

1995

ANXIETY IN MILITARY MEMBERS AND THEIR SPOUSES OVER THE FIRST TWELVE MONTHS AFTER RELOCATION

Sanneman Kelly, Susan

<http://hdl.handle.net/10026.1/2171>

<http://dx.doi.org/10.24382/4220>

University of Plymouth

All content in PEARL is protected by copyright law. Author manuscripts are made available in accordance with publisher policies. Please cite only the published version using the details provided on the item record or document. In the absence of an open licence (e.g. Creative Commons), permissions for further reuse of content should be sought from the publisher or author.



store

ANXIETY IN MILITARY MEMBERS
AND THEIR SPOUSES OVER THE
FIRST TWELVE MONTHS AFTER RELOCATION

REFERENCE ONLY

Susan Sanneman Kelly, B.A., M.A.

A Dissertation Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Saint Louis University in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

1995

THESIS
150
KEL

UMI Number: 9543331

Copyright 1995 by
Kelly, Susan Sanneman
All rights reserved.

UMI Microform 9543331

Copyright 1995, by UMI Company. All rights reserved.

This microform edition is protected against unauthorized
copying under Title 17, United States Code.

UMI

300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48103

COMMITTEE IN CHARGE OF CANDIDACY:

Associate Professor John K. DiTiberio,
Chairperson and Advisor

Professor Robert E. Hale

Associate Professor Michael J. Garanzini, S.J.

c Copyright by
Susan S. Kelly
ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

1995

900 867157 X

STORE 150 KEL

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

UMI

A Bell & Howell Information Company
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
313/761-4700 800/521-0600

Research of the impact of relocation has failed to produce a theoretical foundation and is predominantly polarized into positive and negative effects. Two themes, however, recur throughout the literature: a) the experience of relocation includes loss, and b) wives feel the impact of relocation more severely than their husbands. Parkes' theory of psychosocial transition (1971) encapsulates the theme of loss. In this study, anxiety of 314 active duty men and women and their civilian spouses was measured 1-12 months after a military move to explore the fit of Parkes' model to relocation. Impacts of relocation by gender and roles (active duty versus civilian) were compared. In a qualitative component to the study, gains and losses created by the relocation were also explored along with behaviors that helped subjects feel more at home in the new place.

A 2x2x2 factorial design was used with three independent variables of time since move, gender and role. The dependent variable was state anxiety as measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), Form Y (Spielberger, 1983). A .05 level of significance was used in the hypothesis testing.

As proposed by Parkes' psychosocial transition model, military couples that had relocated 1-6 months previous scored significantly higher in state anxiety than military couples who had moved 7-12 months previous. Members and spouses also differed significantly in anxiety across education levels, ranks, and ages, as well as number of children living with the couple. Results of this project support previous findings that relocation impacts women more intensely than men, but not for the previously purported reason - lack of familiar work setting. Women exhibited significantly higher levels of anxiety whether they were employed full time (active duty) or civilian spouses following their active duty husbands.

Each group of subjects overwhelmingly identified loss of friends as a severe loss due to the move. For subjects on active duty, the most positive gains of relocation during the first year were family closeness and benefits of new jobs. The dominant theme for the civilian spouses was the benefits of the new environment. Buying and working on new homes was the most helpful behavior for all groups during the first year after relocation.

Dedication
To my husband,
William Anthony Kelly,
and our wonderful children,
Brendan, Erin, and Kathryn

Acknowledgements

While completing my doctoral program and this research project, I have become indebted to many caring people. Without each of them, this project would not have become a reality.

First, I wish to express my appreciation to Dr. John DiTiberio for years of patience and words of encouragement. His kind spirit was often the key ingredient to my persistence during this endeavor. I thank Dr. Robert Hale. His gentle guidance and willingness to help made a lasting, significant difference. Fr. Michael Garanzini wisely required me to interview recently relocated civilian families before beginning relocation research with military families. Thank you for expanding my perspective.

I am grateful to the many people at Scott AFB who participated in the study and encouraged me to “keep going.” Particular thanks are deserved by the Family Support Center staff: Roseann Jokerst, Lynne Fichtel, John Steffen, Pete Smithley, Neal Husome, Pat Gay, Linda Carroll, Mike Crowe, Lacy Evans and Sandy McKinley. Their continuous hard work with military families inspired me daily.

Kathy Nemcik doubled as my secretary and guardian angel. Without Kathy, this project would not have been finished. I am forever in her debt.

Not a small thanks goes to my colleagues and supervisors at the Air Force Family Matters Office, Pentagon. Over the last year of this work, their understanding and support was of great value to me.

Family and friends constantly reminded me that this project was important. Only a few are Victoria Cullen, Debbie and Gary Gordon, John and Terry Day, Maureen Bonanfant, Patricia Meere, Mona and Chip Bridges, Donna and Gayle Baker, and Linda McKay. Each and every word of encouragement was appreciated.

My humble thanks goes to my parents, Gene and Florence Sanneman. Their earliest relocation caused them great sacrifice, but changed my life. I thank them for seeing me through this project, all my relocations, and for always being “home.”

In addition, I wish to thank my sisters and brother, Debbie, Myra, and Doug. Their question “Aren’t you finished yet?” served to push me onward, in ways that only siblings can understand. They are

in this project - under most helpful behaviors after relocation.

My children deserve special acknowledgement and thanks.

Brendan, and his wisdom, Erin with her perfect balance of caring and sense of fun, and Kate with her keen insight, provided a safety net when the “goin’ got tough.” I hope to return the favor, many times.

Finally, to Bill Kelly, thank you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter I: Introduction to the Problem	1
Background to the Study	2
Civilian/Military Mobility Compared	4
Relocation Impacts: Lacking a Theoretical Foundation	7
Relocation: A Psychosocial Transition	9
Adjustment to Relocation: A Gender or Role Difference?	12
Need for the Study	15
Purpose of the Study	16
Research Questions	18
Explanation of Terms	18
Summary	19
Chapter II: Review of the Literature	21
Overview	21
The Evolving Perspective of Mobility	22
Losses of Relocation	31
Processes of Relocation	42
Parkes Theory of Psychosocial Transition	54

Relocation Impact: A Gender Difference?	63
Summary of Implications	69
Chapter III: Methodology	74
Description of Sample	74
Selection of Subjects	75
Instruments	77
State-Trait Anxiety Inventory	77
Open-ended Questionnaire	81
Design	82
Null Hypotheses	83
Procedures	83
Summary	85
Chapter IV: Data Analysis and Results	89
Review of Methodology	89
Sample and Response Rate	91
Male Military Members	91
Female Military Members	92
Demographic Data	94

Quantitative Data Analysis And Results	98
Qualitative Data Analysis and Results	112
Most Severe Losses Reported 0-6 Months After	
Relocation	113
Most Severe Losses Reported 7-12 Months After	
Relocation	117
Most Positive Gains Reported 0-6 Months After	
Relocation	121
Most Positive Gains Reported 7-12 Months After	
Relocation	126
Most Helpful Behaviors Reported 0-6 Months After	
Relocation	130
Most Helpful Behaviors Reported 7-12 Months After	
Relocation	135
Summary of the Findings	142
Chapter V: Discussion, Implications, and Suggestions	146
Summary of the Findings	146
Quantitative Data Analysis and Results	146

Qualitative Data Analysis and Results	149
Discussion	151
Subjects	151
Anxiety Measurement	153
Quantitative Data Results	154
Qualitative Data Results	165
Implications	170
Parkes Psychosocial Transition Model	171
Anxiety by Gender and Role	178
Limitations of the Study	188
Recommendations for Future Research	190
Appendix A	192
Appendix B	195
Appendix C	204
Bibliography	213
Vita Auctoris	227

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Age, Education, Number of Moves, and Time at Former Base: Data of Spouses and Military Members	96
Table 2	Means and Standard Deviations of State Anxiety Scores by Time Since Move, Gender, and Role	100
Table 3	State Anxiety Score Analysis of Variance for Time Since Move, Gender, and Role	101
Table 4	State Anxiety Scores Analysis of Variance for Income, Rank, Length of Service, Number of Moves, Age, Education, Number of Children, and Time Lived at Prior Base	105
Table 5	Means and Standard Deviations of Trait Anxiety Scores by Time Since Move, Gender, and Role	110
Table 6	Trait Anxiety Score Analysis of Variance for Time Since Move, Gender, and Role	111
Table 7	Major Themes in Responses to Most Severe Loss of the Move from Active Duty Men and Women and Civilian Men and Women	143
Table 8	Major Themes in Responses to Most Positive Gains of the Move from Active Duty Men and Women and Civilian Men and Women	144
Table 9	Major Themes in Responses to Most Helpful Behaviors after the Move from Active Duty Men and Women and Civilian Men and Women	145

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction to the Problem

A psychosocial transition has been defined by Parkes to be "... major changes in life space which are lasting in their effects, which take place over a relatively short period of time and which affect large areas of the assumptive world" (Parkes, 1971). Geographic relocation fits the definition of Parkes' psychosocial transition. However, this fit has not been empirically validated. The purpose of the study is to explore the occurrence of one affective response that Parkes states is associated with psychosocial transitions. Specifically, the study will measure anxiety in military members and their spouses. The study will investigate the pattern of anxiety levels during the first twelve months after a military relocation to see if they fit the grief model of Parkes. A fit would expect anxiety levels to peak and then wane as time since relocation increases. The study's second purpose is to compare the anxiety levels of men and women during the first twelve months after a military relocation. Comparisons of responses by gender, and the

possible impact of traditional vs non-traditional roles, will be made.

Background to the Study

America was founded by individuals courageous enough to cross a treacherous ocean in search of religious freedom, prosperity, and a better way of life. Determined pioneers pushed slowly west. They dreamed of land, gold, or just “more elbow room.” These new Americans believed that success in this land of opportunity meant taking advantage of every opportunity—even when it required severing community ties and moving on. Mobility in the new nation came to symbolize a “source of freedom and opportunity” (Kopf, 1977, p. 296).

Predictions that young America’s high mobility rate would decline, once the territories were settled, did not prove accurate. Schumaker and Stokols (1982) have suggested that these predictions were motivated, in part, by the growing negativism about mobility. Americans were becoming viewed as restless and unable to make commitments or build strong social ties. The personal cost of mobility was also noticed. As early as 1850, Ranney noted the effects on migrants of “breaking up of attachments” (p.14) and stated these

broken bonds tried even the strongest individuals (cited in Smith, 1983). Kopf (1977) explained that “. . . for Americans, personal liberty and opportunity may well be inextricably linked to the loss of humane values and social stability” (p. 206). The conflicting meanings of mobility/opportunity, and loss of social ties, created a “divided imagery . . . intertwined to yield a profoundly ambivalent national mythology” (p. 206).

Even today, Americans remain in the grip of this ambivalent mythology. Research on the impact of mobility and frequent relocation has not provided any clarification. Views found in the literature are predominantly divided into negative and positive camps, depending upon the population studied, the effects focused upon, and the orientation of the researcher. For instance, Kantor (1965) declared mobility a cause of poor mental health. Weiss (1969) attributed the rootlessness, isolation, and sense of loss predominant in American migrants to their looking for a home lost from frequent migration. Packard (1972) warned that mobility was creating “a nation of strangers.” More recently, relocation has been described as a simple result of changing needs of a household (Rossi, 1980) with the meaning

ascribed to the move being the chief determinant of impact (Donohue & Gullotta, 1981; Marshall & Cooper, 1986).

The confusing debate about the effects of relocation fails to daunt modern mobility. Americans continue to move as often as our ancestors. One in five families changes residences every year (Gulotta & Donohue, 1982). U.S. corporations transfer about 500,000 employees and their families annually (Herring, 1989b). More specifically, the average American will relocate 14 times over a lifetime (Packard, 1972). Military families are, by far, the largest and most visible group of frequent movers and must be given special consideration in the subject (Hazler & Nass, 1988).

Civilian/Military Mobility Compared

In The Military Family: Dynamics and Treatment (1984), Kaslow and Ridenour stated: "At first blush, the problems besetting service families might seem significantly different from those confronting civilians" (book cover). Family separations, the high regimentation of the organization, and focus on military mission places special strain on military families. With closer scrutiny, however, Kaslow and Ridenour noted that numerous analogies between the

military and civilian populations emerged. Mobility is one such area where several similarities exist.

The U.S. has the highest mobility rate of industrialized nations (Long & Boertlein, 1976). Americans simply relocate more often than citizens of other countries. Likewise, members of the American military move more than any of their international counterparts. The U.S., in fact, is the only country in the world that demands that military personnel routinely relocate as part of duty (R. Panyik, personal communication, January 1992). A military member with 14 years or more of service will make at least eight duty related moves (Lester, 1984).

Both civilian and military families have difficulty with relocations--particularly overseas moves. Twenty percent of transferred corporate executives return to the previous homesite, with the top reason being their spouse's and children's inability to adapt to the new location (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1988). Similarly, military spouses, who can rarely reverse a move, continue to identify permanent change of station (PCS) moves as a major stressor in the military lifestyle (Garamone, 1986). Women's protests about the difficulties of

relocation, from both the civilian and military sectors, have been backed by studies of relocation impacts. Several projects found that the female homemaker is the greatest casualty of the moving process (Jones, 1973; Levine, Groves, & Laurie, 1980; McKain, 1973). In studies of military wives, researchers explained that the military member returns to work in a familiar setting with people who share a mission. The spouse, on the other hand, must reestablish herself in uncharted territory with each move. Loss of her relationships, and support system, while trying to smooth the move for the rest of the family, makes the accompanying spouse vulnerable to isolation, depression, and distancing from others. Ammons, Nelson & Woodarski (1982), Levine et al., (1980), and Tiger (1974) all emphasized that the wife, in comparison to the husband, faces an increased sense of loss and difficulty in adjustment.

The growing evidence of ties between work effectiveness and family is prompting American companies to address family issues in the work place (The Brown University, Family Therapy Letter, May 1992). More and more Employee Assistance Programs (EAP) offer relocation assistance to civilian employees, spouses, and other family

members to help with the impact of mobility (Debates, 1982).

Similarly, the military is responding to family issues. The Air Force created the office of Air Force Family Matters (AFFAM) in 1980 to impact mission readiness by dealing with family concerns. AFFAM has instituted family support programs at all major bases, and Congress now mandates relocation assistance programs in every military family center.

The military life-style is distinct in many ways. On the issue of relocation, however, military families, and services available to the families, mirror the larger mobile America.

Relocation Impacts: Lacking a Theoretical Foundation

The American Psychological Association has given credibility to a legal diagnosis of relocation stress labeled "mobility trauma" (Herring, 1989b, p. 31). Yet, those that have recently reviewed the relocation literature (Barrett & Noble, 1973; Richards, Donohue, Gulotta, 1985) agreed with Morris, Pestanen, and Nelson's 1967 conclusion that the field has no theoretical basis. Summarizing Heller, Walls (1987) stated that "Most studies are post hoc, use subjective data, lack control groups, and ignore long-term effects" (p. 2).

Walls also concluded that there is little systematic empirical research evaluating mobility's psychological effects.

There does appear, however, a recurring theme throughout the literature: loss. This loss takes many forms: loss of identity (Bayes, 1989; Martin-Mathews, 1980; Pinder, 1989; Seidenberg, 1973), home (Jones, 1973; McKain, 1973) geographic familiarity (Fried, 1963; Walker, 1991), power (Berry, 1985; Gaylord, 1979), career (Duncan & Perrucci (1976); Long, 1974), control (Gaylord & Symons 1986), and schedule and belongings (Brett, 1982; Garza-Guerrero, 1974; Jones, 1973; McAllister, 1973). Severing ties with friends, associates, and community was described by Weiss (1969) as loss of the social envelope. This loss of relationships echoes throughout the writings of Bayes (1989), Brett (1982), Martin-Mathews (1980), McAllister, Butler & Kaiser (1973), Packard (1972), and Tiger (1974). Reactions to loss also resound throughout the emotional processes of relocation observed by researchers (Gaylord & Symons, 1986; Herring, 1988, 1989; Jones 1973; Ranney, 1850; Sluzki, 1979; Smith, 1983). A sprinkle of denial, anxiety, confusion, anger, resentment, depression,

and phases of acceptance and adaptation to the move can be found somewhere in each of the descriptions.

Relocation: A Psychosocial Transition

Parkes' (1971) theory of psychosocial transitions encapsulates responses to relocation that these studies have described. A psychosocial transition involves "... major changes in life space which are lasting in their effects, which take place over a relatively short period of time and which affect large areas of the assumptive world" (p. 104).

Parkes' (1971) theory used Kurt Lewin's concept of 'life space' to denote "... those parts of the environment with which the self interacts and in relation to which behavior is organized: other persons, material possessions, the familiar world of home and place of work . . ." (p. 103). Changes in the life space are important or unimportant depending upon their influence on the assumptions we make about our world. We develop affectionate bonds to these assumptions denoted by Parkes as "my's" (p. 104). Parkes briefly illustrated the link between changes in life space, assumptions, and affectionate bonds (my's) through loss of a job. This example fits very

well with change due to a military relocation in that a military spouse most likely leaves a job behind (Military Spouse DoD Survey, 1985). To this relocated, newly unemployed spouse, the loss of a job means changes in the life space through loss of familiar work place, salary, and relationships with fellow employees. Assumptions about how (my) day will be spent, (my) sources of money, (my) security tied to money, and (my) capacity to work will change. The spouse that once assumed the world was secure and accepting, may now see it as a place of high competition where personal skills get rejected or are only good for a less prestigious job.

Simply put, relocation brings changes in the life space impacting assumptions about the world to which a person is affectionately bound. To adjust, a person must give up parts of the self (the my's) and actively formulate a new self that coheres with the new environment. According to Parkes, grief is the inevitable consequence.

The process of grieving has been documented in various psychosocial transitions, the most potent being change in personal relationships (Bloom-Feshbach, Bloom-Feshbach, and Associates, 1987; Bowlby, Lindemann, Marris, Parkes, and Sofer, cited in Parkes,

1971; Parkes, Stevenson & Hinde, 1982). This extensive research uncovered a phase of denial to anxious pining and frustrated searching for the loved one followed by anger, depression, and a final phase of reorganization. This pattern is similar for both children and adults (Bowlby, 1960). Evidence of the final phase, reorganization, included new plans and assumptions about the world and self being built (Parkes, 1971).

Parkes (1971) extended the grief process beyond loss or separation from loved ones by citing similar responses to other life space changes: loss of loved possessions, familiar environment, and physical and mental capabilities. Each of these transitions involved a loss of assumptions that provided a sense of security and protection for the transitioning individual. The individual must formulate a new fit and coherence between the life space and this assumptive world. Only then is the life change of the psychosocial transition mastered.

Clearly, those undergoing a military transfer face many changes in life space. Parkes (1971) viewed changes in personal relationships as paramount, and these are inherent during a PCS move. Change of familiar surroundings, from one military base and civilian community to

the next, is also a given. Further, change of job duties for the member, employment status of the spouse, and family activities are probably included. Shipments of loved possessions may not arrive at the new home for weeks or months. The many losses of "my's" brought by a military relocation can range from the less important (e.g., my grocer) to the most significant (e.g., my best friend). The resulting effort to formulate new assumptions about the world and the self that provide security and protection can be simple or complicated.

Surprisingly, investigations designed to measure the expected grief response to the psychosocial transition of relocation are almost non-existent (Viney & Bazely, 1977).

Adjustment to Relocation: A Gender or Role Difference?

As noted earlier, several studies have reported that the wife, in comparison to the husband, faces an increased sense of loss and difficulty in adjustment (Ammons, et al., 1982; Levine et al., 1980; Tiger, 1974). Some contended that the separation from support systems and relationships are the factors that intensify the loss (Martin-Mathews, 1980; Tallman, 1969; Weiss, 1969). Recently advanced

theories about the development of women lends support to this perspective.

Since the 1960s, the traditional developmental models of Erikson, Kohlberg, Freud, and Piaget have been increasingly challenged. These major theories, based on male samples and written by men, prize the development of independence and autonomy, abstract critical thought, and a morality of rights. Such traits have become the definition of growth and maturity for both men and women. New research, however, has produced strong evidence that women develop differently than men. Women define themselves, formulate moral judgments, and come to know through relationships and connections to others (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger & Tarule, 1986; Chodorow, 1974; Gilligan, 1977; Miller, 1976).

While the nature/nurture debate about these differences still rages, Gilligan & Miller stated that women are socialized to value relationships (Ganley, 1990). The ability to develop and maintain relationships comprises the yardstick that measures self-worth and that of others. Men, on the other hand, are socialized to value achievement and production (David & Brannon, Levinson cited in Meth, 1990).

Work is the central arena where these traits can be exhibited and Pasick (1990) simply stated that men are raised to work.

This masculine/feminine dichotomy of achieving versus relating may shed light on the findings about women having more difficulty adjusting after relocation. The norm has been that non-working wives followed their employed husbands to new job sites. Women were uprooted from families and friends--the relationships that maintained their self-concepts. The husbands kept their jobs--the mechanism to maintain their identities. Of course, this traditional arrangement is growing less customary. Currently, 60% of all families have dual careers. By 1995 this percentage is expected to climb to 75% (Herring, 1989a). As for men expanding beyond their normative roles, response to such men's liberation has been slow (Ganley, 1990). Work remains a man's identity. It is important to note, however, that currently 12% of relocating spouses are men, and this figure is projected to rise to 25% by 1995 (Herring, 1989a). This increasing number of men who follow wives to a new location for her career mobility may feel the loss of their jobs or status much more severely than any man or woman who loses a relationship. Because of today's

changing life-styles, difficulty in adjustment after relocation may not be as one-sided as the literature proposes.

Need For The Study

Only recently has mobile America begun to publicly acknowledge the emotional toll of relocation. Corporations and military organizations, which demand that employees and families relocate frequently, have started to respond with support programs to ease the transitions. Help with several survival aspects--moving allowances, spouse employment assistance, house hunting trips--are being put into place. When these programs turn to address the emotional aspect of relocation, however, the way to lend support is less clear. Parkes' (1971) theory of psychosocial transitions consolidates the processes and feelings of loss consistently referred to in the literature. However, the application of this model to relocation has never been confirmed. In fact, a theoretical foundation of the emotional effects of relocation does not exist. The field must either aggressively validate current formulations of relocation effects or propose and test new theories. A potent program model for the prevention of, or intervention with, negative relocation effects can

follow. Until then, effort to emotionally support the thousands of families that relocate yearly resembles shooting at an unknown target.

Further, the literature is riddled with the findings that women have more difficulty than men adjusting after relocation. It follows that support programs target assistance toward women. However, past studies do not account for the women who break the mold and relocate due to the demands of their own employment. Neither does the literature address the adjustment of men in the non-traditional role of accompanying spouse. The emotional effects of relocation may be more complex than the parallel male/female differences observed in past research. The field must move beyond this comfortable gender dichotomy and begin to explore how changes in life-style, e.g., traditional male/female role reversals, change the emotional impact of relocation on men and women. Such exploration of these variations will help build assistance programs that match the needs of modern, mobile America.

Purpose of the Study

The first purpose of the study was to explore the occurrence of one affective response that Parkes states is associated with

psychosocial transitions. Specifically, the study measured anxiety in military members and their spouses. The study investigated the pattern of anxiety levels during the first twelve months after a military relocation to see if they fit the grief model of Parkes. A fit would expect anxiety levels to peak and then wane as time since relocation increased. Anxiety should give way to anger, depression, and finally a regained sense of coherence. As discussed in detail previously, military relocation fits the definition of Parkes' psychosocial transition. However, this fit has not been empirically validated. The study furthered the relocation research by questioning the relevance of Parkes' psychosocial transition model as it relates to military relocation.

The study's second purpose was to compare the anxiety levels of men and women during the first 12 months after a military relocation. This study differed from previous research in that it collected responses from men and women in traditional and non-traditional roles. That is, military members that had moved due to demands of their military career duties were both men and women. The spouses who had accompanied them to the new job site were also both men and women.

Comparisons of responses by gender, and the possible impact of traditional/non-traditional roles, were made.

Again, although exploratory in nature, the project helped question the view that relocation adjustment is most difficult for women.

Research Questions

Based on the objectives of this study, the following research questions were investigated:

1. Do anxiety levels change during the first 12 months after a permanent change of station (PCS)?
2. Do anxiety levels differ between men and women during the first 12 months after a PCS?
3. Do anxiety levels differ between military members and accompanying spouses during the first 12 months after a PCS?

Explanation of Terms

Accompanying spouse: legal spouse of military member that is officially recognized and authorized by the Air Force commander to travel and move with the relocating military member at the cost of the Air Force.

Permanent Change of Station (PCS): Air Force term that denotes a military member's change of duty station involving a geographic move of household.

