RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ATTITUDES TOWARD CHANGE OF RESIDENCE AND CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT LEVELS

A THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS

FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THE

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF NURSING

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MAY 1978

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Denton, Texas

December 19, 1977

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DEDICATION

To my husband, Bill, a man with vision and understanding.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I extend my sincere appreciation to the members of my thesis committee, Ms. Bennie Harsanyi, R.N., M.S. and Ms. Judith Johnson, R.N., M.S., for their conscientious assistance. Particular gratitude is expressed to Ms. Pat Kurtz, R.N., M.S., my committee chairman, for her persistent encouragement, patience, and sound advice.

On a personal level, I wish to thank my husband, Bill, for his continual support, faith, and invaluable statistical expertise. I am also grateful to my children, Kristine and Bradley, who exhibited unusual understanding and coping abilities when my attention was devoted to the accomplishment of this project.

Finally, I wish to thank my very special mother-in-law, Edith Van Dongen, and my parents, Lloyd and Emma Hall, for their assistance and encouragement during the past two years of arduous study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"When one is uprooted, transplanted, there is a temporary withering."

--Anais Ninn
The Diary of Anais Ninn
Vol. 3, p. 215

Each year millions of Americans exchange one home and neighborhood for another. A move is often precipitated by one seeking to improve his economic status, either through obtaining employment or securing a more desirable position. When the head of a family secures a job in another city or state, he typically moves his family to the new location. Such a change in environment, even though often made to similar surroundings in terms of housing conditions and climate, still has many ramifications for personal adjustment. How does family mobility influence children, who may well not comprehend the reasons for making a move?

There are many factors involved in how an individual responds to a change of residence. For instance, the reasons for making the move, the actual experience incurred

during moving, and the perceived outcome of making the transition are of probable significance (Morrison 1965).

Popular and scientific literature on the relationship between mobility and mental illness or health in children reveals conflicting opinions and reports. However, several authors have described parental attitudes regarding change of residence as a significant factor influencing children's adjustment postmove (Ramos 1975; Pedersen and Sullivan 1964; Stubblefield 1955). The fact that parental attitudes and behaviors have a powerful influence on children's psychosocial development is illustrative of the process of identification and is consistent with the concepts of general systems theory, as described by Von Bertalanffy (1966).

The nurse continually deals with mobile or potentially mobile children and their families. She needs to be aware of the implications of mobility for the family and what factors may contribute to favorable or unfavorable adjustment postmove. The family's perception of what will be lost or gained by relocation and their affective orientation toward the new community are worthy of consideration. Family attitudes toward moving may be a significant factor affecting the adjustment of mobile children.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The problem of this study was to determine the relationship between parents' and children's attitudes toward change of residence and the reported level of children's adjustment in recently mobile families.

STATEMENT OF PURPOSES

The purposes of this study were as follows:

1. Determine attitudes regarding change of residence in parents and children in recently mobile families and compare them

2. Determine the level of adjustment of the children and how it may have changed since the move

3. Compare the parents' and children's attitudes toward moving with the level of adjustment of the children

4. Compare the attitudes toward moving with the age and sex of subjects, time interval since the move, number of previous moves, distance moved, whether the move was optional or mandatory, and how the move affected family social status

BACKGROUND AND SIGNIFICANCE

Scope of Mobility

America is a nation of movers! Since 1948, 20 percent or approximately forty million Americans have changed residences each year (Kahn 1974). The average American moves fourteen times during his lifetime. This is a continuing trend, as Americans have been moving since first emigrating from Europe. Movement has shifted from farm to farm, farm to town, town to town, and state to state. The appearance of the automobile increased interstate transfers; however, the majority of the moves are within the same county (Kahn 1974).

There are certain social classes, occupations, and age groups which are more prone to be mobile. Packard (1972) states that about three-quarters of those making long distance moves work for large corporate or governmental organizations. Managerial, military, professional, and technical personnel move frequently, while working-class people tend to be geographically stable. Packard (1972) identifies highly educated, talented persons who are in the prime of life as the most transient, because of multiple job offers. In the business world, executives often move due to the corporation requesting it. There is an implicit

understanding that failure to move decreases opportunities for promotion and may even threaten job security (Tiger 1974). People in the work force between twenty-five and thirty-four are the most mobile, and willingness to move decreases with advancing age (Packard 1972).

Social scientists, according to Packard (1972) are forecasting greater rootlessness in the future and Americans are seen as moving into an era of temporary systems, non-permanent relationships, and unparalleled social change. Pierson (1973), who has written in depth on the mobility phenomenon, cautions that repeated movement subjects the personality to severe strain and harmful changes in attitudes and behavior may well occur.

Fried (1964) identifies mobility as a significant social change. The impact of any such change in terms of the effects toward mental health or illness is determined by the specific problems which may be posed and what social resources can provide assistance in coping with the challenge. Fried (1964) suggests that an increased rate of mental disorder has been found to be associated with mobility, because the migration phenomenon is clearly related to loss and separation, making the challenge of new adaptation more difficult to meet.

Such a change requires a process of undoing and giving up previous modes of adaptation and learning new patterns of behavior more efficient and appropriate to the new environment. The individual may experience some disequilibrium during this transition period, and the resources of friends and familiar surroundings are not available to him. He must depend more on his intrapersonal strengths for support during the process of adaptation (Fried 1964).

Toffler (1970) notes the hazards of persistent mobility and implies that it will increase in the future. Toffler also refers to the work of James Tyhurst (1957), who described the period of transition associated with a major move as being divided into three phases. First, there is a time of restlessness and increased psychomotor activity, as the individual satisfies the basic needs, such as finding a job and securing a home. This restlessness is followed by the phase of "psychological arrival" characterized by varying degrees of anxiety and depression, somatic preoccupations and symptoms, and some withdrawal from society. This period of disturbance may last for several months. Finally, a phase of relative adjustment and settling in occurs, or in some cases, people never do adjust adequately and more severe mental disorders develop (Tyhurst 1957).

Mobility and the Middle Years of Childhood

What particular significance does mobility have for the elementary school-age child? These years of growth, from about six years to preadolescence, are a time to build up further physical and emotional resources. However, this midstage is also crucial, for the child needs to accomplish a number of developmental tasks if he is to be prepared for adolescence and later life. Erikson (1963) describes it as the stage of industry versus inferiority. The child, along with his age-mates, is concerned with producing things and learning new skills. If he lacks the desired capabilities or loses status among his peers, he suffers discouragement and feelings of inferiority.

Middle childhood is socially a most decisive stage. Although younsters are affected mostly by experiences in their own families, when they become five or six, their community becomes much more influential (Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children 1969). The child travels back and forth between his home and various places in his neighborhood and surrounding community. His attitudes toward himself and society are deeply affected by these new experiences. The child learns the value of cooperation and develops the ability to empathize and understand others

(Helms and Turner 1976). The Joint Commission also stated that poor social relationships with other children are predictive of some later forms of emotional and mental health problems. It would seem that moving to a new neighborhood holds the potential for threatening satisfactory social adjustment.

Dramatic changes in intellectual performance occur between the ages of five and seven. Piaget (1969) describes this as the stage of concrete operations in which the child begins to think and reason logically about objects in the environment. He is able to mentally visualize actions and series of actions, which previously had to occur in reality before he could comprehend. He cannot yet deal with abstract issues, analyze his own thoughts, or consider problems in the future (Helms and Turner 1976). These abilities develop in the stage of formal thought beginning about age eleven or twelve (Piaget 1969). The child still has some difficulty with distractibility and the presence of anxiety severely interferes with attention in this age group (Kagan 1971).

This brief review of the school-age child's cognitive development suggests he would understand the mechanics of moving to a new home, but may have difficulty absorbing the reasons and how it may benefit the family in the future.

The middle-age child typically acts out his feelings through motor behavior, rather than verbalizing them (Slavson and Schiffer 1975). Difficult behavior may be one way of expressing protest against perceived unfairness. When something is upsetting a child or undermining his security, a negative change in behavior will be seen (Pinkerton 1976). It should also be noted that fears expressed by children undergo a change in the middle years. There is a decline in concerns related to personal safety and animals, and an increase in fears associated with school and social relationships (Helms and Turner 1976).

If one considers the various aspects of this stage of growth and development, it would appear that mobility could well have detrimental effects. However, opinion and research evidence is conflicting as to whether or not family moves have adverse effects on children.

Two early studies most often quoted are by Tietze, Lemkau, and Cooper (1943) and by Gordon and Gordon (1958). Tietze, Lemkau, and Cooper (1943) found the highest prevalence of personality disorder in those persons who maintained the shortest length of residence. Gordon and Gordon (1958) suggested that moving contributes to behavior problems in children and noted that more boys than girls were disturbed in areas of high residential change.

The influence of moving on children has been discussed in the popular literature. Packard (1972) generally reports only the hazards and negative effects of moving on children, although he does state that negligible problems will result if the family relationships are solid. Bettelheim (1971) takes a very strong stance against frequent moves and seriously questions whether anyone really "has" to move, regardless of what the corporation says. He suggests making only one or two moves during the growing up process.

Seidenberg (1973) states that frequent moves, too often made due to the ambitious needs of parents, may have adverse effects on children. In the process of moving, children lose friends, credentials, and the continuity of life that is needed for feelings of security. Tiger (1974) echoes similar thoughts in his writings.

Switzer et al. (1961) point out that family moves can distort family adjustments and can result in more than just transient emotional problems. They urge providing adequate support for the child. Gabower (1960) suggests moving may contribute to behavior problems, but is probably not a major factor in creating difficulties. Levine (1966) emphasizes the threat to school adjustment associated with

frequent change of schools and also suggests preventative services for the mobile child.

Most of the previously cited works have reflected an opinion that moves tend to produce negative effects on children. However, Kantor's (1965) longitudinal study revealed that although families who change residence have less well-adjusted children, the move itself is not sufficient to produce a change in the child's disturbance level. Burchinal (1963) also found in his study, that a family move alone does not produce adverse effects. He further noted that those who learn to cope with moving while children may be better prepared to face the complexities of adult life, including mobility.

Barrett and Noble (1973) reported that children who moved did not have more behavior problems; in fact, the overall effect of moving was considered to be "none" or "good." Gans (1972) indicated that many people, if not most, adapt easily to moving and may even grow emotionally. Ruina (1970) suggested that the highly mobile or "mobilocentric" family is actually stronger and more cohesive than those less mobile.

Several studies have noted that if the parents view making a move with a positive attitude, then the children tend toward optimism and adjust to the new home more readily.

Stubblefield (1955) indicated that children are likely to respond positively to general enthusiasm about a new venture and suggested this as one way to minimize the traumatic effects of family moves. Bower (1967) noted that in overseas American families, the dissatisfaction of the mother at home is often transmitted into behavior problems in the children at school.

Pedersen and Sullivan (1964) compared two groups of military families, one with "disturbed" children and the other with "normal" children with respect to incidence of mobility and parental attitudes toward mobility. They found no association between mobility rates and emotional disturbances in children, but did find that the mothers of adjusted children were significantly more accepting of mobility. However, this relationship was not observed for the fathers.

Shaw (1975) also explored the issue of parents' feelings toward moving and the incidence of behavior problems in children, but found no predictable relationship. Olive et al. (1976) found that children expressed more negative feelings about moving than did their parents, but still saw distinct advantages associated with change of residence.

Attitudes

An attitude is an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of a person's world (Krech and Crutchfield 1948). Attitudes vary in strength or intensity from positive through neutral to negative. They are learned through social interaction, rather than being innate (Shaw and Wright 1967). Since they are learned, they are subject to further change. They can be altered, maintained, or broken down, according to the principles of learning theory (Shaw and Wright 1967).

One could reason that a positive attitude towards moving may facilitate a child's adjustment in a new neighborhood. Should a family demonstrate a negative attitude toward a move, then efforts should be made to change it to a more favorable orientation. It is important to note that attitudes can be changed through processes similar to the way they were first learned.

Significance for Nursing

The issue of mobility has significance for nursing. The nurse needs to be continually aware of the family, community and social forces impinging on the individuals and groups with which she works. An understanding of the

potential impact of a change of residence upon an individual and his family will aid the nurse in providing comprehensive, quality patient care. The nurse frequently sees patients new to a community and the factor of mobility should be considered in assessing their condition.

Nurses are often confronted with children's behavior problems directly or indirectly. She should assess the nature and etiology of the problems and provide treatment herself or initiate proper referral. According to the Joint Commission (1969), the school child is still malleable to change and services provided to correct physical, emotional, or social difficulties are likely to be successful.

Related Theories for Nursing Practice

General systems theory is of value in understanding the effect of change of residence on the family and its members. Von Bertalanffy (1966) defined a system as a complex of components in mutual interaction. The family interacts with and is influenced by society, while still functioning as a system in itself (Hazard 1971). The members of the family are interdependent, meaning what happens to one part will also affect the others. This explains how parental attitudes could conceivably influence child behavior.

In order to provide family-centered nursing, it is essential that the nurse have an understanding of the family as a system, interrelated with other subsystems within the community, as well as with the total society. She must assess the family patterns and the extent of family involvement with the community so that areas of stability and needed change can be identified. Then she can provide the proper nursing interventions including new input and appropriate feedback into the family system (Barry 1972).

The recently mobile family may lack support and feedback from the new community. Individuals are thrown back into the family group for meeting needs for security and reassurance, thus increasing stress on the family unit.

Family moves can be understood in terms of crisis theory and coping behavior, familiar terms to the psychiatric nurse. Caplan (1964) has referred to a crisis as a time of cognitive and emotional upset when one's equilibrium is disrupted by excessive burdens and demands. A change of residence has the potential for developing into a situational crisis, as significant changes in role and status occur for the individual (Aguilera and Messick 1974). The child and/or his parents lose previously established

positions among peers and may have difficulty reestablishing themselves in the new neighborhood.

Aguilera and Messick (1974) point out that the three factors influencing a return to equilibrium or preventing initial disequilibrium are: whether or not the event is perceived realistically, available coping mechanisms, and available situational supports. Nurses working with potentially or recently mobile individuals and families should encourage realistic, but optimistic appraisal of the moving event. The family's capabilities for making necessary adjustments should be assessed and counseling provided to minimize difficulties.

It is evident that changing one's place of residence is a widespread practice in America and that mobility has particular meaning for the middle-age child. Research findings are contradictory as to how mobility affects children's adjustment, but the existence of a positive attitude may assist in adapting to a new home. Additional research exploring and determining more efficient ways to cope with mobility is needed.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

For the purposes of this study, terms were defined as follows:

1. Parents--a married male and female, both over age twenty-one, with custody of the children living with them

2. Children--children between the ages of five and twelve, who attended school, grades kindergarten through sixth grade, during the 1977-78 school years

3. Attitude--an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world (Krech and Crutchfield 1948)

4. Change of residence--relocating to a different town

5. Adjustment--the extent to which an individual's personality functions efficiently in the world of other people (Hurlock 1972)

6. Recently mobile families--families who have relocated their homes within the past three months

LIMITATIONS

The following limitations existed for the study:

1. There was little control over environmental influences during data collection

2. The voluntary nature of participation of subjects reduced applicability of findings

3. The sample was small and select, limiting generalization of findings

4. Tools may not give completely accurate representation of tested phenomenon

5. There was no control over previous family experiences, which may have influenced children's adjustment levels

DELIMITATIONS

The following characteristics were required of subjects included in the study:

1. Only complete family units of parents and elementary school-age child/children were included in the project

2. The family unit had resided together for at least one year prior to the recent move

3. A death, divorce, severe accident or unusual family crisis had not occurred during the six months preceding data collection

4. The English language was used and comprehended by the family

5. The family had changed residence during the previous three months

ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions were made for the purposes of this study:

1. Attitudes and adjustment can be measured

2. Mothers are knowledgeable regarding their children's behavior

3. Opinions expressed through the use of an attitude scale are, for the most part, indicative of the subjects' actual opinions

SUMMARY

The issue of mobility as a social change affecting millions of families and children each year has been introduced. The present study's problem with terms defined has been explored and the purposes, limitations, delimitations, and assumptions made for the study have been included.

In chapter II, the literature will be reviewed. Areas pertinent to the identified problem include the family as a system, social change and life events research, coping with change, and behavioral adjustment during middle childhood. In addition, previous writings and research on mobility, as it relates to both adults and children, will be presented in depth.

Chapter III will describe the procedure for collection and treatment of data in this community mental health study. The results of analyzing the data through use of appropriate statistics and interpretations of the findings will be presented in chapter IV. A final chapter will summarize the study and its results. Chapter V will also state the conclusions and implications derived from the study and recommendations for further research will be offered.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This study focused on how families, particularly children, are affected by and respond to a change of residence. Relevant literature includes material on the following: the family as a system, societal changes and life events research, how individuals cope with change, behavioral and psychological development of school-age children, including the influence of parents, and the specific issue of geographical mobility. Consideration will be given to mobility in terms of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale, as developed by Holmes and Rahe (1967) and which was later modified for children by Coddington (1972). Theories as to what enables families and children to accommodate to life stresses, such as mobility, will be reviewed. The social-psychological development of the middle-age child will be discussed and common behavior problems noted.

Emphasis will be placed on literature exploring the psychological implications of moving. Many articles pertaining to the effects of change of residence on children appeared in both the scientific and popular literature

during the 1950s and 1960s. During the early 1970s, the response toward moving by women, particularly wives of corporate executives, was examined. There is limited information as to how males, specifically, react to mobility. A few studies have explored the total family responses to moving. No research was found which related children's attitudes toward moving with their adjustment after change of residence.

