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Adolescent Identity and Loneliness: The Role of Attachment

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Adolescent Identity and Loneliness: The Role of Attachment

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This thesis is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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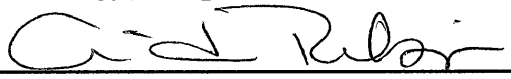

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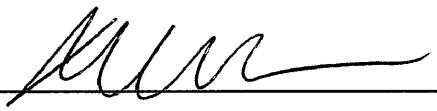

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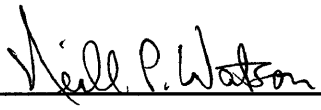

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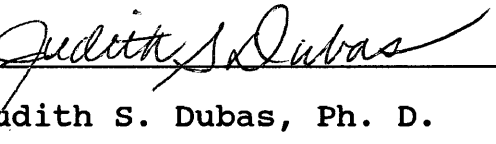

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to explore the relationship between Erikson's (1968) concept of ego-identity, attachment theory (Bowlby, 1980), and ways of coping with stressful leaving home to go away to college. It was hypothesized that different identity statuses would be associated with different attachment styles and that different attachment styles would be associated with different ways of coping. One hundred and twenty-five freshmen (ages 18 or 19) completed measures of ego-identity, attachment, loneliness, and ways of coping. Results suggest the need for future research to explore gender differences and the possibility of social desirability as a confound of the Ways of Coping Scale-Revised (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985) and of the Mother-Father-Peer-Scale (Epstein, 1981). Results are discussed in terms of the potential role attachment plays in the process of identity formation and perpetuation of loneliness.

Adolescent Identity and Loneliness:

The Role of Attachment

Adolescent Identity and Loneliness: The Role of Attachment

Leaving home is an important passage of late adolescence, one that could be expected to tax the adaptational resources of adolescents. The transition from home to college is the first time that many adolescents are separated from their parents for an extended period of time. As Kenny (1987) noted, going away to college is an in vivo strange situation. Researchers have suggested that a sense of autonomy in combination with positive family relations yield students who are successful in making the transition from home to college (Murphey, Silber, Coelho, Hamburg, & Greenburg, 1963; Cooper, Grotevant, & Condon, 1983). If attachment relationships provide adaptational advantages in present and future contexts, then the college environment could be considered a proving ground for demonstrating those advantages.

A small but growing literature is concerned with adolescent-parent attachment relations, and the association between attachment and other areas of adolescent adaptation and development. This literature is particularly interesting because attachment has been

implicated in some important aspects of adolescent development, such as ego-identity development, and social and emotional adjustment to different situations. The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between Erikson's (1968) concept of ego-identity, attachment theory (Bowlby, 1980), and ways of coping with leaving home to go away to college.

Erikson (1968) suggests that the task of the adolescent during the separation process requires substantial reorganization of identity through a series of developmental shifts. The adolescent must complete this task in ways that mirror intrinsic desires and in ways he/she will receive social support (Waterman, 1982). Four ego-identity statuses have been identified to address Erikson's concept of identity (Marcia, 1966). They are: Identity Achievement, Moratorium, Foreclosure, and Identity Diffusion. These are defined by the concepts of crisis and commitment.

> "Crisis" refers to a period of struggle or active questioning in arriving at such aspects of personal identity as vocational choice and ideological beliefs. 'Commitment' involves making

> a firm, unwavering decision in such areas and engaging in appropriate implementing activities. (Waterman, 1982, p. 342)

For the purpose of this study the following definitions of the statuses given by Waterman (1982) were adopted. Someone who has gone through a crisis and has emerged with "relatively firm" commitments is considered an Identity Achiever. An individual who is in a state of crisis and is actively attempting to arrive at a decision reflects the classification of Moratorium. Waterman (1982) points out that a "successful" resolution of a crisis does not necessarily indicate that the commitments/decisions formed are permanent. The classification of Foreclosure refers to a person who has never experienced a crisis but none the less has relatively firm commitments. The commitments usually "reflect the wishes of parents or other authority figures" (p. 342). Individuals who fit the classification of Identity Diffusion have no commitments and are not trying to construct them. They may have been in a state of crisis and not have come to any decisions, or they may have never experienced a crisis.

Prior experience is thought to be important in the development of identity. Waterman (1985) suggests that identity development is influenced by: the degree of identification with parents, parenting style, exposure to alternatives, adult models, social expectations, and success in early childhood developmental tasks. Recent research on the antecedent conditions of identity formation suggests that certain familial and social factors may influence the developmental course of identity (Marcia, 1983; Adams and Jones, 1983; Kamptner, 1988). Specifically, family relationship patterns that are characterized by both "connectedness" (supportive, responsive, and sensitive) and "individuality" (allow expression of distinctive self, exert minimal parental control) seem to promote identity formation, as do peer relationships (Grotevant & Cooper, 1985). Connectedness may provide the security and self-esteem that is needed in order for adolescents to be able to take risks and explore identity alternatives (Grotevant, 1983; Marcia, 1983). Individuality within family relationship patterns can promote the development of a sense of self that is distinctive and unique. Parental sensitivity to

adolescents increased need for autonomy may help promote the exploration of identity alternatives by allowing adolescents to seek exposure to diverse models and options (Grotevant, 1983). Parents who can't accommodate this need may inhibit their ability to explore.

In a review of the literature Marcia (1980) cites evidence regarding these hypotheses. Results indicate that Identity Achievers are most likely to be critical of their parents and likely to report themselves as in conflict with their family. They are most likely to take personal responsibility for their lives and not turn to their family when making important decisions. They tend to respond positively, yet are somewhat ambivalent towards their family. The conflict and ambivalence found in the relationship with their family is most likely due to shifts the adolescent is going through in resolving his/her crisis. Identity Achievers are more resilient of stress and tend to have higher grades and better study habits during their freshmen year of college than their peers.

Individuals in a state of Moratorium are also very likely to be critical of parents, and in conflict with

their family. They are not very likely to turn to their families while making important decisions. It is suggested that the tension is related to the ambivalence of both the parent and child concerning the child's individuation. In their relationships they tend to be either intensely engaged or disengaged. They tend to view their parents as disappointed or disapproving of them. Autonomy is characteristic of the Moratorium family (Marcia, 1980).

Individuals who are Foreclosed tend to report the closest relationship with their parents. There tends to be much pressure and support for the adolescent to conform to the families wishes. They are most likely to turn to their family when they are making important decisions. The child describes the family as "child-centered". Foreclosed individuals are found to have the highest need for social support. As a defensive reaction, they tend to avoid expression of strong feelings so as not to upset their parents (Marcia, 1980).

Individuals who are Identity Diffuse tend to be most distant from their families. They view their parents as indifferent, detached, and rejecting, and

tend to be wary of peers and authorities. They generally feel out of place and are withdrawn (Marcia, 1980).

The evidence for gender differences among these groups is inconclusive. It has been suggested that such differences are most likely due to cultural differences (Waterman, 1982). Studies have suggested that identity concerns, developmental pathways, and psychological implications of identity may differ for males and females (Kamptner, 1988). Male identity development has been described as focusing on individual competence, knowledge acquisition, and occupational choices. Female identity has been described as developing within issues of interpersonal process and relations to others (Gilligan, 1982). More research needs to be conducted in order to determine if there are any gender differences and the nature of these gender differences if they do exist.

Traditionally identity has been studied through the use of global status scores although global scores are comprised of the sub-scale score of different domains (e.g., religion, occupation, ideological). Archer (1989) points out that the decision making

process used for one domain may not be the process used for another domain. Few people are actually Diffuse, Foreclosed, Moratorium, or Identity Achieved in all domains in at the same point in time (Archer, 1989). Using global scores may be misleading because a person may be several different statuses at the same time depending on which domain is the focus. Domains may have differing significance for the individuals. Thus, it is important to keep context in mind when looking at the statuses (Waterman, 1985). Vocational plans and career priorities are two areas that are particularly salient for late adolescents in terms of identity development (Waterman, 1985). Therefore, for the purposes of this study the occupational domain of identity development will be the main focus.

In recent years there has been an attempt to establish the link between adolescent attachment relations and adolescent development and adjustment. Many important developmental tasks of adolescence have found their resolution in the context of attachment and family relationships (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986). Recent life-span views of development have extended the definition of attachment beyond the mother-child dyad,

and beyond infancy and early childhood (Ainsworth, 1989). According to Sroufe and Waters' (1977) "organizational perspective" of human development, the nature of attachment should facilitate the mastery of both concurrent and prospective developmental tasks and adaptations.

