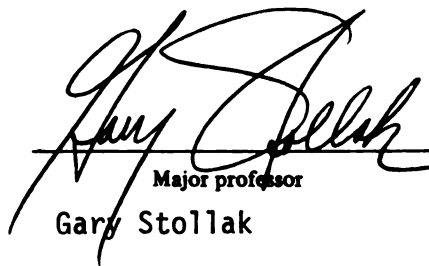This is to certify that the

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT AND DEFENSIVE STYLES
AND PERCEPTIONS OF STRESSFUL AND REWARDING LIFE EVENTS

presented by

Michelle L. Toma

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

__MA._____ degree in __PSYCHOLOGY__

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ABSTRACT

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT AND DEFENSIVE STYLES AND
PERCEPTIONS OF STRESSFUL AND REWARDING LIFE EVENTS

By

Michelle Lynette Toma

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in parital fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Psychology

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT AND DEFENSIVE STYLES AND
PERCEPTIONS OF STRESSFUL AND REWARDING LIFE EVENTS

By

Michelle Lynette Toma

This study attempted to test the hypothesis that two person-based factors,

attachment and defensive styles, were related to perceptions of daily life events as

stressful or rewarding. Ninety-nine undergraduates were chosen from approximately

1500 who participated in a larger study (Aronoff & Stollak, 1994). Several months later,

these 99 students completed a questionnaire assessing perceptions of daily hassles and

uplifts in their lives. Results indicated that subjects in the "Resilient" personality style

group, as classified by attachment and defensive styles, reported that they perceived

significantly fewer and less intense hassles and significantly more and more intense

uplifts than did subjects in the "Dependent" and "Disengaging" personality style groups.

The implications of these findings are discussed in terms of their impact on current

theories of subjective well-being and stress and coping.

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For their part in helping me complete this project, I would like to thank the following people:

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INTRODUCTION

The literature on stress and coping has uncovered a strong relationship between subjective experiences of stress and physical and psychological well-being. Specifically, stressful life experiences have been linked to the subsequent development of somatic illness and psychopathology (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer & Lazarus, 1981; Varni, Rubenfeld, Talbot & Setoguchi, 1989). This trend holds true even when initial levels of symptomatology are taken into account (Wolf, Elston & Kissling, 1989; Cummins, 1990; Russell & Cutrona, 1991; Johnson & Bornstein, 1993). Traditionally, this research has followed a change model of stress and coping, which equates stressful life experiences with life changes (Burks & Martin, 1985; Wagoner, 1990). Therefore, most research in this area has focused on coping responses in the face of objective life changes. However, there is increasing empirical support for the threat model of stress and coping in which experiences are perceived as stressors when they threaten the physical or psychological well-being of an individual (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Burks & Martin, 1985). Accordingly, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) define psychological stress as "a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being." (p. 19).

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This theoretical shift in viewing stressful life events as those reflecting potential threat adds a cognitive appraisal component to the experience of life events. Thus, because different people will not necessarily perceive the same event as equally threatening, the threat model refines the change model by accounting for individual differences in the evaluation of events as potential stressors. Thus, in the threat model personal characteristics not only mediate the impact of experienced stressful events on physical and psychological well-being, but such characteristics also affect the perception of an event as a potential stressor. Change is not always stressful; it is the individual's appraisal of and response to a particular event that determines the stressfulness of that event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Burks & Martin, 1985; Wagner, 1990; Chamberlain & Zika, 1990).

In studying the implications of this model, the task becomes not only to determine which coping styles best equip the person to handle stressful life situations, but also to identify personal characteristics that moderate the tendency to perceive different types of events as stressors in the first place. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) propose that people become susceptible to stress as a result of some sensitivity or vulnerability to certain types of events. They further hypothesize that vulnerability is due to the relationship between the patterns of meaning of particular events to the individual, labeled commitments, and the individual's resources for warding off perceived threats to those commitments. Thus, in this model, vulnerability is viewed as a tendency to perceive threat in areas that hold particular meaning to an individual. When an event has psychological significance for an individual, it may be more likely to be remembered, and

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therefore more likely to be reported. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) also hypothesized that the classes of events to which individuals become vulnerable may be, in turn, determined by a range of person factors. These person variables, then, may influence appraisal by determining which life events are relevant to the individual's well-being in a given situation.

Consequently, several authors have called for an investigation of the personal and environmental correlates and antecedents of stressful experiences (Dohrenwend & Shrout, 1985; Zika & Chamberlain, 1987; Blankstein & Flett, 1992; Farne, Sebellico, Gnugnoli & Corallo, 1992). This method of investigation has been described as the top-down approach to subjective well-being (Feist, Bodner, Jacobs, Miles & Tan, 1995). Top-down theories of subjective well-being propose that people are predisposed to interpret life experiences in either positive or negative ways. This predisposition, then, colors individual's evaluation of satisfaction in particular life domains. The threat model of stress and coping is an example of a top-down theory. This research investigation evaluated, in part, the first assumption of the top-down approach, that people are predisposed to interpret life experiences in characteristic ways. Adult attachment and defensive styles are two person variables that have been hypothesized to be related to perceptions of life experiences as stressors or uplifts. Therefore, this study examined whether people who differ in their adult attachment and defensive styles tend to interpret daily life experiences in characteristically positive or negative ways.

In the pages that follow, the relevant attachment, defense style, and stress literature will be reviewed. A rationale for the current study's hypotheses is then

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presented along with a listing of the hypotheses. The procedures for selecting and

grouping subjects and a description of the questionnaires are presented in the Methods

section. Next, the Results section describes the analyses carried out in testing the

hypotheses and reports the findings of these analyses. Finally, the implications of the

results are discussed in terms of their impact on current theories of subjective well-being

and stress and coping.

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Chapter 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review will present the relevant attachment, defensive style, and stress and coping literature. The review of attachment research will begin with a demonstration of the application of the attachment construct to adult relationships. Next, research studies regarding attachment style differences in perceptions of and responses to stressors are reviewed. This research will be discussed in terms of its relevance to the development of generalized internal working models that are hypothesized to reflect broad views of the rewards and dangers of various life experiences. Following the review of attachment literature, a review of the relevant defensive style research will be presented. The manner in which defensive styles influence perceptions of life experiences will be discussed followed by an examination of the relationship between defensive styles and psychological symptomatology. It will be shown that the weight of the defensive style literature indicates that individuals using different primary defensive styles tend to report differences in the appraisal and reporting of psychological distress. Finally, this review will conclude with an examination of the relevant stress and coping literature.

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Attachment

The modern conceptualization of attachment was initiated by Bowlby (1951) as a reaction to Spitz and Wolf's (1947) work with children raised in orphanages. Over a period of several years, Bowlby refined his theory into a form that closely resembles attachment theory as it is known today (Bowlby, 1969). Attachment theory developed out of four main theoretical traditions (ethology, psychoanalysis, control-systems theory, and cognitive theory), each of which provided an important part of Bowlby's overall conceptualization of attachment. From ethology came the mainstay of Bowlby's theory of attachment, namely the notion that strong social bonds develop between adults and young of a species in order to facilitate the development of reciprocal interaction patterns over time. Psychoanalytic theory added the importance of the special relationship with another person that is necessary in the development of attachment. Control-systems theory provided the foundation for Bowlby's conceptualization of attachment as an adaptive regulatory mechanism for maintaining the infant's close proximity to the caregiver. Finally, cognitive theory supplied the concept of the internal working model of the caregiver that infants develop and that allowed for the development of Ainsworth's (1978) procedure for assessing infant attachment.

Taken together, the existing theoretical notions described above were weaved into a complex theory of the attachment process (Bowlby, 1969). The attachment process is best described as "an adaptive behavioral system with limits that concern the infant's proximity to significant others" (Bowlby, 1988). The major feature of attachment, the control system, is hypothesized to maintain homeostasis by using increasingly

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sophisticated methods of communication for keeping distance from and accessibility to the attachment figure within acceptable limits. Thus, attachment is a process of adaptive behaviors that evolve as caregivers and infants negotiate an adaptive fit to each other. In an evolutionary sense, then, attachment behaviors serve the function of bringing the infant and caregiver into some degree of proximity. Attachment behaviors are generally observed when stressful or threatening conditions are present. It is especially under these circumstances that the adaptive function of attachment behavior is apparent; closeness to the attachment figure reduces the threat of physical and psychological harm and increases the infant's likelihood of survival. Ainsworth expanded this notion and added the emphasis that the set goal of the attachment behavioral system was not the maintenance of proximity, per se, but the young child's feelings of security, which interact with the setting to activate or terminate attachment behavior.

The goal of felt security is attained by the infant's use of the caregiver as a secure base. Security and exploration needs are balanced through the attachment behavioral system which regulates the proximity of the infant to the mother until the infant is developmentally able to recognize danger signals on his/her own. The phenomenon of the secure base led Ainsworth and her colleagues (Ainsworth & Wittig, 1969; Ainsworth, Blehar & Waters, 1978) to develop the Strange Situation as a means of assessing the quality of infant-caregiver attachment.

Continuity Between Attachment in Childhood and in Adulthood. Although the application of attachment theory to adulthood is somewhat controversial, there is ample evidence which suggests that the application is warranted. Indeed, it appears to be the

internal factors discussed above, labeled internal working models, that form the link between attachment in infancy and childhood and attachment in adulthood (Rothbard & Shaver, 1994; Teti & Nakagawa, 1990). Internal working models have been described as by-products of attachment related experiences that include affective, defensive, and descriptive cognitive components (Rothbard & Shaver, 1994; Bretherton, 1985; Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985). They act as heuristics for anticipating and interpreting the behavior and intentions of others (Rothbard & Shaver, 1994; Berman & Sperling, 1994). To the extent that differences in attachment relationships elicit differential social responsiveness, this differential treatment may confirm expectations about the world, which in turn strengthens internal working models and, thus, the stability of attachment patterns across the lifespan (Jacobsen & Wille, 1986; Rothbard & Shaver, 1994). Similarly, internal working models may change through the experience of model-disconfirming social experiences. Studies suggest that this is indeed the case. Rothbard & Shaver (1994) conclude that internal working models appear to mediate the relationship between attachment history and subsequent adult personality by consolidating information about social experiences gathered throughout development.

Adult Attachment. The conclusion that working models mediate the relationship between infant and adult attachment is consistent with findings reported in Hazan and Shaver's (1987) landmark paper extending attachment theory to adult relationships. Hazan and Shaver reported demographic, retrospective, and predictive data that provide evidence for the application and continuity of the attachment construct to adult relationships. In their study, the proportions of adults that rated themselves as securely

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attached, avoidantly attached, and anxiously attached was similar, based on inspection of the proportions, to the proportions of children similarly categorized (56%, 25%, and 19% versus 62%, 23%, and 15% (Campos, 1983, cited from Hazan & Shaver, 1987), respectively). Furthermore, the best predictor of adult attachment type was the subject's perceptions of the quality of the relationship with parents and the parents' relationship with each other. Specifically, securely attached adults described their relationship with their parents as warmer than did insecurely attached adults. Avoidantly attached adults described their mothers as cold and rejecting, while anxiously/ambivalently attached adults described their fathers as unfair. Hazan & Shaver (1987) concluded that these findings lent support to the notion that attachment styles in adulthood may be determined by similar forces as those affecting attachment in infants and children. In addition, the adult attachment styles were predictive of adults' descriptions of their romantic relationships in expected directions derived from extrapolation of findings from research on attachment in infants and children.