The Family and General Systems Theory

Von Bertalanffy (1966) refers to a system as a complex of elements in interaction. Family systems, like all social systems are "organizationally complex, open, adaptive, and information-processing systems" (Kanton and Lehr 1975, p. 10). The parents and children of the family are interrelated by a complex network of relationships. The family is an open living system and input of matter, energy, and information is taken in from the environment and discharged as changed output (Hazard 1971). Continued interchange with the environment is essential for the family's viability, continuity, and ability to change. Kantor and Lehr (1975) describe families as adaptive, for they grow and develop as a result of interchange with the environment.

Families exhibit varying degrees of entropy and negentropy. Entropy refers to the amount of disorganization and energy that is not available for work, while negentropy is a measure of the system's order and the energy capable of conversion to work (Hazard 1971). Lewis et al. (1976) state that healthy, efficient families exhibit negentropy. The system has structure, yet is flexible and has energy to cope with changing internal and external demands.

The family system consists of three subsystems: the family unit subsystem, the interpersonal subsystem, and the personal subsystem. These subsystems interact with each other as well as the outside world (Kantor and Lehr 1975). The child thus functions as an individual system and with a parent forms a second system. The parents and children can also unite into a family unit which interfaces with the larger neighborhood system.

The concepts of positive and negative feedback are essential to understanding how the family functions efficiently as a system. Feedback refers to part of the system's output being reintroduced into the system as information about that output (Barry 1972). Feedback occurs within the family, among members; and between the family unit and suprasystem. Families require both positive

feedback, which leads to loss of stability, change, and adaptation; and negative feedback, which leads to maintenance of stability (Barry 1972). Positive feedback occurs both when family members are encouraged for individual changes and when community approval is received for changes in the family as a whole. Negative feedback is evident in parental disapproval of altered behavior in a child and in community rejection of different behavior exhibited by a family.

When a family moves, it exchanges one neighborhood system for another; it "encounters a complex set of ongoing social conditions and institutional arrangements" (Kantor and Lehr 1975, p. 24). The effect of the changed surroundings produces a temporary disequilibrium of the family system (Tyhurst 1957). Tooley (1970) points out that families who are between social networks are strikingly open to changes; however, once they become a part of the new community, they are much less open. A system tends to return to a steady state; gradually family members become receptive to some elements of the new community and unreceptive to others and a relationship with the community crystallizes (Hazard 1971; Kantor and Lehr 1975). The adaptive family utilizes input from the new community and produces appropriate output (Barry 1972).

Social Change and Life Events Research

The twentieth century is a unique era of persistent and pervasive social change. Marc Fried (1964) described social changes as alterations in the institutions of society, such as the organization of occupational activities, patterns of economic exchange or the political system, and the structure of the family. The United States is a highly industrialized, technological nation and presents special problems for human adaptation. Keniston (1963) states that the impetus for social change is technological innovation and in the American society, unrestrained technological change produces effects in all areas of living. Packard (1972) noted that the nature of our "technocratic society" demands a mobile population of workers. The American way of life is an open system, oriented to change and ambiguity. Active control by the individual is required for any predictability in living, for the environment lacks the closed stability seen in less developed countries. The effects of social change which bear most directly on children are those influencing the school and family (Parsons 1963).

Aguilera and Messick (1974) point out that differences between rural and urban life have significant ramifications for individual security and stability. Urban life is highly mobile and lacks the extended kinship ties found

in rural areas. There is also a continual turnover of friends, neighbors, and business acquaintances. Interpersonal relations tend to be superficial. It is thus difficult to develop in depth and trusting relationships outside one's immediate family in such rapidly changing areas (Aguilera and Messick 1974).

Fried (1964) identified mobility as a social change involving multiple variables in terms of its impact for human adjustment. He explained that the implications of social change for mental health or mental illness must be considered in terms of the actual meaning and functional significance of the change, according to the social circumstances and the individual. For instance, is the individual willing and able to meet the expectations of the larger society, such as role changes. The successful adaptation to the shifting demands and opportunities of the environment could be considered as a characteristic of mentally healthy individuals.

Caplan (1964) expressed this view, for he identified the most important aspect of mental health as the state of the ego, including its maturity and structure. Accurate assessment of the ego, according to Caplan, must include an exploration of the individual's capacity to withstand

stress, his ability to identify and solve problems and the variety of effective coping mechanisms he possesses.

Social changes are revealed in the ordinary experiences of day-to-day life. These are not unusual events in terms of their occurrence in the general population, but they are often extraordinary to the individual involved. Events, such as marriage, personal illness, going to jail, fighting with the boss, moving, changing jobs, and even taking a vacation are situations of change to which the individual must adapt.

In 1967, Holmes and Rahe developed the Social Readjustment Rating Scale. The scale consists of forty-three life events which were ranked and assigned a value reflecting the amount of social readjustment each necessitates. Social readjustment was defined as the intensity and length of time required to accommodate to a life event, regardless of the desirability of the event. The events pertain to major areas in the social structure of the American way of life, such as marriage, occupation, family constellation, economics, residence, education, recreation, and health.

The first five life events with their assigned values are: death of spouse--100, divorce--73, marital separation--65, jail term--63, and death of a close family

member--62. Change of residence is ranked number thirty-two and has a twenty point value. Holmes and Rahe (1967) emphasize that many of the included life events are not considered undesirable or negative, yet they are still stressful to an individual, as adaptive behavior is required. By adding the values of the appropriate life events for an individual, one can quickly determine the magnitude of stress he has experienced.

Considerable research has been done exploring the relationship between the amount and types of life events and the occurrence of psychiatric disorder. Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend (1974) stated that recent life events research reveals fascinating, but sometimes controversial findings. Strong associations have been reported between life events and various types of psychological distress, rather than outright disorders. However, other research has suggested that specific types of mental illness such as depression, acute episodes of schizophrenia, suicide attempts, and neurosis may follow life events (Dohrenwend 1975).

Jacobs, Prussoff, and Paykel (1974) compared the incidence of life events, before the onset of symptoms, in a group of fifty first admission schizophrenics and fifty matched depressive patients. They found that the

depressives had experienced more events than had the schizophrenics. Depressed patients also reported more undesirable events and exits from the social field. Moving was ranked seventh in frequency of occurrence among the life events experienced by both groups of patients. The authors suggest it is involved to some extent in the genesis of both schizophrenia and reactive depression. Jacobs, Prussoff, and Paykel (1974) describe a move as indicating a major change in life pattern, but usually without strong negative or positive connotations.

Leff, Roatch, and Bunney (1970) and Paykel et al. (1960) studied the incidence of life events prior to the development of symptoms of clinical depression. Both utilized control groups and discovered a general excess of life events in the patients developing depression. Leff and associates found an average of four life stresses prior to breakdown and noted a clustering of events occurring in the last month. Moving was ranked ninth in frequency of occurrence among life events in the Paykel study and third in the research headed by Leff. Both papers raised the issue as to whether many so-called endogenous depressions are not in fact depressions resulting from stressful life experiences, often involving losses.

Coddington (1972a) followed the lead of Holmes and Rahe (1967) and studied the significance of events occurring in the lives of normal children, and then established relative values and rank orders of the different events. He utilized a sample of 243 teachers, pediatricians, and child mental health workers and asked them to rate a series of life events as to the relative degree of necessary adjustment for children in four different age groups, from preschool through senior high school. Thirty-six events were included in the elementary school-age group questionnaire. Moving to a new school district was ranked nineteenth and assigned a value of forty-seven life change units. This can be compared to death of a parent, ranked number one, with ninety-one life change units and beginning another school year, ranked number thirty-three, with a magnitude of twenty-seven.

In a follow-up study, Coddington (1972b) sought to determine how much psychological readjustment an average child could be expected to undergo in a year. He found that the amount of readjustment required of a child increases progressively with age. A significant increase occurs with the starting of school, at age six or seven. Coddington (1972b) also stated that a number of insignificant events

occurring within a period of time can add up to a greater stress than a single, very traumatic event.

The use of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale as a means of determining the etiology of various mental disorders has come under recent criticism. The scale was designed to give a quick, simple measure of the environmental factors and stress impinging upon an individual (Holmes and Rahe 1967). Gersten et al. (1974) found a relationship between the occurrence of undesirable life events experienced by children and the incidence of disturbed behavior. This is in contrast to Holmes and Rahe (1967) and Coddington (1971b) who contend that it is change per se which results in psychological distress. Gersten et al. (1974) classified a family move as ambiguous in terms of being desirable or undesirable in quality.

Dohrenwend (1975) pointed out that events on the Holmes and Rahe list are very often symptoms or consequences of illness and cannot be considered causal factors. He states that psychiatric disorders are of long duration and insidious onset and implications drawn from readjustment scores are very limited. Both Dohrenwend (1975) and Gersten et al. (1974) call for more exact research demonstrating which social-psychological factors are important in the etiology of various mental disturbances.

Coping With Change

How do individuals and families cope with the multiple changes and accompanying stresses which occur throughout life? Coping may be defined as including defense mechanisms, as well as active problem-solving methods (Murphy and Moriarty 1976). An individual may be only minimally cognizant or unaware that he responds to minor stresses. In order to reduce tensions, behavioral responses such as regression, aggression, withdrawal and repression are consciously or unconsciously activated. When faced with an unusual problem, an individual activates coping mechanisms or specific behaviors which he has found effective in resolving difficult situations in the past. For example, he may discuss his concern with others or withdraw temporarily in order to reassess the situation (Aguilera and Messick 1974). Efficient coping techniques reduce tension and restore efficient functioning. Failure to cope adequately results in increased anxiety and a probable crisis situation.

Fried (1964) states that "the acceptance of change requires a process of undoing, of giving up the past, of relinquishing previous modes of adaptation" (p. 5). One must be willing and able to tolerate such loss; he must adjust his behavior and personality according to the demands

of the environment. Previous forms of adaptation are challenged and successful coping may lead to increased effectiveness and satisfaction. Fried (1965) emphasizes that a well-integrated, stable society reflects a "fit" between individual patterns of adaptation and the expectations and opportunities of the environment. Pathology results from a noncomplementary relationship between the individual and his social environment.

Individuals vary in their abilities to cope with change and crises; however, the availability of interpersonal resources to assist in adaptation is of particular significance (Fried 1964). Changes which involve important losses or disruptions in interpersonal relationships, and which are not quickly compensated for, are conducive to emotional disorders, according to Fried. One factor promoting recovery from stress of any kind is the tendency of the human organism to reestablish equilibrium (Von Bertalanffy 1966). An individual will tend to seek assistance for his physical and emotional concerns. According to Scott (1977), man does not seek a static existence, rather he is constantly seeking new and better ways.

What factors facilitate a family's adaptation to change and avoidance of crisis situations? Hall and Weaver (1974) identified six processes seen in successfully coping

families. First, these families exhibit cognitive mastery. They seek to define the precise reality of the changed situation. Similarly, Hirshowitz (1975) states that healthy coping is characterized by "intelligent worry work." Secondly, the family is able to obtain compliance from the environment. They are able to approach outside sources for assistance and support. Third, the family can exercise control over its members who are highly committed to the group and its collective goals. Functional coalition is also evident in families which adapt effectively. Coalition refers to how the members align themselves within the family system. The parents work together, while caring for the needs of the children. Fifth, healthy patterns of communication are evident. Communications are congruent, without double messages or secrets. Hirshowitz similarly notes that family members share their pain and distress and are able to ask one another for assistance. Finally, families that cope well, choose to grow from their experiences. A decision to meet demands for change and to work together is made (Hall and Weaver 1974).

In 1976, Murphy and Moriarty published the results of their longitudinal study which focused on how infants, children, and adolescents confront the stresses associated with growing up in relatively stable families. Thirty

children and their families, in Topeka, Kansas, were followed over an eighteen-year period. The children were observed and interviewed with their families at various intervals. Some of the stresses which the sample children faced were those of experiencing a tornado, fire, death of a sibling, separation and/or divorce of parents, serious physical diseases, accidents, and moving. The authors noted that the families apparently valued roots and settled living, for only five moved away from Kansas during the study.

No child is completely invulnerable to the effects of stress, but ways of coping with disequilibrium vary greatly. Murphy and Moriarty (1976) found difficulties in coping related not only to limited resources, but to vulnerability to specific kinds or quantities of stress. The children were observed to have a "checkerboard pattern" of strengths and weaknesses. The areas of particular vulnerability are often related to previous unresolved conflicts. An illustration was given of a child with a background of separation anxiety and previous loss, who became intensely upset when her family moved.

Change events are more likely to produce disturbance when the stress occurs at a time of developmental shift, such as progressing from preschool to school or childhood to

adolescence (Murphy and Moriarty 1976). Cumulative stresses may also cause interference with psychic development. A study example was a child who made repeated moves during childhood. Murphy and Moriarty (1976) state that continual focusing on the external environment, as required in adapting to new homes, can interfere with important time for internalization, sinking in roots, and developing a stable life style.

Murphy and Moriarty (1976) identified characteristics of children with increased resilience to change and stress. Such children at times experienced transitory periods of withdrawal, regression or fantasizing, when they took time out and refused to accept further demands. This seemingly permitted them to reintegrate, stabilize, and then mobilize for progress. The ability to clarify and understand what stressful events were, and meant in reality, was seen as a core process in the resilient children. The children also had gained a familiarity with change. Murphy and Moriarty (1976) noted that a serene, constantly gratified infancy and childhood does not stimulate coping resources. The parents of the good copers neither indulged their children nor overprotected them. The adults and parents in these children's lives were helpful and supportive during times of stress. The process of identifying

with resilient models, such as parents who demonstrated efficient coping, was seen as an important aid to the child. The overall characteristic of being able to mobilize energy under conditions of challenge and stress, and flexibility or a willingness to accept alternatives was seen as highly significant in distinguishing strong from weak children (Murphy and Moriarity 1976).

Behavior and Psychological Development During Middle Childhood

Normal Development

The years from six to twelve are a time of relatively harmonious growth in which the child attains increased physical and psychological stability. However, Ilg and Ames (1955) point out that there is also an apparent rhythm of growth. There is a tendency for periods in which the child seems to be in equilibrium and is happy and secure, to alternate with intervals of disequilibrium. Then he is absorbing multiple changes and is often irritable and impatient with others, due to his own strong demands (Ilg and Ames 1955). An example of this is the child at six, who is highly emotional, brash, and aggressive, and ready to blame mother for anything and everything. This is in contrast to the loving, apparently stable and compliant five-year-old.

The school-age child is increasingly active in community activities, including those of the neighborhood, school, church, and local youth organizations. Beginning at about age nine, "secret clubs" and group adventures with age-mates become increasingly important (Joint Commission 1969). The child must learn how to be a member of a social group and understand and respect the thoughts of others without surrendering his own identity and beliefs. Wayne (1968) states, "The school child demands approval, acceptance, companionship, and models for learning from his peers. He exchanges intimacies and validates his personal worth with the chum" (p. 774).

Helms and Turner (1976) observe that peer groups are highly selective and accept newcomers primarily on the basis of similar age, sex, and race. Any deviation from the usual in appearance or behavior may result in a child being ridiculed and teased by peers (Bakwin and Bakwin 1974). Peer popularity appears related to the ability to participate in many different activities, especially those involving motor skills, and the degree of conformity to sex typing. Popular children exhibit characteristics viewed as desirable for his or her sex (Helms and Turner 1976).

Erikson (1963) has referred to this period of child development as "the age of mastery." Children have a drive

to learn to perfect physical, social, and intellectual skills. Barring serious physical or emotional problems, the child grows steadily in his ability to perform increasingly complex tasks. He exhibits a "sense of industry" and seeks recognition by planning and constructing, particularly with other children. A danger lies in the child developing a sense of inadequacy and inferiority, due to lack of skills and abilities (Erikson 1963). He still needs considerable help from parents and other adults, comfort for fears, and encouragement to try again when he fails (Joint Commission 1969).

The child's school experience plays an important role in respect to his physical, social, and intellectual growth. The school environment, as well as the home, should provide an atmosphere which values him as an individual, provides for his needs, and offers him an opportunity for optimal development (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan 1974). The child's academic development is highly dependent on the parents' attitudes toward the school and learning and the kinds of intellectual stimulation provided in the home. Bakwin and Bakwin (1972) state that changing schools often disrupts a child's educational progress and is a particular hardship for shy and retiring children who have difficulty making friends.

The middle years of childhood were called the latency period by Freud; sexual concerns and drives are supposedly overridden by other interests (Hall and Lindsey 1970). However, there is a strong tendency to establish masculine or feminine identity and interest in the opposite sex is revealed through teasing and taunting behavior (Joint Commission 1969). There are some behavioral and developmental differences between boys and girls. Girls more rapidly develop verbal skill, do better in elementary school, and tend to be more passive and dependent. Boys tend to be more physically active and aggressive, have more school difficulties, experience more physical illness, and more frequently receive treatment for emotional problems (Joint Commission 1969).

Influence of Parents

Parents exert a tremendously important influence on the growth and development of their children. The complex role of parents can be comprehended in terms of general systems theory, previously discussed in this chapter. Parental actions and interactions with the child influence him as an individual as well as affecting the family system as a whole (Joint Commission 1969). Parental influence can also be understood through a discussion of the process of identification and modeling behavior.

