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## A study of psychotherapy and divorced women's object choice

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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Nancy Brown entitled "A study of psychotherapy and divorced women's object choice." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.

Alvin G. Burstein, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

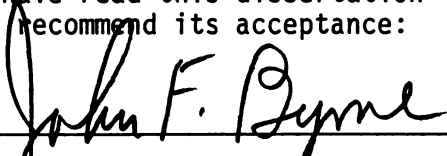
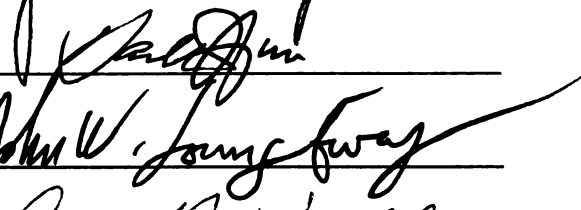
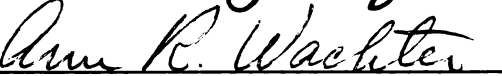
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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Nancy Ellen Brown entitled "A Study of Psychotherapy and Divorced Women's Object Choice." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Psychology.

  
Alvin G. Burstein, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation  
and recommend its acceptance:

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and Dean of the Graduate School

A STUDY OF PSYCHOTHERAPY AND DIVORCED WOMEN'S  
OBJECT CHOICE

A Dissertation  
Presented for the  
Doctor of Philosophy  
Degree  
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Nancy Ellen Brown

December 1985

To Len Handler, my mentor

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## ABSTRACT

Over the past two decades, termination of a marriage by divorce has become increasingly common in our society. However, little information is available concerning the impact of psychotherapy on the nature of post-divorce love relationships which people form. The primary intent of this research project was to examine whether divorced women who have been in insight-oriented psychotherapy were less likely than women who had not been in therapy to become seriously involved with men who possess personality characteristics that are similar to those of their ex-husbands. Two groups of 20 subjects each were interviewed and administered the Leary Interpersonal Adjective Checklist. All subjects were divorced women who were currently in serious relationships with men lasting at least six months. One group had not been in therapy, while the other had been in insight-oriented psychotherapy for at least six months prior to or after their divorce. A rater assessed personality characteristics of the boyfriend and ex-husband by performing Q-sorts on the interview data and completing an Overall Evaluation form. Nonparametric statistics were used in the data analysis.

The results indicated that there was no significant relationship between participation in psychotherapy and choice of a mate unlike the ex-husband. However, certain patterns emerged during the data analysis: (1) The therapy group tended to have selected a boyfriend who was either very like or not at all like the ex-husband; whereas



no such relationship was found for the nontherapy group; (2) For the therapy group, greater changes in self-maturity and maturity of the current relationship were associated with a greater dissimilarity between ex-husbands and boyfriends, while no such relationship was found for the nontherapy group; (3) The therapy group appeared to be less identified at a conscious level with their mothers than the nontherapy subjects; (4) Therapy subjects reported more similarity between their ex-husbands and boyfriends than the nontherapy groups. The potential significance of these findings, along with the methodological errors inherent in the study and future areas of research were discussed.

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## INTRODUCTION

Over the past two decades, ending marriage by divorce has become increasingly common in our society. Census information indicates that between the years 1965 and 1979, the crude divorce rate changed from 2.5 to 5.3 per 1,000 people, and while this rate has currently stabilized, no decrease is expected in the near future (Carter & Glick, 1976; National Center for Health Statistics, 1980). Remarriage and redivorce (i.e., the legal breakup of a remarriage) are no less prevalent. Norton and Glick (1976) report that at least three-fourths of the divorced population will remarry, most likely within the first three years following a divorce, and of these remarriages, approximately 40% will culminate in divorce. From these rather dismal statistics, it is apparent that marital relationships are not as enduring as the original vows of "until death do us part" might lead one to expect.

In conjunction with the dramatic rise in the divorce and redivorce rate, greater efforts have been directed toward a determination of the factors responsible for the breakups of such relationships. Over the past 15 years, numerous ideas have been advanced by sociologists and psychologists to account for the recent increase in divorce, including changes in the divorce laws and social mores, the women's liberation movement, and the lowered mortality rate, to name a few (Gardner, 1974; Moulton, 1977). Other researchers, operating from an idiographic perspective, have explored the nature

and quality of intimate relationships, marital adjustment and success factors, and the mate selection process (Kitson & Raschke, 1981; Price-Bonham & Balswick, 1980; Walker, Rogers, & Messinger, 1977).

From a review of these efforts, one factor has emerged which is thought to play an important role in the understanding of the outcome of post-divorce relationships; namely, the degree of insight or self-awareness that the divorced person has achieved concerning the nature of the original marital alliance as well as the problems in that relationship. It has been argued that, without such insight, people who are divorced will continue to be attracted to a person who has the same kind of personality make-up as their ex-spouse and their current relationship will mirror their failed marriage. On the other hand, if the divorced have developed a solid understanding of their own identity, their needs, and their expectations for themselves and others, and they have explored the reasons for their marital breakup, they purportedly are much less likely to become involved with a mate who shows marked similarities to their ex-spouse and their post-divorce relationships will tend to be more successful (Weiss, 1975; Blanck & Blanck, 1968; Greene, 1968).

Although many researchers have emphasized the importance of self-awareness in the achievement of more satisfactory post-divorce relationships, there remains much debate concerning how such insight is obtained, as will be seen. Some, notably psychoanalysts, contend that such increased insight is unlikely without intensive individual psychotherapy, geared toward an examination and understanding of the nature of the person's current and past interpersonal and

intrapsychic relationships. Unlike other forms of psychotherapy, this approach is designed to help the person achieve insight into conscious and unconscious personality dynamics, thereby promoting emotional growth. On the other hand, others suggest that the process of divorce is inherently a growth experience and self-exploration leading to insight will automatically occur. Thus, psychotherapy is simply not necessary to ensure a more successful heterosexual love relationship (Westoff, 1978; Kraus, 1979).

The study of post-divorce relationships which people form is, without a doubt, a very complicated undertaking. At this point, there is little information available in the literature which enumerates the nature of such relationships. In many ways this is both surprising and unfortunate, given the rather dismal statistics concerning marriage, remarriage, and redi-orce which indicate that many people do not necessarily learn from their apparent mistakes or are able to find satisfaction in new love relationships. The purpose of this research project is to explore the kinds of serious post-divorce relationships which people form as well as to examine whether the divorced do indeed tend to seek out mates who are similar in personality characteristics to their ex-spouse. Of specific interest is the relationship between participation in insight-oriented psychotherapy and the nature of the post-divorce relationships that are formed. It is hoped that such information might contribute to the understanding of the role of insight in the development of satisfactory post-divorce love alliances as well as aid clinicians in their work with people who have experienced divorce.



## CHAPTER I

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The task of reviewing the research on post-divorce heterosexual relationships is by no means an easy one. The study of divorce issues, in general, is in its infancy and many aspects of divorce, including post-divorce relationships as well as the effects of psychotherapeutic interventions, have only received cursory attention to date. Moreover, the topic of relationship issues is, inherently, a complicated one, necessitating an examination of a wide variety of theoretical viewpoints and research. The following discussion will seek to outline the different theories and research concerning mate selection, the formation of love alliances, remarriage, and the role of insight in post-divorce relationships. Particular attention will be directed toward a presentation of the analytic and "divorce as growth" perspectives, although social exchange, homogamy, and intergenerational transmission theories will also be briefly described. It should be noted that only an overview of these multi-faceted issues can be provided, and thus, the reader is urged to consult the sources mentioned in this chapter for a more in-depth understanding.

#### Freudian Theory of Object Choice

From a Freudian perspective, the attraction to a certain mate (i.e., object choice) and the kinds of love alliance formed are

thought to mirror the individual's early relationships with significant others. Referring to the "character" of the ego as "a precipitate of abandoned object-cathexes and . . . the history of those object-choices" (pp. 19-21), Freud (1923/1960) proposed that for both males and females, the single most important identification is with the parents. Such early identifications are thought to mold the personality structure of the child and operate unconsciously in the later selection of a mate. Thus, object choice is influenced, in a broad sense, by the personality characteristics of the parents, the types of the infantile relationships and experiences, and the resolution of the oedipal complex.

In his paper, "On Narcissism," Freud (1914/1959) delineated the nature and roots of love alliances generally formed by adults. Two basic kinds of object choice were proposed: the anaclitic and the narcissistic. In the former case, the adult object choice was thought to resemble the earliest sexual object: the mother or maternal substitute, and it was assumed to be primarily characteristic of men. It was hypothesized that following a successful resolution of the oedipal conflict and a strengthening of the identification with the paternal figure, the male continued to maintain an affectional bond for the mother, enabling later object choices to be of an anaclitic nature. In general, the anaclitic choice involved an idealization of women, stemming from the perceived early nurturing by the mother, a corresponding projection of the child's primary narcissism onto the love object, and the effort to attain love and caring from the loved one.

With women (and those with disturbed libidinal development), the love object was thought to be based primarily on the self rather than on the mother, and hence, it was termed narcissistic. In this case, Freud (1914/1959) suggested that the person would be attracted to a partner who was like: "(a) What he is himself (actually himself). (b) What he once was. (c) What he would like to be. (d) Someone who was once part of himself" (p. 47). It was hypothesized that in the course of healthy psychosexual development, women would retain a primary identification to the maternal figure and would, subsequently, seek out a mate who possessed similar personality characteristics to father.

The determinants of a woman's choice of an object are often made unrecognizable by social conditions. Where the choice is able to show itself freely, it is often made in accordance with the narcissistic ideal of the man whom the girl had wished to become (Freud, 1932/1965, pp. 132-133).

Thus, according to Freud, the maintenance of an affectional bond with the father helped to ensure a satisfactory love alliance with a man.

Regardless of the type of object choice made, it is apparent from the Freudian viewpoint that mate selection is largely determined by unconscious forces and the nature of the early childhood relationships. In his clinical work with patients, Freud further discovered that later adult love relationships and attractions to love objects were patterned after early childhood relationships, endowing these later alliances with a certain uniformity. In his

writings, he described the principle of repetition compulsion, or the instinctual tendency to seek out experiences in order to create ". . . the reinstatement of an earlier condition . . ."

(Freud, 1920/1957, p. 158). While particularly pronounced in the lives of neurotics, Freud contended that this drive to repeat experiences was an inherent trait in everyone. Moreover, it was thought to represent an unconscious striving for, as well as colored by, the nature of the relationships with significant others in early childhood.

[The "repetition-compulsion" which psychoanalysis reveals in the transference phenomena with neurotics can also be observed in the life of normal persons. It here gives the impression of a pursuing fate, a daemonic trait in their destiny, and psychoanalysis has from the outset regarded such a life history as in a large measure self-imposed and determined by infantile influences. . . . Thus one knows people with whom every human relationship ends in the same way: . . . lovers whose tender relationships with women each and all run through the same phases and come to the same end, and so on (Freud, 1920/1957, pp. 149-150).

Thus, Freud proposed that the person's choice of a mate could often be viewed as an attempt to reestablish the primary ties to parental figures. Furthermore, vestiges of early object relationships could be seen in adult love alliances. In this sense, there is a recurring pattern to the kinds of object choices made by adults.

Substantiation for the operation of repetition compulsion in love relationships was provided by Freud's 1910/1959 paper, "A Special Type of Choice of Object Made by Men," in which he outlined two types of object choices regularly made by what he termed neurotic

males, who had been in psychoanalysis with him over the years. These "conditions" of love were described as the "need for an injured third party" (i.e., attraction to a female who was already involved in a serious relationship with another male) and "love for a harlot" (i.e., attraction to a female who was considered to be sexually promiscuous) (pp. 193-194). Freud contended that these object choices represented fixations, stemming from the original feeling-states of the infant toward the maternal figure, and thus, any new relationships formed would simply mirror previous ones.

On the contrary, passionate attachments of this kind are repeated many times over with all the same peculiarities--each an exact replica of the others--in the lives of those belonging to this type; indeed, in consequence of external conditions, such as changes of residence and environment, the loved objects may be so often replaced by others that it comes in the end to a long chain of such experiences being formed (Freud, 1910/1959, p. 195).

These patterns, Freud postulated, could only be interrupted if the original trauma was uncovered and resolved by psychoanalysis.

Although his comments are relatively few, Freud did address the issue of repetition compulsion and the influence of infantile relationships on object choice for women as well. In his paper, "Femininity," Freud (1932/1965) proposed that if women were able to attain a positive attachment to the father, a successful marriage would probably result. However, if the female allowed hostility from her ambivalent relationship toward her mother to intrude on her affectional bond with males, later object choices would most likely be conflictual.

So it may easily happen that the second half of a woman's life may be filled by the struggle against her husband, just as the shorter first half was filled by her rebellion against her mother. When this reaction has been lived through, a second marriage may easily turn out very much more satisfying (Freud, 1932/1965, p. 133).

Again, Freud argued that the only way of interrupting unhealthy object choice patterns was through intensive psychoanalysis. "In this way we require him to transform his repetition into recollection" (Freud, 1917/1969, p. 385). This therapeutic process, with its rigorous investigation of childhood experiences and feeling-states, is focused on helping the unconscious to become conscious, purportedly freeing the individual from the need to reenact such patterns.

From the preceding discussion, it is apparent that the Freudian paradigm of object choice is an extremely complex one, relying heavily on theoretical constructs and subjective clinical observations. As such, it is relatively difficult to research these contentions in any well-controlled, methodologically-sound way. Most of the support for the Freudian view of object choice has come from case studies done by practicing analysts, as will be seen. However, before this research is presented, it is important to briefly examine some of the other analytic perspectives. Although many of these positions have continued to maintain the basic Freudian premises of object choice, namely, that such choices are unconsciously determined, contain vestiges of infantile relationships, and are subject to repetition compulsion unless such patterns are uncovered and resolved through psychoanalysis, greater emphasis has been placed

on developmental issues as they pertain to mate selection and love relationships.

### Other Analytic Perspectives

While retaining some of the Freudian concepts, Blanck and Blanck (1968) have employed an ego-psychological framework with an emphasis on early development and object relations in their theoretical analysis of mate selection and marital factors. Marriage, in their view, is a complex developmental task, involving an emotional separation from parents, new opportunities for autonomy and identifications, a further refinement of self and sexual identities, and the formation of a mutually fulfilling intimate relationship with a person of the opposite sex. Like Freud, Blanck and Blanck maintain that the individual's early relationships with significant others continue to color later contacts with people and that object choice is often made under the sway of strong unconscious determinants. Moreover, the stability of the marital relationship is thought to be dependent upon the emotional maturity of both partners as well as the degree to which the marriage is capable of satisfying individual needs.

Problems arise, according to Blanck and Blanck (1968), when marriage is ". . . undertaken as a panacea for unconscious difficulties and sometimes also in the conscious belief that it will solve problems which appear to be practical in nature" (p. 21). Often, a partner is chosen who will enable the individual's current level of emotional development to be maintained, ostensibly protecting the person from

the anxieties inherent in the process of growth and offering no challenge to the person's selfhood.

If, however, there is excessive anxiety, whether about separation about homosexual wishes, about oedipal conflicts which must be defended against, the partner is unconsciously chosen to aid in this process and then is used as a defensive bulwark. . . . Regressively employed, marriage can be sought as a way of being taken care of and supported, emotionally as well as financially; as a way of acquiring a home instead of making one; as an opportunity to relive conflict in the hope of mastering it (Blanck & Blanck, 1968, p. 21).

However, they contend that it is virtually impossible for a marital partner to serve such a defensive role over a long period of time, and thus, the marital relationship will eventually become strained.

For Blanck and Blanck, an analysis of object choice and love relationships involves an understanding of the individual's developmental achievements, including separation-individuation, object constancy, and the internalization and stable integration of "good" and "bad" aspects of parental identification models. They argue that the specific nature of certain mate attractions and relationships which are formed depend on the degree to which such developmental tasks are successfully negotiated. Although it is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss these particular developmental difficulties in full, some of the dynamics of mate selection can be highlighted.

Separation and individuation involve an emotional differentiation from the maternal object, the gradual disbandment of the symbiotic



relationship with the mother, and a strengthening of the self-identity (cf. Mahler, Pine, & Bergman, 1975, for a complete discussion).

Individuals who have not yet attained a sense of identity that is emotionally separate from their parents are often attracted to a mate who seemingly appears to offer them symbiotic closeness. In other words, they are drawn to a mate who will be a parent to them, taking care of all of their needs before they are expressed, and thus, preserving the fantasy of being "one with mother." Frequently, these couples remain overinvolved with their families of origin and when conflict arises (as it invariably does in view of the impossible task of satisfying each other's needs completely), these couples are repeatedly drawn together in the hope of reestablishing this powerful fantasy of omnipotence.

Marital problems which are based in inadequate completion of separation-individuation are not difficult to identify. Couples who separate and even divorce only to come together again and often remarry may be living out the incompleteness of the childhood developmental task (Blanck & Blanck, 1968, p. 63).