Adult Attachment Styles and Responses to Stress. Simpson (1990) and Simpson, Rholes and Nelligan (1992) added to Hazan and Shaver's (1987) findings by showing how adult attachment style was related to support seeking in romantic relationships when under stressful conditions. Simpson et al. (1992) exposed female partners to a description of a stressful experience in which they would be participating. The female partners were then returned to the waiting room where their interactions with their male counterparts were observed. The results indicated that attachment styles influenced the degree of support sought from the partners; securely attached women sought out more support as

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their anxiety increased, while more avoidant women did not. By identifying theoretically meaningful relationship patterns of adults with different attachment styles, some research has demonstrated that attachment theory can provide a viable framework for understanding adult interpersonal relationships (Hazan and Shaver, 1987; Simpson, 1990; Simpson et al., 1992).

Unlike attachment in childhood, which is considered to be primarily related to beliefs and behavior pertaining to social interaction, attachment styles in adulthood have recently been hypothesized to influence a wider range of adult perception and behavior. The cumulative effects of attachment styles in adulthood may not only influence adults' views about the nature of their social world, but may also influence their views about the risks and rewards inherent in the experiences involved in everyday living. This notion has received preliminary support from Feeny and Noller (1990), who have focused on the differential experience of interpersonal relationships by people with different attachment styles. They reported that mental model statements regarding general views of the self and human relationships discriminated between attachment categories better than did statements regarding specific beliefs. Based on this finding the authors suggested that adult attachment styles exert pervasive influence on interpersonal relationships because internal working models seem to reflect general views about the rewards and dangers of social interaction. This finding expands previous applications of attachment theory to adulthood by including all social relationships, in addition to parental and primary love relationships.

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Mikulincer et al., (1993) have recently included an even wider range of world views which may be influenced by internal working models of attachment relationships on the basis of their study of the influence of attachment on the impact of the Gulf War in Israel. They reported that attachment style differences in level of distress just after the Gulf War were not mediated by the use of different coping strategies. Their data are consistent with the hypothesis that insecure people may have generalized working models that exaggerate the appraisal of life adversities as threatening, irreversible, and uncontrollable. They also reported that, compared with secure people, people with anxious-ambivalent attachment styles tend to be described as hypervigilant to sources of distress, while avoidantly attached persons seem to divert negative emotions from awareness.

One personal variable, then, that has the potential to influence the perception of stressful life events is an individual's adult attachment style. One possible way for attachment to influence perceptions of life experiences is through the, "ability to shut off information of certain specified types and of doing so selectively without the person being aware of what is happening." (Bowlby, 1988, p. 34). Bowlby's hypothesis suggests that one possible interpretation is that individuals with different adult attachment classifications by selectively attending or inattending to particular aspects of life experiences may be predisposed to view these experiences as more or less stressful. One personality construct that has been theorized to influence awareness of life experiences in this way is an individual's defensive style. This possibility is supported by the conclusion reached by Mikulincer et al. (1993) that ambivalently attached individuals,

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when compared with people who are securely attached, are described as being hypervigilant to sources of distress, while avoidantly attached persons seem to divert negative emotions from awareness. In this way, adult attachment styles and defensive styles may work in combination to influence individual's appraisal of life experiences as more or less distressing or as more or less rewarding.

Defensive Styles

Defenses may be viewed as unconscious processes that are "consciously or unconsciously designed to reconcile internal and external demands" (Bond, Gardner, Christian & Sigal, 1983). According to Ihilevich & Glesser (1986), defenses accomplish this reconciliation by influencing our perceptions. These influences may work both as constricting processes that limit growth and as adaptive mechanisms that protect and enable people to function. In as much as the use of particular defenses becomes a stylistic way of dealing with conflict or stress, such use may serve to predispose people to perceive their environments and actions in characteristic ways. In an attempt to fit current events into existing self and world views, defensive styles may predispose individuals to approach their life experiences in predictable ways and to appraise them as consistently stressful or rewarding.

A second personal variable, then, that may influence appraisals of life events as positive or negative is an individual's defensive style. According to Morelli & Andrews (1982), the major function of defenses is to resolve conflict between perceptions and internalized values. Defenses function by restricting or focusing the range of memories or perceptions toward which attention is directed, especially if those memories or

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perceptions are expected to arouse anxiety (i.e., under stressful circumstances; Cramer, 1988). Thus, defenses may influence or distort appraisals of life events in order to incorporate them more harmoniously into existing self and world views as well as to promote the self in socially desirable ways (Ihilevich & Gleser, 1986). If individuals begin to develop a pattern of reliance on particular types of defenses, they may be more inclined to perceive their environments in predictably positive or negative ways.

Ihilevich & Gleser (1986) developed a five-part system for the classification of defenses. Their system of classification revolutionized the measurement of defensive styles through the development of a measure of defense mechanisms which has been widely used in research. Their five defense categories also provide a convenient framework with which to organize existing findings in the literature which previously had used many labels and systems of classifying defense mechanisms. The five defensive styles included in the Ihilevich & Gleser (1986) classification system include principalization, reversal, turning against others, projection, and turning against self.

Ihilevich & Gleser (1986) define the principalization defenses as those that reduce the personal significance of perceived threats by diverting attention from specific issues to abstract issues. The affect associated with the specific issue is decreased or detached, allowing the basic issue to remain without its original emotional significance. Defense mechanisms included in this category are intellectualization, rationalization, and denial. Threatening content and negative affect are removed from consciousness with the use of reversal defenses. These defenses are expressed as exaggeratedly cheerful emotions or positive responses to frustrating or threatening events. Defense mechanisms associated

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with this category are denial, repression, and reaction-formation. The turning against object defense are defined as those that involve direct or indirect expressions of aggression. These defenses serve to "bolster self-esteem by creating the illusion of dominance, strength, and control." (p. 19). Individuals employing these defense mechanisms seem to feel as if an attack is their best defensive alternative resulting in either the masking of painful inner conflicts or in perceived mastery of external threats. This category subsumes the defense mechanisms of identification with the aggressor and displacement. Projection defenses are defined as those used to justify hostile thoughts, feelings, or behavior toward others by attributing negative intent or characteristics to them. These defenses bolster self-esteem through a disowning of undesirable characteristics or expressing them in order to make downward comparisons. An illusory sense of mastery over the negative characteristics is gained by rejecting or attacking others who possess the negative attributes. These defenses include most forms of projection and externalization including prejudice, scapegoating, jealousy, and paranoid delusions. Finally, the turning against self defenses are often expressed in terms of exaggerated self-criticism, negative expectations, and depressed affect. These defenses serve to bolster self-esteem by reducing the threatening effects of negative experiences. In other words, by "anticipating the worst" the consequences of negative experiences for self-esteem are reduced. This category of defense mechanisms includes intrapunitive mechanisms including self-inflicted and other-inflicted pain and disappointment.

Defensive Styles and Perceptions of Life Experiences. Following this, several relationships have been reported between the use of defense mechanisms and individuals'

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appraisals of their life experiences. Gleser and Sacks (1973) asked students to rate their overall level of skill prior to taking an ability test; the students were also asked to evaluate their abilities after taking the test. The results indicated that at post-test, higher estimates of ability were related to the use of the defenses turning against others and projection and lower estimates were related to the use of reversal and turning against self. Interestingly, individuals who primarily utilize principalization as a defense reported no change in their post-test estimates of ability, although they tended to score the worst on the ability test.

Kipper and Ginot (1979) also reported that subjects' defensive styles influenced the accuracy of their self-evaluations. When evaluating videotaped segments of themselves and others, people who primarily used the defenses projection and reversal tended to respond with the greatest distortions in the reporting of their behavior. It is important to underscore that these distortions only occurred when the high projection and reversal subjects rated their own behavior. When these subjects evaluated the other participants' behaviors, they were as accurate as were the objective raters. Taken together, these two studies lend support to the notion that although defensive styles may not lead to distortions in the appraisal of non-salient events, they can and do exert an influence over individual's perceptions of their own life experiences as positive or negative.

Defensive Styles and Well-Being. In a recent review of the literature, Cramer (1988) argued that the internalizing/externalizing tendencies inherent in the structure of the various defensive styles may manifest themselves in the willingness of the individual

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to report psychological distress as well as in the propensity to interpret life experiences in characteristic ways. For example, the psychological defense of principalization seems to inhibit the reporting of symptomatology, while those employing the defense turning against others appear to be more willing to report symptomatology. More specifically, Cramer concluded that women who primarily use turning against others and projection as defenses were more likely to report psychological distress than were those using other defenses. Principalization and reversal were negatively related to symptom distress. This relationship between the use of principalization and reversal and lack of reporting psychological symptomatology gained additional support in a later study (Noam & Recklitis, 1990).

Several researchers have suggested that the relationship between lack of reporting symptomatology and the psychological defenses principalization and reversal may not reflect actual lower levels of distress, but alternatively may be reflective of a bias towards a socially desirable presentation and denial of symptoms (Haan, 1965; Gordon & Brackney, 1979; Kipper & Ginot, 1979; Cramer, 1988; Noam & Recklitis, 1990). Reversal and principalization have been shown to be positively related to the MMPI Denial and Lie Scales, to the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Haan, 1965) and to defensiveness (Gordon & Brackney, 1979). These findings were supported by two subsequent studies which also indicated that reversal and principalization were related to social desirability and/or to distortions in the appraisals of life events. In one study, when subjects were instructed to respond in a socially desirable way to a questionnaire designed to tap defensive styles, they tended to decrease their usage of turning against

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others and projection and increased their use of principalization and reversal (Dudley, 1978). In a second study, students gave self-ratings of their propensity to succeed at an ability test (unknown to the students, the test was constructed to be extremely difficult; Gleser & Sacks, 1973). Results indicated that students who tended to use principalization as a defense reported no change in their estimates of their abilities after failing the test. The authors concluded that the failure of subjects who use principalization to change their estimates of their abilities was reflective of either a bias toward social desirability or of the distortions these subjects made in their appraisals of the event.

However, other researchers contend that the lack of reporting associated with principalization and reversal does reflect an actual lower level of distress when compared with that reported by individuals using primarily turning against others, turning against self or projection (Wilson, 1982; Morelli & Andrews, 1982). Wilson (1982) reported that defensive styles predicted fear prior to surgery and response to stress after surgery. In this study, women undergoing surgery were followed throughout their recovery periods. The results indicated that fear prior to surgery was positively related to the patients' usage of projection and turning against others and negatively related to their usage of reversal and turning against self. Furthermore, women who were low on the defenses of projection and turning against others and who were high on the use of reversal and turning against self reported better hospital recoveries, used less medication, and required less contact with physicians. This study was able to demonstrate a link between individual's defensive styles and their appraisals of and reactions to stressful life events. To date, very few studies like Gleser and Sacks (1973) and Wilson (1982) have been

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conducted that have compared retrospective reports of individuals differing in defensive styles with appraisals and behavioral observations of those events.