Identification is a process which leads the child to spontaneously adapt some of the patterns of behavior, personal attributes, values, and attitudes of a model, such as a parent (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan 1974). Characteristics acquired through identification are generally stable and enduring, though they are acquired without training or direct rewards for the imitation. Bandura (1967) describes this phenomenon as the modeling process and points out that parental modeling behavior often counteracts the effects of direct training. Bandura's research clearly revealed how exposure to particular models can result in changed behaviors and attitudes in children. For instance, children who observed rewarded aggression, exhibited more aggressive behavior themselves, while the provision of a model of constructive coping behavior also resulted in children adopting such an approach to solving problems (Bandura 1967).

Children have extensive exposure to many models, including parents, siblings, relatives, and friends during the course of growing up. The child identifies in particular with his parents, due not only to more contact with them, but also because of the belief that if he were similar to the parents, then he would also achieve the desirable power, skills, and competencies he perceives them to possess (Kagan 1971). Siblings, even those of the same sex, will

selectively imitate different elements from their parents' attitudes and behavior. The children then exhibit different personality characteristics (Bandura 1967).

Emotional and Behavior Problems

All children encounter some psychological problems during middle childhood. Most often they are transient and limited in severity if a supportive home and social environment exist (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan 1974). The Joint Commission (1969) estimated that approximately ten million of the children and youth in the United States have serious emotional disabilities. Within this group, the Joint Commission identified approximately 80 percent of the children as having conflicts arising from normal developmental tasks or traumatic life experiences and the remaining 20 percent exhibit neurotic or psychotic behavior.

Common behaviors which are indicative of emotional maladjustment include: sleepwalking, nightmares and other sleep disturbances, school phobia, chronic nail-biting, stealing, feelings of inferiority, habitual lying, excessive worry and anxiety, accident proneness, enuresis, running away, destructive behavior toward self or others, excessive masturbation, cruelty to animals, poor interpersonal relationships, frequent somatic complaints, lack of clarity as to what is real or imaginary, excessive dependency, general

mood of depression, and pronounced effeminate behavior in boys or masculine behavior in girls (Joint Commission 1969; Hurlock 1976; Mussen, Conger, and Kagan 1974; Pothier 1976). Some of these behavior symptoms occur commonly in normal children. The important issue is to consider the severity and frequency of occurrence of the symptoms.

Some behavior problems during middle childhood are predictive of later adult difficulties. This is particularly true for aggressive and antisocial behavior, which is generally indicative of some type of maladjustment in the adult. Children with shy, withdrawn behavior do not necessarily have emotional problems in later life (Joint Commission 1969). Whether or not certain behaviors are in fact problematic or "abnormal" is dependent on several factors, such as the sex and social class of the child. Aggressive behavior is common among boys, particularly in lower-class neighborhoods (Hurlock 1976).

Pinkerton (1976) states that difficult behavior in children for which there is no apparent cause--so-called primary conduct disorder--usually signifies that something is wrong within the family or in the child's inner adjustment. He urges careful assessment and exploration of relevant life circumstances. Kolb (1973) similarly notes that

maladjustment in children frequently arises from the combined action of emotional and situational factors.

It used to be thought that children did not develop significant depressions for the symptoms of depression are not as clearly defined in children as in adults (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan 1974). Some children do in fact exhibit a depressed mood, apathy, and even suicidal preoccupation. More often, depressed feelings are acted out and a condition of masked depression exists, making accurate diagnosis difficult (Pinkerton 1976). Glaser (1967) notes that in children and adolescents, behavioral problems and delinquent behavior, such as temper tantrums, truancy, disobedience, and running away from home may indicate feelings of depression. Bad conduct is motivated by needs to compensate for a sense of loss. Psychophysiologic reactions such as headaches and abdominal pains, and learning difficulties in school-age children may also mask underlying depression (Glaser 1967).

Whether a child exhibits mental health or emotional problems is dependent upon the many societies and systems which make up his life. The Joint Commission (1969) states:

> A child's mental health depends on the functioning of his own body, the state of his physical health, the health and well-being of his family, and the kind of home, neighborhood, and community in which he lives. . . . A child's mental health is formed throughout his development and is influenced and determined by all that goes into his existence. His mind and body are not separate, but function together

> and in interaction with his outer environment. He is a complex system within a series of systems (p. 139).

There is thus no single cause of a child's mental health or mental illness. Determining the cause of an emotional disorder and treating it is a complex process; likewise, the promotion of mental health in children requires attention to the child as an individual, and to the social systems in which he lives (Joint Commission 1969).

Mobility Literature Related to Adults and the Family

General Findings

There is considerable literature exploring the relationship between mobility and mental disturbance; however, it is apparent that much of what has been written is but expression of opinion and lacks the support of sound scientific research methodology. Research which has been conducted has resulted in contradictory findings. Morrison (1965) suggested that most of the studies fail to consider the intermediate variables linking mobility and mental illness. He presented an analytic framework which offered a more comprehensive way of looking at how different combinations of variables can lead to different results. The ten intermediate variables designated as contributing to the relative state of mental health/illness in the mobile

individual are: (1) personality of the subject prior to moving, (2) previous life experiences, (3) cultural background, (4) reason for leaving the old environment, (5) reason for moving to new location, (6) stress of the actual move, (7) attitude of new environment to the migrant, (8) homogeneity of new environment to previous home, (9) degree of fulfillment of expectations, and (10) personality of the individual interacting with the new environment. Morrison explains that the suggestion that mobility and mental disorder are correlated due to either persons prone to mental illness migrating, or the stress of mobility resulting in increased disorders is too simplistic. He states that a consideration of the ten variables explains how mobility can affect different groups in different ways. The existing literature is reviewed with an awareness of the analytic framework developed by Morrison (1965).

Packard (1972) wrote exhaustively on the subject of mobility and the impact of transiency on American life. He believes that Americans are adjusting to a rootless style of life, but with negative consequences. Packard (1972) concluded:

> Rootlessness seems clearly to be associated with a decline in companionship, a decline in satisfying group activities, a decline in mutual trust, and a decline in psychological security. It encourages a shallowness in personal relationships and a relative indifference to community problems. It produces a

> loss in one's sense of personal well-being along with an increase in both personal and social malaise. And it contributes to a personal sense of powerlessness and insignificance. Whether for better or worse--and I think worse--it encourages hedonism as a life style (p. 270).

Packard (1972) emphasized man's need for community, group membership, and continuity. He expressed particular concern that the most transient people are from the ranks of respected citizens with college educations and substantial incomes who should be assuming community responsibilities and leadership, but do not, due to continual change of residence and lack of local involvement.

Packard (1972) does devote a chapter to the positive aspects of high mobility. Possible advantages of frequent moving to the individual include: the broadening effect and increase adaptability to life, chances to make new friends, opportunities to escape stagnating or frustrating situations, more opportunities to improve economic status, increased challenges and promotion of personal growth, and the contention that mobility promotes closer family ties and more equalitarian marriages. Advantages to the economy include the fact that corporations can operate more efficiently if personnel can be readily interchanged, according to where specific skills are needed or manpower shortages exist. Furthermore, high-mobile families have created new job opportunities for others, e.g., within the moving van

and real estate businesses; and they also spend considerable money while settling into their new neighborhoods.

Packard (1972) also notes that the disadvantages of high mobility may have been overstated. He comments that neighborhood group cohesion can be maintained if there is a special process for quickly inducting and integrating newcomers. Contact with friends and relatives can be maintained through modern means of communication.

Many of the writings refer directly or convertly to the element of loneliness and feelings of alienation associated with settling into a new environment. Ruina (1970) commented that there is a period of limbo, of feeling emotionally unsettled, which occurs during and following a move. She stated that it takes individuals six months to two years to feel "at home" and a part of the new community. Dubos (1968) emphasized the importance of human interrelationships and stated that

> . . . membership in a group sustains a man and enables him to maintain equilibrium under the ordinary shocks of life and helps him to bring up children who will in turn be happy and resilient (p. 205).

McKain (1973) in turn noted that a lack of effective contacts between people creates feelings of alienation and a condition of anomie--a psychological state characterized by a absence of social norms and values.

Packard (1972) said that the sense of strangeness occasioned by moving is often alleviated only by the passage of time. He reported that the art of neighborliness is fast disappearing in America and families are more concerned with good neighborhoods, than with good neighbors. It is usually entirely up to the newcomer to integrate himself into a strange community (Packard 1972).

Fried (1969) reported the results of a major study involving 400 working-class couples who were required to move from the West End of Boston due to an urban renewal project. Interviews were conducted prior to relocation and approximately two years after moving. Fried found 46 percent of the women and 38 percent of the men reported a long period of sadness and grief after relocating from their old slum neighborhood. Fried (1969) also stated in referring to executives and their families, that "human beings have a great need for intimate and regular social experiences" (p. 140). Fried (1969) noted that the more intense an individual's commitment to the former neighborhood, the more severe was the grief reaction upon relocation. Two other factors of significance were an individual's predisposition to depression and the degree to which postrelocation circumstances were satisfying. The most severe depressions were seen in persons with depressive orientations and a

strong attachment to the original neighborhood. Those who adapted most completely to the change were those who expressed positive feelings towards their new homes and who had had minimal involvement in the West End.

Kantor (1965) raised the question as to whether persons experiencing a grief reaction after a move may not have been depressed before relocation. The change of residence may serve as a focal point for negative affect and provides an excuse for expression of feelings.

Gans (1972) criticized Packard's research methods and seriously questioned his conclusion that high mobility has deleterious effects for American society. Gans believes that people are more adaptable than Packard (1972) recognizes, and that neighborliness based on shared interests rather than long-term residence does exist in mobile communities.

Schorr (1956) reported a review of casework service to highly mobile families. He noted that mobility was identified as directly contributing to family maladjustment only if a crisis or special need developed which could not be met due to the absence of support from family and other relatives. Schorr also noted that resilient, adaptive families experienced a sense of group unity with other

transients and had learned to "settle in" quickly in each new community.

Both Ruina (1970) and Kantor (1965) point out that there is probably an optimum level of mobility for each individual and it is not feasible to speak of "normal" mobility. One may be "over-mobile" or "under-mobile." A lack of mobility can produce stress and stunt an individual's growth process through social stagnation (Ruina 1970).

Executive Mobility

Eugene Jennings (1971) explained that industrial managers and executives represent one of the most mobile segments of the population. One out of four managers and one out of five executives makes a geographical move each year. Furthermore, for each move requiring a residential change the mobile executive makes three moves within the structural hierarchy of the corporate network. "For the mobile executive, the relevant question is not whether he will move, but when and where he will move next" (Jennings 1971, p. 10). Jennings notes that mobility fatigue occurs not uncommonly among these men. It results when the executive is moved too fast and cannot absorb all the changes in his work, family, and community roles. The executive is disorganized, tense, exhibits poor judgement, and expresses

disapproval for changes of any kind. He needs a reprieve from further immediate changes.

Tiger (1974) wrote that there are heavy costs involved in moving the executive and his family repeatedly. Tiger commented that though the executive is rich in material resources, his participation in family and community life is limited and the commodity of intimate friendship with others may not be available to him. Wives and children are deprived of the fundamental requirement of social continuity and personal stability due to perpetual mobility.

An editorial in Newsweek (1966), explored the topic of executive geographical mobility. Executives and their families were described as corporate gypsies, who had developed efficient procedures for departing one town and integrating into another. The article stated that families were active in community organizations, but failed to develop strong, close friendships with others.

Olive et al. (1976) conducted a study, involving sixty executive families, which sought to determine how families really feel about intercity transfers and what problems they encountered with moving. A series of family workshops were held in which (1) executives, wives, and children discussed their experiences and feelings about

moving in general, (2) data were collected regarding feelings toward moving through questionnaires and an attitude scale, (3) techniques and strategies to cope with the stress associated with moving were shared by families and further suggestions were made by the authors, and (4) the families made recommendations anonymously to the corporation. The study revealed that executives viewed moving as more challenging and related to success than did their wives and children. Children evaluated moving in a negative direction more often than did either of their parents. Most of the study participants, but not all, thought that if the parents felt positively toward moving, then the children would have a favorable attitude and experience successful adjustment in the new home.

Olive et al. (1976) also noted that the executives, wives, and children all saw advantages to moving, such as opportunities to expand horizons and meet new people. Aids to ease the stress of moving included advance warning as to when a move would occur, information and contacts within the new community, and open communication and problem-solving skills within the family.

Willmuth, Weaver, and Donlan (1975) investigated the utilization of medical services by both professional and nonprofessional services by transferred employees. The

use of the medical facility was assumed to indicate the degree of illness or distress being experienced by employees. A transfer group and a control group, each numbering 148 employees, were observed as to the number of visits to a plant medical facility for a twelve-month period. The findings revealed that the nonprofessional employees who had experienced recent transfers utilized the facility most. The transferred professionals requested services least frequently, even less than the control employees. Willmuth, Weaver, and Donlan (1975) concluded that auxiliary personnel are likely to experience significantly more stress after relocation than do executives.

Sussman and Cogswell (1971) pointed out that whether the influence of relocation on the family is considered depends on the job market for the worker. If there is a great demand for an individual's services, then he can afford to weigh the impact of a move on his family; if there are few options or practically no jobs, then survival has priority and one goes where the work is, regardless of the ramifications for the family.

Response of Women to Mobility

Residential mobility experiences appear to have a marked effect upon the mental health of women. Gordon and Gordon (1960) evaluated data on the number of inpatients

and outpatients receiving treatment for emotional disorders and the age, sex, and marital status of the subjects from five psychiatric hospitals over a two-year period. The hospitals were located in four different communities, representing populations of varying mobility. They found a significantly higher incidence and rising rate of emotional disorders in the high mobile, rapidly growing community. Within that community, the incidence of emotional disorders was highest among young women, especially those experiencing pregnancy. The lowest rate of disturbance was found in the stable rural area. It was also observed that

> . . . suburban mobility, although related to emotional difficulties, psychosomatic disorders, divorce, suicide, and delinquency, apparently has little relation to crime (Gordon and Gordon 1960, p. 95).

The crime rate in the rapidly growing suburban area was less than the national average. The authors suggest that in mobile, rapidly changing areas, family life suffers and more burden is placed upon housewives.

Seidenberg (1973; 1975) and Weissman and Paykel (1972) noted a relationship between depressive symptoms and recent moves in women. Seidenberg (1975) emphasized that the disruption of moving can have deleterious effects on women, even if tangible financial or social improvement accompanies the change of community. Moving involves

particular hardships for women; besides the monumental physical tasks involved, the wife-mother loses her friends and neighbors and her status within the community. According to Seidenberg, the husband's credentials are easily transferred within his field of employment, but the woman's identity, apart from being a wife and mother, is not automatically appreciated in the new locale. She must start all over again in order to gain recognized status. The woman is expected to follow her husband wherever he goes, failure to do so can result in the legal claim that she has deserted him and/or the family (Seidenberg 1973).

Weissman and Paykel (1972) point out that in some cases the move is the "last straw" in a series of stressful experiences. Depression may result when the woman discovers that moving did not solve interpersonal problems, but only created additional ones. Postmoving depressions were noted in all social classes and occurred whether the change of residence was voluntary or involuntary. Weissman and Paykel note that moves commonly generate a great deal of stress and depression also probably occurs in men. However, social pressures inhibit expression of negative feelings; any difficulties in coping are often regarded as personal inadequacies and failures.

Weissman and Paykel (1972) also explain that educated women who wish to work, even on a part-time basis, often are disappointed and frustrated, for transfers of husbands and consequent family moves disrupt career plans. A fragmented work history decreases the likelihood of achieving an interesting position. Seidenberg, Weissman, and Paykel are practicing clinicians in psychiatry and base their writings on personal observations and case examples.

McKain (1973) assessed the relationship between feelings of alienation and the incidence of family problems associated with moving. He utilized questionnaire and interview techniques for a random sample of eighty wife-mothers of Army families. McKain found a high correlation between feelings of alienation and lack of identification with the military community in the mother, and the incidence of family adjustment problems. This relationship held whether or not the family had experienced a recent move.

Butler, McAllister, and Kaiser (1973) directed a national longitudinal survey evaluating how men and women react to residential mobility. They interviewed nearly 1500 families in forty-three metropolitan areas in 1966 and again in 1969. The sample included both families who

had changed residence and those who had not. In one portion of the study, they evaluated the socializing activity of 500 women and found that women who moved, experienced increased social interaction before and after making the change of residence.

In the same major study, the authors interviewed over 1400 couples and found that there was no significant difference between those couples who had moved and not moved, as related to reporting feelings of alienation, unhappiness, suspected mental disturbance or poor physical health. However, it was found that among mobile men and women, females were more likely to report symptoms of mental disorder (McAllister, Butler, and Kaiser 1973).

Jones (1973) utilized a questionnaire for 256 women in order to explore their responses to the process of moving with their families. The educational, income, and occupational status of the families was high as was the incidence of previous moves. Blue collar occupations were conspicuously absent in the target population. The general findings for the women included the following: (1) they saw no decrease in social activities with increases in the number of times moved and felt moving did not impede the formation of intimate, close friendships, (2) they felt children are generally able to adjust to moving and only 12 percent

reported that their children had difficulties due to changing schools, (3) they felt moving resulted in personal growth for them and their families, and (4) feelings of both exhiliration and depression were experienced during the two weeks before and after the move. Crying behavior and feelings of unhappiness and loneliness were more prevalent among young and middle-aged women. The author concluded that women, similar to those in the study, are able to make positive adjustments to family moves in most cases (Jones 1973).