They conclude that this kind of developmental difficulty keeps people from being able to form an intimate relationship which is based on a mutual affirmation of the separate identities of both partners.

Another developmental milestone is the achievement of object constancy, or the ability to value the object as a whole as well as to maintain such a caring stance even in the face of the object's absence (cf. Hartmann, 1958, for a complete discussion). Often, people with unresolved symbiotic needs view their mate only in terms

of what the mate can provide, and when such self-gratification is not forthcoming, the alliance to the mate is easily forfeited.

Persons on the need-gratifying level of object relations can change partners so readily because the need is primary and the other person exists only to serve it. If one partner does not fulfill it, another will do (Blanck & Blanck, 1968, p. 70).

Thus, people are viewed as potentially replaceable and little attention is paid to the separate identity and needs of the other.

Individuals who are not emotionally able to value others as separate identities, realistically recognizing and accepting their imperfections, often have not been able to achieve a stable internal representation of the parental objects, in which the "good" and "bad" aspects have been integrated. In these instances, such people often seek out a "good object" (i.e., a perfect mate), only to discard that person once the normal human frailties appear and the inevitable disappointment follows.

Numerous second and even third and fourth marriages fail in the same way as the first because nothing changes internally in the person who seeks solutions via external shifts. The sought-for good object can never be found (Blanck & Blanck, 1968, p. 72).

Thus, the person remains locked in a pattern in which little enduring satisfaction is available.

In all of the cases discussed above, it is evident that the attraction to a mate is derived from unconscious dynamics that are tied to certain unresolved developmental issues. Blanck and Blanck contend that unless the individual receives intensive

analytically-oriented psychotherapy, the developmental deficits will not be resolved and the person will continue to seek out the same kind of mate in order to live out these developmental issues. In this sense, their stance is much like that of the strict Freudians.

Blanck and Blanck, like Freud, have relied heavily on theoretical formulations and constructs in their analysis of mate selection factors and forces governing the formation of love alliances. Although these perspectives are based on clinical observations made during the process of psychoanalytic psychotherapy with patients, few, if any, efforts have been made to independently evaluate their validity as a whole. Most of the research, as previously noted, consists of case studies, which are limited in scope and generalizability.

#### Analytic Case Studies

Working from an orthodox Freudian perspective, Bergler (1948) presented case material accumulated from years of analytic work with divorced women. On the basis of his experience, he concluded that for neurotics, divorce was both futile and illusory, because it simply represented an effort, on the part of the neurotic patient, to change an inner conflict by discarding an external object (the spouse). Moreover, he contended that neurotic females, in particular, are attracted to men who satisfy unconscious neurotic needs and, thus, the earlier, primarily infantile traumatic relationship is perpetuated. Normal females, on the other hand, tend to seek out mates who provide a healthy, corrective experience to past infantile traumas.

One marriage partner sacrifices the other in order to retain the possibility of repeating the inner conflict with somebody else. In neurosis, retention of the unconscious pattern is decisive, the person with whom the pattern is repeated much less important (Bergler, 1948, p. 26).

He further contended that without extensive, long-term psychoanalysis, neurotics will continue to repeat the same mistakes, particularly since the unconscious conflicts remain resistant to the influence of experience.

Bergler's case analyses clearly offer support for the Freudian tenets of object choice and the need for psychotherapy in order to ensure more satisfactory love alliances. However, it is difficult to evaluate his work, particularly since his data are subjectively gathered and he does not define the terms he uses (e.g., neurosis). Moreover, the degree to which his conclusions are colored by his own theoretical stance is not clear. He also does not provide any information concerning his sample and many of his contentions are highly judgmental.

Another practicing analyst, Ottenheimer (1968) presented various case excerpts to support the notion that the choice of a mate is highly influenced by motivations and convictions which originate in early childhood and are based on feelings toward parents. She argued that these convictions are unconscious, that they can be traced to childhood experiences, and "they replace reality gratifications, which could be derived from the marriage, by strivings for fantasy fulfillment" (Ottenheimer, 1968, p. 61). The kinds

of object choices, illustrated in the case excerpts, were made on the basis of: a need for purity (in the partner) in order to compensate for a debased image of the mother, a need for inferiority to avenge early humiliations, and a need for aloofness in order to protect against hostile wishes toward the mother. It was concluded that object choice always contains some elements of earlier attachments, although this does not necessarily mean that the marriage will be a disturbed one. Instead, it depends on how unrealistic the unconscious fantasies are and the degree of self-awareness each partner brings to the marriage. "If the selection of the spouse is based on the dominant wish to correct infantile traumata and is much less concerned with the reality qualities of the partner, the marriage is threatened" (Ottenheimer, 1968, p. 69). If the marriage is at risk, however, psychoanalysis is needed in order to work through the fantasies and convictions of early childhood, thereby ensuring a more satisfactory choice of mate. Unfortunately, once again it is difficult to evaluate the merits of this study in view of the potentially biased, subjective nature of the case analyses, the unspecified sample, and the undefined terminology. However, it is clear that this paper does offer support for the Freudian view of object choice.

Lager (1977) presented several case analyses of marriage which became strained when the relationship with a parent-in-law was disrupted. He suggested that for some individuals, the relationship with that parent-in-law is viewed as a second chance to obtain fulfillment of unconscious wishes left unsatisfied by the family

of origin and, consequently, the parent-in-law is invested with many hopes and fantasies. In the cases discussed, a key issue was the acceptance of the patient's gender identity by the parent-in-law. It was contended that if the relationship with the parent-in-law is terminated or changed, the individual may project disappointment onto the spouse, seek a divorce, and continue the search for another "perfect" family. Evidence was presented to demonstrate how psychoanalysis was able to help the patient uncover and work through these unconscious strivings, and thus avoid playing out the same issues in new love relationships. Unfortunately, no follow-up information is provided, making it difficult to assess the conclusions. Furthermore, the sample is limited and the case analyses are subjective and biased. Nonetheless, this study does offer some evidence for the operation of unconscious dynamics and the role of repetition compulsion in mate selection.

Another study which explored the operation of unconscious factors in mate selection was done by Raths, Belville, Belville, and Garetz (1974). In their treatment of over 100 unhappy marriages, they identified a counterphobic mechanism which they contended was responsible for the type of mate chosen. The counterphobic mechanism was defined as an attraction to a mate who exhibited traits which were anxiety-provoking for the partner. For example, a woman who had witnessed her own father's rage responses to frustration might, in turn, select a husband who was abusive. Such an attraction was understood by these researchers as an attempt to master conflicts stemming from the early parent-child relationship. They concluded

that the counterphobic behavior was not likely to resolve such conflicts, however, given the tendency of the individual to passively recreate (rather than actively master) the childhood issues. Thus, in this sense, the selection of mates would be made on the basis of a repetition compulsion. Moreover, the marital relationship itself would be an unsatisfying one.

. . . they start out with two strikes against them. First, the counterphobic individual has expectations that are not based on reality, but rather on unconscious neurotic need, and so are less likely to be met by anyone. Secondly, the unconscious choice of a mate is of a person who is unlikely to behave in a way that would meet the needs of the counterphobic person (Raths et al., 1974, p. 299).

Although such marriages may endure and the original phobia may even spontaneously remit, analytically-oriented therapy is needed, in most cases, to resolve the unconscious conflicts and interrupt the counterphobic mechanism. However, in view of the retrospective case description, the unspecified sample, the subjective nature of the data analysis, and the lack of information concerning the effectiveness of the therapy, it is difficult to embrace their findings unequivocally. Despite its limitations, this study does lend some support for the analytic view of object choice.

In one of the few studies which has examined the impact of psychoanalysis on future object choice, Greene (1968) presented clinical data concerning two cases from his private practice. Both cases involved the treatment of ex-husbands, Mr. Black and Mr. White, although only Mr. White was seen in long-term analysis. Greene reported that over a five-year period, both men became involved

with a series of women who resembled their ex-wives in terms of personality characteristics and intrapsychic dynamics. However, by the end of his analysis, Mr. White was able to form a healthy symbiotic relationship with a mature woman who was quite unlike his infantile ex-wife.

Mr. White is a good example of change in remarriage resulting from psychoanalysis, where his developmental fixation was undone, with further individuation, differentiation, integration, and progressive development occurring with the working out of his infantile neurosis in the analytic situation (Greene, 1968, p. 304).

Mr. Black, on the other hand, was not able to resolve his intrapsychic conflicts in view of his sporadic attendance in therapy, and thus, he continued to be attracted to women who had personality make-ups which were very similar to those of his ex-wife. Greene concluded that psychoanalysis is mandatory in order to prevent repetition.

If the ego has not shown further maturation because of either regression or fixation upon a particular symbiotic stage, repetition in remarriage will occur. If, on the other hand, the ego has changed through psychotherapy, autonomous growth, or frustration leading to growth, then change for the better may occur (Greene, 1968, p. 300).

Although limited in terms of sample size and the subjective analysis of the clinical observations, this study does specifically illustrate the role of therapy in helping the divorced to interrupt a pattern of seemingly unsuitable object choices.

Cantor (1982), working from a Mahlerian framework, outlined case material to illustrate the phases of the separation-individuation



process and its impact on marital relationships. She contended that divorce often occurs when one partner begins to grow out of the symbiotic orbit of the marriage and acquires a more mature, stable self-identity. At this point, the partner begins to look for a more healthy relationship with another person, a relationship which often cannot be provided by the spouse who refuses to make any changes. Although the issue of mate selection was not directly addressed, she did provide material which supported the role of therapy in resolving past conflicts and ensuring a more mature love relationship.

Mrs. C. entered therapy at the time that she was considering her second divorce. . . . It seemed evident that she had never resolved the childhood wish to have a child by her father and that her marriages would be doomed to failure until the wish was resolved in therapy (Cantor, 1982, p. 312).

Unfortunately, the case analyses are highly subjective as well as limited in scope. Moreover, no follow-up information concerning the impact of therapy was provided, making it difficult to accept her contentions.

Additional support for this position was offered by Spira (1981), in her discussion of divorced patients who underwent intensive psychotherapy. Like Cantor, she did not specifically examine the issue of mate selection. However, she clearly stressed the importance of psychotherapy in enabling individuals to acquire a stable identity, thereby allowing for more mature, satisfying future relationships.

In all the above-mentioned cases, divorce represents a triumph, but a triumph that has sidestepped needed developmental experience and is in the end, hollow. In effect, the person says, "I have wiped the slate clean. Now I can make everything right." But being rid of the negatively cathected object in the present does not solve the problem of the struggle with the internalized objects (Spira, 1981, p. 263).

Thus, she contended that therapy is needed to work through intrapsychic issues in order to help the individual make realistic, healthy object choices. Although the case studies of Cantor and Spira face the same limitations of the research previously discussed, both of these studies do offer some corroboration for the perspectives outlined by Blanck and Blanck (1968).

In an effort to illustrate the dynamics of unresolved childhood conflicts, Dell and Appelbaum (1977) presented clinical observations of 16 family systems, in which females during their marriages remained enmeshed in their families of origin. In each of these cases, the females had impulsively chosen to marry in order to break away from a highly intrusive and conflictual relationship with their mothers, who tended to view their daughters as special companions and who had discouraged any age-appropriate attempts at separation. In view of this special alliance they had shared with their mothers during childhood, these females often craved a great deal of attention and caring from others. Unfortunately, they generally tended to marry men who were unable to fulfill these strong needs for nurturance, although, on the surface, it appeared that these needs would be met.

Because their flight into marriage is an attempt to evade rather than resolve the ties to the family of origin, these immature young women are generally unable to make lasting marital commitments and are ill-prepared to assume the burdens and responsibilities of parenthood (Dell & Appelbaum, 1977, p. 52).

It was found that most of these females would divorce and, subsequently, return home with the hope of attaining the nurturance they desired. Although it was concluded that intensive therapeutic intervention would be needed to disrupt these mate selection patterns, no evidence is presented to substantiate these claims. Moreover, the case reports are sketchy and highly subjective. Despite these limitations, the findings do indicate that unresolved childhood issues play a role in future love relationships. Other studies (Taibbi, 1979; Garfield, 1980; Rice, 1977) have alluded to the role of psychotherapy in mate selection, although little follow-up evidence has been provided.

From the preceding discussion, it is evident that there is some support in the literature for the premise that mate selection is governed by unconscious determinants and thus, without intensive psychotherapy, new love relationships are likely to resemble past ones, as individuals play out the intrapsychic issues which originally attracted them to a certain kind of mate. Unfortunately, most of the research in this area has been in the form of case studies involving limited samples; highly subjective, retrospective data analyses; a heavy reliance on theoretical constructs; and virtually no follow-up information. Clearly, more well-designed studies are

needed before the reliability and validity of these contentions concerning object choice and repetition compulsion in relationships can be ascertained, particularly given the body of research on post-divorce relationships, to be discussed below, which suggests that divorce itself is a growth process and, thus, formal psychotherapy is not necessarily needed in order to ensure the formation of a more mature, emotionally satisfying love relationship.

### Divorce as a Growth Process

The termination of a marriage by divorce is, without a doubt, a very disruptive and stressful experience for both parties. Holmes and Rahe (1967) consider divorce as being only slightly less stressful than widowhood in terms of the massive reorganizations and adjustments which must be made. Until recently, most researchers have focused on the negative correlates of divorce, including an exploration of the relationship between marital disruption and mental illness, and an identification of the demographic, lifestyle, and personality variables thought to hinder the achievement of an adequate self and/or family adjustment (cf. Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978; Briscoe, Smith, Robins, Marten, & Gaskin, 1973; Chiriboga & Cutler, 1977; Pett, 1982; Pais & White, 1979; Kitson & Raschke, 1981; Price-Bonham & Balswick, 1980; Brown & Manela, 1978; Spanier & Castro, 1979; Rose & Price-Bonham, 1973, for reviews of these findings).

Not all researchers, however, maintain a negative view of the impact of divorce. While acknowledging the traumatic aspects

which accompany the loss of a primary relationship, recent research efforts have been directed toward an examination of the constructive nature of the divorce experience. It has been argued, as will be seen, that divorce itself can be viewed as a potential growth process, offering people the opportunity to review their value systems and goals, their marital mistakes, and their strengths and limitations, as well as enabling the divorced to develop more satisfying love relationships and lifestyles in general. Divorce allows for new learning to occur and thus, there is no repetition compulsion in mate selection. The following sections will present the theories and research which form the basis for this view.

### Divorce Theories

The divorce process has been conceptualized in terms of a series of stages involving the experience of emotional reactions such as denial, ambivalence, and anger, which are stirred up by the realization that the marriage is not going to survive; the process of the legal and physical separations; and a readjustment phase. In the following section, the final stages proposed by these researchers will be briefly outlined, as the notion of growth through divorce is implicit in them.

Various labels have been applied to the stages which follow the actual legal divorce. Kessler (1975), in her survey of clients seeking help from a university counseling center, found that people often went through the stage of "second adolescence," during which the divorced would come to terms with their singlehood and begin

to try out new roles and experiences. While initially going overboard in the dating world, the divorced would eventually realize that ". . . perhaps you were not caged in by the other person, but rather by your own needs" (p. 42), and moderation would prevail. As a transition was made into the last phase, that of "exploration and hard work," people would begin to review their expectations and goals as well as reaffirm their self-identity.

You have reconstructed your personality with both the desirable old parts and some new levels of awareness, maturity, sensitivity and wisdom. The feeling of vulnerability has shaken the once-fixed defense mechanisms enough to reorganize them into a better you. A new confidence in being able to transcend a new experience adds solidarity to the self-esteem. . . . Now at the end of the divorce process, you have changed from being stymied to being strengthened by it (Kessler, 1975, pp. 42-44).

Thus, it is assumed that the individual will be emotionally enriched by the divorce experience and, subsequently, will be able to form more successful love alliances.

Bohanan (1970), another stage theorist, has also viewed divorce as an inherent growth process. After the divorce is final and both partners have agreed upon financial, custody, and living arrangements, the major task to be faced is that of "psychic divorce." Here, the goal involves ". . . becoming a whole, complete, and autonomous individual again--learning to live without somebody to lean on--but also without somebody to support" (p. 53). He contends that divorce allows people to reexamine the reasons as to why the marriage occurred as well as why it failed. Moreover, divorce enables people to

recognize past conflicts more clearly and, thus, avoid them in the future. "Ironically, being a divorced person has built-in advantages in terms of working out these conflicts, making them conscious, and overcoming them" (p. 54). In this way, divorce is viewed as a time of new learning and growth that is positive in nature, which, in turn, frees the individual to make better relationship choices. Psychotherapy per se is not needed; simply the experience of a divorce can provide the needed insight into past patterns which will prevent the occurrence of mistakes in the future.

In her proposal of a unitary stage theory model of divorce, Salts (1979) provided a summary of the growth process anticipated in the final readjustment phase. This overall analysis of the final stage of divorce is compiled from the speculations of the various stage theorists (cf. Wiseman, 1975; Froiland & Hozman, 1977; Waller, 1930/1967; Weiss, 1975), and it appears to be a comprehensive statement of "divorce as growth" position.

