are unable to reveal their feelings and innermost thoughts to others are most likely to be perceived as poorly adapted (Halverson and Shore, 1969), excluding those who are lifelong isolates. Let a set the state of the set of

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There are several muances about confiding or self-disclosure, that need further explication in order to grasp the full meaning that this dimension may have for intimacy. The following four areas are worthy of further discussion: (1) the situational context of disclosure; (2) the topic of disclosure; (3) liking and reciprocity of disclosure, and (4) the relationship of disclosure to adaptation.

While disclosing one's self to another person is an important element in developing close relationships, a person's disclosure must be appropriate to the particular situation and the relationship in which it occurs. If, for example, an employee approached his boss in a crowded elevator and started to discuss his innermost sexual fantasies, one might question the appropriateness of the public situation as well as the involvement of one's boss in such revelations. Therefore, the extent to which a personal revelation is to be significant is determined by the degree to which it is perceived as private and unique (Rubin, 1973; Simmel, 1950).

The second area that needs elaboration deals with the content or topic of self-disclosure and its relationship to intimacy. Jourard (1961) discusses this relationship claiming that certain topics, such as opinions, tastes, interests, or information about work, are revealed at less intimate levels of a relationship, while topics which deal with one's personality, anatomy, or money matters are much more personal and consequently only revealed to more intimate others. Therefore, it can be assumed that with more

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intimate relationships, such as close friends and spouses, the content and level of self-disclosure becomes personally more meaningful and itself more intimate. Several theorists promote this "layered" approach of accessibility to others. For example, Lewin's (1936, 1948, 1964) depth dimension to personality, or Altman and Taylor's (1973) social penetration theory postulate an "onion-skin" structure to personality whereby what is disclosed to ethers varies according to the depth or degree of intimacy within the relationship.

The relationship of self-disclosure to the degree of liking is reciprocal. Jourard and his associates (Jourard and Lasakow, 1958; Jourard, 1959; Jourard and Landsman, 1960) have demonstrated a statistically significant co-variation between self-disclosure and liking. In addition, Levinger and Senn (1967), in their study of married couples, found a similar significant positive relationship between marital satisfaction and self-disclosure. While these studies also address themselves to the issue of direction, they achieve no definite evidence however, and instead suggest a process of mutual reciprocity that guides the disclosing process. In other words, self-disclosure operates according to Gouldner's (1960) norm of reciprocity, suggesting an exchange process in which people get back disclosure in proportion to what they gave (Jourard and Richman, 1963; Levinger and Senn, 1967; Worthy, Gary, and Kahn, 1969; Jourard, 1971; Ehrlich and Graeven, 1971; Rubin, 1973).

Therefore, this investigation will not only assume that a relationship exists between self-disclosure and liking, but that this process is reciprocal in form.

One final aspect of this dimension that needs explication is the relationship that confiding in another has to adaptation. As stated earlier, there is some evidence provided by Jourard (1964) and Lowenthal, Berkman, and Associates (1967) that the process of confiding in another is important in adaptation. In an additional study, Brown and his associates (1975) found that in a random sample, women who had experienced severe stress were in fact classified as having an affective disorder depended on whether they had a confident or not. The authors found that those women who had severe stresses and who lacked a confidant were about ten times more likely to be depressed than anybody else. They defined a confident very simply, as a person, usually male, with whom the woman had a "close, intimate and confiding relationship." Cobb (1976) in his discussion of this data, states: "If one assumes that the events had some causal relationship here, one is forced to the conclusion that the intimate relationship is somehow protective" (p. 13). The "protective" function that a confident provides is also supported by Lowenthal and Haven (1968) in their work with an aged sample of both men and women showing that the presence of a confident acts as a "buffer" against such losses

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as decreased social interaction or role status as well as the more drastic losses of widowhood and retirement(but <u>not</u> losses in physical health). These investigators found even more dramatic results with those respondents who had no confidant, indicating an increase in the odds for depression and other indicators of adaptation. The presence of a confidant seems to be crucial in adaptation to various losses. This dimension, therefore, has been established not only as an integral part of interpersonal intimacy, but also as an important resource in adaptation to various stresses, warranting its inclusion in the present study.

Dimension 14: Is Physically Attractive

Unlike the preceding dimension, where the emphasis was on a more verbal or emotional disclosing level, this dimension, "Is physically attractive," emphasizes the physical, non-verbal aspects of interpersonal intimacy. In fact, this dimension in conjunction with the following dimension of providing sexual satisfaction was explicitly included to tap the physical sexual component that is so commonly associated with the concept of intimacy. The impact that a woman's physical beauty or a man's handsomeness has on the degree one is liked, along with a variety of other positive judgments and associated characteristics, is well-established within most everyone's realm of experience, as well as within the research literature. Clearly, if one wants people to like one and treat one well, it pays to be beautiful.

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Several studies have supported the importance of physical attractiveness, but all of these have focused on the beginning stages of a relationship. For example, Walster and her associates (1966) studied a variety of characteristics and their influence on liking a randomly matched computer blind date at the University of Minnesota. Their findings indicated that the determinant of physical attractiveness was the most powerful predictor of whether or not a couple liked each other, above all others, and actually repeated their date.

In another field study, Byrne, Ervin and Lamberth (1970) found that physical attractiveness of both men and women were strongly associated with how desirable they would be as a date. The more handsome the man, for example, the higher the evaluation he received concerning his sexuality (r=.69), his datability (r=.59) and his marriageability (r=.59). Barscheid and Walster (1973) conducted a review of the research literature, and conclude that physical attraction elicts favorable attitudes and behaviors in a wide variety of interpersonal settings. It remains unclear, however, whether this phenomenon is unique to only beginning levels of relationships. It also remains unclear as to what the conditions are in which physical attraction is outweighed by subsequent interaction, or on the other hand, how an "agly" person may gradually or suddenly become attractive to others for reasons other than a change in physical appearance. Consequently, more research is needed to investigate whether the value of physical attractiveness

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changes over time after extensive interaction, as well as an assessment of the differential impact it has with different people and in different settings (e.g. middle-aged and older persons). If, in fact, physical beauty remains as a powerful attraction in more intimate relationships, does it accomplish this independently or in conjunction with other aspects?

One final aspect of physical attraction that needs elaboration is the most exclusive reliance on the visual modality as a means for its definition. Even though this is quite understandable and, in fact, conceived as somewhat of a basic assumption within this dimension, this author wants to raise the possibility of interpreting physical attraction differently, for example, through one's sensual modalities of touch and smell. In other words, one could be tactilely attractive to another and simply want to be close and touch. Usually, however, when one perceives another as physically attractive, one describes this attraction in visual terms (e.g. she's good looking) and implies a sexual component to the attraction as well. This dimension will be interpreted in accordance with the emphasis on vision and therefore will be estimated to play a more important role in beginning levels of relatedness than during later, more intimate levels. Support for this estimation is based on the previously mentioned research evidence, as well as the pioneering work of Levinger and Sneek (1972). in which several characteristics were rated for their importance in six different levels of interpersonal involvement, ranging from more awareness of the other,

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to casual interaction, to a deeper level of intimacy. Their findings support the notion that easily visible characteristics, such as persons' height or physical attractiveness, are more important at first contact and beginning levels of a relationship, than after the development of closer, more intimate relationships. But more importantly, the dimension of physical attractiveness was found to be worthy of inclusion, as it is in the present study.

Dimension 15: Provides Sexual Satisfaction

The rationale for including such a dimension as "providing sexual satisfaction" or gratification dates as far back as the first interaction between man and woman. Scientifically, however, Freud (1922) and the fallowers of psychoanalytic thought, with its heavy emphasis on libido frustration as a foundation for romantic feelings, were some of the pioneers. More recently, such social theorists as Morris (1971) or Dahms (1972), and of course much of the popular literature, maintain that sexual satisfaction is an important dimension of intimacy which occurs according to a culturally defined progression of levels and assumptions regarding physical intimacy leading to other kinds of intimacy. In addition, most professional psychotherapists or counselors will attest to the clinical importance and almost indispensibility of sexual satisfaction in close relationships.

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On the other hand, scientific investigation of how much importance sexual satisfaction has within intimate relationships is practically non-existent. Valins(1966) has demonstrated with non-intimates that the perception or belief that one is sexually arcused facilitates attraction. This author is familiar with only one additional study which explores the relationship of the physical realm of sexual satisfaction to more intimate, loving relationships. The above exception is a recent study on "Love in Adulthood." by Reedy, Birren and Schaie (1976), in which physical or sexual intimacy is conceived as one of six components of heterosexual love. Their methodology not only incorporates this physical dimension and compares it with other securingly important dimensions. but they also look at age differences throughout adulthood. The results indicate that this sexual component is perceived as the most important component of love in adolescence, young adulthood, and middle age. However, it decreases significantly in importance in the older adult. They explain this apparent reduction in importance of sexual intimacy to a "general slowing of the nervous system, decreased physical vigor and strength, and conformity to the asexual sterectype often ascribed to the aged" (Reedy, Birren, Schaie, 1976). Butler and Lewis (1976) suggest a change in partners may change this decrease in importance of physical-sexual intimacy. whatever the explanation or possible solution, this age-related finding is an interesting one and will be explored in the present

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study as well. Unfortunately, there is very little additional scientific work to provide support for its inclusion, but justification for its inclusion comes from the historical emphasis (and almost obsession) on the subject by social-psychological theorists, modern popular writers, and practitioners.

Sexual satisfaction occurs when both members of a dyad are aware of each other's sexual needs and expectations and are able to satisfy them at an acceptable level. "Provides sexual satisfaction", however, may also be perceived in a one-directional approach, in which the "for me" is implicit. This ambiguity was purposely included to give the respondents enough freedom from cultural stereotypes to interpret the dimension in their own way. The degree of satisfaction is also left open for interpretation, which may even include having no sexual relations. In addition, since it seemed appropriate to use the same-sex and opposite-sex relationships, this dimension was also included in assessing same-sex friendship, much in opposition to the cultural taboos. In any case, the interpretation of the applicability of providing sexual satisfaction to particular intimate relationships is open to a wide range of variability, but clearly important to the defining process.

Dimension 16: We Feel a Strong Emotional Attraction for Each Other

The sixteenth and final dimension of interpersonal intimacy as conceived here, entails the feeling of a strong emotional attraction for each other. This dimension was included to capture all the

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emotionally laden feelings involved in an intense relationship where there are really no other words for describing its importance. In addition to experiencing strong emotions, there exists an explicit statement regarding a mutual or reciprocal element involved in the emotional attraction. This dimension, therefore, incorporates two elements that need explication as to their relevancy in defining interpersonal intimacy: (1) strong emotional attraction or passion; and, (2) reciprocity.

The first element, feeling a strong emotional attraction, is best conceived in terms of Schachter's (1964) theory of emotion. He maintains that if a person experiences an emotion, two factors must coexist: (1) a physiological arousal must occur: and (2) this arousal must have an appropriate emotional cognition or label attached to it. The necessity for both factors to coexist for a true emotional experience is supported by Schachter and Singer (1962), and Schachter and Wheeler (1962). More recently, Walster and Bersheid (1971) have drawn from Schachter's work and applied it to the beginnings of a passionate theory of love. This approach accounts for the possibility of both intensely positive and intensely negative experiences having the potential for deepening a person's feelings or passion for another. The difficulty of applying this theory to more intimate loving relationships is the actual labeling process involved. A strong emotional attraction or passionate love for another is a poorly

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articulated emotion, complicated by the tremendously complex mixtures of emotions and ambiguous situations involved in social encounters. Therefore, even though Walster and Bersheid's (1971) passionate love theory seems quite reasonable as a theoretical approach, unfortunately there is no supporting research evidence, indicating the need for further investigation.

To feel a strong emotional attraction is to have passionate feelings on a multitude of levels, including the intellectual, the physical, and the sexual. In fact, some people would apply all the above levels to a definition of emotional attraction, while others would equate this dimension with only the sexual level, and still others would view them as sequential (Dahms, 1972), or perhaps surpass them altogether and refer only to the feelings attached to the experience. In other words, this dimension is an attempt to capture in varying degrees the elements of passion, tenderness, eroticism, and caring, all of which are important in the process of expressing love or a strong emotional attraction for each other in close intimate relationships. In an attempt to define love, Elood (1962) states, "love is an attachment between people, not a free floating feeling. It is a catheris to an object, a personal object". He uses the concept of attachment instead of attraction, claiming that attachment denotes a greater reciprocity. Reciprocal attachment is essential to intimate relationships and unrequited love. Contrary to Elood's approach,

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this dimension of feeling strong emotion for each other utilizes the concept of attraction, but clearly accepts the importance and denotes the element of reciprocity by the following approach: "We feel...for each other." By explicitly stating this element of reciprocity, no room for interpretation is allowed, making reciprocity an important element within this dimension. As far as the relevancy of reciprocity, Blood is not the only social scientist who considers it essential in close, loving relationships. For example, Larson (1966) regards reciprocity as central to his definition of love; that is, love is defined as the mutual perception of positive affect between male and female. In addition, the importance of reciprocity among close friends was found in earlier work (Weiss and Lowenthal, 1975) and among spouses and their family members (Lowenthal, Thurhner, Chiriboga and Associates, 1975). In short, this dimension will serve to assess the importance of strong, reciprocal passion or emotions in close, intimate relationships.

In sum, the previous sections have attempted to define interpersonal intimacy, both conceptually and operationally. This defining process not only included the generation of important dimensions relevant to a variety of intimate relationships, but also included the formulation of an intimacy instrument (WIR). A review of the literature provided pertinent theoretical and research evidence to support or justify inclusion of each dimension as an aspect of intimacy. The next section determines which of these dimensions are more important at higher levels of intimacy.

Determination of Higher Levels of Intimacy

The preceding section drew from a variety of conceptual and methodological approaches in order to support and define the dimensions of interpersonal intimacy. As is probably evident from the diversification of approaches, intimacy is not easily conceived in a concise and distinct way. In other words, there is no agreement as to a single outstanding dimension or combination of dimensions from the available literature and previous research that clearly denote a greater importance and meaning in determining higher levels of intimacy. On the contrary, the concept of intimacy demands a multi-leveled, multi-dimensional approach. Consequently, the goal of the third preliminary study was to determine which of the 16 dimensions of WIR were relatively more important in increasing levels of intimacy. In addition to establishing the criterion for higher levels of intimacy, it was also important to determine the degree of generalizability that intimacy has across different gender relationships.

Methodal ogy

In order to determine higher levels of intimacy, a decision was made by this investigator in consultation with other social scientists, that the most appropriate and valid method was to administer WIR to an independent sample of skilled judges. .

Sample. The sample selected was a group of professional judges. This criterion sample of professionals was selected on the basis of relevancy to the area of interpersonal intimacy. The sample contacted consisted of 57 professionals, 39 men and 18 women. All were social scientists, working in the fields of anthropology, psychology, and sociology. Most of these professionals were academicians ranging from emeriti professors to lecturers new to the field, consequently ranging in chronological age from late 20's to early 70's. A total sample of 35 professionals, 23 men and 12 women, responded by completing WIR. A response rate of 61% (35 out of 57) with similar sex ratios is respectable to this investigator, given the present sample population and the subject matter.

<u>Procedure for data collection and analysis</u>. Each professional judge in the sample was asked, by mail, to complete WIR; that is, to rank the 16 intimacy dimensions (randomly presented) in order of their importance for an <u>ideal</u> opposite-sex and <u>ideal</u> same-sex intimate relationship (refer to Appendix II for cover letter and method of presenting WIR). This approach was designed to utilize the professional's knowledge and expertise in the field on an abstract level, not on a personal one, in the most efficient way possible. Since this sample of professionals represented most of the orientations conceived in the 16 dimensions comprising intimacy, it was hoped that when the respondents were presented with the task of creating a hierarchy of valuable qualities within an ideal intimate relationship, some consensus would result.

Scores were derived by assigning 1 to equal the most important dimension and 16 to equal the least important. The judges, therefore, determined the relative importance of the 16 dimensions and their rankings were used to determine levels of intimacy for various

relationships in the main sample study.

The data analysis for the determination of higher levels of intimacy consisted of examining the inverted group means, standard deviations, and overall ranks for the total sample, for men and women, and for same-sex and opposite-sex relationships. The degree of consensus for the ranks of each dimension between the professional respondents was established by using the Kendall coefficient of concordance technique. In addition, Duncan's Multiple Range test (Duncan, 1955) was used to establish the configuration of important dimensions for inclusion in higher levels of intimacy.

<u>Results:</u> Establishment of intimacy criteria. The results of overall distribution of mean ranks indicate that a large variation occurred between intimacy dimensions among the total sample of judges, implying a general lack of consensus as to what is more and less important within intimacy. Tables 4A, 4B, and 4C report the group means, standard deviations, and overall mean rankings for the total sample, for each sex, as well as for same-sex and opposite-sex intimate relationships. The means reveal differences between men and women, as well as opposite-sex and same-sex relationships in some but not all of the intimacy dimensions. For example, the total sample (N=35) displayed, for 3 dimensions, the following means, standard deviations,

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	Same- Relation		Opposit Relation		t-Ratio (Significance)
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Is Physically Attractive	13.9	1.7	9 •7	4.3	5.17 (p ≤ .001)
Provides Sexual Satisfaction	15.7	1.1	6.8	3.7	13.12 (p≤.001)
We Feel a Strong Emotional Attraction for Each Other	9.6	5•7	4.2	3.7	4.52 (p ≤ .001)

and t-ratios between a same-sex and an opposite-sex relationship:

To a lesser extent, the differences between men and women for both their same-sex and opposite-sex relationships within the intimacy dimension of "is comfortable and easy to be with," displayed the following trend:

	Male	s (23)	Femal	es (12)	(Significance)
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Confort and ease	5.7	3.4	7.8	3•3	t=1.68 (p ≤ .10)

Therefore, the indication is that intimacy is not totally a universal phenomenon that cross-cuts sex and type of relationship. However, a few common underlying threads do exist.

Due to the range of variability, as particularly reflected in the large standard deviations of most all the intimacy dimensions, it seemed necessary to further explore the degree of consensus between respondents in the sample as to the degree of and the second second

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importance of the different dimensions by a more sophisticated statistical method. Consequently, Kendall's coefficient of concordance (Kendall, 1955) was used to determine the degree of agreement between the respondents for each dimension.

TABLE 4A

WIR: DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN RANKS FOR CRITERION SAMPLE

Intimacy					Relationsh				
Dimensions			Tota	al Sam	ole $(n = 3)$	5)	T		
		Same Sex		Орре	osite Sex			nd Opposi Combined	ite
	Mean	Standard Deviation			tandard Deviation		Mean I	andard eviation	
			Acco			Accor			Accord.
Similar or			to me	an I		to me	an		to mean
Complement	ary								
personalit Similar		3.6	14	12.2	4.4	16	11.8	3.6	16
<u>interests</u> Similar	_ 7.5	3.5	8	11.0	4.3	15	9•3	3.6	ц
attitudes Shares activities	_ 7.9	3.6	9	9.1	4.3	10	8.6	3.5	9
with me Likes me Is Comfort	- 8.6 - 6.7		12 6	10.3 6.7	-	13 3		3.1 3.5	12 4
able and easy to be with Is enjoyabl	5.9	3.6	3	6.8	3.9	4	6.4	3.5	2
entertaini company		4. 0	11	9.8	4.6	12	9.1	4.0	10
Knows me well I respect	_ 7.0	3.8	7	8.4	4.4	9	7.7	3.9	8
him/her Is support	_ 6.6	4.1	5	7.7	4.7	7	7.1	4.1	7
ive and accepting Is depend-		3.8	4	7•4	4.2	6	6.8	3.8	5
able and trustworth	7 5.5	3.4	2	7.8	4.3	8	6.6	3.7	3
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TABLE 4A (CONT.)