In general, the literature suggests that the use of defenses that locate conflict outside of the self (turning against others and projection) are positively associated with externalizing symptomatology; those that locate conflict within the self (turning against self) are positively associated with internalizing symptomatology (Noam & Recklitis, 1990; Klusman, 1982; Gur & Gur, 1975; Gleser & Sacks, 1973). The use of the psychological defense turning against others has been shown to be consistently associated with externalizing psychopathology, aggression, and delinquency in both men and women (Noam & Recklitis, 1990). In this same study, projection was positively associated with externalizing problems and aggression in women and with depression and thought disorder in men. In women, turning against self was associated with depression. Similar findings were achieved by a study that examined the relationship between defense mechanisms and affective responses to external threats (Klusman, 1982). In this study, the defense turning against others was most strongly positively associated with hostility directed outward, while turning against self was most strongly positively related to feelings of anxiety and hostility directed inward.

Overall, it appears that the weight of the literature indicates that a difference exists in the appraisal and reporting of psychological distress by individual's using different primary defensive styles. In general, individuals primarily utilizing the defenses turning against others and projection tend to report more distress and symptomatology than do

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Subjective Well-Being

Conceptualizations of Stress. According to the literature on stress and coping, there are two ways to conceptualize life stress: as the frequency of major life events or the frequency and intensity of daily hassling events (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer & Lazarus, 1981; DeLongis, Coyne, Dakof, Folkman & Lazarus, 1982; Monroe, 1983; Dohrenwend, Dohrenwend, Dodson & Shrout, 1984; Burks & Martin, 1985; Flannery, 1986; Wagner, 1990; Russell & Cutrona, 1991). The conceptualization of stress as major life events defines stress as equivalent to change (Burks & Martin, 1985; Wagner, 1990). The focus of stress as major life events is on the individual's social readjustment following major life changes. In contrast, the daily hassle conceptualization of stress focuses on the transactional nature of stress and on the individual's cognitive appraisal of the events as hassles. This conceptualization has been termed the threat model in which events are deemed stressful only when reflecting a problem or potential threat (Burks & Martin, 1985). Correlations between major life events and daily hassles are moderate ($r = .50$) and decrease ($r = .38$) when overlapping content items are excluded.

Researchers have noted strengths and weaknesses in both conceptualizations of stress. One of the main criticisms of the major life events approach is that it confuses change with stress (Wagner, 1990). Change is not always stressful, and it is the individual's appraisal of and response to a particular event that determines the stressfulness of that event (Burks & Martin, 1985; Wagner, 1990; Chamberlain & Zika,

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1990). In contrast, by definition daily hassles are those daily events that the individual perceives as distressing. Thus, in terms of this criticism, the daily hassles conceptualization of stress is an improvement over the major life events conceptualization.

A second major criticism of the major life events conceptualization is that they lack event detail; they only include broad categories of items. Daily hassles, on the other hand, consist of minute, detailed events that cover a broad range of topic categories.

Finally, according to Wagner (1990), major life events may have less relevance to physical and psychological functioning than do daily hassles. Even so, daily hassles have been criticized for being too subjective and appraisal-based and are possibly more affected by psychological symptomatology and mood. However, Dohrenwend & Shrout (1985) reported that after confounded daily hassles items were removed from analyses, the remaining unconfounded items were as highly correlated with measures of symptomatology as were the original items. In addition, the relationship between daily hassles and psychological outcomes is moderate and significant even after initial symptom levels are considered (Monroe, 1983; Lu, 1991). These findings call into question the criticism that daily life events are confounded with psychological distress. Because they found that major life events had more of an impact than daily hassles on an individual's energy level, DeLongis et al. (1982) suggested that major life events may actually be more likely to be confounded with psychological well-being than are daily hassles. The authors also hypothesized that a strong relationship between hassles and *physical* well-being would decrease the likelihood that the relationship between hassles

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and *psychological* symptomatology is an artifact of an underlying stress factor. Their results supported this view. Taken together, these findings suggest that daily hassles may not be as confounded with psychological symptomatology as once thought.

Relationship Between Life Stress and Well-Being. The main debate in the literature centers around which conceptualization of stress is the best predictor of later physical and psychological outcomes. Several studies have investigated the relationship between stress and physical and psychological well-being. It appears from the literature that daily hassles are better predictors of physical and mental well-being than are major life events (Burks & Martin, 1985). In the earliest study comparing daily hassles to major life events in the prediction of later psychological symptomatology, Kanner et al. (1981) reported that hassles were better overall predictors of symptomatology than were major life events. Furthermore, major life events rarely added to the amount of variance accounted for by daily hassles, indicating that daily hassles subsumed the effects due to major life events. In as much as major life events influence the details of daily living, this finding makes intuitive sense. This conclusion has been supported by Russell & Cutrona (1991), who suggest that major life events exert their influence on depression by affecting the experience of daily hassles. Chamberlain & Zika (1990) concluded from their study that daily hassles are also independently predictive of psychological outcome; they are not merely moderators of the relationship between major life events and psychological outcomes.

One criticism of the Kanner et al. (1981) study is that it failed to control for the subjects' initial levels of psychopathology, making it difficult to conclude that hassles

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were potent predictors of subsequent symptomatology. This study was improved upon by Monroe (1983), who included subjects' initial levels of psychopathology in his analyses. Results of this study indicated that the relationship between daily hassles and symptomatology was reduced when previous symptomatology was considered, although the relationship remained significant. In addition, daily hassles continued to explain more of the variance in symptomatology than did major life events.

Two more recent studies by Wolf, Elston, & Kissling (1989) and Lu (1991) provide additional support for these initial findings. Wolf et al. (1989) examined the relationship between daily hassles and mood in a sample of freshman medical students. Consistent with earlier findings, they reported that hassles were significantly related to psychological well-being even after controlling for initial levels of mood and symptomatology. Lu (1991) reported a moderate positive relationship between daily hassles and subsequent psychopathology after initial levels of psychopathology were partialled out. It was concluded that hassles are a significant predictor of psychological symptomatology even after initial psychological symptoms are considered.

Finally, Russell & Davey (1993) examined the relationship between daily hassles, major life events, and anxiety in college undergraduates. They reported that the severity and frequency of daily hassles, but not major life events, were related to anxiety and worrying. In a multiple regression analysis, the severity of daily hassles accounted for 27% of the variance in trait anxiety and accounted for 13% of the variance in worrying. Major life events did not add significantly to the prediction.

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Thus, the overall pattern of results seems to indicate that daily hassles are superior to major life events in the prediction of physical and psychological well-being. It may be that major life events indirectly influence well-being. Furthermore, the trend in the recent literature suggests that this stronger relationship between daily hassles and outcomes may not be due to a confound between daily hassles and psychological symptomatology. In other words, it may be that daily hassles' more proximal effects are more salient to psychological well-being than are major life events' more distal effects (Burks & Martin, 1985).

Daily Hassles and Daily Uplifts. Researchers have also focused on the direct relationship between daily hassles, daily uplifts, and psychological well-being. If daily hassles can be defined as specific, narrowly defined, negative events, daily uplifts have been conceptualized to be the positive counterpart to daily hassles. Many studies report finding a significant, positive, low-order correlation between hassles and uplifts (e.g., Wolf et al., 1989); others report no correlation (Monroe, 1983). Daily uplifts are often ignored in the research literature. In part this negligence is due to the current stress and coping literature's focus on negative affect, psychological symptomatology, and physical health, outcome variables that tend to be significantly related to daily hassles but not to daily uplifts (Kanner et al., 1981; Monroe, 1983; DeLongis, Coyne, Dakof, Folkman & Lazarus, 1982). The two studies that reported a significant correlation between daily uplifts and physical and psychological symptomatology concluded that the results seemed to reflect shared variance between hassles and uplifts (Kanner et al., 1981; DeLongis et al., 1982).

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The available information regarding the relationship between uplifts and positive affect is also inconsistent. Kanner et al. (1981) reported that the frequency and intensity of uplifts is significantly related to positive mood. However, a more recent study did not replicate this finding (Wolf et al., 1989). These authors reported that uplifts were not significantly related to either positive or negative mood. Rather, life stress (hassles and major life events) accounted for significant amounts of the variance in positive mood. Even more recently, Kanner & Feldman (1991) reported that it is not the frequency of uplifts, per se, that is related to subsequent mood, but it is the individual's perceived control over uplifts that is significantly related to well-being. In this study, individual's low perceived control over hassles and uplifts was significantly related to high levels of depression. Furthermore, high perceived levels of control over uplifts more strongly mediated the positive effects of uplifts on good psychological outcomes than the negative effects of hassles on good psychological outcomes. The authors concluded that the relationship between perceived control over daily hassles and outcomes exists because of the shared variance between this construct and perceived control over uplifts.

Personality Variables and Daily Life Events. Thus far, the concepts of daily life hassles and uplifts have been used primarily as independent variables in the prediction of psychological well-being. But, how is it that individuals, when faced with similar daily experiences, evaluate and interpret the potential for threat and satisfaction differently? Because the appraisal process is hypothesized to result in an individual's evaluating daily happenings as problematic or rewarding, many researchers have focused on personal variables as important determinants of the experience of daily hassles and uplifts.

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Studies of the mediating effects of personal variables on the relationship between stress and well-being have not been fruitful. Although personal variables have been shown to be related to both daily hassles and subjective distress, evidence for such variables mediating the hassles-distress relationship is sparse (Farne, Sebellico, Gnugnoli & Corallo, 1992). Farne et al. (1992) reported that the variables of "ego strength" and "barrier" are significantly negatively correlated with the number of daily hassles experienced ($r = -.32$ and $-.59$, respectively) and are negatively correlated with subjective distress ($r = -.19$ and $-.53$, respectively). However, this study relied mostly on correlational data which are not sufficient to test the mediation hypothesis. Therefore, despite the authors' contention that the correlational data support the mediation hypothesis, no firm conclusion regarding personality mediation of the stress-psychopathology relationship can be drawn. Kanner & Feldman (1991) examined the impact of perceived control over hassles and uplifts on sixth graders' psychological adjustment. They reported that only when subjects reported high perceived control over uplifts was the relationship between uplifts and positive psychological adjustment significant. However, a more recent study conducted by Blankstein & Flett (1992) failed to replicate Kanner & Feldman's (1991) findings. Instead, Blankstein & Flett (1992) reported that although locus of control accounted for unique variance in psychological adjustment for both men and women, it neither moderated nor mediated the effects of daily stress on adjustment. This pattern of results supports the conclusion reached by Zika & Chamberlain (1987) that personality variables, although related to both daily hassles and subjective distress and well-being, do not moderate or mediate the stress-

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distress relationship. Instead, they reasoned that personal characteristics are likely to influence people's appraisal of daily life events as hassling. Thus, rather than moderating the effects of stress on well-being, personal variables may exert influence earlier in the model, directly through the appraisal of daily hassles. Several researchers have reached similar conclusions and have called for investigations of the personal and environmental antecedents of individual and group differences in the experience of life events as hassling and rewarding (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Dohrenwend & Shrout, 1985; Blankstein & Flett, 1992; Zika & Chamberlain, 1987). To date, few studies have been conducted that have examined these potential relationships.