As the reestablishment of a coherent and stable identity and life pattern continues, the individual enters the last stage of the divorce process. The anxious floundering is replaced by manageable, reachable goals. The fully matured divorced person will find life to be balanced and enriched by work, family, and close friendship. Those mature individuals who have sought new relationships can establish improved patterns of interaction and are capable of a deeper degree of emotional commitment. Although fear of losing one's new identity as an individual may emerge as thoughts of blending into a new partnership increase, the adjusted individual can accept the compromises associated with intimacy, whether it be marriage or some alternative relationship (Salts, 1979, p. 238).

Thus, it is postulated that the new experiences and self-exploration,

purportedly germane to the divorce process, enable the divorced to learn from past mistakes and form more satisfactory love alliances.

In the stage theories presented above, little information is provided in terms of any objective validation for these views. Instead, the conclusions reached by these theorists are primarily based upon interviews of divorced people and, thus, these contentions remain quite speculative in nature. Moreover, concepts such as identity and self-exploration are not clearly defined, and no description of the sample population is provided. Although these divorce researchers, like other stage theorists, contend that psychotherapeutic experiences are not necessary for the achievement of personality changes and a satisfactory adjustment to a new lifestyle, there is some evidence that their observations may actually be based on interviews with people who have been through psychotherapy, making it difficult to determine whether divorce is solely responsible for the personal growth they have described.

Added impetus for the view of divorce as a growth process, outlined by the stage theorists, comes from crisis theory. Kraus (1979) conceptualizes divorce as a crisis, whereby the individual's equilibrium is upset and the ordinary coping mechanisms cannot be employed to effectively restore the balance. Crisis theory suggests that positive growth can occur from such an upsetting experience, because the individual must develop new abilities to manage this situation.

In the case of divorce, one's social roles and networks of associations are rapidly changing, and coping with such an



experience involves a reevaluation of one's life style that may lead to improved functioning . . . [including] an increased personal autonomy, a new sense of competence and control, development of better relationships with their children, and the freedom of time to develop their own interests (Kraus, 1979, p. 111).

While she recognizes that a crisis situation may also have negative outcomes depending on the interaction of individual and situational variables (e.g., the individual's mental health and nature of the person's support system), she contends that the past divorce research has emphasized the negative factors to the exclusion of the adaptive aspects of the divorce experience. Smart (1977) also maintains a crisis perspective of divorce in her application of the Ericksonian developmental stages to illustrate the major tasks of the divorce process. Unfortunately, no research results are provided to support these speculations and, thus, further validation is needed before the crisis model can be accepted.

From the preceding discussion, it is evident that some theorists have viewed divorce in terms of a growth process, whereby new experiences enable people to learn more about themselves and make the personality changes needed to bring about future happiness. In view of the new learning which occurs during the readjustment phase, it is also assumed that the divorced will be able to seek out more satisfactory love alliances, in which the past relationship problems are not repeated. Moreover, participation in a psycho-therapeutic endeavor is not really needed to ensure that past mistakes are not repeated. Instead, personality growth is hypothesized to be a by-product of the adjustment process. The following section

will examine some of the research which has been done to substantiate these ideas. It should be noted that many of the studies have focused on the relationships of the remarried. In fact, there is almost no information in the literature concerning serious post-divorce love relationships that have not been legally formalized.

### Divorce and Remarriage Research

Much of the research on remarriage to be discussed below comes from interviews and, in some cases, clinical observations. Weiss (1975), in a comprehensive study of the facets of separation and divorce, based his support for the "divorce as a growth process" theory on an analysis of single parent and conjugal bereavement studies as well as interviews with members of the Parents Without Partners group. He stated that although the divorced may respond in many of the same ways in a new love relationship, new learning has occurred and, thus, they are likely to approach a new relationship with greater maturity, tolerance, and self-awareness. Moreover, while new initial attractions might resemble previous ones, the attachments formed will be quite different, simply because each person is unique. In this way, new love alliances, on the whole, will be unlike the original marital relationship.

Most of us have had more than one attachment relationship and can prove to our own satisfaction how little we repeat the same relationship by comparing these attachments to one another. It takes a great determination to make a second relationship follow the same course as the first. . . . All in all, it seems unlikely that the difficulties of a disastrous first marriage will be repeated in a remarriage (Weiss, 1975, pp. 308-309).

In order to substantiate these views, he provided excerpts of interviews with people who had experienced a divorce. Unfortunately, his presentation of the interview data is quite subjective and no information concerning his sampling procedures or subject population is given, making it difficult to evaluate the merits of this study. As will be seen, these same problems abound in many of the interview studies.

In his work with couples and individuals over a 20-year period, Akatagawa (1981) developed a three-phase paradigm for love relationships in general. In the first phase, a mate is selected on the basis of complementary personality characteristics (e.g., a shy person is drawn to a gregarious mate) as well as the absence of desire for emotional intimacy. As the person matures in the marriage, the tolerance for intimacy grows stronger. However, this developing need for intimacy remains frustrated because of the nature of the established marital alliance. Consequently, in order to obtain intimacy, the person begins to look for an extramarital or post-divorce relationship and, thus, moves into Phase II. This phase is of brief duration and it usually involves an extremely passionate affair. In the third phase, the person begins to establish a more mature, peer relationship with a member of the opposite sex who often has personality characteristics that ". . . are a kind of mean between the first two partners" (Akatagawa, 1981, p. 68). Although this study provides support for the formation of new, healthier alliances after a divorce, the nature of the subject

population, the terminology used, and the basis for these contentions are undefined, leaving the reader, in some instances, with more questions than answers.

Westoff (1978) conducted interviews with the divorced and remarried from various parts of the country in order to ascertain the status of remarriage. It was found that virtually all of the remarried subjects described the divorce process as a learning experience and most indicated that they had made major changes in their behavior and attitudes. Moreover, those who remarried tended to make more realistic, deliberate, and conscious assessments of what was desired in both a new marital relationship and a mate. From these interviews, she concluded that the experience of a divorce allows people to examine themselves and make changes. Thus, a repetition of the same kind of original marital relationship is unlikely to occur.

Many people pointed out that they had changed so much it would have been impossible for them to make the same mistake again. Not a single person I spoke to reported that he or she had married the same sort of person (Westoff, 1978, p. 33).

It was also found that the majority of remarriages were rated as happy by the marital partners.<sup>1</sup> Similar results were found by Reingold

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<sup>1</sup>This finding has been repeatedly corroborated by studies of global happiness (Glenn & Weaver, 1977; Albrecht, 1979; White, 1979; Spanier & Furstenberg, 1982; Bernard, 1956; Duberman, 1975; Albrecht, Bahr, & Goodman, 1983). However, the measures used have been overall ratings with no independent measures or controls for social desirability or other response sets. Moreover, although this finding

(1976) in her interviews. Once again, these observations are based on self-report interviews which have been subjectively interpreted. Moreover, no information was provided concerning the data-gathering procedures or the sample selection and characteristics. Thus, it is difficult to assess the validity of these findings.

One of the few empirical studies which specifically addresses the nature of new relationships formed after divorce was done by Jacobson (1983). A sample of 232 divorced or separated individuals (79 males and 153 females) from the middle and lower classes participated in the study. Subjects, solicited from a crisis clinic in Los Angeles, were administered a variety of measures by a research assistant and a trained clinician. The instruments used included a marital problems survey, a separation-coping scale, a questionnaire on the type of crisis being experienced and new love alliances, and eight specific mental health measures. In general, the primary purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between aspects of separation and divorce and the mental health of the subjects. The research project itself is extremely complex and thus only the relevant results relating to mate selection and the "divorce as growth" theory will be presented.

One area which was investigated involved an analysis of dating patterns and new love relationships. It was found that almost four-fifths of the sample were either romantically or sexually involved

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has been used to support the idea that divorce can be positive, no attempts have been made to ascertain the factors underlying this measure.

with another person at one time during the marriage, and in at least 70% of the cases, the spouse or ex-spouse knew about this involvement. At the time of the study, at least one-half of the sample reported that they were dating someone other than their spouse and in at least 50% of these cases, the dating had started prior to the marital separation. When asked about the degree of emotional involvement, 80% reported that their current relationship was serious, while 50% said they were in love. A high percentage indicated that they could be warm and loving toward the new partner, although problems were also acknowledged. In 60% of the cases, quarrelling was reported, leading to physical violence in 20% of this sample. When the mental health measures were analyzed, it was found that people who were involved in dating relationships were significantly more well-adjusted than those who were not.

A total sample of 106 responded to questions concerning mate choice and the two relationships. About one-half rated their new partner as being almost opposite to the spouse, while one-quarter indicated that there was a great difference between the two. Moreover, at least 60% indicated that they never behaved with the new partner as they had with the spouse. When asked about the length of the relationship, only 14% reported that they had known the new partner while they were married.

Jacobson (1983) concluded that people going through a divorce generally seek out new relationships which are different from the marital alliance. Although these relationships are often short-lived, they do fulfill the emotional needs of the separated and divorced

and they foster constructive changes and growth in individuals who are experiencing the crisis of a divorce. However, Jacobson cautioned that a continuing attachment to an ex-spouse as well as an absence of social supports can mitigate against the positive effects of divorce.<sup>2</sup>

Although this is one of the few divorce studies which provide objective measures of the independent variables, control for experimental bias and adequate reliability figures, unfortunately there are some problems. Not all subjects participated equally in the data collection, leaving very small sample sizes in some of the cells, which makes the validity of the interpretations questionable. No control for the uneven sex distribution is provided and the subject characteristics are not well-defined. For example, it is not clear whether any of the subjects have participated in therapy. The relationship measures are rather simplistic and biased. Thus, it is difficult to determine whether new relationships are actually different from the marital ones and it is not clear whether

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<sup>2</sup>The importance of resolving spousal attachments and developing a network of social supports has been well-substantiated in the divorce literature (cf. Kitson, 1982; Thweatt, 1980; Huntington, 1982; Brown, Felton, Whiteman, & Manela, 1980; Ahrons & Perlmutter, 1982; Goldsmith, 1980; Goetting, 1979; Spanier & Hanson, 1982; Raschke, 1977; Caldwell & Bloom, 1982; Chiriboga, Coho, Stein, & Roberts, 1979; Brown, 1981; Knaub, Hanna, & Stinnett, 1984 for further discussion). In addition, there has been a recent proliferation of divorce workshops which are designed to provide support as well as educate people about coping with divorce (Nichols, 1977; Granvold & Welch, 1977; Young, 1978; Coche & Goldman, 1979; Kessler, 1978; Salts & Zongker, 1983; Davidoff & Schiller, 1983).

the results warrant the conclusion that these new relationships promote a better adjustment. Despite these problems, this study does provide some support for the "divorce as growth" idea.

The following studies attempt to assess whether the divorced differ from the married populations in ways which would support the growth model of divorce. Maxwell and Andress (1982) examined the issue of role expectations which are maintained by the divorced. A Marriage Role Expectation Inventory was sent to 78 divorced and 128 married people matched in terms of age and education who were solicited from a "variety of sources." Comparisons of the two samples indicated that the subjects were not significantly different on demographic variables and the reliability measures were adequate. Data were analyzed in terms of t-tests. The results indicated that married women were significantly more egalitarian (i.e., expecting a sharing of roles) than married men in terms of social participation, child care, and career work. Similar patterns were revealed for divorced women and men. It was concluded that women as a whole have a more egalitarian view of role responsibilities than men. Furthermore, divorce, for both men and women, appears to exert a "liberalizing effect" on role expectations as compared with those who remain married. The researchers suggested that these results support the idea that divorce furthers the development of personal growth. While this study, in general, is fairly well-designed, the findings obtained were not objectively validated. Moreover, it is questionable whether egalitarianism can be equated with personal



growth or divorce can be considered to be the "liberalizing factor" in this study, in view of the correlational nature of the data. Nonetheless, this study does suggest that the divorced maintain different ideas about the nature of future relationships.

In an effort to ascertain whether the divorced have a greater sense of personal control over situations, Doherty (1980) administered Rotter's I-E Scale to a sample of 904 single, married, separated, divorced, and widowed individuals, in which income and education were controlled. Analyses of covariance revealed that the divorced group had significantly higher internal average I-E scores than any of the other groups, including the never married group. It was concluded that the divorce process enables people to feel more in control of their lives. Unfortunately, there is much confounding of marital status in the sample as well as some small cell sizes (e.g., the separated men totalled four), which the researchers correctly indicate. Moreover, it is again questionable whether divorce can be demonstrated as a "cause" of the perceived differences. Despite these limitations, there is some evidence that divorce may indeed further personal growth and feelings of competency.

From the preceding discussion, it is evident that the research has provided some support for the notion that divorce itself is a growth process, involving self-exploration and new learning experiences. Unfortunately, there are virtually no well-designed, methodologically-sound studies which have explored these ideas. Thus, it is difficult to determine whether divorce, as so many of the researchers have contended, or other variables, such as

participation in psychotherapy or support groups, might be responsible for the new learning which reportedly occurs. Moreover, many of these studies, although simply correlational in nature, report the findings in terms of cause and effect. At this time, there is little knowledge about the nature of post-divorce relationships and what has been acquired is quite subjective, making it difficult to ascertain whether people, as the "divorce as growth" notion suggests, really do learn from their mistakes. It is readily apparent that more research concerning the mate selection process is sorely needed.

The foregoing presentation has focused on two major contentions concerning object choice and post-divorce relationships which have been extensively discussed in the divorce literature. However, the analytic and growth models are not the only perspectives on these subjects. In order to complete this discussion of post-divorce relationships, it is important to briefly review the few remaining theories which have not yet been addressed.

#### Other Research on Mate Selection

Several other conceptual models have been proposed to explicate the factors involved in choosing a mate and forming a satisfying love relationship, including social learning theory, homogamy, and social psychological perspectives. The following discussion will focus on a brief examination of these theories, along with the relevant, albeit limited, research that is available.

Working from a role model perspective, Pope and Mueller (1976) proposed a transmission hypothesis to account for divorce and redi-

Briefly stated, they contended that the kind of sex and marital roles modeled by a child's family determine whether later adult love relationships will be satisfying. Thus, children who were raised in families disrupted by divorce would have a higher incidence of divorce as adults.

In order to test this hypothesis, they analyzed the data obtained from five national surveys involving both black and white populations. Overall, a small positive relationship was found between the adult divorce rate and the parental divorce rate for whites, while the data for the black population was very inconsistent. They concluded that there are intervening variables which operate between generations to produce (or transmit) marital instability. This study is very difficult to interpret because of the lack of statistical measures, the large discrepancies among surveys, and the absence of controls for outside variables.

In an attempt to explicate the nature of intervening variables which might play a role in the transmission hypothesis, Mueller and Pope (1977) analyzed the data from the 1970 National Fertility Survey. Background variables (e.g., socioeconomic status and geographical location of the family of origin, number of siblings in the family, and religious affiliation) and mate selection outcomes (e.g., educational level, age, socioeconomic status, premarital pregnancy, marital history, and religious affiliation of the second generation) were specifically examined, in order to determine whether these factors could account for divorce across generations. It was found that the background variables were not related to marital

instability. Of the mate selection outcomes, only age and education of the wife and education of the husband were related to marital instability across generations. Thus, they concluded that the role model may not be adequate to explain the transmission hypothesis. Instead, certain mate selection factors serve as the intermediate link between intergenerational divorce. In evaluating this study, it should be kept in mind that the transmission hypothesis is a shaky one (as demonstrated by the statistically small correlation) and the effects of only a few variables have been controlled. The results from these studies, as well as others (Bumpass & Sweet, 1972; Heiss, 1972), do not conclusively rule out the spurious nature of this relationship.

In a somewhat similar fashion, Dean and Gurak (1978) examined mate selection factors of women who have been married twice. Of particular interest was the variable of marital homogamy (i.e., the degree of similarity between husband and wife in terms of demographic variables), which has been shown to be related to marital success (Burr, 1971). The 1970 National Fertility Survey data for two groups--women currently in their first marriages and those who are remarried--was analyzed in terms of age, education, and religion. It was found that second marriages were significantly less homogamous on all of these dimensions than first marriages. Moreover, the first marriages of the remarried group were significantly less homogamous than the once married group. It was concluded that although there is a smaller sample of eligible men available to women the second time around, women do not seem to learn from their

mistakes and instead, "Women in heterogamous second marriages tend to be merely repeating a mate selection process first enacted with choosing their first mate . . ." (p. 546). Thus, they argued for a divorce-prone view perspective concerning remarriage.