WIR: DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN RANKS FOR CRITERION SAMPLE

Intimacy		Intimate Relationship Total Sample (n = 35)												
Dimensions			Tota	u Sang	ale (n = 3)	5)	1							
-		Same Sex		Oppos	site Sex			and Oppos Combined						
	Maan	Standard Deviation			andard Daviation	Rank		tandard Deviation	Renk	ı				
-		201240201	Accor		2011402.00	Accor		001100101	Accord.					
			to me			to me			to mean					
Would help me out in a crisis Is someone I can confide in Is physically attractive Provides sexual	_ 5.3	3.5 3.7 1.7	10 1 15	10.9 5.9 9.7	9 4.1	14 2 11	9.7 5.7 11.7	3.2 3.7 2.4	13 1 15					
satisfac- tion We feel a strong emotional attraction for each	15.7	1.1	16	6.8		5	11.3	1.9	14					
other	9.6	5.7	13	4.2	2 3.7	ו	6.8	3.9	6					

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TABLE 4B

WIR: DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN RANKS FOR MEN IN CRITERION SAMPLE

Intimacy		Intimate Relationship											
Dimensions		Same Se	x		es (n = 2) posite Sex	3)		and Oppo					
		tandard eviatio	n Rank Accor	d.	Standard Deviation	Accor	d.	Standard Deviation	Rank Accord.				
Similar or Complement	ary	_	to me			to me			to mean				
personalit Similar	<u> </u>	-	14	11.6		16	п.0	3.8	15				
interests Similar	7.8	3.7	8	11.2	4.3	14	9.6	3.7	12				
attitudes Shares activities		3.4	9	9.6	4.1	10	9.0	3.5	9				
with me Likes me Is Comfort able and	- 8.5 7.4	3.9 3.6	10 7	10.5 6.9	3.4 3.6	12 5	9.5 7.2	3.4 3.4	11 5				
easy to be with Is enjoy- able,	_ 5.1	3.4	2	6.0	3 .8	3	5.7	3.4	2				
entertaini company Knows me	ng 8.7	3.8	ш	10.5	4.1	13	9.5	3.8	10				
well I respect	_ 7.0	3•7	6	8.4	4.5	9	7.6	3.9	8				
him/her Is support ive and		4.1	4	7.9	4.8	8	7.0	4.1	4				
accepting Is depend- able and		4.3	5	7.5	4.5	6	7.3	4.3	6				
trustworth	y 5.5	3.6	3	7.7	4.4	7	6.6	3.9	3				

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TABLE 4B (CONT.)

WIR: DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN RANKS FOR MEN IN CRITERION SAMPLE

Intimacy _			In		Relations	hip			
				Males	(n = 23)				
Dimensions		Same Sex		Oppost	Lte Sex			and Opposi Combined	te
	Maara	Standard	Danla		andard Demi a tri am	Devia		Standard	Denle
-	man	Deviation	Acco		Deviation	Acco		Deviation	Accord.
			to m			to m			to mean
				1					
Would help me out in									
a crisis	9.0	4.0	12	11.4	4.0	15	10.3	3.1	13
Is someone I can									
confide in	4.9	3.5	1	5.4	4.1	2	5.3	3•7	l
Is physically	-								
attractive	14.1	1.8	15	9.6	4-4	n	11.7	2.4	16
Provides sexual									
satisfac-									
tion	15.6	1.4	16	6.2	3.8	4	10.8	2.0	14
We feel a strong emotional attraction									
for each other	10.0	5.5	13	4.8	4.1	ı	7.4	4.0	7

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TABLE 4C

WIR: DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN RANKS FOR WOMEN IN CRITERION SAMPLE

Intimacy					e Relati					
Dimensions		ame Sex			es (n = Dsite Sez			and Opp Combin		
		Standard Deviation	Rank	S	Standard			andard viation	n Rank	
			Accor to me			Accor to me			Accord. to mean	
Similar or Complement										
personalit Similar		2.0	14	13.7	4.2	16	13.5	2.8	16	
interests Similar	7.0	3.2	5	10.7	4.6	15	8.9	3.5	12	
attitudes Shares	7.5	4.0	10	8.1	4.7	8	7.8	3.5	7	
activities with me Likes me	- 8.7 5.5	3•3 3•5	12 3	10.0 6.2	4.0 4.1	14 2	9.4 5.9	2.5 3.7	13 1	
Is confort able and easy to be with	7.2	3•7	7	8.3	3•7	9	7.8	3.3	8	
Is enjoy- able, entertaini			-			-	•			
company Knows me	8.0	4.3	ш	8.4	5.3	10	8.2	4.6	10	
well	_ 7.2	4.1	6	8. 5	4.5	11	7.8	4.1	9	
I respect him/her Is support	7.4	4.3	9	7.2	4.6	5	7•3	4.3	6	
ive and accepting Is depend-	4.8	2.0	l	7.2	3.6	4	6.0	2.7	3	
able and trustworth	y 5.5	3.1	2	7.8	4.4	6	6.7	3•4	5	

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TABLE 4C (CONT.)

WIR: DISTRIBUTION OF MEAN RANKS FOR WOMEN IN CRITERION SAMPLE

Intimacy _			I		Relation				
				Females	s(n=1)	2)			
Dimensions							Samo an	d Opposi	+0
	S	Same Sex		Opposi	te Sex			ombined	
		Standard	_		andard	_		dard	
-	Mean	Deviation			eviation			eviatia	
			Accor			Acco			Accord.
			to me	an		to m	ean		to mean
Would help									
me out in									
a crisis	7.4	3.3	8	9.7	3.9	12	8.6	3.2	11
Is someone									
I can									•
<u>confide in</u> Is	- 6.2	4.1	4	6.9	4.2	3	6.5	3.8	4
is physically									
attractive	13.5	1.4	15	9.9	4.3	13	11.8	2.5	14
Provides	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		-/	,,,,	4•2	1		2.)	14
sexual									
satisfac-									
tion	15.9	0.3	16	7.9	3.4	7	12.1	1.6	15
We feel a									
strong						- 1			
emotional									
attraction									
for each other	8.9	6.1	13	3.0	2.3	1	6.0	3.9	2
CULET.	0.9	0.1	L)	5.0	(•2	-	0.0	2•7	۲
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The results indicate that there is not an across-the-board agreement as to what is more important within an intimate relationship. In fact, only 38% to 50% of the 16 dimensions have a significant level of correlation with the consensus and those that do seem to range from the extreme top to the extreme bottom ranks (refer to Table 5). Those dimensions that the respondents generally agree upon, moreover, differ between men and women, and between same sex and opposite sex relationships. This difference coupled with the mean rank differences among the groups provide support for not treating intimacy as a single universal phenomena, but instead as situational, depending on the sex of the respondent and the sex of the intimate other. Therefore, four different intimacy profiles were established according to the rankings for each sex:

- male male
 male female
 female female
- 4) female male

In addition, since the above data indicated that the majority of dimensions have a small degree of consensus among the sample of judges and that the differences among the mean ranks were based on rather small intervals for all four profiles, the implication is that the inclusion of all 16 dimensions is inappropriate for the determination of degrees or levels of intimacy. Instead, a more sophisticated technique for determining various groups of the more

TABLE 5

KENDALL'S COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE FOR CRITERION SAMPLE

MALES (n = 23)

Same-Sex Relationship			Opposite-Sex Relationship		
Intimacy Dimension	Mean	RHO	Intimacy Dimension	Mean	RHO
Confides in Confortable Dependable Respect Supportive Knows me Likes me Similar interests Similar attitudes Shares activities Enjoyable Help in crisis Emotional attraction Sim./Com. personality Physical attraction Serual satisfaction	10.2	.50° .08° .28° .32° .14 .09 11° .33° .16° .59°	Reportional attraction Confides in Comfortable Sexual satisfaction Likes me Supportive Dependable Respect Knows me Similar attitudes Physical attraction Shares activities Enjoyable Similar interests Help in crisis Sim./Com. personality	5.4 6.0 6.2 6.9 7.5 7.7 8.4 9.6 10.5 10.5 11.2 11.4	.12 .24 ^a .01 .14 .15 .07 .09 .31 ^a .67 .17 b

RHO = Correlation of each variable with consensus

 $a = p \le .10$ $b = p \le .05$ $c = p \le .01$ $d = p \le .001$

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TABLE 5 (CONT.)

KENDALL'S COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE FOR CRITERION SAMPLE

FEMALES (n = 12)

Same-Sex Relationship			Opposite-Sex Relationship		
Intimacy Dimension	Mean	RHO	Intimacy Dimension	Mean	RHO
Supportive Dependable Likes me Confides in Similar interests Knows me Comfortable Help in crisis Respect Similar attitudes Enjoyable Shares activities Emotional attraction Sim./Com. personality Physical attraction	13.3 13.5	.66° .14 .17 .06 .15 .06 .67°	Emotional attraction Likes me Confides in Supportive Respect Dependable Sexual satisfaction Similar attitudes Confortable Enjoyable Knows me Help in crisis Physical attraction Shares activities Similar interests Similar interests	7.8 7.9 8.1 8.3 8.4 8.5 9.7 9.9 10.0 10.7	-

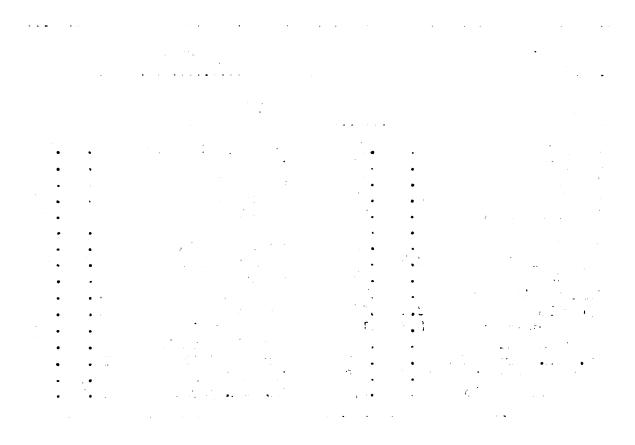
RHO = Correlation of each variable with consensus

 $a = p \le .10$ $b = p \le .05$ $c = p \le .01$ $d = p \le .001$

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important intimacy dimensions was necessary. In order to accomplish this, Duncan's Multiple Range test (Duncan, 1955), a posterior contrast test, was used as a systematic procedure to test all possible pairs of means for the 16 intimacy dimensions. A method was needed in order to determine the important dimensions in higher levels of intimacy. Therefore, rather than arbitrarily dichotomize or trichotomize the existing 16 dimensions, Duncan's method of comparing group means provided a logical approach for determining what and how many dimensions would be used in the analysis of levels of intimacy.

The results of the Duncan test for each of the four criteria are graphically displayed in Table 6. To interpret these results, one has to realize that the series of concentric circles represent groups of means that do not significantly ($p \le .05$) differ from each other, but do differ from other concentric circles. These results, then, indicate that men obviously have a more complex network of interrelationships among their conceptions of intimacy and the ranking of various dimensions. Women, on the other hand, display relatively few significant distinctions between the mean rankings, reflecting a less differentiated concept of intimacy. An alternate explanation, however, for the women's rather simple configuration could be the mere reflection of the small sample size (n = 12). Therefore, Duncan's Multiple Range test facilitates the delineation of important intimacy dimensions for men and not for women.

The delineation of a higher degree or level of intimacy for the men, in both their same-sex and opposite-sex relationships, consists of the first subset or grouping that displays some degree of independence. In the case of the men's same-sex intimate relationships, the first grouping consists of the top seven dimensions:

> Confides in Comfortable Dependable and trustworthy

Respect

Supportive and accepting

Knows me

Likes me

A high level of intimacy for the men's opposite-sex relationships consists of the following six dimensions:

Strong emotional attraction

Confides in

Comfortable

Provides sexual satisfaction

Likes me

Supportive and accepting

The women, on the other hand, are too undifferentiating within their rankings to apply Duncan's technique. Consequently, it was necessary to distinguish the higher level intimacy dimensions (which were greater than 2, but less than half) by setting the point

of inclusion between those dimensions which had the largest difference between means (refer to Table 5). Therefore, the determination of a high level of intimacy for the women's same-sex intimate relationships consists of the following four dimensions:

Supportive and accepting

Dependable and trustworthy

Likes me

Confides in

The women's high level opposite-sex intimacy is defined by the top five dimensions:

Strong emotional attraction Likes me Confides in Supportive and accepting Respect

In short, differences exist between men and women as well as same-sex and opposite-sex relationships in the importance they assign different qualitative dimensions of intimacy. Consequently, four profiles were established in order to determine greater depth or higher levels within intimacy and, in essence, establish the operational definition for same-sex friendship intimacy and opposite-sex spouse intimacy to be used in exploring the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to life stress.

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In summary, the present chapter defined intimacy, both conceptually and operationally, by delineating the components of intimacy. This definition and delineation was accomplished by: first, generating the important dimensions; secondly, pre-testing and formulating an intimacy instrument (WIR); thirdly, supporting each of the 16 dimensions through existing literature; and finally, 4 intimacy profiles were established in order to determine greater depth or high levels of intimacy within relationships. The next chapter will discuss the methods used to test the main hypotheses concerning the relationship between intimacy and adaptation.

TABLE 6

DIMENSIONS COMPRISING HIGHER LEVELS OF INTIMACY RESULTING FROM DUNCAN'S MULTIPLE RANGE TEST

MALE	S	FEMALES				
SAME SEX	OPPOSITE SEX	SAME SEX	OPPOSITE SEX			
Confides in Comfortable	Raotional attraction	Supportive Dependable	Enotional attraction			
Dependable	Confides in	Likes me Confides in	Likes me			
Respect	Comfortable Sexual		Confides in Supportive			
Supportive Knows me	satisfaction	Similar	Respect			
Likes me	Likes me Supportive	interests Knows me				
Similar		Comfortable Help in crisis	Dependable Sexual			
interests	Dependable Respect	Respect Similar	satisfaction Similar			
Similar astiëndes	Knows me	attitudes Enjoyable	attitudes Comfortable			
Shares activities	Similar	Shares	Enjoyable Knows me			
Enjoyable	attitudes Physical	activities Emotional	Help in crisis			
Help in crisis Emotional	attraction	attraction	Physical attraction			
attraction Sim./Com.	Shares activities	Sim./Com. personality	Shares activities			
personality	Enjoyable	Physical attraction	Similar			
Physical attraction	Similar interests Help in crisis	Sexual satisfaction				
Sexual	Sim./Com. personality		Sim./Com. personality			

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction to Research Design

After establishing a conceptual orientation to the research problem and an operational definition of intimacy, this investigator determined an appropriate research design. A correlational design provided the operational model in order to test four hypotheses with the fourth and last hypothesis having the major emphasis. The present chapter describes the cross-sectional sample, methods of data collection, and data analysis designed to test the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to stress.

Sample

The sample for the main study was drawn from the Human Development and Aging Research Program's Longitudinal Study of Transitions. The sample consisted of 171 men and women who were initially chosen from four transitional life stages: high school seniors, newlyweds, middle-aged parents whose youngest child was leaving home (empty nest), and persons retiring. They were selected to be fairly homogeneous and as representative of the middle and lower-middle class as possible. They consisted of

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primarily blue-collar, white-collar, and middle-range professional or managerial workers. For example, some of the occupations included within the sample were: policemen, firemen, nurses, school teachers, small businessmen, minor executives, housewives, civil servants, craftsmen, and sales personnel. The sample was primarily white, except for 1 Elack, 2 Filipino Americans, 2 Chinese Americans, 1 Japanese American, and 1 Mexican American, who were all contained in the high school subsample because of the general distribution of more minorities within this setting.

The initial selection of the total sample in 1968-1969 was based on those who resided within the geographic boundaries of a high school district within a large urban city. A senior class was the universe from which the youngest subsample was drawn. The newlyweds were drawn from city marriage license records and who were married for the first time. The middle-aged (empty nest) subsample was obtained from the high school records indicating senior students who were the youngest within the family and their parents were selected to participate. Two of these empty nest respondents were parents of the high school senior subsample. The criteria for selecting the retirement subsample was obtained from local organizations' records reflecting retirement status of their employees. Those who resided within the geographic boundaries of the sample district were selected. <u>.</u>

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The present sample was drawn from the same population five years later, during 1973-1974. The total number of interviews consisted of 189 subjects and was distributed as follows (Table 7A):

TABLE 7A

NUMBER OF PERSONS INTERVIEWED BY LIFE STAGE AND SEX GROUPS

	High School	Newlywed	Empty Nest	Retired	Total
Males	23	24	21	24	92
Females	24	23	23	27	97
Total	47	47	44	50	189

The total sample, however, consisted of different numbers of subjects for friendship and spouse intimacy groups, as well as different stage-sex groups, because not all subjects had or refused to respond to the measures for a spouse or friend as described in Table 7B.

Intimacy	High School Males	Hígh School Females	High School Newlywed Newlywed Females Males Females	Newlywed Females	Empty Nest Males	Empty Nest Females	Reti r ed Males	Empty Empty Nest Nest Reti re d Retired Males Females Males Females	Male	Male Female Total	Total
Friendship	20	24	20	19	ដ	22	22	23	83	88	171
Spouse	ז <i>ו</i> ר	22	23	23	20	ដ	22	15	62	81	160

SAMPLE SIZE FOR FRIENDSHIP AND SPOUSE INTIMACY BY LIFE STAGE + SEX GROUPS

TABLE 7B

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The ages of the total sample ranged from 21 to 72, and distributed as follows (Table 7C):

TABLE 7C

MEAN AGE BY LIFE STAGE AND SEX GROUPS

	High School Males	High School Females	Newlywed Males	Newlywed Females		Empty Nest Females	Retired Males	Retired Females
Mean Age:	22.2	22.5	30.5	28.0	55•7	53.6	65.5	63.0
Age Range:	21-24	22 - 23	26-43	24-38	49-66	144-6 2	58-70	50-72

Methods of Data Collection and Data Analysis

Methodological Procedure

The method of data collection for the main study, exploring the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to life stress, consisted of the administration of structured questions and tests in an interview format to the sample described in the preceding section. The intimacy questions (WIR) were embedded in the larger interview. Ten interviewers, 3 men and 7 women, collected the data. The interviewing procedures were as follows:





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- 1. After initial contact and agreement to participate in the interview, the respondent was sent the Adjective Checklist (Appendix III), the Life Evaluation Chart (Appendix IV), and the Life Event Questionnaire (Appendix V; to be described in greater detail in the next section) which were to be completed at leisure before the personal interview.
- 2. The interview consisted of a variety of materials, but those relevant to this study were as follows (listed in the order of presentation):
 - (a) Symptoms Checklist (Appendix VI);
 - (b) the Bradburn overall happiness rating question:
 "Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days --would you say you are very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?"
 very pretty not too
 - (c) and finally, WIR

WIR was presented to the respondents in card format, with one dimension per card, for easy manipulation. The interview schedule format for the presentation of WIR was as follows:

(1) Who would you say is your closest friend:(obtain first name, and last initial)

(Note: If Respondent mentions spouse, sibling, or child, note this but probe for person the is not member of nuclear family. Similarly, if Respondent mentions a couple,

ask which of the two friends he feels closer to.)