Summary

America historically has been, and continues to be, a highly mobile nation. Behind the population's frequent movement lingers a unique national myth: mobility brings freedom and opportunity at the cost of social bonds. Research of the impact of relocation is predominantly polarized into positive and negative effects and has failed to produce a theoretical foundation. Two themes, however, recur throughout the literature: (a) the experience of relocation includes loss, and (b) wives feel the impact of relocation more severely than their husbands.

Parkes' (1971) theory of psychosocial transition encapsulates the theme of loss. According to this model, the result of loss due to a psychosocial transition is always grief. The transitioning person will deny the loss, grow anxious and angry, feel depressed, and finally formulate a new self that coheres with the new environment. Although

Parkes has labeled relocation a psychosocial transition, the grief response to relocation has not been validated.

Air Force families present a microcosm of mobile American families and provide a unique opportunity to explore the emotional affects of relocation. In this study, anxiety was measured 1-12 months after a military relocation to begin to explore the fit of the grief response that is core to Parkes' model.

The study also compared anxiety of Air Force husbands and wives who had completed a military relocation within the last twelve months. The recurring finding, that wives have more difficulty adjusting after relocation than husbands, was investigated. The study differed from previous research in that both husbands and wives were studied in both roles: accompanying spouse and the transferred military member. Emotional effects of relocation by gender and roles were compared.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of the Literature

This review of the literature is divided into six sections. The first section provides an overview of the evolving perspective of American mobility. The prolific research on the impact of relocation on wives is noted and summarized. The second consolidates a major theme of the literature: loss. In the third section, the emotional processes of relocation, reported by several researchers, are described. Each of these processes reflects loss and formulates a link to Parkes' (1971) psychosocial transition theory. Section four examines Parkes' theory since it serves as the theoretical framework for this study. The fifth section summarizes recently advanced theories about the development of women and the importance of work to men. How these theories support past findings, that relocation impacts women more severely, becomes evident. Changes in mobility patterns are noted, and questions of how these changes influence the psychosocial transition of relocation are posed. Finally, implications from the

literature review are summarized.

The Evolving Perspective of American Mobility

In the early history of our country, mobility was linked to opportunity and success. Long and Boertlein (1976) reported that upward mobility was literally translated into willingness to move. This pairing of opportunity and geographic mobility, however, came with a price.

The earliest professional observations of the psychological and physical impact of mobility in America were recorded by M.A. Ranney in 1850 (Smith, 1983). Although Ranney wrote about immigrants to the U.S., his work Insane Foreigners set the stage for challenging the views that mobility was merely opportunity knocking. He described how the migration caused physical debilitation and psychopathology in rank order from mania to dementia. His treatment of the immigrants included a heavy dose of kindness, as the immigrants were friendless. Ranney expanded upon the friendless aspect, noting "the breaking up of attachments rooted in every breast" and cited these breaks of

attachments "as causes well calculated to try the endurance of disciplined and strong minds" (p. 14).

While the country expanded, mobility became more strongly linked to broken personal bonds and lack of commitment to community. The willingness to relocate, and sever ties for the sake of upward mobility, grew to be seen as an unfavorable trait in our national character (Long & Boertlein, 1976). The conflicting meanings of American mobility--opportunity and success at the price of broken attachments and social stability--created a profoundly ambivalent national mythology (Kopf, 1977). By the early twentieth century, this ambivalence toward mobility grew decidedly negative.

In 1928, Park ominously described the marginal man. The marginal man cut ties with his previous community by relocating but could not establish ties with the new. He lived without being truly integrated in either the old or new community--he lived on the margins. According to Park, it was mobility that created marginal men. This now classic work has been cited again and again as evidence of the cost of mobility for the individual and society.

The link between social and psychological disruption and frequent relocations grew stronger in the mid-twentieth century. Weiss (1969) attributed the rootlessness, isolation, and sense of loss dominant in American migrants to their looking for a home lost from frequent relocations. He suggested that the major problem of geographic mobility was the sense of isolation created by the loss of relationships and not finding new ones.

Mental illness also became linked to mobility. In 1959, Jacoby hypothesized that residential mobility led to mental disorders because it minimized opportunity for stable relationships. In her book, Mobility & Mental Health (1965), Kantor did not emphasize the lack of relationships due to relocation. Her finding of a positive correlation between migration and hospital admissions for manic depression and psychosis prompted Kantor to simply declare mobility as a link to poor mental health (1965).

In his 1970 social commentary on mobility, Toffler cautioned that America was “. . . witnessing a historic decline in the significance of place to human life. We are building a new race of nomads” (p. 75).

He warned about the impact of mobility for both the mobile and those around them. Vance Packard (1972) echoed Toffler's concerns but with a different slant. Packard stated that mobility resulted in fewer friendships for those relocating. Other people in the mobile individuals life had less concern and would not offer assistance when the individual needed it. Packard warned that mobility was creating "a nation of strangers."

This very negative perspective of mobility did not go unchallenged. Litwak (cited by Martin-Mathews, 1980) stated that relationships could be maintained in spite of mobility. Litwak claimed that "technological improvements in communication systems have minimized the socially disruptive forces of geographical distance" (p. 26). Janowitz & Webber (cited in Shumaker & Stokols, 1982) agreed with Litwak. Janovitz proposed a community of limited liability where people are no longer bound by geographic locales in either their development or maintenance of close relationships. Webber argued that technology allowed people to develop strong social ties without

being dependent upon the geographic closeness of friends. These researchers clarified the idea that no data supported the view that mobility was the major culprit creating "a nation of strangers" (p. 16).

As early as 1959, Sorokin disputed the prevalent negative outcomes of mobility. He pointed out that geographic mobility has negative and positive aspects depending chiefly on the meaning ascribed to the move by the mover. In their comprehensive study of managerial mobility, Marshall and Cooper (1976) supported Sorokin's position. They found that mover attitudes determined the impact of relocation adjustment. Brett and Werbel (1980), and Donohue and Gulotta (1981) echoed the significance of meaning of the move to the mover. They stated that family members that understood the reason for the move had the easiest time relocating. In a study of military families (McKain, 1973), those individuals who identified relocation as a part of military family life had lower perception of problems associated with the move.

This more balanced position of positive and negative aspects counters the one-sided bleak perspective of mobility. These studies

viewed the mover as an active shaper of relocation impact versus a friendless, marginal victim of mobility.

This section about the evolving perspectives of American mobility cannot be complete without addressing women and relocation. In the last two decades, prolific research has focused on the impact of relocation on women--most frequently, homemakers.

In her 1973 study of housewives, Jones found that the large majority of the women sampled saw the role of wife/mother as central in the relocation process. Donohue and Gullotta (1981) supported and expanded this finding. They stated that what the move means to each family member determines the family's reaction to the move. As key caretaker, Donohue and Gullotta believed that the wife/mother interprets the meaning of the move to her children. Thus, she is vital to the move's success. This key role is important in light of other findings described below.

Numerous studies have found that women experience temporary disruption and disorganization during the relocation process (Jones, 1973; Margolis, 1979; Marshall & Cooper, 1976; McAllister, Butler,

& Kaiser, 1973; Seidenberg, 1973) and that the emotional impact of relocation upon women is considerable (Ammons, et al., 1982; Butler, McAllister, & Kaiser, 1973; Gaylord, 1979; Gowler & Legge, 1975; Viney & Bazely, 1977). There is also general consensus in the literature that the relocation impacts differ for men and women. Martin-Mathews (1980) reported that Gans attributed this difference to the sexual division of labor. "For a man, the job is supportive, rewarding, even if he is emotionally disturbed. Whereas for a woman, household and maternal functions provide fewer tangible rewards and more . . . tensions" (p. 1).

The thought that she must protect the security of the husband's job discourages the homemaker from seeking support for her feelings. Neither can the woman vent her true feelings of anger and resentment toward her spouse, as this is the economic support on which she depends. Such venting would be risky (Bayes, 1989). Without emotional support from any source the woman may attribute these feelings to her personal failure of not being able to manage (Bayes, 1989; Berry, 1985; Margolis, 1979; Weissman & Paykel, 1972). It

should be no surprise that relocation has been linked to depression among women (Seidenberg, 1973; Weissman & Paykel, 1972; Weiss, 1969). So while she is pivotal to the success of the move for her children and spouse, the homemaker is often seen as the greatest casualty of the moving process.

Some researchers have recognized that relocation involves positive aspects for women. Viney and Bazely (1977) reported feelings of enthusiasm and happiness in their female subjects after their move. Bayes (1989) conceded that "Certainly there are spouses who are enthusiastic about a move, thrive on the change in . . . environment, who are excited about new opportunities" (p. 282). The research of Brett and Werbel (1978), Jones (1973), and Marshall and Cooper (1976) revealed that women reported minimal difficulty with relocation. Richards, et al. (1985) quickly pointed out, however, that the women sampled in the last three projects " . . . had adopted a selfsacrificial attitude toward relocation" (p. 66) and reflected the traditional belief that a wife should willingly move to further her husband's career.

In 1967 Herbert Gans referred to the situation of relocated women as the female malaise. After a quarter of a century of research, this vague feeling of ill-being for relocated women still lingers. In total, early and recent research has not provided any clarification on impacts of mobility and frequent relocation. Views are predominantly divided into negative and positive with or without strong data to support these views. The brightest pocket of research in this arena is the finding that the meaning the mover ascribes to the move is the chief determinant of relocation outcome (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Donohue & Gulotta, 1982; Marshall & Cooper, 1976; McKain, 1973; Sorokin, 1959). This attributes an active, shaping role versus a passive, victim role to the mover. Just as quickly, however, current researchers line up to state that "The stressful effects of American mobility, the amount of suffering to which it leads, have been underestimated (Anderson & Stark, 1985/1986; Gaylord, 1979; Gaylord & Symons, 1986; Maruco & Puskar, 1986; Puskar, 1986; Sluzki, 1979; and Weissman & Paykel, 1975)" Bayes (1989, p. 282). While the debate continues, Americans remain in the grip of the ambivalence surrounding mobility.

Losses of Relocation

The continuous debate about mobility may stem from the myriad of approaches used to research the topic. Martin-Mathews (1980) categorized current investigations of mobility into four major themes: demographic studies, studies of motives for moving, social problem aspects of migration, and studies of the nature of kinship affiliation among migrant groups. She later expanded upon these categories by pointing out that the consequences of relocation vary depending on the type of disruption emphasized in each study: physical, social-psychological, or economic disruption. This was a wide-ranged categorization, to say the least. Richards et al. summarized the research on geographic mobility in 1985. Their summary revealed a hodgepodge of concepts from severance of personal relationships, community support, values, and extended family to "anomie," social envelope, internal motivation, and transition. Throughout the literature, responses to relocation are couched in terms such as adaptation, adjustment, and coping. Units of analysis extend from the individual and the family to corporate policy. Olsen (1988) observed that

research is either descriptive, anecdotal, or surveys conducted from a retrospective viewpoint. Walls (1987) concluded that there is little systematic empirical research evaluating mobility's psychological effects. "Most studies are post hoc, use subjective data, lack control groups, and ignore long-term effects" (p. 2).

It is easy to understand why those that have reviewed the relocation literature (Barrett & Noble, 1973; Morris, Pestaner & Nelson, 1967; Richards, et al., 1985) concluded that the field has no theoretical basis. There does appear, however, a recurring theme across the quagmire of relocation research--loss. This loss takes many forms.

Relocation to a new area entails loss of familiar place. In Grieving for a Lost Home (1963), Fried stated that along with connections to other people, individuals have a strong connection to place. Familiar odors, streets, buildings, temperatures, and spaces all contribute to a person's sense of belonging. Everyday activities occur within space and these spaces become part of a sense of self just as images and spatial memories are part of self. Walker (1991) described

the loss of familiar place poignantly when he explained the period of adjustment after moving.

This is the period when it is possible to consider the effects associated with place change, "Is this me?" . . . By this time, individuals know their way around in a limited fashion, but house is not yet home, and space has not yet become place . . . (p. 32)

This can be a painful period of loneliness and isolation.

Loss of routine accompanies the loss of place. Relocation leads to the addition and elimination of important behavior settings and patterns comprising a person's daily routine. During the two weeks after a move, Jones (1973) found ". . . a definite change in behavior occurs in terms of the amount of time allocated to specific activities during the moving process" (p. 215). Packing and unpacking, finding new schools, stores, doctors, etc., all demand energy and new behaviors not required daily in the old setting. McAllister et al. (1973) reported a behavior change in social patterns. Interaction through visiting increased during the first six months after relocation but tapered off as time since the move increased. Interestingly, Brett (1982) observed the opposite in that frequent relocation required

employees to commit a lot of time to mastering job duties, not leaving time to socialize.

In Jones' study (1973), finding a "normal" schedule was the second highest help to early relocation adjustment. Stokols and Shumaker (1982) hint, however, that early changes in routine may not have a mere short-term impact. Time spent commuting, at employment sites, and recreation activities can be enduring and affect every facet of the individuals life.

Jones (1973) also discovered how important the loss of items was to relocated wives. These wives specifically identified the delivery of household goods as a significant help in relocation adjustment. Hazler and Nass (1988) listed several factors that were helpful for relocated families. Acknowledging the arrival of furniture and family items was the top factor.

It was Garza-Guerrero's position (cited in Smith, 1983) that one's identity is built around the objects in one's life. The loss of these objects due to relocation, e.g., music, food, etc., "causes a serious threat to the newcomer's identity" (p. 18). Jones (1973) discovered

how important the loss of items was to relocated wives. These wives specifically identified the delivery of household goods as a significant help in relocation adjustment. Hazler and Nass (1988) listed several factors that were helpful for relocated families. Acknowledging the arrival of furniture and family items was the top factor.

The loss of relationships due to relocations is frequently focused upon by researchers. It is this loss that links geographic mobility and mental illness (Golub, 1976). The assumption is that severance of old relationships and the demand to establish new ones create stress that is potentially unhealthy.

According to Weiss (1969), relationships with others are paramount and their loss, due to relocation, can be traumatic. Many relocation researchers have agreed with this premise. Brett (1982) found that mobility was associated with dissatisfaction with social relationships among mobile men and women. She hypothesized that wives' dissatisfaction stemmed from putting down roots and making friends, only to have to pull up those roots and leave friends later. Brett conceded that after this cycle was completed so many times,

some may not even try to initiate friendships in the new community.

Tiger (1974) identified this strategy of detachment as a way of ensuring personal psychological survival. "When one's social network will be destroyed every few years, there is little gain and considerable cost in trying to establish the complex mixture of trust, commitment, self-exposure, and freedom that is essential to serious friendships" (p. 182).

The sadness of this strategy was described by Tiger's (1974) writings about one woman whose relationships were so few due to frequent relocations that she stated "Only my husband knows and cares about my past and future" (p. 139). Such resignation echoes Packard's (1972) thesis that mobility results in loss of friends and those who care about the person.

While most relocation research that focused on loss of relationships involved women, it would be a mistake to assume no impact on men. Walls (1987) found that highly mobile college males felt that forming close attachments was a problematic area of their lives. The men attributed this to repeated loss of friendships due to relocation.

In his study of transferred male corporate executives, Pinder (1989) documented the loss of relationships. A 52 year old aircraft maintenance employee told how transfers cost him and his wife their social life. This gentleman had held offices in numerous civic and fraternal organizations. After several transfers he had found it impossible to become as socially involved as he was before. Another manager discussed the "disruption of family relationships at a time when both my mother and my wife's parents are entering the 'senior citizen era'" (p. 54). One manager reflected that mobility had resulted in his leaving four children scattered across Canada--in Pinder's words "a rather sad state of affairs" (p. 54).

After calling attention to the paucity of research in this area, Walls (1987) called for an increase of research about the impact of relocation on relationships focusing on men and women. He was the first to state this need so directly.

In his corporate study, Pinder (1989) also emphasized another aspect of relocation--loss of employment for the spouse. He described

a 30 year old college graduate that had to give up a professional position three times in less than four years. She was being asked by prospective employers for guarantees to stay put for several years if she were hired. The literature reveals that this spouse was not unique. Long (1974) suggested that mobility degrades the employment of spouses. First, when the decision is made to relocate, the prestige of her occupation, contribution to family income, and her participation in the work force are inconsequential. The woman is simply expected to move (Fowlkes 1980; Jones, 1973). Second, wives who move with their husbands are less likely to find a position in the new location. Third, when they do find a position, it is likely to be a starting position, lower paying, and below the level of previous positions (Bayes, 1989). Long concluded that "... the migration of husbands interferes substantially with the formation and achievement of clear occupational goals among women" (p. 347). He is supported, in this view, by Duncan and Perruci (1976), and Miller (1966).

In a survey of Air Force wives, Garamone (1986) showed that loss of employment for working spouses is tied to another frequently overlooked part of relocation: loss of income for the family. This drop of income only exacerbates relocation difficulties. For instance, the price of housing across the U.S. can vary by 100 percent at any given time. These drastically different costs, plus interest rates on mortgages, can offset any pay raises gained by a move (Pinder, 1989). Debates (1981) summarized how private companies are scrambling to assist in relocation costs for employees. Despite these more liberal policies of assistance for employees, in Pinder's study of 800 corporate managers who had relocated for promotions, fewer than half found their transfers to be financially beneficial. One in six families reported severe financial setbacks. Such setbacks hold true for military families also. For every \$3 an Air Force family spends for a PCS move, only \$1 is reimbursed by the government (Ginovsky, 1987). Out of pocket expenses for military moves have increased 40%, forcing both enlisted personnel and officers to pay several thousand dollars per move over

what the military pays (Philpott, 1984). In short, relocation may involve financial losses that impact a multitude of life choices.

This pile up of losses, due to relocation, creates the potential for a very significant loss--identity. In her study of wives' experiences of relocation, Martin-Mathews (1980) used Berger and Luckman's work to illustrate this potential loss. Berger and Luckman proposed that significant others and casual contacts are crucial for identity. To maintain a sense of identity, individuals require that significant others explicitly confirm that identity. Additionally, more casual associates reaffirm this identity, e.g., church, clubs, neighborhoods, business associates. Berger and Luckman referred to these associates as the chorus. From this perspective, Martin-Mathews said it was clear how relocation, with the explicit loss of both close and casual relationships, impacted identity.

Seidenberg (1973) was particularly sensitive to loss of identity stemming from credentials lost during relocation. One's history of professional accomplishments, social successes, or personal talents

may not be transferable. The newly relocated person is unknown and must start building this community identity again. Seidenberg also pointed out the pressure to conform to the new group. What was treasured about the individual by the former community may not be acceptable now. Old talents and interests, and unique parts of the relocated person may be inhibited. One loses parts of the self.

For the one who must job hunt after relocating, the struggle to find work again, the inability to secure satisfying employment, or the need to take a lower paying position can diminish one's self-esteem. This can also increase economic dependency possibly decreasing one's sense of autonomy (Bayes, 1989). Even those with a strong sense of identity can begin to doubt themselves.

Although numerous and often penetrating, losses of relocation are either not widely acknowledged or minimized. Reactions to these unexpected losses of relocation may be perceived as a personal failure (Berry, 1985). The expression of these losses is even less acceptable and, for the most part, relocated individuals are left to their own means.

The inability to cope alone may cause the individual to question their personal abilities. One's self-identity as a competent, powerful person may be shaken (Gaylord, 1979). Pinder (1989) described the plight of the relocated person very succinctly.

This fundamental loss of control over one's self and one's financial, social, and familial circumstances (brought about by relocation) can have powerful psychological effects on people. In particular, it can lead to the anxiety that comes from fear of the unknown (p. 56)

As the next section of this literature review will show, anxiety is an ever present ingredient in all developed processes of relocation.

Processes of Relocation

In the first professional observations of the trauma of relocation, Ranney (cited by Smith, 1983) vaguely outlined the emotional process through which immigrants progressed. Stage one was highlighted by excitement caused by the anticipation of what the future in a new place could bring. The second stage developed when hope gave way to anxiety as anticipations were not met. Ranney's work centered on

those who did not adapt to the relocation and he further described the physical debilitation and psychopathology stemming from the failure to adjust. Ranney focused upon the breaking up of attachments as a major factor in relocation difficulties. In fact, he stated that immigrants felt "... that everyone is an enemy" (p. 13).

The relocated women in Jones' study (1973) did not report the extreme feeling that others were enemies. They did, however, report feeling loneliness or being remote from others. Jones asked the women to recall their feelings and activities in their former community and at three specific points during the relocation process. During the first two weeks prior to the move, the majority felt excited or exhilarated; over 40% felt anxious with a third feeling nervous and on-edge. Only 18% felt depressed at this point. During the first two weeks after the move, excitement and exhilaration were still the predominant feeling, with anxiousness again second. Over a third of the women reported feeling lonely or remote from others. Those feeling nervous, irritable, and depressed increased to a third. After being in their new location for

one year, the percentage of women reporting anxiousness and irritability and depression dropped below the number reporting such feelings in their former community. Excitement and loneliness were also down to the pre-move level. Jones contended that "For the most part, the emotional changes reflect a condition of stress or anxiety during the actual relocation" (p. 215).

Smith worked with relocated wives in relocation stress workshops. She described four phases through which the women progressed (1983). Her observations paralleled phases of Oberg's culture shock (1954). Phase one, the "Honeymoon phase," involved positive feelings and excitement about the recent move and new locale. In phase two, the women began to have doubts about the move. Loss of jobs, being cut off from family and friends resulted in a lack of identity. Physical symptoms of anxiety were rampant. Women reported anger at their unsupportive husbands. Frequently women thought of divorce and going back home. Phase three marked the beginning of adaptation. Withdrawal began to subside as the women

entered the work force, school, and new friendships. Even though the women were more positive about their situation, they still looked forward to visits home. In the fourth and final phase, the women felt as comfortable in their new locale as in their old community. In fact, when the women did visit their former community, upon returning, they commented negatively on various aspects of their old surroundings.

Smith (1983) also discussed phases of adjustment to international relocation proposed by Garza-Guerrero and Adler. Garza-Guerrero (1974) used the perspective of a psychoanalyst. He described three phases. Phase one was the cultural encounter where the individuals explored the similarities and differences of the new with the old environment. Garza-Guerrero (1974) echoed Ranney's 1850 proposal that if the discrepancy between expectation and reality was too great, disillusionment sets in. Garza-Guerrero likened the yearning to recover the old environment in this phase to "mourning the death of a loved object" (p. 418). At this time, one could observe the newly relocated person filling the surroundings with valued familiar objects.

The second phase was reorganization. Attempts to merge with the new were heightened. If successful, the yearning for the past love objects decreased. Mourning was worked through. Identity confusion lessened.

A new identity was established in the third phase. Integration of the old and new cultures took place: neither was abandoned or fully accepted. Garza Guerrero (1974) shed a positive light on relocation in that he stated it could lead to "a fecund growth of self" (p. 425).

Smith (1983) also discussed the work of Adler who saw great growth potential for the individual relocating to another country. Adler (1975) contended that, at first, the individual was excited and euphoric, noticing only similarities to the former surroundings. In the second phase, differences between the new and old environment and culture could no longer be ignored. The person's ability to predict the environment grew deflated and anxiety and tension increased. "Bewilderment, alienation, depression, and withdrawal give rise to disintegration" (Adler, 1975, p. 16). In the third phase the person

rejected what was both similar and different about the new surroundings. Negative generalizations, stereotypes and evaluations about the new culture abounded. At this phase, the choice to return home or stay occurred. The person began to personally incorporate experiences of the new area in the fourth phase. Such incorporation led to the final phase--independence. Not only were the similarities and differences between the old and new recognized, but each were valued. Adler (1975) contended that the personal growth brought by successfully navigating these relocation phases opened the person up to further transitions and enjoying "the diversity of human beings" (p. 22).

Smith (1983) did not delineate time frames for her, Garza-Guerrero's, or Adler's proposed phases. Gaylord and Symons (1986) offered specific periods for their predictable four-stage process. They described the time frames and emotions of each stage.

The pre-move preparatory stage was characterized by mood swings of euphoria, anxiety, and depression. The individual may

have felt overwhelmed and out of control. Performance was hampered.

During the actual move and early post-move stage (1-3 months), people still felt excited, apprehensive, and anxious with a split occurring between the intellectual and emotions. People became task oriented and, because they were out of touch with their feelings, were able to perform adequately.

The post-move crisis period (beginning at 3-6 months) could last indefinitely depending on the support. Feelings of loss, anger, isolation, and depression surfaced as the reality of the move was experienced. If feelings were communicated, resolution of the loss could occur.

The post-move adjustment stage (6 months to 2 years) was marked by a regained sense of emotional balance. The time of adjustment, again, depended upon the support being provided.