Mobility Literature Specific to Children

A review of the literature provides no clear-cut answer to the difficult question as to whether mobility contributes to emotional disturbance in children. Many authors, including both popular and scientific writers, have counseled parents that moving can have detrimental results (Tietze, Lemkau, and Cooper 1943; Stubblefield 1955, Gordon and Gordon 185; Switzer et al. 1961; Levine 1966; Bettelheim 1971; Seidenberg 1972; Packard 1972). However, the literature needs to be carefully examined, for much of the evidence proposing negative effects on children from family moves is based on uncontrolled clinical observations or on studies with severe limitations as to generalization to the overall population. Studies implementing controlled research designs have revealed contradictory findings.

Packard (1972) commented that children who move frequently may experience a severe threat to their security and suffer social impairment. Seidenberg (1973) identified the ages between three and five and fourteen and sixteen as the most hazardous years in terms of moving. Preschool children have difficulty coping with the physical changes of moving and experience disorientation in their new homes. Adolescents fear losing friends and membership in a particular group and do not want to risk a loss in popularity. Seidenberg (1973) states that the pressures of moving added to the doubts and uncertainties already felt by the teenager may exhaust his adaptive capacities. He suggests that families who must move consider permitting the teen to remain with another family in the old town in order to finish school with his friends.

Stubblefield (1955) noted the possible dangers of disrupting peer relationships among school-age children. He reported the emergence of aggressive behavior in children who had been separated from playmates through a family move and who later revealed feelings of grief and rage because of the change of residence. Stubblefield pointed out three other situations which seemed to be related to disturbances in youngsters after a move. When children are ignored or placed out of the home while the parents "settle

in" the house, when children are actively rejected by the peer group after moving into a new area, or when the child has no previous preparation or warning for making a move, adjustment problems may well arise.

Levine (1966) stated that moves "may be associated with the precipitation or the exacerbation of emotional disturbances" (p. 61). He also commented that transient children of professional parents may gain from mobility, while children from lower social classes have more adjustment problems. Levine (1966) called for the school to take a more active role in meeting the particular needs of mobile children. He suggested offering clinical service in the school and developing programs to induct and orient the new child.

Bettelheim (1971) viewed frequent family moves as extremely hazardous to a child and specifically advised at least four or five years between any moves made during childhood. He noted that moving increases separation anxiety, man's basic anxiety, according to psychoanalysts, and thus can seriously interfere with emotional well-being.

One of the earliest, but most frequently cited studies exploring the relationship between mobility and mental disorder was done by Tietze, Lemkau, and Cooper (1942). They studied the prevalence of mental disturbances

in 343 children in Baltimore and found a negative correlation between the length of residence in a house and the incidence of behavior problems. Rates were highest for children from families with the shortest length of residence in the same house and lowest for children with the longest residence. The length of residence within the city was not significantly related to the prevalence of disturbance.

Gordon and Gordon (1958) studied the incidence of mental disturbances in middle-class children in treatment. The study was a predecessor to the previously reported research by Gordon and Gordon (1960). The children lived in five communities exhibiting varying levels of mobility. They found a significantly higher rate of disturbance among children from the most rapidly growing area. Delinquency was high among boys and Negro girls. The authors hypothesized that for the boys, this was due to the lessened availability of the father who had occupational demands. Similarly, Negro girls exhibited more delinquent behavior because more Negro mothers work and are thus less available to their daughters as companions and models.

Switzer et al. (1961) wrote:

> Family moves can significantly distort existing family adjustments. Therefore, the potential ill effects on children, inherent in every family move, can result in more than transient emotional difficulties (p. 529).

The authors identified the core problem of the mobile child as his feelings of loss, helplessness, and fear of the unknown. Switzer et al. (1961) stated that mobile parents should be particularly aware of the relative degree of emotional maturity and stability of their child and be alert for behaviors which signal mounting anxiety.

Tooley (1970) studied the role of geographic mobility as related to adjustment problems in children and their families. She reported her observations of families who appeared to have difficulties related to mobility and concluded that

> . . . moving seems to improve family adjustment or individual adjustment almost as often as it disturbs it, a fact which leaves us reluctant to define moving as a stress (Tooley 1970, p. 378).

Tooley did identify certain emotional disturbances after a family move. Children who have premove emotional or neurotic difficulties; children from families with disabling conflicts between members, usually the parents; and children at particular developmental stage may be overwhelmed by the stress accompanying a move. Tooley observed that young adolescents attempting to separate from their parents; and six-year-olds who were also coping with separation, but from home to school, were most vulnerable. It was also noted that the move is often seen as a pivotal point from which parents identify behavior changes in a child. The behavior

may always have existed, but the disruption of the move resulted in the symptoms becoming more apparent (Tooley 1970).

Kantor (1965) conducted a longitudinal study involving interviewing more than 400 families before and after a short distance move. She found that although families who changed residence had less well-adjusted children than nonmoving families, there was no increase or decrease in the severity of behavior after the move. Kantor suggested that families with "problem children" may voluntarily move in an effort to alleviate the disturbance. Children who were initially well adjusted remained so postmove. Those with behavior problems continued to have problems. Kantor did find a positive relationship between occupationally mobile fathers, meaning those fathers who were promoted or took on additional work, and children with increased symptomatology. It was hypothesized that modifications in the father's work role stimulated changes in interpersonal relationships at home and consequent behavior change in the child. Kantor (1965) concluded from the study that residential change itself is not sufficient to increase or decrease a child's disturbance level and factors other than change of residence are related to changes in adjustment.

In 1960, a study by Gabower included an inquiry into the relationship between children's behavior, family moving, and the degree of paternal separation experienced by the child. The sample consisted of navy families. An experimental group, consisting of fifteen boys and girls, who had received professional assistance for emotional disturbance, and a matched control group of nonproblematic children were evaluated. Gabower (1960) found no significant difference between the groups as related to the number of family moves. However, she did find that few parents in the experimental group made any specific efforts to prepare the child for moving or to assist him in finding new friends after moving. All the parents in the control group consciously prepared their children for moves and actively sought to reestablish relationships with other children in the new towns. Gabower also found that the children with behavior problems had had more frequent and longer separation from their father. This was particularly true for boys.

Bower (1967) studied behavior in military families who had moved overseas. He suggested that behavior and learning problems of school children were a reflection of the mother's difficulty in adjusting to a changed life style. Bower explained that when the parents and school are

able to provide reliable support, then the child can cope with a major move.

Pedersen and Sullivan (1964) also explored the military families' response to moving. An experimental group of twenty-seven male children of army officers, with diagnosed emotional and behavior problems, was compared with a comparable control group. The researchers found that the two groups could not be distinguished with respect to the incidence of mobility, but were significantly different as related to maternal attitudes toward moving and degree of parental identification with the military. No difference was noted among the fathers as to acceptance of mobility. In the normal group, mothers were accepting of mobility and parents revealed strong identification with the military. Both parents of children in the disturbed group indicated low identification with the military.

Similar research was conducted by Shaw in 1975. Families who had recently moved to Germany were chosen for the sample. A control group of normal children was matched to an experimental group of fifty-seven children seen in a child guidance clinic. The parents of all the children filled out questionnaires regarding their feelings and responses toward mobility and the army way of life. Shaw (1975) found no difference between the groups as related

to parental attitudes toward moving, identification with the military community or frequency of moves. Parents in the control group more often described their children as having transient adjustment problems after the move to Germany; however, they also perceived their children's adjustment to frequent moves as generally positive. Parents in the patient group viewed the child's overall adaption to moving as negative.

Burchinal (1963) focused on the effects of moving on civilian adolescents and examined potential differences associated with moving to a city from a farm or another city. His findings were that the farm and city youngsters adjusted equally well after the move and the change seemed to have no serious effects on the children. Burchinal suggested that persistent disturbance in a child after a move is more likely related to issues separate from mobility.

Several studies have indicated that change of residence can elicit a favorable response in children. Barrett and Noble (1973) sought to evaluate how parents and children adjusted to a long distance move. The sample included primarily families in which the head of the household was college educated, had an above average income, and was in a professional or managerial occupation. One hundred

fifty-nine (159) families, including 318 children between the ages of three to eighteen, participated in the study.

The parents completed a questionnaire exploring their attitudes toward moving and their perception as to how the move had influenced adjustment in family members. The Louisville Behavior Checklist (LBCL) was also completed for all children. Barrett and Noble (1973) found that 75 percent of the parents reported that their children changed schools without difficulty, 80 percent of the parents reported that their children made friends easily, and 81 percent of the parents felt that the move had had no effect or good effects on the children. The results from the LBCL indicated that the mobile children did not score differently from "normal" children. Finally, the authors noted that parents with a "bad" attitude toward moving also viewed moving as unfavorable for their children, but the LBCL scores did not reveal any negative effects.

Bush (1977) reported some of the findings of an informal survey on moving conducted by Bekins Company and a moving symposium held by Allied Van Lines. At the symposium, professionals in the field of child psychology reported that moving does not seem to affect a child's academic achievement. The Bekins survey revealed that 80 percent of the youngsters thought leaving friends was the worst aspect of

moving. The children identified meeting new friends, traveling, and going to a new school as advantages to moving. Younger children enjoyed moving more. Sixty-eight percent of the six-year-olds saw moving as fun, whereas only 45 percent of the sixteen-year-olds expressed this opinion.

Research has revealed that children's responses to moving are not consistent. This is congruent with the suggestion by Morrison (1965) that differing results in studies attempting to link mobility and mental health or impairment will be found due to the numerous intermediate variables involved. Similarly Shaw (1975) stated:

> How the individual child negotiates the family move is multidetermined by his own sense of unity, his past experience in adapting to discontinuities, his level of development with its intrinsic psychosocial conflicts, as well as the family milieu, with its shared value system and definition of the family move and its own history in adapting to crisis (p. 415).

Switzer et al. (1961) emphasized the personality of the child and the quality and quantity of parent-child interaction as important factors in determining how he will cope with the stresses inherent in a family move.

Numerous authors have offered suggestions as to how parents may facilitate adjustment in their children when the family decides to move. Packard (1972), Stubblefield (1955), and Tooley (1970) all emphasized healthy family relationships as the most significant stabilizing

factor for the child. In addition, the child should know about the move far in advance and should learn about the projected move from the parents. An honest, straightforward approach should be utilized and the actual reasons for the family move clearly stated (Stubblefield 1955). He should be given ample time to work through any resistances and concerns related to the move. Stubblefield (1955) also cautions that the child should not be asked whether he wants to move, as his answer will probably realistically have little influence on the parents' decision.

The child should be told as much as possible about the new house, city, and school he will be attending. If possible, a visit to the new town should be made prior to the actual move (Bush 1977). Youngsters should be involved in the actual planning and packing for the move, as this seems to assist in working through separation (Stubblefield 1955). Ramos (1975) suggests helping the child to say "goodbye" to his friends by giving him a small party prior to moving day.

Parents should recognize where the child has been receiving gratifications external to the family and take steps to promptly replace such positive forces postmove. Past interests, such as sports or scouting, should be continued and new ventures encouraged in the new home (Ramos 1975).

Whenever possible, moves should be made during the summer months, in order not to disrupt school activities and permit the child to familiarize himself with the new neighborhood before starting school in the fall (Seidenberg 1975). The Allied Van Lines symposium also suggested that mobile families develop family rituals at certain times of the year in order to make up for a lack of place related security (Bush 1977).

Ramos (1975) views the parents' attitudes as the most significant factor in determining the child's adjustment. Stubblefield (1955) points out that children will respond in kind, to a general spirit of enthusiasm regarding a move or to an attitude of anxiety and resentment evident in parents or siblings. The research study by Pedersen and Sullivan (1964), previously discussed, places heavy emphasis on the correlation between positive attitude toward moving in the mother and favorable adjustment in the children.

Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature relevant to the identified problem. The family was examined in terms of general systems theory in order to provide a basis for understanding the impact of a change of residence on the family. Parents and children are seen as interelated by a

complex network of relationships. The family system experiences a period of disequilibrium during moving and is particularly amenable to change during this stage of transition (Tooley 1970).

Mobility is but one ramification of the broad social changes occurring in the United States and is a change involving multiple variables for human adjustment. Mobility is a life event requiring a process of readjustment and adaptation by the individual (Holmes and Rahe 1967). Various research studies have examined the relationship between various life events, such as a change of residence, and the incidence of mental disorder. The results have been controversial. Some authors have suggested that life events are the result of mental disturbance, rather than contributing etiological factors (Dohrenwend 1975).

Individuals and families cope with the changes inherent in everyday living, such as moving, in various ways. Characteristics of the person who copes efficiently include the ability to mobilize energy under stressful conditions, the general ability to identify and solve problems, and flexibility or a willingness to tolerate losses and accept alternatives (Hall and Weaver 1974; Murphy and Moriarity 1976).

All children are vulnerable to the effects of stress. Some situations may be particularly stressful for a child due to his previous life experiences. The child who experiences a change of residence as a severe stress may have a history of separation anxiety and previous loss (Murphy and Moriarity 1976).

During the middle years of childhood, a child is confronted with mastering a number of tasks, such as developing satisfying peer relationships, becoming involved in activities outside his family, improving physical skill, and adjusting to the demands of school (Joint Commission 1969). Although the child is less dependent on his parents, they still exert a tremendous influence on his growth and development. Children continually learn attitudes, values, and patterns of behavior through exposure to parents (Mussen, Conger, and Kagan 1974).

All children exhibit some psychological problems during childhood; most often, problems are transient; severe disorders are often related to disturbances within the family or immediate social environment. The existence of mental health or illness in a child is the result of the complex interaction of the many systems which influence his life (Joint Commission 1969).

Much of what has been written about the relationship between mobility and mental disturbance lacks the support of sound research methodology. Research which has been done has revealed contradictory findings. This is probably a reflection of the multiple variables involved in the relationship between mobility and mental health or illness. Several authors, particularly Packard (1972), have noted the hazards of frequent changes of residence and the negative implications for society as a whole. Others have noted specific psychological responses following a significant move (Fried 1969; Jennings 1971; Seidenberg 1975; Weissman and Paykel 1972). Several writers suggest that the detrimental effects of moving have been overemphasized (Gans 1972; Ruina 1970).

A review of the literature and research dealing with the impact of mobility on children's adjustment again reveals conflicting opinions and results. A few authorities in the field of child psychology are adamant that moving is harmful to children (Packard 1972; Bettelheim 1974). Others note that moving can be hazardous to a child's adjustment, but need not be, if the family relationships are sound, the child is properly prepared for the move, and he is assisted in adapting to the new community (Stubblefield 1955; Levine 1966; Tooley 1970; Kantor 1965; Bower 1967; Gabower 1960).

Some research has shown that moving can benefit a child, rather than disrupt adjustment (Barrett and Noble 1973).

A few studies have specifically explored the relationship between parental attitudes toward moving and the adjustment of mobile children. Two major studies in this area were by Pedersen and Sullivan (1964), who found a positive maternal attitude toward mobility to be associated with favorable adjustment in children, and by Shaw (1975) who found no correlation between parental attitudes regarding moving and the incidence of emotional disorder in children.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE FOR COLLECTION AND TREATMENT OF DATA

Chapter III will present the methods used in the study exploring the relationships between parental and children's attitudes toward moving and children's level of adjustment after a recent move. The research setting, population, human rights, tools, methods of data collection, and treatment of data will be described.

The project was classified as a quantitative descriptive study for it included variables amenable to measurement and quantitative relations among variables were described (Fellini, Tripody, and Mayer 1969). No variable was manipulated to determine its effect on any observed phenomenon. No treatment was applied to the subject. Therefore, no variables were labeled as independent or dependent. The research design was co-relational. Various sets of data were collected from a group of subjects and relationships among the data were determined (Tuckman 1972). Data were only collected, analyzed, and relationships noted. A co-relational study does not imply causation, it can only suggest possible basis for causality (Tuckman 1972).

Setting

A natural field setting was utilized. Data were collected from families living in private residential homes. The families lived in a rapidly growing suburban community, approximately a forty minute drive from a large metropolitan area in northeast Texas. This community maintained a 17 percent yearly growth rate during the past decade. In 1960, the population was 3,695, while the estimated population on January 1, 1977 was 53,150 (Plano Daily Star-Courier 23 June 1977).

Population

The target population for this study consisted of middle-middle to upper-middle class families who lived in the same suburban community and who met the criteria stated in the delimitations. A research study conducted by a private research corporation described the typical household in the community as "headed by a professional or managerial/executive husband with both husband and wife in their early thirties. They have two children and a high income" (M/PF Research, Inc. 1977, p. 36).

The sample was obtained by the nonprobability method, indicating that subjects were not chosen by random sampling (Abdellah and Levine 1965). In actuality, the

subjects determined the sample composition, by deciding whether or not to participate in the study. The recently mobile families were obtained from a list of addresses compiled by notation of realtor "For Sale" and later "Sold" signs on homes during the months preceding data collection. These addresses were supplemented with another list of newcomers secured through the local chamber of commerce.

Thirty families agreed to participate. However, only twenty-six complete units of both parents and children were obtained due to the failure of four fathers to return the appropriate forms. Data were secured on a total of thirty-five children of elementary school age.

Human Rights

In accordance with Federal guidelines for research involving humans, specific procedures were followed in order to protect the rights and welfare of participating humans in this project. Approval for the study was first secured from the Human Research Review Committee at Texas Woman's University. All subjects were fully informed, both orally and in writing, regarding: (1) the nature and procedure of the study, (2) any potential risks associated with participation, and (3) the potential benefits evolving from the investigation. Questions were encouraged and answered.

All adult subjects read and signed the Consent to Act as a Subject for Research and Investigation (see appendix A). One parent also signed for their participating children. No questions were directed to the children without first receiving parental consent. Parents were shown the children's attitude questionnaire prior to its administration and were permitted to see the results of the test.