(3) WIR: <u>Card Sort for Spouse</u> (if presently married) Would you please order these cards in terms of their importance in your relationship with your spouse.

Methodological Tools

The methodological tools for data collection are described according to three major conceptual areas under investigation: (1) Life stress, (2) Intimacy, and (3) Adaptation.

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Life stress. The instrument utilized for measuring presumptive stress was the Life Event Questionnaire (refer to Appendix ∇). This self-administered instrument, as adopted by Lowenthal, Thurnher, Chiriboga, and Associates (1975), is an adaptation of the Holmes and Rahe (1967) social stress scale. The Life Event Questionnaire (LEQ) has a listing of 125 events which contain common episodes that evoke changes, whether pleasurable or painful. A continuous life stress score was determined by the summation of only the number of unhappy, painful, or negative adult life events checked on the LEQ. In other words, the score was a simple count of negative mentions in the 125 events. A high score indicated high stress. The focus, therefore, is contained within the columns concerned with "Feelings about events then," and the score is determined by the sum of responses to "somewhat unhappy" and "very unhappy" for each event.

The validity and reliability of the LEQ has recently been explored by Horowitz, Schaefer, Hirato and Wilner (1976). Of particular interest to this investigation was the degree of association between the amount of stress and measures of mental and physical illnesses. Some significant positive correlations, but by no means conclusive evidence, were found in the Horowitz study, as well as earlier work reported by Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend (1974) and Gunderson and Rahe (1974). In addition to the above evidence indicating some face validity, Horowitz et al.

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(1976) provided data on test-retest reliability indicating a highly significant Pearson correlation coefficient of .90 between T_1-T_2 stress scores. In short, Horowitz et al. (1976) concluded, as several other investigators have, that the LEQ is a useful method for obtaining an index of adult life stress.

Intimacy. The instrument used for measuring interpersonal intimacy was WIR (refer to Table 3). A "level of intimacy" score was determined by the summation of inverted ranks of each appropriate dimension for the four profiles (refer to Chapter II, pp. 114-115) In other words, the four intimacy profiles provided the appropriate items or sex-relation norms which serve as the basis of the intimacy score. The ranks of each item within the profile were inverted because in the rankings the score of one (1) was used to indicate the highest rank. By inverting these ranks so that 1 = 16 and so on, a higher score would indicate higher levels of intimacy. These ranks were in turn summed to give each person a "raw" individual intimacy score for that relationship. For example, one male respondent ranked the 16 dimensions within WIR for his closest friend as follows:

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	Ranka	ed .	Appropriate Intimacy Profile Item	Inverted Raw Score	Maximum Inverted Scores Possible
Most					
Important *	(1)	Is confortable and		- 4	- 4
-		easy to be with	×	16	16
	(2)	Is some one I can		- 1	1
		confide in	¥	15 14	15 14
	(3)	I respect him Has similar interests	*	14	14
	(4)	Has similar interests			
	(5)	Is enjoyable, enter-			
		taining company			
	(6)	Would help me out in a crisis			
	(7)	Has similar attitudes			
		Knows me well	*	9	13
		Likes me	*	8	12
		Is dependable and			
	(/	trustworthy	*	7	11
	(11)	Shares activities with	L		
	•	386			
	(12)	Is supportive and			
	• •	accepting	*	5	10
	(13)	Has a similar or complementary personality			
	(14)	We feel a strong			
	(=-+/	emotional attraction	L		
	1723	for each other			
	(12)	Is physically attracti	.76		
Least	(n ()	Described commol			
THDOLPAUL =	(10)	Provides sexual satisfaction			

TOTAL INTIMACY SCORE = 74 ज

Within the above example, the ranking of the 16 statements, only seven were utilized in determining the intimacy score. The seven "appropriate intimacy profile items", which are indicated with an asterisk (*), were determined by the previously mentioned sample

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of judges as being the most important dimensions within an ideal male same-sex friendship. Three other profiles were also established, involving the use of different dimensions in order to achieve intimacy scores (refer to Chapter II's section on determining higher levels of intimacy). Therefore, the friendship intimacy score for the male respondent in the above example was determined by the ranks of the relevant profile items, inverted, and summed. The total friendship intimacy score for the above male respondent equaled 74. The maximum score possible was 91. If the respondent had ranked all seven intimacy profile items, that were used in determining his score, within the top seven, then he would have achieved the maximum score possible (91). Group intimacy scores were determined by the summation of all the individual scores and means were obtained for these scores in order to establish intimacy scores for the life stage and sex groupings. These intimacy scores were then standardized according to the following formula:

$$Z (\text{score}) = \left[(\underline{10}) (\text{raw score}) - (\underline{\frac{\text{Mean}}{\text{Standard}}})(10) + 50 \\ \text{deviation} - (\underline{\frac{\text{Mean}}{\text{Standard}}})(10) + 50 \\ \text{Mean} - (\underline{\frac{\text{Mean}}{\text{Standard}})(10) + 50 \\ \text{Mean} - (\underline{\frac{\text{Mea}}{\text{Standard}})(10) + 50 \\ \text{Mean} - (\underline{$$

Since the four intimacy measures varied in their scale ranges, the above standardization procedures were used in order to allow comparison across measures. After standardization, all four measures had a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. Standardized (Z) scores ranged from 22 to 77 and a higher score indicated higher (or more) intimacy.

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The validity and reliability of WIR as a measuring instrument were determined in part by the sample of judges who determined what constituted higher levels of intimacy, and in part by an additional small sample. The validity or basis of providing evidence for judging whether WIR adequately measured interpersonal intimacy were two-fold: content validity and convergent validity.

<u>Content validity</u> of WIR was ascertained by defining the universe of possible variables for inclusion. This definition was determined not only through the initial generation of possible dimensions, the pre-testing of the dimensions for their degree of importance and interrelation with one another, but also through the defining and support of each dimension by the available research literature.

Content validity was also determined through administration of WIR to a criterion sample of professional judges (refer to Chapter II). This sample ranked the intimacy dimensions for an <u>ideal</u> relationship. The mean rankings established by these judges were then analyzed for their contribution to higher levels of intimacy. Four intimacy profiles were delineated in order to provide criteria for comparison and in essence, provide a basis for the validation of WIR. <u>Convergent validity</u> of WIR, or evidence that different measures of intimacy could yield similar results as WIR, was established by correlating the level of intimacy score achieved on WIR with the same persons' rating of the level of intimacy existent within that relationship as measured on a 9-point scale. A separate sample of 14 men and women completed WIR

for an assumed intimate other person, either their closest friend or their spouse, and concurrently rated that relationship on a 9-point scale for perceived level of intimacy. The results for each intimacy profile (Table 8) indicated that significant positive correlations exist between the intimacy score on WIR and the response to the perceived level of intimacy, as determined by the following question:

> Now that you have completed WIR for your closest friend (or spouse), would you rate how intimate you are with this person on a scale of 1 - 9 (1 = minimally intimate, 9 = highly intimate)?

TABLE 8

CONVERGENT VALIDITY FOR WIR: PEARSON PRODUCT MEOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN WIR AND 9-POINT INTIMACY RATING SCALE

Intimacy Profile	Correlation					
Respondent - Other	(r)					
Female - Spouse (n = 13)	•71					
Female - Friend $(n = 9)$	•68					
Male - Spouse (n =10)	•64					
Male - Friend (n =12)	•74					

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The basis for providing information on WIR's <u>Reliability</u>, or how much of the variation in WIR's intimacy scores is attributable to the transitory influences such as time of administration, was provided by the test-retest method. WIR was administered twice to an additional sample of 45, 21 males and 24 females, approximately 30 days apart. Some men and women ranked WIR for their closest friend, while others ranked the intimacy dimensions for their spouse. Table 9 provides the degree of correlation between time 1 and 2 for each intimacy type.

TABLE 9

RELIABILITY FOR WIR: PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR TEST-RETEST INTIMACY SCORES

$(T_1 - T_2)$

	Relationship	Males (n)	Females (n)
	Closest friend	•77 (11)	.67 (10)
Intimacy	Sp ၀us e	•72 (10)	.71 (14)
	Both friend and spouse	.80 (21)	. 69 (24)
	Total sample		•90 (45)

In short, the intimacy measuring instrument (WIR) provided scores for each item and when the appropriate items, as determined in the profiles (refer to Chapter II), were summed, an individual intimacy

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score resulted. Group scores were established from the means and standardized for comparison between profiles. In addition, the intimacy instrument (WIR) was found to be somewhat valid and reliable and therefore utilized to determine the perceived level of intimacy present within close friends and spouses for the main study sample.

<u>Adaptation</u>. The instruments utilized for measuring adaptation were a) the General Morale Index (GMI) and b) the Symptoms Checklist.

a) The General Morale Index (GMI) was a form of self-evaluation of well-being formulated by Lowenthal, Thurnher, Chiriboga, and Associates (1975:86). This index consisted of the summation of weighted scores of the responses to "dissatisfied" and "unhappy" on the Adjective Checklist (Elock, 1961; refer to Appendix III), the Bradburn Overall Happiness Rating (Bradburn, 1969) and the rating for the present year on the Life Evaluation Chart (Lowenthal et al., 1975:123). The Life Evaluation Chart (refer to Appendix IV) was a self-administered 9-point rating scale of satisfaction/dissatisfaction for each year past,

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present and future, reflecting the respondents' mood from "absolute tops" to "rock bottom." GMI scores ranged from 10 to 36.

A high GMI score indicated high morale and increased psychological well-being and adaptation. Unfortunately, there is no data on the validity or reliability of GMI.

b) The Symptoms Checklist (Lowenthal et al., 1975:104) was a self-administered checklist of psychosomatic or psychological impairment. It records the presence or absence of 42 symptoms (refer to Appendix VI). The higher the score or total number of positive responses to this 42 item checklist, the lower the respondent's degree of adaptation. The items included in the instrument were determined by a team of professional psychiatrists (Robert Butler, Leon Epstein, Leonard Micon, and Alexander Simon) on the basis of clinical evidence to be most often associated with psychological dysfunction. The reliability of the checklist was performed by a psychiatrist who evaluated the descriptions associated with each symptom twice,

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one month apart. The Pearson correlation coefficient for individual symptom response was .90 (n = 407) and for the global rating, .85 (both highly significant). No other form of validation or reliability had been performed.

In summary, the level of adaptation was measured by the General Morale Index (GMI) and the Symptoms Checklist. Even though there is no direct evidence for the validity and reliability of the GMI, the Symptoms Checklist was found to be valid and reliable. However, both instruments are useful tools in measuring different aspects of adaptation.

Methods of Data Analysis

The method of data analysis for the main study question, exploring the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to adult life stress, was primarily correlational in design. The crosssectional data were analyzed for the following: (1) life stage and sex similarities and differences for friendship and spouse intimacy; (2) the relationship between level of intimacy and adaptation (Hypothesis I); (3) the relationship between level of intimacy and adaptation for young and old people (Hypothesis II); (4) the relationship between stress and adaptation according to level of intimacy (Hypothesis III); and (5) the relationship between stress and adaptation according to level of intimacy for young and old people (Hypothesis IV).

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In summary, this chapter has served to delineate the methodology for accomplishing the research. This methods chapter contains a brief description of the research design and the sample, as well as the procedure and tools utilized to collect and analyze the data. The next chapter provides the results obtained from the specific research questions and methodologies established here.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter provides the results to the specific research questions raised (Chapter I) and methodologies established (Chapter III). Data for each of the four hypotheses are presented, along with some supplemental findings that help to further clarify the problem posed by the study. The results are presented in six sections, while the discussion of these results follows in the next chapter. The first two sections deal with supplemental and descriptive findings, while the last four report on the findings of the hypotheses. The six sections are as follows:

- (1) The association of gender with intimacy;
- (2) Life stage and sex similarities and differences in the level of friendship and spouse intimacy;
- (3) The relationship between adaptation and level of intimacy: Hypothesis I;
- (4) The relationship between adaptation and level of intimacy among older adults and younger adults: Hypothesis II;

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- (5) The relationship between life stress and adaptation for varying levels of intimacy: Hypothesis III; and
- (6) The relationship between life stress and adaptation for varying levels of intimacy for younger and older adults: Hypothesis IV.

The Association of Gender with Intimacy

The amount of influence that gender differences had with intimacy was discussed in Chapter II when the sample of judges operationally defined intimacy. As presented in Tables 4A, 4B, 4C, and 5 (Chapter II), no general degree of consensus existed within the total sample of 35 judges, regardless of sex, as to the ranking or degree of importance assigned the qualitative dimensions of intimacy. Instead, the rankings varied according to sex of respondent and sex of the recipient within the relationship (same-sex or opposite-sex). In other words, there were enough differences between men and women and same-sex and opposite-sex relationships in how the qualitative dimensions of intimacy were ranked to warrant the development of four separate profiles in order to operationally define the criteria for deeper levels of intimacy. In addition, the mean ranks for each of the 16 dimensions $\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{x}} +$

contained within WIR were analyzed for the main study sample (n = 171). T-tests were used to determine the significant differences between men and women and same-sex friends and (opposite-sex) spouses. As shown in Tables 10A and 10B, the mean ranks of six and nine dimensions, respectively, displayed significant differences between men and women. The results also indicated that 13 out of 16 intimacy dimensions were significantly different between a same-sex friend and a spoume (refer to Table 10C).

To further verify the association between gender and intimacy, Spearman correlations were performed on the main sample of 160 between each of the same-sex dimensions for friendships and each of opposite-sex dimensions for spouses. As shown in Table 11, no correlations (greater than a chance number) existed between the friendship and spouse intimacy dimensions. In addition, turning from specific items to mean ranks, an overall mean correlation of .167 existed between friendship ranks and spouse ranks, indicating a significant, but not strong association. In short, differences existed between same-sex friendships and spouse relationships as well as between men and women, representing a strong association between gender and the definition of intimacy.

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TABLE 10A

SAME-SEX FRIEND MEAN RANK SCORES FOR MEN AND WOMEN

		Ме (8	n 4)		men 87)	t-ratios (sig.)
		Mean Rank	Standard Deviation	Mean Rank		
1.	Sim/Complement-					
	ary Pers.	9.5	3.7	8.8	3.6	
2.	Similar interests		4.1	8.7	3.5	2.23 (p ≤.05)
3.	Similar attit-			-		
_	udes	6.9	3.7	8.3	3.9	$2.60 (p \leq .01)$
4.	Share activities	8.5	3.8	9.9	3.8	$2.60 (p \le .01)$
4. 5.	Likes me	7.3	4.1	7.7	3.6	
6.	Is comfortable/			• •		
-	easy to be with	6.1	3.5	5.5	3.0	
7.						
	entertaining				- •	
0	company	7.0	4.0	7.5	3.4	
8.	Knows me well	6.6	3.8	6.8	3•9	
9.	I respect			~ ~		
10	him/her	6.1	4.1	5.6	3.8	
10.		0 -	• •			
	and accepting	8.7	3.4	7.6	3.7	2 . 16 (p ≤ .05)
п.		6.5		-		
12.	and trustworthy	6.3	4.0	5.9	3•7	
750	Would help me out in a crisis	6.6	3.8	6.2	2.0	
13.		0.0	5.0	0.2	3.8	
-J•	can confide in	6.6	3.5	5.7	3.6	1 77 (10)
14.		0.0	رەر	2+1	2.0	1.77 (p ≤ .10)
	attractive	13.9	2.2	13.9	2.0	
15.		-2•/	tan 🗣 ina		2.00	
-2 •	satisfaction	15.3	1.7	15.7	1.2	
16.		-/•/				
	emotional attrac.					
	for each other	13.1	2.7	11.7	4.0	2.86 (p ≤ .01)

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TABLE 10B

SPOUSE MEAN RANK SCORES FOR MEN AND WOMEN

		Ме: (7			men 81)	
		Mean Rank	Stan dard Deviation	Mean Rank		t-ratios (sig.)
1.	Sim/Complement-				-	
	ary Pers.	11.8	4.2	11.9	3.6	
2.	Similar interests	10.7	4.4	11.6	3.8	
3.	Similar attit-	0 0		~ ~	1. 2	
1	udes	8.3	4.6	9.2	4.3	1.99(- < 10)
4.	Share activities	9.1	3.6 4.2	10.4 5.6	3.2 4.1	1.88 (p ≤ .10) 2.54 (p ≤ .02)
5. 6.	Likes me Is comfortable/	7.1	4.2	2.0	402	2.54 (p = .02)
0.	easy to be with	7.6	3.8	7.9	3.5	
7.	Is enjoyable,	1.0		(•/	2.0	
	entertaining					
	company	9.6	ц. О	11.0	3.5	2.60 (p ≤ .02)
8.	Knows me well	7.3	4.8	7.7	4.4	
9.	I respect	1.5		• - •		
•	him/her	6.3	4.4	4.8	4.2	2.47 ($p \leq .02$)
10.	Is supportive	-		-	•	
	and accepting	9.5	4.6	7.9	4.2	2.56 (p ≤.02)
ц.	Is dependable					· · ·
	and trustworthy	7•7	4.6	5.7	3.8	3.33 (p ≤ .001)
12.	Would help me		_		_	
	out in a crisis	9.5	4.0	7.6	3.4	$3.59 (p \le .001)$
13.	Is someone I		•	• •	• -	
- 1	can confide in	6.7	3.8	8.0	4.2	2.26 (p ≤ .05)
14.	Is physically	<u>م</u> م				
-	attractive	8.5	4.4	11.0	4.2	4.11 (p ≤.001)
15.	Provides sexual	0 7	۰. ۳	0.0	1. 9	
٦4	satisfaction	8.7	4.5	9•3	4.7	
16.	We feel a strong					
	emotional attrac.		1. 6	6.2	4.4	
	for each other	6.9	4.6	0.2	4•4	