Laura Herring (1988, 1989a, 1989b) encouraged corporate support for relocating families in her explanation of the relocation

process. Herring relied upon Maslow's hierarchy of needs to clarify the needs that must be met after relocation: first, physical needs, then security and belonging. Only when these needs were met in the new community could self-esteem be established, facilitating self-actualization. Herring identified a 5-step relocation process, inherent in climbing the hierarchy pyramid.

In the first stage, anxious confusion and denial were prominent as each family member assessed their life and decided if the move would be good for them. Usually the decision to move or not was made without accurate information. The second phase was anger because of what was being lost. This anger occurred even if the person understands and accepts the reason for the move. After the move, the initial excitement about a new adventure gave way to an emotional letdown. Phase three, according to Herring, was loss and depression. A new routine became established and loneliness set in. During the fourth stage, resentment about what was lost and what was not gained took hold. Such resentment can last through the first and second year. By Herring's observations, acceptance and action came in the last

stage. The person finally gained the momentum to make the best of the new situation. The individual rejoined activities and groups and started to settle in. Herring emphasized that this process may take 18-24 months to complete.

Each of these proposed relocation processes centered upon the individuals' responses. Sluzki (1979) went beyond this scope in his description of the stages of migration. He introduced family roles, coping mechanisms, and implications for family conflicts.

Sluzki (1979) outlined a five-stage process: (a) preparatory stage; (b) act of migration; (c) period of overcompensation, (d) period of decompensation, and finally, (e) transgenerational phenomena. In the first stage, family members explored the possibility of relocating. Depending on the family's style, this entailed a lengthy yes-no vacillation or sudden "explosive" decision. Short periods of euphoria, overload, and dismay occurred but were explained away by the members as the resistant emotions of the move. Although Sluzki did not elaborate on these emotions, these ups and downs began to shape the roles of family members, i.e., the stronger one, the supportive one.

the resistant one. The companion shaper of these new roles was the reason for the move. The family's choice of positive or negative connotations of this reason set up roles of victim, hero, villain, winner, loser, rescued, rescuer, etc. If the move had extreme advantages for the members, mourning what was left behind may be viewed as pathological by members. The one who mourned for the past may be isolated. On the other hand, the family may have remained attached to an idealized "old home." The member who broke away from the collective family mourning was labeled a traitor.

Stage two, the act of migration, varied considerably. Some families burnt their bridges; some viewed the move as only a temporary departure. Families may have sent out scouts or moved abruptly. Whatever method, the act had strong implications for the next three stages.

The third period of overcompensation was marked by heightened task orientation. The family had to survive. Such an orientation increased the split between affective and instrumental role players in

the family. The members were faced with the discrepancies between their expectations, assumptions, and ability to predict the environment and the new reality. Previous coping styles became exaggerated but can only last for so long against the strains of new demands. Sluzki (1979) predicted that a major crisis would develop after six months of calm and overcompensation.

The period of crisis was full of conflicts and difficulties. The family deciphered what they could maintain and what was not compatible with the new environment. Rules and roles were changed, some easily, some very painfully. Sluzki (1979) emphasized mourning as an important dynamic of this stage. Families could idealize and mourn the past, inhibiting adaptation. The past may have been so denigrated by others that appropriate mourning and working through loss could not be accomplished. Conflict between members could escalate into socially unacceptable patterns-somatic complaints, a psychiatric problem, divorce, or less acceptable, juvenile delinquency.

Sluzki (1979) described a final stage for those families staying in place long enough for a second generation to be born and raised.

Whatever had not been worked through previously in such families surfaced in the fifth stage. The intensity of the conflict was related directly to the family's previous success in working through the migration process.

Although Sluzki (1979) gave prominence to family dynamics in the migration process, the emotional aspects of these dynamics were more explicit in his recommended therapeutic interventions. Helping families with mourning, loneliness, rootlessness, meaninglessness, maintaining old contacts and familiar objects were prescribed. Sluzki pointed out that intervention should “. . . convey the view that the migrating process is intrinsically stressful . . .” (p. 388).

The literature reflects a handful of relocation processes developed through observations, clinical practice, and retrospective studies. A smattering of denial, anxiety, resentment, depression, and final phases of acceptance and adaptation to the move are explicitly or implicitly identified. Loneliness, isolation, meaninglessness, mismatch of assumptions and reality, and reorganization recur in one form or another. Parkes' (1971) theory of psychosocial transitions

encapsulates responses to relocation that each of these studies have described.

Parkes Theory of Psychosocial Transition

A psychosocial transition involves "... major changes in life space which are lasting in their effects, which take place over a relatively short period of time, and which affect large areas of the assumptive world" (Parkes, 1971, p. 104).

Parkes' (1971) theory used Kurt Lewin's concept of 'life space' to denote "... those parts of the environment with which the self interacts and in relation to which behavior is organized: other persons, material possessions, the familiar world of home and place of work" (p. 103). Changes in the life space are important or unimportant depending on their influence on the assumptions we make about our world.

Martin-Mathews (1980) reported that Schutz first discussed the importance of basic assumptions held by individuals who were strangers in a new geographic location. Schutz linked assumptions to "thinking as usual" (p. 10). Thinking as usual could be maintained as

long as basic assumptions about the world held true in the new environment. Schutz felt that the stranger's thinking as usual would inevitably be disrupted as the individual explored and tested the situation. Schutz stated that the stranger must make the unfamiliar familiar and formulate new assumptions. Only then could the new location become "an unquestionable way of life, a shelter, a protection" (p. 11).

While Schutz paved the way for Parkes' (1971) emphasis on assumptions during life changes, specifically relocation, Parkes added another dimension. He spoke of affectionate bonds to assumptions--denoted by "my's" (p. 104). Parkes illustrated the links between changes in life space, assumptions, and affectionate bonds through job loss. This example fits very well with change due to a military relocation in that a military spouse most likely leaves a job behind (Military spouse, DoD Survey, 1985). To this relocated, newly unemployed spouse, the loss of a job means changes in the life space through loss of familiar work place, salary, and relationships with co-workers. Assumptions about how (my) day will be spent, (my) sources

of money, (my) security tied to money, and (my) capacity to work will change. The spouse that once viewed the world as secure may now see it as a place of high competition where personal skills get rejected or are only good for a less prestigious job.

Simply put, relocation brings changes in the life space impacting assumptions about the world to which a person is affectionately bound or attached--the "my's." To adjust, a person must detach from parts of the self, the "my's", and actively formulate a new self. According to Parkes (1971), grief is the inevitable consequence.

Similar to many contributors to the relocation literature, Parkes (1971) did not define grief. Throughout the literature, the concept of grief is frequently used and confused, as are the terms loss and mourning. Bowlby (1960) provided clarification. "Mourning denotes the psychological processes set in motion by the loss of a loved object. Grief denotes the sequences of subjective states that follow loss and accompany mourning" (p. 10). The developmental source for the experience of object loss is infancy and can be explained by attachment theory. Although not referred to by Parkes in his proposal of

psychosocial transitions, attachment theory adds a deeper understanding to Parkes' discussion of grief and concepts of affectionate bonds and assumptions. A brief summary is offered here for that understanding.

According to attachment theory (Lieberman, 1987), the intense bond between the mother and infant is mediated by behavior that brings about the child's contact and closeness to the mother, e.g., clinging, grasping, seeking, following. This attachment behavior is blatant when the child feels threatened: the child seeks protection from the mother. In turn, the protection provided by the mother promotes the feeling of security in the child. Even when not threatened, the proximity of mother allows the child to feel secure. Thus, the attachment figure serves as a source of protection and security. The very separation of the attached child from this figure signals a threat of danger to the child: mother is no longer available. Protection and security are no longer available. Even in very young children, this separation results in a grief response: protest denoted by crying, anger, and searching behavior; despair, signaled by withdrawal; and

detachment marked by increased activity but with aloofness toward the attachment figure.

Bowlby (1960) proposed that this process mirrors the well established adult grief pattern that includes anxiety, anger, and depression. Further, Bowlby contended that while seeking contact with attachment figures is predominant in early childhood, it continues throughout life: “. . . intimate attachments to other human beings are the hub around which a life revolves” (1980, p. 442).

Parkes (1971) agreed with Bowlby about the significance of relationships and the impact of their loss. He counted the psychosocial transitions involving loss of relationships and the concomitant loss of assumptions built around the relationships as the most critical. Just like others (Bloom-Feshbach, Bloom-Feshbach & Associates, 1987), Parkes emphasized that the grief process cuts across various relationships. He cited the work of Bowlby and Lindemann with children losing mothers, Marris with widows losing husbands, Sofer with staff losing coworkers, and he discussed divorced individuals losing marital partners. This extensive research has uncovered phases

of denial of the loss and anxious searching for the loved object to re-attach, despair when the loss is outwardly accepted, anger, guilt, and depression. Finally, the griever re-integrates an identity separate from the lost object. Evidence of this reorganization, for Parkes, was new plans and assumptions about the self and the world being built (Parkes, 1971; Parkes & Stevenson-Hinde, 1982).

Parkes (1971) extended the grief process beyond loss or separation from loved ones by citing similar grief responses to other life space changes. He reported that those who lost a limb experienced a state of mental and physical numbness followed by severe anxiety and pining for the limb. The person grew fearful but tried to avoid talk of the lost limb. Depression, irritability, and reenactment of how the limb was lost followed. Chronic depression or complete denial set in for those not able to mourn healthily (Dembo, Fisher cited in Parkes, 1971). Parkes discussed Wolfenstein's study in which those losing homes to disasters rebuilt homes in the same perilous location in efforts to reconstruct or re-attach to their previous assumptive world. Some

disaster victims held unrealistic fears of future danger due to the loss of their assumption that they were protected and secure. Those losing physical or mental capabilities denied their new limitations. Some gave up and grew depressed.

The grief response to loss of familiar environments was very apparent in a landmark study of a mass relocation of a community of slum dwellers. Fried (1963) found that a large proportion of movers experienced long-term grief reactions:

These are manifest in the feelings of painful loss, . . . continued longing. . . . general depressive tone, frequent symptoms of psychological or somatic or social distress, the active work required in adapting to the altered situation, the sense of helplessness, the occasional expressions of both direct and displaced anger, and tendencies to idealize the lost place. (p. 151)

Similarly, in a recent longitudinal study, Stein (1984) pointed out that uncompleted mourning and depression due to context loss were common consequences of relocation.

Each of these transitions caused not only a loss of animate or inanimate items--a limb, a home, a geographic location, abilities. The transition also brought a loss of assumptions built around that item--

how I earn a living, where my family will live, how far away my friends will be, how I ably make decisions for those depending on me. These assumptions provided protection and security for the individual. The loss of these assumptions was the cause for grief. As Parkes (1971) stated, "It is for our assumptions (*italics added*) about our lost future that we grieve" (p. 111). It is only when new, appropriate assumptions about the world and the self (new protection and security) are built up, that grieving ceases. The changed life space and the assumptive world then match. The psychosocial transition has been successfully mastered.

Clearly, those undergoing a military transfer face many changes in life space. Parkes (1971) viewed changes in personal relationships paramount and these are inherent during a PCS move. Change of familiar surroundings from one military base to the next is also a given. Further, change of job duties for the member, employment status of the spouse, and family activities are probably included. Shipments of loved possessions may not arrive at the new home for weeks or months. The many losses of "my's" brought by a military relocation

can range from the less important, e.g., my grocer, to the most significant, e.g., my best friend. The resulting effort to formulate new assumptions about the world and the self that provide security and protection can be simple or complicated.

Surprisingly, investigations designed to measure the expected grief response to the psychosocial transition of relocation are almost non-existent (Viney & Bazely, 1977). In one of those few studies, Viney and Bazely interviewed recently relocated Australian housewives. The women were met at their homes three to four weeks after their move. Viney and Bazely found high anxiety related to loneliness and loss, inadequacy, and need for mastery in two very different socioeconomic groups that they surveyed. The researchers called for community psychologists to prepare women to anticipate and accept the feelings associated with losses and gains, particularly anxiety, brought on by moving. According to Viney and Bazely, with early information, women's assumptions about the new location could be more useful. The psychosocial transition of relocation for women could be facilitated rather than inhibited.

Viney and Bazely's (1977) investigation was ground breaking in that it attempted to measure relocation impact as a psychosocial transition. However, they used the common focus of relocation affects: women. As Walls (1987) strongly stated, studies of responses to relocation, in terms of theories of loss, must include both men and women. Only then can the field develop a sound foundation.

Relocation Impact: A Gender Difference?

As noted earlier, several studies have reported that the wife, in comparison to the husband, faces an increased sense of loss and difficulty in adjustment. Some contended that the separation from support systems and relationships are the factors that intensify the loss (Martin-Mathews, 1980; Tallman, 1969; Weiss, 1969). Recently advanced theories about the development of women lends support to this perspective.

Since the 1960s, the traditional developmental models of Erikson, Kohlberg, Freud, and Piaget have been increasingly challenged. These major theories, based on male samples and written

by men, prize the development of independence and autonomy, abstract critical thought, and a morality of rights. Such traits have become the definition of growth and maturity for men and women. New research has produced strong evidence that women develop differently than men. Women define themselves, formulate moral judgements, and come to know through relationships and connections to others (Belenky et al., 1986; Chodorow, 1974; Gilligan, 1977; Miller, 1976).

Chodorow pointed to early childhood experiences as a large determinant of the gender difference. Chodorow claimed that, universally, women are largely responsible for child care. Male and female children experience this care differently. Boys receive care from one "not like me" and the careprovider treats the boy as one "different from me." Girls, on the other hand, receive care from "one like me." The caregiver also treats the girl as one like herself. As a result, "in any given society, feminine personality comes to define itself in relation to connection with other people more than the masculine does" (Chodorow, 1974, p. 43-44).

Because women's concept of self is rooted in the sense of connection to others, they impose a different view on moral dilemmas. Kohlberg proposed a morality of rights with universal principles that are impartially and impersonally imposed. Gilligan (1977; 1982), however, discovered women formulating a morality of responsibility and care. This morality developed through more complex understandings of the self and other. At the final third level, a woman reached principled understanding of non-violence as a guide to justice: do the best possible for everyone involved. Protecting the relation to others was clear.

This same connectedness ran throughout women's development of knowing (Belenky et al., 1986). In Women's Ways of Knowing, the authors described the complex transition of women moving from unquestioning, passive receivers of knowledge to distrusting anything not subjective. This subjectivity succumbed to emphasis upon procedure, skills, and techniques of a separate knowing. Such separate knowing valued a public voice, critical thought, and reason--

the male standard. Many women matured beyond to a connected knowing--becoming attached to objects they tried to understand. Few women developed an authentic voice of constructed knowledge.

"Constructionists establish a communion with what they are trying to understand. They use the language of intimacy to describe the relationship between the knower and the known" (p. 143). The thread of connectedness for women's growth versus the autonomy and separateness theme of traditional models was apparent.

While the nature/nurture debate about these differences still rages, Gilligan and Miller stated that women are socialized to value relationships (Ganley, 1990). The ability to develop and maintain relationships comprises the yardstick that measures self-worth and that of others.

Men, on the other hand, are typically socialized to fit into the larger sociocultural context with dominance, power, and control deemed necessities to prove one's masculinity (Dienhart & Avis, 1991). Success in the outside world, versus relationships, is what counts. Boys learn to compete, keep score, and win (Levinson cited

in Meth, 1990) as the prominent characteristic of the male mystique is a prescribed preoccupation with success and accomplishments (Dienhart & Avis, 1990). Work is the central arena where these "male" traits can be exhibited. Pasick (1990) bluntly summarized male socialization: men are raised to work. So strongly ingrained is this preoccupation with competition, power, and success, that many men sacrifice their physical and mental health and families to succeed at work. It should be no surprise that usually men's self-esteem is directly linked to their vocation and income (Sekeran, 1986).

This masculine/feminine dichotomy of achieving, versus relating, may shed light on the findings about women having more difficulty adjusting after relocation. The norm has been that non-working wives followed their employed husbands to new job sites. Women were uprooted from families and friends--the relationships that maintained their self-concepts. The husbands kept their jobs--the mechanism to maintain their identities. This traditional arrangement (housewife following sole provider husband), however, is growing less customary. Currently, 60% of all married couples have dual

careers. By 1995, this percentage is expected to climb to 75% (Herring, 1989a). How much the work situation might soften the blow of relocation for working women has yet to be thoroughly investigated. Hunt and Butler (1972) observed "separation from family and friends may be far more personally disturbing for a female who migrates without the support of a work situation or formal organization" (p. 448). Women in dual career couples have reported a higher rate of recognition in the new location than their housewife counterparts and also perceived the move as less traumatic for women than the housewives (Walker, 1991).

As for men, a developing pattern in American mobility may spell trouble for them and the meaning that work has for them. Currently, 12% of relocating spouses are men. This figure is projected to rise to 25% by 1995 (Herring, 1989). The increasing number of men who follow wives to a new location for her career mobility may experience breaks in employment, change of career plans, or scrutiny from others about their work being secondary to their wives'. For men who see work and career as their source of self-esteem and

identity, unemployment is more likely to be traumatic (Brooks, 1990; Parkes, 1971; Pasick, 1990). As the socialized breadwinner, a husband may not relieve himself of the pressure to provide or may continue to view his income as the critical income, even when the wife contributes more to the family income. Wives, and persons in the new community, can subtly reinforce this belief about male economic responsibility. Therefore, the male "trailing spouse" (Bayes, 1989, p. 280) may feel the loss of work or status due to relocation much more severely than any man or woman who loses a relationship. Because of today's changing life-styles, the emotional impact of relocation may not be as one-sided as the literature proposes.

Summary of Implications

In order to advance the understanding of the effects of modern mobility, the lessons hidden within past research must be heeded. The literature reveals views of mobility that are predominately divided into pro's and con's, with or without strong evidence to support either stance. The fact that Americans continue to move at a

high rate makes it clear that relocation is, in some way, rewarding. However, the documented negative impacts of mobility cannot be ignored. Future research must facilitate the discovery of both the benefits and pitfalls of relocation.

It would be easy to be swept away by the resounding theme of loss found in the relocation literature. Lost relationships, possessions, activity patterns, familiar places, and employment are heavily documented. Future efforts, however, must avoid a singular loss focus. Building on the lesson of discovering the pro's and con's of relocation, research must examine the losses and gains individuals experience during these times. Only then can the full impact of mobility be understood.

The body of relocation research is currently devoid of a theoretical foundation. The recurring theme of loss appropriately serves as the core of the theory that may fill this void. Parkes' (1971) theory of psychosocial transitions maximizes the dynamics of grief due to loss. Parkes' proposal gracefully weaves together all the losses, gains, and resulting emotions described throughout the

relocation literature. It is, perhaps, the emotional complexity of the psychosocial transition that has hampered its validation in the area of relocation. The field has been prone to make sweeping generalizations from simple studies. Future researchers must follow the pioneering efforts of Viney and Bazely (1977) and explore the theory's applicability one discrete step at a time. It will only be through painfully small steps that a solid, theoretical foundation can be built for the relocation field.

Such a theory must be explored within modern mobility. Both men and women work, relocate due to career demands, and follow spouses to new locations. These changes in American life-style, and emerging theories about the connectedness of women and the work identity of men, add new twists to the relocation maze. The long-standing gender dichotomy--men relocate easily, women don't--must be scrutinized. Future research must incorporate these realities of modern mobility to be of any value.

The present study explored the occurrence of one affective response that Parkes (1971) stated is associated with psychosocial

transitions. Specifically, the study measured anxiety in military members and their spouses. The study investigated the pattern of anxiety levels during the first twelve months after a military relocation to see if they fit the grief model of Parkes. A fit would expect anxiety levels to peak and then wane as time since relocation increased. Anxiety should give way to anger, depression, and finally a regained sense of coherence. The study furthered the relocation research by questioning the relevance of Parkes' psychosocial transition model to military relocation.

The study also compared anxiety of men and women during the first twelve months after a military relocation. This study differed from previous research in that it collected responses from men and women in both traditional and non-traditional roles. That is, military members that had moved due to demands of their military career duties were both male and female. The spouses who had accompanied them to the new job site were also male and female.

Comparisons of responses by gender, and the possible impact of traditional/non-traditional roles, were made.

The project questioned the view that relocation adjustment is most difficult for women. The study expanded the scope and complexity of the relocation literature.

CHAPTER THREE

Method

Sample

Description of Sample

The population for this study was Air Force couples who had completed a Permanent Change of Station (PCS) move within the previous 12 months. The target population consisted of Air Force couples stationed at Scott AFB (SAFB) in Belleville, Illinois.

Approximately 6,500 personnel were assigned to Scott--36% officers and 64% enlisted. Seventy-five percent of the military members were married. The base population has a higher percentage of officers than other bases in Air Mobility Command. It should be noted that at the time of this study, the Air Force was in a great state of flux. Due to drastic cuts in the Department of Defense budget, all military branches were undergoing a fast paced reorganization and personnel drawdown. Scott AFB was similar to other Air Force bases in that many personnel were either leaving the Air Force, being reassigned to other bases, or

arriving to assume newly created duties. The reassignments were advantageous for the study of effects of relocation. However, the resulting unstable proportions of ranks, marital status, etc., warrants caution about generalizing the findings of the study.

Selection of Subjects

To conduct any research with Air Force members on a particular base, it is necessary to obtain the permission of the base commander. This is essential due to the study's potential of violating the Privacy Act of 1974. Permission to conduct this research was granted by the commander of SAFB, 10 March, 1993. The Air Force granted permission to conduct the study on 2 March, 1993 (see Appendix A).

The Chief of Personnel at SAFB provided a computer printout of all male military members that had relocated to Scott over the previous 12 months from another base at least 100 miles away. The list provided the names of the military members, date of arrival at SAFB, and duty phone numbers. To obtain a stratified random sample representative of the percent of officers and senior (ranks of E-7 and

above) and junior (ranks of E-6 and below) enlisted personnel, the names were grouped according to rank. Then, unmarried personnel, and those married but not accompanied by their female civilian spouse, were eliminated. This served as the total sample population. The total of this group was 1,521: 37% junior enlisted, 20% senior enlisted, and 43% officers.

The remaining subjects were then placed into two categories-- those arriving at SAFB within the previous six months, and those arriving within seven to twelve months. These time frames are based upon observations that after six months in a new location newcomers begin to feel settled (Christiansen & Ruffman, 1976; Landis & Stoetzer 1966; McAllister et al., 1973), as well as the stages of relocation described by Gaylord and Symons (1986), Jones (1973), and Sluzki (1979).

Each of the remaining subjects within the rank groups was assigned a number. Using a random numbers table, 50 subjects were chosen from each time category group with percentages from officers and senior and junior enlisted corresponding to the percentage of these

ranks in the total sample population. Thus, 100 male military members and their spouses were selected for the study in total.

It was anticipated that the population of married female military members would be much smaller. In late summer 1992, the number of female military members meeting the criteria of the study was 178, a number large enough to capture 100 participants. However, this number dropped 35% in 1993 to only 116. Therefore, all of these couples were selected for the study.

Instruments

State-Trait Anxiety Inventory

Anxiety was measured by the state anxiety and trait anxiety scales of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI). The STAI was developed by Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene (1970) to provide operational measures of state and trait anxiety.

State anxiety (S-anxiety) was defined by Spielberger (1988) as "a transitory emotional condition characterized by subjective, consciously perceived feelings of tensions, apprehension, nervousness, worry, and heightened activation of the autonomic nervous system"

(p. 448). Anxiety states vary in intensity and fluctuate over time as a function of situational stress.

Trait anxiety (T-anxiety) differs from state anxiety in that it refers to the stable differences in anxiety proneness. Trait anxiety is the individuals' tendency to perceive stressful situations as personally dangerous or threatening. "Such tendencies would result in more frequent elevations of S-anxiety" (p. 44).

After evaluating several anxiety scales, Levitt (1967) termed the STAI as the most carefully developed psychometric instrument for measuring anxiety. In 1978 Buros stated that since its publication, the STAI had been used in research more than any other anxiety measure. Spielberger has revised the STAI to produce an even stronger instrument (Spielberger, et al., 1983). The replacement items all had equal or better psychometric properties than did the original items. The new form correlated with the original at over a .90 level. The revised STAI Form Y will be used in this project.

The inventory is comprised of the two self-report scales. Each scale has 20 items. For the STAI S-anxiety scale, subjects are asked

how they feel at this moment and to indicate the intensity of this feeling on a four-point scale, e.g., "I feel calm": (1) Not at all, (2) Somewhat, (3) Moderately, and (4) Very Much. In the STAI anxiety T-scale, the subjects are asked how they generally feel and to indicate the frequency of this feeling on a four-point scale, e.g., "I feel secure:" (1) Almost Never, (2) Sometimes, (3) Often, and (4) Almost Always (See Appendix B). When scored, the direction of the nonanxiety items is reversed so that a high score suggests high state or trait anxiety. The inventory is designed to be self-administered and is easily hand scored.