Bowlby (1980) conceptualizes attachment as a goal-directed system that protects the individual. This attachment system "refers to a psychological organization hypothesized to exist within a person" (Bretherton, 1985, p. 6) and not merely to a relationship that exists between two individuals. The system is composed of internal (psychological) and external (environmental) sub-systems which function to "maintain a relatively steady state between an individual and his/her environment" (Bretherton, 1985, p. 67). Specifically, the external goal is to maintain proximity and contact with a particular individual (i.e., the attachment figure) and the internal goal is to maintain/obtain the feeling of security. Evidence (Anderson, 1972) indicates that this is a continuously active system. Bowlby (1980) suggests that the child develops this internal "working model" of the world,

other, and of self through experiences with other individuals and objects. It is suggested that although attachment behaviors may develop, the basic internal working model of attachment remains the same and therefore is regarded as useful in guiding behavior in all situations. As the child grows the model is restructured by assimilating new information. Hence, the child internalized representations of the caretaker and the caretaker-child relationship, and to the extent that such representations are adequate (i.e., caretaker is internalized as a soothing, caring object), the child can then depend on his/her own internalized soothing functions in times of distance from caretaker. Bretherton (1985) and the researchers she cited acknowledge that although the models may evolve, they fundamentally remains the same and sets a pattern for the child's developing identity. Most research on the attachment system has been conducted using infants or young children due to the fact that this system is easily observed during these ages. Bowlby, however, postulates that the attachment system can be observed throughout the individual's entire life.

Research on parent-infant attachment (Ainsworth,

Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978) provides evidence for the strategies of various working models of attachment. Based early work with the Strange Situation task, three patterns of attachment emerged: secure, avoidant, and ambivalent. More recent work (Main & Cassidy, 1988) indicates that a fourth pattern, disorganized, is useful in the classification of children who do not fit into the other categories. The secure child is likely to seek close physical proximity and the mother is likely to be sensitive to the child's signals. The avoidant child is likely to avoid the mother and the mother is likely to be insensitive to the child's signals. The ambivalent child is likely to combine seeking and avoidant/anger type behavior and the mother is likely to be inconsistent in her response to the child's signals. The disorganized child shows a variety of contradictory behaviors. For example, the child may look away whild being held.

Main and Goldwyn (1985) utilized the Adult Attachment Interview (George, Kaplan, & Main, 1985) and identified three internal working models of attachment for adults: secure, dismissing, and preoccupied. They found these paralleled the Strange Situation

classifications of secure, avoidant, and ambivalent. In this study they found that 73% of the mother's interview classifications matched their child's classification in the Strange Situation task. Therefore, they suggest that hypotheses concerning adult attachment patterns may be derived from the research on infancy and early childhood.

Using the Adult Attachment Interview, Main and Goldwyn (1985) found that those classified as secure tend to value attachment while still maintaining their independence. These subjects were able to incorporate positive and negative episodes into a coherent representation of the relationship. Individuals classified as dismissing tended to devalue attachment. These subjects had trouble in recalling episodes and the episodes they did recall tended to be negative. Nevertheless, they would present positive generalizations about their parents. Individuals classified as preoccupied tended to misconstrue their attachment. Like secure subjects they were able to easily recall episodes but like dismissing subjects they were unable to coherently incorporate these episodes. "They (present) a picture of being somewhat

confused and uncertain about negative aspects of their relationships with parents while continuing to exert effort at pleasing their parents" (Kobak & Sceery, 1985, p. 7).

Previous research supports the hypothesis that the internal working model of attachment seems to organize strategies for regulating behavior in all situations. Sroufe (1983) suggests that children with secure attachments are able to experience and "constructively modulate" (p. 519) negative affect in stressful situations. Securely attached children have been found to have higher self-esteem, greater emotional adjustment, and are more effective problem solvers (Matas, Arend, & Sroufe, 1978). They also display emotions that increase social interactions and social competence. Avoidant children, due to suppression of the anger felt toward the attachment figure who is insensitive to his/her signals, may display hostile emotions inappropriately. The ambivalent child is characterized by "heightened expression of distress" (Kobak & Sceery, 1987, p. 5). The child is likely to express both anger and fear toward the attachment figure. This may result in less exploration and a

reduced sense of self confidence. The disorganized child tries to direct and control the parent's behavior, assuming a role that is more appropriate for a parent (Main & Cassidy, 1988)

Researchers concerned with adolescent-parent relations have generally found that adolescents (high school students, college freshmen) secure in attachment are better adjusted (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Quality of attachment to parents has been found to be positively correlated with measures of self-esteem, life satisfaction, and indices of effective interpersonal functioning (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Kenny, 1987). Richman and Flaherty (1987) found that for a sample of young adults making the transition to medical school, healthy attachment relationships with parents predicted less reported depression and higher levels of reported self-esteem.

In sum, secure attachment relations, perhaps by supporting exploration and mastery of the environment, predict adjustment in several areas of functioning, such as cognitive development, academic skills, emotional development, and interpersonal or social functioning. As Bowlby (1982) noted,

> A young child's experience of an encouraging, supportive and co-operative mother...gives him a sense of worth, a belief in the helpfulness of others, and a valuable model on which to build future relationships. Furthermore, by enabling him to explore his environment with confidence and to deal with it effectively, such experience also promotes his sense of competence (p. 378).

Several researchers have investigated the connection between adolescent attachment and identity development. Kroger (1985) and Kroger and Haslett(1988) examined the predictive relationships between adolescent attachment style and identity development for samples of New Zealand undergraduate college students. Kroger (1985) found that identity-achieved adolescents were the most securely attached group, while Foreclosed adolescents were the most anxiously attached to parents. She also reported that a large number of Foreclosures were emotionally detached from parents and that adolescents in the other statuses also evidenced a variety of attachment styles. The finding that securely attached adolescents were most likely to be Identity Achieved, suggested that the

attachment relationship enabled the necessary exploration of identity alternatives, and that the secure attachment relationship supported the adolescent's commitment to his or her personal system of values and beliefs. In a follow-up study, Kroger and Haslett (1988) found no support for the prediction of later identity development (1986) by previous attachment style (1984). They also reported that attachment patterns in 1984 did not correspond to 1986 patterns. Kroger and Haslett suggested that the measure they used to assess attachment relations in healthy university students may be inappropriate and unreliable because the measure they used had been used primarily with inpatient adolescents. Quintana and Lapsley (1987) examined the relation between parental control, adolescent attachment to parents, and ego-identity development in a sample of college undergraduates. They found a positive, though non-significant, association between attachment to parents and identity development. Perceived parental control appeared to hinder adaptive identity exploration and also interfered with the parent-adolescent attachment relationship. Quintana and Laplsey (1987) suggest

that, attachment relations may not be as necessary for adaptive functioning in adolescence as they are in early childhood. Therefore, adaptation, in the form of successful identity development, may not depend on a secure attachment relationship with parents.

In a more recent investigation, Lapsley, Rice, and FitzGerald (1990) investigated attachment, identity, and adjustment to college. They found that certain dimensions of attachment predicted college adjustment for both college freshmen and upperclassmen. For both samples, communication with parents was significantly correlated with personal and social aspects of identity. For freshmen, communication with parents was also correlated with academic adjustment to college. For upperclassmen, a trusting relationship with parents was significantly correlated with personal-emotional college adjustment.

The results reported by Kroger (1985), Kroger and Haslett (1988) and Quintana et al., (1987), suggest that attachment relations may not directly influence identity development. However, these results are inconsistent with those reported by Lapsley et al. (1990), who did find a significant association between

attachment and identity. In all of these studies, measures of identity were based on Eriksonian theory but were different measures. The conflicting findings may have resulted from the different measures of identity and attachment used in the separate projects, which may have tapped different aspects of these constructs.

In sum, quality attachment relationships seem to exert their adaptive functions in realms of emotional and social development. Adolescents and young adults who report secure, trusting attachment relationships with their parents also report high levels of social competence, general life satisfaction, and somewhat higher levels of self-esteem. As previously mentioned identity is a complex construct involving several domains that can be measured in several different ways. It may be that certain aspects of identity are influenced by certain dimensions of attachment while other aspects are not. Therefore, some but not all dimensions of identity development may be affected by attachment relationship with parents.

Peer relations have also been suggested as influencing identity formation (Kamptner, 1988). Peer

relations appear to enhance identity formation in a variety of ways, including facilitating adolescents' self-knowledge (Erikson, 1968), providing adolescents with feelings of continuity and a sense of who they are, and providing a group identity that may function as a defense against identity diffusion (Siegel, 1982). Peer relations may aid adolescents in their separation from their parents, help validate their sense of self and self-worth and provide a "safe" environment to explore and experiment with identity alternatives (Siegel, 1982). Marcia (1983) suggests that interpersonal relations are important to the identity development process, because identity is a psychosocial issue and thus develops in relation to others.

Familial relations may not only influence identity directly but also indirectly by first influencing peer relations. Secure parent-adolescent relations have been shown to promote social competence and to enhance peer relations during adolescence (Hartup, 1983; Gold & Yanof, 1985). In a sample of college students, Kamptner (1988) found that security in the parent-adolescent relationship appeared to play a role in the identity development process. Parental warmth and

autonomy were found to predict familial security. Familial security enhanced identity development directly and also indirectly by first enhancing adolescents social involvements. These findings support earlier work by Grotevant and Cooper (1985) which suggests that familial factors influence adolescents sociability, which in turn affects identity development.