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TABLE 10C

MEAN RANK SCORES FOR SAME-SEX FRIEND AND SPOUSE

			Sex Friend 171)		ouse 160)	
		Mean Rank	Standard Deviation	Mean Rank	Standa rd Deviation	t-ratios (sig.)
1.	Sim/Complement-		_	0		
	ary Pers.	9.1	3.8	11.8	4.0	$6.97 (p \le .001)$
2.	Similar interests	8.1	3•9	11.1	4.4	$7.28 (p \le .001)$
3.	Similar attit-			~ 7	1 -	2 (001)
	udes	7.6	3.9	9.1	4.5	3.54 (p ≤.001)
4.	Share activities	9.2	3.8	9.8	3.7	
5.	Likes me	7.5	3.8	6.4	4.3	2.67 (p ≤ .001)
6.	Is comfortable/					
	easy to be with	5.8	3•3	7•9	3•7	6.06 (p ≤.001)
7.	Is enjoyable,					
	entertaining					
	company	7.3	3•7	10.3	3.9	7.75 (p = .001)
8.	Knows me well	6.7	3.9	7.4	4.6	$1.65 (p \le .10)$
9.	I respect					
•	him/her	5.8	4.0	5.5	4.4	
10.	Is supportive					
	and accepting	8.2	3•7	8.7	4.5	
п.	Is dependable					
	and trustworthy	6.0	3.9	6.7	4.3	1.70 (p ≤ .10)
12.	Would help me					
	out in a crisis	6.4	3.9	8.6	3.9	5.68 (p ≤ .001)
13.	Is someone I can					
	confide in	6.1	3.8	7.4	4.1	$3.25 (p \le .001)$
14.	Is physically					
	attractive	13.9	2.2	9.8	4.6	11.37 (p ≤ .001)
15.	Provides sexual					
-23	satisfaction	15.5	1.8	9.0	4.5	$18.76 (p \le .001)$
16.	We feel a strong					-
	emotional attrac.					
	for each other	12.4	3•7	6.4	4.7	$14.14 (p \le .001)$
		-				

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	ansi ons	11 12 13							24**			*07•	•22*							
OF INTIMACY SHIPS	Spouse Intimacy Dimensions	8 9 IO							•37**	-28*										
N CORRELATION MATRIX FOR QUALITATIVE DIMENSIONS OF IN BETWEEN SAME-SEX FRIENDSHIPS AND SPOUSE RELATIONSHIPS	Spc	5 6 7	*****	20*								3								
ATRIX FOR QUALITY X FRIENDSHIPS ANI	(n = 160)	2 3 4	*1		*12.			23*		-22*										
SPEARMAN CORRELATION MATRIX FOR QUALITATIVE DIMENSIONS OF INTIMACY BETWEEN SAME-SEX FRIENDSHIPS AND SPOUSE RELATIONSHIPS			Sim/Complement	Similar interests	Similar attitudes Share activities	Likes me Comfortable/easy	to be with Enjoyable. enter-		I respect him/her	Supportive and	Dependable and	trustworthy Would help me	out in a crisis	I can confide in Physically attrac.	Provides sexual	satisfaction	We feel a strong	for each other	•05	
SPEA			1. Sim/	2.		о. Со Со	Same-Sex 7. En	in 8.	.6		Dimensions 11. De	12. 10		13. I			16. We	C L	* p ≤ •05	
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** p≤.01

TABLE 11

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Life Stage and Sex-Similarities and Differences in the Level of Friendship and Spouse Intimacy

In addition to exploring the gender differences in intimacy, life stage and sex similarities and differences in the level of friendship and spouse intimacy were also explored. Intimacy scores were determined by summing the ranks of the dimensions contained in the relevant profile. Chapter III's section on "Methodological Tools: Intimacy" contains a more detailed description of this process. Since a different number of dimensions were utilized in each profile, a different total or maximum score possible existed for each profile as follows:

Male friendship intimacy =	91
Male spouse intimacy =	81
Female friendship intimacy =	58
Female spouse intimacy =	70

The mean "raw" intimacy scores for friends and spouses are reported in Tables 12A and 12B for each life stage and sex grouping. Interpretation of these findings were difficult, however, since the four intimacy measures varied in their scale ranges. Therefore, standardization procedures were used in order to allow comparisons across measures. The intimacy standardized (Z) scores for each life stage and sex grouping are reported in Tables 13 and 14.

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TABLE 12A

RAW INTIMACY SCORES FOR FRIENDSHIP AND SPOUSE INTIMACY BY LIFE STAGE AND SEX

		Raw Intimacy Mean Scores/Ma				ximum Score Possible			
		Frien	dship (1	N)		Spouse (N)			
Life Stage/Sex		Mean/	Maximum	Score	Mean Ratio Score	Mean/	Maximum	Score	Mean Ratio Score
High School	Males	(20)	72.15	/ 91	•79	(14)	59.57	/ 81	•74
	Females	(24)	47.75	/ 58	•82	(22)	53.82	/ 70	•77
Newlywed	Mal es	(20)	71.65	/ 91	•79	(23)	58 . 44	/81.	•72
	Females	(19)	42.47,	/ 58	•72	(23)	57.00	/ 70	.81
Empty Nest	Males	(21)	71.67	/ 91	•79	(20)	54.10	/ 81.	•67
	Females	(22)	40.68	/ 58	•70	(21)	47.91	/ 70	•68
Retired	Males	(22)	69.96	/ 91	•77	(22)	50.00	/ 81	•62
	Females	(23)	39.78	/ 58	•69	(15)	50 .60	/ 70	•72

TABLE 12B

RAW INTIMACY SCORES FOR FRIENDSHIP AND SPOUSE INTIMACY BY SEX

	Friendship (N)		Spouse (N)		
		Mean		Mean	
Sex	Mean/Maximum Score	Ratio Score	Mean/Maximum Score	Ratio Score	
Males	(83) 71.33 / 91	•78	(79) 55.19 / 81	•68	
Females	(88) 40.91 / 58	•70	(81) 52.59 / 70	•75	
Total N	171		160		

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TABLE 13

STANDARDIZED (Z) SCORES FOR FRIENDSHIP AND SPOUSE INTIMACY BY LIFE STAGE

	Intimacy			
Life Stage	Fr	iendship		Spouse
	(N)		(N)	
High School	(44)	51.00	(36)	52.53
Newlywed	(39)	50.54	(46)	53.98
Empty Nest	(43)	50 .0 4	(41)	46.92
Retired	(45)	48.52	(37)	45.99

TABLE 14

STANDARDIZED (Z) SCORES FOR FRIENDSHIP AND SPOUSE INTIMACY BY LIFE STAGE AND SEX

		Intimacy				
Life Stage/Sex [Friendshi				
		(N)	(N)			
High School	Males	(20) 50.93	(14) 54.48			
	Females	(24) 51.07	(22) 51.29			
Newlywed	Males	(20) 50.36	(23) 53.32			
	Femal es	(19) 50.72	(23) 54.65			
Empty Nest	Males	(21) 50.38	(20) 48.89			
	Females	(22) 49.71	(21) 45.05			
Retired	Males	(22) 48.46	(22) W1.70			
	Femal.es	(23) 48.57	(15) 47.90			
	Total N	171	160			



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An analysis of variance performed on the <u>friendship</u> intimacy (2) scores revealed no significant differences between life stage, sex, or the life stage and sex interaction. This cross-sectional data indicated a similar level of intimacy for both men and women with their closest friend across the adult life cycle. There was, however, a lower friendship intimacy score in the older sample (retired = 48.52) and a higher score in the younger sample (high school = 51.00). These differences were not significant, therefore, suggesting that the level of intimacy with close friends remains stable from one life stage to another. The implications of these findings are discussed in the next chapter (Chapter V).

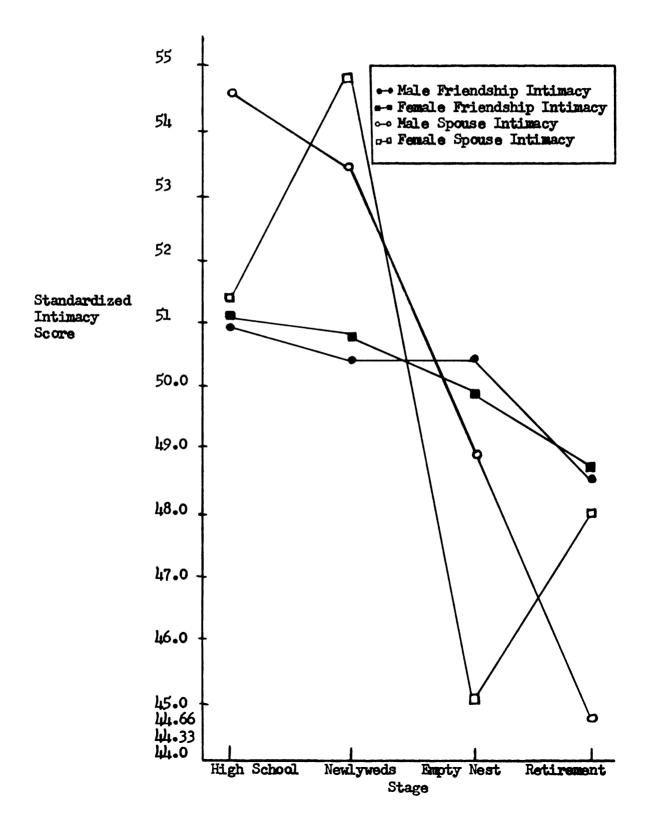
In contrast to the above findings on friendship intimacy, an analysis of variance for level of <u>spouse</u> intimacy revealed highly significant differences between life stages (F = 7.29, $p \le .001$) and an interaction between life stage and sex (F = 3.69, $p \le .001$). Figure 3 graphically represents the life stage and sex level of intimacy scores for both close friends and spouses. Clearly, the level of spouse intimacy differs from one life stage to another with a dramatic shift towards lower levels of intimacy among the older sample. For example, the high school seniors had a mean level of intimacy score of 52.53, while the retired sample had a significantly lower score of 45.99. In addition, a life stage and sex interaction occurred, indicating different trajectories for men

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FIGURE 3

LEVEL OF STANDARDIZED INTIMACY SCORES BY STAGE AND SEX



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and women across the life cycle. This cross-sectional data unfolded a successive decrease in intimacy scores for men from high school to retirement. The women, on the other hand, initially displayed an increase in spouse intimacy during the newlywed stage, but drastically decreased with the empty nest cohort. This significantly decreasing trend in spouse intimacy during middle age reversed itself and actually increased for the retirement cohort. Chapter V contains a discussion of these findings. The results have indicated that highly significant differences exist in the level of spouse intimacy between life stages and the interaction between life stage and sex.

The difference between intimacy scores for males and females was not significant for spouse intimacy. It was thought by this investigator, however, that the lack of significant sex differences was due to the standardization procedure of scores by sex. Consequently, mean ratios (raw mean score + ideal maximum possible score) were determined and utilized instead. Table 15 reports the mean ratios along with results of t-tests for differences between means for males and females, as well as between friendship and spouse intimacy for each sex. As shown in Table 15, the mean ratios were significantly different between men and women for both friendship and spouse intimacy. In other words, males had significantly higher mean ratios for friendship intimacy than did the females,

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TABLE 15

MEAN RATIOS AND T-TESTS FOR SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INTIMACY TYPE AND SEX

				Int	imacy (1	N)	
			Frie	ndship	Spo	156	t-tests (level of significance)
		Mean Ratio	•78	(83)	•68	(79)	t = 5.76
SEX	Males	Standard Deviation	•098		.121		(p ≤ .02)
		Mean Ratio	•70	(88)	•75	(81.)	t = 2.54
	Females	Standard Deviation	.136		.117		(p <u><</u> .02)
-	t-tests (level c signifi- cance)					3.70 <u><</u> .001.)	



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while females came significantly closer to fulfilling the ideal for spouse intimacy than did the males. In addition, friendship intimacy was significantly higher (or closer to the ideal) than spouse intimacy for the males and the reverse was found to be significant for the females.

In short, the level of spouse intimacy differs significantly between life stages and sex, while the level of friendship intimacy only differs between men and women and not life stage.

The Relationship Between Adaptation and Level of Intimacy: <u>Hypothesis I</u>

In addition to the descriptive findings concerning the assocation of gender with intimacy and the life stage and sex differences for the level of intimacy, the main study question required the exploration of the potential direct association between the level of intimacy and adaptation. In other words, was an increase in adaptation associated with an increase in the level of intimacy, regardless of the amount of stress? Hypothesis I predicted this relationship accordingly:

There is a significant positive correlation

between adaptation and level of intimacy.

The results (refer to Table 16) indicate that no significant Pearson correlation coefficients existed between either friendship or spouse intimacy and the measures of adaptation: namely, morale or psychosomatic symptoms. Therefore, Hypothesis I was not supported.

			Adap	Adapta to on					
	H4 ab School		Stage Bun	ge (N) Barty Nact		Rati nement			
	I WD	Sympt. GM I Sy (1.1.) (30)	Sympt.	GM I S	mpt.	GM I	Sympt.		
Friendship	H	0	0		-•22	1C#1	IL.		
Spouse	(%) 10	(off) (02) (1(p))	(of)		(TH)	0 (37)	(15)		
Intimacy:				Stage-Sax	(N)				
	MSH	HSF N	MWM	NWF	ENM		ENF	RM	RF
Fri endshin	GM I Sympt. (20) (20)	GM I Sympt. GM I (24) (24) (29) (1), 37	Sympt. (20)	GM I Sympt. (19) (19)	GM I (21	Sympt. GM) (21) ()	I Sympt. (22) (22)	GM I Sym (22) (0 19	te GM I Sympt. (22) (23) (23)
	(11) (11)	22) (22) ((23) (23)	(23) (23)	(20)	(12)	1	(22) (22) (23) (23)
Spouse	- <u>71-</u> 0	23 .34 .22	9T.	0	0 TT	• 12	0	0 .18	0
		Toung-Old (N)	(N) 1					Sex (N)	
	Young Males GM I Sympt.	Young Females GM I Sympt.	I WD	Jes		I MD		e M	Total GM I Sympt
Fri endship	9	(43) (43) -•10 •17) [L	חד	(45) (4	(5) (83) 0	(83) (8 0 0	(88) (88) 0	0 0 0
Spouse	(37) (37) 019	(45) (45) 0 0	0 (42)	(211) (0 (111) (111)	(62) (17) 0	(79) (8 0 0	(89) (89) 0	(168) (168) 0 0

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN INDICES OF INTIMACY AND ADAPTATIONS BY LIFE STAGE, SEX AND AGE

TABLE 16

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The Relationship Between Adaptation and Level of Intimacy Among Older Adults and Young Adults: Hypothesis II

Hypothesis II further specified the relationship between level of intimacy and adaptation and predicted the following:

> The level of intimacy is more strongly associated with adaptation among older adults than younger adults.

In order to test this hypothesis, the first two life stages (high school students and the newly married) were grouped together to include the young, while the next two adult life stages (empty nest and retirement) were grouped together to become the alder subsample. The results, as shown in the lower portion of Table 16, indicate no significantly greater correlations between level of intimacy and adaptation (morale or symptoms) for the alder men or women than the younger men or women in either close friends or spouses. Therefore, Hypothesis II was rejected.

The Relationship Between Life Stress and Adaptation For Varying Levels of Intimacy: Hypothesis III

In order to determine the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to stress, it was hypothesized that the level of intimacy would have an indirect, intervening, or mediating affect between stress and adaptation. Hypothesis III stated this intervening affect as follows:

The correlation between adult life stress and adaptation differs significantly for varying levels of intimacy.

In order to test this hypothesis, respondents were categorized into high and low subgroups for both friendship and spouse intimacy (determined by dichotomizing the level of intimacy at the mean) and correlations were then obtained between the measures of stress and adaptation for each of the subgroups. Table 17 presents the correlations and the significance of the difference between the correlations for high and low levels of intimacy for the total sample. No significant differences existed in the correlations for either friends or spouses between stress and adaptation (either morale or symptoms). Therefore, Hypothesis III was rejected.

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TABLE 17

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN STRESS AND ADAPTATION (MORALE AND SYMPTOMS) BY LEVEL OF FRIENDSHIP AND SPOUSE INTIMACY

Correlation	is Betw	een Stress	and	Morale	For	Total	Sample	(N)
Friendship Intimacy Level	Hi Low	32 (91) 42 (91)		Spouse Intimacy Level	Hi. Low	-•3 (78 -•3 (104	<u>)</u> 3	
(t) Sig. of the Diff. Between Correlati		N.S.		(t) Sig. Diff. Betwe Corre	en	N.S	•	

Correlations Between Stress and Symptoms For Total Sample (N)

Friend Intima Level		Hi Low	•39 (<u>91</u>) •31 (<u>91</u>)	Spouse Intima Level	cy _	Hi Low	•36 (78) •36 (104)	
th Be	g. of he Diff. stween prrelatio	ons	N.S.	Di: Be	g. 0 ff. twee rrel		N.S.	



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Relationship Between Life Stress and Adaptation For Varying Levels of Intimacy for Younger and Older Adults: Hypothesis IV

Even though the level of intimacy for the total sample did not have an impact on the relationship between life stress and adaptation, the major hypothesis stated that this relationship would vary with age and, in fact, be more powerful for older adults than younger adults. Hypothesis IV stated:

> The effect of the level of intimacy on the correlation between adult life stress and adaptation is greater for older adults than younger adults.

In order to test this hypothesis, the total sample was divided into subsamples: stages, stage and sex groupings, a younger subsample consisting of the first two stages (high school and newlywed), and an older subsample consisting of the next two stages (empty nest and retired). The results are shown in Tables 18 and 19.

Looking first at those high and low in <u>friendship</u> intimacy, the difference between correlations for stress and morale (Table 18A) was significant only for the oldest group -- those in the retirement stage. Among the people within this stage having a low level of intimacy significantly increased the negative correlation between stress and morale. The men within the retirement stage contributed the most to this association since a trend existed for the older men,

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but not the women for those low on friendship intimacy to exhibit a negative correlation between stress and morale. On the other hand, the correlations between stress and psychosomatic symptoms (Table 18B) were significantly higher and positive for the young, primarily the young females, who had a high level of intimacy. The males (both young and old) reversed this pattern: among those who were low on friendship intimacy, stress was more strongly linked to symptomatology.

As shown in Table 19, the level of <u>spouse</u> intimacy influenced many more correlations between stress and adaptation than did friendship intimacy. The correlations between stress and morale (Table 19A) were significantly higher and negative among those young people who had a high level of intimacy. These differences between correlations occurred primarily for the young females and those in the newlywed stage of life. However, for the older sample, the correlations between stress and morale were greater for those who had a low level of intimacy. The older men and women, predominantly within the retirement stage, contributed most to this direction.

Additional results for the correlations between stress and psychosomatic symptoms (Table 19B) revealed a similar directional increase for those older people who had a low level of spouse intimacy. In other words, the older two stages (empty nest and retirement) manifest higher correlations between stress and symptoms when they had a low level of intimacy with their spouse. This relationship occurred primarily for the older females and not the males.