While the data from the above study have been rigorously analyzed, the mate selection variables are rather restrictive. Thus, the conclusions which were suggested should be regarded as speculative. Moreover, there were no direct measures of marital success and it is not clear whether the research on homogamy in first marriages is applicable to second marriages. Interestingly, Gurak and Dean (1979), in a further analysis of the national survey data, compared divorced women who had remarried with divorced women who had not and found that demographic variables did not show any relationship to the type of mate selected, although the educational level accounted for most of the variance. As they correctly noted, more research on mate selection factors is clearly needed before any reliable conclusions can be reached. McKenry, White, and Price-Bonham (1978) also did not find any support for the homogamy hypothesis, although their study did offer limited substantiation to the intergenerational transmission theory.

The social psychological theories concerning the process of mate selection abound in the literature (Murstein, 1970; Lewis, 1973; Centers, 1975; Thibaut & Kelly, 1959; Winch, 1958). In general, most of these theories utilize a social exchange perspective which postulates that relationships are formed on the basis of costs and rewards, or barriers and attractions. Thus, it is contended that people

consciously evaluate potential partners in terms of a variety of factors, including similarity of values, degree of sociability, role expectations, and demographic, material, and personality variables, before a decision is made to become emotionally involved.

Empirical studies of this mate selection paradigm are few and they generally involve the analysis of premarital mate choices (Kitson & Raschke, 1981), though this model has been used to explicate the reasons why marriages end in divorce (Laner, 1978a, 1978b; Edwards & Saunders, 1981; Lenthall, 1977; Levinger, 1976; Albrecht & Kunz, 1980; Green & Sporkowski, 1983). Unfortunately, there are no studies in the existing literature on divorce which apply the social exchange paradigm of mate selection to the formation of post-divorce relationships. However, in the final study to be discussed below, there is limited support for the perspective that people may assess potential partners in a conscious, realistic fashion and that propinquity (i.e., mate selection is governed by the proximity of residences) may operate as an attraction in post-divorce relationships.

In one of the few studies which specifically addressed aspects of mate selection, Peters (1976) obtained questionnaire responses from a sample of 48 remarried or soon-to-be remarried middle-class people living in Ontario. Subjects were solicited from local newspaper advertisements and divorce support groups. The questionnaire investigated specific aspects of both marriages and the data were reported in terms of frequencies only. The results are as follows: 69% of the remarried indicated that "rationalism" was extremely

high in their decision to marry, while only 21% said that this factor played a role in their first marriage; "romanticism" was viewed by 60% of the remarried as being extremely present in their second marriage, whereas only 23% thought it played a role in their first marriage; 27% of the remarried indicated that they were attracted to a mate who shared like parental characteristics, while only 17% said this played a role in their first marriage; 50% reported having doubts at the time of their first marriage, while 25% admitted to doubts in their current relationship. Frequencies were also provided which showed geographical characteristics and length of courtship.

It was concluded that the propinquity theory received support in both marriages. That is, people tended to marry and remarry those who lived nearby. Moreover, there is limited evidence that people were attracted to partners who resembled aspects of their parents. While courtship did not last as long as the first time, the choice of mate seemed to be much more realistically determined than in the first marriage. In view of the absence of definitions for the terms used in the questionnaires and the somewhat narrow sampling, it is difficult to determine exactly what is meant by these findings. Furthermore, the data are not analyzed in such a way as to assess significant findings, which further complicates the understanding of these results. Despite these limitations, some support is given to the notion that post-divorce love alliances may be more realistic and that the attractions may outweigh the barriers. However, it is readily evident that additional research

is needed in order to determine the applicability of the social exchange theories to post-divorce relationships.

### Conclusions and Implications

From the preceding review of the relevant theories and research on post-divorce relationships and mate selection, it is readily apparent that there are numerous views on this subject, none of which has been proved to be conclusive. Moreover, it is evident that the research on divorce is sketchy and often limited to subjective analyses which are confounded by a given theoretical perspective. Implicit in all of the research on divorce is the idea that the marriage itself was a failure.

Of all the contentions concerning the nature of post-divorce relationships, the analytic position of repetition compulsion and the "divorce as a growth process" have received the most attention. In the first view, intensive insight-oriented psychotherapy is supposedly needed in order to prevent future mate selection "mistakes," while from the other perspective, divorce is viewed as a learning experience and, thus, no therapeutic intervention is needed to ensure satisfying love alliances. To date, however, no study has examined these contentions in any great detail.

In an effort to explore these two viewpoints, the following research project was undertaken. This project involved interviewing women who were divorced and who were currently engaged in a serious relationship with a man. Half of the subjects had received insight-oriented psychotherapy, either just before or after their divorce,



while the remainder had not participated in any therapeutic endeavor. Specific measures were employed to ascertain the personality characteristics of both the ex-spouse and the new partner. The intent of the project was to examine whether participation in insight-oriented psychotherapy lessens the likelihood that a divorced woman will form a relationship with another man who possesses personality characteristics which are similar to her ex-husband.

## CHAPTER II

### METHOD

This study was undertaken in an attempt to provide information concerning the question: Are divorced women who have engaged in insight-oriented psychotherapy less likely than divorced women who have not participated in psychotherapy to become seriously involved with men who possess personality characteristics that are similar to those of their ex-husbands? The following sections will outline the procedures used in this research project.

#### Sample

A total of 40 adult women from Knoxville, Tennessee and the surrounding counties participated in this study. All of the subjects had been divorced for at least six months prior to the interview and all were currently involved in a serious relationship with another man. A serious relationship was defined as a prospective marital relationship which had lasted for at least six months and was viewed as a committed love alliance by the females in this study. In addition, half of the subjects had been involved in individual insight-oriented psychotherapy for at least six months, either immediately prior to or following the divorce. The remaining 20 subjects did not receive any formal therapy, either during their marriage or after their divorce. Individual therapy was defined as weekly sessions with a psychodynamically-oriented mental health

professional, which focused on an analysis of the transference relationship between the therapist and the patient (i.e., the clarification and understanding of the patient's view of the therapist as a reflection of feelings and interactional patterns stemming from the original parent-child relationship) as well as an in-depth exploration of childhood experiences and relationships with significant others. The nature of the psychotherapy was determined on a subjective basis by the researcher. At the time of the initial contact, subjects were asked whether they had been in therapy; and if so, they were asked to describe the content of the sessions and the aims of the therapy.

Announcements of this research project, inviting interested participants to contact the researcher for further information, were submitted to the local newspapers, area women's newsletters, local businesses, mental health centers, and The University of Tennessee. Participation was strictly on a voluntary basis. All subjects were screened by telephone to determine their eligibility for inclusion in the study. Subjects who were remarried, who had been widowed, who had been divorced less than six months, or who were not currently involved in a serious relationship with a man were excluded from the study. None of the participants showed any major psychiatric disturbance at the time of the interview. In addition, no subject had been divorced more than once, with the exception of two cases where the first marriage had occurred during adolescence, had only lasted a few months, and was judged to be insignificant by the subject.

### Materials

An Informed Consent (Appendix A) was developed by the researcher to explain the requirements, purposes, and procedures of the research project, for review and approval by The University of Tennessee Human Subjects Committee.

An interview questionnaire (Appendix B), also developed by the researcher, was used in the data collection process. It consisted of a series of closed and open-ended questions, which were designed to elicit information concerning the subject's perceptions of the original marriage, the divorce process, and the current post-divorce relationship. Input from three clinical psychologists was solicited to ensure a comprehensive, representative, and comparable sampling of questions concerning the subject's past and present relationships. A semi-structured format was used, enabling the interviewer to question further any responses which were thought to be vague or incomplete. Overall, the interview attempted to provide an in-depth view of the subject's relationships with her ex-husband and boyfriend, the insights concerning these relationships that had been acquired through the process of a divorce and/or psychotherapy, and the personality make-ups of both the ex-husband and the boyfriend. Some of the areas which were addressed included: decision-making, expression of feelings, family relationships, social and recreational activities, money, impulse control, religion, sexuality, work issues, and conflict-resolution. A standard tape recorder was used to record the interview.

The Interpersonal Adjective Checklist (ICL), Form IV (Appendix C) was also used in the data collection process. The ICL consists of 128 adjectives which are thought to be descriptive of an individual's personality style and interpersonal behavior. Developed by LaForge and Suczek (1955), the ICL is one of the measures included in the Interpersonal Diagnosis of Personality Test (cf. Leary, 1957, for a complete presentation of this test). The adjectives are grouped into eight categories, or octants, with 16 in each octant. These eight octants have been labeled as: Managerial/Autocratic; Competitive/Narcissistic; Aggressive/Sadistic; Rebellious/Distrustful; Self-Effacing/Masochistic; Docile/Dependent; Cooperative/Over-Conventional; and Responsible/Hypernormal. The adjectives within those eight octants range in intensity, from a mild to an extreme characterization of a given personality trait. Reliability and validity coefficients range from .62 to .95, indicating that the ICL is a methodologically sound, reliable, and valid instrument when used to assess conscious self-perceptions and the individual's perceptions of significant others (Leary, 1957; McLemore & Benjamin, 1979). In the present study, ratings were gathered for the subject's perceptions of herself, her mother, her father, her ex-spouse, her boyfriend, and her ideal self and mate. A Leary Octant Sheet (Appendix D) was used to record the data.

The California Q-Set (CQ-Set), Form III (Appendix E) was used to categorize the interview data. Developed by Block (1961) for use by trained clinicians, the CQ-Set consists of 100 phrases which are descriptive of an individual's personality functioning and

dynamics. Although a broad psychodynamic framework is implicit, much care was taken during the Q-sort construction to ensure that the items would be nonjudgmental, nonpathological, and as theoretically neutral as possible. The CQ-Set is an ipsative, forced-choice procedure, involving a nine-point, unimodal, symmetrical distribution, which ranges from least to most characteristic of the individual. At each point on the continuum, a predetermined number of cards are placed. Data provided by Block (1956, 1961) indicate that the CQ-Set is a methodologically sound, reliable, and valid instrument, with test-retest reliabilities ranging from .80 to .90, and interrater reliability and construct and criterion validity coefficients ranging from .51 to .77. In this study, two Q-sorts were performed: one on the ex-husband and the other on the boyfriend. The rater was given a Q-Sort Instruction Sheet (Appendix F) and Q-Sort Rating Sheets (Appendix G), prepared by the researcher to facilitate the analysis of interview data.

An Overall Evaluation of the Interview (Appendix H), developed by the researcher, was also used to categorize the interview data. Using a six-point scale, ranging from not present to highly present, global ratings were made concerning the similarities and maturity of the two relationships, the subject's degree of insight into these relationships, the psychological maturity of the subject, and the similarities in personality make-up of the two men.

### Procedure

A total of 61 subjects who had requested additional information about this research project, as indicated by leaving their names and phone numbers with a secretary, were contacted by the researcher. They were told that the researcher was interested in determining how the experience of divorce affects women and their feelings toward important people in their lives. Subjects were asked when they divorced and how long they had been in a serious relationship with a man. If they met the criteria of the study, they were invited to participate in a voluntary, confidential interview. They were told that they would be asked questions about their marriage, their experience of the divorce, and their current relationship as well as complete a brief adjective checklist. The entire time commitment was estimated to be about two hours. The five subjects who were solicited directly from a local mental health center were also told that their therapist would be notified prior to the appointment.

Of the 61 potential subjects, 18 declined to participate, primarily because of time constraints; two were remarried; and one was widowed, leaving a total sample of 40 subjects. The majority of the subjects were eager to participate and spontaneously volunteered a great deal of personal information over the telephone. Appointments were arranged at the subjects' convenience and choice of location. Most of the interviews took place either at The University of Tennessee or the subject's home, although, in a few cases, subjects were interviewed in their work offices or at a local mental health center.

At the time of the appointment, the subject was asked to read and sign the Informed Consent. The outline of the study, previously described by telephone, was presented again and any questions or concerns that the subject had were addressed. The researcher, who is a trained clinician, then administered the interview, which was tape-recorded. Following the interview, the subject was asked to complete the Interpersonal Adjective Checklist, by coloring in the circles of the adjectives which described the person listed in each column. At the end of the study, the subjects were asked what they thought the purpose of the study was and any questions were answered. All subjects were given a copy of the Informed Consent for their records.

All of the interviews were transcribed by the researcher. Any identifying information was deleted in order to protect the anonymity of the subjects. An edited version of these transcripts was prepared, in which all references to psychotherapy were omitted. These edited transcripts were given to a rater, an advanced graduate student in clinical psychology who was blind to the nature of the study. This rater did two Q-sorts (one for the ex-husband and one for the boyfriend of each subject) based on the edited interview data. He also completed the Overall Evaluation of the Interview. In performing the Q-sorts, the rater was instructed to utilize clinical judgement concerning the personality make-up of each man, rather than relying solely on the subject's characterization. In order to see if the review was blind, the rater was also asked to judge



whether the subject had been in insight-oriented therapy. The remainder of the data analysis was done by the author.

## CHAPTER III

### RESULTS

The primary intent of this research project was to examine whether divorced women who have been in insight-oriented therapy are less likely than women who have not been in therapy to become seriously involved with men who possess personality characteristics that are similar to those of their ex-husband. The data were obtained from two sources: the edited transcripts of interviews with divorced women and the self-report adjective checklist. Three measures were used to prepare the data for analysis: (1) Q-sorts (Appendix E) were performed by the rater for the ex-husband and boyfriend of each subject, based on the rater's clinical judgment of the interview; (2) an Overall Evaluation of the Interview (Appendix H) was completed by the rater for each subject, based on the rater's clinical assessment of the interview; (3) octant scores for the Interpersonal Adjective Checklist (Appendix C) were calculated by the researcher, using the formulas provided by Leary (1957). The two subject groups (therapy and nontherapy) were compared in terms of the above measures. In view of the selective nature of the sampling and the unknown population parameters, nonparametric statistical tests were used in the data analysis. The following sections will present a detailed description of the results.

### Sample Characteristics

Two groups of 20 subjects each, for a total of 40, participated in the research project. One group (therapy) had been in insight-oriented psychotherapy for at least six months (range = seven months to seven years; median = one year), either immediately prior to or following the divorce. Of the therapy group, 12 subjects were no longer involved in therapy and eight were still seeing a therapist at the time of the interview. The other group (nontherapy) had not received any formal therapy. All of the subjects were adult, Caucasian women who had been divorced for at least six months (range = 6 months to 20 years; median = 3.5 years), prior to the interview. They ranged in age from 24 to 49, with a median age of 34.5. Of the total group, 73% were native to the South and 67% had children. The majority had some college education (range = 11th grade to Ph.D.; median = 1.75 years of college). The length of their previous marriage varied from one year to 29 years, with a median of 9.5 years. All of the subjects had been in a serious relationship with a man which had lasted at least six months (range = 6 months to 11 years; median = 1.25 years).

The two-factor index of social position was used to determine the socioeconomic status (SES) of the two groups (cf. Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958, for a complete presentation). This index is comprised of five levels, ranging from the lower (Class V) to the upper (Class I). The particular SES class is determined by combining the weighted scores for both the occupational and educational levels of the

individual. In the present sample of 40, all five classes were represented (median = 2.92).

Chi-square tests were performed in order to determine whether the two groups differed on any specific demographic characteristics, such as age, SES level, length of marriage, length of the divorce period, and length of the current relationship. The results are presented in Table 1. A Yate's correction for continuity was utilized for all variables with the exception of SES in order to compensate for small cell frequencies (smallest = 9).

From Table 1, it is readily apparent that the therapy and non-therapy groups were not significantly different on any of the demographic variables, with the exception of the SES level.

Table 2 presents the specific breakdown of the SES class levels for each group. In view of the size of the contingency table, no correction for small cell frequencies can be applied. Both the Fisher Exact Test and Yate's correction for continuity require a fourfold table with one degree of freedom. However, Everitt (1977) concluded from a thorough statistical analysis of small cell frequencies in 2 x c contingency tables that the conventional chi-square criterion can be used as long as the cell frequencies are greater than unity, without violating the assumptions of the chi-square. He, as well as other statisticians, considers this rule to be quite conservative (cf. Everitt, 1977, for a complete discussion).

According to Table 2, the majority of the subjects in the non-therapy group belong to the middle class (Class III), while both

Table 1. Ch-square Analysis of Demographic Characteristics for Therapy/Nontherapy Groups

Variable	Chi-square
Age	.01
SES class <sup>a</sup>	8.26*
Length of marriage	.01
Time divorced	.00
Length of relationship	.00

<sup>a</sup>df = 2

\*p < .05, two-tailed

Note: N = 40, df = 1, correction for continuity applied except for SES variable.

Table 2. Number of Subjects<sup>a</sup> in Each SES Class

Class	Therapy Group	Nontherapy Group
I/II	9	3
III	5	14
IV/V	6	3

<sup>a</sup>N = 20 for each group.

Note: Classes I and II, and Classes IV and V, were collapsed in order to compensate for small cell frequencies.

the upper (I and II) and lower (IV and V) classes are significantly more represented in the therapy group (uncorrected  $\chi^2$  (2,  $N$  = 40) = 8.26,  $p$  < .05, two-tailed). The potential impact of this difference between the two groups will be discussed later, after the Q-sort data have been presented.