Anonymity and confidentiality were assured. No names or addresses were written on data sheets. The consent forms with signatures were kept entirely separate and in a secure place. The addresses of those families desiring the study results were recorded on a paper separate from materials containing data. Any concerns related to the project or the issue of geographical mobility were discussed with the families.

Tools

Four different types of questionnaires were utilized in the study. Tuckman (1972) pointed out that questionnaires enable one to gain information regarding what experiences a person has had and what he knows, likes and dislikes, and thinks. Such information can be transformed into numbers and quantitative data by appropriate techniques. Abdellah and Levine (1965) identified the questionnaire as the most widely used instrument for data

collection, particularly in nonexperimental studies. Tuckman (1972) noted the following requirements if the self-report approach incorporated in questionnaires and scaling devices is to provide accurate data: (1) the respondent must cooperate fully, (2) he must indicate what actually is, rather than what he thinks ought to be, and (3) he must know what he thinks and feels in order to report it. Thus, paper and pencil techniques may measure what the subject says he believes and thinks, and not what he may actually believe and think (Tuckman 1972).

Attitude Instruments

Two different tools were used to measure attitudes toward change of residence. An attitude scale or question requires subjects to indicate their agreement or disagreement with a set of statements about the attitude object. The responses elicited are actually opinions, which Shaw and Wright (1967) describe as verbalizable, conscious responses, while attitudes are actually mediated by unconscious processes. However, a number of expressed opinions permit inferring the existence of an underlying attitude (Gould and Kolb 1964).

The instrument chosen to measure parental attitudes was developed and utilized by professionals from the

University of Nebraska in a series of moving workshops for executives and their families (Olive et al. 1976). The parental attitude scale is a semantic differential and measures a subject's attitude toward moving on a seven-point bipolar scale (see appendix B). Subjects measured their thoughts and feelings toward moving in relation to ten pairs of words. Some of the adjectives may not appear related to the concept of moving; however, this apparent irrelevance is the strength of the semantic differential approach, for it limits the tendency to produce socially acceptable responses (Tuckman 1972). The semantic differential can easily and quickly be completed by an adult. Olive (1976) and his associates utilized the tool as an indicator of subjects' feelings regarding moving, but stated no reliability or validity information.

A Children's Attitude Toward Moving Scale (CAMS) was constructed (see appendix C). A Likert approach was implemented; however, the usual five category rating system of "strongly agree," "agree," "undecided," "disagree," and "strongly disagree" was found to be too confusing to young children. Therefore, only three simple alternatives of "yes," "don't know," or "no" were chosen for the tool. The scale was also restricted to twelve items due to the limited attention span of young children. The tool was developed

with six statements in the positive direction and six in the negative direction in order to provide a balanced scale. Answers were scored by assigning values of three, two, and one for "yes," "don't know," or "no." Scoring was reversed for negatively worded items, in order to provide a total score which reflected positiveness of attitude (Shaw and Wright 1967).

A teacher, certified and practicing in early elementary education in the local school district, was consulted to evaluate the CAMS and to correct any ambiguity or complexity in vocabulary, grammar, or comprehension. The CAMS was seen as appropriate for elementary school-age children, providing that the questions were read and/or reviewed with the participants. Abdellah and Levine (1965) pointed out that without an available interpretation of the questions, a respondent can frequently misinterpret items and thus lessen data accuracy.

Abdellah and Levine (1965) emphasize pretesting a data-collecting instrument to assess its adequacy before applying it to actual study subjects. A slightly modified form of the CAMS was pretested on six elementary school-age children in the research community. The verb tenses were changed to the future, so attitudes toward moving could be elicited from children who had not recently moved. None

of the six children had difficulty comprehending or responding to the CAMS.

The CAMS has face validity. Reliability was established by the "split-half" method, using the Spearman Brown formula (Tuckman 1972). In this procedure, the test is split in half, i.e., odd and even questions, and a correlation is obtained between the two subscales to determine whether the halves are measuring the same characteristic (Tuckman 1972). The CAMS reliability was .60. Fox (1970) quotes a lower limit for some published research at .50, although .70 is more generally accepted as a minimum level of reliability.

Tuckman (1972) identified several factors which contribute to unreliability of a test. These include: fatigue, emotional strain, or poor health of the test taker; fluctuation of human memory, lack of familiarity with the subject matter, test form and/or procedure, and physical conditions in the testing room. Tuckman's statement that the respondent must know how he feels or thinks about a topic if accurate data are to be obtained, should again be considered in evaluating the reliability of research tools for children. The fact that the test was administered by a stranger to the children could also contribute to the .60 reliability coefficient.

Children's Adjustment Instrument

The Peterson Problem Checklist, a standardized screening tool for children, kindergarten through sixth grade, was used to measure the level of adjustment (see appendix D). The instrument was obtained with instructions and factor loadings from the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. The Peterson checklist is to be completed by a parent or teacher familiar with the child and consists of fifty-five items of behavior. The rater is to complete all items and is to rate each in terms of three levels of severity.

The checklist measures two dimensions of behavior: conduct problems--Factor I, and personality problems--Factor II, which Peterson (1961) identified as two indicators of poor adjustment consistently seen in treatment cases. Peterson describes children with primarily conduct problems as those who express impulses and as a result society suffers; whereas, with personality problems, impulses are inhibited and the child suffers.

In order to obtain a score, the grader counts one point if a problem was rated mild or severe and then multiplies one by the specific factor loading for the particular item in the appropriate age group. Advantages of the Peterson checklist include its applicability to all children of

school age, the ease with which parents may complete it, and the fact that it provides scores reflective of the seriousness and nature of the problem behavior.

A final question was added to determine whether and how a child's behavior had changed following the recent move. It was not possible in this study to evaluate the children's behavior prior to the move.

Reliability correlations for the Peterson Problem Checklist were established at .77 and .75 for Factors I and II, respectively, through interjudge ratings. Content validity is evident as the checklist was the product of a research study designed to improve the structural definition of children's behavior problems. Peterson (1961) evaluated the patterns of behavior in 831 elementary school children.

A symptom checklist was appropriate for measuring the behavioral status of children in the community. Glidewell, Mensh, and Gildea (1957) determined that symptoms, reported by mothers, reliably discriminated between varying levels of emotional adjustment in children.

Identification Sheet

An identification face sheet was compiled for each family. This provided information as to the age and sex of the family members, distance moved, number of previous

moves, time interval since the recent move, whether the move was optional or mandatory, and how the move affected the family's social status (see appendix E).

How Data Were Collected

The method of data collection included interviewing and direct collection of data for the subjects provided information through questionnaires (Abdellah and Levine 1965). A standardized procedure was followed in order to reduce the possibility of inconsistencies or errors. Data were collected during a 3-1/2 week period from August 15, 1977 to September 7, 1977.

Initial Contact and Explanations

In order to secure the volunteer subjects, home visits were made to the listed addresses. No phone calls were made prior to these visits as the family names and/or phone numbers were unknown. Visits were made in the evenings and on weekends when it was anticipated that all family members would be at home.

The researcher introduced herself first by name and then as a nurse and student at Texas Woman's University doing a study on moving in the area. The study was briefly and generally described as exploring how families feel about moving and how children may react to a move. The parents

were asked whether the family included any children of elementary school age. It was explained that the study required approximately thirty to forty-five minutes of time and involved completing several brief questionnaires.

A total of sixty-three visits were made to addresses identified for recently mobile families. There were twelve "not at home" visits. Ten families lacked children of the appropriate age and five families declined to participate and stated a lack of interest and/or time as the reason. Three families refused to participate due to the requirement of signing the Consent to Act as a Subject for Research and Investigation form. Three families expressed willingness to participate, but did not fulfill the requirements, i.e., parents in two families had experienced remarriages within the preceding three months and one family lacked fluency in the English language.

The thirty families who agreed to participate and met the basic requirements of mobility and having elementary school-age children were provided with a general description of the study and procedure involved. Families were then evaluated against the criteria stated in the delimitations. It was explained that certain qualifications were required in order to provide some assurance that family members had not recently experienced events which could conceivably be

stressful and influence the data to be collected. Human rights forms were then explained and completed. The identification sheet was completed.

All members of the families were not at home when the researcher visited and some of the initial contacts were at inconvenient times. If only the father was absent, then an attitude form, consent to act as a research subject form, and an explanatory letter was left with a stamped envelope addressed to the researcher. If the time of the visit was not suitable, or the mother and/or any elementary children were not at home, then arrangements were made with the parent at home for a return visit. This was done before any forms were signed or completed. Return visits were necessary in four instances.

Administration of Tools

After the identification sheet was completed, the parent(s) was shown the adult's and the children's attitude questionnaires and the behavior checklist. Instructions were given as stated on the forms. All family members were also instructed to indicate how they really felt and not what they thought they should feel. The mothers were told to complete the behavior checklist, as objectively as possible, in terms of their child's behavior since the move. Questions were encouraged. While the parents completed

their forms, the CAMS was administered to each child, individually, in another room.

The CAMS was given verbally to children under age ten and each question was reviewed orally with the older children. The children were assured that there was no "right" or "wrong" answer, rather what they thought was most important was the best answer.

Several children had difficulty answering number five on the CAMS which inquired whether moving was good for children. In these cases, the question was explained as meaning whether moving could be helpful or improve or better a child in some way. The children were encouraged to answer as best they could. There were no other problems with administering the CAMS.

A number of parents questioned the meaning of the two pairs of words, slow and fast and small and large, on the adult's attitude scale. These were consistently defined as referring to whether the move had indicated a small or large change in life and if the moving process was viewed as occurring slowly or rapidly. There were no difficulties with the behavior checklist; however, the mothers devoted varying amounts of time and energy toward completing them.

Conclusion and Discussion

Upon completion of the questionnaires and checklist, the family members were encouraged to ask any questions regarding the study. It was also questioned whether any thoughts or concerns related to the issue of moving had been stimulated. The mothers consistently expressed more interest in the study and the possible effects of moving on the family than did fathers or children. Mothers frequently asked what effect moving did have on children. It was noted that research findings were contradictory and that a number of factors were involved in determining the impact of the move. Several mothers with teen-agers expressed particular concern over their adolescents adjustment post-move. These mothers viewed their older children as having much more difficulty adapting to a new community. Four women verbalized some personal feelings of depression after moving. It was explained that this was a normal response which should be temporary.

The families were asked whether they desired the study results. Sixteen families requested this information and they wrote their addresses only on a sheet of paper. The families were thanked for their cooperation.

Treatment of Data

The data collected in this study were nominal and ordinal in nature. The attitude instruments and behavior checklists generated ordinal data, while the identification sheet provided ordinal and nominal data. These classifications of data require the use of the percentile system of descriptive statistics, rather than the more powerful moment system based on interval data (Fox 1970). Nonparametric statistical procedures were appropriate as the data did not fulfull the assumptions for parametric tests of a normal distribution, homogeneity of variance, and continuous equal interval measures (Tuckman 1972).

Raw data were presented in several tables. Data were described and summarized through calculating the median, total range, and semi-interquartile range for the mothers', fathers', and children's attitude scores and the children's behavior checklist scores. In the percentile system, the median provides a measure of central tendency, while the range and semi-interquartile range indicate the degree of internal variation (Fox 1970). Frequency distributions were used to present data on attitude scores for parents and children and the behavior checklist scores. Percentages

were calculated as to whether and how behavior changed, favorably or unfavorably postmove.

Graphs were used to compare parents' and children's attitude scores to the scores on the Peterson Problem Checklist. These factors were also analyzed by correlational statistics.

Nonparametric correlational statistics were used to establish the existence and degree of relationship among the variables. The correlation values obtained were evaluated as to their statistical significance to determine whether the stated association existed in the population from which the sample was drawn (Siegel 1956). A .05 level of significance was established. Data were transferred to punch cards and all correlational statistics and tests for significance were done on a high speed digital computer.

The three correlational procedures utilized were the Contingency coefficient, or C; the Spearman rank correlation coefficient, or rho; and the Kendal coefficient of concordance, also known as W. The Contingency coefficient measures the extent of association between nominal variables. The Spearman rank correlation coefficient is used to compare two sets of ranked ordinal data. The Kendal W is appropriate for estimating the relationship among three or more continuous, ordinal variables. It also requires data to

be ranked and is a measure of the agreement among the various sets of rankings (Siegel 1956). The Spearman and Kendal procedures were applied to data pertaining to attitudes toward moving and children's adjustment levels, as represented by the behavior scores. The attitude scores were ranked from high to low, while the behavior scores were ranked from low to high. Low behavior scores reflected high adjustment and high scores indicated low adjustment.

The Contingency coefficient provides a weak measure of the estimate of a relationship, while rho has a power efficiency of 91 percent when compared to the most powerful parametric correlation, the Pearson r. Rho is also linearly related to Kendal W.

The Contingency coefficient was used to obtain a measure of the relationships between the following: (1) parental positive or negative attitudes toward moving and whether the recent move was optional or mandatory, (2) parental positive or negative attitudes and the sex of the parent, and (3) parental positive or negative attitudes and whether the move increased, decreased, or resulted in no change in social status. The process was repeated substituting children's attitudes for parents' attitudes. Positive or negative attitudes were determined by identifying the median attitude score for parents and the children.

Scores above the median were considered as positive; those below the median were seen as negative.

The rho correlational procedure was applied to the following sets of data pertaining to attitudes toward moving: (1) mother's and fathers' attitudes, (2) mothers' attitudes and children's attitudes, (3) father's attitudes and children's attitudes, (4) combined parental attitudes and children's attitudes, (5) mothers' attitudes and children's level of adjustment, (6) fathers' attitudes and children's level of adjustment, (7) combined parental attitudes and children's level of adjustment, and (8) children's attitudes and children's level of adjustment.

Rho was computed again on the above sets of data for two subgroups of the sample identified by whether or not a child's behavior had changed postmove. The Spearman technique was also implemented to assess the relationship between children's attitude scores and scores for personality problems or conduct problems.

Rho was again used to correlate these sets of data: (1) parents' attitudes and age, (2) parents' attitudes and number of previous moves, (3) parents' attitudes and the time interval since the move, and (4) parents' attitudes and the distance moved. The correlation procedure was repeated separately for mothers and fathers. Children's

attitudes toward moving were also compared to the above variables by the rho technique.

The Kendal coefficient of concordance was used to determine the extent of association among the three variables of parental attitudes toward moving, children's attitudes toward moving, and the children's level of adjustment. The Kendal W was computed separately considering the combined parental attitudes, maternal attitudes, paternal attitudes, and for the two subgroups of children with changed and unchanged behavior postmove.

Summary

The study was quantitative descriptive in nature and utilized a co-relational design. This was a community mental health study involving middle-class mobile families who volunteered to participate. Data were collected through interview and questionnaire techniques in the participants' homes. Four different instruments were implemented including two tools to assess parents' and children's attitudes toward moving, a behavior checklist to assess children's adjustment postmove, and an identification sheet which provided information on potentially influencing variables. A children's attitudes on moving scale was specifically constructed for the study; reliability and validity were

established. Human rights of subjects were protected. Non-parametric correlational procedures were described as appropriate statistics for the nominal and ordinal data collected.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this chapter was to describe, analyze, and interpret the data obtained through utilizing the various instruments. The raw data for the thirty families are presented in tables 12 and 13 of appendix F. The data were summarized and presented through tables, frequency distributions, and graphs. The percentile system of descriptive statistics and nonparametric correlational procedures were implemented. The correlational procedures were applied to the data as a whole and when appropriate to subgroups, identified by whether children's adjustment had changed or not, postmove.

A .05 level of significance was established. Only those correlational values which specifically indicate that a .05 level of significance was reached did so. Other reported correlations did not reach significance.

The characteristics of the sample were presented prior to the data evaluation which satisfied the purposes of this study. The results and interpretations of the data analysis were organized according to the four purposes of the study.

Description of Sample

A sample of thirty families was obtained for this study; however, four fathers failed to complete and return their forms and thus there were only twenty-six complete family units. Thirty-five elementary school-age children, including twenty-one girls and fourteen boys, participated.

The average sample family, determined by calculating mean scores, consisted of a mother, age 34.4; a father, age 36.9; and 2.3 children, one of which was in elementary school. The mean age of the study children was 8.2 years. The range of the parents' ages was 24 to 47 years, while the children's ages varied between 5 and 11.5 years. The families had made an average of 5.0 previous moves, with a range of 1 to 16 moves. They had typically traveled 703.5 miles to their new homes, although the distances moved varied from 3 to 2000 miles. They had moved an average of 3.9 weeks or 27 days prior to the time of data collection, while the time interval ranged from 4 to 77 days. Twenty-five of the thirty families, or 83 percent, identified the recent move as optional, while five, or 17 percent, described it as mandatory. Social status increased in fifteen, or 50 percent of the families; decreased in three, or 10 percent; and did not change in twelve, or 40 percent of the study families.

Attitudes Toward Moving and Other Variables

This area deals with data analysis relevant to purposes one and four of the study. These purposes were (a) to determine attitudes regarding change of residence in parents and children in recently mobile families and compare them, and (b) compare the attitudes toward moving with the age and sex of subjects, time interval since the move, number of previous moves, distance moved, whether the move was optional or mandatory, and how the move affected family social status.

Results of Attitudinal Tests

Thirty mothers and twenty-six fathers completed the parents' attitudes toward moving test. The highest and lowest possible scores were 70 and 10, respectively, In table 1, a summary frequency distribution reveals the scores and number of mothers and fathers achieving them.