PEARSON CORRELATION CORFELICIENTS BETWEEN STRESS AND ADAPTATION (MORALE AND SYMPTOMS) BY FRIENDSHIP INTIMACY	RREI	NOITA	COLFFTC	LENTS	BETWEEN	V STRESS	AUD ADA	PTATION	(MORAL	E AND S	ZMPTOMS)	BY FRIEN	DSHTP I	NTIMACY
				Correl	ations	Correlations between Stress and Morale (N)	Stress	and Mor	ale (N)					
		Total.	1	Young Old Male		Female	High School	New- Lywed	Empty Nest	Re- tired	Young	Young Females	Old Males	Old Females
Friendship	田	32 (91)	28 (147)	14228 (E41) (143)	28 (143)	-,35 (148)	19 (27)	-51 (20)	64 (23)	0 (2)	-•34 (22)	24 (26)	-•25 (22)	58 (22)
Level Level	LOW	Low42 (91.)	3256141 (141) (147) (146)	56	(911)	(51) (12)	25	143 (25)	-•54 (21)	-•63 (26)	-•36 (2h)	29 (20)	56	-•57 (25)
(t) Sig. of the Diff. between		N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N•S•	N•S•	N.S.	N.S.	N S	t=2.4 p .01	N.S.	N.S.	t=1.2 p .10	N.S.
Correl atlons	Suc					TABLI	TABLE 18B							
			50	rrel at	ions be	Correlations between Stress and Symptoms (N)	rress an	d Sympt	oms (N)					
		Total. Sample		Toung Old	Male	Fenale	Hi.gh School.	New- Lywed	Empty Nest	Re- tired	Young	Young Females	Old Males	01.d Females

TABLE 18A

		Total. Sample	Total Sample Young Old	pTO	Male	Female	High School	New- 1.ywed	Empty Nest	Re- tired	Toung	Young Females	Ol d Males	01.d Femal.es
Friendship	臣	•39 (91)	•山2 •山0 (山1) (山1)	(141)	•08 (143)	•50 (48)	•h2 (27)	•32 (20)	•62 (23)	ور. (12)	न ् त्र)	• ⁴⁷ (26)	•19 (22)	•56 (22)
Intimacy Level	Low	це) (19)	•23 •36 (111) (117)	•36	· ·	• 34	•53	•03 (25)	• ¹⁴³ (21)	•16 (26)	•31 (24)	•07 (20)	•27 (22)	•57 (25)
(t) Sig. of the Diff. between Correlations	SC	N.S.	p 10	N.S.	1+24 1	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	t=1.4 p. 608	N•S•	N.S.

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PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN STRESS AND ADAPTATION (MORALE AND SYMPTOMS) BY SPOUSE INTIMACY

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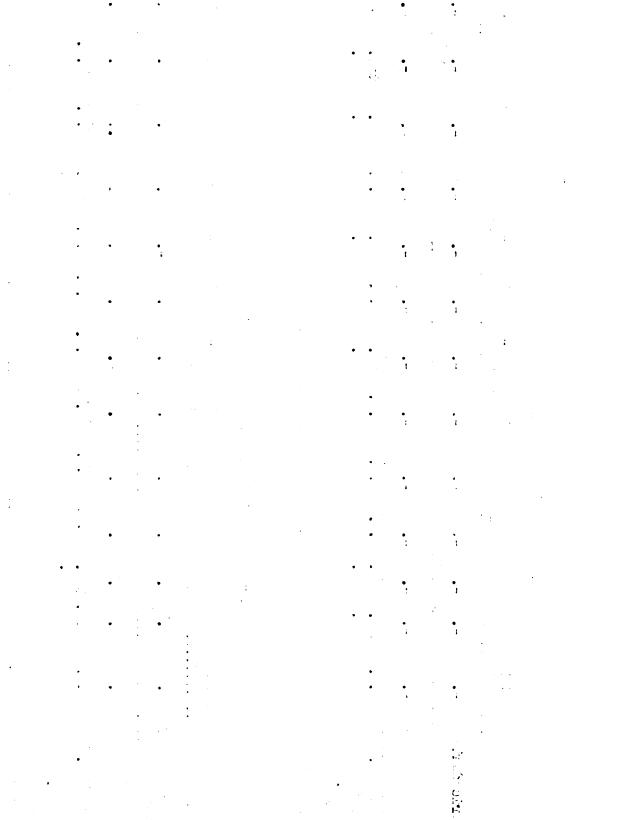
		Total. Sample	Total Sample Young Old	OLd	Male	Female	High School	New- Lywed	Empty Nest	Re- tired	Young	Young Females	01.d Mal.es	Old Females
Spouse Intimacy	H	-•38 (78)	14208 (51) (27)	08	32 ((10)	142	20	-•67 (0E)	39	-•20 (12)	40 (23)	-•43 (28)	(11) (11)	(01) -•00
Level	Low	Low33 (104)	1757 (40) (04)	57	-• ¹ 40	-•32 (55)	17 (25)	-•03 (15)	-•57 (29)	52 (35)	-•31 (22)	13 (18)	-•50 (27)	-•62 (37)
(t) Sig.		N.S.	t=2.1	t=2.4	N.S.	N.S.		t=2.3	N.S.	t=2.1	N.S.	t=1.2	t=1.2	t=1.7
of the Diff.			p≤•01p≤	0• ≯ d	8			p ≤ .01		p≤ •02		p≤ •10	p≤ •10	tio• ≥ q
between Correl ations	ous													

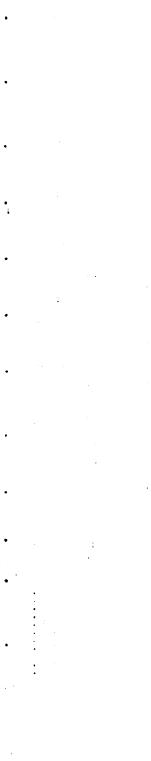
TABLE 19B

Correlations between Stress and Symptoms (N)

Young Cld Old Females Males Females	•42 •21 •18 (28) (17) (10)	•49 •25 •65 (18) (27) (37)	
Young You Males Fen	•46 (23) (3	•06 (22) (J	
Re- tired	50 (12)	•h2 (35)	N•S•
Empty Nest	•59	•52 (29)	N.S.
New- Lywed	.35 (30)	-•25 (15)	N.S.
High School	(21) (21)	•48 (25)	N.S.
Female	•37 (38)	•47 (55)	N S
Male	.30	•18 (<i>1</i> ,9)	8 N S
01.d	•20 (27)	• ¹ ,0	1 14 4
Young	21°	•28 (40)	N.S.
Total Sample Young Old Male	•36 (78)	•36 (104)	N•S•
	H	Low	suc
	Spouse Intimacy	телет	(t) Sig. of the Diff. between Correlations







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The results, in short, lend support for Hypothesis IV. However, this general support has some qualifications: the young and old people differ in the direction of the increase in association between stress and adaptation, and spouse intimacy is a more powerful influence on the association than friendship intimacy.

In summary, the results indicate that not only is there a strong association of gender with the conception and definition of intimacy, but the level of intimacy differs from one adult life stage and sex to another. The specific research hypotheses exploring the relationship between level of intimacy and adaptation to stress were all rejected except the fourth most important (from a developmental perspective) hypothesis. The results of this hypothesis indicate that significant differences existed in the correlation between stress and adaptation for the young and old people who had high and low levels of intimacy (primarily with their spouse). In other words, older people manifested a higher correlation between stress and adaptation if they had a low level of intimacy, whereas the reverse was true for the younger people. The implication of this finding is that spouse intimacy can be conceived as having a mediating or intervening effect on adaptation for older adults, but not younger adults. The next chapter will discuss these findings in greater detail.

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CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The discussion of the results will focus on three issues: (1) the qualitative differences within levels of intimacy; (2) intimacy across the adult life span; and (3) the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to adult life stress. The discussion of findings contributes to the beginnings of a theory of intimacy and its impact on adaptation through the adult life.

Levels of Intimacy: Qualitative Differences

Qualitative differences within interpersonal intimacy were established on the basis of judges. To review, the judges were asked to rank the intimacy dimensions for an <u>ideal</u> relationship. The results indicated that intimacy was not a universal phenomenon that cross-cut different types of relationships. Instead, different qualitative dimensions contribute to higher levels of intimacy depending on the sex of the respondent and the significant other within the relationship, resulting in four intimacy profiles:

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male-male, male-female, female-female, and female-male relationships (the dimensions within each profile can be found in Chapter II, pp. 114-115). The discussion of these profiles will be focused around the following considerations: (1) differences between male and female friendships; (2) differences between friend and spouse relationships; (3) differences between male and female spouses; (4) the differences between men and women for both friends and spouses; and finally (5) the commonality between profiles.

Looking first at male and female friendships, the intimacy profile for male same-sex friendships differed from female friendships by the inclusion of the following dimensions:

- (1) I respect him
- (2) Is comfortable and easy to be with
- (3) Knows me well

In other words, it was the men who emphasized respect in their friendships more than the women. This finding appears to be consistent with the research from the conceptually related area of liking and loving. For example, Rubin's (1973) contention that respect is a fundamental dimension of liking but not loving, and Reiss' (1960) finding that respect applies more to men than women in loving relationships. One implication is that sex-role differences have a tremendous impact on the importance or value of respect within intimate relationships and not just work-role functions.

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Similarly, the inclusion of comfort and ease as an important dimension of intimacy for male friendships, but not female friendships, tends to support the social stereotype or caricature of male companionship as a respite from more intense or demanding interactions with females. Apparently, intimacy with male friends or companions centers on a more relaxed, open compatibility which is relatively free from anxiety and fear. This comfortable interaction with another, however, is not only complemented by respect for the other, but with the perception that the other knows him well. Therefore, the important dimensions within male friendships, above and beyond those that are common to female friendships, imply a greater degree of compatibility based on respect, comfort and knowledge. In addition, even though the inclusion of more dimensions in male friendship intimacy implies a greater degree of complexity, these relationships seem to be locked into or at least conform to stereotypical sex-role patterns.

Female same-sex friendships, on the other hand, contained no dimensions that were different from male friendships. Instead, those qualities that the women respondents considered important within their friendships were arranged in an unique order and consequently valued differently than the men (although not statistically significant). Being supportive and accepting was considered most important, followed by dependable and trustworthy,

likes me, and being able to confide in. Women value the support and acceptance of their friend more than the men. To women, nourishment and sustenance, as well as approval and understanding are primary functions served by close friends. Secondly, female friendships provide a dependable and trustworthy type of relationship, in which the reliance on the others' assurance of commitment and security is an integral element within the bond. Men placed an approximately equal value on this dimension. However, "likes me" -- or the perceived affection by the other -- ranks third for the women, while the men rank it seventh. This dimension coupled with the preceding dimensions implies a strong reciprocal affective component to a female-female bond; whereas a male-male bond emphasizes the sharing of confidences, being confortable and dependable, as well as having respect, support, and knowledge before reciprocal affection becomes important.

Finally, the criteria for female friendships include the element of sharing confidences as the fourth most important component of a higher level of intimacy. The degree of importance the women place on this dimension, however, is not equivalent to the men's ranking. The men perceive disclosing their innermost thoughts and feelings as being the primary dimension within friendships. This discrepancy appears to be somewhat confusing inasmuch as Lowenthal and Haven (1968) found that women are more likely to mention friends as confidents than are men. The most obvious explanation for this •

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finding is that "confides in" means quite different things to men and women. An additional methodological explanation is that the present data are achieved through a more abstract process of identifying dimensions for an ideal friendship, whereas the Lowenthal and Haven work identified "real" confidants. This difference between real and ideal conceptions is initially addressed in earlier work on friendship networks by Weiss and Lowenthal (1975).

In sum, the qualities of an ideal female friendship tend to emphasize emotional support, acceptance, dependability, and reciprocal affection. Male friendships emphasize the same qualities that the female friendships do, but to different degrees and with additional factors included: comfort, knowledge of, and respect. These additional dimensions imply a greater degree of complexity within male friendships, but must be explored more thoroughly in future research.

Qualitative differences also exist between those dimensions considered important within friendship intimacy and those considered important within spouse intimacy. As mentioned earlier, both men and women emphasize the importance of their friend as being dependable and trustworthy. This dimension, however, is not considered as important among spouses and consequently not included within the definition of spouse intimacy for either men or women. Instead, spouse relationships distinctly emphasize the importance of a strong emotional attraction for each other, which in turn is not valued in friendship intimacy. Both the men and the women

• • • • unquestionably value feeling a strong emotional attraction for each other, since each ranks it number one for spouse intimacy. This emphasis on reciprocal, passionate feelings reflects an element of tenderness, caring, and eroticism that seem appropriate to opposite-sex spouse intimacy. Perhaps this emphasis on passionate feelings for spouse intimacy, and not friendship intimacy, reflects the importance of a sexual component. Interpretation of this sexual component extends beyond mere egocentric gratification and instead includes reciprocal passionate feelings. The importance of this dimension within spouse intimacy supports Walster and Bersheid's (1971) theory of passionate love which claims the necessity within a heterosexual love relationship of an aroused state of passion and the labeling of such a state accordingly.

Friendship intimacy, on the other hand, does not emphasize feeling a strong emotional attraction, but rather one's being dependable and trustworthy. To have confidence and hope in another, as well as to rely on that other person for aid and security appear to be essential elements of intimacy among friends. To have a dependable friend fits the societal image of what friendship is all about. However, to place importance on dependability with a spouse appears antagonistic or contradictory to the image of independence that our society so vehemently promotes. Therefore, instead of focusing on a dependable relationship, American marriages shift towards the romantic ideal of mutually shared passionate feelings. •

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The influence of stereotypical images on the intimacy profiles is also reflected in the sexual differences found for spouse intimacy. While males stressed the importance of having their spouse provide sexual satisfaction, the females placed more importance on respect for their spouse (supports Reiss' [1960] finding). This finding is consistent with the cultural emphasis on the males' demand for sexual provess, with the marital relationship being no exception, and the females' expressed need or desire for status and respect for their men. These differences between the sexes appear to reinforce the mythology of sex bias and to structure the relationships between men and women in such a way as to perpetuate the subservient position of women. Although women do not define sexual satisfaction as a dimension of higher level intimacy, if they want to please their men, women must provide sexual satisfaction. Consequently, a woman may come to perceive herself as a sex object. In addition, if a woman wants to please herself in the development of a close relationship, she needs to respect her man. Consequently, by looking up to her spouse, she puts herself in a one-down position which reinforces her subservient role. Although there are additional less sexually-biased factors which contribute to higher levels of intimacy, cultural determination of sex-roles does seem to influence our ideal intimacy profiles.

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One final sex difference needs explication. Another dimension exists for the male friendship and spouse intimacy profiles, but not for either of the female profiles. Namely, males perceive comfort and ease in being with another as an important and perhaps a necessary dimension within intimacy, while the females do not. Since this degree of comfort, quiet presence, or compatibility is reflected in both of the intimacy profiles for the men, it refutes the stereotype or social caricature (mentioned earlier) of male friends seeking each other's company as a relief from their more intense, demanding, or anxiety producing relationships with the opposite-sex. Instead, men also desire comfort and ease with the relationships in general. In short, men value highly the feelings of compatibility and comfort within their intimate relationships, whereas the women do not.

As discussed above, there are several qualitative differences between the conceptualizations of intimacy for both men and women. These differences between the four intimacy profiles are interwoven with a common thread involving three dimensions:

- 1) Is someone I can confide in
- 2) Is supportive and accepting
- 3) Likes me

These three dimensions represent important aspects for each of the intimacy profiles, but vary according to their degree of contribution.

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For example, the men consider having a confidant as the most important aspect of friendship intimacy and the second most important in spouse intimacy. Women rank having a confidant as fourth in friendship intimacy and third in spouse intimacy. While these differences in mean ranks were not statistically significant, they reflect the variation between sexes in the definition of intimacy. Weaving a fabric of commonality between the intimacy profiles, these three dimensions comprise approximately one-half to three-quarters of the dimensions involved in the definition of higher levels of intimacy and, in turn, reflect an element of generalizability that cross-cuts sex and type of relationship. The overriding theme of these three dimensions is one of reciprocal affection, understanding, and self-disclosure. They contain the "emotionality" of Dahms (1972), the components of "Being-love" from Maslow (1954), and the mutual sharing of private and unique innermost thoughts and feelings advocated by Jourard (1964). In addition, this common configuration not only includes dimensions emphasized by some of the theorists of interpersonal behavior, but also those that have provided research evidence for the association between mutual sharing of supportive affection, or empathy, and adaptation to stress and illness (e.g. Spitz, 1945; Robertson and Swinn, 1968; Lowenthal and Haven, 1968). This common thread, therefore, provides some consistency and generalizability to the definition and function of intimacy.

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In summary, qualitative differences in intimacy contribute to the conceptualization of four intimacy profiles. Possible explanations as to why particular dimensions are included in the dimension of each of the profiles result in an awareness of the influence that our cultural stereotypes have on intimate relationships. In addition, the commonalities between the intimacy profiles reflect a configuration of reciprocal affection, support, and self-disclosure that lend credence to the potential role intimacy has in adaptation to stress. Before discussing the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to stress, intimacy will first be put into the perspective of the adult life span.

Intimacy Across the Adult Life Span

Intimacy across the adult life span was investigated by using the intimacy ranking instrument on the Human Development and Aging Transitional sample within San Francisco. In the introduction of this research, intimacy was not only conceived in terms of developmental phenomenon, but also one concerned with levels of relatedness. It was thought that different levels of intimacy would occur with different developmental issues or transitions throughout the adult life. Some theorists maintain that higher levels of intimacy are more probable in the older adult because of more aware, responsible, and considerate modes of interaction. Others emphasized a general decrease in intimacy over time. The present research

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found that differences exist between friendship and spouse intimacy and that a general tendency to wax and wane according to life stage and sex resulted. Therefore, intimacy across the adult life span is discussed separately for friendships and spouses.

The analysis of life stage and sex differences were not significant for friendship intimacy. The results indicated that the level of friendship intimacy for both men and women remained constant across the life span, with a slight non-significant tendency to decrease * with each stage of cohorts (refer to Figure 3, p. 147). This finding supports our earlier, more exploratory work (Meiss and Lowenthal, 1975) in which friendship was also found to remain fairly constant across the adult life span. This constant level of friendship intimacy not only implies that the concept of "friend" and the important functions of close friends remain stable throughout the adult life, but also that the situational factors which affect each stage have little or no relationship to the level. of friendship intimacy attained. Given this stability and situational independence, the potential for close friends to act as a resource in adaptation or provide support in times of crises should be an important factor in later life, especially when the stresses and strains of a particular stage focus on family or marital affairs (e.g. the empty nest women).

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The reader is reminded that this research is cross-sectional, and not longitudinal.

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Even though the level of friendship intimacy did not change according to life stage for the total sample, there were differences between men and women (refer to Table 15, p. 149). Proportionately, the men achieved a significantly higher level of intimacy (or came closer to fulfilling the ideal) among their closest friends than the women. This finding dispels the myth that women, being the "socio-emotional experts," place greater importance on interpersonal relationships and consequently, achieve more intimacy with their friends than do the men. The above results imply that men are greater "socio-emotional experts" with their friends than women are with their friends. However, the women in general were comparatively more intimate with their spouses than with their friends, and were more intimate with their spouses than the men were with their spouses. Considering the implications of this finding, if an association existed between intimacy and adaptation than a man's best friend, but a woman's spouse, would assume a more important function in the adaptive process. The following section discusses this issue in greater depth. For now, it is sufficient to recognize the gender difference in intimacy between friends and spouses.

The finding that men are more intimate with their friends than are women provides some explanation as to the tremendous amount of men who structure their lives around other men. This finding supports Lionel Tiger's (1969) proposition that men have stronger bonds with their same-sex friends than women have with their same-sex

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friends. Whether the structuring centers around traditional work settings or leisure environments, men seem to congregate around other men in either the front seat of a car or a street corner, in the office or during the coffee break, on the golf course or in the clubhouse. Freud (1922) conceived friendships among men as a latent form of homosexuality. This author does not go so far as to support this definition, but does acknowledge the centrality and emphasis that men have with other men, which Freud implied in his observation. Sullivan's (1953) emphasis on the establishment of a genuine relationship with the same-sex "chum," a major development task during preadolescence, clearly does not stop with the advent of adulthood, but persists throughout the adult life and appears to be generally higher and potentially more powerful for men than women.