### Rater Characteristics

In order to compare the personality characteristics of the ex-husband and the boyfriend, an advanced graduate student in clinical psychology, who was blind to the nature of the study, performed two separate Q-sorts based on a clinical assessment of each interview. Rater reliability was initially established by having the rater Q-sort three standard protocols developed by Block (1961): the optimally adjusted personality, the male paranoid, and the female hysteric. The obtained correlation coefficient for each protocol was then compared with the established composite correlation provided by Block. It should be noted that the Block (1961) correlations were derived from a consensus of nine Ph.D. clinical psychologists who were thought to be representative of clinical psychologists as a whole. Spearman-Brown reliability figures for all three protocols ranged from .91 to .97.

The established composite correlations for the optimally adjusted personality, the male paranoid, and the female hysteric were .87, .71, and .68, respectively (Block, 1961, pp. 144-151). The rater's obtained correlations for these three protocols were .88, .82, and .72, respectively. In all cases, the rater's obtained correlation

coefficients exceeded those provided by Block (1961). Thus, adequate rater reliability was established.

In order to ensure that the rater remained blind to the nature of the study, all references to psychotherapy were deleted from the interviews. In addition, the rater was asked to answer a yes/no question concerning whether the subject had been in therapy to determine whether potential rater bias had affected the coding of the data. The rater's responses were compared with the actual therapy status of the subject, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Actual Versus Rater-estimated Therapy Status of Subjects

Rater Selection	Actual Therapy Status <sup>a</sup>	
	In Therapy	Not in Therapy
In therapy	10	8
Not in therapy	10	12

<sup>a</sup> $\underline{N}$  = 20 for each group.

No significant relationship was found between the rater's estimates and the actual therapy status of the subjects ( $\chi^2$  (1,  $\underline{N}$  = 40) = .10, two-tailed, correction for continuity applied). Thus, it can be concluded that the rater could not reliably differentiate between the two groups on the basis of the subject's participation in psychotherapy.

### Analysis of the Q-sort Data

For each interview, two Q-sorts were obtained: one for the ex-husband and one for the boyfriend. These two Q-sorts were compared for each subject in the two groups in order to determine whether the personality characteristics of the ex-husband and boyfriend were similar. From the procedure developed by Block (1961) discrepancy scores were calculated for each pair of Q-sorts and a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was found, using the formula:

$r = 1 - (\text{sum } d^2 / 864)$ , where  $d$  = the difference between the category numbers for each item of the pair (see Appendix F). For the therapy group, the obtained Q-sort correlations ranged from  $-.59$  to  $+.76$ , with a median of  $-.12$ . The nontherapy group's Q-sort correlations ranged from  $-.57$  to  $+.68$ , with a median of  $+.01$ .

A Wilcoxon rank sum test was used to determine whether the obtained Q-sort correlations for the two groups differed significantly. The sum of ranks for the therapy and nontherapy groups was 408 and 412, respectively, which was not significantly different. Thus, women who had been in psychotherapy did not show a different mate selection pattern from those who had not been in therapy.

The Q-sort data were subjected to two additional analyses, which specifically focused on the number of significant correlations. A correlation was considered significant if the absolute value was greater than the Pearson product-moment correlation table value of  $.325$  ( $df = 35$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Table 4 displays the number of significant positive and negative correlations for the therapy and nontherapy groups.



Table 4. A Comparison of Total Significant Positive and Negative Q-sort Correlations for the Two Groups

Group <sup>b</sup>	Significant Correlations <sup>a</sup>	
	Positive	Negative
Therapy	3	6
Nontherapy	3	4

<sup>a</sup>Significance based on  $r = .325$  ( $df = 35$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

<sup>b</sup> $N = 20$  for each group.

No significant difference was found between the two groups in terms of the direction of the correlations shown in Table 4 ( $\chi^2$  (1,  $N = 40$ ) = .03, two-tailed, correction for continuity applied). In view of the cell frequencies less than 5, it could be argued that the Yate's correction for continuity is not an appropriate measure and the Fisher Exact Test should be used. However, Everitt (1977) has presented convincing evidence indicating that as long as the cell sizes are greater than 1, the Yate's correction is identical to the Fisher Exact Test in a fourfold contingency table. Thus, it can be concluded that divorced women from both groups had a fairly equal number of relationships with boyfriends who either had very similar or very dissimilar personalities in comparison to their ex-husbands.

In a second additional analysis of the Q-sort data, the number of significant and nonsignificant correlations for the two groups was examined, as shown in Table 5, and a chi-square was done to determine whether the two groups showed any differences.

Table 5. A Comparison of Total Significant and Nonsignificant Correlations for the Two Groups

Group <sup>a</sup>	Number of Correlations	
	Significant <sup>b</sup>	Nonsignificant
Therapy	12	8
Nontherapy	7	13

<sup>a</sup>N = 20 for each group.

<sup>b</sup>Significance based on  $r = .325$  ( $df = 35$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

No significant relationship was found between the therapy and nontherapy groups in terms of the number of significant correlations ( $\chi^2 (1, N = 40) = 1.60$ , two-tailed, correction for continuity applied). However, there appears to be a tendency for the therapy group to have more significant correlations than the nontherapy group. Thus, divorced women who have been in therapy tend to select males who are very similar or very dissimilar to their ex-husbands, while those who have not been in therapy do not show such strong inclinations.

In an effort to determine which factors might be responsible for these extreme correlations in the therapy group, two post-hoc analyses were performed. Variables of primary interest were length of therapy and quality of therapy. It was hypothesized that divorced women who had been in therapy for a long time and/or who had received in-depth, quality therapy would be more likely to select boyfriends who were not similar personality-wise to their ex-husbands as

compared to women who had not received that kind or amount of therapy. Length of therapy was divided into two intervals: one year and two years. The number of significant and nonsignificant Q-sort correlations and the therapy intervals are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. The Relationship between Length of Therapy at One- and Two-year Intervals and Q-sort Correlations for the Therapy Group<sup>a</sup>

Years of Therapy	Number of Q-sort Correlations		
	Negative	Nonsignificant	Positive
One or more	3	5	6
Less than one	3	3	0
Two or more	2	3	3
Less than two	4	5	3

<sup>a</sup>N = 20

From Table 6, it is apparent that at the one year interval of therapy (top half of table), an equal number of divorced women have selected men who are significantly different from their ex-husbands. Moreover, the majority of women in the therapy group have been in therapy for at least a year, with most of these women choosing boy-friends who are not significantly different from their ex-husbands. Unfortunately, in view of the extremely small cell sizes, no statistical analysis can be performed to substantiate these impressions.

When length of therapy is divided into a two-year period (lower half of Table 6), there is no significant relationship between the

type of Q-sort correlation and years of therapy (uncorrected  $\chi^2$  (2,  $N$  = 20) = .38, two-tailed). Thus, it does not appear that length of therapy is related to the degree of similarity or dissimilarity between the personality characteristics of the boyfriend and the ex-husband.

The interaction of the therapy quality and the Q-sort correlations for the therapy group was also examined on a post-hoc basis in order to see whether subjects who had received "good" therapy were less likely to select men similar to the ex-husbands. The quality of therapy variable was determined on a subjective basis by the researcher, based on knowledge of the training and therapeutic expertise of the therapists. The comparison between therapy quality and type of Q-sort correlation for the therapy group is presented in Table 7.

No significant relationship between therapy quality and the Q-sort correlations for the therapy group was found (uncorrected  $\chi^2$  (2,  $N$  = 20) = 1.66, two-tailed). Thus the degree of similarity of the boyfriend and ex-husband did not appear to be related to the therapy experience, at least on the basis of this subjective, potentially biased analysis of therapy quality.

As previously discussed, a significant difference in socioeconomic level was found for the two groups, with the nontherapy group consisting primarily of the middle class and the therapy group containing more upper and lower class subjects. In order to determine whether this finding might have an impact on the Q-sort results,

class level and significant Q-sort correlations were compared for both groups, as shown in Table 8.

Table 7. The Relationship between Quality of Therapy and Q-sort Correlations for the Therapy Group<sup>a</sup>

Quality of Therapy	Number of Q-sort Correlations		
	Negative	Nonsignificant	Positive
Good	4	5	3
Questionable	2	3	3

<sup>a</sup>N = 20

Table 8. A Comparison of the Therapy/Nontherapy Groups in Terms of SES Class and Type of Q-sort Correlation

SES Class	Q-sort Correlations		
	Negative	Nonsignificant	Positive
	<u>Therapy Group (N = 20)</u>		
I/II	3	3	3
III	3	1	1
IV/V	0	4	2
	<u>Nontherapy Group (N = 20)</u>		
I/II	1	2	0
III	4	8	2
IV/V	0	2	1

In view of the small cell frequencies displayed in Table 8, it is impossible to reach conclusions with any degree of certainty. For the nontherapy group, there does not appear to be any relationship between SES level and Q-sort correlations. However, for the therapy group, it appears that the lower class subjects tend to have boyfriends who are not significantly different from their ex-husbands, while divorced women in the upper class are evenly distributed in terms of the degree of similarity between their boyfriends and ex-husbands.

#### Analysis of the Overall Evaluation of the Interview Data

In addition to the Q-sorts, the rater completed an Overall Evaluation of the Interview (Appendix H), using a scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 5 (very much). Mean ratings for each question on this form for both the therapy and nontherapy groups are provided in Table 9.

These global ratings of the interviews were analyzed by median tests. In all cases, the median tests were nonsignificant. Thus, the two groups did not differ on any of these variables listed in the Overall Evaluation of the Interview.

In order to determine whether changes in self-maturity were related to the degree of correlation between the personality characteristics of the ex-husband and boyfriend, change scores were calculated by subtracting the current self-maturity rating from the self-maturity rating when married, as rated on the Overall Evaluation of the Interview form. In all cases, none of the change

Table 9. Mean Ratings of the Overall Evaluation of the Interview for the Two Groups

Variable <sup>b</sup>	Group <sup>a</sup>	
	Therapy	Nontherapy
Similarity between two men		
$\frac{M}{SD}$	2.75 1.39	2.85 1.28
Similarity of two relationships		
$\frac{M}{SD}$	3.15 .91	3.05 .86
Insight into conscious reasons		
For divorce		
$\frac{M}{SD}$	3.95 .80	3.75 .83
Insight into unconscious		
Reasons for divorce		
$\frac{M}{SD}$	2.20 1.12	2.40 1.11
Awareness of similarities		
$\frac{M}{SD}$	3.05 .97	3.05 .97
Self-awareness		
$\frac{M}{SD}$	2.65 1.28	2.70 1.00
Self maturity in marriage		
$\frac{M}{SD}$	1.75 .83	1.80 .68

Table 9 (Continued)

Variable <sup>b</sup>	Group <sup>a</sup>	
	Therapy	Nontherapy
Present self-maturity		
<u>M</u>	2.65	2.65
<u>SD</u>	1.01	.87
Maturity of marriage		
<u>M</u>	1.75	1.65
<u>SD</u>	.83	1.11
Maturity of current relationship		
<u>M</u>	2.90	3.05
<u>SD</u>	.99	.74

<sup>a</sup>N = 20 for each group.

<sup>b</sup>See Appendix H. for a full description of these variables.

Note: These ratings are based on a 6-point scale, ranging from 0 (not at all) to 5 (very much).



scores were negative, indicating that all subjects were rated as being at least as mature at the time of the interview as they were while married. The obtained change scores were then compared with the Q-sort correlation coefficients, as shown in Table 10. The change score and correlation coefficient categories were collapsed to facilitate analysis.

Table 10. The Relationship between Changes in Self-maturity from Marriage to Present and Type of Q-sort Correlation between Ex-husband and Boyfriend

Change Score <sup>a</sup>	Number of Q-sort Correlations	
	Negative	Positive/Nonsignificant
	<u>Therapy Group (N = 20)</u>	
0 - 1	2	12
2 +	4	2
	<u>Nontherapy Group (N = 20)</u>	
0 - 1	4	12
2 +	0	4

<sup>a</sup>Change scores based on difference between current rating and rating while married, with 0 = no change and 5 = great change.

The small cell frequencies in Table 10 make it impossible to analyze the results statistically. However, it appears that for the therapy group, subjects who have made the most gains in psychological maturity tended to select boyfriends who were significantly different from their ex-husbands. For the nontherapy

group, a very different impression is found; namely, those subjects who chose boyfriends who were significantly different from their husbands were also rated as having made few changes in self-maturity.

Changes in the degree of psychological health, maturity, and satisfaction between the marital and current relationships were also compared with the type of correlation between the personality characteristics of the ex-husband and boyfriend. Change scores were calculated by subtracting the maturity rating for the current relationship from the maturity rating of the marriage, as rated in the Overall Evaluation of the Interview form. None of the obtained change scores was in the negative direction, which suggests that the current relationship was rated at least as mature as the marriage. These change scores were then compared with the Q-sort correlation coefficients found for the boyfriend and ex-husband, as shown in Table 11.

Once again, no statistical analysis can be performed, given the small cell frequencies in Table 11. However, there is some indication that for the therapy group, the majority of subjects who chose boyfriends unlike their ex-husbands were rated as having more mature current relationships than their previous marital ones. For the nontherapy group, there does not seem to be any correlation between growth in maturity of relationships and the degree of dissimilarity/similarity between the ex-husband and boyfriend in terms of personality characteristics.

Table 11. A Comparison of Degree of Change in Maturity between the Marital and Current Relationship and the Q-sort Correlations for Ex-husband and Boyfriend

Change Score <sup>a</sup>	Number of Q-sort Correlations	
	Negative	Positive/Nonsignificant
	<u>Therapy Group (N = 20)</u>	
0 - 1	1	12
2 +	5	2
	<u>Nontherapy Group (N = 20)</u>	
0 - 1	2	11
2 +	2	5

<sup>a</sup>Change score based on difference between maturity of current relationship and maturity of marital relationship ratings, with 0 = no change and 5 = great change.

#### Analysis of Interpersonal Adjective Checklist Data

Subjects were asked to select adjectives which best characterized the following people: self, mother, father, ex-husband, boyfriend, ideal self, and ideal mate. An octant score for each person was calculated, using the formulas provided by LaForge, Leary, Naboisek, Coffey, and Freedman (1954, p. 140) and the conversion table provided by Leary (1957, p. 495). This yielded a total of 7 octant scores for each subject.

From these octant scores, a total of 12 different comparisons was made: ex-husband vs. boyfriend; ex-husband vs. mother; ex-husband vs. father; boyfriend vs. mother; boyfriend vs. father; self vs. ideal self; ex-husband vs. self; boyfriend vs. self; mother

vs. self; father vs. self; ex-husband vs. ideal mate; boyfriend vs. ideal mate. For each comparison, a discrepancy score was calculated, using the table provided by Leary (1957, p. 498-499). The discrepancy score represents the geometric distance between each octant point and is weighted in intensity (moderate/extreme), with a range from 00 (no discrepancy) to 114 (extreme discrepancy). Discrepancy scores that are greater than 44 are significant at the .05 level.

Median tests were used to determine whether the therapy group was significantly different from the nontherapy group in terms of the 12 comparisons. In addition, chi-square tests were done to assess whether the two groups differed in terms of significant discrepancy scores. In both cases, no significant results were found.

In the analysis of the ICL data, however, two interesting patterns were noted. First, it was found that the therapy group seemed to be less consciously identified with their mothers (i.e., had a higher number of discrepancy scores above the median) than the nontherapy group, as shown in Table 12. While this finding did not reach significance ( $\chi^2 (1, N = 40) = 1.60$ , two-tailed, correction for continuity applied), it does suggest that the therapy group rated themselves as being much less like their mother than the nontherapy group.

The other pattern which was apparent is shown in Table 13. It appears that subjects in the therapy group tended to report greater similarities between their ex-husbands and boyfriends than the

nontherapy group, although this impression is not statistically significant ( $\chi^2 (1, N = 40) = 1.71$ , two tailed, correction for continuity applied).

Table 12. Degree of Similarity/Dissimilarity between Self and Mother for the Therapy/Nontherapy Groups

Median Discrepancy Scores <sup>a</sup>	Group <sup>b</sup>	
	Therapy	Nontherapy
41 -	8	13
42 +	12	7

<sup>a</sup>A discrepancy score which is greater than 44 indicates a significant dissimilarity between self and mother.

<sup>b</sup> $N = 20$  for each group.

Table 13. Degree of Similarity/Dissimilarity between Ex-husband and Boyfriend as Rated by the Therapy/Nontherapy Groups

Group <sup>a</sup>	Number of Discrepancy Scores for Ex-husband/Boyfriend	
	Significant <sup>b</sup>	Nonsignificant
Therapy	5	15
Nontherapy	10	10

<sup>a</sup> $N = 20$  for each group.

<sup>b</sup>Significance level based on discrepancy scores greater than 44 ( $p < .05$ ).