As previously suggested, late adolescence is a time of enormous change. The literature concerning the effect of life events on adjustment are contradictory (Cohen, Burt, & Bjork, 1987). Findings by Thompson, Lamb, and Estes (1982) suggest that life stresses may be either advantageous or deleterious to the restructuring of an attachment model. Lazarus, Delongis, Folkman, and Gruen (1985), suggest that researchers must not only look at the specific environmental experience, but also at the person's appraisal of the experience and the person's capabilities to alter the stress for their well being.

Researchers (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985) have found that the appraisal of a situation shapes the coping process, which in turn affects the immediate outcome

and may affect future adaptational outcomes. The way in which a student copes with the separation process may have serious ramifications regarding his/her identity development, performance in college and in future life. Folkman et al. (1985) suggest that coping has two functions, first to regulate distress (emotion-focused coping); and second, to do something to change the problem causing the distress for the better (problem-focused coping). Emotion-focused coping is used more frequently in encounters that were appraised as unchangeable. Problem-focused coping is used more frequently in events appraised as changeable. Folkman et al. (1985), suggest that people use both types when confronted with a stressful situation. In a college population they identified 8 styles of coping, 1 problem-focused, 6 emotion-focused (wishful thinking, detachment, focusing on the positive, self-blame, tension reduction, and keep to self), and 1 containing both problem and emotion-focused coping (seeking social support).

Hypotheses

Given the evidence cited above, hypotheses were drawn concerning the relationship between identity

statuses and attachment models. It was hypothesized that:

1. Those who are classified as Identity Achievers would have secure attachments. Identity Achievers generally have firm commitments, positive reactions towards their families, and tend to do better in their Freshman year of college than their peers. Those who are secure tend to value attachment, yet maintain their independence, and have the ability to adapt to stressful situations, such as going away to school.

2. Foreclosed individuals are most likely to be classified as dismissing. Foreclosed individuals are most likely to turn to their family for important decisions due to pressure to conform and not a sense of closeness, and tend to avoid emotional expression as a defensive reaction. Dismissing individuals have a defensive reaction in which they present positive generalizations about their parents although they recall more negative episodes. However, they may also be classified as secure because Foreclosed individuals report having the closest relationship with their family and involve their families in much of their life.

3. Identity Diffuse individuals are likely to be classified as dismissing. Identity Diffuse individuals report being distant from their family, view parents as rejecting, and tend to be withdrawn. Those classified as dismissing devalue attachment, view parents as insensitive, and report a high sense of loneliness.

4. Those in a state of Moratorium would most likely be classified as preoccupied. Individuals in a state of Moratorium see family as ambivalent and tend to be ambivalent in relationships, swinging from total engagement to disengagement. Preoccupied individuals tend to report being "confused" about relationships, and view their parents as frustrating their sense of autonomy. However, they also may be classified as dismissing since dismissing individuals devalue attachment and given the evidence that those who are in a state of Moratorium report being in conflict with their parents, and unlikely to turn to their family when making important decisions.

The following hypotheses were drawn concerning attachment style, identity status, and ways of coping with regard to the separation process. It was hypothesized that:

1. Those classified as secure and Identity Achievers are most likely to use problem-focused coping; given the evidence that these individuals would generally have firm commitments and have the ability to adapt to stressful situations.

2. Those classified as dismissing and Foreclosed, are most likely to use detachment coping; given the evidence that these individuals tend to avoid emotional expression and tend to avoid recalling negative episodes.

3. Those classified as preoccupied and in a state of Moratorium are most likely to use tension-reduction coping; given the evidence that these individuals tend to be ambivalent concerning events.

4. Those classified as dismissing and Identity Diffuse are most likely to use wishful-thinking coping; given the evidence that these individuals tend to distance themselves from situations and do not search for answers.

5. Those classified as secure and Foreclosed are most likely to use seeking social support coping; given the evidence that these individuals tend to rely heavily upon their families when making major life

decisions.

There is no basis for predicting the Identity status, and Attachment style that would be associated with the other three ways of coping.

Method

Subjects

Six hundred and twenty-four (399 females, 225 males) subjects completed the Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status scale (OM-EIS, see Appendix A) as a mass testing battery over two semesters. The subjects were introductory psychology students fulfilling a research requirement for credit. Subjects were selected based on their occupational sub-scale score of the OM-EIS, their age and year in school. To establish cut-off points for each occupational identity status the following rule, as suggested by Adams, et al. (1979), was used: Individuals with a score falling one standard deviation above the mean were scored as being in that identity status if all remaining scores fell below that cut-off. Individuals with scores falling less than 1 standard deviation above the mean on all four statuses or individuals with more than one score above the standard deviation cut-off were not used in

this study. One hundred and twenty-five (47 males, 78 females) freshmen, aged 18 to 19 years participated. The cut-off scores for the occupation sub-scale resulted in thirty-four (16 males, 19 females) subjects classified as Diffuse, 28 (11 males, 16 females) subjects classified as Foreclosed, 34 (9 males, 25 females) subjects classified as Moratorium, and 29 (11 males, 18 females) subjects classified as Identity Achieving.

Measures

Objective Measure of Ego-Identity Status Scale (OM-EIS) (Adams, Shea, & Fitch, 1979).

This is a 24 item self-report measure which provides assessment of Marcia's (1966) four ego-identity statuses (Identity Achiever, Foreclose, Moratorium, and Identity Diffuse). The subject is asked to indicate on a 6-point likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 6=strongly agree) the extent to which each item reflects their thoughts and feelings. The scale consists of three sub-scales (occupation, politics, and religion). Subjects may be classified using a full-scale score which is derived by combining the three sub-scale scores or be classified by a single sub-scale

score. Researchers suggest that vocational plans and career priorities are two areas which are salient to late adolescents (Waterman, 1985; Archer, 1989). For the purposes of this study, subjects' classification via the occupational sub-scale were used for selection and analyses. The selected subjects' classification derived via their full-scale score were also used in the analyses of the data. Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the sub-scales reportedly range from .67 to .76; Test-retest reliability ranges from .71 to .93 (Adams, et al., 1979).

The Mother-Father-Peer Scales (Epstein, 1983).

This 56 item scale provides a means of assessing the model of attachment used by an individual. For the purposes of this study the 3 sub-scales were conceptualized in terms of Main and Goldwyn's (1985) 3 models of attachment for adults. Support for the conceptualization of these sub-scales in this manner is derived from the definitions provided of the sub-scales, the theoretical conceptualization of attachment styles, and research which supports this connection (Ricks, 1985). The subject is asked to indicate on a 5-point likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly

agree) the extent to which the items describe their childhood relationship with the person indicated in the item. The scale is composed of three measures. The first measure indicates the degree to which the parents accepted and encouraged the individual's independence, self-reliance and the development of social and other skills, versus the degree to which the parents over-protected the individual, and failed to help the child learn to function independently (secure vs. preoccupied). The second measure indicates the degree to which the parents communicated love, acceptance, and appreciation of the individual, as opposed to viewing the individual as undesirable, a burden, a nuisance, and a source of unhappiness or disappointment (secure vs. dismissing). The parent measures contain separate mother figure and father figure scales which can be used for analyses. The third measure indicates if peers accepted, liked, respected, or admired the individual and wanted to be friends with him/her; versus disliked, teased, disrespected, or avoided the individual (secure vs. preoccupied/dismissing). Epstein (1983) reports test-retest reliabilities ranging from .82 to .93.

UCLA Loneliness Scale-Revised (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980).

This 20 item self-report scale assesses the perceived inadequacy or loneliness in current social relationships of an individual. High scores (i.e., greater loneliness) have been correlated with limited social activities and interpersonal relationships (Craig-Bray, Adams, & Dobson, 1988). Subject are asked to indicate on a 4-point likert scale (1=never; 4=often) the extent to which each item reflects how they often feel. Internal consistency has been found to be adequate (alpha = .95) and concurrent validity with other measures has been demonstrated (Russell et al., 1980).

Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Inventory (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964).

This 33 item inventory is designed to identify individuals who tend to describe themselves in an overly positive or desirable fashion. The subject is asked to indicate true or false the extent to which each item reflects their beliefs. Test-retest correlation of .88 for this measure has been reported over a one month period. Internal consistency has been

found to be high with an alpha coefficient of .88 (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964).

Ways of Coping Scale (Revised) (Lazarus & Folkman, 1985).

This 66 item scale assesses cognitive and behavioral strategies used to manage stressful situations. The subject is asked to indicate on a 4-point likert scale (0=not used; 3=used a great deal) the extent to which they have used the items in coping with an identified stressful situation, in this case leaving home to go away to college. The internal consistency (alpha) for a college population ranges from .59 to .88 (Lazarus et al., 1985). A list of each type of coping style followed by a statement which characterizes that style is supplied in Appendix D.