In contrast to friendship intimacy, the level of spouse intimacy significantly changed from one adult life stage to another (refer to Figure 3, p. 147). The overall effect was a significant decrease from the two younger stages of life to the two older stages. Even given the cross-sectional nature of the data, these results support a deterioration or disenchantment theory of marital relations (Pineo, 1961). This general decrease in the level of spouse intimacy, however, waxes and wanes according to each life stage and sex. One additional explanation centers around the method of collecting verbal and selfperceptual data. That is, perhaps the general decrease in the level of intimacy from younger life stages to older stages reflects a

greater freedom to express one's emotions and feelings (especially for the men) among the young than the old. However, if this were the case, than it should be generalized to friends, which it was not.

While the men displayed a successive decrease in each of the stage cohorts from high school to retirement, the women projected a different pattern across the four adult life stages. Specifically, the newlywed women had the highest level of spouse intimacy than any cohort stage, reflecting an increase over the high school cohort. The middle-age, empty-nest stage, however, reflected a drastically lower level of intimacy. The retired cohort of older women displayed an increase in the level of intimacy with their spouses, which reversed the decreasing trend established by the empty-nest stage. This changing pattern involved in the women's intimacy levels among the four cohorts appears to coincide with such developmental phenomena as the formation and culmination of the parental role. One possible explanation is that the woman's role as parent and as spouse are so intricately connected that each reflects the stresses and strains of the other. More realistically, however, the marriage relationship may well be subordirate to the demands of children and motherhood, resulting in a greater distance and a lower level of intimacy between spouses. The literature generally supports this assumption, indicating that marital satisfaction and favorable perceptions of one's spouse decrease over the life cycle of the marriage, being especially low while children are in the home (e.g. Bowerman, 1957; Hlood and Wolfe, 1960; Pineo, 1961; Luckey, 1966; Burr, 1970).

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The men's lowest level of intimacy for the four cohorts occurred at the retirement stage. This finding suggests that a developmental link exists between the change or loss of occupational status and a man's lack of intimacy with his spouse. Rollins and Feldman (1970) provide some support to these findings, showing that not only does a steady decline exist in marital satisfaction from the beginnings of marriage to the time the children leave home, but that marital crises exist for men anticipating retirement. In addition, Lowenthal et al. (1975) report marital crises among women facing the empty-nest stage. Consequently, since marital intimacy is the lowest for those older adults experiencing major life transitions (namely, the empty-nest women and the retired men), the implication is that the lack of intimacy within these later stages contributes to the crises or, at least, is influenced by the stressful situation. Each of these transitional crises seem to have an impact on the sex role identity of the men and women accordingly. In previous work, both the retired men and empty-nest women have been identified as high risk desperate groups potentially in need of professional help (Lowenthal and Weiss, 1976).

In conclusion, the overriding explanation for spouse intimacy fluctuating with each adult life stage for the women and smoothly declining for the men suggests that an anticipted or actual loss in one network or area of life may threaten or change other networks or areas. In other words, a loss or change in the parental role for women or occupational role for men is generalized to, and similarily

affects, other roles and relationships, specifically with their spouses. Figuratively, if the reader would envision a mobile balanced with various relationships and social roles, when a change occurs and one role is weighted down or cut loose, the whole mobile or network is affected, resulting in a generalized loss.

The overall effect of a decrease in the level of spouse intimacy (and to some extent, friendship intimacy) from the younger to the alder cohorts does not support the notion that alder adults have the potential for greater levels of intimacy, related to an increase in sensitivity and competence through considerate and responsible interaction. Perhaps higher levels of intimacy are reserved for a select few who are actualized. In any case, these results do not disprove the notion that older adults have a greater potential for intimacy, nor do they state that older people are inconsiderate or irresponsible. Given the existence of a lower level of intimacy among older adults, many questions arise. Of special interest here are those questions concerning the relationship that adaptation has to intimacy, especially for those identified as at-risk groups. What function does intimacy provide? Is it a causative, mediating, or outcome variable? The next section deals with these issues.

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The Relationship Between Intimacy and Adaptation to Adult Life Stress

The results of Hypotheses I and II (as shown in Table 16) indicated that no association existed between the level of intimacy and adaptation (including both the measures of morale and psychosomatic symptoms), no matter how the sample was broken down. This independent function existed for both the level of friendship intimacy and spouse intimacy and young and old alike. The indication, therefore, was that neither the stability of friendship intimacy nor the waxing and waning of spouse intimacy had any influence on the level of health and happiness which the people were experiencing. In other words, the ability to predict one's existing level of intimacy by knowing how well a person has adapted or <u>vise versa</u> is not possible. One's level of intimacy does not have a direct impact on adaptation. However, the potential for intimacy to act as an intervening or mediating resource in adaptation still exists and is addressed in the following section.

Intimacy as an Intervening or Mediating Factor in Adaptation

The results on Hypothesis III indicated a lack of support for interpreting intimacy as an intervening or mediating factor in adaptation to stress. However, the fourth and major hypothesis further analyzed the association between stress and adaptation by life stage, differentiating the younger and older subsamples.

Hypothesis IV demonstrated significant results. These results clarified intimacy's relationship to adaptation, revealing that for only the older people (middle-aged and retired) who had a low level of intimacy did a significantly higher negative correlation exist between stress and adaptation. In other words, those older people who had a low level of intimacy (especially with their spouse) became more maladapted with increasing stress. Older people who had a high level of spouse intimacy did not display such a significant relationship between stress and adaptation. From such findings one can speculate that intimacy serves as a critical intervening, mediating, or "buffering" factor in adaptation to stress. There are certain modifying factors which seem essential for intimacy to act as a mediator: (1) the relationship applies only to older people and not younger people; (2) spouse intimacy appears to be more important than friendship intimacy; and finally (3) an apparent ceiling effect or point of satiation occurs for the level of intimacy. These modifiers are discussed below and contribute to a beginning theory of the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to stress.

Spouse Intimacy: A Critical Factor in Adaptation of Older Adults

The results, as shown in Tables 18A, B and 19A, B, demonstrated that the relationship between stress and adaptation increased significantly for older people who had a lower level of intimacy primarily with their spouse. On the other hand, the negative

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relationship between stress and adaptation was more significant for the younger people who had higher levels of intimacy. That is, intimacy for younger people seems to have the reverse function in adaptation as it does for older people. These findings suggest that an older person's psychological resource in adaptation may be the young person's psychological impairment or deficit and <u>vise</u> <u>versa</u>. This finding seems to be collaborated by several additional independent results obtained on the same sample and reported by Lowenthal et al. (1975) in which the same conclusion was drawn: an older person's resource in adaptation may be the younger person's impairment or deficit.

The resourcefulness of intimacy for older people is its mediating power to intervene or buffer the effects of stress on adaptation. One possible explanation for this mediating effect in older adults, but not younger adults, is that with normal aging various social life roles are lost (Townsend, 1963), and consequently resources available to the older person become more limited. Younger people seem to have a multitude of resources at hand, including their working role and work associates, parents, children, etc. Each of those resources can potentially contribute to their happiness and well-being. Many older people do not have work or work associates for support; their parents are dead or ill; and their children have moved away from the home and have become somewhat independent. Therefore, the presence of an existing intimate relationship with a spouse becomes more important as a resource in times of stress.

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The diminished availability of resources accessible to the older adult coupled with the greater potential for the older person to be more considerate and responsible in social interactions provides some basis for understanding the increase in importance of the level of intimacy as a mediator in adaptation to stress for older adults.

In partial support of the above explanation, additional results from the present study indicate that the retired subsample contributed more than the middle-aged people to the significant differences between stress and adaptation for both friendship and spouse intimacy. Many retired people have fewer clearly defined roles which can act as resources (especially work related ones) than the empty-nest or younger-aged people. This information would clarify the greater emphasis on existing intimate relationships as a resource in adaptation of older adults.

In contrast, the above explanation does not account for the finding that higher levels of intimacy for young people contribute to worse adaptation. It does seem reasonable, however, that additional commitment and responsibility through higher levels of intimacy to an already complex, rapidly changing, and challenging life which is focused on instrumental or task-oriented achievement would add to one's stress level, rather than act as a buffer. In other words, in spite of the fact that younger persons do indeed have higher levels of intimacy (especially with their spouses) than older persons, these relationships seem to add more negative than positive aspects in attempting to deal with life events.

Since younger people may possess more clearly defined social roles and a greater number of resources which could be utilized in adaptation, they are able to free their intimate relationships from the burden of buffering stressful events. However, some of the more highly intimate relationships among young people seem detrimental to their well-being and contribute to an increase in maladaptation. This finding suggests that perhaps younger people are not yet interpersonally competent enough to handle the intricacies of closeness in conjunction with the stresses and strains of living. Consequently, intimacy acts as a stressor rather than as a resource. Older more competent people, on the other hand, seem to best utilize what they do have by employing their more highly intimate relationships as buffers to stress, thus facilitating adaptation.

An additional modifier to the mediating effect of intimacy on adaptation to stress is that spouses are more important than friendships. For friendships, the results demonstrated that there was only one significant difference between stress and adaptation (primarily, retired men), whereas for spouses there were several differences, indicating one's spouse had a greater impact. The level of intimacy among older married couples was a more effective mediator than the level of intimacy among friends. This finding supports Erikson's ([1950] 1963) emphasis on a chum relationship. Clearly, as Erikson's theory would suggest, marriage partners have a greater effect on adaptation to stress later in life, than a same-

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sex friend. This association seems to remain effective even though friendship intimacy among the older sample is comparatively higher than their spouse intimacy. Further, this mediating effect for spouse intimacy occurred only for the older men's morale or degree of satisfaction, but for both morale and psychosomatic symptoms among the older women. The obvious implication is that women suffer more both emotionally and physiologically by the lack of intimacy with their spouse than do the men. Once a minimum level or threshold of intimacy is established between many older spouses, however, it then appears to have the power to buffer one from the stresses accompanying the aging process.

Levels of Intimacy: A Point of No Return

One additional modifying factor which seems important to the function of intimacy as a mediator between stress and adaptation is an apparent ceiling effect or satiation point which limits the buffering capacity of higher levels of intimacy. Since lower levels of intimacy increased the chance for maladaptation, and higher levels decreased or had no effect on the relationship between stress and adaptation for the older adult, the power of developing closer relationships in order to increase the buffering effect seems to diminish. In other words, the attainment of a minimum critical level of intimacy among older spouses is an essential factor in mediating adaptation to stress. Below this critical minumum level, • .

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the buffering effect of intimacy becomes nonexistent. When a point of satiation is achieved, however, and one's apparent need for intimacy is gratified, the buffering effect also loses its strength and fails in its effectiveness producing a ceiling effect.

One implication of the present finding is that if the returns do not increase proportionately or significantly for increasing the level of intimacy with one's spouse, then the time, effort, and energy involved in establishing and maintaining such interpersonal intimacy should be devoted to other more rewarding relationships. That is, once a minimum level of intimacy for an older person and his or her spouse is attained, which in turn results in a buffering effect on adaptation, then it would seem expedient for that person to invest in other more advantageous or resourceful relationships, such as a friend or a child. This suggestion implies a somewhat egocentric or pragmatic approach, embodying an exchange theory perspective, but nonetheless potentially important for survival. This implication and issue of palled intimacy is not clearly substantiated within the present data and therefore needs further research including the question of at what point a minumum critical level of intimacy is achieved.

In short, intimacy can be conceived as an intervening or mediating factor in adaptation to stress if certain modifying factors are taken into consideration. When an older person attains a minimum critical level of intimacy with a spouse, then the functional capacity of intimacy to act as a mediator or perhaps even as a buffer in

• . • . adaptation to stress, becomes operational. This mediating function may even be a necessary requirement for survival as one ages.

In summary, this chapter discussed the results concerning the qualitative differences within levels of intimacy, the similarities and differences across the adult life span, and the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to adult life stress. A beginning theory of the mediating function that intimacy has on older married couples emerged from the data.

Briefly, several differences exist in the qualitative dimensions attributed to intimacy for men and women, as well as for friends and spouses. These differences contribute to the conceptual and operational definition of intimacy and the establishment of the four intimacy profiles. In addition, these qualitative dimensions (confides in, supportive and accepting, and likes me) were found to coexist in each of the intimacy profiles. This finding suggests that intimacy has an underlying core of reciprocal affection, understanding, and self-disclosure that are fundamental to its conceptual formulation in adaptation to stress and illness.

In addition, life stage and sex similarities and differences were discussed for the level of friendship and spouse intimacy. The constant level of friendship intimacy across adult life stages and sex not only suggests that the important functions of close friends remains stable throughout life, but also that the situational factors which affect each stage have little or no relationship to the level of friendship intimacy attained. On the other hand,

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the waxing and waning of the levels of spouse intimacy from one life stage and sex to another suggests the influence of situational factors and major developmental transitions on the closeness of the marriage. Further, since the older cohorts generally had a lower level of spouse intimacy than the younger cohorts, a theory of deterioration or disenchantment of marital relations as advocated, for example, by Pineo (1961) is supported. In short, the similarities and differences of the level of intimacy for men and women are put into an adult life stage perspective.

Finally, the discussion of the results of the major hypothesis (IV) concludes that intimacy functions as an intervening or mediating factor in adaptation to stress. This function occurs for older, married couples who have established at least a minimum level of intimacy with their spouse. The results suggest that some marriages appear to be critical buffers of stresses accompanying the aging process. However, intimacy also seems to have a palled or at least a ceiling effect on its mediating capacity, therefore, suggesting that a diversification of one's resources to other interpersonal relationships might be more beneficial in adaptation than investing in one primary resource. These findings are not conclusive and therefore demand further investigation.

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CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

SUMMARY

A brief overview within the first chapter lead to the four primary goals of the research:

- (1) define the important dimensions of intimacy;
- (2) determine what constitutes higherlevels of intimacy;
- (3) explore the differences that occur within intimacy across the adult life;and finally
- (4) a statement of the major problem:
 Does a relationship exist between
 intimacy and adaptation to life stress
 throughout the adult life?

The subsequent literature review laid the groundwork for conceptualizing the major problem, the accompanying hypotheses, and the definition of intimacy. The research literature on interpersonal intimacy was rather sparse and was explained in terms of the conceptual, methodological, and ethical reasons

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for its neglect. However, developmental theorists such as Sullivan (1953) and Erikson ([1950] 1963) emphasized the importance of intimate relationships by incorporating interpersonal intimacy into an adult life stage perspective. When this stage remains unfulfilled, it may lead to maladaptation later on in life. Before exploring the association between intimacy and adaptation to life stress, a definition of intimacy was necessary. It was assumed that intimacy varied in degree, proceeding from superficial to deeper and broader interaction. The levels of interaction involve qualitatively different dimensions and were viewed through exchange theory. Realizing the limitations of such a perspective, a levels-of-relatedness approach was adopted. Finally, the review concluded with a discussion of the levels of intimacy and its potential impact on adaptation to stress. As a result, intimacy was predicted to have a mediating effect between stress and adaptation. In addition, this mediating effect was predicted to be more powerful for older adults than younger adults.

Chapter II provided a conceptual and operational approach to the definition of intimacy. In order to define intimacy for both same-sex friendships and opposite-sex spouse relationships, a series of substudies were undertaken. The first step generated a total of 26 potentially important intimacy dimensions. The second step involved pre-testing the 26 intimacy statements and resulted in a definition of the parameters of intimacy. The definition contained

16 dimensions which provide the content for the intimacy measuring instrument (WIR). Since the parameters of intimacy were formed through an open-ended, inductive method, the third step entailed further corroboration and clarification of the dimensions within the intimacy instrument (WIR). This clarification was achieved by supporting or justifying each of the 16 dimensions through the existing research literature for their inclusion as an aspect of intimacy.

Having delineated the specific dimensions of intimacy to be explored and recognizing the general lack of agreement within the literature as to the importance of any single dimension or combination of dimensions, and adopting a "levels" approach, the next step was to determine which of the 16 intimacy dimensions were relatively more important with increasing levels of intimacy. This was accomplished by administering WIR to an independent sample of 35 judges who ranked the 16 intimacy dimensions for an <u>ideal</u> same-sex and <u>ideal</u> opposite-sex intimate relationship. The results indicated that intimacy should not be treated as a single universal phenomenon, but instead as situational. Four intimacy profiles were established, depending upon the sex of the respondent and the sex of the intimate other. The dimensions included in the four intimacy profiles were:

	Males	Females					
Friend Re	Spouse Lationship	Friend Spouse Relationship					
Confides in Comfortable Dependable Respect Supportive Knows me Likes me	Emotional Attraction Confides in Comfortable Sex Satisfaction Likes me Supportive	Supportive Dependable Likes me Confides in	Emotional Attraction Likes me Confides in Supportive Respect				

Consequently, four profiles were established in order to determine higher levels or greater depth of intimacy and, in essence, established the operational definition for same-sex friendship intimacy and opposite-sex spouse intimacy to be used in exploring the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to life stress.

After establishing a conceptual orientation to the research problem and an operational definition of intimacy, an appropriate research design was determined. A correlational design provided the operational model to test the four major hypotheses. The third chapter described the sample and methods of data collection and analysis designed to test the relationship between intimacy and adaptation to stress. The sample consisted of 171 men and women drawn from the Human Development Research Program's Longitudinal Study of Transitions and was cross-sectional in design. They were mainly white, middle and lower-middle class people residing in a large urban city. The method of data collection consisted of the administration of structured questions and tests in an interview

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format. The tests were used to measure three major areas: adult life stress, intimacy, and adaptation.

- (a) <u>Life Stress</u> was measured by the Life Events
 Questionnaire (LEQ). A stress score was
 determined by the summation of the number of
 unhappy adult life events checked. Therefore,
 a high score indicated high stress. The
 validity and reliability were also discussed.
- (b) <u>Intimacy</u> was measured by WIR. Criterion dimensions were developed for men and women on friend and spouse. "Level of intimacy" scores were derived for each respondent by summing the inverted ranks that he/she assigned to these criterion dimensions, and the scores were then standardized. Scores ranged from 22-77, with a higher score indicating more intimacy. Content and convergent validity and test-retest reliability were discussed.
- (c) <u>Adaptation</u> was measured by two instruments: General Morale Index (GMI) and the Symptoms Checklist.

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- (1) The General Morale Index consisted of the summation of weighted scores on the items of "dissatisfied" and "unhappy" on the Adjective Checklist, the Bradburn Overall Happiness Rating, and the rating for the present year on the Life Evaluation Chart. GMI scores ranged from 10 to 36 and high scores indicated high morale and adaptation.
- (2) The Symptoms Checklist records the presence or absence of 42 psychosomatic symptoms. The score is determined by the summation of number of items checked. A high score indicated lower adaptation.

Validity and reliability were discussed.

The results of the data analysis, as reported in Chapter IV, are presented in six sections: (1) The association of gender with intimacy; (2) Life stage and sex similarities and differences for the level of friendship and spouse intimacy; (3) The relationship between level of intimacy and adaptation (Hypothesis I); (4) The relationship between level of intimacy and adaptation for younger and older adults

(Hypothesis II); (5) The relationship between life stress and adaptation according to level of intimacy (Hypothesis III); and (6) The relationship between life stress and adaptation according to level of intimacy for younger and older adults (Hypothesis IV).