## CHAPTER IV

### DISCUSSION

This study was undertaken in an attempt to examine whether psychotherapy has an impact on divorced women's choices of subsequent mates. Of particular interest was the question: Do divorced women who have been in insight-oriented psychotherapy choose boyfriends who are less similar to their ex-husbands in terms of personality characteristics as compared to divorced women who have not been in therapy? Or, from a Freudian paradigm, does psychotherapy have any influence on the repetition-compulsion in relationships? The Freudian view of repetition-compulsion rests on the notion that individuals who form relationships which are based on neurotic needs will continue to be attracted to similar kinds of relationships unless they have undergone psychoanalysis. The purpose of such analysis would be to help the individual become more aware of unconscious issues, thereby freeing the individual to choose less neurotic, more satisfying love relationships. However, not all relationships are necessarily based on neurotic needs, an issue which will be discussed later.

As presented in Chapter III, only very limited support for the relationship between therapy and object choice was found. In the following section, these results will be discussed in full. The theoretical and methodological problems inherent in this study and the implications of these findings for future research will

also be addressed. The reader is urged to consult the tables in Chapter III for an in-depth presentation of the data.

The two groups (therapy and nontherapy) did not differ in terms of age, length of marriage, length of time divorced, and length of the current relationship. However, the SES levels of the two groups were significantly different. Most of the subjects in the nontherapy group were from the middle class, while the upper and lower classes had greater representation in the therapy group.

When the composition of the therapy group is closely examined, however, the lower class label appears to be somewhat of a misnomer. Most of the women in Classes IV and V were housewives who had been married to fairly successful men and who were currently receiving alimony, making it unnecessary for them to hold an outside job. If their ex-husbands' status is used as a criterion for their class level, the majority of these women would belong to the middle class. Thus, it is debatable whether a bona fide distinction can be made between the two groups on the basis of lower and middle classes.

It is clear, however, that the two groups did differ in terms of upper class representation. In many ways, this is not surprising, given the plethora of psychotherapy studies which suggest that the majority of people who seek out and continue in long-term insight-oriented psychotherapy are generally from the upper classes (cf. Garfield, 1978, for a review). When subjects in the nontherapy group were asked why they did not go into therapy, reasons such as financial pressures, a desire to cope without "a crutch," and

the availability of a strong support system were frequently cited. On the other hand, the therapy group listed self-curiosity, a desire to get help for the spouse, and an interest in psychology as primary reasons for choosing to enter therapy.

In order to determine whether the SES differences might have a potentially biasing effect on the main measure, SES levels and Q-sort correlations were compared. For the nontherapy group, no relationship was found between SES and the degree of similarity between the boyfriend and ex-husband. Although a slight relationship was found for the therapy group, the reliability of this finding is questionable; given the small cell frequencies, the disputed lower class designation of the therapy subjects, and the even distribution of correlational strength across the upper class subjects. Thus, it can be safely assumed that any SES differences had no systematic effect on any of the obtained results, and they did not appear to have any influence on the degree of similarity between the ex-husband and boyfriend. Lorion (1978), in an exhaustive review of the research on SES class and psychotherapy, concluded that class level does not seem to be related to therapy outcome or personal satisfaction.

In general, two measures were used to evaluate the degree of similarity between the ex-husband and boyfriend. The first measure entailed an independent rater's clinical judgment of similarities and differences, while the second measure relied primarily on the subject's personal appraisal. A clinical assessment was selected



in order to obtain a more objective view of the ex-husband and boyfriend, which otherwise might not be acquired if only self-report was used. It was also hoped that such clinical evaluation would account for both conscious and unconscious messages being conveyed by the subjects. Both the rater and the subjects remained blind to the nature of the study, and adequate rater-reliability was achieved, indicating that the data were not subjected to these potential biases.

With respect to the Q-sort data, that were collected from the rater's clinical assessment of the interviews, no significant difference was found between the two groups in terms of the degree of similarity for the ex-husband and boyfriend. In addition, the number of significant positive and negative correlations appeared to be fairly evenly distributed for each group. However, there was a tendency for the therapy group to have more extreme correlations than the nontherapy group, i.e., therapy subjects seemed to have boyfriends who were either very like or very unlike their ex-husbands.

In an effort to explicate this tendency, several hypotheses were examined. It was predicted that the length of therapy might have an effect on the kind of current relationship which had been chosen. In particular, it was thought that women who had received more therapy would be less likely to be attracted to men who were similar to their ex-husbands than those who had been in therapy for a shorter time. Although a tendency was found for the one year cut off period, small cell frequencies made it virtually impossible to interpret this trend. Moreover, any differences disappeared

at the two-year mark. Thus, it did not appear that duration of therapy had any impact on the nature of the post-divorce relationship which was formed. Studies linking duration of therapy to outcome have, for the most part, reported negative findings as well (cf. Bergin & Lambert's 1978 review).

The quality of therapy was compared with the kind of correlations which were obtained for the therapy group. It was predicted that subjects who had received more in-depth, experienced therapy would be less likely to have boyfriends who were similar to their ex-husbands. However, no relationship was found for this variable. Again, the analysis is confounded by small cell sizes and the post-hoc, subjective rating of the therapy quality. It is interesting to note that outcome studies of psychotherapy have also not been able to find a clear relationship between therapy quality, therapist experience, and changes in lifestyle (Parloff, Waskow, & Wolfe, 1978).

At this time, the underlying reasons for the observed extreme correlations in the therapy group are unknown. One could speculate that the divorced women who went into therapy felt there was something wrong with themselves or their lives and that the therapy group was composed of members who were either more or less disturbed than the nontherapy group. Consequently, therapy subjects would be more likely to be attracted to men who were either very like or very unlike their ex-husbands. Appelbaum (1977), in an extensive study of psychotherapy, reported that improvement in psychological

mindedness and insight was a function of the original (pretherapy) level of these variables. Patients who began with high levels of these two variables tended to show great gains, while those who had low levels made much smaller, often insignificant changes. Thus, it was concluded that the less disturbed the patient, the more positive the therapy outcome, a result which has frequently been replicated (Garfield, 1978).

In the present study, no measures of therapy outcome or the diagnostic condition of the subject were included, although none of the subjects had any major psychiatric disorder. The only measure of psychological maturity and degree of insight was the rater's global evaluation of the interview. Although the two groups were not significantly different in terms of the specific ratings, subjects who had been in therapy and who had selected more mature current relationships were most likely to pick men who were unlike their ex-husbands. No such relationship was found for the nontherapy group. Moreover, the therapy group subjects who were involved with men who were markedly dissimilar to their ex-husbands also tended to have shown the greatest gain in self-maturity, while for the nontherapy group, little or no change in self-maturity was related to dissimilarity between the two men. Unfortunately, these results are based on small cell frequencies and are difficult to interpret. Obviously, this is an area that needs further research.

In almost all instances, subjects in both groups were able to present a balanced view of both the boyfriends and ex-husbands. Examples of responses to the question: How would you say your

boyfriend is different from your ex-husband? How would you say he is similar to him? are provided below. It is apparent that there is little difference in conscious answers, despite the nature of the correlation between the ex-husband and boyfriend.

Therapy Subject ( $r = -.59$ ): "My boyfriend is sensitive, caring, uh--he tries to understand me. He's not crazy (laughs). He's not abusive to me. I feel loved with him. (How similar?) Well, they're both white (laughs) and they're both intelligent. That's all I can think of."

Nontherapy Subject ( $r = -.57$ ): "Well, I think my boyfriend is a very loving and outgoing person. (How similar?) (long pause) Well--I don't know. Sometimes, he acts kind of little boyish, which may be a trait that all men have."

Therapy Subject ( $r = +.04$ ): "Well, the biggest thing is that my boyfriend is very self-assured and much more mature. That's --well, I'm sure the age different has something to do with it. My boyfriend's 12 years older and my ex-husband is two years older. But I think, essentially, that's just part of it. The essential good feelings about self that my boyfriend has is completely different. And I don't say that my ex-husband doesn't have any good feelings about himself. He does. But I still think he has very deep-seated insecurities. And that's the biggest difference in them. Well, I think they're similar because they're both very sensitive, thinking men--very thoughtful, very maybe sort of

philosophically oriented and really interested in people, and good value systems, both of them."

Nontherapy Subject ( $r = +.02$ ): "Oh--my boyfriend's a lot more open to new things, a lot more adventurous, I guess, is the word. Um--he's--my ex has this monomania, and my boyfriend's interested in a lot of different things. And I guess--probably the most important thing is that he sees me as a whole person, you know, as somebody who has her own life and who is a separate individual. And I think--with my ex, I was a stereotype, and the part of me that didn't fit into the box, the extensions, the wife model, he just ignored, pretended they weren't there, that kind of thing (pause). Both of them are likely to worry a subject to death. It's a little easier to extract my boyfriend from being involved in something. But once he gets interested in a subject, he wants to know all about it. He wants to master it. And my ex is the same way basically."

Therapy Subject ( $r = +.76$ ): "Ooh-balls of mercy. My ex-husband didn't drink or smoke. My boyfriend does drugs, alcohol, and everything. My ex is a good worker, and my boyfriend is if he likes the job. My boyfriend thinks things oughts to be handed to him on a silver platter, and my ex thinks you ought to work for everything you get. My ex was the oldest child, and my boyfriend was a baby and so--there's just no--they're as different as light and dark. (How similar?) They're both bossy. They're both jealous."

Nontherapy Subject ( $r = +.68$ ): "As far as money matters, my boyfriend's a lot more responsible. As far as personal matters between him and me, I don't think he really is different. (How similar?) Probably in the fact that I think sometimes he--you know, I don't think he puts me before himself. I think he's number one important. And with my ex-husband, he was number one important."

A possible contributing factor to the nonsignificant Q-sort results and the uninterpretable extreme correlations for the therapy group may be the process of obtaining these measures. While the California Q-sort has good validity and reliability measures, it has been primarily used in first-hand observation. In this study, the rater was asked to sort personality characteristics based on subject's self-report. Moreover, some of the personality variables are best determined directly from the subject under observation. It is possible that the obtained Q-sorts may contain certain distortions or unaccounted biases. However, this measure is quite sensitive to extremes, which tends to counteract such potential biases.

The only other difficulty concerning the analysis of the Q-sort data lies with the determination of significant correlations. Block (1961) cautions against the treatment of obtained Q-sort correlations as Pearson product-moment correlations with a specific distribution. However, the level of significance used in this project is thought to be very conservative and it is hoped that this would mitigate against an unwarranted statistical treatment of the data.

The global ratings of the interview (Overall Evaluation of the Interview) revealed no differences between the two groups in terms of insight and relationship measures. It is clear that this scale is not very discriminating and the ratings are extremely simplistic. However, in general, these results confirm those of the Q-sort; namely, that psychotherapy does not appear to have a significant impact in terms of divorced women's object choice as based on a clinical appraisal of such relationships.

The Interpersonal Adjective Checklist, the only self-report measure, revealed two interesting correlations. However, it should be kept in mind that a total of 12 comparisons were made, suggesting that the patterns which were found may actually be due to chance. Nevertheless, it is important to examine these two findings.

In the first instance, it was found that there was a tendency for the therapy group to report more similarities between their ex-husbands and boyfriends than the nontherapy group. This is in direct contradiction of the main hypothesis and it is not clear why this happened. One possibility is that the therapy group may be more willing (i.e., less defensive) to acknowledge similarities between the two men. Participation in therapy may also have helped to make them more aware of similarities. In fact, during the administration of the ICL, many of these women commented on the fact that they were checking the same adjectives for both their ex-husbands and boyfriends. However, none of them could have possibly guessed how the various adjectives would be compared.

If this finding is not due to chance, it may be potentially biased in terms of the manner in which the ICL data are analyzed. For example, the total number of adjectives checked can influence the octant ratings, a problem which Leary (1957) has correctly pointed out. However, the number of adjectives noted did not seem to differ between the two groups. Moreover, the heaviest loadings of adjectives are in Octants 1, 2, and 8, all of which are considered to be "desirable" octants. It is certainly possible that this measure was not sufficiently discriminating, which could account for the paucity of significant results.

The second potentially significant ICL result indicates that the nontherapy group tends to be more consciously identified with their mothers than the therapy group, a finding which is basically unrelated to the main hypothesis. Again, it should be kept in mind that this finding may be spurious. On the other hand, it could be speculated that divorced women who have been in therapy have worked through issues concerning their parents and have been able to achieve an independent sense of identity. At the same time, it could indicate that the therapy group is more conflicted about their relationship with their mothers (i.e., consciously disidentifying with their mothers), which may be a reason why they sought therapy in the first place. Further research is certainly needed in order to determine whether this finding is spurious or whether the sample selection may have been biased in this direction. At present, it is unclear what the meanings of these patterns are.



In summary, the results are not very convincing in regard to the role of psychotherapy and subsequent post-divorce object choice. Basically, it appears that some divorced women repeat the same patterns, despite participation or nonparticipation in psychotherapy. This is not to say, however, that psychotherapy is not important or some women are doomed to indulge in repetition-compulsion. The study of individuals and the relationships they form is an extremely complex undertaking. Moreover, there are some methodological errors in the design of this research project that might be contributing to the obscure nature of the results.

#### Methodological Problems

The sampling procedure and a priori subject criteria are potential sources of bias in this research project. The sample selection was based primarily on those divorced women who chose to answer an ad placed in the local newspaper. Most of the subjects were intellectually curious and interested in increasing their self-awareness. The sample, for the most part, was well-educated and many had read self-help books and watched TV shows concerning the issue of divorce. When subjects were asked why they wanted to be involved in this research project, the most frequent response was: "I want to share my experiences with people who are going through a divorce. I also thought I might learn something about myself." Thus, it is unclear how representative this sample is in comparison to the population of divorced women overall, especially since no

information is provided about those women who did not choose to participate. Moreover, it is possible that the apparent insightful nature of this sample could contribute to the absence of significant differences between the two groups. The adequacy of the nontherapy group as a control group is questionable.

The psychotherapy criteria which was used for the therapy group may also be flawed. It is based on subjective evaluations of the subjects' replies to rather broad questions concerning the content of the sessions. In all instances, subjects reported that they had discussed childhood experiences, their relationships with parents and significant others, and their feelings toward people in their lives as well as the therapist. While it was readily apparent that the therapists were psychodynamically-oriented and the therapy was geared toward achieving greater self-awareness, no objective measures were used to validate the subjects' and researcher's impressions. Psychotherapeutic approaches are quite varied, and it is not clear in this research project whether the different therapy experiences of the subjects were actually equivalent. Moreover, the degree to which insight-oriented versus supportive interventions were used was not assessed. Furthermore, no therapy outcome measures were used and the quality of both the therapy and therapist were not assessed, making it extremely difficult to determine whether the subject actually benefited from the therapy or what the actual nature of the therapy experience was for the subjects. However, the majority of subjects did state that they felt therapy had been helpful to them. In addition, the time frame for therapy was extremely variable

for this group, again making it difficult to determine equivalence of therapy experiences.

None of the subjects had received long-term psychoanalysis, which, from a Freudian viewpoint, is thought to be needed to prevent repetition-compulsion in relationships. Moreover, the personality functioning of the subjects was not objectively assessed to ensure equal representation in both groups. No measures were included to determine whether the marriage had been based primarily on neurotic needs or whether the subjects themselves were neurotic in their current relationship. The issue of conscious versus unconscious similarities between the two relationships was also not directly assessed, except for the global ratings done by the rater. Thus, the theoretical notion of repetition-compulsion cannot actually be tested by this study.

As previously discussed, both groups were quite psychologically-minded. Virtually all of the subjects said that the experience of a divorce had enabled them to learn much about themselves and their relationships with men. The following excerpts are representative of responses to the question, What have you learned about yourself since your divorce?

Therapy Subject: (pause) "About myself--I guess the biggest thing is that, although I have a nurturing personality, I also have needs of my own. And I need to be able to reach out to people. I always considered myself as extremely self-sufficient. And I think this came out of having to adjust

to the separation from my family. You know, I had myself really independent . . . and it was very much of a--sort of-- I was a very self-contained, confident person. And at times in my life, this has sort of crumbled, and I've had to deal with it. But I think this major thing that happened to me-- the collapse of my marriage forced me to realize that I needed to consider my own needs, and ask for help. I've also learned that there's no point in going into a relationship trying to change someone. It's sort of trite, but it's very true. I guess those are the main things."

Nontherapy Subject: "Uh--(sighs)--that I can manage things myself. That um--basically that I'm grown-up, in a word. That I can't depend on anybody else, but I can depend on myself. Um--that I can choose uh--what I'm going to do, and that I--I'm a sexually attractive woman, which I really did not believe when I got a divorce. And it wasn't until I got a divorce that I was sure of myself, and was sure enough of myself not to need somebody to tell me that I was doing a good job, or doing so and so right. You know, I think I just managed to divert the growing-up process by getting married, and you know, I got through a lot of stuff that anybody else would have gone through as a normal process in their early twenties."

These responses clearly demonstrate the relatively insightful nature of subjects in both groups, which could have served to lessen the impact of the therapy variable.