The range of scores for women was 32 to 70, with a median score of 52. The men's scores ranged from 35 to 70, with a median score of 57. The semi-interquartile range, or mean distance between the median and two outer quartile points, was 6.5 for the maternal scores and 6.0 for the paternal scores. The semi-interquartile range for the combined parental attitude scores was 9.6. It was evident

TABLE 1

PARENTAL ATTITUDE TOWARD MOVING SCORES
(Summary Frequency Distribution)

Attitude Scores	No. of Mothers	No. of Fathers	Attitude Scores	No. of Mothers	No. of Fathers
68-70	2	2	47-49	4	4
65-67	1	3	44-46	1	1
62-64	4	1	41-43	1	1
59-61	2	5	38-40	2	1
56-58	2	4	35-37	1	1
53-55	3	1	32-34	2	0
50-52	5	2	Total	30	26

that there was considerable similarity in the expressed attitudes toward moving in the sample mothers and fathers, although there was slightly less variation among the male scores. Highly positive and negative scores were noted among both men and women. This is in contrast to the reviewed literature which tended to emphasize a negative response to moving among women and a high acceptance of mobility among men.

The CAMS was completed by thirty-five children. A simple frequency distribution in table 2 was used to present the questionnaire results for boys and girls.

Thirty-six was the highest possible score for the CAMS, while the lowest score possible was 12. The range of

TABLE 2

CAMS SCORES
(Simple Frequency Distribution)

CAMS Scores	No. of Boys	No. of Girls	CAMS Scores	No. of Boys	No. of Girls
29	...	1	21	...	2
28	1	2	20	1	3
27	2	1	19	...	1
26	...	2	18	2	2
25	2	1	17	1	1
24	3	...	16	...	1
23	2	2	Total	14	21
22	...	2			

the combined boys' and girls' scores was 16 to 29; the median was 23. The semi-interquartile range was 3. The range for the boys alone was 17 to 28 and the median was 24, while the girls' range was 16 to 29 with a median of 22. The children's scores clustered in a middle area with little variance. This implies that the children were neither extremely positive nor negative regarding moving.

Relationships Between Attitude Scores and Other Variables

The Spearman rank correlation procedure was used to determine the association between parental and children's attitudes toward moving and the variables of age, time

interval since the move, number of previous moves, and the distance moved. Table 3 presents the rho values obtained when the variables were related. It is apparent that the correlations were consistently low. There was some tendency for women and children to exhibit less positive attitudes toward moving with increasing age, while men's attitudes were unaffected by changes in age.

TABLE 3

RHO VALUES FOR RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MOVING ATTITUDE SCORES AND FOUR VARIABLES

Attitude Group	Rho Values			
	Variables Correlated With Attitude Scores			
	Age	Time Since Move	Number of Previous Moves	Distance Moved
Mothers and Fathers	-.17	.03	-.07	.25
Only mothers	-.31*	-.10	.02	-.28
Only fathers	-.06	.03	-.20	.40
All children	-.23*	.04	-.21	-.13
Changed behavior children	-.26	.05	-.06	.08
Unchanged behavior children	-.25	.12	-.29	-.20

*Indicates .05 level of significance.

The results indicate that the length of time since moving had little influence on the attitudes toward moving,

at least during an initial three-month period. The results obtained were very similar for parents and children. There was a very weak trend towards an increasing number of moves to be associated with more negative attitude scores.

Table 3 reveals a weak correlation between high attitude scores and a greater number of miles moved for the total parent group. However, the tendency actually existed only for the fathers. Among the children a weak negative correlation existed, suggesting more positive attitudes regarding moving may be associated with shorter distances moved.

Contingency coefficients were calculated to determine the relationship between positive or negative moving attitudes among parents and children and the variables of sex, circumstances of moving--whether optional or mandatory, and how the move affected family social status. The families were questioned as to whether they perceived the recent move as increasing, decreasing, or resulting in no change in social status. Table 4 presents the obtained C values.

It is evident that in general the correlations were very low. For instance, there is consistently little association between sex and attitude toward moving scores in parents and children.

TABLE 4

C VALUES FOR RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MOVING ATTITUDES AND THREE VARIABLES

Attitude Group	C Values		
	Variables Related to Attitude		
	Sex	Optional or Mandatory Status	Changes in Social Status
Mothers and Fathers	.14	.04	.39
Only mothers	...	.09	.27
Only fathers	...	.08	.40
All children	.19	.06	.09
Changed behavior children	.18	.07	*
Unchanged behavior children	.10	.05	.23

*Results could not be computed due to small number involved.

The findings imply that whether a move is optional or mandatory has little influence on one's attitudes toward moving. However, the fact that the majority of families made optional moves resulted in skewed data for calculation of C. The results also indicate a weak association between ones' attitude towards moving and changes in family social status, particularly among the fathers.

Correlations Between Parental and Children's Attitudes Toward Moving

The relationships among attitudes toward moving as expressed by various family members were determined by again

implementing the Spearman rank correlation technique. The correlations between parents and children were summarized in table 5. Correlations were obtained considering the total group of children and the two subgroups of changed and unchanged postmove behavior children. An examination of table 5 reveals that correlations between attitude toward moving scores in the parents, and between parents and children were very low with the exception of the two correlations which reached the .05 level of significance.

TABLE 5

RHO CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PARENTAL AND CHILDREN'S ATTITUDE SCORES TOWARD MOVING

Attitude Scores Correlated	Rho Values in Children's Groups		
	Total Group of Children	Group of Changed Behavior Children	Group of Unchanged Behavior Children
Mother and Father	.10	.54*	-.13
Mother and Child	.18	-.04	.25
Father and Child	.19	-.01	.31
Both parents scores and child	.16	-.14	.44*

*Indicates .05 level of significance.

The attitude scores of mothers and fathers of children in the changed behavior group were more strongly

correlated than in the other two groups. However, this strength of association did not extend beyond the mother and father. Associations between scores of mothers or fathers and the children were very weak, except in the group of children who evidenced no behavior changes postmove. In that group, there appears to be evidence of association between both parents' attitude scores and the child's, for the correlation was .44 and significant at .05.

The generally low correlations reported in table 5 are inconsistent with the principles of identification theory. Overall, the children's attitudes toward moving were not reflective of their parents' attitudes.

Adjustment in Mobile Children

This section deals with the second purpose of the study which was to determine the level of adjustment of the children and how it may have changed since the move. The Peterson Problem Checklist, completed by the mother, was used to assess children's postmove behavior. A score obtained from the checklist was reflective of the child's level of adjustment. A final question included on the checklist revealed whether the mother perceived her child's behavior to have (1) remained essentially the same as before moving, (2) improved since the move, or (3) changed unfavorably since the move.

The behavior of thirty-five children was evaluated. The scores, obtained through Peterson's scoring procedures, as described in chapter III, ranged from 110 to 1,293. The median score was 549. The semi-interquartile range was 256.

Table 6 is a summary frequency distribution which presents the behavior checklist scores. Twelve out of the twenty-one girls, or 57 percent, had scores above the median; while only six, or 43 percent, of the boys scored above the midpoint.

TABLE 6

PETERSON PROBLEM CHECKLIST SCORES*
(Summary Frequency Distribution)

Checklist	No. of Boys	No. of Girls	Checklist	No. of Boys	No. of Girls
1275-1345	1	...	636-706	1	...
1204-1274	...	...	565-635	1	4
1133-1203	...	2	494-564	1	4
1062-1132	...	2	323-493	2	5
991-1061	3	...	252-322	1	1
920-990	...	...	181-251	2	1
849-919	...	1	110-180	2	...
778-848	...	1	Total	14	21
707-777	...	...			

*High score reflects low adjustment. Low score reflects high adjustment.

Behavior in twenty-two children, or 63 percent, remained essentially the same postmove. Eight children, or

23 percent, evidenced improved behavior following the move, while five, or 14 percent, exhibited unfavorable changes in behavior. These findings are extremely important. The children in this study, according to their mothers, most often evidenced no apparent behavior changes following a move. Behavior changes which did occur were more likely to be favorable, than unfavorable in nature.

The three behavior categories of children were evaluated according to the research variables to determine if there were any meaningful differences among them. The average values for the variables of age, CAMS scores, behavior checklist scores, number of moves, distance moved, and time interval since the move are presented in table 7 for the three groups of children determined by whether behavior changed favorably, unfavorably, or did not change following the move.

It is apparent from an examination of table 7 that there was no notable differences among the three categories of children as related to age or the CAMS scores. The behavior checklist scores were, as expected, higher in the group of children with unfavorable postmove behavior changes. It is also apparent that the children who changed favorably were from more mobile families and thus may have had more "practice" in moving. This group had also traveled

TABLE 7

MEAN VALUES FOR SIX VARIABLES IN CHILDREN'S POSTMOVE BEHAVIOR GROUPS

Research Variable	Mean Values in Three Children's Groups		
	Unchanged Behavior	Favorable Behavior Change	Unfavorable Behavior Change
Age	8.5	7.6	8.2
CAMS score	22.8	22.1	21.0
Checklist scores	529.3	608.6	890.8
Number of previous moves	4.8	5.6	4.4
Number of miles moved	786.9	383.6	818.2
Number of weeks since move	3.8	5.3	3.3

considerably fewer miles during the recent change of residence and had been in their new homes approximately two weeks longer than had the other two groups.

The distribution of boys and girls in each of the three groups is presented in table 8. The percentage distribution is remarkably similar.

When the issue of changes in social status was considered for each of the three children's behavior categories, no meaningful differences were apparent. In the group of twenty-two children with essentially unchanged behavior, ten of the families increased their social status, five

TABLE 8

DISTRIBUTION OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN POSTMOVE BEHAVIOR GROUPS

	Number and Percentage in Three Groups		
	Unchanged Behavior	Favorable Behavior Change	Unfavorable Behavior Change
Girls (N=21)	(13) 62%	(5) 24%	(3) 14%
Boys (N=14)	(9) 64%	(3) 22%	(2) 14%

decreased, and seven reported no change in social status. The eight children in favorable behavior change group were equally divided between families which had increased or decreased social status. In the group of five unfavorable behavior children, three of their families reported an increase in social status and two families reported no change in social status.

Eighty-three percent of the thirty families reported that the moves were optional. Thus, it is difficult to make any valid interpretations regarding the implications of whether the move was optional or mandatory in terms of children's adjustment.

Attitudes Toward Moving and Children's Adjustment

This section pertains to the third purpose of the study which was to compare parents' and children's attitudes

towards moving with the level of adjustment of the children. The attitude toward moving scores of parents and the children were correlated with the children's level of adjustment, as represented by the behavior checklist scores. The Spearman rho and Kendal W were the statistical procedures utilized.

Table 9 reports the values for the individual relationships between mothers' attitudes, fathers' attitudes, combined parents' attitudes, and the children's attitudes to the children's adjustment. Correlations were computed for the group of children as a whole and for two subgroups based on whether behavior changed--favorably or unfavorably--or remained essentially unchanged after the move.

Table 9 revealed consistently low correlations between the identified variables. This suggests that the attitude toward moving of a child and his parents has very little influence on his postmove adjustment. There was a weak tendency for positive attitudes toward moving in the children to be associated with higher adjustment postmove, particularly in those children who evidenced behavior changes.

Graphs were constructed to illustrate the irregular relationship between family members' attitudes toward moving and the children's adjustment level. Figure 1 specifically

TABLE 9

RHO VALUES FOR RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ATTITUDES TOWARD MOVING AND CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT POSTMOVE

Variables Related	Rho Values in Children's Adjustment Group		
	All Children	Changed Behavior Children	Unchanged Behavior Children
Mother's attitude/Children's adjustment	.05	.21	.02
Father's attitude/Children's adjustment	.23	.04	.19
Combined parents' attitudes/children's adjustment	.08	.15	.06
Children's attitudes/children's adjustment	.28*	.34	.17

*Indicates significance at .05 level.

reveals the lack of association between the parental attitudes toward moving and children's adjustment.

The relationship between CAMS scores and adjustment was graphed separately for boys and girls due to the extensive overlapping of CAMS scores. Both Figures 2 and 3 were consistent with the low rho values previously noted.

The Peterson Problem Checklist enables one to secure separate scores for conduct problems and personality problems. The scores for these two components of adjustment

FIGURE 1

PARENTS' ATTITUDE SCORES AND CHILDREN'S CHECKLIST SCORES

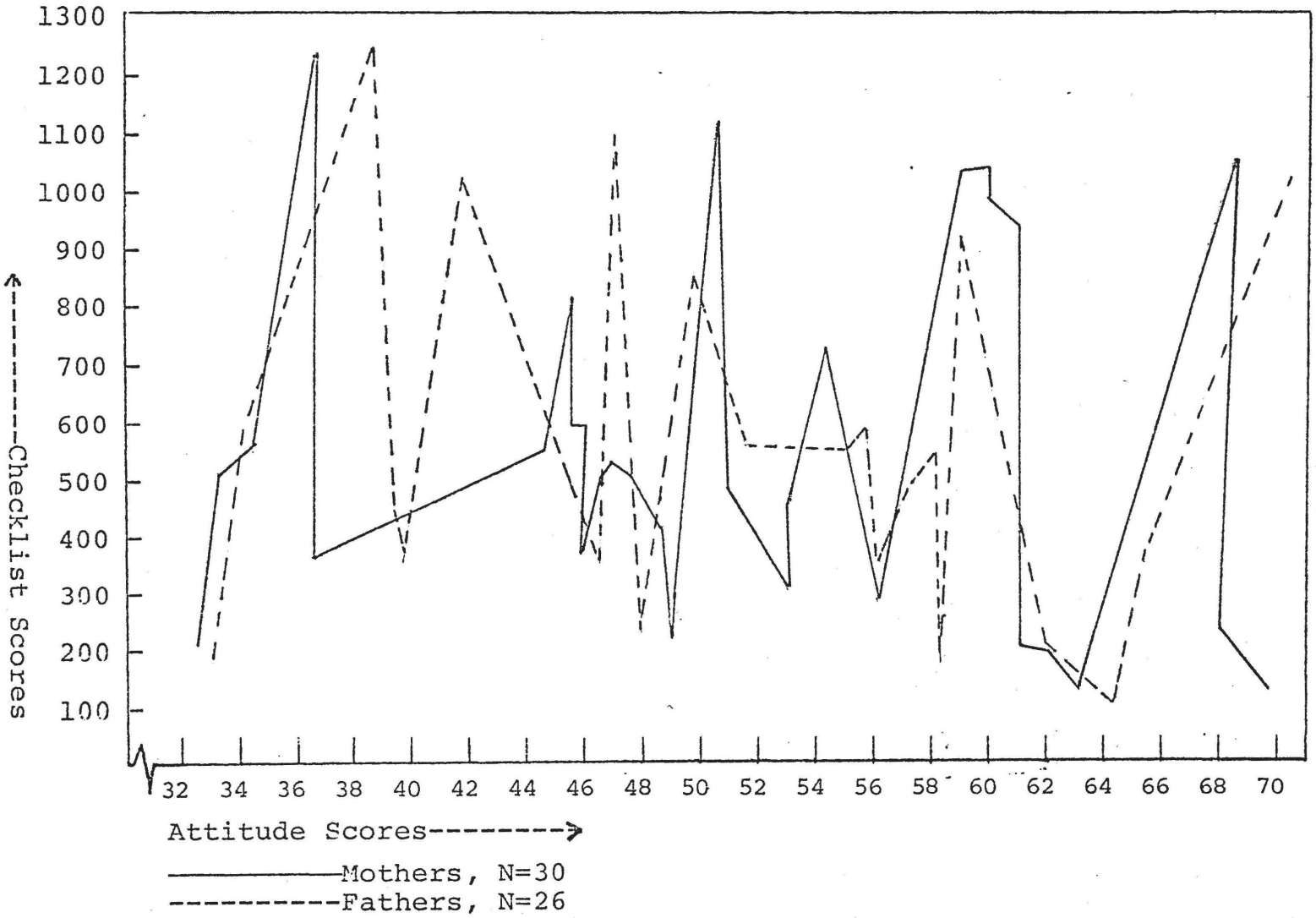
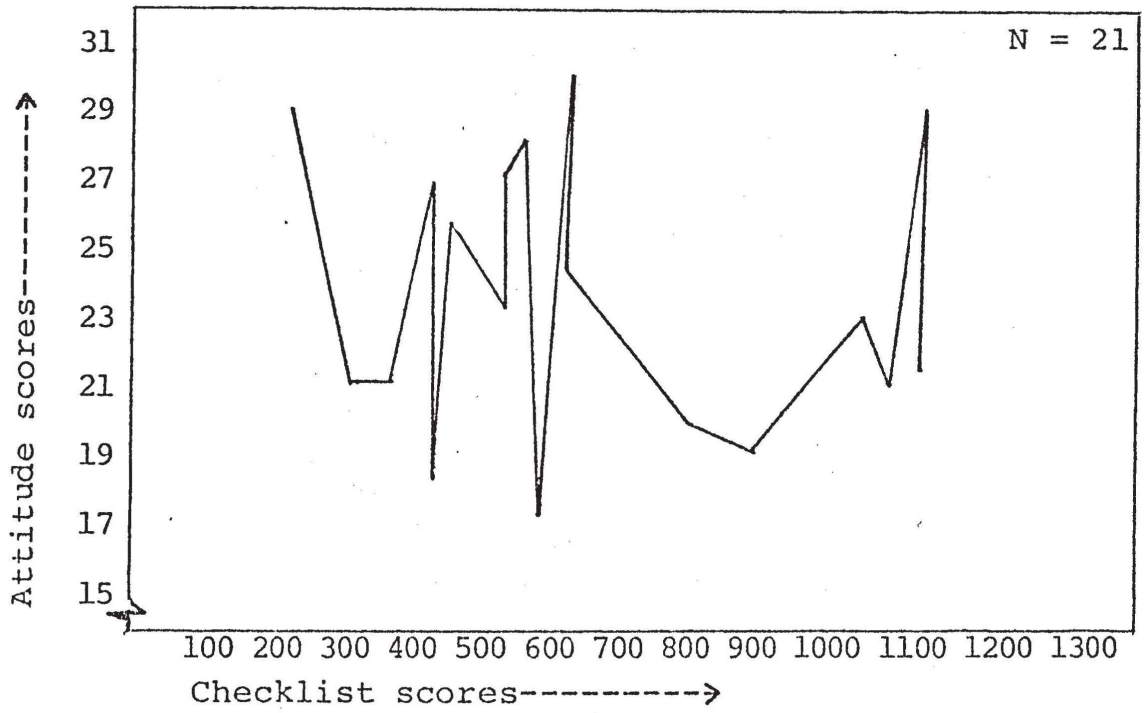