Questionnaire of Additional Information

This six item questionnaire was developed for use in this study. It contained questions regarding sex, age, and questions or academic satisfaction and achievement.

Procedure

Over two semesters, 600 subjects completed the OM-EIS and were scored into the various pure or transition

occupational identity status types; 125 subjects were selected who were scored as "pure" occupational identity status types on the identity measure. Follow-up appointments to complete the other questions were scheduled. Upon arriving at their appointment the subjects were first asked to read and sign a consent form, which is shown in Appendix B. Packets of questionnaires were then distributed to the subjects. These packets consisted of the Mother-Father-Peer Scale (MFP), the UCLA Loneliness Scale (revised), the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Inventory, a questionnaire assessing academic adjustment, and the Ways of Coping Scale (Revised) in a random order. A packet is reproduced in Appendix C. The subjects were told that the questionnaires consisted of questions concerning family and social relationships and academic satisfaction. They were asked to read the instructions for each questionnaire and complete them accordingly. After the instructions were explained, any questions the subjects had about the procedures were answered and they were told to begin. The subjects were given up to one and one-half hours to complete the packet. All subjects completed the materials in the allotted amount

of time. After the subjects completed the questionnaire packet, they were thanked for their participation, given a written description of the purpose of the study and were told they could leave.

Results

Independent t-tests were conducted to assess if the first and second semester samples differed in terms of their scores on the OM-EIS, the UCLA Loneliness scale, the Mother-father-peer scale, the Crowne-Marlowe social desirability inventory and the Ways of Coping scale. These two groups were not found to be significantly different on any of these measures at the $p < .05$ level. Therefore the following analyses were conducted without regard to semester.

Table 1 shows the intercorrelations among gender and Crowne-Marlowe social desirability scores and the measures of ego-identity (occupation and full scale), attachment scales, coping scales, and loneliness.

Insert Table 1 about here

Scores on the Crowne-Marlowe were significantly positively correlated with all of the coping subscales,

indicating that this scale may be subject to the confound of social desirability. Correlations between scores on the Crowne-Marlowe and three of the MFP scales approached significance, indicating that future research using the MFP may want to examine the possibility of social desirability as a confound. Gender was significantly negatively correlated with two of the coping scales, indicating that females were more likely to endorse the use of these scales. Gender was also significantly positively correlated with one of the subscales of the MFP, indicating that males were more likely to highly endorse items on this scale. Independent t-tests were conducted to assess if the male and female samples differed in terms of their scores on the OM-EIS. These two groups were not found to be significantly different at the $p < .05$ level. The analyses conducted in regard to identity status were conducted without regard to gender.

A single-factor between-subjects multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted on the identity statuses derived from the occupation sub-scale of the OM-EIS to assess if these groups could be differentiated on the basis of variables that may be

associated with identity status (academic satisfaction, ways of coping, degree of loneliness, and gender). The covariate was the score on the Crowne-Marlowe social desirability inventory. The overall MANCOVA was not found to be significant (Wilks' Lambda = 0.77) $F(39, 320) = 0.84$, $p > .05$, indicating that, when adjusted for the effect of social desirability, there is no relationship between the identity statuses and the variables of academic satisfaction, ways of coping, degree of loneliness, and gender. A single-factor MANOVA utilizing these variables was also not found to be significant.

To conduct analyses using the full scale OM-EIS scores of the subjects, cut-off points were established using the criteria previously described, as suggested by Adams, et al. (1979). Of the 125 subjects 82 (30 males, 52 females) were retained for the analyses using the full scale scores. The cut-off scores for the full scale statuses resulted in 16 (6 males, 10 females) subjects classified as Diffuse, 24 (12 males, 12 females) subjects classified as Foreclosed, 18 (6 males, 12 females) subjects classified as Moratorium, and 24 (6 males, 18 females) subjects classified as

Identity Achieving. A second single factor between-subjects MANCOVA was conducted on the identity statuses derived from the full scale scores of the OM-EIS to assess if these groups can be differentiated on the basis of the variables that may be associated with identity status. The covariate was the score on the Crowne-Marlowe social desirability inventory. The overall MANCOVA was not found to be significant. A single-factor MANOVA conducted utilizing these variables was also not found to be significant.

In order to assess the degree of relationship between attachment models and the identity statuses derived from the occupation sub-scale of the OM-EIS, a series of Kruskal-Wallis One-way Analyses of Variance (K-W ANOVA) by ranks were employed. A series of Mann-Whitney-U tests were then employed to further analyze the K-W ANOVA's. The decision to use the K-W ANOVA's was made because the symmetrical distribution of scores on the MFP could not be assumed. Also, the MFP is an ordinal scale of measurement and classification of subjects by cut-off scores is not appropriate.

A significant difference was found between the occupation identity statuses in the level of parental

independence-encouragement, $X^2(3, N = 125) = 10.39$, $p < .01$. The occupation Diffuse group ($M = 67.75$), occupation Foreclosed group ($M = 64.00$), and occupation Identity Achieved group ($M = 75.10$) had significantly higher scores than the occupation Moratorium group ($M = 47.10$), $U = 406.5$, $p < .05$; $U = 326.5$, $p < .05$, $U = 273.5$, $p < .01$, respectively. These three groups were not found to be significantly different from each other.

A significant difference was found between the occupation identity statuses in the level of maternal independence-encouragement, $X^2(3, N = 125) = 8.35$, $p < .05$. The occupation Diffuse group ($M = 67.35$), occupation Foreclosed group ($M = 65.89$), and the occupation Identity Achieved group ($M = 72.66$) had significantly higher scores than the occupation Moratorium group ($M = 48.03$), $U = 402.5$, $p < .05$; $U = 330.5$, $p < .05$; $U = 305.0$, $p < .01$, respectively. These three groups were not found to be significantly different from each other.

A significant difference was found between the occupation identity statuses in the level of maternal acceptance, $X^2(3, N = 125) = 8.35$, $p < .05$. The

occupation Foreclosed group (M = 69.82) and the occupation Identity Achieved group (M = 74.28) had significantly higher scores than the occupation Moratorium group (M = 49.93), U =323.0, p < .05; U = 303.5, p < .01, respectively.

The difference between the occupation identity status in the level of parental acceptance approached significance, X^2(3, N =125) = 7.36, p =.06. The occupation Foreclosed group (M = 68.54) and the occupation Identity Achieved group (M = 72.47) had significantly higher scores than the occupation Moratorium group (M = 49.51), U =325.5, p < .05; U = 316.5, p < .01, respectively.

The difference between the occupation identity statuses in the level of paternal independence-encouragement approached significance, X^2(3, N =125) = 7.29, p =.06. The occupation Diffuse group (M = 69.95) and the occupation Identity Achieved group (M = 69.76) had significantly higher scores than the occupation Moratorium group (M = 49.53), U = 386.0, p < .05; U = 327.0, p < .05, respectively.

Neither the difference between occupation identity statuses in the level of peer acceptance, nor in the

level of paternal acceptance were significant.

A series of K-W ANOVA by ranks were also employed to assess the degree of relationship between attachment models and the identity statuses derived from the full OM-EIS scale. A significant difference was found between the identity statuses in level of parental independence-encouragement, $X^2(3, N = 82) = 7.69$, $p < .05$. The Identity Achieved group ($M = 52.52$) had significantly higher scores than the Diffuse group ($M = 37.00$), $U = 118.5$, $p < .05$, the Foreclosed group ($M = 38.98$), $U = 180.0$, $p < .05$, and the Moratorium group ($M = 34.17$), $U = 133.0$, $p < .05$.

A significant difference was found between the identity statuses in level of maternal independence-encouragement, $X^2(3, N = 82) = 7.43$, $p < .05$. The Identity Achieved group ($M = 51.75$) had significantly higher scores than the Foreclosed group ($M = 37.10$), $U = 178.0$, $p < .05$, and the Moratorium group ($M = 33.25$), $U = 127.0$, $p < .05$.

The differences between identity statuses in the level of parental acceptance, peer acceptance, paternal independence-encouragement, maternal acceptance, and paternal acceptance were not significant.

In order to assess the impact of coping in predicting attachment styles, stepwise multiple regression analyses were employed. Predictor variables included degree of loneliness, rating of academic standing, academic satisfaction, achievement rating, problem-focused coping, wishful thinking, detachment, seeking social support, focusing on the positive, self-blame, and tension-reduction. A total of seven multiple regression analyses were conducted, all were found to have a set of significant predictor variables. Table 2 presents a summary of the seven multiple regression analyses. The table presents the predictors in descending order of ability to predict attachment

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Insert Table 2 about here

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style, and indicates the position level of the predictor. Degree of loneliness was the best predictor for all of the criteria. Seeking social support, detachment, and keeping to self were the second or third best predictor for six of the seven criteria.

Tables 3 through 9 present the zero-ordered correlation, usefulness index, and tests of

significance for the seven significant multiple regression analyses. A set of three significant predictor variables was found in explaining the level of parental independence-encouragement (secure vs.