This study was conducted in a preliminary effort to identify two personal variables that, in combination, may be related to individuals' perceptions of hassling and rewarding events in their lives. In doing so, it also provides preliminary evidence for the usefulness of top-down theories of subjective well-being; that is, the theory that people are predisposed to interpret life experiences in characteristically positive or negative ways.

Rationale for Hypotheses

This study was an evaluation of part of the first assumption of the top-down theory of subjective well-being, that people are predisposed to interpret life experiences in either positive or negative ways. To that end, the association between constellations of adult attachment and defensive styles to the interpretation of life events as stressful and rewarding were examined. Adult attachment and defensive styles were grouped to form aggregates of individuals that range in their adaptive capacity to cope with stressful life

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experiences. This arrangement resulted in the formation of three groups reflecting "Resilient", "Dependent", and "Disengaging" styles based upon the grouping of their defensive and attachment categories. A similar procedure for grouping subjects by defensive classification has been used successfully in previous studies (Aronoff, Stollak, & Woike, 1994; Woike, Aronoff, Stollak & Loraas, 1994).

The Resilient group consists of individuals who tend to be more mature in their defensive functioning and who have secure adult attachment styles. The Dependent group consists of individuals who are less mature defensively and who have been classified as anxiously attached. Finally, the Disengaging group included those individuals who tend to be less defensively mature and who have predominantly avoidant adult attachment styles. (See Methods Section for a more detailed description of the selection procedure and grouping criteria).

Individuals in the Resilient group are securely attached and defensively more mature. That is, they have been shown to possess internal working models that reflect generally positive views about the world and their experiences, as well as to possess defenses that have been shown to limit the existence or reporting of distress. People with these characteristics have reported fewer physical and psychological symptoms (Cramer, 1988; Noam & Recklitis, 1990), reported less fear prior to surgery and better hospital recoveries (Wilson, 1982), and reported less distress after the Gulf War (Mikulincer et al., 1993). Therefore, I hypothesized that they will report a lower frequency and intensity of hassles relative to uplifts. In addition, it was hypothesized that this pattern of lower

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hassles and higher uplifts would also hold true when the Resilient group is compared to both the Dependent and Disengaging groups.

The Dependent group has been described as being hypervigilant to and ambivalent about their life experiences. People with these characteristics have been shown to report more emotional highs and lows (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), higher scores on mania (Feeney & Noller, 1990), more externalizing symptomatology (Noam & Recklitis, 1990; Klusman, 1982; Gur & Gur, 1975), hostile affective responses to external threats (Klusman, 1982), and increased reporting of psychological distress (Cramer, 1988). Therefore, I hypothesized that they would report high frequencies and intensities of both hassles and uplifts.

Finally, the Disengaging group has been described as possessing a tendency to divert emotions from awareness and as approaching their life experiences with caution. These characteristics have been associated with increased use of distancing coping strategies (Mikulincer, Florian, & Weller, 1993), a tendency to defensively inhibit negative emotional experiences, and reduced support seeking in threatening situations (Simpson, 1990). Therefore, I hypothesized that they would report low levels of both hassles and uplifts. Thus, the between-group patterns of hassles and uplifts were hypothesized as follows: dependent hassles reported > avoidant hassles > resilient hassles and resilient uplifts > dependent uplifts > avoidant uplifts reported.

The second set of hypotheses concerns the content of the life experiences most frequently reported as hassling and rewarding by each personality style group. Dependent individuals tend to have difficulty in their social relationships and have also

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been described as being hypervigilant to sources of distress. Socially, they report less enduring relationships and extreme sexual attraction and jealousy (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), higher levels of hostility (Mikulincer, Florian, & Weller, 1993), obsessive preoccupation with romantic relationships, emotional dependence, and low friendship scores (Feeney & Noller, 1990), and they reported less commitment and trust in their relationships (Simpson, 1990). Therefore, on the basis of these patterns of results, I hypothesized that they would report a greater proportion of social/family hassles than will either the Resilient or the Avoidant groups.

At first glance, it may appear to be an oversight to have left the Disengaging group out of this prediction. However, although Disengaging individuals should tend to have unsatisfactory interpersonal relationships, they also tend to divert negative emotions from awareness, reported fewer and less intense love relationships (Feeney & Noller, 1990), and reported less emotional distress following the dissolution of a relationship (Simpson, 1990). For these reasons, they were not predicted to report a significantly large number of social hassles and, instead, I hypothesized that they would report a significantly lower proportion of social uplifts. Furthermore, because the attachment styles of Disengaging individuals should lead them to be avoidant of significant social interactions in general, it was expected that they will report experiencing a greater proportion of non-social life events overall. Therefore, I hypothesized that they would report a greater proportion of non-social uplifts than social uplifts relative to themselves as well as to the Resilient and Dependent groups.

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Questionnaire that have not been routinely investigated by research in the summarized

literature review presented above, although some studies may have placed a greater

emphasis on them than others. However, the importance of these variables to the well-

being and psychosocial adjustment of the college students in this investigation is

theoretically important. These variables include health concerns, concerns about the self

or sense of competence concerns (termed inner concerns), and academic or work

concerns. These variables were included in this investigation on an exploratory basis.

Hence, no specific directional hypotheses were made regarding their relationship to the

personality styles.

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Chapter 2

HYPOTHESES

Hassles and Uplifts Frequency and Intensity

1. Within-group hypotheses for the frequency and intensity of hassles and uplifts were hypothesized to be as follows:

a. Participants in the Resilient personality style group will tend to report low frequency and intensity of hassles and high frequency and intensity of uplifts.

b. Subjects in the Dependent group will tend to report high frequencies and intensities of both hassles and uplifts.

c. Participants in the Disengaging group will tend to report low frequencies and intensities of both hassles and uplifts.

Personality Group	Hassles	Uplifts
Resilient	Low	High
Dependent	High	High
Disengaging	Low	Low

2. Between-group hypotheses for the frequency and intensity of hassles and uplifts were hypothesized as follows:

a. Participants in the Dependent personality style group will report the highest number and intensity of hassles compared to the Resilient and Disengaging personality style groups.

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b. Individuals in the Disengaging personality style group will report the lowest number and intensity of uplifts compared to the Resilient and Dependent personality style groups.

Hassles and Uplifts Content

3. Between-group hypotheses for the content of hassles and uplifts were as follows:

a. People in the Dependent personality style group will report a greater proportion of social/family hassles than will either Disengaging or Resilient individuals.

b. Participants in the Disengaging personality style group will report a lower proportion of social/family uplifts than will those in the Resilient and Dependent personality style groups.

c. Individuals in the Disengaging personality style group will report a greater proportion of non-social uplifts than will those in the Resilient or Dependent personality style groups.

4. Exploratory Hypotheses

a. The literature on defensive styles has investigated the relationship between the use of particular defense mechanisms and reported health concerns. Because this area has been an important area of focus in past literature, the potential relationships between personality style (as defined by attachment and defensive classifications) and reported health concerns was explored.

b. Because personal well-being is an important related concept to stress, the potential relationship between personality style and the proportion of inner concerns reported was be examined.

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c. Because of the importance of academic work to the psychosocial adjustment of college students, who served as participants in this investigation, the potential relationships between personality style and the proportion of academic concerns was examined.

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Chapter 3

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects for this study were 99 undergraduate psychology students attending

Michigan State University who were part of a larger sample (approximately 1500)

involved in an ongoing study regarding stress and coping in college students (Aronoff &

Stollak, 1994). The students were recruited in two ways: (1) a portion of the volunteers

were enrolled in Interdisciplinary Studies in Social Sciences courses and received no

compensation for participation; (2) other participants were enrolled in introductory

psychology classes and received research credits in return for their participation.

Demographic Characteristics. Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of

the subjects used in this study. Forty-three percent of the sample was male (N=43) and

57% of the sample was female (N=56). The age of the participants ranged from 17 to 22.

The sample was 88.5% Caucasian (N=85), 5.2% African American (N=5), 4.2% Hispanic

(N=4) and 2.1% Asian (N=2). Table 1 also presents family income, parents' educational

and marital status, participants' relationship status, and the participants' years in

attendance at Michigan State University.

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Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample (N = 99)

	Total	Percent of Sample
Sex		
Males	43	43
Females	56	57
Age		
17-18	75	77.3
19-20	19	19.6
21-22	3	3.1
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	85	88.5
African American	5	5.2
Hispanic	4	4.2
Asian	2	2.1
Family Income		
< $ 10,000	1	1
$ 10-30,000	8	8.2
$ 30-60,000	18	18.6
$ 60-100,000	48	49.5
> $ 100,000	22	22.7
Participant's Relationship Status		
Single not dating	35	36.1
Dating several people	34	35.1
Dating for at least one year	25	25.8
Engaged	3	3.1

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Demographic Characteristics of the Sample cont'd (N = 99)

	Total	Percent of Sample
Number years at MSU		
1	79	81.4
2	13	13.4
3	4	4.1
4	1	1.0
Father's Education		
Drop out	4	4.1
High school	6	6.2
Some college	22	22.7
College graduate	36	37.1
Professional/graduate degree	29	29.1
Mother's Education		
Drop out	1	1.0
High school	18	18.6
Some college	18	18.6
College graduate	36	37.1
Professional/graduate degree	24	24.7
Parents' Marital Status		
Married	67	75.3
Separated	1	1.1
Divorced within the past year	2	2.2
Divorced over one year	7	7.9
Remarried	12	13.5

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Initial Data Collection Procedure

In Fall, 1993, Michigan State University undergraduates were recruited through

Interdisciplinary Studies in Social Sciences courses and through the MSU Department of

Psychology Subject Pool. The nearly 1500 students who volunteered were asked to

complete consent forms and several questionnaires regarding themselves, their

relationships, and their defensive styles (Aronoff & Stollak, 1994). These testing

sessions were conducted in groups of approximately 40 to 300 students each and lasted

approximately two hours. Each group was monitored by a first or second year graduate

student. At that time the undergraduates were also asked for their permission to be

contacted for future research opportunities.

Initial Measures

Demographic and Background Information. Subjects were asked to respond to a

questionnaire concerning sex, age, racial background, marital/relationship status, marital

status of parents, and family background.