Another variable which could have confounded the results of this study is the presence of a support system. Almost all of the subjects in both groups reported that they had received help from a close friend or family member, who was willing to listen to the subject's complaints, fears, and feelings as well as make helpful, constructive comments. For example, to the question, Who did you have to talk things over with? What did you discuss? How did you find that? a nontherapy subject replied:

"Well, my family was very supportive and I had a lot of friends in town, a lot of really close friends, and they were very supportive. I have a good friend, who is a lawyer, and she advised me. I really--with three children, I really had to think things through. And I think it's difficult going through a divorce with children--just thinking about--trying to think 10 or 15 years ahead. And I was pleased with the settlement. That--that has been helpful anyway. And I started going to my minister for advice. And I had several close friends who I could discuss my feelings with and that helped tremendously. Just having them to talk to--I found that very helpful. It's given me a lot of insight into what has happened in my marriage and to what I was going through. And it's interesting because I've taught courses on families, and marriage, and divorce. And it's very different going through it yourself, because you become so emotionally involved, and sometimes you can't really think through things. Even though I know the stages

I'm going through, sometimes it's difficult to see. It has helped me, you know, to get an objective opinion."

In many ways, it appears that friends frequently played the role of a therapist for the nontherapy as well as therapy subjects. Moreover, the research on the role of social supports strongly suggests that they can play an extremely therapeutic role (Chiriboga, Coho, Stein, & Roberts, 1979; Spanier & Hanson, 1982). Thus, the impact of the therapy might have been blurred by the proliferation of social supports in the nontherapy group.

A final problem for the therapy group could involve the uneven distribution of SES class, although it remains questionable whether the lower class designation in this group is actually appropriate, as previously discussed. It is possible to question whether class level itself could mitigate against a positive therapy outcome. However, there is no support in the literature for the possibility that class differences have an impact on the therapy variable (Lorion, 1978).

Another methodological problem with this research project involves the criteria for a serious relationship. The existence of such a relationship was determined solely by the subjects, and no objective assessment was made. Unfortunately, with new relationships, there is always the possibility that the subject may be idealizing or unrealistically appraising the quality of the current relationship. For example, one nontherapy subject reported being involved with a man whom she had met in a bar and who made frequent trips out of town. While she insisted that her relationship was serious,

she also mentioned that he did not want to marry and was involved with another woman. From the observer's standpoint, it is questionable whether this relationship is actually as serious as the subject contended.

No controls for length of relationship or length of time divorced were implemented in this study. Furthermore, the state of the relationship varied across subjects. In some cases, women were engaged to or living with their boyfriends, while others were involved with men who did not live in the area and actual contact was limited to the weekends. The length of time the subject had known the boyfriend also varied considerably. Many of these factors also were not controlled for in the marriage criteria. However, in both instances, none of these variables appeared to have any impact on the results of this study.

Nevertheless, it is clear that the serious relationship criteria is both variable and muddled, which could have contributed to the mixed results of this study. Groups were not equated in terms of quality of relationship/marriage as well as emotional health of subjects and their men, again possibly obscuring the results. In many ways, it appears that the relationship criteria used may have been too subjective and broad, thus contributing to the contradictory results and absence of clear trends.

### Conclusions and Implications

This study was undertaken to examine whether divorced women who have been in insight-oriented therapy would be less likely than

women who have not been in therapy to become seriously involved with men who possess personality characteristics like their ex-husbands. In general, the results did not support the notion that their participation in psychotherapy was related to choice of a mate who was unlike the ex-husband. That is not to say, however, that psychotherapy is not helpful or that people cannot avoid repeating the same relationship patterns. As previously discussed, the sampling and subject criteria used were potentially biased and extremely broad, possibly contributing to the obscuring of results.

Without a doubt, more research is needed before the notion of repetition-compulsion in relationships can be understood. This study represents the first of its kind in this endeavor. It is hoped that as greater attention is directed toward an examination of the nature of post-divorce relationships, variables which contribute to successful post-divorce relationships can be identified. The redivorce rate is alarmingly high at this point, and certainly deserving of intense scrutiny. In particular, it is hoped that future studies could address the specific facets of the post-divorce relationship and its relationship to the original marriage, possibly by interviewing both the ex-spouse and current mate. Other areas of interest are the impact of insightfulness on post-divorce relationships and the role of social supports. Concentration on a divorced population that has undergone psychoanalysis and assessment of the degree of neurosis present in both the dissolved marriage



and post-divorce relationship would facilitate the analysis of the Freudian notion of repetition compulsion. Future studies should take care to use more rigorous, specific sampling criteria and the data should be prepared for a multivariate analysis, in view of the complex variables involved in studying mate selection and the nature of relationships. The use of longitudinal designs would also offer badly needed information about those relationships which endure.

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## APPENDICES

**APPENDIX A**  
**INFORMED CONSENT**

## INFORMED CONSENT

I am conducting a study on divorce. In particular, I am interested in finding out how divorce has affected your feelings about yourself, your marriage, your ex-husband, and your current relationship with your boyfriend. If you have been in therapy, I am also interested in exploring how therapy has helped you to understand the divorce, yourself, and your relationships with important people in your life. Unfortunately, there is very little information available concerning the nature of post-divorce relationships people form. The purpose of this study is to help remedy this deficiency, thereby providing greater understanding of the impact divorce has on our intimate involvements. This study will also be helpful to clinicians who often work with divorced people in therapy.

If you decide to participate in this study, I will make an appointment with you to ask you questions about your divorce experience and your relationships with important people in your life. I will also ask you to assign adjectives describing personality characteristics to important people in your life. The interview will be taped and the tape will be erased immediately after it is transcribed by this researcher. It is estimated that the entire procedure should take about 2½ hours.

All information obtained will be held in the strictest confidence. Your responses will be coded only by number and there will be no record of your name on any of the obtained information. Thus, there should be no way of identifying you specifically. The results of this study will be used for my dissertation and they may, at a later date, be published. However, the results will be reported in a collective manner and there will be no way of identifying you specifically.

If you have been referred by or are a client of a Mental Health Agency or Private Practitioner, you should understand that the Agency or Practitioner is not participating in or sponsoring this study. Therefore, the Agency or Practitioner is not responsible for any liabilities which might be incurred. You should be aware that although the Agency or Practitioner will know that you have volunteered to take part in this study, no information concerning your responses will be given to them. Moreover, it should be understood that, at any time during the study, you may decline to participate. If you are seeking mental health services, you should be aware that your decision to withdraw will, in no way, affect those services. This research project is being conducted independently of any services you might be receiving. If you decide

not to participate at any time, all you have to do is tell the researcher of your decision.

Hopefully, you will find your participation in this study to be interesting. If you would like to know the results, you may contact this researcher at the end of this project for a summary of the findings. If you have questions at any time, please feel free to ask them. You will be given a copy of this Informed Consent in case you need to contact me about this research project.

Nancy Ellen Brown  
Doctoral Student in Psychology

Address: Department of Psychology  
210 Austin Peay Building  
University of Tennessee  
Knoxville, TN 37916

Telephone: 974-6846

I have read the above Informed Consent and I agree to participate in this project.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Witness

\_\_\_\_\_  
Research Participant

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW



## INTERVIEW

- 1) How old are you?
- 2) How far did you get in school?
- 3) What is your present occupation?
- 4) How long were you married?
- 5) Do you have any children? How old are they? Who has custody of them?
- 6) When did you first realize your marriage was not working out?
- 7) When did you first entertain the thought of getting a divorce?
- 8) Who decided first about getting a divorce? Who filed? On what grounds?
- 9) Why did you get a divorce?
- 10) What was your marriage like?
- 11) What kinds of problems did you have? How did they get resolved?
- 12) How would you describe your ex-husband? What were his strengths? His faults?
- 13) How did you meet him? What attracted you to your ex-husband? What made you decide to marry him?
- 14) What interests did you have in common?
- 15) While you were married, what kind of social life did you have?
- 16) What kind of recreational activities did you both engage in?
- 17) What part did religion play in your marriage?
- 18) Who made the major decisions in the marriage?
- 19) What kinds of household chores did you do? What chores did he do?
- 20) Who managed the money? How did he react when there were financial problems? How did you react?

- 21) What kind of job did he have? What kind of job did you have while you were married? How did he feel about you working/not working? How did he feel about his job?
- 22) How was anger expressed in your marriage? How did he handle his temper? How did you handle yours?
- 23) What kind of drug/alcohol use did your ex-husband have? What about you?
- 24) How did your ex-husband get along with your family? How did he get along with his family?
- 25) What kind of relationship did he have with your kids? How were your children disciplined?
- 26) How did your ex-husband show he cared about you? What were the close, intimate moments you shared like?
- 27) What kind of sexual relationship did you have?
- 28) How did your ex-husband handle your feelings? Your moods? Your complaints?
- 29) What were the major differences between you and your ex-husband?
- 30) When you look back over your marriage, how do you feel about it now?
- 31) What was the divorce process like for you?
- 32) Who did you have to talk things over with? What did you discuss? How did you find that?
- 33) What have you learned about yourself since your divorce?
- 34) What have you learned about your marriage since you have been divorced?
- 35) Why did you go into therapy? What have you focused on in therapy? What have you learned about yourself? Your marriage? Your relationships with others?
- 36) What kind of contact do you have with your ex-husband at present? How do you get along with him now? How does he get along with you? With your kids?
- 37) How long have you been divorced legally?

- 38) How long after your divorce did you start dating? When did you begin your current relationship? How long have you and your boyfriend been seeing each other regularly? How serious is it? What would you see the future of this relationship to be?
- 39) How old is your boyfriend?
- 40) Has he been married before? Does he have any children? Who has custody of them?
- 41) How did you meet your boyfriend? What attracted you to him? What made you decide to get involved with him?
- 42) How would you describe your boyfriend? What are his strengths? His faults?
- 43) What is your relationship like with your boyfriend?
- 44) What kinds of problems do you have? How do they get resolved?
- 45) What interests do you both have in common?
- 46) What kind of social life do you have now?
- 47) What kind of recreational activities do you both engage in?
- 48) What role does religion play in your relationship?
- 49) Who makes the major decisions in your relationship?
- 50) Does he help you with any chores around your home? What does he do? What do you do?
- 51) How do the two of you handle money? How does he feel about his financial situation? How does he feel about your money situation? How do you feel about his financial position? How do you feel about yours?
- 52) What kind of job does he have? How does he feel about his job? How does he feel about your working/not working? How do you feel about your job?
- 53) How is anger expressed in your relationship? How does he handle his temper? How do you handle yours?
- 54) What kind of drug/alcohol use does he have? What about you?
- 55) How does he get along with your family? How does he get along with his own family?

- 56) What kind of relationship does your boyfriend have with your kids?
- 57) How does he show that he cares about you? What are the close, intimate moments you share like?
- 58) What kind of sexual relationship do you have with him?
- 59) How does he handle your feelings and moods? Your complaints?
- 60) What are the major differences between the two of you?
- 61) How does he feel about you having been married? How does he feel about you having kids?
- 62) Do you see any problems which might come up in the future to keep you from becoming more involved with your boyfriend? What might they be?
- 63) Since you have been involved with your boyfriend, has your relationship with your ex-husband changed in any way? How does your boyfriend feel about your contact with your ex-husband?
- 64) How would you say your boyfriend is different from your ex-husband? How would you say he is similar to him?
- 65) How would you compare your present relationship to your marriage? How is it different?
- 66) How happy are you now?
- 67) Since you have been involved in this relationship, have you learned anything about yourself? About your past marriage? About your present relationship? About your relationships with men?
- 68) Has therapy given you any ideas about this relationship? About yourself? About your relationships with men?
- 69) Is there anything you would like to add to what we have been discussing? Do you have any questions?

APPENDIX C  
INTERPERSONAL ADJECTIVE CHECKLIST

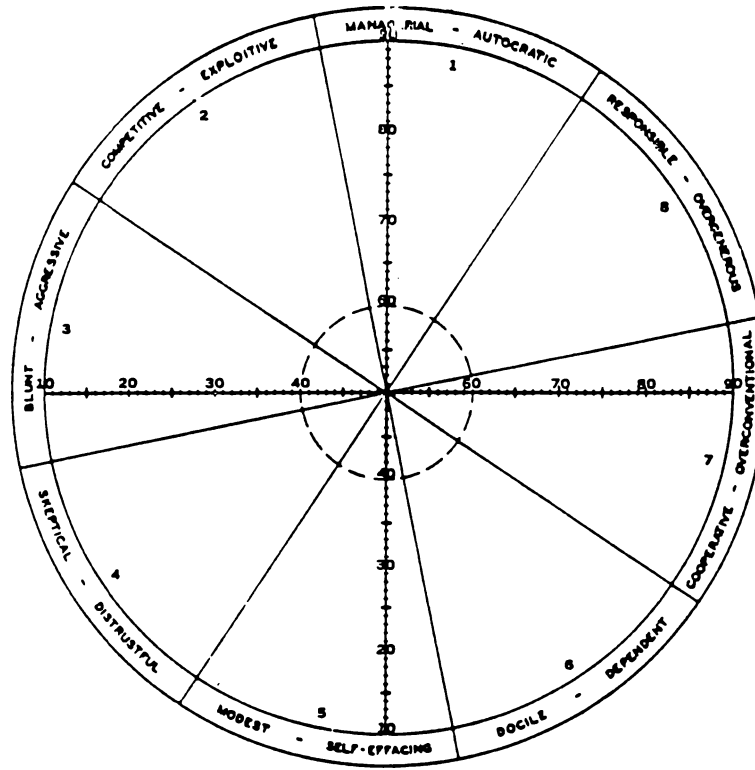
# INTERPERSONAL ADJECTIVE CHECKLIST

<p>Column 1 <u>Self</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">SUBJECT'S NAME</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; margin-bottom: 5px;"> <p>SAMPLE:</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>A ● ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ well-behaved</p> </div>	<p>Col. 2 <u>Mother</u></p> <p>Col. 3 <u>Father</u></p>	<p>Col. 4 <u>Ex-husband</u></p> <p>Col. 5 <u>Boyfriend</u></p>	<p>Col. 6 <u>Ideal Self</u></p> <p>Col. 7 <u>Ideal Mate</u></p> <p style="text-align: right;">Date _____</p>
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<p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ with thought of</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ makes a good impression</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ able to give orders</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ forceful</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ self-respecting</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ independent</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ able to take care of self</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ can be indifferent to others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ can be cruel if necessary</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ firm but just</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ can be kind and honest</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ critical of others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ can complain if necessary</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ often gloomy</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ able to doubt others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ frequently disappointed</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ able to criticize self</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ equivoals</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ can be obedient</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ usually gives in</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ grateful</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ obedient and helpful others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ appreciative</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ very anxious to be approved of</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ competitive</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ eager to get along with others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ friendly</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ affectionate and understanding</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ sensitive</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 30</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 31</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 32</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 33 often admired</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 34 respected by others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 35 good leader</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 36 likes responsibility</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 37 self-confident</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 38 self-reliant and resourceful</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 39 businesslike</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 40 likes to compete with others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 41 handselled when necessary</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 42 stern but fair</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 43 irritable</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 44 straightforward and direct</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 45 resource being needed</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 46 apologetic</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 47 hard to impress</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 48 timely and easily hurt</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 49 easily embarrassed</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 50 lacks self-confidence</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 51 easily led</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 52 modest</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 53 often helped by others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 54 very respectful to authority</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 55 accepts advice readily</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 56 trusting and eager to please</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 57 always pleasant and agreeable</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 58 wants everyone to like him</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 59 sociable and neighborly</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 60 warm</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 61 kind and reassuring</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 62 tender and self-assured</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 63 enjoys taking care of others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 64 gives a boost of self</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 65 always giving advice</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 66 sets himself</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 67 hazy</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 68 dominating</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 69 harmful</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 70 proud and self-satisfied</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 71 thinks only of himself</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 72 absent and unobtrusive</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 73 important with others' relations</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 74 self-satisfied</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 75 arrogant</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 76 often self-satisfied</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 77 bitter</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 78 complaining</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 79 judgmental</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 80 slow to forgive a wrong</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 81 self-gloating</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 82 shy</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 83 positive and encouraging</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 84 snobbish</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 85 dependent</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 86 wants to be led</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 87 lets others make decisions</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 88 easily led</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 89 too easily influenced by others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 90 will confide in anyone</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 91 fond of everyone</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 92 if love everybody</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 93 forgives anything</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 94 over-optimistic</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 95 generous to a fault</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 96 overprotective of others</p>	<p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 97 tends to be too successful</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 98 expects everyone to admire him</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 99 manages others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 100 destructive</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 101 somewhat snobbish</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 102 egotistical and conceited</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 103 selfish</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 104 cold and unfeeling</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 105 unworkable</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 106 cruel and苛刻</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 107 frequently angry</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 108 harsh</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 109 resentful</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 110 refuses to accept anything</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 111 childish</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 112 distrusts everybody</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 113 stand</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 114 always ashamed of self</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 115 always too willingly</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 116 opinionless</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 117 hardly ever talks back</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 118 clinging vine</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 119 likes to be taken care of</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 120 will hurt anyone</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 121 wants every one's love</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 122 agrees with everyone</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 123 friendly all the time</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 124 loves every one</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 125 too intimate with others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 126 likes to comfort every one</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 127 too willing to give to others</p> <p>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 0</p> <p>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ 128 speaks people with kindness</p>
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APPENDIX D  
LEARY OCTANT SHEET