Insert Table 3 about here

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preoccupied), accounting for 10.4% of the variance. Degree of loneliness was the best predictor, accounting for 6.0% of the variance. The less lonely individuals' perceived themselves the more they perceived their parents as accepting and encouraging their independence. Seeking social support and problem-focused coping accounted for 4.4% of the variance. The less often they used seeking social support as a way of coping and the more often they used problem focused coping, the more they perceived their parents as accepting and encouraging their independence.

Three significant variables were identified for predicting the level of parental acceptance (secure vs.

Insert Table 4 about here

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dismissing), accounting for 8.8% of the variance. Degree of loneliness was the best predictor accounting for 7.2% of the variance. The less lonely the person perceived him/herself as being the more they perceived their parents as communicating love, acceptance and appreciation. Self-blame and keeping to self accounted for 1.6% of the variance. The more often they used self-blame, and the less often they kept to self, the more they perceived their parents as communicating love, acceptance and appreciation.

A set of four significant predictor variables was found in explaining the level of peer acceptance

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Insert Table 5 about here

(secure vs. preoccupied/dismissing), accounting for 48.9% of the variance. Degree of loneliness was the best predictor, accounting for 41.8% of the variance. The less lonely persons perceived themselves, the more they perceived their peers as accepting, liking, respecting, or admiring them. Detachment, keeping to self, problem-focused coping, and rating of academic standing accounted for 7.1% of the variance. The less

often they used detachment, the more often they kept to self, the less often they used problem-focused coping, and the lower they rated their academic standing, the more they perceived their peers as accepting, liking, respecting, or admiring them.

Four predictor variables accounted for 10.5% of the variance in predicting the level of maternal independence-encouragement (secure vs. preoccupied).

Insert Table 6 about here

Degree of loneliness was the best predictor, accounting for 7.6% of the variance. The less lonely persons perceived themselves, the more they perceived their mother as accepting and encouraging their independence. Wishful thinking, achievement rating, and gender accounted for 2.9% of the variance. The less often they used wishful thinking, the higher achievement is rated, and being female, the more they perceived their mother as accepting and encouraging their independence.

A set of five predictor variables, accounting for 17.3% of the variance in explaining the level of paternal independence-encouragement (secure vs.

Insert Table 7 about here

preoccupied). Degree of loneliness was the best predictor, accounting for 8.7% of the variance. The less lonely persons perceived themselves, the more they perceived their father as accepting and encouraging their independence. Gender was the second best predictor adding 3.7% of the explained variance. Males were more likely to view father as encouraging. Seeking social support, problem-focused coping, and wishful thinking accounted for 4.9% of the variance. The less often they used seeking social support, the more often they used problem-focused coping, and the less often they used wishful thinking, the more they perceived their father as accepting and encouraging their independence.

Three significant predictor variables accounted for 11.0% of the variance in predicting the level of maternal acceptance (secure vs dismissing). Degree of

Insert Table 8 about here

loneliness was the best predictor, accounting for 8.8% of the variance. The less lonely persons perceivedthemselves, the more they perceived their mother as communicating love, acceptance and appreciation. Keeping to self and self-blame added 2.2% to the explained variance. The less often they kept to self, and the more often they used self-blame, the more they perceived their mother as communicating love, acceptance, and appreciation.

A set of four significant predictor variables, accounting for 17.2% of the variance was found in explaining the level of paternal acceptance (secure vs. dismissing). Degree of loneliness was the best predictor, accounting for 12.7% of the variance. The

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Insert Table 9 about here

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less lonely persons perceived themselves, the more they perceived their father as communicating love, acceptance, and appreciation. Seeking social support, keeping to self, and gender accounted for 4.5% of the variance. The more often they used seeking social support, the less often they kept to self, and were

male the more they perceived their father as communicating, love, acceptance, and appreciation of the individual.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between Erikson's (1968) concept of ego-identity, attachment theory (Bowlby, 1980), and the process of coping with leaving home to go away to college. A second purpose was to explore the differences of adolescent attachment to mother figures, father figures, and peers separately. More specifically, given Erikson's (1968) recognition that the identity formation process includes the integration of early childhood identifications with psychological aspects of one's child-rearing history, a central question is if particular attachment styles are associated with the classification of ego identity status. A second question focused on ways of coping that might be associated with particular attachment styles, and identity statuses.

The results provide support for previous findings that particular attachment styles are associated with particular ego identity statuses (Lapsley et al.,

1990). In general, Identity Achievers appear to be associated with a secure attachment style, as indicated via the MFP. Identity Achievers viewed their parents as accepting, encouraging their independence, self-reliance, and the development of social and other skills. Identity Achievers also viewed their parents as communicating love, acceptance and appreciation of them. However, when the sub-scales of mother acceptance and father acceptance were analyzed, this remained true only for the mother acceptance sub-scale.

The Moratorium group seems to be associated with a preoccupied or dismissing attachment style. Although not significant in every case, the Moratorium group mean rank was the lowest in each of the sub-scales of the MFP. This would suggest that those in a state of Moratorium view their parents as overprotecting them, failing to help them learn to function independently, and view them as undesirable, a burden, a nuisance, and a source of unhappiness or disappointment. The Identity Diffuse and Foreclosed individuals had higher mean rank scores than the Moratorium group for all the sub-scales of the MFP, indicating that the Diffuse and Foreclosed groups were more secure in their

attachments.

These findings support past researchers (Marcia, 1980; Waterman, 1982; Enright, Lapsley, Drivas, & Fehr, 1980) depiction of family antecedent variables that may be associated with the identity statuses. Specifically, Identity Achievement is associated with a parenting style that encourages autonomy and enhances the individuation process, Foreclosed individuals described their parents as accepting and encouraging, and individuals in a state of Moratorium view parents as disappointed/disapproving of them. These findings do not support previous research in that Diffuse individuals did not view their parents as indifferent and rejecting. However, one must keep in mind that this was in comparison to the other groups and that while they were significantly more secure than the Moratorium group they were not more secure than the other two groups. Also, this is a select population of "successful" adolescents from a competitive university which may not be representative of other adolescents.

Using the full scale scores to evaluate the evidence which indicates that an association exists between particular attachment styles and identity

statuses, the findings are less clear. The Identity Achievers viewed their parents as accepting and encouraging their independence, self-reliance, and the development of social and other skills significantly more so than the Moratorium, Foreclosed, or the Diffused groups. However, when the sub-scales of mother independence and father independence were analyzed, this remained true only for the Foreclosed and Moratorium groups for the mother independence sub-scale. The Identity Achievers, however, did not view their parents as communicating love, acceptance and appreciation of them significantly more so than the other groups.

These results suggest that when one looks at a certain domain, in this case occupation, and compares it to global scores the pattern of findings which emerges may change. This suggests that certain aspects of identity may be affected by attachment relationships while others are less affected. Waterman (1985) argues that the treatment of identity as a global quality has led to an underutilization of the identity construct and its potential explanatory power for the understanding of adolescent development. This

difference found with the relationships between attachment style and identity status depending on how the construct of identity status is defined lends support to Waterman's (1982) argument. Identity formation by adolescents is not simply a global process but a series of tasks and only focusing attention on the overall identity status of an adolescent may lead to wrong conclusions about identity formation. As these results suggest, by more narrowly defining the identity construct a more detailed picture has emerged. Although this study only focused on the occupational scale classification of identity status, future research needs to be conducted utilizing the other domains (religious beliefs, political ideology, and social roles) in order to evaluate the utility of these methods of classifying identity status. In addition, the pattern of results also differed depending on which attachment figure was the focus of analysis. While the pattern of results did not change dramatically, they provide a basis for the argument to look beyond the primary caregiver-child dyad (Ainsworth, 1989) and that other attachment relationships may influence a child's development. Research with non-college populations is

also necessary to evaluate the generalizability of these results.

These data on perceived parental behavior suggest that certain family styles can be detected that differentiate between adolescents on identity formation. However, because these data are perception data only, caution must be taken to avoid overgeneralizations. Further research attempts are needed to look at adolescent perceptions, parental self-reports, and actual parent-child interaction patterns before we have a comprehensive profile of the impact family relationships have on identity status development. Waterman (1982) cautions that even if self-reports of parental behavior are accurate, causality can not be assumed. The relationship between a child and his/her parent is not unidirectional, it is a process in which both are active participants. A child's behavior may elicit responses from the parent, which may elicit more behavior from the child, this chain may account for the observed relationship. Longitudinal studies are necessary to evaluate the process by which attachment contributes to identity formation.

One interesting finding in regard to the relationship between identity statuses and attachment styles as measured by the MFP is that for neither the occupational or full scale classification of the identity statuses did peer acceptance differentiate between these groups. A possible explanation of this finding may be that for this sub-scale the subject is asked to respond to questions about "other children" instead of being more specific. As Ainsworth (1989) suggests, some, but not all, friendships have an attachment component. Ainsworth (1989) points out that attachments pertain to the individual in a dyadic relationship with another specific person. It may be that differences in acceptance of peers in general has no effect, but that if instead "friend" were substituted for "other children" there may be a difference between the identity statuses. These results suggest that future research will need to continue to explore the relationship of peer/friend acceptance and identity status. Kamptner (1988) suggests that security in familial relations enhances identity development indirectly by enhancing adolescents social confidence and degree of

interpersonal affiliation.