Spielberger (1988) provided thorough reliability and data validity for the STAI. Reliability of the instrument is shown in test-retest scores and alpha coefficients. Test-retest reliabilities are reported for state and trait scores and indicate that the trait measure is quite stable (.73 to .86 for 1 hour to 104 days), but the reliabilities of the state measure are low (.16 to .54 for 1 hour to 104 days), as should be expected (Katkin, 1978). The internal consistency of both scales is high. Alpha coefficients for both the S-anxiety and T-anxiety scales of the revised STAI (Form Y) are .90 or higher for the normative samples.

Additionally, individual S-anxiety and T-anxiety items have consistently loaded on distinctive state and trait anxiety factors.

Concurrent validity was shown by estimating correlations of the STAI T-anxiety scale to Cattell's Anxiety Scale Questionnaire and Taylor's Manifest Anxiety Scale. Coefficients ranged from .73 to .85 (median = .80). The correlations indicated that the STAI measures essentially the same concept as these two instruments. The relation of trait scores to real life criteria was shown when scores of three populations, diagnosed neuropsychiatric patients, general hospital patients, and prisoners are compared (Spielberger et al., 1970). In all the neuropsychiatric classifications but one (character disorders) the trait means for the neuropsychiatric patients are significantly above the means of the normal groups: trait measures differed in the anticipated direction. State anxiety scores have been found to increase in response to various kinds of stress: surgery induced stress, pregnancy, failure, task difficulty, and classroom examinations (Spielberger, 1984).

In summary, the STAI shows high test-retest reliability for the trait scale and high alpha coefficients for both trait and state scales. It

correlates highly with several anxiety measures, demonstrates expected differences among groups of people, and state anxiety increases as expected under stressful situations.

This project was concerned with how relocation impacts the anxiety levels of military members and spouses. The primary focus was on state anxiety--how the subject felt here and now. However, both measures of anxiety were collected to explore the relationship between trait anxiety and state anxiety after relocation.

Open-ended Questionnaire

This project attempted to obtain a dual perspective of the impacts of relocation. Possible losses and gains created by the PCS move were investigated through a series of three open-ended questions. These questions were modeled after those asked by Bayes and Britain in their couples' study of "trailing spouses" (Bayes, 1989). Their exploratory study was in the beginning stages and their preliminary findings did not meet usual criteria for reliability and validity. However, their results were uncovering intense loss for female trailing spouses. This was an exploratory effort, and just like Bayes and

Britain, only general themes in the answers were reported. The three questions were as follows: (a) What was the most severe loss involved with this PCS move? (b) What was the most positive gain involved with this PCS move? (c) What was the most helpful thing you did to make yourself feel more at home in this new place? The questions were on a separate sheet of paper with space for a handwritten answer between each.

Design

A 2x2x2 factorial design was employed. The independent variables were:

1. Time since relocation (1-6 months or 7-12 months)
2. Gender (male or female)
3. Role (military member or accompanying spouse).

The dependent variable was state anxiety level as measured by the STAI. A three way ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses. In all the hypothesis testing, a .05 level of significance was used.

Null Hypotheses

1. There is no difference in state anxiety levels over time since a Permanent Change of Station (PCS) move.
2. There is no difference in state anxiety levels between men and women after a PCS move.
3. There is no difference in state anxiety levels between military members and accompanying spouses after a PCS move.
4. There are no interactive effects among time since a PCS move (1-6/7-12 months), gender, or role, (military member/accompanying spouse) on state anxiety levels.

Procedures

The researcher contacted each military member, from the randomly selected groups, by telephone at their duty site. The researcher explained the purpose of the study, the random selection process, that participation by the member and their spouse was completely voluntary, and that information would be kept confidential. Those choosing to participate either met the researcher, at their

convenience, at the Scott Family Support Center (FSC) to pick up the questionnaire packets or had the researcher deliver the packets to them at the duty site. The large majority of participants stopped by the FSC with no hesitation. Those that asked for packets to be delivered worked on shifts that did not allow them to get to the FSC when it was open. Secretaries of two general officers thought it more respectful for the researcher to deliver and pick up the packets. This was done.

When meeting the military member, the researcher explained the purpose, confidentiality, voluntariness, risks, and benefits of the study. The military member was given the questionnaire packets for both the member (Appendix B) and spouse (Appendix C) to complete at their residence. A cover letter inside the packet explained, again, the purpose, confidentiality, and voluntariness of the study. The cover letter also provided instructions for filling out the questionnaire, the consent form, and the section for those wanting a brief report of the project's findings. The member was again given a choice to return the sealed packets with the completed questionnaires to the FSC or have the researcher pick them up at the duty site. Surprisingly, several

spouses returned the packets and offered further insights into their relocation experiences. Frequently, members returning packets wanted to discuss the study or their concerns about the move and family members. At least 30 referrals were made to the FSC and community resources. Finally, a copy of the consent form was made and given to participants.

No names appeared on the questionnaires, but as couples turned in the completed questionnaires, the members' names were checked off the master list for tracking purposes. Members who do not show for their appointments were called and rescheduled.

Questionnaires were assembled with the demographic sheet last and the STAI and open-ended questions sheet in random order to control for effects caused by answering either instrument first.

The procedures employed in this study have been approved by the Saint Louis University Institutional Review Board (IRB), #7243.

Summary

The target population for this study consisted of Air Force couples stationed at Scott AFB in Belleville, Illinois. This base

population was representative of other Air Force bases in that personnel were undergoing many changes, at a fast pace, due to the Department of Defense drawdown and reorganization.

A stratified random sample of male military members with accompanying female civilian spouses was drawn from a personnel listing supplied by the Chief of Personnel at Scott AFB. Selected subjects had to have completed a PCS to Scott over the last twelve months from another base at least 100 miles away. The sample was stratified according to rank: officer, senior enlisted, and junior enlisted. A total of 100 male military members and their and civilian wives was selected for the study. Because only 116 married female military members had relocated to Scott AFB in the last twelve months, all 116 active duty women and their civilian husbands were selected for participation.

Anxiety was measured by the State Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, 1983). State anxiety is a transitory emotional condition that fluctuates as a function of situational stress. Trait anxiety refers to the individual's stable tendency to perceive stressful situations as

threatening. The self administered inventory has proven reliability and validity. This project was concerned with how a PCS move impacted the state anxiety levels of military members and spouses. However, both state and trait scores were collected to evaluate the relationship between trait anxiety and state anxiety after relocation.

In an exploratory effort, the quantitative measures of anxiety were augmented with response to three open-ended questions. These questions were modeled after those developed by Bayes and Brittain in their study of relocated couples. Their exploratory study did not meet the usual criterion of reliability and validity but did uncover extensive losses for trailing spouses. The questions were asked in this project as an effort to tap the richness of the PCS move experience. General themes of answers were reported.

Subjects were contacted by telephone at the duty site and asked to take home a questionnaire packet for both the member and their spouse. The spouse and member were asked to complete separate questionnaires. The questionnaire packet for the military member and spouse included: (a) a cover letter explaining the purpose,

voluntariness, confidentiality of the project, and instructions about how to fill out the questionnaire, (b) a consent form, (c) a questionnaire made up of the STAI, open-ended questions, and a demographics sheet.

A 2x2x2 factorial design was used, with the three independent variables being time, gender, and role. Anxiety measured by the STAI served as the dependent variable. A three-way ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses. A .05 level of significance was used.

The null hypotheses investigated included:

1. There is no difference in state anxiety levels over time since a PCS move.
2. There is no difference in state anxiety levels between men and women after a PCS move.
3. There is no difference in state anxiety levels between military members and accompanying spouses after a PCS move.
4. There is no interactive effect among time since a PCS move (1-6 months/7-12 months), gender, or role (military member or accompanying spouse), on state anxiety levels.

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis & Results

The main purpose of the study was to examine the occurrence of one affective response that Parkes (1971) stated is associated with a psychosocial transition. Specifically, this study examined the impact of relocation upon the anxiety levels of military members and their civilian spouses during the first twelve months after relocation to see if the responses fit the grief model of Parkes (1971). A fit would expect anxiety levels to peak and gradually wane as time since relocation increased. The study also compared anxiety of men and women during the first twelve months after a military relocation. This study differed from previous literature in that it collected responses from both men and women in traditional and non-traditional roles. That is, military members who had moved due to demands of career were both male and female. The spouses who had accompanied them to the new duty site were also male and female. Comparisons of responses by gender, and

traditional /non-traditional roles were made. The null hypotheses investigated were:

- 1) There is no difference in state anxiety levels over time since a Permanent Change of Station (PCS) move.
- 2) There is no difference in state anxiety levels between men and women after a PCS move.
- 3) There is no difference in state anxiety levels between military members and accompanying spouses after a PCS move.
- 4) There are no interactive effects between time since a PCS move (one through six months/ seven through twelve months), gender, or role (military member or accompanying spouse) on state anxiety levels.

In an exploratory effort, the project attempted to obtain a dual perspective of the impacts of relocation. Possible gains and losses created by the move were investigated through three open-ended questions posed to relocated military members and their spouses:

- (a) What was the most severe loss involved with this PCS move?

- (b) What was the most positive gain involved with this PCS move?
- (c) What was the most helpful thing you did to make yourself feel more at home in this new place?

Sample and Response Rate

Male Military Members.

From the stratified random sample of 100 male military members, eight military members were eliminated from the study for not meeting the selection criteria. Of these three male members had moved from a remote, unaccompanied tour and their wives had only relocated from a short stateside distance to join them at the new duty site. One member had just returned from a 90 day overseas deployment. It was decided that normal separation and reunion dynamics within the family (Ridenour, 1984) could mask or exacerbate the impacts of relocation, and these couples were dropped from the study. Three other male members reported that since the relocation, they had separated from or divorced their spouses. One reported that his wife did not move with him to the new duty station but had chosen to stay at the previous home site.

Two male members chose not to participate because their foreign born spouses would not understand the study. One of these explained that his wife was appalled at the “American” need to research private lives and was always offended by telephone and mail surveys. After initially agreeing to participate, the second young airman felt that the questions would “upset” his new wife. Two male members simply chose not to participate. A total of 176 male military members and their female civilian spouses participated in the study, thus involving 88 couples.

Female Military Members

One hundred sixteen female military members had relocated to Scott AFB within the previous twelve months, a 35% decrease over the previous year. It was decided that all of these members would be contacted. Eleven of these female military members had left the Air Force within the last twelve months. Current records did not reflect this separation. Three of the women had been selected for training and had already relocated to another duty site. This left a pool of 102 female members that were actually contacted and

asked to participate in the study. Twelve women reported that their husbands had not moved with them but had chosen to remain where they were due to employment. The couples visited as often as they could. Military flights made this travel easier and less expensive. Seven of the 12 were officers. Five of the women had experienced overseas deployments, extended training sessions away from home, or had returned from unaccompanied remote tours. Again, the separation and reunion dynamics within these families could make measurement of relocation impacts questionable. Nine women had divorced or separated from their husbands since the relocation. Three women had delivered babies within two months of the time contacted. Due to this significant change within the family structure, these couples were also eliminated. Finally, one female member had been through two quick relocations in one year. The first sudden relocation was an evacuation from the Philippines due to the eruption of Mount Pinatubo. She and her family had been separated during the traumatic evacuation, as were most military families. She joined them later, stateside, with a follow-on assignment to

Scott AFB. This family was still trying to recover from the evacuation experience and was eliminated from the study. Three women refused to participate. In total, 138 female military members and male civilian spouses participated in the study, thus involving 69 couples.

The final sample surveyed was 157 military members and 157 civilian spouses, a project total of 314 subjects. Eighty-eight military members were male, 69 were female; 88 spouses were female, 69 spouses were male.

Demographic Data

One hundred and fifty-seven couples participated in the study. Forty seven and one half percent of the military members and spouses had relocated between one day and six months ago, and 52.5 % had moved between more than six months (denoted as seven) and twelve months previous at the time of the study. Thirty two point eight percent of the couples were childless, 21.3 % reported having one child, 28.7 % two children, 12.1 % three children, and 4.1 % four children or more. To be reported, the

children had to be living with the couple. Twelve percent of the participants identified themselves as black, 78 % as white, 3.8 % as Hispanic, 3.5 % as Asian, and 2.2 % as belonging to other races. One person objected to any racial/ethnic identification. Thirty two point eight percent of the couples reported family income between \$14,000 and \$29,999; 49 % reported \$30,000 - \$59,999 as the family income and 18.2 % reported an incomes of \$60,000 or more. Thirty nine point eight percent of the military members held the rank of technical sergeant or below. Fifteen percent were master sergeant or above. Twenty six point eight percent were lieutenants or captains and 18.5 % were majors or above. In all, 54.8 % of the members were enlisted and 45.3 % were officers.

Members reported time served in the Air Force as follows: 4.8 % less than one year, 17.8 % one to five years, and 20.7 % six to ten years. Fifty six point seven percent had served eleven years or more. Age, education, number of previous moves, and length of time lived at the former base for both spouses and military members are reported in Table 1.

Table 1

Age, Education, Number of Moves, and Time at Former Base; Data of Spouses and Military Members

Characteristic	Military Members		Spouses	
	n	%	n	%
Age:				
Under 25 years of age	25	15.9	23	14.6
Between 25-35 years	71	45.2	77	49.0
Between 36-45 years	56	35.7	48	30.6
Over 46 years	5	3.2	9	5.7
	157	100	157	100
Education				
High School/GED	10	6.4	35	22.3
College/bachelor degree	94	59.8	108	68.8
Masters degree	43	27.4	10	6.4

Table 1 continued

Table 1 cont'd

	Member		Spouse	
Education:	n	%	n	%
Post grad. degree	10	6.4	4	2.5
	157	100	157	100
Length of time living at former base:				
Less than 1 year	25	15.9	22	14.0
1-2 years	21	19.7	33	21.0
3-5 years	82	52.2	75	47.8
Over 5 years	19	12.1	27	17.2
	157	100	157	100
Number of previous PCS moves:				
First move	17	10.8	46	29.3
2-3 moves	44	28.0	55	35.0
4-5 moves	43	27.4	30	19.1
6 or more moves	53	33.8	26	16.6
	157	100	157	100

n = frequency

Quantitative Data Analysis and Results

To test the four null hypotheses, a three-way factorial design was used with the three independent variables of time since move, gender, and role. Each independent variable had two levels: time since move (0-6 months, 7-12 months); gender (male, female); and role (military member, spouse) making this a 2x2x2 factorial design. The dependent variable was state anxiety as measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), Form Y (Spielberger et al., 1983). Coding and analysis of the three independent variables and the state and trait scores from the STAI were completed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences Program (SSPS).

The means and standard deviations of the state anxiety scores (S scores) are shown in Table 2.

In comparison to the normative data for the STAI (Spielberger, et al., 1983), the mean S score for the males in the study (35.00) fell within the range of mean S scores for normal adult males (34.51-36.54). The mean S score for females in the study (37.91) was above the mean S score for normal adult females

(32.20-36.17). The mean S score for military members (35.63) fell within the range of S scores for normal adults (32.20-36.54) while the mean S score for spouses (37.28) was above the range of S scores for normal adults (32.20-36.54). The mean S score for subjects relocating 0-6 months previous (38.32) was above the mean S score of normal adults (32.20-36.54) while the mean S score for those moving 7-12 months previous (34.78) fell mid-range of S scores of normal adults.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of State Anxiety Scores by Time, Since Move, Gender, and Role

Gender	Time Since Move				
	0-6 months		7-12 months		
<u>Male</u>	member	spouse	member	spouse	n = 157
n	41	33	47	36	M=35.00
M	38.78	34.61	31.89	35.14	SD = 10.14
<u>Female</u>					n=157
n	31	44	38	44	M=37.91
M	37.55	41.23	35.32	37.11	SD=11.95
<u>Member</u>	n = 157		<u>Spouse</u>	n = 157	
	M = 35.63			M = 37.28	
	SD = 11.08			SD = 11.20	
<u>0-6 mths</u>	n = 149		<u>7-12 mths</u>	n = 165	
	M = 38.32			M = 34.78	
	SD = 11.58			SD = 10.51	

Table 3

State Anxiety Score Analysis of Variance for Time Since Move,
Gender, and Role

Source	df	MS	F	F Prob.
Time since move (A)	1	6.416	8.238	.004**
Gender (B)	1	3.474	4.460	.036*
Role (C)	1	.862	1.107	.294
A x B	1	.001	.001	.975
A x C	1	1.070	1.374	.242
B x C	1	1.142	1.467	.227
A x B x C	1	2.599	3.336	.069
Error	306	.799		

Note. Using square-root transformation (Myers, 1972).

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

An analysis of variance of S scores for time since move, gender, and role (see Table 3) revealed a significant difference ($p < .01$) in state anxiety between the subjects relocating 0-6 months

ago ($M = 38.32$) and those experiencing a move 7-12 months ago ($M = 34.78$). The analysis also showed a significant difference ($p < .05$) between gender (male $M = 35.00$; female $M = 37.91$). The analysis of variance showed no significant difference between military members and spouses or any significant interactive effects. It should be noted that the interaction between time, gender, and role ($p = .069$) was near significance.

Hypothesis 1 There is no difference in state anxiety levels over time since a PCS move. Rejected.

Hypothesis 2 There is no difference in state anxiety levels between men and women after a PCS move. Rejected.

Hypothesis 3 There is no difference in state anxiety levels between military members and their spouses after a PCS move. Accepted.

Hypothesis 4 There are no interactive effects among time, gender, and role on state anxiety levels. Accepted.

Table 4 showed the analysis of variance of state anxiety scores for income, length of military service, number of moves, age,

education, number of children, and time lived at the previous base.

Rank was analyzed in three different combinations: enlisted compared to officers; junior enlisted and junior officers compared to senior enlisted and senior officers; junior enlisted, junior officers, senior enlisted and senior officers all compared to each other. Of the 10 variables, only four showed significant differences at the .05 level.

The condensed rank alternative compared S scores of enlisted personnel to officers. There was a significant difference with enlisted personnel being more anxious ($M = 37.69$) than officers ($M = 34.96$).

S scores across age groups were analyzed. Groups were: 1) up to 25 years of age ($M = 36.56$); 2) 26-35 years ($M = 37.07$); 3) 36-45 years ($M = 36.53$); and 4) 46 and over ($M = 29.07$). The Scheffe procedure showed the significant difference (.05 level) was between the 26-35 year old group (most anxious) and the 46 years and over group (least anxious).

Significant differences between education levels were found. Subjects were divided into three groups: 1) high school attendance, high school diploma/GED ($M = 38.86$); 2) some college coursework, undergraduate degree ($M = 37.18$); and 3) master's degree and above ($M = 33.15$). The Scheffe procedure found that both groups one and two significantly differed in anxiety from group three. Those subjects with graduate degrees were least anxious.

State anxiety scores also differed significantly according to the number of children living with the participants. Group one had no children living with them ($M = 34.75$), group two had one child ($M = 39.40$), and finally, group three had two or more children ($M = 36.30$). The Scheffe procedure revealed that those with one child were more anxious than those without children and more than one child.

It should be noted that differences according to level of income and length of stay at the previous base approached significance ($p = .0556$ and $.0618$ respectively).

Table 4

State Anxiety Scores Analysis of Variance for Income, Rank,
Length of Service, Number of Moves, Age, Education, Number of
Children, and Time Lived at Prior Base

Source	df	MS	F	F Prob.
<u>Income</u>				
Between Groups	2	2.3443	22.9171	.0556
Within Groups	311	.8036		
Total	313			
<u>Length of Service</u>				
Between Groups	3	.4729	.5790	.6292
Within Groups	310	.8168		
Total	313			
<u>Rank</u>				
Between Groups	3	1.6589	2.0599	.1055
Within Groups	310	.8053		
Total	313			

Table 4 continued

Table 4 cont'd df MS F F Prob.

Condensed Rank (Jr Enlisted & Officer; Sr NCO's & Officers)

Between Groups 1 .4559 .5597 .4550

Within Groups 312 .8146

Total 313

Condensed Rank Alternative (Enlisted, Officer)

Between Groups 1 3.9025 4.852 .0283*

Within Groups 312 .8036

Total 313

Number of Moves

Between Groups 3 .4907 .6010 .6148

Within Groups 310 .8166

Total 313

Age

Between Groups 3 2.2402 2.814 .0401*

Within Groups 310 .7997

Total 313

Table 4 continued

Table 4 cont'd df MS F F Prob.

Education

Between Groups 2 3.3115 4.1175 .0172*

Within Groups 297 .8042

Total 299

Number of Children

Between Groups 2 2.8323 3.5381 .0302*

Within Groups 311 .8005

Total 313

Time at Previous Base

Between Groups 3 1.9845 2.4724 .0618

Within Groups 307 .8017

Total 310

Note. Using square-root transformation (Myers, 1972).

* $p < .05$.

Means and standard deviations of the trait anxiety scores (T scores) by time since move, gender, and role were reported in Table 5. In comparison to the norms for the STAI (Spielberger, et al., 1983), the mean T score for males in the study (33.49) was below the mean T scores of normal adult males in all age groups (33.86-35.55). The mean female T score in the study (37.43) was above the mean T score of normal adult females (31.79-36.15). The mean T score for military members (34.56) fell within the range of mean T scores for normal adults (31.79-36.15). The mean score for spouses (36.36) was above this range of T scores for normal adults. The mean T score for subjects who had relocated 0-6 months ago (36.65) was above the mean T score for normal adults (31.79-36.15) while the mean T score for subjects relocating 7-12 months ago (34.38) fell within the range of T scores of the normative population.

An analysis of variance of T scores for time since move, gender and role (see Table 6) showed a significant difference ($p < .05$) in trait anxiety between those subjects moving 0-6 months ago ($M = 36.08$) and those relocating 7-12 months ago ($M = 34.38$).

($p < .05$) in trait anxiety between those subjects moving 0-6 months ago ($M = 36.08$) and those relocating 7-12 months ago ($M = 34.38$). This analysis also revealed a significant difference in T scores between men and women ($p < .01$). No significant interactions were found.

The analyses of variance of the state and trait scores showed that both state and trait anxiety differed significantly over time after relocation and between genders. These results led to a correlation analysis. For this study, the correlation between state and trait anxiety was .7036, exceeding the normative correlation of .46 between trait and state anxiety scores (Personal communication, C. Spielberger, January 21, 1993).

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations of Trait Anxiety Scores by Time Since Move, Gender, and Role

Gender	Time Since Move				
	0-6 months		7-12 months		
<u>Male</u>	member	spouse	member	spouse	n = 157
n	41	33	47	36	M = 33.4904
M	35.80	33.06	31.89	35.14	SD = 8.0643
<u>Female</u>					n = 157
n	31	44	38	44	M = 37.4395
M	37.90	39.27	35.32	37.11	SD = 10.6911
<u>Member</u> n = 157		<u>Spouse</u> n = 157			
M = 34.5669		M = 36.3631			
SD = 9.3578		SD = 9.8989			
<u>0-6 mths</u> n = 149		<u>7-12 mths</u> n = 165			
M = 36.6577		M = 34.3879			
SD = 9.2377		SD = 9.9288			

Table 6

Trait Anxiety Score Analysis of Variance for Time Since Move,
Gender, and Role

Source	df	MS	F	F Prob.
Time since move (A)	1	3.016	5.016	.026*
Gender (B)	1	6.823	11.347	.001**
Role (C)	1	.875	1.1455	.229
A x B	1	.054	.090	.765
A x C	1	1.703	2.832	.093
B x C	1	1.892	3.146	.077
A x B x C	1	.100	.167	.683
Error	306	.601		

Note. Using square-root transformation (Myers, 1972).

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

Qualitative Data Analysis and Results

This project attempted to obtain a dual perspective of the impact of relocation by asking subjects about the gains and losses of the recent move. Three open-ended questions were posed to the participants for their brief written responses: a) What was the most severe loss involved with this PCS move? b) What was the most positive gain involved with this PCS move? c) What was the most helpful thing you did to make yourself more at home in this new place?

Responses were reviewed by two independent coders, resulting in up to four major themes in answer to each questions. While themes were similar for both men and women during the first and second half of the year after relocation, there were differences in emphasis. For comparison, most severe loss responses were reported for women, both civilian and military, and men, both civilian and military, in the 0-6 month stage, and then the 7-12 month stage. The same format followed for most positive gain and helpful behavior.

Most Severe Losses Reported 0-6 Months After Relocation

Civilian women

Close to half of the women who had relocated with their active duty husbands reported friends as the most severe loss of the move.

...being so far from very dear friend.

Leaving my best friend in life. Loss of having good friends near.

The loss of friends was followed by the impact of losing her job due to the move. Some spouses reported the loss of a job was directly tied to other losses.

My job and my daughter. Have to have money to have children with you.

My civil service job and my friends there.