Defense Mechanism Inventory. The Defense Mechanism Inventory (See

Appendix A;Gleser & Ihilevich, 1969) was used as a measure of students' defensive

styles. The DMI is a 200-item, multiple-choice questionnaire consisting of ten vignettes,

each of which is hypothesized to represent one of five conflict areas (Ihilevich & Gleser,

1986). The conflict areas addressed by the DMI are: situational, authority,

independence, competition, and either masculinity or femininity. Students were

instructed to read each vignette and then to rate five response alternatives based on their

actual responses, their impulsive responses, their thoughts, and their feelings in relation to

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the situation described in the story. Each of the five response alternatives presented represents one of five defenses: Turning Against Self (TAS), Projection (PRO), Principalization (PRN), Turning Against Object (TAO), and Reversal (REV). Students are instructed to rate each defense response alternative according to its representativeness of their typical reaction to the situation. Only the most and least representative statements are singled out (rated a 3 and 1 respectively), while all other statements are rated equally (2). An individual's preferred defensive style is the sum of the ratings given to each alternative.

The DMI subscales have been shown to have adequate internal consistency and test-retest reliabilities. The TAO subscale has an average internal consistency of .80 and a test-retest reliability of .82, PRO has an average internal consistency of .61 and an average test-retest reliability of .62, PRN has an average internal consistency of .69 and an average test-retest reliability of .72, TAS has an average internal consistency of .70 and an average test-retest of .71, and the REV subscale has an average internal consistency of .78 and an average test-retest reliability of .78 (Ihilevich & Gleser, 1986).

Relationships Questionnaire. Adult attachment style was measured via the Relationships Questionnaire (See Appendix B; Aronoff & Stollak, 1994), which is a compilation of several pre-existing measures of adult attachment, each of which has been shown to possess good reliability and validity (e.g. Hazen & Shaver, 1987; Simpson, 1990; Collins & Read, 1990; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Brennan & Shaver, 1993). The result was a 58 item, forced-choice questionnaire which asked the respondent to rate statements regarding his/her general views about relationships. Statements were rated on

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a five point Likert-type scale that ranges from Not at All Like Me (1) to Very Much Like Me (5). The last question (based on Hazan & Shaver, 1987) deviated from this format and required the student to evaluate the three attachment styles and to choose the one that best describes him or her. Secondly, each attachment style was rated according to the five point scale outlined above. In order to arrive at a rating that would reflect the respondent's general relationship style, care was taken in wording questions so that the relationship statements would apply to a wide range of possible attachment relationships (e.g. friends, family, romantic relationships).

The factor structure of the Relationship Questionnaire (Aronoff & Stollak, 1994), based on 1,364 protocols, indicated that three factors reflecting mistrust of intimate contact, fear of loss, and secure intimacy emerge (See Appendix C for a listing of items). The Mistrust of Intimacy Scale consisted of 9 items, had a reliability of .85 (coefficient Alpha), and accounted for 22.7% of the variance of the questionnaire. The Fear of Loss Scale consisted of 19 items, had a reliability of .91, and accounted for an additional 9.6% of the variance of the questionnaire. The Secure Intimacy Scale consisted of 10 items, had a reliability of .85, and explained an additional 4.5% of the variance of the questionnaire. These three attachment style factors correspond well with the three general attachment styles identified in infants and children (i.e., secure (secure), anxious ambivalent (dependent), and anxious avoidant (disengaging); Ainsworth, 1978) and correspond well with those that are predicted to be present in adulthood (Bowlby, 1988).

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Initial Data Analyses and Grouping of Subjects

Subjects were divided into three personality groups labeled Resilient, Dependent, and Disengaging. Subjects were assigned to "defensively mature" and "defensively immature" groups based on their pattern of scores on the DMI. To be classified as defensively mature, subjects had to score one standard deviation above the mean on Principalization, one standard deviation below the mean on either Projection or Turning Against Self, and at or below the mean on the other (Projection or Turning Against Self). To be classified as defensively immature, subjects scored one standard deviation below the mean on Principalization, one standard deviation above the mean on either Projection or Turning Against Self, and at or above the mean on the other (Projection or Turning Against Self).

To be classified as Resilient, subjects who were also classified as defensively mature (on the basis of DMI data) needed to score above the mean on Secure Intimacy, and below the mean on Mistrust of Intimacy and Fear of Loss scales of the Relationships Questionnaire. To be classified as Dependent, subjects had to be classified as defensively immature on the basis of the DMI and had to score below the mean on Secure Intimacy, at or below the mean on Mistrust of Intimacy, and above the mean on the Fear of Loss Scale. To be classified as Disengaging, subjects had to be classified as defensively immature and had to score below the mean on Secure Intimacy, at or below the mean on Fear of Loss, and above the mean on Mistrust of Intimacy.

This method of selecting subjects resulted in the identification of three distinct

personality groups, labeled as Resilient, Dependent, and Disengaging, characterized as

follows (See Figure 1).

This method of grouping subjects was supported by correlational analyses

between the above subscales. Table 2 presents these correlations for the entire sample

(N=1500).

	Variable	Personality Group		
		Resilient	Dependent	Disengaging
DMI	Principalization	1 S.D. above the mean	1 S.D. below the mean	1 S.D. below the mean
	Projection and Turning Against Self	1 S.D. below the mean on one and at or below the mean on the other	1 S.D. above the mean on one and at or above the mean on the other	1 S.D. above the mean on one and at or above the mean on the other
RQ	Secure Intimacy	Above the mean	Below the mean	Below the mean
	Fear of Loss	Below the mean	Above the mean	At or below the mean
	Mistrust of Intimacy	Below the mean	At or below the mean	Above the mean

Figure 1 - Subject Grouping Procedures

Of the students whose scores classified them into one of the three personality

groups, ninety-nine agreed to be interviewed, resulting in the following sex X personality

distribution (See Figure 2).

Table 2

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* Pearson
* p < .05
** p < .0
*** p < .(

Table 2

Correlations[a] Between Relationships Questionnaire and Defense Mechanism Subscales
(N=1248)

	Relationships Questionnaire Subscale		
	Mistrust of Intimacy	Fear of Loss	Secure Intimacy
DMI Subscale			
Principalization	-.10***	-.29***	.08**
Reversal	-.18***	-.30***	.11***
Projection	.08**	.14***	-.12***
Turning Against Others	.09**	.14***	-.07*
Turning Against Self	.10**	.26***	.02
Maturity	-.14***	-.27***	.12***

[a] Pearson r's for the correlations between RQ and DMI subscales
* p < .05
** p < .01
*** p < .001

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Personality Group

		Resilient	Dependent	Disengaging	Totals
	Female	21	17	18	56
Sex					
	Male	16	13	14	43
	Totals	37	30	32	99

Figure 2 - Distribution of subjects by sex and personality group

Approximately one semester later, students who agreed to return participated in an

1 ½ hour videotaped interview in which they were asked first to complete and then to be

interviewed about their responses to the Hassles and Uplifts questionnaire.

Undergraduate assistants served as the interviewers. At that time, students also

participated in a food savoring task, which is not related to this thesis study. Students

were each paid $10 for their participation in this phase of the research project.

Measures

Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire. A modified version of the Hassles and Uplifts

Questionnaire (See Appendix D; Lazarus & Folkman, 1989) was used to measure the

content, frequency, and intensity of daily life events (both positive and negative). This

questionnaire was initially developed for use with an adult population and was modified

for use with college students. More specifically, the list of possible hassles and uplifts

was modified to omit items that appeared to be irrelevant to the college setting and items

were added that seem to occur more commonly in college settings. The rationale for this

is supported by Kanner et al's (1981) findings that samples of middle aged adults and college students differed in the top ten items they endorsed (as measured by percent of endorsement for each item; See Appendix E for a list of modifications).

The modified Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire (HUQ) is a self report questionnaire that consists of 91 hassle items and 110 uplift items. Hassles are defined as "irritants that can range from minor annoyances to fairly major pressures, problems, or difficulties." The subject was asked to identify each hassle that has occurred within the last month. Next, the subject was instructed to rate each selected hassle on a three-point Likert scale (ranging from somewhat severe to extremely severe) that most accurately reflected the severity of each hassle during the past month. All hassles were identified and rated before continuing to the uplifts section of the questionnaire. Uplifts were defined as "events that make you feel good". Again, subjects were asked to identify each uplift that occurred within the last month. Instead of rating the intensity of each uplift (as hassles were rated), the subject was instructed to rate the frequency of occurrence of each uplift on a three-point Likert scale (ranging from somewhat often to extremely often) that reflected the frequency of each uplift during the past month.[1]

Scoring for the modified Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire was based upon the scoring of the original instrument as outlined by Lazarus & Folkman (1989). Three types

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[1] The subject's rating of the frequency of each uplift is termed extremity as indicated by how often the uplift occurred within the past month. The difference between extremity as it relates to uplifts and severity as it relates to hassles should be noted. The difference between extremity and severity reflects non-parallelism between the instructions for the two scales. In order to facilitate discussion, both extremity of uplifts and severity of hassles will be labeled as intensity.

of scores are possible for the Hassles and Uplifts Scales: frequency, intensity, and content. The frequency of daily hassles and uplifts is calculated by summing the number of hassles items endorsed. The severity (intensity) score is computed by averaging the severity (intensity) ratings of all endorsed hassles (uplifts) items.

Because of the hypothesized connection between relationship styles and specific categories of hassles and uplifts, subscales were created to form groups of items that appear to be consistent in content. An attempt was made to conform to Lazarus & Folkman's (1989) factor analytic categories. However, because of the modifications made in an attempt to make the Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire more applicable to a college student population, several additional content categories were added. New or revised items were added to the subscales according to the agreement of several judges (graduate students). Items not unanimously agreed upon were omitted from the subscales. Of the additional subscales, the Social hassles and uplifts, non-social uplifts, health hassles, academic hassles, and inner concerns subscales were relevant to this proposal (See Appendices F and G). Content scores were obtained by computing frequency and severity scores for endorsed items in the content areas.

Test-retest reliability coefficients for the original Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire differed between the hassles and uplifts scales (Kanner et al, 1981). Test-retest reliabilities were measured in nine monthly intervals. For hassles, the average test-retest reliability for frequency was reported as $r = .79$, while the average reliability for hassles intensity was $r = .48$. For uplifts, the average test-retest reliability for frequency was reported as .72, while the average reliability for uplifts intensity was .60. Similar

test-retest reliabilities were reported by DeLongis et al. (1982). Items on the Hassles and Uplifts Scales appear to be face valid. Evidence for moderate discriminant validity was reported between the Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire and the Bradburn Morale Score, which is used as an index of well-being with two subscales: positive and negative emotions (Kanner et al., 1981).

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Chapter 4

RESULTS

Planned comparisons were used to test the general hypotheses relating the

composite personality variable to the frequency and intensity of hassles and uplifts.

Subscales on the revised Hassles and Uplifts Scale were developed using the factor

analysis performed by Lazarus & Folkman, 1989, as a guide. Coefficient alphas were

calculated to ensure adequate subscale reliabilities. Planned comparisons were then be

used to test the hypotheses regarding the relationship between the composite personality

variable and the content subscales.