Although the above discussion did not discuss gender differences it can not be assumed that there are none. The analyses conducted in regard to gender differences only tested "main effects". The correlations reported suggest the importance of looking at gender differences. It is quite possible that there may be some interactional effects between gender and identity, as well as between gender and social desirability. It is possible that significant correlations for males combined with nonsignificant correlations for females were responsible for the nonsignificant correlations between social desirability and identity status. This study did not address this possibility. Future research in this area needs to examine gender differences more closely.

The results from this study, that degree of loneliness was the best predictor of attachment style, supports previous research that suggests that antecedent family variables may play a role in the mechanism which perpetuates loneliness (Rich & Bonner, 1987; Hojat, 1987; Andersson, Mullins, & Johnson, 1987; Hojat, Borenstein, & Shapurian, 1990). These results

indicate that individuals secure in their attachments perceived themselves as having adequate social relationships and as being less lonely than those who were insecure in their attachments.

The mechanisms that perpetuate loneliness have yet to be extensively studied (Weiss, 1987). Loneliness has been found to be related to negative perceptions of self and one's social skills. Lonely people tend to indicate a low opinion of their own self-worth, the belief that others share this view, inadequate coping strategies, hostility and excessive social vigilance. (Jones, Freemon, & Goswick, 1981; Russell et al., 1980). Weiss (1987) argues that attachment theory may be a useful framework for integrating research findings concerning the nature of loneliness. Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1980) stresses that neglect in early childhood may lead to relational problems later in life. Previous research has indicated that too much or too little parental control, a lack of positive involvement of parents with their children, and low levels of familial support result in greater loneliness later in life (Andersson et al., 1987; Lobdell & Perlman, 1986; Rich & Bonner; Kobak et al., 1987). Results from this

study suggest that individuals who felt their parents accepted and encouraged their independence, self reliance and development of social skills, and communicated love and appreciation of them experienced less loneliness. Insecure attachment may be a perpetuating mechanism of loneliness in that these individuals have not been encouraged to function independently, develop social skills or feel that they are appreciated. The attachment relationship appears to be consistently and positively associated to greater reported social competence and more satisfactory interpersonal functioning. However, these findings have been based on self-report measures. Future studies are needed in which participants are asked to keep logs to monitor their actual quality of support. These results suggest that the pathway may be that those secure in their attachments may feel better about themselves and thus tend to have better relations with others, tending to be less lonely. Further study of the link between attachment and loneliness is warranted.

These results support the notion that the individual's working model of attachment may be useful

in guiding behavior in stressful situations. The results reveal that different ways of coping are associated with the sub-scales of the MFP. Before discussing these results an important caveat must be given. The Ways of Coping Scales were significantly correlated with the Crowne-Marlowe social desirability inventory, however the multiple regression analyses conducted did not include the Crowne-Marlowe. Thus, these results indicating that ways of coping may be related to different attachment patterns must be viewed with caution. With this caveat in mind, the association between coping and attachment patterns will be discussed. For the independence scales (parental, mother, father) of the MFP secure attachment is associated with less use of seeking social support and wishful thinking and more use of problem-focused coping. This result seems to support the theoretical and research based notion that those with secure attachments are likely to constructively regulate their affect in stressful situations (Kobak et al., 1988).

For the acceptance scales (parental, mother, father) of the MFP secure attachment is associated with less use of keeping to self and more use of self-blame

coping. This result seem to be supportive of the notion that secure individuals are more likely to make better use of their social support system and take responsibility for their decisions (in this case going away to college).

For the peer acceptance scale secure attachment is associated with less use of detachment, more use of keeping to self, and the less use of problem-focused coping. As previously stated, this scale may not be measuring what it purports to measure (attachment) in light of the fact that it is a scale which asks the subject to rate each item in terms of "other children". This may be a possible explanation for why this scale is almost a mirror image of the other findings cited above. It may be that in terms of being "secure" with ones peers is a different process. Future research needs to explore this avenue.

An interesting gender difference emerged in the use of the mother and father independence scales. Females were more likely to perceive their mother as accepting and encouraging their independence while males were more likely to perceive their father as accepting and encouraging their independence. These

results suggest that the attachment literature must take great care to evaluate the attachment style for both parents, not simply one or the other. Limiting evaluation of attachment style to only one parent may lead to faulty conclusions in light of the above finding. The only gender difference which emerges for the acceptance scales of the MFP is on the father acceptance scale. Again, males are more likely to perceive their fathers as communicating love, acceptance and appreciation of them.

Although the above findings of attachment as measured by the MFP support previous research, the results were different for the independence versus acceptance scales. This points to the need for more research to be conducted to explore the relationship between the MFP and the three attachment styles. Questions to explore about the MFP include but are not limited to, how is security as defined by independence versus defined by acceptance different? It may be that these scales are tapping the family relationship patterns of "individuality" and "connectedness" (respectively) as discussed by Grotevant and Cooper (1985); what are the mechanisms which account for the

gender differences? It may be that adolescents perceive their relationship as more secure with their same sex parent due to gender identification issues; what is the difference between parental and peer acceptance/attachment? As previously suggested it may be that the MFP is too general when asking about peers or that the process of attachment with peer is different, being moderated by familial attachment. The MFP seems to be a promising instrument worthy of further study. However, the results from this study suggest that social desirability may be a confounding variable. Future research will need to address this issue. A possible solution would be to enter social desirability scores as a predictor in multiple regression analyses employing the MFP as the criterion.

A few limitations of the present study, although previously mentioned, need to be reviewed. While this research attempted to address the issue of gender differences in terms of ego-identity and attachment, the only analyses conducted in this study were correlational in nature. In order to better address gender issues, future researchers need to go beyond correlational analyses. A second limitation of the

present study is that the measures used all relied on the individual's perception of their circumstances. In order to further explore the connection between attachment and loneliness, subjects could be asked to complete a log in which their amount and quality of contact with others is documented. A third limitation is that some of the measures used in this study seem to be confounded by social desirability. This indicates that the results discussed here need to be taken as tentative conclusions. A final limitation is that subjects in this study were only questioned once in thier freshmen year. If leaving home is truly a process then much could be gained by following these freshmen throughout the entire year.

In conclusion, this study provides tentative evidence for a relationship between Erikson's (1968) concept of ego-identity, attachment theory (Bowlby, 1980), ways of coping and loneliness. In general, Identity Achievers were associated with having more secure attachments. Secure individuals were found to perceive themselves as less lonely. Ways of coping were found to be associated with different attachment styles, however the measure of coping that was used was

highly correlated with a measure of social desirability. This research suggests that to fully understand the formation of identity in adolescence the different domains associated with the identity construct must be taken into account. Also, it is important to not only focus on the primary caregiver-child attachment but also on the separate mother figure, father figure, and peer figure attachments.

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Table 1

Pearson r correlations

	Gender	Crowne-Marlowe
OM-EIS Occupation Scale		
Diffuse	-.09	-.08
Foreclose	.08	-.03
Moratorium	.02	.11
Achiever	-.11	-.04
OM-EIS Full Scale		
Diffuse	.04	-.15
Foreclose	.03	.06
Moratorium	-.06	.08
Achiever	-.05	-.02
Mother-Father-Peer Scales		
Independence Scale	.05	-.15
Mother Figure	-.05	-.07
Father Figure	.17*	-.08
Acceptance Scale	.01	.04
Mother Figure	.01	-.13
Father Figure	.04	.14
Peer Acceptance	-.10	-.03

Table 1 Continued

	Gender	Crowne-Marlowe
Ways of Coping Scales		
Problem-Focused	-.04	.55***
Wishful Thinking	-.17*	.46***
Detachment	-.09	.25**

Focusing on Positive	-.08	.42***
Self-Blame	-.16*	.54***
Tension Reduction	-.12	.32***
Keep to Self	-.11	.19**
UCLA Loneliness Score	.06	-.07

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 2

Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses

Predictor	Criterion						
	Par-Ind	Par-Acc	Peer-Acc	Mom-Ind	Dad-Ind	Mom-Acc	Dad-Acc
Degree of Loneliness	**	*	****	*****	*	**	
Seeking Social Support	**						
Detachment/Distancing			**				
Keep to self/Isolation		**					
Problem-Focused			*		*		
Gender							
Self-Blame							
Wishful-Thinking							
Achievement Rating							
Academic Standing							
Academic Satisfaction							
Focusing on Positive							
Tension Reduction							

*p < .05. **p <.01. ***p < .001. ****p < .0001.