FIGURE 2

GIRLS' CAMS SCORES AND PETERSON PROBLEM CHECKLIST SCORES

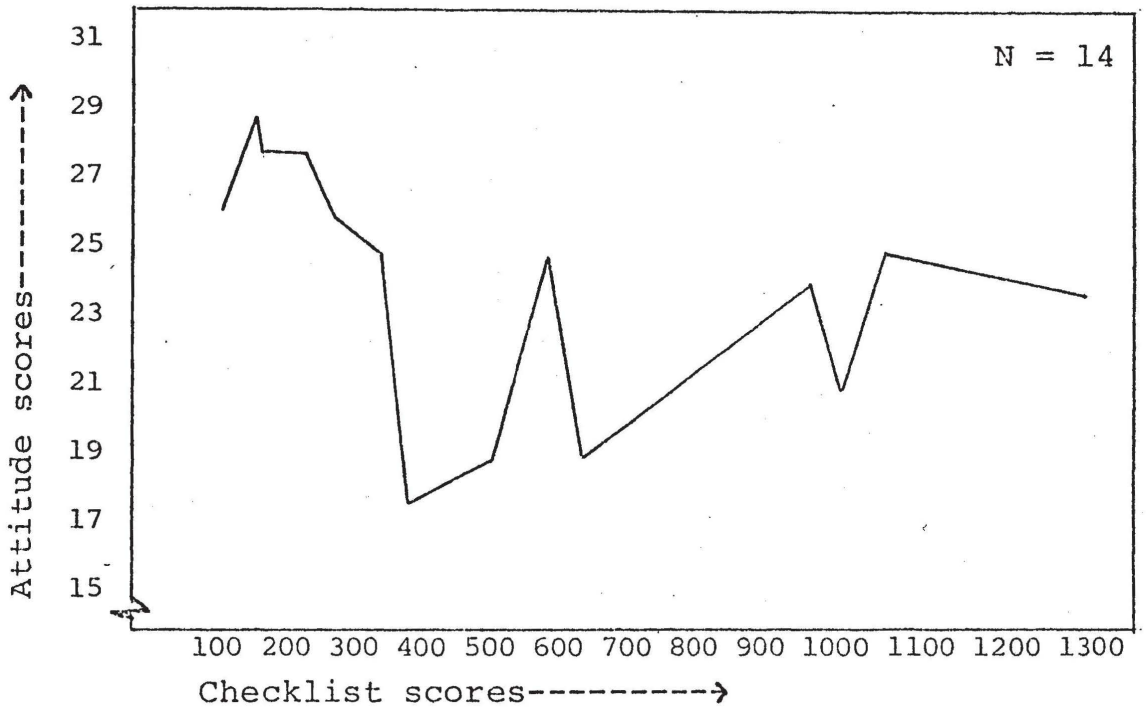


were separately correlated with the children's attitude scores. The rho correlations were again obtained for the entire group of children, those children who had changed behavior, and those who had not changed behavior following the move. Table 10 reports those correlations.

Table 10 generally indicates that there was little association between how a child scored on the CAMS and his scores for personality or conduct problems. The one exception to this trend was the .47 correlation, significant at the .05 level, between the CAMS and personality problem

FIGURE 3

BOYS' CAMS SCORES AND PETERSON PROBLEM CHECKLIST SCORES



scores in the group of changed behavior children. This implies a tendency for children who did evidence behavior changes following a move to exhibit personality problems, rather than conduct problems, at least in this sample.

The Kendal W was computed to determine the degree of association or agreement among the three variables of parental attitudes toward moving, children's attitudes toward moving, and children's adjustment levels. Table 11 included correlation values when pertinent data for all the

TABLE 10

RHO VALUES FOR ASSOCIATION BETWEEN CAMS SCORES AND CONDUCT AND PERSONALITY PROBLEM SCORES

Variables Related	Rho Values in Children's Adjustment Groups		
	All Children	Changed Behavior Children	Unchanged Behavior Children
CAMS scores/ conduct problem scores	.26	.09	.28
CAMS scores/ personality problem scores	.16	.47*	.06

*Indicates significant at .05 level.

TABLE 11

KENDAL W VALUES FOR ASSOCIATION BETWEEN ATTITUDES TOWARD MOVING AND CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT LEVELS

Variables Related	Kendal W Values in Children's Groups		
	All Children	Changed Behavior Children	Unchanged Behavior Children
Mothers' attitudes/ children's attitudes/ children's adjustment	.43*	.42	.52
Fathers' attitudes/ children's attitudes/ children's adjustment	.48	.41	.49
Combined parental attitudes/children's attitudes/children's adjustment	.47	.39	.48

*Indicates significance at .05 level.

children were included and when data for the children who had changed behavior or had not changed behavior were considered.

It was evident from table 11 that the Kendal W values were generally in the .40 to .50 range for the triads of variables. A pattern toward agreement among the three variable rankings slightly less than half the time was suggested. The fact that the .43 Kendal W value for the variables of maternal attitudes toward moving, children's attitudes toward moving, and children's adjustment reached the .05 level should be noted.

The Kendal W values, although still low, were considerably higher than the Spearman correlations dealing with parental and children's attitudes toward moving and children's adjustment levels. Both of these correlational procedures require an initial ranking of data. Siegel (1956) pointed out that values for W tend to be larger than rho values because when more than two sets of ranks are involved, all the rankings cannot disagree completely. When three or more variables are involved, agreement and disagreement are not symmetrical opposites. In addition, any values for W pertaining to the attitudes toward moving variables would tend to be higher than usual due to the large number of ties among the attitude scores. Siegel (1956) noted that

a large number of ties among variable rankings tends to inflate the value of W, whereas values for rho remain essentially unchanged by ties.

Summary

The study sample of thirty middle-class recently mobile families, including thirty mothers, twenty-six fathers, and thirty-five children, was described in detail. The attitude toward moving scores of parents and children were described, analyzed, compared, and interpreted. The potential influence of variables such as age and sex were evaluated. Overall correlations were low. Children's attitudes toward moving were not reflective of their parents' attitudes toward moving.

Children's postmove adjustment was assessed; 63 percent of the children were found to have had no behavior changes, 23 percent exhibited favorable behavior changes, and 14 percent demonstrated unfavorable changes in behavior. The characteristics of these three behavior groups were described and evaluated. Correlations between parents' and children's attitudes toward moving and children's adjustment were obtained. The data indicated that family moving attitudes had little influence on children's postmove adjustment.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter will include a review of the study investigating the relationship between attitudes toward moving in parents and children and adjustment in recently mobile children. Conclusions which can be drawn from the study will be stated and discussed. The implications of the significant findings for nurses and other health professionals will be noted. The chapter will conclude with a statement of recommendations for further research.

Summary

The problem of this study was to determine the relationship between parents' and children's attitudes toward change of residence and the reported level of children's adjustment in recently mobile families. The background and significance of the problem area was explored and it was noted that mobility is widespread and increasing in America. Research reports and writings related to mobility and mental health were found to present contradictory viewpoints and findings. An attitude was described as an enduring organization of cognitive and emotional processes

learned through social interaction. It was reasoned that a positive attitude toward moving could facilitate a child's adjustment in a new neighborhood. The problem was seen as relevant for the nurse who continually deals with mobile individuals. She must be aware of the implications of a life change, such as a change of residence, in order to provide comprehensive, quality patient care.

The literature relevant to mobility and mental health, especially in regards to children, was examined in depth. The family was described as a system which experiences a period of temporary disequilibrium when exchanging one home and community for another. Mobility was identified as a ramification of the broad social changes occurring in America. A change of residence was examined as a life event which requires one to accept the loss of familiar surroundings and social relationships and assimilate into a new environment. Effective coping mechanisms were seen as important in accomplishing this task. The issue of mobility was seen as significant for the elementary school-age child who is increasingly involved in activities with peers and in the community.

Much of the literature pertaining to the implications of mobility for mental health was found to lack the support of sound research methodology. Research findings were

contradictory, probably due to the multiple variables which enter into the relationship between mobility and personal adjustment. Several authors and researchers dealt with the possible association between parental attitudes toward moving and adjustment among mobile children. Studies which explored this relationship produced inconsistent results.

The study was conducted in a community setting and was classified as quantitative descriptive in nature. A co-relational design was implemented. Thirty middle-class, mobile families voluntarily participated. However, only twenty-six complete family units were obtained due to the failure of four fathers to return the appropriate forms. Data were collected through interview and questionnaire techniques. Four different tools were utilized, including a children's attitudes toward moving scale, constructed specifically for the study. Human rights of subjects were protected.

Nonparametric correlational procedures were utilized to analyze the nominal and ordinal data collected. The attitude toward moving scores of parents and children were described, analyzed, and interpreted. The relationship of family attitudes toward moving with other potentially influencing variables was explored and little association was

apparent. Weak correlations were found between children's attitudes toward moving and parents' attitudes toward moving. Children's postmove adjustment was assessed. The majority of children evidenced no behavior changes and only 14 percent exhibited unfavorable changes in behavior following a move. Correlation figures also revealed that little association existed between parents' and children's attitudes toward moving and children's postmove adjustment.

Conclusions

Seven conclusions were drawn regarding the sample for this study. The meaning of each of these conclusions is discussed with particular reference to the previous literature, the specific characteristics of the study sample, and the tools utilized.

1. There is little correlation between one's attitude toward moving and his sex.

This relationship held true in both adults and children. The findings of previous research studies generally conclude that women of various socioeconomic groups have more negative feelings regarding moving and suffer more adverse effects than men (Gordon and Gordon 1960; Weissman and Paykel 1972; Seidenberg 1975; McAllister, Butler, and Kaiser 1973b). However, Jones (1973) reported that women in families with high income, educational, and occupational

status viewed moving as resulting in personal growth for themselves and their families. The sample for this study was similar to that used by Jones. It was evident through noting the housing conditions, dress and appearance, and conversational references of the study participants that these families were generally affluent, well educated, and had high occupational status.

The fathers of this study revealed very negative as well as positive feelings regarding moving. A change of residence may be more stressful for men than is recognized.

The influence of sex on moving attitudes appears to have been negligible in this particular group. There were material gains associated with moving for these families which appeared to be shared with all family members. The negative attitudes expressed by men, women or children may have been a reflection of incongruence between personal valuing of "roots" and geographical stability with the demands associated with economic and occupational advancement.

2. Men's attitudes toward moving are unaffected by age. There is a trend toward less favorable attitudes toward moving with increasing age in women and children.

Packard (1972) stated that acceptance of moving decreases with increasing age. The families included in

the sample were young and generalizations regarding the association between moving attitudes and age are limited. The tendency for older study children to be less positive regarding moving may be explained by the increasing importance of peer relationships as the child approaches adolescence.

3. <u>There is little association between parents' and children's attitudes toward moving and the time interval since the move, the number of previous moves, and changes in family social status. There is a trend for fathers to have more positive attitudes toward moving with greater distances moved</u>.

All of the families had moved within the previous three months. This is a relatively brief period in terms of the time required for the adjustment process following a move. Ruina (1970) stated that six months to two years are usually required for a person to feel at home in a new location. Many of the families were probably in the activity phase of the transition process as described by Tyhurst (1957) and were involved with "settling-in" their home and learning about needed community resources. Many of the families had not reached the next phase of "psychological arrival" in which depression and withdrawal may occur (Tyhurst 1957). This indicates that the conclusion is valid

for the sample, but provides little information as to possible changes in moving attitudes during the overall adaptation process.

Most of the families could be considered highly mobile as they had moved an average of five times since the birth or adoption of the first child. Packard (1972) stated that the average person moves fourteen times during his entire life. A sample which included more families who were less mobile may have provided more meaningful information. However, the number of previous moves may really not be a factor influencing one's attitude regarding moving. The circumstances surrounding each move are probably of more importance in determining one's feelings regarding a change of residence.

The fact that most of the families appeared affluent may have contributed to the lack of association between attitudes toward moving and any changes in social status. The move apparently did not indicate any drastic changes in social status among families who already lived comfortably. The more positive attitudes toward moving among the men who had moved greater distances may have been a reflection of a longer move often meaning a larger step up on the corporate ladder of success.

4. Children's attitudes toward moving are not reflective of parents' attitudes toward moving.

This is inconsistent with identification theory. One might anticipate that children in mobile families would reveal strong identification with parental figures due to fewer strong attachments with individuals outside the home. Newsweek (1966) described mobile families of executives as "close-knit" due to their frequently having only each other to turn to in new communities.

It is possible that the attitude instruments, especially the CAMS, did not provide an accurate measurement of the families' true attitudes regarding moving. Tuckman (1972) noted that the respondent must know what he feels and thinks in order for accurate data to be collected. The children may not have formulated particular feelings regarding moving. Any strong negative feelings may have been denied due to their being viewed as inappropriate within the family. The fact that the data were collected by a stranger as well as an adult whose age approximated those of the study parents could further have deterred the children from expressing true feelings. It is also known that the formation of attitudes is an intricate process which includes factors other than parental influence.

5. The majority of mobile children evidence no changes in adjustment after a move, according to mothers' reports. Among children who do indicate changes in behavior, more children exhibit favorable, rather than unfavorable changes.

One might anticipate that latency-age children would experience moving more adversely due to the importance of the peer group and community activities at this age level. There appear to be several factors which contributed to this unexpected conclusion.

The issue of how accurate and objective mothers' evaluations of their children's behavior are can be considered. However, previous literature has cited the mother as a reliable informant regarding her child's behavior (Peterson 1961; Glidewell, Mensh, and Gildea 1957). There may have been subtle changes in the children's behavior which was not perceived by the mothers or recorded through the use of the behavior checklist. During the period following a move, the parents are busy "settling-in" the new home and may be less attuned to their children's behavior, unless it is disruptive. Thus, symptoms of withdrawal or depression may be noted less often by mothers. The study did reveal that those children who did evidence changes in

behavior exhibited personality problems, rather than conduct problems.

The study did not measure the incidence of physical illnesses following the move. It is possible that any stress associated with moving would be revealed through physical symptoms in some of the children, rather than in behavioral changes.

Previous literature states that moving has minimal effects on children if the family relationships are healthy (Packard 1972; Tooley 1970; Stubblefield 1955). The apparent adjustment of the majority of the study children postmove suggests that these were generally healthy families.

In two studies exploring the effects of moving on children in high income, well-educated families, the parents described the move as having no effects or good effects on the children (Barrett and Noble 1973; Jones 1973). The study sample was similar to the population in these two studies.

The setting of the study in a new, rapidly growing and highly mobile community may also have contributed to the children's generally satisfactory adjustment following moving. In many areas of the community, one's neighbors are likely to be new, rather than long-time residents. Thus, there are many children seeking new friendships. The

children often share the common experience of having recently moved, which could facilitate feelings of belonging among peers. Many of the study participants voluntarily commented on the friendly, casual nature of their new neighborhoods. Newsweek (1966) and Packard (1972) both noted that many veteran movers prefer homes in newly developed areas because of the greater ease of establishing social relationships there.

6. Children who make a favorable adjustment following a change of residence are from more mobile families, but have moved shorter distances than have other mobile children.

Murphy and Moriarty (1976) observed that previous experience with stressful situations can contribute to improved coping skills and strength. The highly mobile children had had practice in solving the problems often associated with moving.

The fact that these children had moved shorter distances may have permitted them to visit the area prior to the move and/or plan for return visits to friends. Bush (1977) and Ramos (1975) encouraged visiting the new town and providing descriptive information in order to facilitate the child's adjustment.

Mobility may also be an accepted part of the life style of these families. The child may see frequent changes of residence as a normal occurrence in his family.

7. <u>There is generally little association between parental attitudes toward moving and children's postmove adjustment. There is a low, but significant, correlation between children's attitudes toward moving and children's adjustment postmove</u>.

Ramos (1975) and Stubblefield (1955) viewed the parents' attitudes toward moving as vital in determining the child's postmove adjustment. However, research by Pederson and Sullivan (1964) and Shaw (1976) which specifically explored the relationship between parental moving attitudes and mobile children's adjustment produced contradictory findings. The conclusion of this study was similar to that of Shaw who found no correlation between parental moving attitudes and the incidence of emotional disorder in the children.

The low correlation between children's moving attitudes and adjustment postmove is consistent with the work of Aguilera and Messick (1974) who identified one's perception of a potentially stressful event as important in determining whether equilibrium will be maintained.