The following section presents the results of the data analyses that were carried

out in the process of testing the hypotheses.[2] First, the results of the psychometric

analyses of the Revised Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire overall and content subscales

are discussed. These analyses included a reliability analysis of the scales as well as

intercorrelations between the overall scales and between the content subscales. Next, the

results of the planned-comparisons that were used in testing the specific hypotheses are

presented. Finally, the results of post-hoc supplemental analyses are reported. These

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[2] Before beginning statistical analyses, the data set was screened for missing data. There were no instances of missing data for this sample.

analyses were performed in order to explore potential effects in addition to those

hypothesized.

Psychometric Examination of Scales

Reliability of Subscales. Table 3 presents the reliability coefficients and mean

subject scores for the Revised Hassles and Uplifts subscales. The Cronbach's alpha for

the Revised Hassles and Uplifts Subscales ranged from .60 to .88 for hassles subscales

and from .71 to .88 for uplifts subscales. Based on these analyses, the Revised Hassles

and Uplifts subscales were shown to have adequate reliabilities.

Correlations between Hassles and Uplifts Overall Frequency and Intensity Scales

on the Revised Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire. Table 4 lists the correlations

between the hassles and uplifts frequency and intensity scales on the Revised Hassles and

Uplifts Questionnaire. Correlational analyses revealed that the hassles frequency scale

was significantly positively correlated with the hassles intensity scale and with the uplifts

frequency scale. Hassles and uplifts intensity scores were not significantly correlated

with each other. The significant moderate correlation between hassles and uplifts

frequency scores is not necessarily surprising. Currently, in the stress literature some

studies report a significant, positive, low to moderate correlation between hassles and

uplifts (Wolf et al., 1989) while others report no such correlation (Monroe, 1983).

Correlations Between the Revised Hassles and Uplifts Content Subscales. Table

5 contains the correlations between the Revised Hassles and Uplifts Content subscales

frequency and intensity scores. Correlational analyses revealed several significant

relationships. Of the 15 correlations, four relationships were not significant, while eleven

correlations were significant or marginally significant in the positive direction. Two of the four nonsignificant findings related the Inner Hassles content subscale to the Uplifts content subscales (Social and Non-Social). All of the Hassles content subscales were significantly positive correlated. Similarly, the two Uplifts content subscales were significantly positively correlated. Additionally, the Interpersonal Hassles content subscale was significantly positively correlated with both the Interpersonal and Non-interpersonal Uplifts content subscales.

Table 3

Reliability Coefficients, Mean Subject Scores, and Standard Deviations for the Revised
Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire Overall and Content Subscales

	Total Hassles	Health Hassles	Interpersonal Hassles	Inner Concerns
Alpha	.91	.60	.79	.85
Mean	21.36	1.88	4.44	3.05
(SD)	(11.38)	(1.52)	(4.71)	(2.53)

Uplifts	Academic Hassles	Total Uplifts	Interpersonal Uplifts	Non-social
Alpha	.73	.92	.88	.86
Mean	3.70	30.74	8.15	12.80
(SD)	(2.05)	(14.38)	(4.14)	(7.15)

Table 4

Correlations[a] Between Hassles and Uplifts Frequency and Intensity Scores

	Hassles Frequency	Hassles Intensity	Uplifts Frequency
Hassles Intensity	.27**		
Uplifts Frequency	.33**	-.07	
Uplifts Intensity	-.17*	.14	.11

[a] Pearson r's for the correlations between the Revised Hassles and Uplifts frequency and intensity scales

* p < .10
** p < .01

Table 5

Correlations[a] Between Hassles and Uplifts Subscale Frequency Scores

	Health Hassles	Interpersonal Hassles	Inner Hassles	Interpersonal Uplifts	Non-social Uplifts
Interpersonal Hassles	.53***				
Inner Hassles	.48***	.52***			
Interpersonal Uplifts	.18*	.26**	.08		
Non-social Uplifts	.15	.25**	.03	.67***	
Academic Hassles	.43***	.40***	..44***	.29**	.24

[a] Pearson r's for the relationship between the Revised Hassles and Uplifts subscale frequency scores

* p < .10
** p < .05
*** p < .001

Tests of Hypotheses

Planned Comparisons - Hypothesis 1a, 1b, 1c: Patterns of Hassles and Uplifts

Within Personality Group. This set of hypotheses predicted within-group

patterns of hassles and uplifts for each of the personality style groups. Due to a

discrepant number of items on the hassles and uplifts questionnaires, the hassles and

uplifts frequency scores were converted to percentages for the following comparisons.

Table 6 contains the cell means, standard deviations, and planned comparison results

for the personality style groups on the hassles and uplifts frequency and intensity

scales.

Hypothesis 1a predicted that participants in the Resilient personality style group

would report lower frequency and intensity of hassles compared to higher frequency

and intensity of uplifts. A within-subject, repeated measures ANOVA revealed a

significant difference between hassles frequency and uplifts frequency in the predicted

direction (mean = .17 versus .33, respectively), $t(36) = -7.04$, $p < .001$. A second

repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant difference between hassles and

uplifts intensities in the predicted direction (mean = 1.59 versus 2.08, respectively),

$t(36) = -7.33$, $p < .001$. Hypothesis 1b, the hypothesis that subjects in the Dependent

personality style group would report high frequencies and intensities of both hassles

and uplifts was not supported by inspection of the group means. Examination of these

group means revealed that although the proportion of hassles reported by the

Dependent personality style group was above the overall sample mean, the proportion

of uplifts reported was not. Furthermore, the hassles and uplifts intensity scores also

did not exceed the overall sample mean. Consequently, no further analyses were conducted for this hypothesis. Similarly, Hypothesis 1c, the hypothesis that participants in the Disengaging personality style group would report low frequencies and intensities of both hassles and uplifts was not supported by inspection of the group means. Compared to the overall sample mean, the proportion of hassles reported by Disengaging subjects was not low. Similarly, the Disengaging personality style group's hassles and uplifts intensity scores were not lower than the overall sample mean intensity scores. Therefore, no additional analyses were conducted for this hypothesis.

Planned Comparisons - Hypothesis 2a and 2b: Between-group Hypotheses for the Overall Frequency and Intensity of Hassles and Uplifts. Tables 6 and 7 contain the cell means and standard deviations for the personality style groups on the overall frequencies and intensities of hassles and uplifts. This set of hypotheses was tested using planned comparisons that were performed within the framework of omnibus 2X3 one-way ANOVAs.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that individuals in the Dependent personality style group would report the highest number and intensity of hassles compared to the other personality style groups. This hypothesis gained partial support. Planned-comparisons revealed a significant effect for the Dependent personality group on hassles frequency in the predicted direction, $t(93) = 2.91$, $p = .005$, but not for hassles intensity, $t(93) = .843$, $p < .41$. Hypothesis 2b predicted that individuals in the Disengaging personality style group would report the lowest number and intensity of uplifts

compared to the other two personality style groups. This hypothesis, too, was partially supported. Planned comparisons revealed a significant effect for the Disengaging personality style group on uplifts frequency in the predicted direction, $t(93) = -2.19$, $p < .04$, but not for uplifts intensity $t(93) = .49$, $p < .63$.

Planned Comparisons - Hypothesis 3a, 3b and 3c: Personality Style Differences on Social and Non-social Hassles and Uplifts Content Subscales. Table 8 presents the cell means and standard deviations for the personality groups on the relevant content subscales. This set of hypotheses concerns the proportion of social and non-social hassles or uplifts endorsed by the participants. In order to ensure accurate comparison across subjects endorsing different number of hassles and uplifts overall, the frequencies of social and non-social hassles and uplifts were converted to percentages by dividing these frequencies by the total number of overall hassles or uplifts endorsed by the subject. This set of hypotheses was also analyzed by planned-comparisons performed within the framework of 2X3 one-way ANOVAs.

Hypothesis 3a predicted that subjects in the Dependent personality style group would report a greater proportion of interpersonal hassles than would participants in the Resilient or Disengaging personality style groups. Planned comparisons revealed a marginally significant effect in the predicted direction, $t(93) = 1.87$, $p < .07$. Hypothesis 3b predicted that participants in the Disengaging personality style group would report a lower proportion of interpersonal uplifts than would participants in the Resilient or Dependent personality style groups. The planned comparison for this hypothesis was not significant, $t(93) = -1.18$, $p < .25$. Hypothesis 3c predicted that

participants in the Disengaging personality style group would endorse a greater

proportion of non-social uplifts than would subjects in the Resilient or Dependent

personality style groups. This planned comparison was also not significant, $t(93)$ =

.954, $p < .35$.

Exploratory Hypotheses - Hypotheses 4a, 4b and 4c: Personality Style

Differences on Health Hassles, Inner Concerns, and Academic Hassles. Table

9 contains the cell means and standard deviations for the personality style groups on

health hassles, inner concerns, and academic hassles. This set of hypotheses concerns

the proportion of health hassles, inner concerns, and academic hassles endorsed by the

participants. In order to ensure accurate comparison across subjects endorsing different

number of hassles, the frequencies of health hassles, inner concerns, and academic

hassles were converted to percentages by dividing these frequencies by the total number

of overall hassles endorsed by the subject. 2X3 ANOVAs were performed exploring

the overall effects of subject sex and personality style on the proportion of health

hassles, inner concerns, and academic hassles endorsed by participants.

Hypothesis 4a proposed to examine potential effects of personality style on the

proportion of health concerns endorsed by the subjects. An overall 2X3 ANOVA

revealed a main effect of personality style group on the proportion of health hassles

reported, $F(2,97)$ = 4.81, $p = .01$. Post-hoc analysis using Tukey's Honestly

Significant Difference test revealed a significant difference between the Dependent

personality group and the Resilient personality group in the proportion of health hassles

reported, $p < .05$, due to the former reporting a greater proportion of health hassles

(mean = .11) than did the latter (mean = .06). Inspection of these group means

revealed that the Dependent personality style group reported a significantly greater

proportion of health hassles than did the Resilient personality style group.

Additionally, there was no significant main effect of sex, $F(1,98) = 2.07$, $p < .16$, or

sex X personality style interaction, $F(5,93) = .35$, $p < .71$.

Hypothesis 4b proposed to examine the potential effects of personality style on

the proportion of inner concerns reported. An overall 2X3 ANOVA revealed a

significant main effect for personality style group affiliation on the proportion of inner

concerns endorsed, $F(2,97) = 8.18$, $p = .001$. Post-hoc analysis using Tukey's

Honestly Significant Difference test revealed a significant difference between the

Resilient personality style group and both the Dependent and Disengaging personality

style groups, $p < .05$. Inspection of these group means revealed that the Dependent and

Disengaging personality style groups reported a significantly greater proportion of

inner concerns (mean = .15, .18, respectively) than did the Resilient personality style

group (mean = .09). Additionally, neither subjects' sex, $F(1,98) = .08$, $p < .78$, nor

the interaction of sex by personality style, $F(5,93) = 1.42$, $p < .25$, was significant.