Table 3

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Level of Parental Independence-Encouragement

Predictor variable	Corr. with criterion	Usefulness index	Unstandardized b	Standard error of b	t for B = 0
Degree of loneliness	-.245	.060	-.386	.124	-3.10**
Seeking social support	-.149	.028	-.821	.339	-2.42**
Problem focused	.002	.016	.359	.244	1.47

$R = .104$, $F(3, 121) = 4.67$, $p < .01$

** $p < .01$.

Table 4

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Level of Parental Acceptance

Predictor variable	Corr. with criterion	Usefulness index	Unstandardized b	Standard error of b	t for B = 0
Degree of loneliness	-.269	.072	-.205	.102	-2.00*
Self-blame	.018	.005	.536	.402	1.34
Keeping to self	-.191	.011	-.709	.573	-1.24

$R = .088$, F (3, 121) = 3.91, $p < .01$

*$p < .05$.

Table 5

Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Level of Peer Acceptance

Predictor variable	Corr. with criterion	Usefulness index	Unstandardized b	Standard error of b	t for B = 0
Degree of loneliness	-.646	.418	-.547	.059	-9.21****
Detachment	-.187	.027	-.479	.172	-2.79**
Keeping to self	.337	.013	.858	.331	2.59**
Problem focused	-.167	.021	.196	.087	-2.25*
Academic standing	-.150	.010	-.729	.458	1.59

$R = .489$, F (5, 119) = 22.83, $p < .0001$

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ****$p < .0001$

Table 6

Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Level of Maternal Independence-Encouragement

Predictor variable	Corr. with criterion	Usefulness index	Unstandardized b	Standard error of b	t for B = 0
Degree of loneliness	-.275	.076	-1.98	.075	-2.65**
Wishful thinking	-.185	.014	-.245	1.19	-1.42
Achievement rating	.109	.009	1.51	1.19	1.27
Gender	-.052	.006	-1.32	1.58	-.836

$R = .105$, F (4, 120) = 3.53, $p < .01$

**$p < .01$.

Table 7

Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Level of Paternal Independence-Encouragement

Predictor variable	Corr. with criterion	Usefulness index	Unstandardized b	Standard error of b	t for B = 0
Degree of loneliness	-.259	.087	-.219	.067	-3.28***
Gender	.173	.037	.216	.141	1.53
Seeking social support	-.130	.011	-.311	.186	1.67
Problem focused	.055	.027	.288	.129	2.22*
Wishful thinking	-.203	.011	-.223	.179	-1.25

$R = .173$, F (5, 117) = 4.88, $p < .001$

*$p < .05$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 8

Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Level of Maternal Acceptance

Predictor variable	Corr. with criterion	Usefulness index	Unstandardized b	Standard error of b	t for B = 0
Degree of loneliness	-.297	.088	-.105	.049	-2.13*
Keeping to self	-.226	.006	-.426	.275	-1.55
Self-blame	.008	.016	.281	.193	1.46

$R = .110$, F (3, 121) = 4.96, $p < .01$

*$p < .05$.

Table 9

Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Level of Paternal Acceptance

Predictor variable	Corr. with criterion	Usefulness index	Unstandardized b	Standard error of b	t for B = 0
Degree of loneliness	-.357	.127	-.144	.058	-2.51**
Seeking social support	.141	.015	.235	.114	2.06*
Keeping to self	-.287	.024	-.485	.279	-1.74
Gender	.040	.006	.967	.105	.921

$R = .172$, F (4, 118) = 6.13, $p < .001$

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Appendix A

Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status Scale

(Adams et al., 1979)

Instructions: Read each item and indicate to what degree it fits your own impressions as to how it best reflects your thoughts and feelings.

Use the following scale for each item:

1=Strongly Disagree
2=Moderately Disagree
3=Disagree
4=Agree
5=Moderately Agree
6=Strongly Agree

1. ____I haven't really considered politics. They just don't excite me much.
2. ____I might have though about a lot of different things but there's never really been a decision since my parents said what they wanted.
3. ____When it comes to religion I just haven't found any that I'm really into myself.
4. ____My parents had it decided a long time ago what I should go into and I'm following their plans.
5. ____There are so many different political parties and ideals. I Can't decide which to follow until I figure it all out.

1=Strongly Disagree
2=Moderately Disagree
3=Disagree
4=Agree
5=Moderately Agree
6=Strongly Agree

6.____I don't give religion much though and it doesn't bother me one way or the other.

7.____I guess I'm pretty much like my folks when it comes to politics. I follow what they do in terms of voting and such.

8.____I haven't chosen the occupation I really want to get into, but I'm working toward becoming a _____ until something better comes along.

9.____A person's faith is unique to each individual. I've considered and reconsidered it myself and know what I can believe.

10.____It took me a long time to decide but now I know for sure what direction to move in for a career.

11.____I really never was involved in politics enough to have to make a firm stand one way or the other.

12.____I'm not so sure what religion means to me. I'd like to make up my mind but I'm not done looking yet.

1=Strongly Disagree
2=Moderately Disagree
3=Disagree
4=Agree
5=Moderately Agree
6=Strongly Agree

13.____I've thought my political beliefs through and realize I may or may not agree with many of my parent's beliefs.

14.____It took me a while to figure it out, but now I really know what I want for a career.

15.____Religion is confusing to me right now. I keep changing my views on what is right and wrong to me.

16.____I'm sure it will be pretty easy for me to change my occupational goals when something better comes along.

17.____My folks have always had their own political and moral beliefs about issues like abortion and mercy killing and I've always gone along accepting what they have.

18.____I've gone through a period of serious questioning about faith and can now say I understand what I believe in as an individual.

19.____I'm not sure about my political beliefs, but I'm trying to figure out what I can truly believe in.

1=Strongly Disagree
2=Moderately Disagree
3=Disagree
4=Agree
5=Moderately Agree
6=Strongly Agree

20.____I just can't decide how capable I am as a person and what jobs I'll be right for.

21.____I attend the same church as my family has always attended. I've never really questioned why.

22.____I just can't decide what to do for an occupation. There are so many that have possibilities.

23.____I've never really questioned my religion. If it's right for my parents it must be right for me.

24.____Politics are something that I can never be too sure about because thing change so fast. But I do think it's important to know what I believe in.

Appendix B

Consent Form

Parent-Adolescent Relationships

I am doing research concerning the relationship late adolescents have with their parents. If you decide to take part in this project, you will be asked to answer several questionnaires that deal with family and social relationships and academic satisfaction. Your answers will be completely confidential. Each participant will be assigned an identification number and only that number will be associated with your responses. Taking part in this project is entirely up to you and no one will hold it against you if you choose not to participate. If you do take part in the study, you may stop at any time.

If you want to know more about this research, please call D. Ventis, Ph. D. (221-2457) or J. Galano, Ph. D. (221-3870). You will get a copy of this consent form.

I agree to take part in this project. I know what I have to do and that I can stop at any time.

_____ _____

Signature Date

Appendix C

Assessment Measures

Mother-father-peer Scale (Epstein, 1985).

Directions: Read each item and indicate the extent to which the following statements describe your childhood relationship with the people indicated.

Use the following scale for each item:

1=Strongly Disagree
2=Somewhat Disagree
3=Uncertain About Statement
4=Somewhat Agree
5=Strongly Agree

WHEN I WAS A CHILD, MY MOTHER (or mother substitute):

____ 1. encouraged me to make my own decisions.

____ 2. helped me learn to be independent.

____ 3. felt she had to fight my battles for me when I had a disagreement with a teacher or friend.

____ 4. was overprotective of me.

____ 5. encouraged me to do things for myself.

____ 6. encouraged me to try things my way.

____ 7. did not let me do things that other kids my age were allowed to do.

____ 8. sometimes disapproved of specific things I did, but never gave me the impression that she disliked me as a person.

1=Strongly Disagree 4=Somewhat Agree

2=Somewhat Disagree 5=Strongly Agree

3=Uncertain About Statement

____ 9. enjoyed being with me.

____10. was someone I found very difficult to please.

____11. usually supported me when I wanted to do new and exciting things.

____12. worried too much that I would hurt myself or get sick.

____13. was often rude to me.

____14. rarely did things with me.

____15. didn't like to have me around the house.

____16. would often do things for me that I could do for myself.

____17. let me handle my own money.

____18. could always be depended upon when I really needed her help and trust.

____19. did not want me to grow up.

____20. tried to make me feel better when I was unhappy.

____21. encouraged me to express my own opinion.

____22. made me feel that I was a burden to her.

1=Strongly Disagree 4=Somewhat Agree

2=Somewhat Disagree 5=Strongly Agree

3=Uncertain About Statement

____23. gave me the feeling that she liked me as I was; she didn't feel she had to make me over into someone else.

WHEN I WAS A CHILD, MY FATHER (or father substitute):

____24. encouraged me to make my own decisions.

____25. helped me learn to be independent.

____26. felt he had to fight my battles for me when I had a disagreement with a teacher or friend.

____27. was overprotective of me.

____28. encouraged me to do things for myself.

____29. encouraged me to try things my way.

____30. did not let me do things that other kids my age were allowed to do.

____31. sometimes disapproved of specific things I did, but never gave me the impression that he disliked me as a person.