Military husbands sometimes voiced awareness of the wife's loss. One officer reported the most severe loss of the move was his spouse's sense of security and worth due to her current unemployment.

The loss of family (e.g., parents, siblings, and grandparents) was reported third most often by wives. Foreign born spouses provided especially intense statements.

...my country with family, friends, and 31 safe, loving years (homesick?☺).

Children were the fourth major loss to wives.

Close contact and relationship with my two step-children.

Leaving adult child on his 'own'.

The effects of the move upon their children was included in this loss.

The security my children had in our other home and the uncertainty they displayed during the transition.

Active duty women

Female military members reported the same major losses in the same order: friends, job, family, and children. However, loss of the wife's job was replaced by loss of the husband's job and his income.

My husband's job - not so much the money but the job satisfaction. He liked it and the people he worked with.

The impact upon the children included issues of child care.

The children lost their best friend of three years and baby-sitter of two years and schools.

An additional issue for active duty wives was temporary separations from their husbands while they came ahead to the new duty assignment.

Leaving my husband back home and in the hospital.

It should be noted that while reported losses were very similar for the two groups of women, the number of civilian spouses reporting friends and family as major losses was twice that of the active duty women. The additional emphasis for military women was on loss of her spouse's job and income.

Civilian men

Men relocating with their active duty wives frequently identified the severe loss of the move with one phrase -- my job. Two factors associated with this primary loss, friends and money, followed.

Losing daily contact at work with close friends.

Active duty men

The theme of loss of friends was intensified by male military members. Close to half responded about lost friendships.

My friends and a lot of good times in Europe.

Leaving behind a lot of wonderful friendships that were established in my previous assignment.

The number of active duty husbands identifying money as the major loss of the move was double that of civilian husbands.

Financial security affected by out of pocket expenses involved with the PCS.

Depletion of financial reserves.

Several members just answered "Money."

The financial loss trend was matched by the loss of family.

Moving away from family - mother and brothers.

The impact of leaving extended family upon spouses was noted.

Taking my wife away from her family.

Members also felt the loss of stability in their lives due to the relocation.

A stable home life.

Loss of routine.

The greatest loss for some male members involved their children.

Having to leave my children with ex-wife. I am unable to tend to or see them.

Loss of a close neighborhood...for kids.

Most Severe Losses Reported 7-12 Months After Relocation

Civilian women

Women who moved with their active duty husbands seven to twelve months earlier identified the same losses as their 0-6 month counterparts -- friends, family, their jobs. However, the losses involving their children were overshadowed by financial losses:

Money. \$8,000 due to lost credit in college.

Financial loss in buying and selling home.

Most of our saving to make ends meet.

Although the financial concerns grew stronger for this group, the loss of friends and family remained primary.

Friends that I will never see again.

Ability to see loved ones often.

Most often civilian spouses just wrote "Friends."

Active duty women

Like the civilian wives, active duty women displayed a shift in emphasis. Finances and the loss of their husbands' income was the dominant concern.

Loss of husband's income - over 6 months the bills are piling up.

The emotional aspect of a husband's unemployment was alluded to by one captain: "When my husband couldn't get a job, his depression and loss of self esteem was hard for me to cope with. And the financial strain is severe."

The loss of her previous job remained the most grievous for some.

Leaving the students who looked to me for guidance.

Loss of professional autonomy.

While much less frequent, responses about loss of family and friends and children were still present at the 7-12 month time frame.

Leaving my mother and son.

Uprooting the boys away from their grandparents and other family members.

The issue of care for children also surfaced again.

Children aren't of school age so did not greatly suffer from pulling them out of school. But did spend a great deal of time looking for a new sitter (probably more time than we house-hunted).

Civilian men

Men who had moved with their active duty wives 7-12 months earlier held loss of their jobs and income as paramount. This mirrored their six month counterparts.

Loss of employment; family income reduced by half.

Having to stop my business and start all over again.

These men still felt the loss of past friends.

Loss of old friends on a day to day interaction.

Companionship.

Fathers described the severe loss of the move revolving around their children.

Leaving a better school system and having to place our children in a worse school system...

Loss of children in immediate physical family during most formative years. Not able to watch them grow up between 3 and 5 years.

A few husbands described the loss of personal belongings as the most severe:

Furniture sold due to being overweight.

My emotional attachment to our home which we had to sell at a significant financial loss.

Active duty men

Male military members, during the 7-12 month period, identified the same losses as their six month counterparts -- friends, money, family and children. The most frequently cited losses were other people, ranging from neighbors to co-workers and fellow church-goers. Financial losses became explicit during this phase:

Destruction of furniture and possessions.

Losing money due to non-funded reassignment and wife lost job.

Money, - had to rent at \$600 a month until base housing opened.

Losses to children drew more attention of military fathers during this time.

Son loved previous base: we lost superior schools.

The impact upon the entire family was also noted.

Family upheaval due to 2 PCS's in 12 months.

...family stability.

Even seven months after taking a new duty assignment some military members stated that their previous jobs were the most severe loss.

Loss of ...best job.

Loss of flying/command to staff position.

Most Positive Gains Reported 0-6 Months After Relocation

Civilian Women

No one positive gain dominated the responses of women recently relocated due to their husbands' military reassignment. Rather, benefits to the families and advantages of the environment

were equally presented. Benefits to the family included being closer to extended family.

Being near my sick mom.

Women stated that the move helped to build a stronger nuclear family.

Starting a new life with family of my own.

Wives wrote about how the environment was advantageous.

Cleaner, cooler air to breathe. Good hospital, close...

We moved closer to...a big city.

Like the area, climate, people.

The wives also pointed out benefits specifically related to their husbands.

My husband and I are growing close together.

Less number of TDY's (temporary duty's away from home), spend additional time with husband and able to start a family.

My husband making rank as MSgt (master sergeant).

The spouses showed a sense of adventure by choosing new experiences as the greatest gain of the move.

A new area to experience.

Getting to live in another state.

Moving to an area that we can explore the country and city.

A new house was the biggest gain for several civilian wives.

Active Duty Women

Active duty women echoed the civilian spouses in gains to the family forum, the environment, and between the couple. Frequently the most positive gain was being closer to extended family.

Environmental advantages included better school system for children, availability of colleges, location in the Midwest, and a reasonable housing market. The ability to buy a new home was the most positive gain for several military women. These women also identified changes for their husbands as personal benefits.

Moving close to St. Louis for my husband to finish his degree.

Husband lost his job; went back to school and now has a lot more time with the family.

One area of gains distinguished the military women from the civilians wives during this time frame. The active duty women cited aspects of their jobs as the most positive gain.

Get to work in area I enjoy.

I am learning and doing more at work than I did as my last clinic.

Such job benefits were secondary only to gains for their families.

Civilian Men

Men relocating with active duty wives focused on attributes of the environment as the most positive gains of the move. These attributes included greater job opportunities.

Moving to a large city with lots of job opportunities and the chance to start my life as a civilian.

It allowed me to get into the school and program of my choice.

Some husbands saw new homes as the most positive gain:

New house - our first!!

Equity, finally owning a home of our own.

Others looked at the gains in a long term perspective.

We got...one step closer to my wife becoming an officer.

My wife's career betterment.

Mixed in with the long term was a sense of newness:

Try different things - a new beginning.

A fresh start - a chance to see if personal changes really are good.

Active Duty Men

The only common gain between civilian husbands and active duty husbands was an excitement about new experiences. Military members cited:

New opportunities, experience, etc. Expanding my horizons.

Here, the similarity between the two groups of men ended.

Military members overwhelmingly responded that the most positive gain was their job.

Great career move, future more stable.

Family gains were also prominent in these men's responses.

Wife's promotion and moving closer to her family.

Finally, military husbands made it clear how much returning to a stateside assignment was appreciated.

**Returning to CONUS (Continental United States)
to an American community.**

Civilization (came from South Korea).

Most Positive Gains Reported 7-12 Months After Relocation

Civilian Women

Civilian wives described the same gains during the 7-12 month period as did civilian wives during the first 6 month phase.

Gains for family, environment, home and couple relationships followed the same trends. Family benefits ran the gamut.

Reuniting with grown child.

Family time with husband present.

Closer to families.

Environmental gains included "More secure, safer area, better

schools” and “Culture, baseball team, big city, better schools.”

As often as some wives responded with environmental as the most positive gain, others listed new homes as the best improvement. Just like the civilian spouses who had relocated recently, these wives were aware of PCS gains to their husbands’ careers.

Spouse kept career on own terms.

Husband working in peaceful surroundings.

Active Duty Women

Active duty women echoed civilian spouses in gains to the family, from the environment, and between the couple. Immediate benefits of the move for the couples’ relationship were augmented by it’s posturing the couple for future plans.

We’re closer to where we want to live permanently.

My husband has a chance to take classes connected to his career and I can prepare to separate from the Air Force.

A more pronounced difference between the active duty women and civilian wives was their identification of positive gains related to the military women's jobs.

New job challenge (I was stagnating in old job...).

Promotion, more chance for career progression.

The military women also saw returning to their country as a positive gain.

Closer to family in an English speaking country.

After living overseas for 7 years, it was important to return to the US to get children into US school system.

Civilian Men

The most positive gains for civilian men who relocated over six months ago were markedly different from the gains of their six month counterparts. These men still identified environmental characteristics as major benefits along with the advantages of new experiences.

The universities are nearer and good.

Lower cost of living.

Yet their concern for others was heightened.

A more relaxed work environment for my wife.

I really found out how much I love my wife.

Their concern extended to their children.

**That my son and daughter are involved
with their extended family.**

**The ability to spend more time with my 2 year
old son.**

Active Duty Men

At the 7-12 month mark, these men focused on the environment and its newness for most positive gains of the move. Lower cost and crime, better schools, chance to investigate a new area of the country, new experiences, American food, no smog or violence, metro area, were all phrases used to describe gains of the area. Family benefits included:

Rejoined my son.

Closer to elderly mother after father's death.

While not as strongly emphasized as those more recently relocated, these men identified aspects of their jobs as a positive gain.

Upward mobility, promotion potential.

More fulfilling job opportunity.

A new theme also emerged for military men--the gaining of a home.

Having own place and not living with in-laws.

Back to civilization and bought a house.

Most Helpful Behaviors Reported 0-6 Months After Relocation

Civilian Women

Women who relocated with their military husbands deliberately tried to familiarize themselves with their new surrounding. They identified this strategy as the most helpful thing they did to make themselves feel at home in the new place.

Driving around and walks to get familiar with my surroundings.

Obtained local information from area chamber of commerce and Triple A.

Civilian wives used old and new friends to become more at home.

Sought out friends that had moved from former bases.

Found a church right away - new friends can help a lot.

Several spouses looked to new neighbors for support.

Talked to people in our housing area.

Decorating their homes with personal belongings helped some.

Bought my plants from the other house instead of giving them away and starting over.

I decorated my new home with reminders of our last home.

I guess fix up my house my way. I still don't feel at home. I hope it will change.

Active Duty Women

Active duty women who had relocated within the last six month also identified their homes as an effective means to feel more at home.

Put pictures of my parents and sisters on my wall.

Put out our personal belongings.

One woman's comments revealed how potent a personalized house can be.

We're not unpacking everything because we're house-hunting and I miss our 'stuff'. This is the worst time of the whole move for me, the period where our 'house' is not 'home'.

This group of women also planned far ahead to make the move easier.

Sent my husband here early to open up our house, get electricity and telephone set up.

Came in advance and got housing and day care arrangements set up.

The military women also saw their own early efforts to reach out and become involved in community activities as a help to feeling at home.

Immediately got involved with local happenings - zoo, craft fair, baseball games.

Joining organizations - school and basketball teams for the kids, volleyball team for Brian and I, local church for the entire family.

Seek out the right church home.

Civilian Men

These husbands described a wide array of things they did to make themselves feel more at home in the new place. No one major theme surfaced. They planned ahead and visited the area before moving. They worked on new homes.

Bought an old home to fix up.

I fixed up our yard.

They familiarized themselves quickly with the area.

Drive around the area to get to know the town.

Get as much information about the area.

They met new people and became active in community activities.

Attend church and get involved.

Trying to be active in community.

An additional effort surfaced in this group of men - an effort of attitude.

Attempted to have and maintain a positive attitude toward 'pros' of this area.

Adapt.

Relaxed...kept smiling and DID it.

Attitude was unique to this group.

Active Duty Men

Recently relocated active duty men described two major methods of making themselves feel more at home in their new place: finding and fixing up a home, and making new and rekindling old friendships. Several reported the helpfulness of becoming familiar with the area through exploration and pre-arrival information. The impact of finding a house was summed up in these statements:

We were blessed to find a vacant house so moved in quickly. Better for us and children when we can move in, get our belongings and move on with life at a new base.

Find a house/break it in - have it 'smell' like home (potpourri).

Making new friends was important.

Made friends quickly...

Made new friendships soon after arrival.

However, the value of old friends was clear.

I called around to see if I had any friends from the Air Force Academy. Absolutely helped out in sense of feeling that there are friends around that can help you get used to new environment.

This particular group also identified their churches as most helpful.

Got involved in church activities quickly.

...found a strong church home.

Most Helpful Behaviors Reported 7-12 Months After Relocation

Civilian Women

Like their counterparts who had relocated more recently, these civilian wives identified the following behaviors as most helpful in making them feel at home: 1) getting familiar with the new surroundings; 2) buying and settling their new homes; and 3) meeting new friends. Three other themes emerged for this group during this 7-12 month time frame. Most obvious was the perception that their jobs were the most helpful factor in feeling at home.

Went straight to work.

Set up new day care business.

Second was the frequent response that the church had been most helpful.

Wonderful church with loving, caring people.

Bible study.

Found a Bible believing, fundamental Church.

Finally, wives gave credit to their personal efforts of reaching out beyond homes and families to get involved.

Right away I joined camping club; entered college.

I went back to school.

Active Duty Men

Whereas civilian wives reported reaching out as the most helpful behavior during the 7-12 month time frame, active duty women reported more inwardly focused behaviors as most helpful in making them feel at home. Specifically, military women used their homes to feel comfortable.

I put curtains in the kitchen windows.

Did yard work.

Put up a bird feeder in front of kitchen window.

Family and friends remained an important helping factor for this group of women.

Having relatives staying with us during the transition.

...visit family close by.

When outside activities were cited, church involvement was most frequent.

Got involved in the chapel program.

One woman described her dilemma with work and outside activities like this:

I put most of my efforts into my new job. Although I still don't feel completely at home here, the church I go to and getting children involved has helped, somewhat.

Civilian Men

Civilian husbands that relocated reported three distinct behaviors that most helped them feel at home. Buying and settling into a home was frequently cited. Besides a place to live, the physical improvements that the men made in their new home were specifically identified as helpful.

I personally enclosed the deck and did landscaping, added shrubbery, etc.

...installed new carpet in our home.

The second trend in helpful behavior was simply stated by several husbands: "Got a job." Last, these men revealed a strong regard for their own efforts in the community and personal hobbies.

Bought a car to overhaul and repair.

Volunteer work at elementary school.

Community service; working with teenage kids coaching basketball.

Active Duty Men

Helpful behaviors for active duty men at the 7-12 month mark did not differ greatly from those identified by members who had relocated more recently. Behaviors centered around finding and improving new homes, becoming familiar with the area, and relying upon friends for support remained consistent. What did change was prominence of taking leave from duty and house-hunting trips as helpful behaviors.

Took 30 days leave to help mother and relax after 1 year of War College.

Settle into home before processing in.

Read as a whole, the four groups seem to repeat the same responses and to vary little. To clarify the meshing of responses, Tables 7, 8, and 9 list themes in losses, gains and helpful behaviors. Only themes that five or more participants voiced in response to the three questions were shown. Similarities and differences between the groups grew obvious. Strong alliances between groups, with two or more common responses, were depicted by heavy lines. Weak alliances, with only one common response between groups, were depicted by broken lines.

During the 0-6 month time frame (see Table 7), loss of friends was identified by each group as the greatest loss of the move. Active duty women and their husbands identified loss of his job as the greatest loss, while active duty men and their wives felt the loss of family closeness. Both the husbands and wives of military members noted the loss of their jobs as the greatest loss. Active duty members, unlike their spouses, identified the loss of money. Couples were strongly aligned in losses as were subjects who shared like roles. Subjects were only weakly aligned by gender.

During the 7-12 months after relocation, civilian women were strongly aligned with civilian men in feeling the loss of their jobs and friends. They were also aligned with their active duty husbands in that money and friends were losses. Civilian men shared the loss of their jobs with their active duty wives and loss of friends with the active duty men. Active duty women were weakly aligned with their male counterparts and civilian wives in the concern for financial loss. Over all, money and friends were identified as the major losses for the group.

Civilian men during 0-6 months after relocation, were a distinct group by identifying benefits of the environment as the most positive gain of the move (see Table 8). In comparison, active duty women were closely aligned to the active duty men in the gains of her job and family closeness, and weakly aligned to the civilian wives in terms of family closeness. The active duty husband and his wife were strongly aligned in gains to family closeness and new experiences.

The active duty husbands and their wives were also strongly aligned at the 7-12 month mark. They both identified family closeness and the environment as the most positive gains of the move. The active duty men also shared gains in family closeness with the active duty women along with benefits in his job. Civilian husbands distinct from their military wives continued to identify benefits of the environment at the 7-12 month phase. The civilian wives and active duty men shared in this assessment. Both groups of women shared family closeness as a gain.

As Table 9 shows, at the 0-6 month period, only the military members were aligned by identifying buying and working on a new home as the factor that helped them feel at home. Civilian women deliberately familiarized themselves with the new area while civilian men did not identify any major factor as most helpful. Active duty men also said making new and contacting old friends was most helpful.

For the 7-12 month group, similar helpful behaviors mushroomed. All groups were aligned by identifying buying and

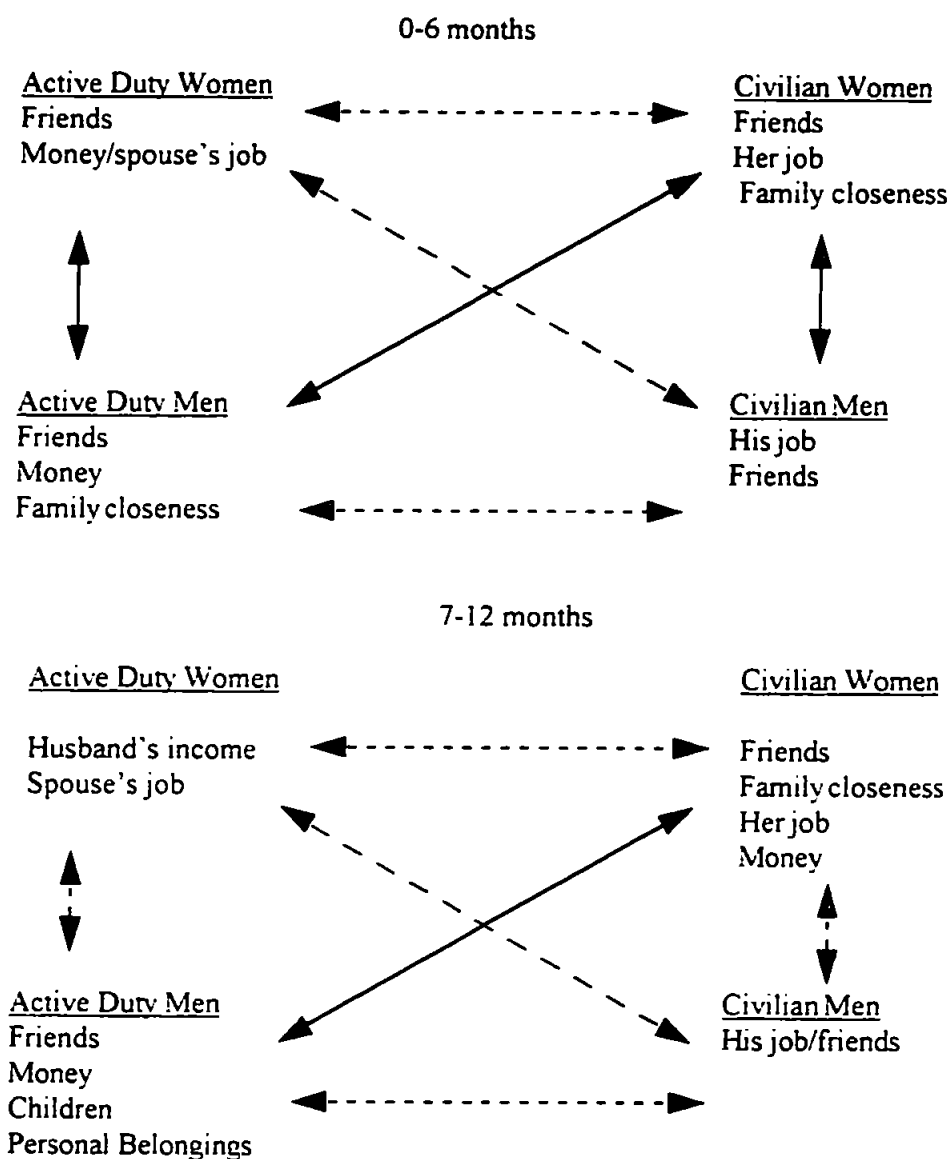
working on a new home as the most helpful behavior. Civilian women were strongly aligned to civilian men by the issues of home and the helpfulness of getting a job. The civilian wives were also very strongly aligned to active duty women by the two helpful factors of home and church.

Summary

Overall, the greatest losses of relocation over the first twelve months were loss of friends. For the civilian spouses the greatest losses were friends and their jobs. For military members losses were friends and money. For military members the most positive gains of relocation during the first twelve months were family closeness and benefits of the new job. The dominant theme for their husbands and wives was the advantages of the new environment. Buying and working on new homes was overwhelmingly the most helpful behavior for all groups during the first year after relocation.