It should be emphasized that there are multiple intervening variables involved in the relationship between mobility and mental health. Morrison (1965) designated ten variables as important in influencing the relationship between mobility and adjustment. Thus, one could not logically expect a high correlation between one variable of attitude and adjustment.

Implications

The results of this study have implications for nurses and other professionals, such as social workers, psychologists, and physicians, who are concerned with facilitating mental health among families and children. Nurses and others working with families should be cognizant of the potential impact of a change of residence on a family. The study revealed that for children, moving can be a traumatic event or a growth producing opportunity. This research suggests that the detrimental effects of moving on children may have been overemphasized. However, one must consider the various factors which may influence the child and his family in responding to stressful events.

Moving, per se, does not produce problems of adjustment. The professional must carefully assess what factors may influence adjustment of mobile parents and children. Issues such as family structure and relationships,

socioeconomic status, the family value system, and potential opportunities in the new location should be considered. Mental health professionals should also seek more knowledge as to how families and children cope efficiently with moving and other stressful events.

The low correlations between parental and/or children's attitudes toward moving and children's postmove adjustment is reflective of the fact that multiple etiological factors are involved in the production of mental health or illness. The professional must be continually aware of the multiple systems and influences impinging on a child and his family in our rapidly changing society. One must not draw hasty conclusions or make a diagnosis without a full assessment of the patient, including existing and past life stresses and his available coping mechanisms.

The study points out that patients should always be considered as unique individuals. Assumptions should not be made regarding persons because they fall into a certain age, sex, or other category. For instance, the literature represented men as having generally positive feelings regarding moving while women were viewed as responding negatively. The study revealed that this is not necessarily true. The nurse is in a position to assist whoever really needs it, regardless of the expectations of the prevailing culture.

This study illustrated that research results are often unexpected. It would appear obvious based on the principles of general systems theory and the identification process that parental and children's attitudes toward moving would be similar and would be highly correlated with children's adjustment postmove. The results indicate that one must consider the study population and potential intervening factors before drawing final conclusions regarding the variables under consideration.

Unexpected, apparently illogical findings should not be necessarily rejected. The nurse must critically evaluate research reports, consider the reasons for the results, and assess the need for further study in the area. Gaining new knowledge relevant to nursing is a slow, arduous, but essential process if nurses are to increase their understanding of the complexities of man's physical and mental health. Such knowledge can then be applied towards improving nursing practice.

Recommendations

The following recommendations for further research are suggested based on the literature reviewed and the findings of the study:

1. Conduct a longitudinal study involving a large sample of families, from varied socioeconomic and cultural

backgrounds, and measure children's behavior premove and postmove. Explore and identify what techniques and coping mechanisms each family utilized in relation to the moving process. Determine how the family's pattern of coping relates to any changes in physical or mental health status in the children.

2. Conduct a study which assesses family structure and relationships and how these factors are associated with how children cope with stressful events.

3. Conduct a similar study including a larger sample with children of more varied ages and families from a more heterogeneous population. Utilize more thorough, reliable tools to measure attitudes toward moving.

4. Conduct a study exploring the effects of geographical and occupational mobility on the mental health of men in various socioeconomic groups.

5. Conduct a study comparing the expression of various attitudes by parents and children among different socioeconomic and cultural groups.

6. Conduct a longitudinal study over a period of years which compares the incidence of life events, such as a change of residence, with the adjustment level of the individual.

This study has provided further information regarding the complex relationships between mobility and mental health. Rather than providing definitive answers, the study has raised issues for further research.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

CONSENT TO ACT AS A SUBJECT FOR

RESEARCH AND INVESTIGATION

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Form A: Written Presentation to Subject

The following information is to be read to or read by the subject:

1. I hereby authorize Carol Van Dongen, R.N. (Name of person performing procedure) to perform the following procedure or investigation:

Parents and elementary school-age children will be asked to complete a brief questionnaire on attitudes and feelings about moving or change of residence. The mother will also be asked to complete a behavior checklist for each child attending elementary school this year. This will involve approximately forty-five minutes to one hour of total time for the entire family.

2. The procedure of investigation listed in Paragraph 1 has been explained to me by Carol Van Dongen, R.N.

3. I understand that the procedures or investigations described in Paragraph 1 involves the following possible risks:

There is some possibility that thoughts and concerns related to the issue of moving may be raised in the subject's mind. The researcher, Carol Van Dongen, R.N. has agreed to discuss such feelings and provide some assistance in dealing with them, should it be desired.

4. I understand that the procedures or investigations described in Paragraph 1 have the following potential benefits to myself and/or others:

A. The results of the study can be mailed to me at my request.

B. I have the satisfaction of contributing to scientific research and the knowledge base on the subject of moving and mental health.

5. An offer to answer all of my questions regarding the study has been made. If alternative procedures are more advantageous to me, they have been explained. I understand that I may terminate my participation in the study at any time.

_____ _____

Date Subject's signature

(If the subject is a minor, or otherwise unable to sign, complete the following.)

Subject is a minor (age, ____), or is unable to sign because:

_____

_____ _____

Date Father

_____ _____

Date Mother

_____ _____

Date Guardian

APPENDIX B

ATTITUDES TOWARD MOVING
(ADULTS)

This is a form which measures feelings and attitudes about moving or change of residence. Although some of the words may not seem relevant to you in terms of moving, please complete all parts.

WHICH WORD IN EACH PAIR BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT MOVING? MARK "X" IN THE DIRECTION OF YOUR FEELING.

Bad | | | | | | Good

Negative | | | | | | Positive

Failure | | | | | | Success

Unfriendly | | | | | | Sociable

Unhappy | | | | | | Happy

Discontent | | | | | | Content

Tense | | | | | | Relaxed

Frustrated — Challenged

Small — Large

Slow — Fast

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)*

*Numbers are shown here for scoring purposes only and did not appear on the scales completed by study participants. All ten scales were similarly scored.

APPENDIX C

CHILDREN'S ATTITUDES ON MOVING SCALE

CIRCLE THE ANSWER WHICH BEST TELLS HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT MOVING.

Circle: YES, DON'T KNOW, or NO

1.	I would like to grow up in the same house and neighborhood.	YES (1)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (3)*
2.	Children should move to many different schools.	YES (3)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (1)
3.	Having to move is not fair to children.	YES (1)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (3)
4.	Moving to a new town is hard to do.	YES (1)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (3)
5.	Moving to different places is good for children.	YES (3)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (1)
6.	Everyone should move to a new town sometime.	YES (3)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (1)
7.	I have sometimes felt bad about leaving my old house.	YES (1)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (3)
8.	Moving to a new town is fun.	YES (3)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (1)
9.	I really do not like to move.	YES (1)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (3)
10.	I felt happy about coming to a new house and town.	YES (3)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (1)
11.	It bothers me to leave my friends when I move.	YES (1)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (3)
12.	Sometime I would like to move again.	YES (3)	DON'T KNOW (2)	NO (1)

* Numerical values are indicated for scoring purposes only. Values did not appear on scales completed by subjects.

APPENDIX D

BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST

Family Identification Number:_____ Child's Number:_____

Child's Age:_____ School Grade Entering:_____

Please indicate which of the following constitute problems, as far as this child is concerned. If an item does not constitute a problem, encircle the zero, thus 0; if an item constitutes a mild problem, encircle the one, 1; if an item constitutes a severe problem, encircle the two, 2. Please complete every item.

1.	Thumb-sucking	1	2	3
2.	Restlessness, inability to sit still	1	2	3
3.	Attention-seeking, "show-off" behavior	1	2	3
4.	Skin allergy	1	2	3
5.	Does not know how to have fun; behaves like a little adult	1	2	3
6.	Self-consciousness; easily embarrassed	1	2	3
7.	Headaches	1	2	3
8.	Disruptiveness; tendency to annoy and bother others	1	2	3
9.	Feelings of inferiority	1	2	3
10.	Boisterousness, rowdiness	1	2	3
11.	Crying over minor annoyances and hurts	1	2	3
12.	Preoccupation; "in a world of his own"	1	2	3
13.	Shyness, bashfulness	1	2	3
14.	Social withdrawal, preference for solitary activities	1	2	3
15.	Dislike for school	1	2	3
16.	Jealousy over attention paid to other children	1	2	3
17.	Prefers to play with younger children	1	2	3
18.	Short attention span	1	2	3
19.	Lack of self-confidence	1	2	3
20.	Inattentiveness to what others say	1	2	3

21.	Easily flustered and confused	1	2	3
22.	Lack of interest in environment, generally "bored"	1	2	3
23.	Fighting	1	2	3
24.	Nausea, vomiting	1	2	3
25.	Temper tantrums	1	2	3
26.	Reticence, secretiveness	1	2	3
27.	Truancy from school	1	2	3
28.	Hypersensitivity; feelings easily hurt	1	2	3
29.	Laziness in school and in performance of other tasks	1	2	3
30.	Anxiety, chronic general fearfulness	1	2	3
31.	Irresponsibility, undependability	1	2	3
32.	Excessive daydreaming	1	2	3
33.	Masturbation	1	2	3
34.	Hay fever and/or asthma	1	2	3
35.	Tension, inability to relax	1	2	3
36.	Disobedience, difficulty in disciplinary control	1	2	3
37.	Depression, chronic sadness	1	2	3
38.	Uncooperativeness in group situations	1	2	3
39.	Aloofness, social reserve	1	2	3
40.	Passivity, suggestibility; easily led by others	1	2	3
41.	Clumsiness, awkwardness, poor muscular coordination	1	2	3
42.	Stuttering	1	2	3
43.	Hyperactivity; "always on the go"	1	2	3
44.	Distractibility	1	2	3
45.	Destructiveness in regard to his own and/or others' property	1	2	3
46.	Negativism, tendency to do the opposite of what is requested	1	2	3

47.	Impertinence, sauciness	1	2	3
48.	Sluggishness, lethargy	1	2	3
49.	Drowsiness	1	2	3
50.	Profane language, swearing, cursing	1	2	3
51.	Prefers to play with older children	1	2	3
52.	Nervousness, jitteriness, jumpiness; easily startled	1	2	3
53.	Irritability; hot-tempered, easily aroused to anger	1	2	3
54.	Stomach aches, abdominal pain	1	2	3
55.	Specific fears, e.g., of dogs, of the dark, of being alone	1	2	3

Circle one: Would you say your child's behavior has:

1. Remained essentially the same as before moving;

2. Improved since the move; or

3. Changed unfavorably since the move?

Thank you!

APPENDIX E

IDENTIFICATION SHEET

Family Number (assigned by researcher) _____

A. Father's age _____

B. Mother's age _____

C. Children:

Starting with your oldest child, please provide information regarding age, sex, and grade of school entering this fall.

Child	Age	Sex	School Grade Entering
No. 1	___	___	_____
No. 2	___	___	_____
No. 3	___	___	_____
No. 4	___	___	_____
No. 5	___	___	_____
No. 6	___	___	_____

D. Moving Data:

1. Date moved to Plano: _____

2. Approximate distance moved: _____

3. Number of previous moves since birth of first child (or adoption) _____

4. Was this move optional or did you consider it mandatory for job security?
   Circle one: optional / mandatory

5. Would you say this move increased your family's social status, decreased social status, or resulted in no change in social status?
   Circle one: increased / decreased / no change

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX F

TABLE 12

RAW DATA: FAMILY ATTITUDE TOWARD MOVING SCORES, AGE, SEX, BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST SCORES, AND NUMBER OF PREVIOUS MOVES

Family Number	Attitude Scores		Age	Sex	Behavior Scores			Number of Previous Moves
	Adult	CAMS			Total	Conduct Problem	Personality Problem	
1								
Mother	47		34	Female				
Father	59		38	Male				
Child 1		22	10	Female	514	292	222	1
2								
Mother	49		36	Female				
Father	35		36	Male				
Child 1		26	6	Female	519	482	37	12
3								
Mother	64		35	Female				
Father	...		...	Male				
Child 1		27	9	Male	186	62	124	3
4								
Mother	52		35	Female				
Father	48		36	Male				
Child 1		28	10	Female	1146	763	383	
Child 2		21	6	Female	1148	809	339	5
5								
Mother	50		41	Female				
Father	70		46	Male				
Child 1		26	9	Female	437	407	30	6
6								
Mother	68		24	Female				
Father	70		30	Male				
Child 1		20	7	Female	1095	489	606	6

TABLE 12--Continued

Family Number	Attitude Scores		Age	Sex	Behavior Scores			Number of Previous Moves
	Adult	CAMS			Total	Conduct Problem	Personality Problem	
7								
Mother	57		34	Female				
Father	...		...	Male				
Child 1		17	11.5	Male	375	219	156	4
8								
Mother	64		29	Female				
Father	59		38	Male				
Child 1		28	7.5	Male	160	97	63	3
9								
Mother	47		28	Female				
Father	57		31	Male				
Child 1		23	9	Female	629	287	342	
Child 2		18	6.5	Male	500	500	0	4
10								
Mother	54		28	Female				
Father	51		29	Male				
Child 1		18	9	Female	885	178	707	4
11								
Mother	50		27	Female				
Father	65		33	Male				
Child 1		24	6	Male	341	122	219	1
12								
Mother	62		28	Female				
Father	63		30	Male				
Child 1		27	5.5	Male	235	122	113	3

TABLE 12--Continued

Family Number	Attitude Scores		Age	Sex	Behavior Scores			Number of Previous Moves
	Adult	CAMS			Total	Conduct Problem	Personality Problem	
13								
Mother	38		29	Female				
Father	67		33	Male				
Child 1		29	5.5	Female	623	64	559	3
14								
Mother	55		28	Female				
Father	61		36	Male				
Child 1		19	10	Female	781	364	418	3
15								
Mother	54		36	Female				
Father	47		38	Male				
Child 1		25	9	Female	450	360	90	2
16								
Mother	46		35	Female				
Father	46		37	Male				
Child 1		16	10	Female	580	309	271	16
17								
Mother	36		32	Female				
Father	53		32	Male				
Child 1		24	6.5	Male	583	157	426	7
18								
Mother	67		34	Female				
Father	...		...	Male				
Child 1		20	6	Female	306	276	30	3

TABLE 12--Continued

Family Number	Attitude Scores		Age	Sex	Behavior Scores			Number of Previous Moves
	Adult	CAMS			Total	Conduct Problem	Personality Problem	
19								
Mother	32		42	Female				
Father	65		43	Male				
Child 1		25	11	Male	110	0	110	1
20								
Mother	57		35	Female				
Father	...		...	Male				
Child 1		25	8	Male	280	187	93	7
21								
Mother	61		33	Female				
Father	43		35	Male				
Child 1		22	9	Female	1062	472	590	
Child 2		20	7.5	Male	1013	563	450	5
22								
Mother	60		38	Female				
Father	60		39	Male				
Child 1		24	6	Male	1054	702	352	10
23								
Mother	47		36	Female				
Father	48		37	Male				
Child 1		20	9	Female	363	270	93	
Child 2		18	8	Male	641	558	83	6
24								
Mother	62		38	Female				
Father	60		43	Male				
Child 1		23	8.5	Male	969	645	324	7

TABLE 12--Continued

Family Number	Attitude Scores		Age	Sex	Behavior Scores			Number of Previous Moves
	Adult	CAMS			Total	Conduct Problem	Personality Problem	
25								
Mother	33		39	Female				
Father	57		36	Male				
Child 1		17	11	Female	423	271	152	9
26								
Mother	51		40	Female				
Father	56		43	Male				
Child 1		18	10	Female	569	335	234	4
27								
Mother	52		47	Female				
Father	52		46	Male				
Child 1		27	10	Female	549	406	143	0
28								
Mother	38		35	Female				
Father	40		35	Male				
Child 1		23	7.5	Male	1293	895	398	
Child 2		23	6	Female	373	373	0	2
29								
Mother	48		40	Female				
Father	58		42	Male				
Child 1		21	8	Female	552	410	142	6
30								
Mother	70		32	Female				
Father	49		36	Male				
Child 1		28	10	Female	224	118	106	7

TABLE 13

RAW DATA: DISTANCE MOVED, TIME SINCE MOVE, SOCIAL STATUS CHANGES, AND MOVING CIRCUMSTANCES

Family Number	Distance Moved (Miles)	Time Since Move (In weeks)	Social Status			Circumstances	
			Increased	Decreased	Same	Optional	Mandatory
1	2000	4.00	x			x	
2	7	8.00	x			x	
3	10	2.00	x			x	
4	55	1.00		x		x	
5	400	3.00			x	x	
6	6	1.50	x			x	
7	900	1.50			x	x	
8	32	.75	x			x	
9	1500	6.00	x			x	
10	385	2.00			x		x
11	1400	10.00	x			x	
12	1000	2.50	x			x	
13	850	11.00			x		x
14	1600	1.50	x			x	
15	28	3.50	x			x	
16	3	1.00			x	x	
17	1050	.50		x			x

TABLE 13--Continued

Family Number	Distance Moved (Miles)	Time Since Move (In weeks)	Social Status			Circumstances	
			Increased	Decreased	Same	Optional	Mandatory
18	250	2.50	x			x	
19	960	3.00	x			x	
20	920	3.25			x	x	
21	10	8.00			x	x	
22	1500	10.00			x	x	
23	600	8.00		x			x
24	1500	3.00			x		x
25	650	2.00	x			x	
26	1250	3.50			x	x	
27	20	1.00			x	x	
28	1200	3.00	x			x	
29	1000	4.00			x	x	
30	21	5.00	x			x	

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