____32. enjoyed being with me.

____33. was someone I found very difficult to please.

____34. usually supported me when I wanted to do new and exciting things.

1=Strongly Disagree 4=Somewhat Agree

2=Somewhat Disagree 5=Strongly Agree

3=Uncertain About Statement

____35. worried too much that I would hurt myself or get sick.

____36. was often rude to me.

____37. rarely did things with me.

____38. didn't like to have me around the house.

____39. would often do things for me that I could do for myself.

____40. let me handle my own money.

____41. could always be depended upon when I really needed his help and trust.

____42. did not want me to grow up.

____43. tried to make me feel better when I was unhappy.

____44. encouraged me to express my own opinion.

____45. made me feel that I was a burden to her.

____46. gave me the feeling that he liked me as I was; he didn't feel he had to make me over into someone else.

WHEN I WAS A CHILD, <u>OTHER CHILDREN</u>:

____47. liked to play with me.

1=Strongly Disagree 4=Somewhat Agree

2=Somewhat Disagree 5=Strongly Agree

3=Uncertain About Statement

____48. were always criticizing me.

____49. often share things with me.

____50. often picked on me and teased me.

____51. were usually friendly to me.

____52. would usually stick up for me.

____53. liked to ask me to go along with them.

____54. wouldn't listen when I tried to say something.

____55. were often unfair to me.

____56. would often try to hurt my feelings.

Personal Reactions Survey (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964)

Instructions: Indicate True or False for each item.

____ 1. Before voting I thoroughly investigate the qualifications of all the candidates.

____ 2. I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.

____ 3. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.

____ 4. I have never intensely dislike anyone.

____ 5. On occasion I have had doubts about my abilities to succeed in life.

____ 6. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.

____ 7. I am always careful about my manner of dress.

____ 8. My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant.

____ 9. If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen, I would probably do it.

____10. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.

____11. I like to gossip at times.

Indicate True or False for each item.

____12. There have been times when I felt like rebelling.

____13. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.

____14. I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.

____15. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.

____16. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.

____17. I always try to practice what I preach.

____18. I don't find it particularly difficult to get along with loud-mouthed, obnoxious people.

____19. I sometimes try to get even, rather than to forgive and forget.

____20. When I don't know something, I don't at all mind admitting it.

____21. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.

____22. At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.

Indicate True or False for each item.

____23. There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.

____24. I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoings.

____25. I never resent being asked to return a favor.

____26. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.

____27. I never make a long trip without checking the safety of my car.

____28. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortunes of others.

____29. I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off.

____30. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask me favors.

____31. I have never felt that I was punished without cause.

____32. I sometimes think that when people have a misfortune they only got what they deserved.

____33. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

UCLA Loneliness Scale-Revised (Russell et al., 1980)

Directions: Indicate how often you feel the way described in each of the following statements.

Use the following scale for each item:

1=Never 2=Rarely 3=Sometimes 4=Often

____ 1. I feel in tune with the people around me.

____ 2. I lack companionship.

____ 3. There is no one I can turn to.

____ 4. I do not feel alone.

____ 5. I feel part of a group of friends.

____ 6. I have a lot in common with the people around me.

____ 7. I am no longer close to anyone.

____ 8. My interests and ideas are not shared by those around me.

____ 9. I am an outgoing person.

____10. There are people I feel close to.

____11. I feel left out.

____12. My social relationships are superficial.

____13. No one really knows me well.

____14. I feel isolated from others.

____15. I can find companionship when I want it.

____16. There are people who really understand me.

1=Never 2=Rarely 3=Sometimes 4=Often

____17. I am unhappy being so withdrawn.

____18. People are around me but not with me.

____19. There are people I can talk to.

____20. There are people I can turn to.

Additional Information:

1. Gender: ____Female ____Male

2. Age ____

3. I have problems with my academic courses:

Not at all Very

True of me True of me

1 2 3 4 5 6

4. How Satisfied are you with your academic performance at this point in time.

Not at all Extremely

Satisfied Satisfied

1 2 3 4 5 6

5. How would you rate your achievement in college so far.

____worse than I expected

____about what I expected

____better than I expected

Ways of Coping Scale-Revised (Lazarus & Folkman, 1985)

Directions: Read each item below and indicate to what extent you have used it in coping with leaving home to go away to college.

Use the following scale for each item:

0=Not used OR not applicable 2=Used quite a bit

1=Used somewhat 3=Used a great deal

____ 1. Just concentrated on what I had to do next-the next step.

____ 2. I tried to analyze the problem in order to understand it better.

____ 3. Turned to work or substitute activity to take my mind off things.

____ 4. I felt that time would make a difference- the only thing to do was to wait.

____ 5. Bargained or compromised to get something positive from the situation.

____ 6. I did something which I didn't think would work, but at least I was doing something.

____ 7. Tried to get the person responsible to change his or her mind.

____ 8. Talked to someone to find out about the situation.

0=Not used OR not applicable 2=Used quite a bit

1=Used somewhat 3=Used a great deal

____ 9. Criticized or lectured myself.

____10. Tried not to burn my bridges, but leave things open somewhat.

____11. Hoped a miracle would happen.

____12. Went along with fate; sometimes I just have bad luck.

____13. Went on as if nothing had happened.

____14. I tried to keep my feelings to myself.

____15. Looked for the silver lining, so to speak; tried to look on the bright side of things.

____16. Slept more than usual.

____17. I expressed anger to the person(s) who caused the problem.

____18. Accepted sympathy and understanding from someone.

____19. I told myself things that helped me to feel better.

____20. I was inspired to do something creative.

____21. Tried to forget the whole thing

____22. I got professional help.

____23. Changed or grew as a person in a good way.

0=Not used OR not applicable 2=Used quite a bit

1=Used somewhat 3=Used a great deal

____24. I waited to see what would happen before doing anything.

____25. I apologized or did something to make up.

____26. I made a plan of action and followed it.

____27. I accepted the next best thing to what I wanted.

____28. I let my feelings out somehow.

____29. Realized I brought the problem on myself.

____30. I came out of the experience better than when I went in.

____31. I talked to someone who could do something concrete about the problem.

____32. Got away from it for awhile; tried to rest or take a vacation.

____33. Tried to make myself feel better by eating, drinking, smoking, using drugs or medication, etc.

____34. Took a big chance or did something very risky.

____35. I tried not to act too hastily or follow my first hunch.

____36. Found new faith.

0=Not used OR not applicable 2=Used quite a bit

1=Used somewhat 3=Used a great deal

____37. Maintained my pride and kept a stiff upper lip.

____38. Rediscovered what is important in life.

____39. Changed something so things would turn out all right.

____40. Avoided being with people in general.

____41. Didn't let it get to me; refused to think too much about it.

____42. I asked a relative or friend I respected for advice.

____43. Kept others from knowing how bad things were.

____44. Made light of the situation; refused to get too serious about it.

____45. Talked to someone about how I was feeling.

____46. Stood my ground and fought for what I wanted.

____47. Took it out on other people.

____48. Drew on my past experiences; I was in a similar situation before.

____49. I knew what had to be done, so I doubled my efforts to make things work.

____50. Refused to believe that it had happened.

0=Not used OR not applicable 2=Used quite a bit

1=Used somewhat 3=Used a great deal

____51. I made a promise to myself that things would be different next time.

____52. Came up with a couple of different solutions to the problem.

____53. Accepted it, since nothing could be done.

____54. I tried to keep my feelings from interfering with other things too much.

____55. Wished that I could change what had happened or how I felt.

____56. I changed something about myself.

____57. I daydreamed or imagined a better time or place than the one I was in.

____58. Wished that the situation would go away or somehow be over with.

____59. Had fantasies or wishes about how things might turn out.

____60. I prayed.

____61. I prepared myself for the worst.

____62. I went over in my mind what I would do or say.

____63. I thought about how a person I admire would handle this situation and used that as a model.

0=Not used OR not applicable 2=Used quite a bit

1=Used somewhat 3=Used a great deal

____64. I tried to see things from the other person's point of view.

____65. I reminded myself how much worse things could be.

____66. I jogged or exercised.

Appendix D

Ways of Coping Scale Examples

Below is a list of each type of coping style followed by a statement which characterizes that style.

Problem-Focused Coping:"I made a plan of action and followed it";

Emotion-Focused Coping:

Wishful-thinking:"Wished that the situation would go away or somehow be over with";

Detachment: "Went on as if nothing happened";

Focusing on the positive:"Looked for the silver lining, so to speak, tried to look on the bright side of things";

Self-blame:"Realized I brought the problem on myself";

Tension-reduction: "Get away from it for a while; try to rest or take a vacation";

Keep to self: "Kept others from knowing how bad things were".

Mixed Problem and Emotion-Focused Coping:

Seeking social support: "Talked to someone to find out more about the situation".

VITA

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