Table 7

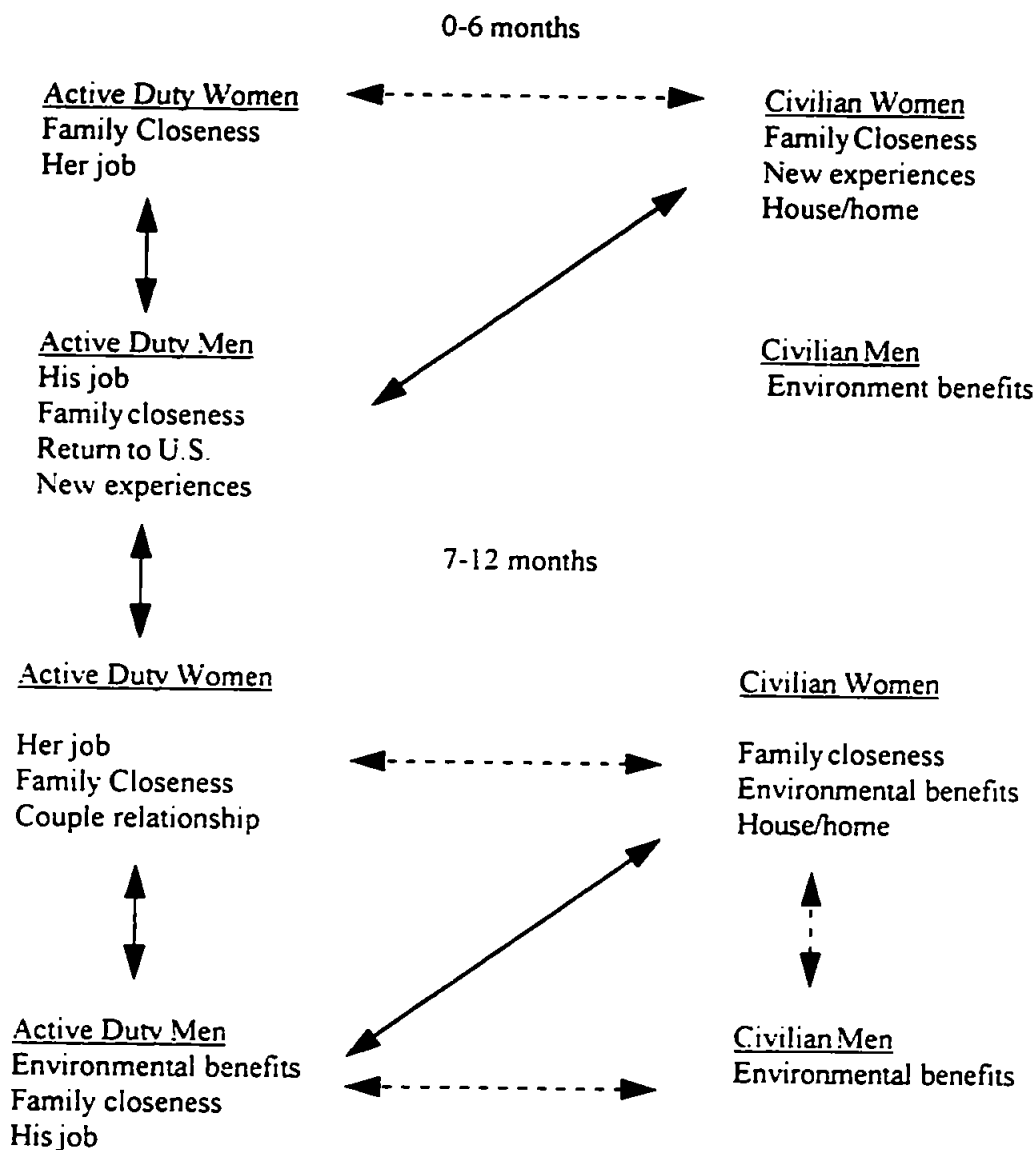
Major Themes of Response to Most Severe Losses of the Move From
Civilian Women and Men and Active Duty Women and Men



Note. — = strong alignment; 2 or more like themes
 ---- = weak alignment; only 1 like theme
 = no alignment; no like theme

Table 8

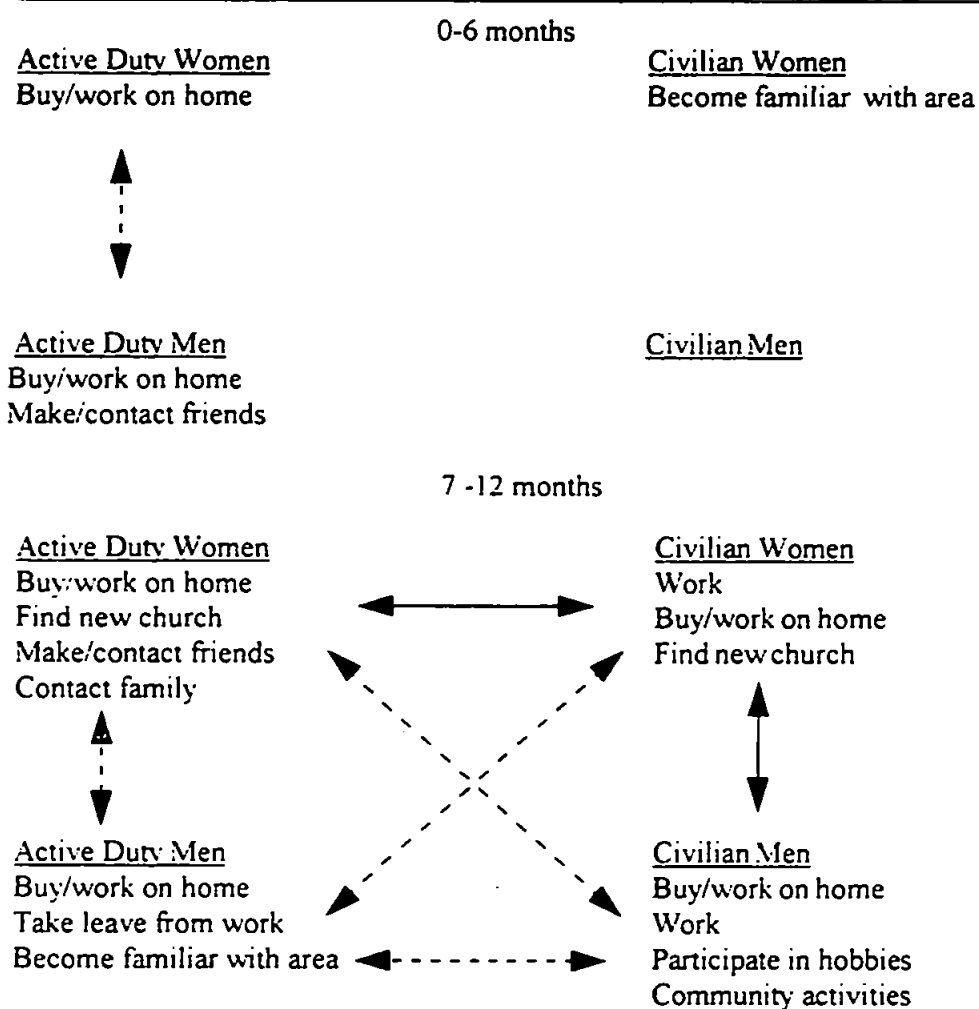
Major Themes of Response to Most Positive Gains of the Move From
Civilian Women and Men and Active Duty Women and Men



Note. — = strong alignment; 2 or more like themes
 ----- = weak alignment; only 1 like theme
 = no alignment; no like theme

Table 9

Major Themes of Response to Most Helpful Behavior after the Move From
Civilian Women and Men and Active Duty Women and Men



Note. ____ = strong alignment; 2 or more like themes
 ----- = weak alignment; only 1 like theme
 = no alignment; no like theme

Chapter Five

Summary of the Findings

This study examined the impact of relocation upon the anxiety levels of military members and their civilian spouses during the first 12 months after relocation. Gains and losses created by the relocation were also investigated along with behaviors that helped subjects feel more at home in the new place. One hundred fifty seven military couples participated in the study; a total of 314 subjects. Eighty eight military members were male, 69 were female; 88 spouses were female, 69 spouses were male. Forty seven and one half percent of the subjects had relocated between 1 day and 6 months earlier and 52.5% had moved between more than 6 months to 12 months ago at the time of the study.

Quantitative Data Analysis and Results

There were four null hypotheses:

- 1) There is no difference in state anxiety levels over time since a PCS move.
- 2) There is no difference in state anxiety levels between men

and women after a PCS move.

3) There is no difference in state anxiety levels between military members and their accompanying spouses after a PCS move.

4) There is no interactive effect among time (0-6 months, 7-12 months), gender (male, female), and role (military member, spouse) on state anxiety levels.

To test the null hypotheses, a three way factorial design was used with the three independent variables of time since move, gender and role. The dependent variable was state anxiety as measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) Form Y (Spielberger, et al, 1983). Coding and analysis of the state and trait scores were completed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) program.

An analysis of variance of state anxiety (S) scores for time since move, gender, and role (see Table 3) revealed a significant difference ($p < .01$) in state anxiety between those subjects relocating 0-6 months previous ($M = 38.32$) and those experiencing a move 7-12 months previous ($M = 34.78$). The difference showed greater levels of state anxiety in those who had moved more recently. The analysis also

showed a significant difference ($p < .05$) between genders (male $M = 35.00$, female $M = 37.91$), with females reporting higher levels of state anxiety.

The hypothesis that there is no difference in state anxiety levels over time since a PCS relocation was rejected. The second null hypothesis, there is no difference in state anxiety levels between men and women after a PCS relocation, was rejected. Hypothesis 3, there is no difference in state anxiety levels between military members and their civilian spouses after a PCS move was accepted. Hypotheses 4, there is no interactive effect among time since a PCS move, gender, and role on state anxiety was accepted.

Table 4 showed the one-way analyses of variance of state anxiety scores for 10 demographic variables. Only four demographic variables showed significant differences in anxiety scores at the .05 level. Enlisted personnel were more anxious than officers. With regard to age, those in the 26-35 year old group were the most anxious and those in the 46 year and older group were the least anxious. Subjects with graduate degrees were significantly less anxious when

compared to subjects with high school or general education diploma.

Finally, subjects with one child were more anxious than those without children and those with more than one child.

Trait anxiety scores were also collected. An analysis of variance of T scores for time since move, gender and role (see Table 6) showed a significant difference ($p < .05$) in trait anxiety between those subjects relocating 0-6 months ago ($M = 36.05$) and those moving 7-12 months ago ($M = 34.38$). The analysis also showed a significant difference ($p < .01$) between males ($M = 33.49$) and females ($M = 37.43$). These differences showed greater levels of trait anxiety in those who had moved more recently and in women. For this study, the correlation between state and trait anxiety was .7036, exceeding the normative correlation of .46 between trait and state anxiety scores (Personal communication, C. Spielberger, January 21, 1993).

Qualitative Data Analysis and Results

Subjects responded to three questions in a brief written format:

- 1) What was the most severe loss involved with this PCS move? 2)
- What was the most positive gain involved with this PCS move? and

3) What was the most helpful thing you did to make yourself more at home in this new place? Although varied across time, gender, and role in emphasis and tone, major themes appeared in answers to each question.

Each group, active duty men, active duty women, civilian men, and civilian women, identified loss of friends as a severe loss due to the PCS move. For civilian spouses, the greatest losses were friends and their jobs. For military members, losses were friends and money. For the active duty personnel, the most positive gains of relocation during the first 12 months were family closeness and benefits of their new jobs. The dominant theme for the civilian husbands and wives was the advantages of the new environment. Buying and working on new homes was overwhelmingly the most helpful behavior for all groups during the first year after relocation. "Fixing up", decorating, and changing the house to the way they wanted it made civilian and military members feel most at home in the new area.

Discussion

Subjects

The reasons that eliminated active duty men and women from the final survey sample reflected differences between the two groups. One active duty man out of 100 reported that his wife did not relocate with him to his new duty station due to her employment. Twelve out of 102 active duty women were eliminated from the study because their employed husbands did not move with them. Three male members were not included in the sample due to separation or divorce since the PCS move. However, 9 active duty women had divorced or separated within the same year. While any generalizations from this one sample should be considered very cautiously, the differences were striking. It may have been that, being confident or invested in their military careers, these active duty women were more willing to do without marital partners, temporarily or permanently. As suggested by their non-traditional career choices, it may have been that these women were more non-traditional than men in several spheres of their lives,. The numbers could also have been a reflection of the unwillingness of their

husbands to accept the role of military dependent. Traditionally, the role required the wife to move when her husband was ordered to move and provided the military unpaid labor with “two for the price of one” (Hunter, 1982, pg. 11). What was obvious was that, for this group of active duty women, the military lifestyle posed challenges for their marriages.

Another group was eliminated from the study due to various duty separations. Thirteen military members reported having experienced overseas deployment having completed extended training sessions or temporary duty away from home, or having returned from unaccompanied remote tours. These separations were in combination with the PCS move over the previous year. These numbers echo Kaslow and Ridenour’s (1983) observations of the significant strains placed upon military families. The figures speak silently of their sacrifices.

The thirteen eliminated families also demonstrate the irony of exceptions for military spouses. When the active duty member is ordered to a new duty station, the spouse is also expected to move,

leaving behind employment, family, friends, etc. A dependency upon the active duty member for livelihood and meeting emotional needs is built. However, separations inherent in military service demand the same spouse to be strong and self-sufficient in order to maintain the family while the member is gone. At times, the two conflicting roles intersect, as they did for the thirteen spouses who faced separations from their active duty spouses after a PCS move. The convergence of separation/reunion dynamics with relocation adjustment would obviously tax coping skills of these couples.

Anxiety Measurement

The correlation between state and trait anxiety scores in this study (.7036) exceeds the normative correlation of .46 between trait and state anxiety scores (Personal communication, C. Spielberger, January 21, 1993). Several factors can account for this correlation. Spielberger (1983) stated that "correlations between the S-anxiety and T- anxiety scales are typically higher under conditions that pose some threat to self-esteem, or under circumstances in which personal adequacy is evaluated; and correlations are lower in situations

characterized by physical danger” (p. 15). The subjects in this study completed the surveys in their own homes. While the surroundings may have been new and unfamiliar, there was no immediate, physical threat to their safety. It was possible that subjects perceived the survey as an evaluation of their ability to master the relocation situation and thus their personal adequacy.

Spielberger also wrote that “...state-trait anxiety correlations tend to be higher when the STAI scales are given in the same testing session, one immediately following the other.” (p. 15). In this project, the surveys were structured so that the STAI scales were completed back to back. Subjects were instructed to complete the survey in one sitting.

These design factors increased the likelihood that trait and state scores of subjects would be similar.

Quantitative Data Results

The data indicated that those who had relocated more recently (0-6 months) were more anxious than those who had relocated 7-12 months earlier. This difference was significant despite the context of

intense uncertainty faced by all subjects during the time of data collection. The Air Force was being reorganized, with major commands of long standing and tradition being dissolved or combined. Congress continued to cut the defense budget resulting in base closures, job categories being eliminated, and shuffles of personnel. Involuntary retirements for officers and incentives for thousands to separate from the service were offered. Traditional benefits, a most attractive aspect of military service, were being altered and scrutinized for further changes. Even the mission of the military was being questioned as members were deployed around the globe to support peace-keeping missions. The net effect was deep change and questionable futures in the military. Every member and spouse was subject to change: the newly active duty, those in mid-career, and families who had served during the Vietnam conflict and were now close to retirement. Each of these types were represented in the project's groups. Despite the constant uncertainty, anxiety was higher during the first six months after a PCS move and decreased to a normative range during the second half year after a PCS move. This

significant difference indicates the strength of PCS impacts upon military couples. Clearly, the first 6 months following a PCS move is a volatile time for the military couple.

The finding that women were more anxious than men after a PCS move lent support to the view that relocation is more difficult for women (Gans, 1967). The findings that the role of the women, military member or civilian spouse, did not significantly decrease that level of anxiety, bolstered that support. To conclude, however, that the struggle with broken connections is the root of the difficulty (Brett, 1982; Martin-Mathews, 1981; Tallman, 1969; Tiger, 1974) may be too simplistic. In the brief answers that identified the most severe loss of the move, both women and men equally discussed losses of friends and family. Mothers and fathers both wrote of children left behind. Adult sons and daughters noted separation from parents due to the move. Husbands and wives lamented loss of spontaneous get-togethers with friends, office buddies and conversations with good friends. It may be that women feel the losses of relationships more intensely than men. However, in this study, higher anxiety in women may be due to the

active duty woman trying to establish herself in the male dominated military (Department of Defense Survey of Officer and Enlisted Personnel and Military Spouses, 1985). Or anxiety may be caused by the caretaking of other family members, a role most often assumed by the woman (Donahue & Gulotta, 1981; Jones, 1973). In short, other factors beyond mere gender could be impinging. A causal relationship must be carefully investigated.

Gans (1967) contended that the sexual division of labor caused differences in relocation impacts between men and women. Being part of the work environment with immediate credentials, status, expectations, and co-workers afforded men an easier transition than their homemaker wives. Hunt & Butler (1972) and Walker (1991) supported the thrust of Gans' view by stating that work mitigated separation from friends and families and made a move less traumatic for women. The results of this study did not support this softening effect of work.

First, women employed in a familiar setting, the military service, were not significantly less anxious than civilian wives who had

followed their active duty husbands. Second, active duty men were not significantly less anxious than the civilian men who left jobs to follow their active duty wives. Given the priority of work in men's lives (Pasick, 1990), the similar level of anxiety was important. The findings certainly question the proposal that relocation impacts differ due to participation in the world of work. Yet, the brief qualitative responses from the civilian spouses should not be ignored. Both civilian men and women identified their jobs as the most severe loss of the move and said getting a job was the most helpful behavior to feel at home in the new place. It may be that anxiety was the wrong affect to capture the differences described by Gans (1967). Perhaps differences surfaced later in the relocation process or through anger or depression. Such emotions fit Gans' label of malaise (1967) and still fit the grief model of Parkes (1971).

A series of one way analyses revealed anxiety levels of subjects across demographic categories. The categories that showed no significant difference in anxiety levels were important because they question several widely held beliefs about military relocation. First,

this study did not support the contention that the more one moves the easier moving becomes. Couples that were moving for the first time, those that had moved more than eight times, and all the couples in between, showed no significant difference in anxiety levels. It may be that families get better at working with packers, securing records and necessary paperwork, and setting up new households. But moving at different stages of the life cycle brings unexpected and unknown challenges that complicate the move (Marshall & Cooper, 1976). Also, the length of time the member had been in military service had no impact on anxiety. The extent of being part of and experience with the military community did not mitigate anxiety for long-termers, members or spouses. Many target the high costs of moving and low rate of reimbursement for relocation expenses as a major concern for families (Croan, 1991; Ginovsky, 1987; Pinder, 1989) and, indeed, numerous military members in this study identified money as the most severe loss of the move. While there was no significant difference in anxiety levels according to levels of family income, the difference did approach significance ($p = .0556$) and should not be discounted. The same is true

for anxiety levels differing by time lived at the previous base. While couples who had lived at their last base from less than one year to over five years showed no significant difference in anxiety during the first year, the difference ($p = .0618$) was close enough to heed Pinder's 1988 warning that pulling up roots after being part of a community for years is especially difficult.

Four demographic variables showed significant difference in anxiety levels after relocation. Those with some high school education or a diploma were significantly more anxious than subjects with graduate degrees. Those individuals with the cognitive skills, life experience and stress tolerance to earn advanced degrees may feel less threatened in the relocation situation. The second demographic variable showing significant differences, that of rank (enlisted personnel were more anxious than officers), might also be an indicator of the sense of control. This finding might be explained by organizational structure. The military rank structure demands that officers be treated with deference in quality of housing, orientation, and overall assistance. Hunter (1982) and Kaslow and Ridenour (1984)

reported that this was extended to family members. Such deference could certainly help a move proceed more smoothly. However, rank and education may have been showing significant differences in anxiety due to the very same dynamics. Enlisted personnel are initially required to have only a GED or high school diploma. Their spouses have similar education (Griffith, Doering & Mahoney, 1986). Officers are strongly encouraged to obtain graduate degrees and most do (Department of Defense Survey of Officer & Enlisted Personnel and Military Spouses, 1985). Likewise, it is not unusual for officers' spouses to obtain a master's degree (Griffith, et al., 1986). It was important to know that impact of rank upon anxiety was analyzed in two other ways in the study. Couples noting the rank of technical sergeants and below, the junior enlisted, master sergeants and above, the senior enlisted, lieutenants and captains, the junior officers, and majors and above, the senior officers were compared. No significant difference in state anxiety among the four groups was found. Second, the two junior groups were combined and compared to the two senior groups. Again, no significant difference in anxiety was found. Only

when subjects were grouped by enlisted personnel and officers was there a significant difference. Whether the rank typed on a PCS form shaped how the 'environment' responded to a couple, or whether the personal attributes the couple brought with that rank, e.g. education, a sense of control, rendered the PCS environment less threatening remains to be clarified.

Subjects also showed a significant difference in anxiety after relocation by age. Recently, the Department of Defense conducted a major study of young members in their first term of service (Marital Status and the Initial Term of Service, 1993). The difficulties of the first PCS move took prominence. Just like their Navy, Army, and Marine counterparts, Air Force first term members and spouses were simply unaware of the multitude of services available to help them through the first and every move. Frustration with the system was topped only by their tenacious wills to get what their families needed. It may be this strong will that mitigated PCS anxiety in this project, as the most anxious age was not the youngest, but rather the 26-35 year olds. They scored significantly higher than the least anxious group,

46 years and older. As discussed earlier, number of moves and time in the military showed no significant impact upon anxiety. Thus, the low anxiety of the older couples was probably related to maturity and life experience. The 26-35 year olds, on the other hand, may have been undergoing life challenges intensified by the PCS move. According to Stoddard and Cabanillas (cited in Hunter, 1982), both the enlisted and the officers, at this age, are still trying to prove their competence. An assignment to a new unit brings different duties along with numbers of junior and senior members to impress. Spouses favoring their partners' choice of the military as a career provide emotional support through that struggle. Many assume logistical responsibilities during military moves and try to smooth turbulent emotions springing from the move (Hunter, 1982). The member's promotion prospects and possibly his or her career are at stake. Likewise, civilian spouses may have become more committed to their own careers. A move, at this stage, may hold the lesson that a military career has significant repercussions upon the spouse's career (Dobrofsky & Batterson, 1977). This new awareness may breed conflict for the couple. Finally, many couples in this age

group are having children. The developmental tasks faced by the family (Mattessich & Hill, 1987) represent significant challenges. In aggregate, these tasks can be difficult to balance. A PCS move adds to the equation.

This study provided additional support for a particular life-cycle view: Those with one child living with them were significantly more anxious than couples with no children or those with more than one child living with them. Perhaps, just as they adapt to a new family member in their midst, the couple also masters the PCS process incorporating their child. Once a PCS is accomplished with the first child, the following moves become less anxiety producing. A word of caution on this interpretation: only number of children was investigated in this study, not age of children. Relocation is often very hard for adolescents in military families (Orthner, Brody, & Covi, 1985). Couples with one teen in the household could have contributed to the higher rate of anxiety. The relationship between ages of children and relocation impacts upon parents anxiety was not clear in the data of this study.

Qualitative Results

In their responses to a question about the greatest losses and gains of the move, couples reinforced previously voiced issues and identified new areas.

This project crystallized the core issue of PCS moves-relationships. During the entire year after a PCS move, friends were identified, by far, as the most severe loss. Likewise, the most positive gain over the first year was family closeness. At first blush, the theme lends credence to the belief that military families increase family closeness and tend to become reliant upon themselves as they adapt to military lifestyle demands (Kaslow & Ridenour, 1984). However, the responses about the gain of family closeness included extended family members. Weekend visits with parents, sisters and brothers, and other family members were seen as top benefits of the move. Being able to telephone other family members was a treat after an overseas tour. Finally, contributing, in person, to the care of an ailing parent was a relief. Yes, many couples spoke specifically of closer marriages and more affection between family members because

they were now far from friends and relatives. This self-reliance can be a strength (Kaslow & Ridenour, 1984). However, those who had been deprived of extended ties were now eager to reestablish them. Rather than being tightly bound by the immediate family, the couples were taking full advantage of their new situations and reaching out.

Clearly, financial losses were of concern to the couples. The study did not allow an overall percentage of loss of be quoted as in Pinder (1989) and Ginovsky (1987), but couples cited losses due to house sales, temporary living quarter expenses, transportation of cars, and start up of new homes. This study also echoed Garamone (1987) in the importance of spouse employment for Air Force couples. Whether due to financial need or personal desire, spouses and military members identified spouse employment as a most severe loss at both the 6 and 12 month period. These responses call for a different tact from the Air Force. Just as private companies are being urged to include spouse employment assistance in relocation benefits package, (Herring, 1989a) the Air Force must directly link spouse employment assistance to the PCS package of household goods transportation,

housing assistance, etc. The steady second income can lessen the financial impact of relocation on the couple, a loss of \$2 for every \$3 spent to PCS (Ginovsky, 1987). Strong employment assistance can mitigate civilian spouses' perceptions that an Air Force career negatively impacts their own career aspirations (Air Force Community Needs Assessment, 1993). Because a strong factor in maintaining enlisted members in the Air Force is the spouse's satisfaction with Air Force (Garamone, 1986), retention of quality members can be positively effected. The return for the Air Force is obvious.

This study revealed a perspective from military members not often heard: that new duty assignments were often the greatest gain of the move. Both active duty men and women discussed additional responsibilities, good people, expanded duties, supervisory roles, the chance to learn, and opportunities for training and leadership. Their written statements depicted excitement and a sense of joy with duties ranging from nursing to command. Some members left no doubt that, being aware of the losses of the PCS, they loved what they were doing! The final theme in most positive gain of the move simply underscored

the allure of military service for many couples--new experiences in a new environment. As Bayes' (1989) observed "Certainly, there are spouses... enthusiastic about a move, thrive on change in... environment, who are excited about new opportunities" (p. 282). This study expanded this observation to male civilian spouses and the active duty personnel. The enthusiasm for new opportunities may be specific to this base, however. Pinder's (1977) research has found that people were more satisfied when relocating to metropolitan areas with wider leisure, education, and service opportunities. The new assignment for the couples in the study was proximate to a large mid-western city with professional sports, museums, colleges, schools and "things to see and do." This particular gain, new experience, should be viewed within this context.

The behaviors identified as most helpful in making spouses and member feel at home in a new place hold potent messages for the military system and civilian communities near bases. Setting up new homes with their possessions and working on new homes was the top help. The study fully supported earlier research (Hazler & Nass, 1988;

Jones, 1973) which stated that delivery of household goods was a top help for relocated families. If one's identity is built around the objects in one's life (Smith, 1983) then the military can facilitate more rapid relocation adjustment by ensuring that household goods arrive promptly and safely. Further, any measures that allow families to quickly locate and move into permanent housing expedite the adjustment process.

The fact that finding and attending a new church was a helpful behavior reinforced previous research about the importance of religion in the military (Hunter, 1982). In a 1992 world wide community needs assessment, Air Force families chose chaplains as the outside source they would most likely use for help with a problem. In a time when commitment to institutionalized religion is diminishing (Kelly, 1994), the relocated military family can be a primary source of new members and strength for churches. The same can be said for community organizations. Couples specifically identified involvement in community activities--sports, scouts, civic organizations, hobbies, as helpful behaviors in PCS adjustment. Communities near bases can tap

into a constant source of ideas, energy, and commitment if they simply reach out to the military newcomers who want and need religious and community involvement.