Uni-Level Interpersonal Profiles

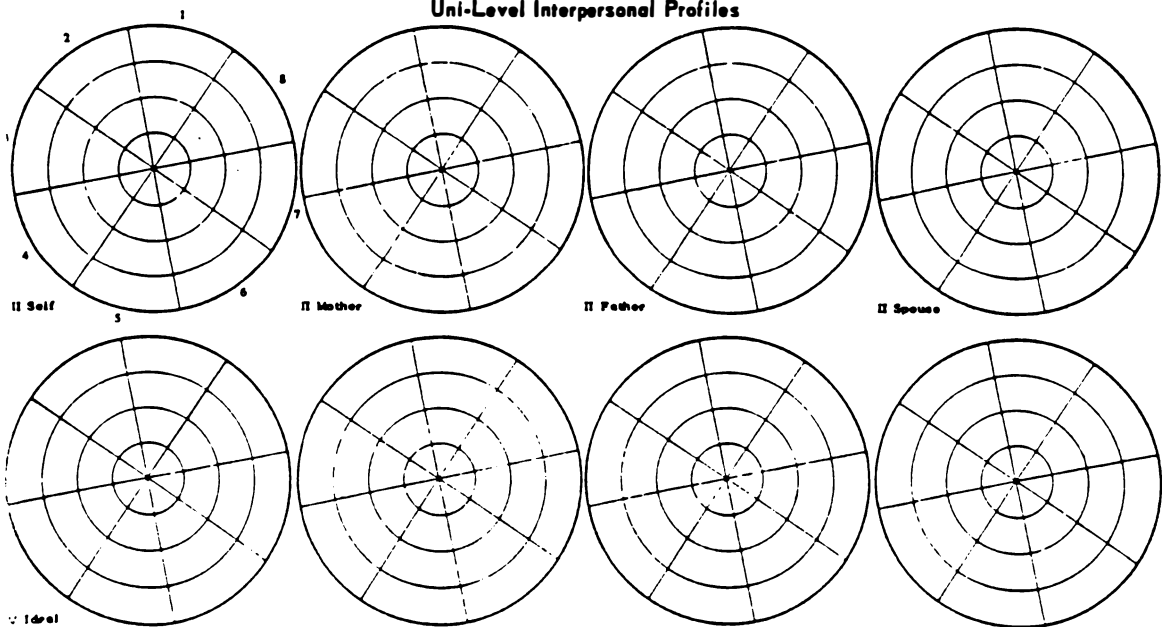


Figure 1. Leary Octant Sheet



APPENDIX E  
THE CALIFORNIA Q-SET (FORM III)

THE CALIFORNIA Q-SET (FORM III)

1. Is critical, skeptical, not easily impressed.
2. Is a genuinely dependable and responsible person.
3. Has a wide range of interests. (N.B. Superficiality or depth of interest is irrelevant here.)
4. Is a talkative individual.
5. Behaves in a giving way toward others. (N.B. Regardless of the motivation involved.)
6. Is fastidious.
7. Favors conservative values in a variety of areas.
8. Appears to have a high degree of intellectual capacity. (N.B. Whether actualized or not.) (N.B. Originality is not necessarily assumed.)
9. Is uncomfortable with uncertainty and complexities.
10. Anxiety and tension find outlet in bodily symptoms. (N.B. If placed high, implies bodily dysfunction; if placed low, implies absence of autonomic arousal.)
11. Is protective of those close to him. (N.B. Placement of this item expresses behavior ranging from over-protection through appropriate nurturance to a laissez-faire, under-protective manner.)
12. Tends to be self-defensive.
13. Is thin-skinned; sensitive to anything that can be construed as criticism or an interpersonal slight.
14. Genuinely submissive; accepts domination comfortably.
15. Is skilled in social techniques of imaginative play, pretending and humor.
16. Is introspective and concerned with self as an object. (N.B. Introspectiveness per se does not imply insight.)
17. Behaves in a sympathetic or considerate manner.
18. Initiates humor.

19. Seeks reassurance from others.
20. Has a rapid personal tempo; behaves and acts quickly.
21. Arouses nurturant feelings in others,
22. Feels a lack of personal meaning in life.
23. Extrapunitive; tends to transfer or project blame.
24. Prides self on being "objective," rational.
25. Tends toward over-control of needs and impulses; binds tensions excessively; delays gratification unnecessarily.
26. Is productive; gets things done.
27. Shows condescending behavior in relations with others. (N.B. Extreme placement toward uncharacteristic end implies simply an absence of condescension, not necessarily equalitarianism or inferiority.)
28. Tends to arouse liking and acceptance in people.
29. Is turned to for advice and reassurance.
30. Gives up and withdraws where possible in the face of frustration and adversity. (N.B. If placed high, implies generally defeatist; if placed low, implies counteractive.)
31. Regards self as physically attractive.
32. Seems to be aware of the impression he makes on others.
33. Is calm, relaxed in manner.
34. Over-reactive to minor frustrations; irritable.
35. Has warmth; has the capacity for close relationships; compassionate.
36. Is subtly negativistic; tends to undermine and obstruct or sabotage.
37. Is guileful and deceitful, manipulative, opportunistic.
38. Has hostility towards others. (N.B. Basic hostility is intended here; mode of expression is to be indicated by other items.)
39. Thinks and associates to ideas in unusual ways; has unconventional thought processes.

40. Is vulnerable to real or fancied threat, generally fearful.
41. Is moralistic. (N.B. Regardless of the particular nature of the moral code.)
42. Reluctant to commit self to any definite course of action; tends to delay or avoid action.
43. Is facially and/or gesturally expressive.
44. Evaluates the motivation of others in interpreting situations. (N.B. Accuracy of evaluation is not assumed.) (N.B. Extreme placement in one direction implies preoccupation with motivational interpretation; at the other extreme, the item implies a psychological obtuseness, S does not consider motivational factors.)
45. Has a brittle ego-defense system; has a small reserve of integration; would be disorganized and maladaptive when under stress or trauma.
46. Engages in personal fantasy and daydreams, fictional speculations.
47. Has a readiness to feel guilty. (N.B. Regardless of whether verbalized or not.)
48. Keeps people at a distance; avoids close interpersonal relationships.
49. Is basically distrustful of people in general; questions their motivations.
50. Is unpredictable and changeable in behavior and attitudes.
51. Genuinely values intellectual and cognitive matters. (N.B. Ability or achievement are not implied here.)
52. Behaves in an assertive fashion. (N.B. Item 14 reflects underlying submissiveness; this refers to overt behavior.)
53. Various needs tend toward relatively direct and uncontrolled expression; unable to delay gratification.
54. Emphasizes being with others; gregarious.
55. Is self-defeating.
56. Responds to humor.
57. Is an interesting, arresting person.

58. Enjoys sensuous experiences (including touch, taste, smell, physical contact.)
59. Is concerned with own body and the adequacy of its physiological functioning.
60. Has insight into own motives and behavior.
61. Creates and exploits dependency in people. (N.B. Regardless of the technique employed, e.g., punitiveness, over-indulgence.) (N.B. At other end of scale, item implies respecting and encouraging the independence and individuality of others.)
62. Tends to be rebellious and non-conforming.
63. Judges self and others in conventional terms like "popularity," "the correct things to do," social pressures, etc.
64. Is socially perceptive of a wide range of interpersonal cues.
65. Characteristically pushes and tries to stretch limits; sees what he can get away with.
66. Enjoys esthetic impressions; is esthetically reactive.
67. Is self-indulgent.
68. Is basically anxious.
69. Is sensitive to anything that can be construed as a demand. (N.B. No implication of the kind of subsequent response is intended here.)
70. Behaves in an ethically consistent manner; is consistent with own personal standards.
71. Has high aspiration level for self.
72. Concerned with own adequacy as a person, either at conscious or unconscious levels. (N.B. A clinical judgement is required here; number 74 reflects subjective satisfaction with self.)
73. Tends to perceive many different contexts in sexual terms; eroticizes situations.
74. Is subjectively unaware of self-concern; feels satisfied with self.
75. Has a clear-cut, internally consistent personality. (N.B. Amount of information available before sorting is not intended here.)

76. Tends to project his own feelings and motivations onto others.
77. Appears straightforward, forthright, candid in dealing with others.
78. Feels cheated and victimized by life; self-pitying.
79. Tends to ruminate and have persistent, pre-occupying thoughts.
80. Interested in members of the opposite sex. (N.B. At opposite end, item implies absence of such interest.)
81. Is physically attractive; good-looking. (N.B. The cultural criterion is to be applied here.)
82. Has fluctuating moods.
83. Able to see to the heart of important problems.
84. Is cheerful. (N.B. Extreme placement toward uncharacteristic end of continuum implies unhappiness or depression.)
85. Emphasizes communication through action and non-verbal behavior.
86. Handles anxiety and conflicts by, in effect, refusing to recognize their presence; repressive or dissociative tendencies.
87. Interprets basically simple and clear-cut situations in complicated and particularizing ways.
88. Is personally charming.
89. Compares self to others. Is alert to real or fancied differences between self and other people.
90. Is concerned with philosophical problems; e.g., religions, values, the meaning of life, etc.
91. Is power oriented; values power in self or others.
92. Has social poise and presence; appears socially at ease.
- 93a. Behaves in a masculine style and manner.
- 93b. Behaves in a feminine style and manner. (N.B. If subject is male, 93a. applies; if subject is female, 93b. is to be evaluated.) (N.B. again. The cultural or sub-cultural conception is to be applied as a criterion.)

94. Expresses hostile feelings directly.
95. Tends to proffer advice.
96. Values own independence and autonomy.
97. Is emotionally bland; has flattened affect.
98. Is verbally fluent; can express ideas well.
99. Is self-dramatizing; histrionic.
100. Does not vary roles; relates to everyone in the same way.

APPENDIX F  
Q-SORT INSTRUCTIONS



## Q-SORT INSTRUCTIONS

The California Q-Sort consists of 100 cards which contain specific personality descriptions or characteristics. These cards are to be placed into numbered categories, ranging from 1) extremely uncharacteristic to 9) extremely characteristic for the individual being rated. Only a certain number of cards can be placed in any one category and no card can be placed in more than one category at a time. The chart below shows the name of each category, its specific number, and the number of cards which must be placed into it.

<u>CATEGORY NUMBER</u>	<u>CATEGORY DESCRIPTION</u>	<u>NUMBER OF CARDS</u>
1	EXTREMELY UNCHARACTERISTIC	5
2	QUITE UNCHARACTERISTIC	8
3	FAIRLY UNCHARACTERISTIC	12
4	SOMEWHAT UNCHARACTERISTIC	16
5	RELATIVELY NEUTRAL OR UNIMPORTANT	18
6	SOMEWHAT CHARACTERISTIC	16
7	FAIRLY CHARACTERISTIC	12
8	QUITE CHARACTERISTIC	8
9	EXTREMELY CHARACTERISTIC	5

In this study, two separate Q-Sorts will have to be done for each interview: a Q-Sort on the ex-husband and one on the boyfriend. Each Q-Sort should be based on your clinical assessment of the personality characteristics or dynamics of each of the respective males. That is, I am not interested in the subject's description or perception of the men in her life. Instead, I would like you to read between the lines and form your own impression of these men, using your clinical judgement. Thus, the cards should be sorted on the basis of your clinical evaluation of the personality attributes of the two men.

It is suggested that you familiarize yourself with the various adjectival descriptions on the Q-cards before you begin the sorts. You may also want to take some notes concerning the personality dynamics of the two men while you are reading the interview.

Once you have read the interview and are ready to perform the Q-Sort, it is recommended that you first place the cards into three basic categories: CHARACTERISTIC, UNCHARACTERISTIC, and UNDECIDED. This should make it easier when you go to form the final distribution of cards. After you have formed the three piles, go through the

cards again, placing them now in the nine categories listed above. Remember that only a specific number of cards can go into any one category, as shown on the above chart. After you have created the final distribution, use the Rating Sheet to record your sort. To record the cards, write down the category number (1 through 9) which corresponds to the numbered adjective description. For example, if Card #1 has been placed in the FAIRLY CHARACTERISTIC category (category #7) you would record 7 next to #1 printed on the sheet. After you have recorded the category numbers for all of the cards, you are ready to begin the next Q-Sort. Remember that for each interview, you will have to do two separate Q-Sorts: one for the ex-husband and the other for the boyfriend. Please make sure you record the subject # and which Q-sort you are doing on the Rating Sheet.

APPENDIX G  
Q-SORT RATING SHEET

Q-SORT RATING SHEET

SUBJECT # \_\_\_\_\_  
EX-HUSBAND \_\_\_\_\_  
BOYFRIEND \_\_\_\_\_

After the numbered cards have been sorted into the 9 categories, please record the CATEGORY NUMBER for each card in the spaces below.

1. _____	16. _____	31. _____	46. _____	61. _____	76. _____	91. _____
2. _____	17. _____	32. _____	47. _____	62. _____	77. _____	92. _____
3. _____	18. _____	33. _____	48. _____	63. _____	78. _____	93. _____
4. _____	19. _____	34. _____	49. _____	64. _____	79. _____	94. _____
5. _____	20. _____	35. _____	50. _____	65. _____	80. _____	95. _____
6. _____	21. _____	36. _____	51. _____	66. _____	81. _____	96. _____
7. _____	22. _____	37. _____	52. _____	67. _____	82. _____	97. _____
8. _____	23. _____	38. _____	53. _____	68. _____	83. _____	98. _____
9. _____	24. _____	39. _____	54. _____	69. _____	84. _____	99. _____
10. _____	25. _____	40. _____	55. _____	70. _____	85. _____	100. _____
11. _____	26. _____	41. _____	56. _____	71. _____	86. _____	101. _____
12. _____	27. _____	42. _____	57. _____	72. _____	87. _____	102. _____
13. _____	28. _____	43. _____	58. _____	73. _____	88. _____	103. _____
14. _____	29. _____	44. _____	59. _____	74. _____	89. _____	
15. _____	30. _____	45. _____	60. _____	75. _____	90. _____	

APPENDIX H  
OVERALL EVALUATION OF THE INTERVIEW

Subject # \_\_\_\_\_

OVERALL EVALUATION OF THE INTERVIEW

Using a scale: 0 = NOT AT ALL to 5 = VERY MUCH, please answer the following questions.

1) Overall, how similar would you rate the ex-husband and boyfriend in terms of personality characteristics?

\_\_\_\_\_

2) Overall, how similar is the relationship the subject had with her ex-husband to her current relationship with her boyfriend?

\_\_\_\_\_

3) Overall, how insightful would you rate the subject as being in terms of:

Awareness of the conscious reasons for the divorce?

\_\_\_\_\_

Awareness of the unconscious reasons for the divorce?

\_\_\_\_\_

Awareness of the similarities/differences between the two men?

\_\_\_\_\_

Awareness of who she is and what she wants in intimate relationships?

\_\_\_\_\_

4) How would you rate the subject's psychological maturity:

While married?

\_\_\_\_\_

At present?

\_\_\_\_\_

5) How psychologically healthy, mature, and gratifying would you rate:

Her relationship with her husband?

\_\_\_\_\_

Her relationship with her boyfriend?

\_\_\_\_\_

6) Do you think the subject has been in psychodynamic, insight-oriented therapy before? (YES or NO)

\_\_\_\_\_

## VITA

Nancy Ellen Brown was born in Lakewood, Ohio on September 29, 1952. She attended elementary school in Bay Village, Ohio, junior high in Murrysville, Pennsylvania, and high school in Chatham Township, New Jersey. In September 1970, she entered Vassar College in Poughkeepsie, New York, and graduated Cum Laude with Departmental Honors in Psychology in June 1984 with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology. She received the Margaret Floy Washburn Fellowship from Vassar, and entered Fairleigh Dickinson University (Madison, New Jersey) in the Fall of 1975. In June 1977, she graduated with a Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology.

In September 1977, she entered the University of Tennessee's doctoral program in Psychology. After completing the coursework, she did her clinical internship at Langley Porter Institute in San Francisco, California, from 1981 to 1982. She was awarded the Ph.D. degree in December 1985.

The author is a member of Phi Kappa Phi, Psi Chi, and the American Psychological Association. While a clinical student at The University of Tennessee, she received Performance with Distinction for her psychotherapy work during the Winter and Spring quarters of 1980. She also has been nominated for the Golden Key National Honor Society and she was the recipient of the Woman of Achievement Award in 1983.

Upon graduation, she will work as a Clinical Psychologist at Ridgeview Psychiatric Hospital and Center, Oak Ridge, Tennessee.