Briefly, the results indicated that several significant differences existed between intimacy dimensions for men and women, and between a same-sex friend and an opposite-sex spouse. Significant differences were also found for the level of intimacy among spouses between life stages and sex, but the level of friendship intimacy differed only between men and women, and not life stage. Additional results verified the well-established relationship between life stress and adaptation. But when testing the relationship between intimacy and adaptation within the first three hypotheses, the results were negative. However, significant differences were found between the correlation of stress and adaptation for those high and low on the level of intimacy, between young and old people. Therefore, Hypothesis IV was supported but with some modifying factors (i.e., spouse intimacy was a more powerful influence on the association than friendship intimacy).

A major result, as presented in the discussion (Chapter V), was the dramatic shift in the significance of intimacy as a mediating factor between stress and adaptation among the young and old. That is, the attainment of a minimum level of intimacy for older people seemed to help in adapting to life stress,

but this was not the case for the younger people. The young who had high levels of intimacy increased in maladaptation. Therefore, the results not only suggested that intimacy served as a critical intervening, mediating, or buffering factor in adaptation to stress for older people, but that an older person's resource in adaptation may be the younger person's impairment or deficit and <u>vise versa</u>.

Several additional results were discussed. In short, the similarities and differences within the qualitative dimensions of intimacy across the profiles suggested an underlying core of reciprocal affection, understanding, and self-disclosure that seemed fundamental to its conceptual formulation and association to adaptation. In addition, life stage and sex similarities and differences were discussed for the level of friendship and spouse intimacy. The constant level of friendship intimacy across adult life stages suggested that the concept and functions of close friends remain stable throughout life. The changing levels of spouse intimacy across adult life stages, on the other hand, suggested the influence of other sex-roles on one's perceived closeness with his spouse. For example, the women's intimacy levels seemed to coincide with the formation and culmination of the parental role, while the men's intimacy levels declined smoothly across each adult life stage, reaching the lowest level during retirement. Since older people had a significantly lower level of spouse intimacy than

the younger people, a theory of deterioration or disenchantment of marital relations was also supported by the data.

Finally, the major result (mentioned above) was discussed with respect to modifications and suggestions for future research. That is, the function of intimacy as a mediating or intervening factor in adaptation to stress operated only for older married couples who had established a minimum critical level of intimacy. This mediating capacity seemed to be limited by a ceiling effect, suggesting that intimacy is palled, and therefore one should diversify his resources in other interpersonal relationships rather than investing in one primary resource. These were not conclusive findings, but mere suggestions, demanding further investigation.

Limitations: A Re-Evaluation of Research Methods

The possible limitations of the present study derive at least in part from the tremendous complexity of the concept of intimacy, both in terms of its definition and its measurement. Upon reevaluating the research methodology employed to conceptually and operationally define the multi-dimensionality of intimacy, the possibility of overlooking or not including an important dimension was certainly strong. It was also quite possible to include an unimportant dimension, although steps were taken to minimize that possibility. In addition, the issue of distinguishing the differences between preconditions, conditions, and consequences was really never addressed. Instead, the respondents were simply asked to

rank the dimensions in order of their importance, regardless of whether one dimension was perceived as precluding or being an essential precondition for another to occur. It was assumed, however, that when a dimension was ranked higher than others, it simply reflected more predominance at that point in time, whether it was a precondition to others, a consequence of others, or not. In fact, the adoption of a level-of-relatedness approach does address the above issue inasmuch as a progression occurs from a lower level of intimacy to a higher level, each involving separate dimensions.

Several aspects of the measuring methodology, either the process or the instruments used, could result in possible limitations. Perhaps most important is the issue of using a sample of judges, who are not representative of the population as whole, for the establishment of an ideal intimacy criterion. An alternative method for establishing what constituted higher levels of intimacy within the ideal intimate relationship was to use the main study sample respondents themselves. However, due to time limitations and repetition of the test, that method was not chosen. Instead, a sample of professionals acted as judges, with the added hope that their knowledge base would add something. The limitations to this method are recognized. An additional limitation to the method of measurement was that the cross-sectional design used in the present analysis precludes any strong statement about developmental trends.

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In addition, the structured rank ordering format that was used, instead of an open-ended approach, hopefully had few restrictive consequences but still may provide some limitations. Also, the self-administered perceptual differences approach clearly limits the possible interpretations of the data because of the extraneous factors that influence one's perceptions (e.g. stereotypical responses and images, positive response affect, etc.). Other aspects such as word interpretations or misinterpretations and small sample size also may limit the generalizability, or perhaps even the validity of the study. In short, several aspects of the methodological approach and instruments used could result in limiting the interpretation or generalizability of the results. Consequently, suggestions for future research have to include further substantiation and generalization, in order to address the above limitations.

Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

The most obvious implication and suggestion for future research is to further the assessment, substantiation and generalization of the present findings. Since the present study focused on such a homogeneous group of respondents, a more encompassing approach is needed including larger samples consisting of different socialeconomic groups, ethnic and cultural groups, as well as those who have alternative life styles (such as singles and gays). Increasing the size and diversity of the sample would not only address the issue

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of generalizability, but more clearly explicate some of the similarities and differences within alternative and more conventional life styles. In addition to the generalizability of the findings, further substantiation as to what constitutes an ideal intimacy criteria is essential. In order to achieve this ideal intimacy criteria with a greater degree of accuracy, a more representative sample of the U. S. culture is needed. An alternate method for establishing this ideal criteria, however, is to have each individual respondent rank order the intimacy dimensions for his perception of an <u>ideal</u> intimate relationship. This alternate method would establish an internal criteria or means of comparison that would measure his ideal and his actual or real level of intimacy. In short, further substantiation and generalization of the measuring techniques, as well as the findings, are needed.

Additional substantiation of the relationship of intimacy to age, as well as its role in adaptation to life stress, are suggestions for future research. In order to accomplish an assessment of the association of intimacy to adaptation, a pre- and post-test design focusing on the mediating impact of intimacy on specific developmental stresses (e.g. the two high-risk subsamples of the empty nest and the retired) would provide sufficient data to help clarify the relationship. Besides clarifying the mediating or intervening role intimacy may have on specific life stresses, it is important to determine more precisely the level at which intimacy begins to function as a mediating factor and the level in which the

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mediating power diminishes. Also, since a major finding within the present data was the apparent difference between the younger and older people in the functional capacity of intimacy, a more thorough verification and exploration of this difference is needed. At what age or life stage does intimacy shift from functioning as a deficit and begin to serve as a resource? Does intimacy function in a buffering capacity for specific stresses or stress in general? Finally, the question arises as to the extensiveness of the mediating capacity of intimacy. A person's degree of psychological health appears to be affected by the level of intimacy, but the impact on the physical realm of health was only alluded to within the measure of psychosomatic symptoms. Consequently, the potential mediating capacity of intimacy on a person's degree of physical health needs further exploration. In other words, a clarification needs to occur for the role of intimacy in adaptation, its mediating capacity, its relationship to specific life crises, its functional change with age, and the degree of influence on a person's physical health.

If results on the issues and suggestions for future research do in fact verify intimacy as a mediating, intervening, or buffering factor in adaptation, the next step would be to provide educational or psychotherapeutic training in developing increased levels of intimacy. These methods would be assessed and the program evaluated as to its impact on adaptation. The ultimate goal would be to provide some practical application of the research evidence on preventive health care.

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APPENDICES

Appendix	I.	Pre-testing for Formulation of Intimacy Instrument:
		Spearman Correlation Coefficients among 26 Items
Appendix	II.	Cover Letter and Method of Presenting WIR to Criterion Sample
Appendix	III.	Adjective Checklist
Appendix	IV.	Life Evaluation Chart
Appendix	٧.	Stress Instrument:
		Life Events Questionnaire
Appendix	VI.	Symptoms Checklist

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Is someone I can confide in
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   Is useful to me
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   Is comfortable and easy to
   be with
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   Does something very well
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   Excites passionate feelings
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AMONG
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   Provides sexual satisfaction
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COEFFICIENTS
   Knows me well
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   Has shared past experiences
   with me
   Has similar interests
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ATION
   Has a complementary
   personality
CORREI
   Is enjoyable, entertaining
   company
SPEARMAN
   Would help me out in a crisis
                                                               O
   Is physically attractive
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   We live near each other
INSTRUMENT
   We have known each other for
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   a long time
   I respect him or her
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INTIMACY
   Is easy to talk to
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   Is supportive and accepting
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FORMULATION
   Is dependable and trustworthy
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   Likes me
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   Shares activities with me
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   Is the same sex
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   Is about the same age
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   Has similar education, religion,
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   ethnic background
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   Has similar attitudes
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   Has a similar personality
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Laurence J. Jeiss Human development program

745 PARNASSUS AVENUE SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA 94143

September 4, 1975

Dr. _____ Harvard University Sociology Department Cambridge, Hass.

Dear Dr.____:

The nature of close interpersonal relationships has intrigued men and women for centuries, but only within the last 20 years has the social scientist dare study such an area. I am presently attempting to research the concept of interpersonal <u>intimacy</u> by exploring the association that intimate relationships hold with various adaptations to life stresses across the adult life span.

Unfortunately, I have no external criteria for establishing various levels of intimacy and, as you know, the research literature is very sparse in this area. Therefore, I am writing you as an expert in the field, and asking your help in establishing some professional perceptions and validity to the measure I have developed.

Enclosed is a list of 16 attributes that may be important in close interpersonal relationships. These attributes have been extracted from the literature and compiled from earlier work I have done, through content analysis of qualitative data.

I would greatly appreciate a few moments of your time to rank these 16 attributes as to their importance in an intimate relationship (",1 = most important attribute...,16 = least important attribute). Four individual responses will be confidential, but the group response will be shared and will serve as a comparison group with other samples.

In addition, if you have any feedback regarding this technique, the items involved, or the research in general, I will velocme it.

I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience. Due to time limitations, I am requesting your response by October 4, 1975.

Thank you for your contribution to this research. I look forward to sharing the results with you in the near future.

Respectfully, Laurence J. Weiss Laurence J. Veiss

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APPENDIX II (Cont.)

Here are 16 statements which represent different attributes or qualities which some people consider important in interpersonal relationships.

Please number each statement in terms of <u>what you would</u> <u>consider</u> the <u>MOST</u> <u>important in an intimate relationship</u>. (Put a 1 next to the most important attribute in an intimate relationship, a 2 next to the second most important attribute, and so on through number 16 which would be the least important attribute.)

Same	Opposite						
Sex	Sex						
Relationship	Relationship						

 C	I RESPECT HIM OR HER
 	IS DEPENDABLE AND TRUSTWORTHY
 	IS SUPPORTIVE AND ACCEPTING
 	LIKES ME
 	KNOWS ME WELL
	PROVIDES SEXUAL SATISFACTION
	IS COMFORTABLE AND EASY TO BE WITH
	WOULD HELP ME OUT IN A CRISIS
 	IS SOMEONE I CAN CONFIDE IN
	SHARES ACTIVITIES WITH ME
	IS PHYSICALLY ATTRACTIVE
	IS ENJOYABLE, ENTERTAINING COMPANY
	HAS SIMILAR ATTITUDES (IDEAS, VALUES,
	MORALS, ETHICS)
 	WE FEEL A STRONG EMOTIONAL ATTRACTION FOR EACH OTHER
 	HAS SIMILAR INTERESTS
	HAS A SIMILAR OR COMPLEMENTARY PERSONALITY

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APPENDIX III

ADJECTIVE CHECKLIST

(Items #16 and 64 contribute to GMI)

Instructions

PART ONE

On the following page you will find a list of qualities or traits which are found, to a greater or lesser degree, in almost every person. The first task is to describe yourself by marking, directly to the right of each adjective listed, whether that quality is like you, unlike you, or not characteristic one way or the other.

You are to mark the adjectives with a +, a -, or a 0.

+ will indicate that this quality is <u>like</u> you, or somewhat characteristic.

- will indicate that this quality is <u>unlike</u> you, or somewhat uncharacteristic.

0 will indicate that this quality is both <u>like</u> and <u>unlike</u> you, or not particularly characteristic either way.

For example, if upon first reading, you think that "absent-minded" is <u>like</u> you, place a + in the space directly to the right of "absentminded." On the other hand, if, upon first reading, you think that "absent-minded" is <u>unlike</u> you, place a - in the space directly to the right of "absent-minded."

You may find that some of these qualities are neither like you nor unlike you, or that you are uncertain whether they apply to you or not. If so, mark a 0 in the space directly to the right of the adjective. For example, if you cannot decide whether "frank" is like you or is unlike you, if you feel that it is somewhat like you and somewhat not, or if you are not sure, mark a 0 in the space directly to the right of the adjective.

Your first impression is generally the best, so work quickly and don't be concerned about duplications, contradictions, or being absolutely exact. When you have completed marking the checklist in this fashion, go on to Part Two.

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APPENDIX III (Cont.)

					Case No.:		
					DI- Nome A		
					Date:		
		ADJ ECTI	IVE (CHECKLIST			
1.	Absent-minded		24.	Frank		48.	Self- indulgent
2.	Affected (phony)			Friendly		49.	Selfish
3.	Ambitious		26.	Guileful (tricky, cum	ning)	50.	Self- pitying
4.	Assertive (aggressive, d	lominant)	27•	Helpless		51.	Sense of
5.	Bossy		28.	Hostile			humor
	Calm		29.	Idealistic		52.	Sentiment <u>al</u>
-	Cautious		30.	Imaginative		53.	Shrewd (clever)
	Competitive		31.	Impulsive		54.	Sincere
9.	Confident			Intelligent		55.	Sophisticated
10.	Considerate		33.	Versatile (able to do n	many things)		
11.	Cooperative		34.	Introspective			Stubborn
12.	Cruel (mean)		24	(looking into	D SELI)		Suspicious
13.	Defensive			Jealous			Sympathetic
14.	Dependent (on others)			Lazy Likable		57•	Timid (submissive)
15.	Disorderly			Persevering		60.	Touchy (easily offended)
	Dissatisfied			Charming		61.	Tactless
17.	Dramatic			Reasonable		62.	Unconven-
18.	Dull		垃.	Rebellious			tional
19.	Easily		42.	Resentful		63.	Undecided
	embarrassed		43.	Reserved			Unhappy
	Easily hurt			(dignified)		65.	Uninteres <u>ted</u> (indifferent)
	Energetic			Restless		66.	Unworthy
22.	Fai r- minded (objective)			Sarcastic		67	(inadequate)
23.	Feminine (fema	les)		Poised Self-			Warm Withdrawn
	Masculine (mal	les)	4(•	controlled			Worried
							(anxious) Wise

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LIFE EVALUATION CHART

(Focused on Present Year Only)

Directions:

The chart on the following page is designed to give us a profile of how you feel about your life. Its purpose is to present us with a review of the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, or of happiness or unhappiness, you have experienced at different periods of life. What we would like to have is your assessment, as you look back upon your life, of what were the high and low points and what years seemed more or less average.

The chart consists of ten rows of little boxes which represent years of the lifespan ranging from birth to age 90 and over. We would like you to score each year of your life on a scale from 1 ("rock bottom") to 9 ("absolute tops") by writing the score into the appropriate box. The years 0-4 and those 90 and over are grouped together and you are to assign a single score to the entire period. The rating scale is as follows:

RATING SCALE

- 9 = Absolute "tops"
- 8 = Very good
- 7 = Satisfactions clearly outweigh dissatisfactions
- 6 = Satisfactions somewhat greater than dissatisfactions
- 5 = Satisfactions balance dissatisfactions
- 4 = Dissatisfactions somewhat outweigh satisfactions
- 3 = Dissatisfactions clearly outweigh satisfactions
- 2 = Very low
- 1 = "Rock bottom"

We know that it is at times difficult to assign a single score to an entire year, but would appreciate your making an attempt to average out the events of a particular year. Should changes within a given year

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be very marked and it seems impossible to arrive at a single score, you may place two scores in the box to indicate that you have experienced both significant high points and low points in that year.

You might start with the present, or more recent past, and work back, thinking in terms of significant events of your life. Since it is at times easier to remember what happened in a particular year than at a particular age in life, the boxes are marked by both year and age.

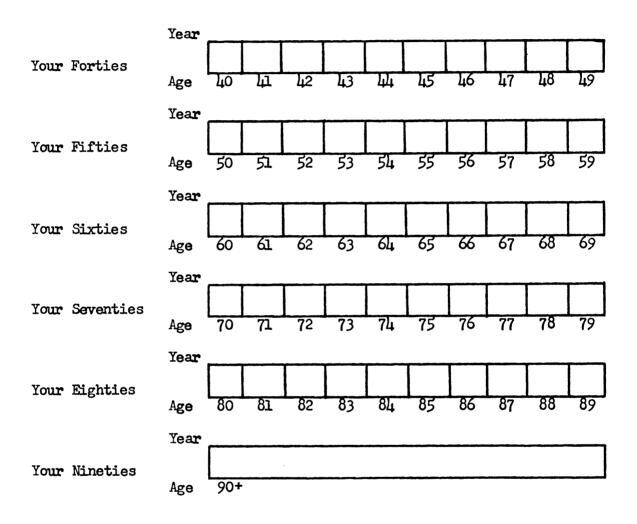
We would also like you to indicate how the future looks to you. Could you estimate what you anticipate the years will be like from now to the remainder of your lifespan.