Curiously, while couples overwhelmingly identified friends as the most severe loss of the move, only one group at each time frame revealed a major theme of contacting and making friends as a helpful behavior. Active duty men used this behavior at the 0-6 month point and active duty women cited it at the 7-12 month mark. It may be that making friends was implied while getting involved in a new church and in community activities. It could also have been that having suffered the loss of friendships, spouses and members were not quick to specifically take up the hunt for replacements (Brett, 1982). It was evident that the active duty spouses took advantage of their ability to look up old friends at a new base.

Implications

The first objective of this study was to investigate the relevance of Parkes' psychosocial transition model (1971) to military relocation. Parkes' proposal integrated the losses, gains, and emotions described

throughout the relocation literature. Anxiety levels after relocation were measured to observe if the initial affect of his grief model intensified and then lessened as predicted. The second objective was to test the view that relocation is more difficult for women than men. Comparisons of responses by gender and the impact of traditional/non-traditional roles were used to shed critical light on impacts of modern mobility patterns.

Parkes' Psychosocial Transition Model

The results of this study confirmed that, as proposed by Parkes' grief model, the anxiety levels of military members and spouses peaked and then waned as time since a military relocation increased. Specifically, military couples that had relocated one day to six months earlier were significantly more anxious than military couples who had moved seven to twelve months earlier. This study added to the scant efforts to verify relocation as a psychosocial transition. Viney and Bazely (1977) had confirmed high anxiety in women from two different socioeconomic groups three to four weeks after a move. The present effort extended the psychosocial transition affect, anxiety, to both adult

women and men, representing a wide range of socio-economic backgrounds. This was a solid first step, in that heightened anxiety has been isolated to the first six months after relocation. Further research can narrow the time increment and investigate the occurrence of other dynamics associated with Parkes' model--anger, depression, reorganization.

Parkes (1971) held changes in personal relationships paramount. In this study, responses about the most severe loss of the move supported Parkes: loss of friends was dominant for both men and women, and for both spouses and military members. The loss of closeness to family was also strongly felt. Those relationships included parents, brothers and sisters, grandparents, older children left behind at college, and young children left with ex-spouses. Sometimes the feeling of loss was palpable. One young spouse said about her move: "The loss of my close friends was the hardest to deal with. Talking on the phone isn't the same as having a shoulder to cry on."

Comments about the severe loss of being near people dear to them came from individuals in all stages of life. A newlywed wrote

“Leaving my family and friends because I have never had to move before.” One young father commented “Leaving close proximity to my new son’s grandparents. Leaving all my friends and church.” One mother stated “Friends, my child’s baby-sitter. My 8 year old losing two best friends.” Another reported “Taking my teenager away from cousins and grandparents.” A forty-two year old active duty woman identified her most severe loss as leaving her son and mother behind. A chief master sergeant, nearing retirement, said his most severe loss was “Friends that I will never see again.” In 1980, Bowlby wrote, “...intimate attachments to other human beings are the hub around which life revolves” (p. 442). This perspective held true in the current study.

Further evidence of the relevance of Parkes’ theory of psychosocial transitions to military relocation was clear in that themes of loss in this study were some of the very changes labeled by Parkes as psychosocial transitions (1971). These were losses of job, home, finances and loved possessions.

Both civilian wives and husbands were definite that loss of their

jobs was a severe loss, second only to friends. As Parkes (1971) pointed out, this loss changed how the spouses spent their days, sources and amounts of income, and possibly, faith in their capacity to be effective in the world. The importance of regaining the role of “employed” was evident in spouses’ statements that finding a job was the most helpful behavior to make them feel at home. This loss of work was also felt strongly by the active duty women, whose roles changed to major earners for their families.

Parkes (1971) cited Wolfenstein’s study (1957) about those who had lost homes to natural disasters, which indicated that rebuilding duplicate homes in the same location as an example of how a home helps to maintain the assumptive world. Walker (1991) explained such behavior as a loss of familiar place that had become part of a sense of self. Although relocation is not as traumatic as a natural disaster, several subjects noted homes as the most severe loss and establishing a new home was overwhelmingly the most helpful behavior in this study. Spouses and members wrote about hanging favorite kitchen curtains, putting up a bird feeder outside the kitchen window, using pot pourri to

make it smell like home and making the new house “like we like it.”

One active duty woman almost replicated Walker’s (1991) description of place and sense of self in her response. Walker (1991) explained the period of adjustment after moving: “...By this time, individuals know their way around in a limited fashion, but house is not yet home and space has not yet become place...” (p. 32). The young woman described her most helpful behavior:

Unpacked boxes. We still have some sitting in the middle of our living room and it is driving me crazy... This is the worst time of the whole move for me, the period where our ‘house’ is not ‘home’.

Loss of finances was a continuous thread throughout the study. Military members were highly aware of non-reimbursed moving costs, loss in house sales, COLA’s (Cost of living allowances), and spouses’ incomes, costs of transporting cars, and buying houses too hurriedly. Parkes (1971) stated that financial losses are, ultimately, loss of control over that section of one’s world which would have been controlled by money. The plans built on that money are lost. When military families had to dip into savings, or struggle to recoup from a move, their sense

of control over the financial plans for their futures was effected.

According to Parkes, grief for their assumptions about their lost plans resulted.

Parkes held that changes in loved possessions were secondary only to changes in relationships. This grief for lost possessions was strewn throughout subjects' responses. Damage to a favorite desk, a totaled car, all household goods lost in a warehouse fire, plants given away, a pet that died in route, prized collections, and a teddy bear named Max were only some of the items chosen as the most severe loss. The frequent use of possessions as a most helpful behavior spoke to the strength of attachments, e.g. "Displayed my things ASAP"; "Put pictures up right away." This matched Jones' (1973) observation that delivery of household goods was a key event in relocation adjustment.

Much emphasis has been placed on themes of loss after the relocation. However, the variety of responses from members and spouses in gains of the move also lent support to Parkes model (1971). Whether labeled a gain or loss by the subject, a change has taken place and "...the need arises for the individual to restructure his way of

looking at the world and his plans for living in it" (Parkes, 1971, p. 102). Benefits of the environment, family closeness, positive aspects of the new job, "an entirely new experience," were changes and could have called for alterations in the assumptive world. Anxiety would result--as verified by higher anxiety during the early move time frame. Parkes' model of psychosocial transitions again fit.

While this study measured and confirmed the peak and wane of anxiety after relocation, other affects of psychosocial transitions could not be ignored. Brief responses to the losses and gains and helpful behaviors of the move revealed denial, anger, and depression. Regarding helpful behaviors they wrote: "Accept it"; "I accept every move as home for however long I am here"; "Adapt"; "I don't really feel at home." Regarding gains of the move they wrote: "Wasn't one"; "Good question; still searching"; "I'm not sure"; "Nothing. I hate it here." On losses of the move: "25 years of my life's possessions were completely destroyed"; "I lost hope that my spouse believed we could make it without the military"; "Has never became home for me"; "I am stranded because I can't find a job."

In summary, this study provided both quantitative and qualitative evidence of the relevance of Parkes' (1971) psychosocial transition model to a military relocation in terms of the initial stage of anxiety. Evidence was found that military relocations could be a fruitful event to validate the later stages and affects of the model: anger, depression, sense of reorganization.

Anxiety By Gender And Role

Newly relocated women

The results of this project added support to the numerous studies finding relocation more difficult for women than for men (Ammons, Nelson & Woodarski, 1982; Jones, 1973; Levine et al., 1980; McKain, 1973; Tiger, 1974). The women in this project exhibited significantly higher levels of anxiety than the men during the first and second half of the year following relocation. Earlier studies emphasized that the wife, in comparison to the husband, faced an increased sense of loss and difficulty in adjustment. Gans (1967) stated that the female homemaker was the greatest casualty of the moving process, and lack of a familiar, supportive worksetting, available only to the husbands,

was the root of the difficulty. In this study, anxiety was high whether the women were employed full time (active duty) or civilian spouses following their active duty husbands. The second finding appears to counter the earlier explanation of differences in relocation impact. In the context of recent developmental theory and women's friendships, the project's findings may still tie relocation impact upon women to the ties of the work setting.

Chodorow (1978), Gilligan (1982), and Miller (1976) have shown that many more women than men define themselves in terms of their relationships and connections to others. Women place greater importance on friendships and engage in more intimate relationships (Depner & Ingersoll, 1982; Powers & Bultena, 1976). As they enter the work force, there is growing evidence that women use the work setting as a grounds for finding friendships. In her book The Female Stress Syndrome (1984), Dr. Witkin-Lanoil described the work setting as an abundant place for women to build relationships.

...Despite all the stresses associated with working, its benefits are enormous. An important antidote ... is the kind of support system most work environments offer - the network of co-workers. This support system serves many functions on many levels.

-- Working can provide social contacts and a sense of belonging... Sometimes lifelong friends are made at work. Sometimes the friendships are unique to the work place. Either way, the relationships can be valuable and supportive.

-- Working can provide different points of view... Talking about problems with your work network can broaden your perspective on any topic... It can help you re-interpret last night's domestic fight...

-- Working can provide humor...

-- Working can provide resources...

-- Working can provide confidants... Who would be safer to talk to about family problems than someone who is not in the family...

-- Working can provide cushioning and escape valves for anger...

-- Working can provide sympathy. The communal expressions of sympathy for sorrow that you get from the office are a unique source of support. Your workmates are ...wider than your family...

-- Working can provide adult conversation and intellectual stimulation...

-- Working can provide a source of praise and reassurance...

-- Working can provide objective feedback...

In the past, the extended family helped...by serving all these functions. Now, we must each create our own extended 'families', our networks, our support systems (p. 130- 134).

In her book Friendships Between Women: A Critical Review

(1992), Pat O'Connor discussed married women's, single women's, and elderly women's friendships. She compared friendship with

kinship and other relationships. The degree to which distinctions between women's friend and kin relationships are diminishing in modern societies was pondered. Echoes of Witkin-Lanoil's (1984) advice to women about replacing extended family assistance with work relationships certainly can be heard in O'Connor's questions.

The development of close friendships within the workplace are almost taken for granted by many, as seen in the media. For example, in the magazine, Working Woman, articles about friendships at work, such as Should You Be Your Boss's Buddy? (Scheele, 1993) and Business or Friendship (Dovich, 1994) discussed the pros and cons of friendships with co-workers. The old adage "Never mix business with pleasure" was re-evaluated. In The New York Times (June 12, 1994), Martha Gershun complained about female business contacts who assumed that, because both of them were women, intimate issues like pregnancies and sex were appropriate topics for conversation.

The significance of work relationships in a woman's life was reflected in Witkin-Lanoil's statement "You can see why retirement

means far more than separation from work. It means separation from a network, as well..." (1992, p. 132).

Work in a new location may provide a familiar setting, structure, achievement, and instant company for both men and women. These aspects could help buffer relocation impact. However, if the former work place has served as a source of friendship, women may feel the loss of these relationships more powerfully. The loss of these relationships would add to relocation impact, not mitigate it. Anxiety would be present.

The logic of work being important to women due to relational connections established at the job site fits the developmental models proposed by Chodorow (1978), Gilligan (1982) and Miller (1976). However, the high anxiety of the active duty women after a PCS move could be due to other factors. The 'second shift' of household work, child care, and home maintenance is faced by many working women and is a source of much stress (Hochschild, 1989). Trying to meet the challenges of a new job and establishing new household and child care routines could certainly add to the stress of normative second shift

demands. The additional 'caretaker' role of wife/mother requires intense emotional care providing to members of the family after a move (Jones, 1973). This role interprets the move to the family and is key to the move's success (Donohue & Gulotta, 1981). While both groups of women may have adopted this role, this responsibility only added to the demands already borne by the active duty woman.

The meaning of the move was critical to Marshall and Cooper (1976), Brett and Werbel (1980) and Donohue and Gulotta (1981) and may also be of significance to the anxiety level of the active duty women. The couple relocated because the active duty woman was ordered to move and it was part of her job. In essence, the couple moved because of her and, in all likelihood, her income will serve as the mainstay in the initial stages of the move. This is a role that the active duty men, as men, are socialized to accept (Teachman, Call, & Carver, 1994). It is not the traditional role for women. Inherent in this new role is power--power of provider, power of military sponsor while family members are 'dependents', power of navigator of the system. Again, men are socialized to accept and pursue power. Women are

not. Women learn to fear power due to lifelong messages they have received about devoting their energies to enhance the power of others. They fear that power will destroy their relationships (Cantor, Bernay, & Stoess, 1993). Anecdotal evidence from this study possibly pointed to a conflict between power and relationships. The differences between the raw numbers of active duty men and women going through divorces within the first year after relocation (3 to 9 respectively), along with the number of spouses who did not move with them (1 to 12 respectively) may have hinted of a struggle with this new power. The numerous responses from active duty women about loss of their husband's jobs and incomes as the most severe loss of the move may have spoken to their discomfort of being the sole provider. During a PCS move, the power of the active duty member was certainly heightened. A woman in this powerful role might exhibit increased learned fear and anxiety during the initial stages of a military move.

This project added to previous findings that relocation impacts women more intensely than men, but not for the previously purported reasons--lack of work setting. Factors of women's assumed caretaking

role, meaning of the move according to her role during the relocation process, and the part played by relationships within the worksetting create a very complex picture that must be painstakingly deciphered.

Newly relocated men

Part of this investigation of earlier proposals about mobility impacts was to look at men who had moved to follow their wives for the wives' employment. It was proposed that because of the prominence of work in men's identity (Brooks, 1990; Pasick, 1990), loss of employment for those relocating men would create high anxiety. This was not the case. Civilian husbands who followed their active duty wives were not significantly more anxious than the active duty men. Unique characteristics of this group require explanation before implications could be drawn.

First, this group of men were non-traditional in that they willingly gave up jobs to follow their wives. Those married to active duty women who were not willing to pay this price were eliminated from the study (12 of 102). Second, several husbands had just retired or separated from military service. These men were 'wise' to the

military PCS system and some admitted that they were enjoying the break before returning to work! Of course, their retirement pay and separation incentives could have made finding employment less pressing.

Civilian men did identify their jobs as the most severe loss of the move. Yet, this loss of productivity did not elicit significantly higher levels of anxiety than their active duty counterparts. Perhaps what they did accomplish for their families offset lack of employment. Civilian husbands wrote more about their home projects than any of the other three groups. They described ripping out carpeting and installing new carpet, building a deck across the entire back of the house, landscaping the yard, fixing cars, etc. This effort extended to their children's schools, their churches, and community agencies, such as Boy Scouts. The need to provide for their spouses and families was perhaps met in these very noticeable, constructive ways until they found paid employment.

Both groups of men identified loss of friends as a severe loss of the move, yet anxiety was in the normative range. Several researchers

explained that, while there is overlap in certain aspects, friendships are different for men and women (Blieszner & Adams, 1992; O'Connor, 1992; Rawlins, 1992). Women tend to pursue communal bonds while men pursue agentic relationships (Rawlins, 1992). Curiously, more women in this study identified finding church 'homes' as a most helpful behavior after the relocation, while numerous men in the study identified participating in hobbies and activities as a most helpful behavior to feel at home. The implications for 'types' of friendships for men and women were clear.

This study created more questions about the impact of relocation upon men than it answered. Although work may be paramount to men's identity (Pasick, 1990), perhaps other unpaid productivity can replace paid work to mitigate loss of employment. Also, loss of work after relocation may not be as crucial to men when other substantial sources of income are available such as retirement pay or spouse's salary. While friendships may be different for men, ways to facilitate their formation after relocation await discovery. The benefits of friendship to men's well-being warrant this effort (Duck, 1991).

As a whole, the difference in anxiety between men and women during the first twelve months after relocation did not lend itself to any simple explanation. Women were more anxious, as predicted, but the work place did not affect the differences as proposed. It was obvious that, in order to decipher the impacts of relocation, an approach must be two-pronged. The differences must be carefully explored through factors that pertain to both men and women: the use of the work setting, friendships and how these mitigate/amplify relocation impacts, the inherent power of the employed mover and the dynamics of that power during the early stages of relocation.

Limitations of the Study

The present study had limitations that should be considered in future research. These limitations also necessitate caution when generalizing results beyond this study.

First, subjects came from one Air Force base in the midwestern United States. Losses, gains, helpful behaviors, and anxiety levels may have been different for other locations. Military couples moving to bases overseas or to bases in high cost or isolated areas face different

scenarios. The challenges can be very intense, including culture shock, lack of affordable housing, and mission. A full picture of military relocation impact can only be developed by sampling the full scope of types of locations from the four military departments.

Second, anxiety levels were measured in two groups at one point during the first twelve months after the PCS move. A more precise way of capturing changes in anxiety over time would have been to conduct a longitudinal study, measuring anxiety in the same subjects at sequential time frames. The number of active duty members separating from the service, being deployed to peace-keeping missions and moving again due to the reorganization required the current method. This was particularly true for securing a sample of active duty women.

Third, although the sample of active duty men was randomly selected and the sample of active duty women included the total population, those who participated in the study were volunteers. While only seven military members or spouses, in all, refused to participate, the sample may be biased because of differences from those who chose not to participate.

Fourth, the study was based on self-report data and was accurate only to the degree that the subject's self knowledge was accurate. To increase honest responses, subjects were assured complete confidentiality. Survey sheets and data became the sole property of the researcher.

Recommendations for Future Research

The very purpose of this study was to add empirical evidence of the relevance of Parkes (1971) psychosocial transition model to military relocation. Only an initial affect of this model, anxiety, was tested and was found to peak and wane as the time since relocation increased. This was as the model predicted. Future research should empirically measure anger, depression, and finally the reorganization of the assumptive world after relocation. Only by establishing a theoretical foundation of the relocation process can both researchers and practitioners offer credible means of assistance.

This study supported the view that relocation was more difficult for women, but not for the reasons proposed by many. Future research must unravel the mystery of what makes relocation more impactful for

women. This can be accomplished, most fruitfully, by studying both men and women during the relocation process. Specifically, the influences of the work setting, and role strain created by duties of provider, parent, and caretaker, should be carefully deciphered. In this same vein, friendship should be explored. Attention should be given not only to the role of friends in the relocation process, but how to facilitate developments of new friendships within a highly mobile population. Research of both genders may keep the field from mislabeling either sex and foster openness to similarities. "Differences" would be closely scrutinized.

Research of relocation impacts is imperative to help prepare individuals and support them through the relocation process. Such guidance would be invaluable to those who face the demands of a highly mobile lifestyle.

APPENDIX A



DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE
HEADQUARTERS 375TH AIRLIFT WING (AMC)

193

10 MAR 1991

375 AW/CC
101 Heritage Drive, Room 208
Scott AFB IL 62225-5000

Members, Institutional Review Board
Saint Louis University
3556 Caroline Street, C301
St Louis MO 63104

Dear Board Members

I authorize Ms Susan S. Kelly to conduct a dissertation research project titled "Anxiety in military members and their spouses over the first 12 months after relocation" at Scott Air Force Base, Belleville, Illinois. Ms Kelly has already received approval for this project from Headquarters, Air Force Military Personnel Center and has been assigned a survey control number (SCN) of USAF SCN 93-26.

The Chief of Personnel at Scott Air Force Base will supply a list of Air Force members meeting the project selection criteria. Members, along with their spouses, will be randomly selected from this list and asked to volunteer for the study. Participants will fill out the project questionnaire at the Scott Family Support Center. I understand that the anxiety of both military members and their spouses will be measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Form Y). Loss and gain of relocation will be explored by three open-ended questions. Finally, demographics will be collected to describe the sample population. Ms Kelly will maintain participant confidentiality, and both the master list and the collected data will remain in her sole possession. A final copy of the data analysis and discussion will be provided to me.

I am encouraged that Ms Susan Kelly designed a research project that can result in improved support for military families. I wholeheartedly endorse this effort.

Sincerely,

DWIGHT M. KEALOHA, Brig Gen, USAF
Commander, 375th Airlift Wing



DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE
HEADQUARTERS AIR FORCE MILITARY PERSONNEL CENTER
RANDOLPH AIR FORCE BASE, TEXAS

194

Louis M. Datko
HQ AFMPC/DPMYAS
5501 C Street West STE 36
Randolph AFB, TX 78150-4738

2 Mar 93

Susan S. Kelly
605 Deerfield Drive
Belleville, Illinois 62221

We have reviewed your proposal for use of the State/Trait Anxiety Inventory (Form Y) and corresponding demographic items to measure the stress involved with military relocations. The survey instrument and demographic items are aptly suited to your research design and presently are not currently available to the Air Force. With the support from the Base Commander at Scott AFB and the interest shown by representatives from Family Center Programs and Air Force Family Matters, there exists a need for this information. We have approved these items for use on up to 100 men and 100 women Air Force members who have recently relocated to Scott AFB. A survey control number (SCN) of USAF SCN 93-26 that will expire on 31 December 1993 has been assigned to your survey instruments. Please place both SCN and expiration date on the upper right hand corner of the survey instrument or in the body of the cover letter. Any additional questions can be forwarded to Mr. Lou Datko, at Comm (210) 652-5680.

Sincerely,

Louis M. Datko
Personnel Survey Analyst

APPENDIX B



3750 Lindell
St. Louis, MO 63108-3412
314/658-2510

Department of Education

Dear Participant:

As explained in the earlier telephone conversation, the purpose of the study is to explore the impact of a PCS move. The results should provide information about how to focus efforts to aid relocation adjustment. I have received approval from the installation commander, Brig Gen Dwight Kealoha, to conduct this research project at Scott AFB.

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary and all information will be kept confidential. No identifying information will be on the survey forms.

Please read and sign the consent form first. If you have any questions, I'll be happy to answer them for you now. If you would like a brief summary of the study, please indicate at the bottom of the consent form. I will also sign the consent form, now, and make a copy of this form for you.

Answering all the questions should take no longer than 30 minutes. One part of the questionnaire can be answered by circling items. Another set of questions can be answered with just a few words. The demographics will come to you easily. Each part is equally significant. Also, it is very important that you answer every item.

Thank you for your participation and help in this study. Your contribution will increase the understanding of Air Force couples' emotional responses to PCS moves.



197

Consent Form.

3750 Lindell
St. Louis, MO 63108-3412
314/658-2510

Researcher: Susan S. Kelly; Doctoral Student
St Louis University

Department of Education

Title of Project: Anxiety Levels of Military Members and Their Spouses Over
the First Twelve Months After Relocation

1. I have been requested to participate in a research project conducted by Susan S. Kelly.
2. The purpose of this research is to compare the impact of relocation on military members and their spouses during the first 1-6 months and 7-12 months after a PCS move. The gains and losses of a PCS move will also be explored.
3. Participation in this research involves: answering a 40 item inventory (STAI), 3 open-ended questions about the PCS move, and demographic questions.
4. I understand that there are no extraordinary risks associated with this research. Just answering the items on the survey will not intensify the impact of this PCS move, but can only heighten my awareness of what I am going through. If I have questions or concerns Ms Kelly will be available to address these for me.
5. I understand that the researcher and St Louis University will maintain my confidentiality throughout the study. My name will not be attached to the completed questionnaire and the questionnaire will be identified by number only. My confidentiality will be strictly maintained in accordance with all applicable federal and state laws. If this research is published or a presentation made, there will be no mention of my participation. My confidentiality will be maintained.
6. I understand that my participation is strictly voluntary, and I may withdraw from the research project at any time.
7. I understand that no compensation will be paid to me by the University or researcher.
8. I understand that the possible benefits of this research include: an increased awareness of how this PCS move has impacted me. I will also know that I have personally contributed to a project that may help other military couples get through PCS moves more easily.

I have read all the above statements. Understanding the purpose of this study, the possible benefits, and the minimal risk, I give my informed and free consent to participate in this study.

DATE

SIGNATURE

(over)

9. Optional

Yes, I would like a brief summary of the study. Please send a copy to the address below.

Street

City, State, Zip

10. I certify that I have explained to the above individual(s) the nature and purpose and the potential benefits and possible risks associated with participation in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

11. These elements of informed consent conform to the assurance given by Saint Louis University to the DHHS to protect the rights of human subjects.

12. I have provided the subject/patient with a copy of this signed consent document.

Date

Signature of Investigator

PLEASE NOTE

Copyrighted materials in this document have not been filmed at the request of the author. They are available for consultation, however, in the author's university library.

**Self Evaluation Questionnaire
Pages 199 & 200**

University Microfilms International

OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS

Please answer the following questions:

1. What was the most severe loss involved with this PCS move? _____

2. What was the most positive gain involved with this PCS move? _____

3. What was the most helpful thing you did to make yourself more at home in this new place? _____

MILITARY MEMBER SURVEY

This last set of questions is for STATISTICAL purposes only. Remember, this is a CONFIDENTIAL survey. I appreciate your help.