Hypothesis 4c proposed to evaluate the potential effects of personality style on

the proportion of academic hassles reported. An overall, 2X3 ANOVA revealed that

the effect of personality style on academic hassles reported was not significant, $F(5,93)$

= 1.5, $p < .25$. However, subject sex did have a significant main effect on the

reporting of academic hassles, $F(1,98) = 4.11$, $p < .05$. Examination of the relevant

cell means indicates that men reported a significantly greater proportion of academic

hassles (mean = .20) than did women (mean = .16).

Supplemental Analyses

In addition to the tests of the hypotheses, overall analyses were performed in

order to explore potential unpredicted effects of personality style and sex on the

participants reports of hassles and uplifts. Table 7 presents the cell means, standard

deviations, and results of the 2X3 ANOVAs for effect of personality style on the

overall frequency and intensity of hassles and uplifts. These analyses revealed a

significant main effect for personality style on the overall frequency of hassles, $F(5,93)$

= 4.27, $p < .005$, and on the overall intensity of hassles, $F(5,93) = 2.41$, $p < .05$.

Post-hoc analyses using Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference test revealed that in

addition to the predicted effect, both the Dependent and Disengaging personality style

groups reported a significantly greater number and intensity of hassles than did the

Resilient personality style group, $p < .05$. In addition, a marginally significant main

effect was found for subjects' sex on the intensity of hassles, with female participants

reporting more intense hassles (mean = 1.76) than male participants (mean = 1.64)

$F(1,98) = 3.46$, $p < .07$. The interaction between subjects' sex and personality style

was not significant for the overall intensity of hassles, $F(2,97) = .052$, $p < .96$.

These analyses also revealed a significant main effect for personality style on

the overall frequency of uplifts, $F(5,93) = 3.20$, $p = .01$, and on the overall intensity of

uplifts, $F(5,93) = 5.26$, $p < .001$. Post-hoc analysis using Tukey's Honestly

Significant Difference test revealed a significant difference between the Dependent

personality style group and both the Disengaging and Resilient personality style groups, with the Dependent personality style group reporting the lowest intensity of uplifts compared to the other two groups, $p < .05$. In addition, a significant main effect was also achieved for subjects' sex on the overall frequency of uplifts, $F(1,98) = 5.21$, $p < .03$, with women reporting significantly more uplifts than men. The interaction between subjects' sex and personality style was not significant for the overall frequency of uplifts, $F(2,97) = .62$, $p < .54$.

2X3 ANOVAs were also performed in order to explore potential unpredicted effects of subject sex and personality style on the hassles and uplifts content subscales The results of these analyses failed to reach significance, $F(5,93) = 1.25$, $p < .30$ for interpersonal hassles, $F(5,93) = .379$, $p < .87$ for interpersonal uplifts, and $F(5,93) = 1.38$, $p < .26$ for non-social hassles. Therefore, no additional post-hoc analyses were conducted for these variables.

Table 6

Relationships Between Hassles and Uplifts Frequencies Within Personality Style Group

	Hassles Frequency	Uplifts Frequency
Personality Style Group		
Resilient		
Mean	.17	.33
(SD)	(.09)	(.13)
[t(1,36)]		-7.04*
Dependent		
Mean	.29	.27
(SD)	(.13)	(.12)
Disengaging		
Mean	.26	.24
(SD)	(.13)	(.13)

*p < .001

Table 7

Relationships Between Personality Style Groups and Hassles and Uplifts Frequencies
and Intensities: Overall Analyses of Variance

| | Personality Style Group | | | |
	Resilient	Dependent	Disengaging	[F(5,93)]
Hassles Frequency				
Mean	15.59[b]	26.33[a]	23.38[a]	4.27*
(SD)	(8.03)	(11.61)	(11.86)	
Hassles Intensity				
Mean	1.59[b]	1.75[a]	1.80[a]	2.41***
(SD)	(.28)	(.31)	(.37)	
Uplifts Frequency				
Mean	35.73[a]	29.70[a]	25.94[b]	3.20**
(SD)	(14.59)	(13.07)	(13.85)	
Uplifts Intensity				
Mean	2.08[b]	1.74[a]	1.94[b]	5.26*
(SD)	(.27)	(.22)	(.37)	

Note: Within a measure, values identified with different subscripts differed
significantly from each other.

*p < .005
**p < .01
***p < .05

Table 8

Cell Means and Standard Deviations for the Personality Style Groups on the Proportion
of Social Hassles, Social Uplifts, and Non-social Hassles Reported

| | Personality Style Group | | |
	Resilient	Dependent	Disengaging
Social Hassles			
Mean	.11[a]	.14[b]*	.10[a]
(SD)	(.10)	(.09)	(.07)
Social Uplifts			
Mean	.27	.27	.25
(SD)	(.09)	(.07)	(.09)
Non-Social Hassles			
Mean	.40	.42	.43
(SD)	(.10)	(.10)	(.11)

Note: Within a measure, values identified with different subscripts were marginally
significantly different from each other.

* $p < .07$

Table 9

Cell Means and Standard Deviations for the Personality Style Groups on the Proportion
of Health Hassles, Inner Concerns, and Academic Hassles Reported

| | Personality Style Group | | |
	Resilient	Dependent	Disengaging
Health Hassles			
Mean	.06[b]	.11[a]*	.08
(SD)	(.06)	(.07)	(.06)
Inner Concerns			
Mean	.09[b]	.15[a]**	.18[a]
(SD)	(.07)	(.09)	(.12)
Academic Hassles			
Mean	.19	.16	.19
(SD)	(.10)	(.07)	(.11)

Note: Within a measure, values identified with different subscripts differed
significantly from each other.

* $p < .01$
** $p < .001$

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

Implications of Findings for the Top-Down Approach to Subjective Well-Being

This study contributes to the current literature two personality variables,

attachment and defensive styles, that, in the aggregate, were found to be related to

participants' reports and appraisals of patterns of hassles and uplifts in their lives. These

associations hold true for both patterns of stress and rewards within groups (i.e., that

Resilient individuals reported significantly more and more intense uplifts compared to

hassles while the other groups did not) as well as patterns between groups (that

Dependent and Disengaging participants reported significantly more hassles than did the

Resilient group, Disengaging participants reported significantly fewer uplifts, while

Dependent participants reported significantly less intense uplifts than did the other two

comparison groups).

Furthermore, not only were these personality constellations related to general

patterns of daily hassles and uplifts, they are also related to patterns of stresses and uplifts

in salient content areas. For example, subjects in the Dependent personality style group

tended to report a greater proportion of interpersonal hassles than did either Resilient or

Disengaging subjects. They also reported a greater proportion of health concerns than did

resilient subjects. In addition, participants in the Dependent and Disengaging personality style groups reported a greater proportion of inner concerns than did subjects in the Resilient personality style group. However, not all content areas assessed revealed significant differences between personality style groups. The hypotheses that significant personality style differences would exist in the proportion of social and non-social uplifts reported were not supported.

In general, however, these findings do provide continued support for the top-down approach to subjective well-being. Top-down theories propose that people are predisposed to interpret life experiences in either positive or negative ways. As an alternative, bottom-up theories suggest that well-being is related to objective life circumstances. Due to the cross-sectional nature of the current investigation, a firm conclusion regarding the predisposition of these subjects to appraise their life experiences in characteristic ways cannot be drawn. However, the finding that different types of people report experiencing different patterns of stresses and rewards in their lives supports the importance of identifying person variables that may color an individual's evaluation of life events. In addition, the finding that participants differed in their perceptions of the hassles and uplifts in their lives sets the stage for future longitudinal investigations focused on the possibility that people who differ in their relationship and defensive styles are, in fact, predisposed to view their life experiences in characteristic ways.

Implications of Findings for the Threat Model of Stress and Coping: Theoretical

Implications

In this study, subjects in the Dependent and Disengaging personality style groups reported more daily hassles and fewer or less intense daily uplifts than did Resilient subjects. This pattern relates to the general pattern of overall number of daily hassles and uplifts in the subjects' lives, irrespective of the content area. The threat model of stress and coping proposes that experiences are perceived as stressful when they threaten the physical or psychological well-being of an individual (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Following this, the Dependent and Disengaging subjects' reporting of more overall daily hassles than the Resilient group is suggestive that these two groups perceive their worlds as more inherently threatening than do Resilient subjects. This finding also provides support for Mikulincer's et al. (1993) thesis that the experiences of insecure people may develop into generalized working models that are more likely to perceive life experiences as threatening.

When more specific contrasts were performed to examine the effects of personality style on the content of hassles and uplifts the results were mixed. Although all of the personality style groups reported proportionally more non-social hassles than social hassles, participants in the Dependent personality style group reported proportionally more social hassles than did subjects in the Resilient or Disengaging groups. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), individuals are more likely to appraise life events as stressful when they possess some vulnerability to the event. Vulnerability to particular life experiences arises from the commitments a person holds.

It may be that participants identified as belonging in the dependent personality style group have unusually strong commitments to social experiences which would tend to increase their vulnerability to potential threat in social interactions. In addition, the Dependent personality style group also reported proportionally more health hassles and inner concerns (regarding self-competence) than did the Resilient personality style group. These findings are in line with reports that Dependently attached individuals tend to be hypervigilant to sources of distress (Mikulincer et al., 1993) and may reflect a particular vulnerability toward appraising their life events as stressful. Indeed, Dependent subjects reported proportionally more hassles than Resilient subjects in each of the three areas that showed differences due to personality style. Disengaging subjects also reported proportionally more inner concerns than did Resilient subjects.

Taken together, the finding that the insecure subjects reported proportionally more inner concerns suggests that these subjects hold stronger commitments to viewing themselves as competent, which would tend to increase their vulnerability to perceiving threats to their sense of competence in their environments. Commitments may also function by increasing or decreasing attentiveness to particular life event domains. The vulnerabilities to perceived threat created by commitments may work by influencing an individual's attentiveness to the sensitive life area. It is understandable that people who are vulnerable to perceiving threat in a specific domain would tend to be more attentive to events and happenings within that domain. In this way, the finding that Dependent subjects reported proportionally more perceived social hassles may indicate that

Dependent subjects were more attentive to their social interactions, and therefore, were more likely to remember and report negative interpersonal experiences.

Alternatively, this pattern of results of fewer and less intense hassles and more frequent and more intense uplifts for Resilient subjects may reflect the Resilient subjects' better overall psycho-social adjustment. This possibility is consistent with past research that has reported lower levels of psychological distress for securely attached and defensively mature individuals and higher levels for insecurely attached and defensively immature individuals (Mikulincer et al., 1993; Cramer, 1988; Wilson, 1982; Morelli & Andrews, 1982).