Case No.:	
R's Name:	
Date:	

Best (happiest, most satisfying) to Worse (unhappiest,

lea	ast sa	tisf	ying)	Peri	od of	My L	lfe				
	Year	·									
Your Childhood											
	Age	0.	- 4		5	6	- 7	8	9		
	Year										
Your Youth											
	Age	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
	Year										
Your Twenties											
	Age	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
	Year	•									
Your Thirties											
	Age	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39

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APPENDIX V Case No.: Date:	STRESS INSTRUMENT: LIFE EVENTS QUESTIONNAIRE		This checklist consists of events which are sometimes important experiences. We would like to find out what events have happened to you in the past year, or two to three years ago. Please read down the list until you find events that have happened to you personally, regardless of how important they were. Then indicate three things:	When did the event occur?	In appropriate box in "Time Period" column, check each event as many times as it happened.	Your feelings about the event when it occurred.	In appropriate box in "Feeling About Event Then" column, check whether you felt: very happy somewhat happy somewhat unhappy very unhappy	If an event happened more than once, check how you generally felt about this kind of event.	Do you still think about the event?	In the "Still Think About it Now" columns check whether you still think about the event: a lot sometimes not at all	Remember, check <u>only</u> those events which you yourself have actually experienced.
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Case No.:

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	. Success and/or awards at work									
	2. A change to a new type of work									
	 More responsibilities 									
	4. Fewer responsibilities									
	5. A promotion									
A Defin Tess True and A Definition of the second se	 Spent less time at work 									

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Case No.:

		TIME	TIME PERIOD	FEF	TINGS ABC	FEELINGS ABOUT EVENT THEN * *	THEN *	ABOUT IT NO	IT NOW	IK IOW	
		Within	Within		Somewhat	CL	Very		Some N	Not	-
		Past	m	Happy	Happy	Unhappy	Unhappy	Lot	0	at	-
EVEN	EVENTS CONCERNING YOU AND YOUR WORK (Cont.)	Tear	Tears					\dagger	H	TTW	-
10.	Salary increase										
ц.	Spouse fired or having problems at work								1		
12.	A business failure							1	1		-
13.	Trouble with your boss							1	1		-
-17	Trouble with other workers										-
15.	Not being able to work because of a disability							-			-
16.	Being fired or laid off work										-
17.	Quitting your job										-
18.	Problems getting a new job										-
19.	Retirement from work										-
									-		-
EVEN	EVENTS CONCERNING YOUR FEELINGS AND THOUGHTS										
.	Feelings of being overwhelmed by difficult life situations	ant.									
°.	The realization that you will never attain	ain		1							-
ň	Unpleasant thoughts or images which							T	t		and the second se
	keep coming back							1	1		-
4.	Feelings of intense dislike for someone you deal with often								1	T	
ň	Feelings of intense loneliness							Π	Π	Ī	And in case of the local division of the loc

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Case No.:

R DATING OR Past 2-3 Happy Happy Past 2-3 Happy Happy Year Years Years ready ove its steady or beginning to live han usual with fadjustment in your four spouse because of or stopping work of begins to stay at nd begins to stay at			TIME	TIME PERIOD	1	INGS ABOU	JT EVENT	NA HI	N A	H DO	EB
Past 2-3 Happy Happy WTS CONCERNING YOUR DATING OR Tear Years ARGE Tear Years Getting engaged Falling up an engagement. Breaking up an engagement. Falling up an engagement. Falling up an engagement. Falling up with steady. Falling up with steady. More arguments than usual with. Getting married or beginning to live More arguments than usual with. More arguments than usual with. Your spouse More arguments than usual with. More arguments than usual with. Your spouse Getting al ong better with your spouse Minor problems of adjustment in your Spouse beginning or stopping work Spouse beginning or stopping work More arguments Spouse beginning or stopping work More arguments </th <th></th> <th></th> <th>Within</th> <th>-</th> <th>Very</th> <th>Somewhat</th> <th>Somewhat</th> <th></th> <th>Very</th> <th></th> <th></th>			Within	-	Very	Somewhat	Somewhat		Very		
WIS CONCERNING YOUR DATING OR RIARGE Getting engaged Breaking up an engagement Falling in love Falling in love Falling out of love Falling out of love Sexual difficulties Breaking up with steady Getting married or beginning to live with someone More arguments than usual with your spouse More arguments than usual with your spouse Minor problems of adjustment in your marriage Separation from your spouse because of job demands Spouse beginning or stopping work outside the home Spouse retires and begins to stay at home more Separation from your spouse due to marrial problems			Past Year			Happy	Unhappy	Unh	appy	Unhappy Lot	
12	FU FI	TS CONCERNING YOUR DATING OR									
	MARI	LARGE									
	ч.	Getting engaged									
	3	Breaking up an engagement									
	'n	Falling in love									
	4.	Falling out of love									
	ŝ	Sexual difficulties									
	.9	Breaking up with steady									
	2.	Getting married or beginning to live with someone									
	8	ts than usual									
		your spouse								-	
	6	In-law problems									
	·0.										
	ц.	Minor problems of adjustment in your marriage							1.1		
Spouse beginning or stopping work outside the home Spouse retires and begins to stay home more Separation from your spouse due to marital problems	12.	Separation from your spouse because of job demands									
Spouse retires and begins to stay home more Separation from your spouse due to marital problems	5	Spouse beginning or stopping work outside the home									
	-17-	Spouse retires and begins to stay at home more									
	5	Separation from your spouse due to marital problems									

Case No.:

		TIME	TIME PERIOD	FEET	INGS ABOU	FEELINGS ABOUT EVENT THEN * *	THEN *	ABOUT	THINK T IT NOW	IK MOM
		Within	Within	Very	Somewhat	Somewhat Somewhat Very	Very	A	ome	Not
		Past		h	Happy	Unhappy	Unhappy	Lot	10	at
EVEN	EVENTS CONCERNING YOUR DATING LIFE	Year	Tears						ł	TIA
OR N	OR MARRIAGE (Cont.)									
16.	Going back to your spouse after									
	separation								1	T
17.	Divorce								1	1
18.	Has your spouse died								1	
19.	Has your spouse been hospitalized									
20.	An extra-marital affair									
21.	An unwanted pregnancy									1
EVEN	EVENTS CONCERNING YOUR FAMILY									
ч.	More family responsibilities than usual	F								
2	Fewer family responsibilities than usual									
ë.	Health problems of a family member									
	(major illnesses, accidents, etc.)									
4.	A miscarriage or abortion experienced by	5								
ъ.	you or your spouse Birth of a child, adopting a child								T	Ι
.0										
2.										
8	Your child ran away or got into serious									
0	trouble (drugs, crime, etc.)								T	1
	Voin ohild act dimonod									
•••	TOUL CITTLE BON ATVOLCED								1	1

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Case No.:

		TTME.	TTME PERIOD	L	FEELINGS ABOUT EVENT	JT EVENT	THEN	TILLS	MIHI J	XI
						*	*	ABOUT	TT	MON
		Within	Within	Very	Somewhat	Somewhat	_		Some 1	Not
TANT.		Past	2-3 Veans	Happy	Happy	Unhappy	Unhappy Lot	Lot		at
THE	(•0110•) IT	TODT	TODT					T		
ц.	Loss of child by death								1	
12.	Intense arguments or disagreements with older children									
13.	Loss of contact with, or separation on									
-TL	A child moving out of the home									
15.										
16.	Fewer family get-togethers than before									
17.									1	
18.	The death of a parent, brother or sister	L							1	
19.	Giving up a child (for adoption or to a									
00	arvorcea spouse/ Binth of a musudohild							T	T	Ι
•02	nTTIONIDIA P TO INITO							T	T	T
EVEN	EVENTS CONCERNING YOU AND PEOPLE NOT OF YOUR FAMILY	FAMILY								
i.	Doing something that alienated you from friends									
2	Fewer problems with friends									
e.	Feelings of being seriously disliked by someone			1						
4.	Loss of a close friend by death									
ň	5				No.					
•	54								1	
	More social contacts than before								T	
	A new close friendship								T	
2.	not utim ut guivou moith								1	

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Case No.:

		TIME	TIME PERIOD		INGS ABOU	FEELINGS ABOUT EVENT THEN	THEN	STILL	L THINK	NK
						*	*	ABOU	ABOUT IT NOW	MON
		Within	Within Within	Very	Somewhat	Somewhat		_	Some	Not
		Past			Happy	Unhappy	Unhappy Lot	Lot		at
OTHE.	OTHER IMPORTANT EVENTS (Cont.)	Year	Years							LIA
16.	Received an inheritance, scholarship,									
17.	Denendency on welfare or Social Security	D						t	T	
18.	A national disastion (aanthouske, fine.									
	etc.)									
19.	Loss of a personally valued object									
20.	A change in your religious beliefs									
2.	Going to church more often									
22.	Going to church less often									
23.	An accident (automobile, at work, home,									
	etc.)									
24.	up a hobby, sport,									
25.	Becoming more involved in hobbies							1		
26.	A change in your political beliefs									
27.	A major threat of being drafted									
28.	Experimenting with drugs other than									
	marijuana									
29.	Entering the military service									
30.	Leaving military service									

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Case No.:

		TIME	TIME PERIOD		INGS ABOU	FEELINGS ABOUT EVENT THEN * *	NEHEN	ABOUT IT NOW	N LI	NOW
		Within	Within	Very	Somewhat	Somewhat Very	Very	A So	Some N	Not
			2-3	6	Happy	Unhappy	Unhappy Lot	Lot	ω «	at
		Year	-					+	H	TTY
OTHE	OTHER IMPORTANT EVENTS									
,										
÷	A move of your nome to another town or city							-	-	
3	A move within the same town or city								+	
÷.	Problems finding a new home or apartment	4							1	
4.								-	+	
้ง	Lowering in value or condition of your									
	y							+	+	T
.9	Involvement in a law suit (other than							-		
	divorce)							+	+	
	Discrimination because of your sex, race,	e,							-	
	age, religion or appearance							+	+	
æ	Minor violations of the law							+	+	
6	A court appearance for a serious									
-01	Being the wictim of a criminal act							+	t	1
								-	-	
ц.	Witnessing violence								+	
12.	Being held in jail								+	
13.	f more 1							1	Ť	
								+	+	T
-11	Purchases (loans) of more than \$1.00 but less than \$10.000 (TV. car. etc.)								-	
15.	Financial difficulties							Η	Η	Π

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Case No.:

		TIME	TIME PERIOD		FEELINGS ABOUT EVENT 'THEN *	r event T	HEN *	ABOUT		THINK TT NOW
		Within	Within Very	Very	Somewhat				Some	Not
		Past	2-3	Happy	Happy	Unhappy	Unhappy	Lot		at
OTHE	OTHER IMPORTANT EVENTS (Cont.)	Tear	Years					1	T	TTY
д.	A major decision regarding your									
32.	An outstanding personal achievement								Π	
33.	A vacation							1	T	
34.	A long trip							1	T	
32.	Beginning to live alone							T	T	
30.	The loss or death of a loved pet							T	T	
- 20	UD Varithing a per							t	T	
.00	Any outer event of importance to you (please specify									
								1		
FOR	FOR THOSE OF YOU WHO HAVE BEEN ATTENDING									
SCHOOL	TO									
Ŀ,	A great deal of academic pressure									
5	Unusually good grades							1		
ë.	Poor grades or failing an important exam									
4.	Dropping out of school									
น้ำ	Re-entering school after a period of absence									
.9	Graduation from high school or college								Π	
1.	Beginning college							1		

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Case No.:

	PLEASE CHECK () IF VOIT NTN	NEW	LINGS ABOU	TUE AND TU	rHEN *	ABOU	T IT	NK	
	177 DOT	Very	Somewhat	Somewhat	Very	A	Some	Not	
		Happy	Happy	Unhappy	Unhappy	Lot		at	
YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING YOU WERE A CHILD?									
Separation on bad terms from parents or brothers and sisters									
Finding out that you were adopted							T		
Intense arguments between your parents									
Intense arguments between you and									
your parents Severe or unusual punishment							T		
Having to go to work to help support									
						1	T		
									_
The frequent absence of vom mother						T	T		_
or father									
Death of your father or mother									
Death of a brother or sister									
UDD UDD	YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING YOU WARE A CHILD? A long separation from your parents when under 13 Separation on bad terms from parents brothers and sisters Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and your parents Severe or unusual punishment Having to go to work to help support your family Divorce of your father or mother due to divorce or desertion The frequent absence of your mother or father Death of your father or mother Death of your father or mother Death of your father or mother Death of a brother or sister	YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING YOU WERE A CHILD? A long separation from your parents or when under 13 Separation on bad terms from parents or brothers and sisters Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and your parents frinding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and your parents Severe or unusual punishment Having to go to work to help support your family Divorce of your father or mother due to divorce or desertion The frequent absence of your mother or father Death of a brother or sister	YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING FLEASE CHECK YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Vertex () IF YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Vertex () IF YOU WERE A CHILD? Vertex () IF A long separation from your parents Vertex () IF When under 13 Vertex () IF Separation on bad terms from parents or when under 13 Vertex () IF Separation on bad terms from parents or brothers and sisters Vertex () IF Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments Finding out ther or would be a for to work to help support Vertice of your father or mother Parting to go to work to help support Interference Vertice of your father or mother Parting to go to work to help support Vertice of your father or mother Vertice of your father Divorre of your father or mother	YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING YOU DID YOU DID YOU DID YOU DID YOU DID A long separation from your parents when under 13 Separation on bad terms from parents Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between your parents Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and your parents Severe or unusual punishment Having to go to work to help support your family Divorce of your father or mother due to divorce or desertion The frequent absence of your mother or father or mother Death of a brother or mother Death of your father or mother	YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING YOU DID YOU DID YOU DID YOU DID YOU DID A long separation from your parents when under 13 Separation on bad terms from parents Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between your and Your parents Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and your parents Severe or unusual punishment Having to go to work to help support Your family Barriage of your father or mother bivorce of your father or mother due to divorce of your mother or father or mother Death of your father or mother beath of your father or mother beath of your father or mother beath of your father or mother	PLEAJES CHECK FEBLINGS ABOUT EVENT 7 YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat S	YUL EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING FLEASE CHECK FEELINGS ABOUT EVENT THEN YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat Somewhat Very Unhappy YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat Somewhat Very YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat Somewhat Very YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat Somewhat Very YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat Somewhat Very YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat Somewhat Very YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat Somewhat Very YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat Somewhat Very YOU FREE A GHILD? Very Somewhat Somewhat Yee A long separation from your parents Very Somewhat Somewhat Yee Separation on bad terms from parents Very Somewhat Somewhat Yee Separation on bad terms from parents Very Somewhat Somewhat Somewhat Yee Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and Separation on bad terms Yee the Y	PLEASE CHECK FEBLINGS ABOUT BYEAT THEN STLIAL TH YOU DIF YOU DIF * * ADOUT IT YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Yerry Somewhat Verry Inhappy Unhappy Unhappy Lot * ABOUT IT YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Yerry Somewhat Somewhat Verry Inhappy Unhappy Lot * ABOUT IT YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Yerry Somewhat Somewhat Verry Inhappy Unhappy Lot A Somewhat Verry Inhappy Lot A long separation from your parents or when under 13 Separation on bad terms from parents or brother and sisters A A Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and your parents A A Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and your parents A A Separation on bad terms from parents A A A A Separation on bad terms from parents A A A A Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and A A Finding out that you were adopted Intense arguments between you and A A Findense arguments between you and <th>TIT PLEAJE CHECK FEBLINGS ABOUT EVENT 1 YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat Somewhat</th>	TIT PLEAJE CHECK FEBLINGS ABOUT EVENT 1 YOU EXPERIENCE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING Very Somewhat

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Case No.:_____ Date:_____

APPENDIX VI

SYMPTOMS CHECKLIST

I shall now ask you a series of questions to which you are to answer yes or no.

	YES	NO
1. Do you ever have times when you're moody and blue for no reason?		
2. Does criticism always upset you?		
3. Do you find that little things bother you?		
4. Have you felt that different parts of your body were not under your control or have become disconnected somewhat?		
5. Do you fairly often lose or misplace things?		
6. Do you ever get the feeling that people are watching you or talking about you?		
7. Have you suffered from loss of memory?		
8. Do you usually keep in the background on social occasions?		
9. Do you often shake and tremble?		

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APPENDIX VI (Cont.) Case No.:_____

		YES	NO
10.	Do you flare up in anger if you can't have what you want right away?		
11.	Have you had any unusual experiences of seeing or hearing things that no one else saw or heard?		
12.	Do you usually get up tired and exhausted in the morning?		
13.	Do frightening things keep coming back in your mind?		
14.	Are you troubled with headaches or pains in the head?		
15.	Do you find you are less interested than you used to be in things like personal appearance, table manners, and the like?		
16.	Are you sometimes worried or apprehensive for no reason?		
17.	Have you ever been so depressed that it interferes with what you want to do?		
18.	Do you ever have trouble getting to sleep and staying asleep?		
19.	Do strange people or places make you afraid?		
20.	Do you ever have the feeling that the world is very unreal to you?		

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APPENDIX VI (Cont.) Case No.:_____

		YES	NO
21.	Is it always hard for you to make up your mind?		
22.	Do you have any specific things that tend to terrify you, such as the dark, heights, snakes, etc.?		
23.	Do you ever have loss of appetite?		
24.	Have you ever felt a lump in your throat for no reason?		
25.	Do people often annoy and irritate you?		
26.	Do you keep a very strict schedule and are you uncomfortable if you can't maintain it?		
27.	Are your feelings easily hurt?		
28.	Do you have hot spells or cold spells?		
29.	Are you constantly keyed up and jittery?		
30.	Do you have to be on guard even with friends?		
31.	Do you have constant tightness or numbness in any part of your body?		
32.	Do you ever have spells of dizziness?		
33.	Are you considered a nervous person?		
34.	Do you worry a lot about your health?		

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APPENDIX VI (Cont.) Case No.:_____

		YES	NO
35.	Have you ever contemplated suicide?		
36.	Do you go to pieces if you don't constantly control yourself?		
37.	Do you become scared at sudden movements and noises at night?		
38.	Do you ever get short of breath without having done heavy work?		
39•	Must you do things slowly in order to make them without mistakes?		
40.	Have you felt that life is not worth living?		
Щ.	Has drinking at any time been a problem for you or gotten you into any kind of trouble?		
42.	Are you scared to be alone when there are no friends near you?		

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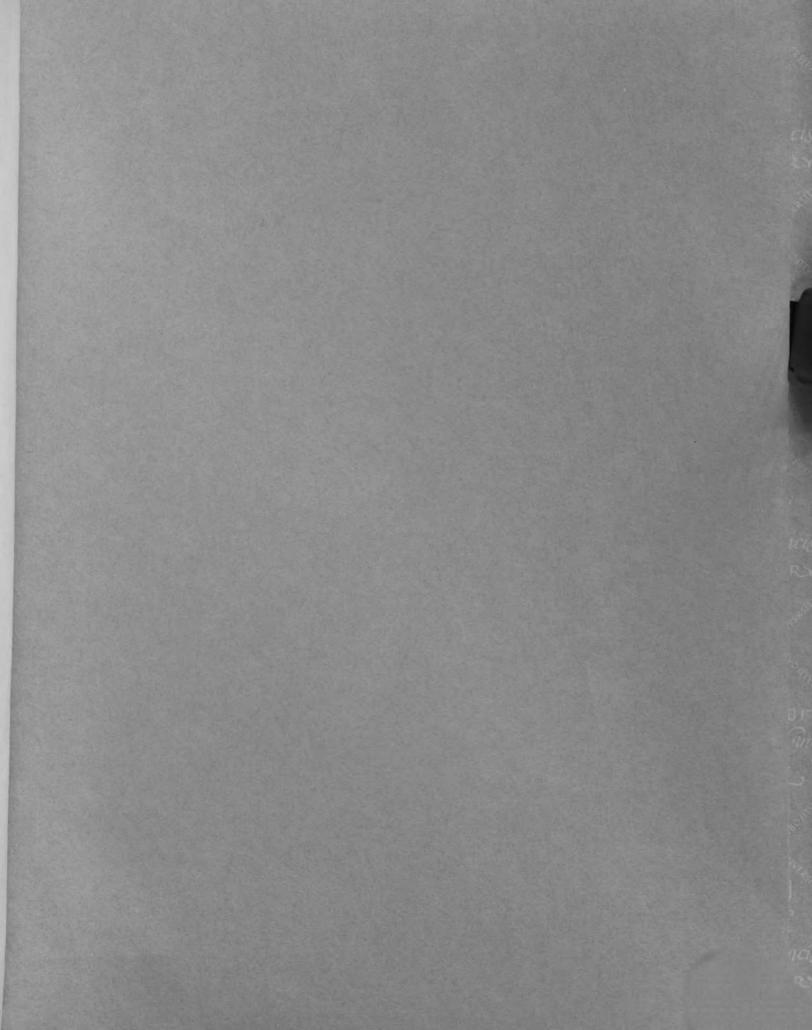
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