1. How long have you been in the military service?
 - (1) Less than one year
 - (2) From 1 to 5 years
 - (3) Between 6 and 10 years
 - (4) From 11 to 15 years
 - (5) From 16 to 20 years
 - (6) More than 20 years
2. What is your present rank?
 - (1) Technical Sergeant or below
 - (2) Master Sergeant or above
 - (3) Lieutenant or Captain
 - (4) Major or above
3. How many times have you moved (PCSd) due to a military assignment?
 - (1) This is my first move
 - (2) 2 or 3 times
 - (3) 4 or 5 times
 - (4) 6 to 8 times
 - (5) More than 8 times
4. How long has it been since you moved to this area due to your current assignment?
 - (1) Less than 1 month
 - (2) 1-3 months
 - (3) 4-6 months
 - (4) 7-9 months
 - (5) 10-12 months
 - (6) more than 12 months
5. Please indicate your race/ethnic background.
 - (1) Black/African
 - (2) White
 - (3) Hispanic
 - (4) Asian
 - (5) Other, please specify _____
6. Please indicate your age group:
 - (1) Under 20
 - (2) 20-25
 - (3) 26-30
 - (4) 31-35
 - (5) 36-40
 - (6) 41-45
 - (7) 46-50
 - (8) 51-55
 - (9) over 55
9. Please indicate your gender. (This is a very important factor in the study. Please do not omit.)
 - (1) Male
 - (2) Female
10. Please circle the item that best describes your education level:
 - (1) High school attendance
 - (2) High school diploma/GED
 - (3) Some college coursework
 - (4) Undergraduate degree
 - (5) Master's degree
 - (6) Above master's degree

11. How many children do you have living with you?

- | | |
|----------|---------------|
| (0) None | (3) 3 |
| (1) 1 | (4) 4 |
| (2) 2 | (5) 5 or more |

12. Please indicate which category best represents your gross total family income:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (1) Under \$14,000 | (5) From \$30,000 to \$39,999 |
| (2) From \$14,001 to \$17,999 | (6) From \$40,000 to \$49,999 |
| (3) From \$18,000 to \$19,999 | (7) From \$50,000 to \$59,999 |
| (4) From \$20,000 to \$29,999 | (8) \$60,000 or more |

13. How long did you live at your last base before PCSing to Scott AFB?

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------|
| (1) Less than 1 year | (3) 2-3 years |
| (2) 1-2 years | (4) 4-5 years |
| (5) Over 5 years | |

Thank you for your participation. The results of this study may help us understand and address the impact of relocation upon military couples.

APPENDIX C

3750 Lindell
St. Louis, MO 63108-3412
314/658-2510

Department of Education

Dear Participant:

As explained in the earlier telephone conversation, the purpose of the study is to explore the impact of a PCS move. The results should provide information about how to focus efforts to aid relocation adjustment. I have received approval from the installation commander, Brig Gen Dwight Kealoha, to conduct this research project at Scott AFB.

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary and all information will be kept confidential. No identifying information will be on the survey forms.

Please read and sign the consent form first. If you have any questions, I'll be happy to answer them for you now. If you would like a brief summary of the study, please indicate at the bottom of the consent form. I will also sign the consent form, now, and make a copy of this form for you.

Answering all the questions should take no longer than 30 minutes. One part of the questionnaire can be answered by circling items. Another set of questions can be answered with just a few words. The demographics will come to you easily. Each part is equally significant. Also, it is very important that you answer every item.

Thank you for your participation and help in this study. Your contribution will increase the understanding of Air Force couples' emotional responses to PCS moves.



206

Consent Form

3750 Lindell
St. Louis, MO 63108-3412
314/658-2510

Researcher: Susan S. Kelly; Doctoral Student
St Louis University

Department of Education

Title of Project: Anxiety Levels of Military Members and Their Spouses Over
the First Twelve Months After Relocation

1. I have been requested to participate in a research project conducted by Susan S. Kelly.
2. The purpose of this research is to compare the impact of relocation on military members and their spouses during the first 1-6 months and 7-12 months after a PCS move. The gains and losses of a PCS move will also be explored.
3. Participation in this research involves: answering a 40 item inventory (STAI), 3 open-ended questions about the PCS move, and demographic questions.
4. I understand that there are no extraordinary risks associated with this research. Just answering the items on the survey will not intensify the impact of this PCS move, but can only heighten my awareness of what I am going through. If I have questions or concerns Ms Kelly will be available to address these for me.
5. I understand that the researcher and St Louis University will maintain my confidentiality throughout the study. My name will not be attached to the completed questionnaire and the questionnaire will be identified by number only. My confidentiality will be strictly maintained in accordance with all applicable federal and state laws. If this research is published or a presentation made, there will be no mention of my participation. My confidentiality will be maintained.
6. I understand that my participation is strictly voluntary, and I may withdraw from the research project at any time.
7. I understand that no compensation will be paid to me by the University or researcher.
8. I understand that the possible benefits of this research include: an increased awareness of how this PCS move has impacted me. I will also know that I have personally contributed to a project that may help other military couples get through PCS moves more easily.

I have read all the above statements. Understanding the purpose of this study, the possible benefits, and the minimal risk, I give my informed and free consent to participate in this study.

DATE

SIGNATURE

(over)

9. Optional

Yes, I would like a brief summary of the study. Please send a copy to the address below.

Street

City, State, Zip

10. I certify that I have explained to the above individual(s) the nature and purpose and the potential benefits and possible risks associated with participation in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

11. These elements of informed consent conform to the assurance given by Saint Louis University to the DHHS to protect the rights of human subjects.

12. I have provided the subject/patient with a copy of this signed consent document.

Date

Signature of Investigator

PLEASE NOTE

Copyrighted materials in this document have not been filmed at the request of the author. They are available for consultation, however, in the author's university library.

**Self Evaluation Questionnaire
Pages 208 & 209**

University Microfilms International

OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS

Please answer the following questions:

1. What was the most severe loss involved with this PCS move? _____

2. What was the most positive gain involved with this PCS move? _____

3. What was the most helpful thing you did to make yourself more at home in this new place? _____

SPOUSE SURVEY

This last set of questions is for statistical purposes only. Remember, this is a confidential survey. I appreciate your help.

1. How long has your military spouse been in the service?

(1) Less than one year	(4) From 11 to 15 years
(2) From 1 to 5 years	(5) From 16 to 20 years
(3) Between 6 and 10 years	(6) More than 20 years
2. What is the present rank of your spouse?

(1) Technical Sergeant or below	(3) Lieutenant or Captain
(2) Master Sergeant or above	(4) Major or above
3. How many times have you moved (PCSd) to follow your spouse to a new military assignment?

(1) This is my first move	(3) 4 or 5 times
(2) 2 or 3 times	(4) 6 to 8 times
(5) More than 8 times	
4. How long has it been since you moved to this area due to your spouses current assignment?

(1) Less than 1 month	(4) 7-9 months
(2) 1-3 months	(5) 10-12 months
(3) 4-6 months	(6) more than 12 months
5. Did you give up a paying job to follow your spouse to Scott?

(1) Yes	(2) No
---------	--------
6. Are you currently employed?

(1) Yes	(2) No
---------	--------
7. Is your current position in your field of expertise?

(1) Yes	(2) No
---------	--------
8. Please indicate your race/ethnic background.

(1) Black/African	(4) Asian
(2) White	(5) Other, please
(3) Hispanic	specify _____
9. Please indicate your age group:

(1) Under 20	(4) 31-35	(7) 46-50
(2) 20-25	(5) 36-40	(8) 51-55
(3) 26-30	(6) 41-45	(9) over 55

10. Please indicate your gender. (This is a very important factor in the study. Please do not omit.)

(1) Male (2) Female

11. Please circle the item that best describes your education level:

(1) High school attendance	(4) Undergraduate degree
(2) High school diploma/GED	(5) Master's degree
(3) Some college coursework	(6) Above master's degree

12. How many children do you have living with you?

(0) None	(3) 3
(1) 1	(4) 4
(2) 2	(5) 5 or more

13. Please indicate which category best represents your gross total family income:

(1) Under \$14,000	(5) From \$30,000 to \$39,999
(2) From \$14,001 to \$17,999	(6) From \$40,000 to \$49,999
(3) From \$18,000 to \$19,999	(7) From \$50,000 to \$59,999
(4) From \$20,000 to \$29,999	(8) \$60,000 or more

14. How long did you live at your last base before PCSing to Scott AFB?

(1) Less than 1 year	(3) 2-3 years
(2) 1-2 years	(4) 4-5 years
(5) Over 5 years	

Thank you for your participation. The results of this study may help us understand and address the impact of relocation upon military couples.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adler, P. (1975). The transitional experience: An alternative view to culture shock. Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 15, 4, 13-23.

Ammons, P., Nelson, J., & Woodarski, J. (1982). Surviving corporate moves: Sources of stress and adaptation among corporate executive families. Family Relations, 3, 207-212.

Barrett, C. & Noble, H. (1973). Mothers anxieties vs effects of long distance move in children. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 35, 181-188.

Bayes, M. (1989). The effects of relocation on the trailing spouse. Special issue: Women and clinical practice. Smith College Studies in Social Work 59(3), 280-288.

Belenky, M., Clinchy, B., Goldberger, N., Tarule, J. (1986). Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice, and mind. New York: Basic Books.

Berry, R. (1985). The corporate couple. New York: Franklin Watts.

Blieszner, R., & Adams, R. (1992). Adult friendship. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Bloom-Feshbach, M. (1987). Leaving home: A family transition. In J. Bloom-Feshbach and M. Bloom-Feshbach and Assoc (Eds.). The psychology of separation and loss (pp. 232-266). San Francisco: Josey, Boss.

Bowlby, J. (1960). Grief and mourning in early childhood. Psychoanalytic Study of the Child, 15, 9-52.

Bowlby, J. (1961). Childhood mourning and its implications for psychiatry. American Journal of Psychiatry, 118, 481-498.

Bowlby, J. (1969). Attachment and loss, Vol 1: Attachment. New York: Basic Books.

Bowlby, J. (1980). Attachment and loss, Vol 3: Loss: Sadness and depression. New York: Basic Books.

Bowlby, J. (1982). Attachment and loss: retrospect and prospect. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 52, 664-678.

Brett, J. (1982). Job transfer and well-being. Journal of Applied Psychology, 67, 450-463.

Brett, J., & Werbel, J. (1980). The effect of job transfer on employees and their family. Washington D.C. Employee Relocation Council.

Brooks, G. (1990). Traditional men in marital and family therapy. Journal of Feminist Family Therapy, 2(3/4), 51-74.

Buros, O. K. (1978). The eighth mental measurements yearbook. Highland Park, NJ: Gryphon.

Butler, E., McAllister, R., & Kaiser, E. (1973). The effects of voluntary and involuntary residential mobility on females and males. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 35, 219-227.

Cantor, Dorothy, & Bernay, Toni, with Stoess, Jean. (1992). Women in power: The secrets of leadership. Boston, New York, London: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Chodorow, N. (1974). Family structure and feminine personality. In M.Z. Rosaldo & L. Lamphere, (Eds) Woman, culture, and society. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 43-66.

Christiansen-Ruffman, L. (1976). Newcomer careers: An exploratory study of migrants in Halifax. Ph.D. dissertation, Dept of Sociology, Columbia University.

Croan, G. (1991). Family life in the military: An analysis of relocation adjustment. A study conducted by Caliber Associates, Arlington, VA. for U. S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.

Debates, K. E. (1982). The current status of corporate relocation. Personnel Journal, 61, 664-670.

Dienhart, A., & Avis, J. (1991). Men in therapy: Exploring feminist-informed alternatives. Journal of Feminist Family Therapy, 2, 3/4, 25-49.

Department of Defense Survey of Officer and Enlisted Personnel and Military Spouses (1985). Description of spouses of officers and enlisted personnel in the United States armed forces. Reported by Griffith, J., Doering, Z., and Mahoney, B.

Depner, C. & Ingersoll, B. (1982). Employment status and social support: The experience of the mature woman. In Womens's retirement: Policy implications for recent research (pp 61-76). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Dobrofsky, L. & Batterson, C. (1977). The military wife and feminism. Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 2, 675-683.

Donohue, K., & Gulotta, T. (1981). FIT: What corporations can do to ease relocation stress. Mobility, Nov/Dec, 55-57.

Dovich, L. (1994, March). Business or friendship. Working Woman, 19, 8.

Duck, Steve. (1991). Understanding relationships. New York: The Guilford Press.

Duncan, R. & Perrucci, C. (1976). Dual occupation families and migration. In American Sociological Review, 41, 252-261.

Fisher, S. (1960). Psychiatric considerations of hand disability. Archives of Physiology, Medicine, and Rehabilitation, 41, 62.

Fowlkes, M. (1980). Behind every successful man: Wives of medicine and academe. New York: Columbia University Press.

Fried, M. (1963). Grieving for a lost home. In L. Duhl, (Ed.). The urban condition. (pp 151-171). New York: Basic Books.

Ganley, A. (1990). Combining political and clinical analyses of men. Journal of Feminist Family Therapy, 2, 3/4, 1-23.

Garamone, J. (1986, June 2). Survey: Most spouses like Air Force life. Air Force Times, 10.

Garza Guerrero, A. (1974). Culture shock: It's mourning and vicissitudes of identity. Journal of the American Psychoanalytical Association, 22, 2, 408-29.

Gaylord, M. (1979). Relocation and the corporate family: Explored issues. Social Work, 24, 186-191.

Gaylord, M., & Symons, E. (1986). Relocation stress: A definition and need for services. Employee Assistance Quarterly, 2, 31-36.

Gershun, M. (1994, June 12). Hers: Presumed intimate. New York Times Magazine, 36.

Gilligan, C. (1977). In a different voice: Women's conceptions of self and of morality. Harvard Educational Review, 47(Nov), 481-517.

Gilligan, C. (1982). In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.

Ginovsky, J. (1987, February 16). Personnel top worry in posture statement. Air Force Times, 6.

Golub, V. (1976). A study of the adjustment of married women to geographic relocation. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kent State University.

Gowler, D., & Legge, K. (Eds.) (1975). Managerial stress. Epping: Gowler Press.

Griffith, Janet., Doering, Zahava., & Mahoney, Bette. (1986). Description of spouses of officers and enlisted personnel in the U. S. Armed Forces: 1985. A Report Based on the 1985 Department of Defense Survey of Officer and Enlisted Personnel and Military Spouses. Department of Defense. Pentagon, VA.

Gulotta, T., & Donohue, K. (1982). Preventing family distress during relocation: Initiatives for human resource managers. Personnel Administrator, 27, 37-43

Hazler, R., & Nass, E. (1988). Factors influencing the impact of job and family relocation. Journal of Humanistic Education and Development, 27(2), 54-60.

Herring, Laura. (1988). The psychology of a positive relocation. Mobility, May/June, 15-17

Herring, Laura. (1989a). Helping spouses helps employers. Personnel Journal, 68(1), Viewpoint.

Herring, Laura. (1989b). Is dual career assistance a corporate responsibility? The Employment Management Association Journal, Fall, 31-36.

Hochschild, A. (1992). The second shift. New York: Viking Press.

Hunt, G., & Butler, E. (1972). Migration, participation, and alleviation. Sociology & Social Research, 56, 440-452.

Hunter, E. (1982). Families under the flag: A review of military family literature. New York: Praeger.

Jaco, E. (1959). Social stress & mental illness in the community. In M. Sussman (Ed.), Community structure and analysis. New York: Thomas and Crowell Co., 388-409.

Jones, S. (1973). Geographic mobility as seen by the mother and wife. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 35, 210-218.

Kantor, M. (1965). Mobility and mental health. Springfield: Charles Thomas.

Kaslow, F., & Ridenour, R. (Eds) (1984). The military family. New York: The Guilford Press.

Katlin, E. S. (1978). State-trait anxiety inventory. In O.K. Buros, The eighth mental measurement yearbook. Highland Park NY: Gryphon, 1095-1096.

Kelly, J. (March 11, 1994). We're still (sort of) religious. [Review of the book One nation under God: Religion in contemporary society]. Commonwealth, 121, 5, 25-26.

Kopf, E. (1977). Untarnishing the dream: Mobility, opportunity & order in modern America. Journal of Social History, 11, 206-227.

Landis, J., & Stoetzer, L. (1966). Migrant families: An exploratory study of middle class migrant families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 28, 51-53.

Lester, M. (1984, Feb 6). Your move. The Times Magazine, p. 2.

Levin, S., Groves, A., & Laurie, J. (1980). Sharing the move: Support groups for relocated women. Social Work, 25, 323-325.

Levitt, E. (1967). The psychology of anxiety. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill

Lieberman, A. (1987). Separation in infancy and early childhood: Contributions of attachment theory and psychoanalysis. In J. Bloom-Feshbach & M. BloomFeshbach and Assoc (Eds.). The psychology of separation and loss (pp. 109-135). San Francisco: Josey, Boss.

Long, L. (1974). Women's labor force participation and the residential mobility of families. Social Forces, 52, 342-348.

Long, L., & Boertlein, C. (1976). The geographic mobility of Americans: An international comparison. Current Population Reports, Special Studies Series P-23, 64, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Margolis, D. (1979). The managers: Corporate life in America. New York: William Morris.

Marshall, J., & Cooper, C. (1976). The mobile manager and his wife. Management Decision, 14, 180-224.

Martin-Mathews, A. (1980). Wives experience of relocation: Status passage and the moving career. Unpublished dissertation. Canada: McMaster University

Mattessich, Paul & Hill, Rueben. (1987). Life cycle and family development. In M. Sussman & S. Sussman & K. Steinmetz (Eds.), Handbook of marriage and the family (pp 437-469). New York: Plenum Press.

McAllister, R., Butler, E., & Kaiser, W. (1973). The adaptation of women to residential mobility. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 35, 189-196.

McKain, J. (1973). Relocation in the military: Alienation and family problems. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 35, 205-209.

Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. (1988) The overseas assignment: A practical look. Business Horizons, (Sep-Oct), 78-84.

Meth, R. (1990). The road to masculinity. In R. Meth and R. Pasick Men in therapy: The challenge of change. (pp. 3-34). New York: The Guilford Press.

Miller, A. (1966). Migration differentials in labor force participation: United States, 1960. Demography, 3, 58-67.

Miller, J. (1976). Toward a new psychology of women. Boston: Beacon Press.

Morris, J., Pestaner, M., & Nelson, A. (1967). Mobility & achievement. The Journal of Experimental Education, 35, 74-79.

Myers, J. (1972). Fundamentals of experimental design. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

O'Connor, Pat. (1992). Friendships between women: A critical review. New York: The Guilford Press.

Olsen, M. (1988). Family satisfaction in A.F. families as a function of family strengths, resources, and coping following relocation. Unpublished dissertation, Utah State University, Logan, Utah.

Packard, E. (1972). A nation of strangers. New York: David McKay.

Park, R. (1928). Human migration and the marginal man. American Journal of Sociology, 33, 881-893.

Parkes, C. (1971). Psycho-social transitions: A field for study. Social Science and Medicine, 5, 101-115.

Parkes, C. (1972). Bereavement: Studies of grief in adult life. New York: International Universities Press.

Parkes, C., & Stevenson-Hinde, J. (1982). The place of attachment in human behavior. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Pasick, R. (1990). Raised to work. In R. Meth & R. Pasick. Men in therapy (pp. 35-53). New York: The Guilford Press.

Pinder, Craig. (1977). Multiple predictors of post-transfer satisfaction: The role of urban factors. Personnel Psychology, 10, p. 543-556.

Pinder, C. (1989). The dark side of executive relocation. Organizational Dynamics, Spring, 17(4), 48-58.

Powers, E. & Bultena, G. (1976). Sex differences in intimate relationships of old age. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 38, 739-747

Ranney, M.H. On insane foreigners. American Journal of Insanity, 7 (July 1850), 53-63.

Rawlins, William. (1992). Friendship matters: Communication, dialectics, and the life course. New York: Walter de Gruyter.

Richards, S., Donohue, L., & Gulotta, T. (1985). Corporate families and mobility: A review of the literature. Family Therapy, 12(1), 59-73.

Ridenour, Richard. (1984). The military service, families, and the therapist. In F. Kaslow & R. Ridenour, In The military family (pp 1-17). New York: The Guilford Press.

Rossi, P.H. (1980). Why families move (2nd Ed). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publication.

Scheele, Adele. (1993, March). Should you be your boss's buddy? Working Woman, 8, 16-21.

Schumaker, S. & Stokols, D. (1982). Residential mobility as a social issue and research topic. Journal of Social Issues, 38(3), 1-19.

Seidenberg, R. (1973). Corporate wives: Corporate casualties. New York: Anchor Press.

Sekaran, U. (1986). Self-esteem & sense of competence & moderators of the job satisfaction of professionals in dual career families. Journal of Occupational Behavior, 7(4), 341.

Sluzki, C. (1979). Migration and family conflict. Family Process, 18, 379-390.

Smith, E. (1983). Distance and preparedness for relocation and the degree of culture shock experienced by wives of relocated employees, Unpublished dissertation. United States International University.

Sorokin, P. (1959). Social and cultural mobility. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe.

Spielberger, C., in collaboration with Gorsuch, R., Lushene, R., Vagg, P., & Jacobs, G. (1983). Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, STAI (Form Y) (Self-evaluation questionnaire). Palo Alto CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Spielberger, C. (1984). The State-Trait anxiety inventory. A comprehensive bibliography. Palo Alto CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Spielberger, C. (1988). State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. In M. Hersen & A. Bellack (Eds). Dictionary of behavioral assessment techniques. New York: Pergamon Press, 448-450.

Spielberger, C., Gorsuch, R., & Lushene, R. (1970). Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory: STAI (Self Evaluation Questionnaire). Palo Alto CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Stein, H. (1984). Misplaced Persons: The crisis of emotional separation in geographic mobility & uprootedness. The Journal of Psychoanalytic Anthropology, 1, 269-292.

Tallman, I. (1969). Working-class wives in suburbia: Fulfillment or crisis? Journal of Marriage and the Family, 31, 65-72.

Teachman, J. & Call, B. & Carver, K. (1994). Marital status and the duration of joblessness among white men. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 56, 415-428.

The Brown University, Family Therapy Letter, (1992) May, Vol 4, No 5, 3.

Tiger, L. (1974). Is this trip necessary? The heavy human costs of moving executives around. Fortune, 90, 139-141, 182.

Toffler, A. (1970). Future shock. New York: Bantam.

U. S. Air Force Family Matters Office. (1985). Inside families in blue: A study of Air Force youth. Contracted Project with Orthner, D. & Brody, G. & Coni, R. from The Center for Work and Family Issues, University of Georgia. Athens, GA.

U. S. Air Force Family Matters Office. (1993). Air Force community needs assessment. Contract with Caliber Associates/Hay Management Consulting. Pentagon, VA.

U. S. Department of Defense. (1993). Marital status and the initial term of service (1993). Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Personnel and Readiness). Washington Headquarters Services.

Viney, L., & Bazely, P. (1977). Affective reactions of housewives to community relocation. Journal of Community Psychology, 37-45.

Walker, P. (1991). Residential relocation and adaptation to place: An exploration of place identity. Unpublished dissertation. City University of New York.

Walls, G. (1987). The relationship of geographic mobility to separation-individuation and object relations in college men. Unpublished dissertation, Miami University.

Weiss, R.S. (1969). The fund of sociability. Trans-Action, 1969, 6, 36-43.

Weiss, R. (1975). Marital separation: Managing after a marriage ends. New York: Basic Books.

Weissman, M., & Paykel, E. (1972). Moving and depression in women. Transactions/Society, July, August.

Witkin-Lanoil, Georgia. (1984). The female stress syndrome: How to recognize and live with it. New York: Newmarket Press.

Wolfenstein, M. (1957). A disaster: A psychological essay. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Vita Auctoris

Susan Sanneman Kelly was born in Vincennes, Indiana on September 28, 1954. She received a Bachelor of Arts degree with a major in criminal justice from the University of South Florida in Tampa in 1976. In 1981, she received a Master of Arts degree in Education, with a concentration in counseling, from the University of Georgia in Athens. From 1987 to the present she has been a Ph.D. candidate in the marriage and family therapy program at St. Louis University.

From 1977 to 1983, Ms Kelly was employed by the Georgia Department of Offender Rehabilitation as a probation officer. Her primary focus was to establish community service as an alternative in sentencing adult offenders. In 1983 she became the Director of the Kleber Kaserne Child Development Center for the U.S. Army. She resumed counseling duties in 1985 as a counseling psychologist in the Army's substance abuse prevention program at Kaiserslautern, Germany. She was Director of the Scott Air Force Base Family Support Center from 1987 to 1993. Ms Kelly is now Chief of Family Plans, Family Matters Office, Air Force Headquarters at the Pentagon.