Implications of Findings for the Study of Adult Attachment

Because the person factors were analyzed in the aggregate there is some difficulty in interpreting the implications of this study's results as pertinent to a single person factor, in this case adult attachment style versus the defensive structure of the subjects. However, if it can be shown that this study's pattern of results holds true for people differing in attachment styles (separate from the aggregate), then the results of the current study may pose an interesting methodological challenge for attachment researchers. Traditional investigations of attachment expose individuals with different attachment styles to stressors and observe differences in coping and outcome. These investigations rest on the assumption that the presented stressors are perceived as similarly stressful, regardless of participants' attachment styles. However, the findings of Mikulincer et al., (1993) suggest that individuals with different attachment patterns may possess world views which predispose them to perceive adversities as differentially stressful. The

findings of this study provide additional, although non-causal, evidence that people

differing in attachment and defensive styles perceive different levels of stressors and

rewards in their lives. These findings raise the possibility that people differing in

attachment styles experience and interpret life experiences differently. This differential

appraisal of life experiences as more or less threatening may influence the degree to

which attachment behavior is induced, the amount and type of coping response selected,

and the subsequent impact of the event on the individual. It will be important for future

research to determine that the experimental manipulations designed to induce attachment

behavior through the presentation of a stressful event are perceived as equally threatening

by individuals with different attachment styles.

Limitations of Study

There are several methodological limitations to the current study. First, it is likely '

that a social desirability bias towards decreased reporting of negative experiences

influenced subjects' responses on the questionnaires (Paulhus, 1991). This bias may be

of particular importance to the current study as previous studies have reported a link

between social desirability and the use of certain defensive styles, mainly principalization

and reversal (Cramer, 1988; Noam & Recklitis, 1990). Social desirability may have a

greater impact on the results of this study for the Resilient participants, as they were

selected on the basis of their characteristic use of principalization. However, the debate

continues in the literature regarding whether the tendency for people who use primarily

principalization and reversal reflects actual differences in symptom levels and

psychological distress or response bias (Cramer, 1988).

Another methodological difficulty lies in the measurement of life experiences. One potential flaw inherent in the use of retrospective accounts of individuals' life experiences is that there is no way to substantiate that the hassling and uplifting experiences endorsed by the participants actually occurred. Nor is there a way to substantiate that the reported emotional valence of the event is accurate. However, the accuracy of subjects' perceptions of their life events is not central to this study. What was important to the current investigation is whether or not people who differed in relationship and defensive styles would tend to *perceive* their life experiences as differentially stressful or rewarding. To the extent that it is the perception of an event as stressful or rewarding that has consequences for an individual's functioning and psycho-social adjustment, objective corroboration of the accuracy of participants' responses becomes less of an issue. That is not to say that objective verification of the reported life events is not important. It is, and would be, extremely important, particularly when evaluating accuracy or distortions or when trying to identify potential avenues for intervention. In as much as individuals affect and create their own environments, it is important to make a distinction between whether people who differ in attachment and defensive styles perceive their life experiences differently, or are actually experiencing different levels stresses and rewards in their lives. However, given that the aim of the current study was to determine whether people differing on these variables perceive their lives differently, and was not to determine if, indeed, their life experiences actually were different, self-reports of the participants' perceptions, however biased, are sufficient. In

this study, subjects' perceptions of the stresses and uplifts in their lives were the relevant target information.

The method of subject selection by grouping subjects simultaneously on the basis of relationship and defensive styles is another limitation of this study that makes it difficult to draw conclusions about the separate contributions of attachment or defensive styles to the participants' reports of differential patterns of hassles and uplifts. For example, it is difficult, if not impossible, to discern whether the tendency for Resilient subjects to report fewer and less intense hassles than the Dependent and Disengaging groups is more likely due to differences in the subjects' approaches to social relationships, to differences in defensive structures, or to some combination of both. Unfortunately, the forced method of selecting this study's subjects omits three important subject groupings necessary for testing the differential contribution of attachment and defensive styles: those subjects who were securely attached but defensively immature, those who were defensively mature and dependently attached, and those who were defensively mature and avoidantly attached. Understandably, there may be theoretical reasons to suggest that the development of attachment and defensive styles may follow along similar adaptive lines, rarely resulting in the three groupings that were not included in this study. An examination of data presented in Table 2 reveals that there are several significant correlations between defensive and attachment styles. The patterns of intercorrelations seem to fall along adaptive lines (i.e. "more mature" defenses are significantly positively correlated with Secure Intimacy and are significantly negatively correlated with Mistrust of Intimacy and Fear of Loss while "less mature" defensive

styles are significantly negatively correlated with Secure Intimacy and significantly positively correlated with Mistrust of Intimacy and Fear of Loss) which supports the combination of attachment and defensive styles into an aggregate person variable. Still, statistically speaking, the magnitude of some of the significant correlations is small, and the omission of the three groups that were not included in this study precludes analysis of the personality variables' independent contributions to the subjects' perceptions of their daily life events.

Finally, another methodological limitation of this study was that the sample consisted of university undergraduates. On the whole, university undergraduates tend to be a fairly high functioning population of late adolescents. Because of this, it is possible that they may have reported a limited range of negative experiences. However, in anticipation of the uniqueness of the student population, the dependent measure (the Hassles and Uplifts Questionnaire) was modified in order to make it more applicable to the unique challenges and rewards faced by the young, college student population. In addition, an examination of the norms for the original Hassles and Uplifts Scales reveals that the subjects in the current study reported similar frequencies and intensities of hassles [average frequency = 21.4 (S.D. = 11.4), average intensity = 1.71 (S. D. = .33)] compared to Lazarus & Folkman's (1989) sample of middle-aged adults [average frequency = 20.5 (S. D. = 17.7), average intensity = 1.47 (S. D. = .39)]. In addition, the sample was largely Caucasian (88.5%). Because of this, it is difficult to generalize these results beyond Caucasian, middle class, young college undergraduates.

Future Directions

The method and results of this investigation point to several additional avenues for study. First, it would be useful to conduct a study similar to the current investigation that allows an analysis of the differential effects of relationship versus defensive styles (or other possible personality variables, e.g., self esteem, ego resiliency, depression) on the perceptions of life events as stressful and uplifting. It would also be useful to obtain reports from subjects' significant others, (parents, roommates, partners) regarding life events that have occurred in subjects' lives. This would provide some measure of the accuracy of individuals' self-reports of their life experiences. The inclusion of a measure of physical and psychological symptomatology would also be an important addition to future research. This would allow for an evaluation of self-reported well-being and would also make possible an analysis of how person variables, in this case attachment and defensive styles, and daily life experiences are related to psycho-social adjustment.

Secondly, longitudinal investigations are needed that expose individuals differing in attachment and defensive styles (or other person factors) to stressful and rewarding events in the laboratory. This type of investigation would serve two purposes: (1) it would allow for the objective rating of the emotional valence of the event as well as subjects' responses to the event and (2) it would permit causal interpretations to be made. Longitudinal investigations are also needed which would follow people for several years who differ on relevant person variables. Again, this would allow causal interpretations to be made and would make it possible to evaluate whether the lives of the participants are truly different. Given the limitations of the present study, it is not clear whether person

variables (in this study, attachment and defensive styles) color an individual's evaluation of life events, whether differential experiencing of life events results in the development of different personality styles, whether some combination of both are at work, or whether some third (as yet unmeasured) factor is accounting for the development of both variables. Longitudinal studies, such as the ones suggested above, would be able to provide important information that bears on these possible causal interpretations.

Finally, following Lazarus & Folkman's (1984) suggestions, it would be important to conduct investigations of different patterns of commitments held by people differing on important person factors, including attachment and defensive styles. This would aid research on stress and coping by facilitating interpretations of findings as possibly reflecting differences in the meanings and significance of particular life events to individuals differing on relevant person variables.

Summary and Conclusions

Research has documented a strong relationship between subjective experiences of life stress and physical and psychological well-being (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer & Lazarus, 1981; Varni, Rubenfeld, Talbot, & Setoguchi, 1989). The current model for understanding stress and coping suggests that personal characteristics influence perceptions and appraisals of life events as more or less stressful and as more or less satisfying (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Thus, one important aim for researchers is to identify person factors that influence the appraisal of life events. The current study has identified two person factors, namely attachment and defensive styles, that, in

combination, are related to different perceptions of stresses and rewards in the daily lives of the participants.

The results of the current study support the notion that people who vary in their relationship and defensive styles perceive varying degrees of threat in their life experiences. Specifically, subjects who were characterized as defensively mature and securely attached reported perceiving fewer and less intense hassles and more frequent and more intense uplifts in their daily lives than did subjects who were classified as defensively immature and insecurely attached. Furthermore, the current study's finding of personality style differences in the proportion of the content of hassles reported provides indirect support for Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) proposal that individuals will perceive greater potential for threat from life experiences that are uniquely salient to them.

This research does not purport, however, to say that the experiences of people who differ in attachment and defensive styles are truly different. They may or may not be. What it can and does show is that people who differ on these dimensions do report that they perceive differential patterns of stress and rewards in their lives. What is yet needed is objective verification, to the extent possible, that the reported events have indeed occurred and that the reported emotional valence of the event is consistent with the subject's actual experiencing of that event.

Chapter 6

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

THE DEFENSE MECHANISM INVENTORY

INSTRUCTIONS: Read carefully.

On each of the following pages is a short story. Following each story there are four questions with a choice of five answers for each. The four questions relate to the following four kinds of behavior: actual behavior, and impulsive behavior in fantasy, thoughts, and feelings. Of the four, it is only actual behavior which is outwardly expressed; the other three take place only in the privacy of one's mind.

What we want you to do is to select the one answer of the five which you think is the most representative of how you would react, and mark the number corresponding to that answer on the computer answer sheet by darkening the space marked three (3) next to that number. Then select the one answer you think is least representative of how you would react and mark it by darkening the space marked one (1) next to that number. The other three responses should be marked as two (2).

Read all the five answers following the question before you make your selections. In marking your answers on the computer sheet, be sure that the number of the answer agrees with the number on the computer sheet.

You are waiting for the bus at the edge of the road. The streets are wet and muddy after the previous night's rain. A car sweeps through a puddle in front of you, splashing your clothing with mud.

What would your ACTUAL reaction be?
1. I would note the car's license number so that I could track down that careless driver.
2. I'd wipe myself off with a smile.
3. I'd yell curses after the driver!
4. I would scold myself for not having at least worn a raincoat.
5. I'd shrug it off; after all things like that are unavoidable.

What would you IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?
6. Wipe that driver's face in the mud.
7. Report that incompetent driver to the police.
8. Kick myself for standing too close to the edge of the road.
9. Let the driver know that I don't really mind.
10. Inform that driver that bystanders have rights.

What THOUGHT might occur to you?
11. Why do I always get myself into things like this?
12. To hell with that driver!
13. I'm sure that basically that driver is a nice fellow.
14. One can expect something like this to happen on wet days.
15. I wonder if that driver splashed me on purpose.

How would you FEEL and why?
16. Satisfied, after all it could have been worse.
17. Depressed, because of my bad luck.
18. Resigned, for you've got to take things as they come.
19. Resentment, because the driver was so thoughtless and inconsiderate.
20. Furious, that driver got me dirty.

In the army you hold a post of responsibility for the smooth operation of an important department which is constantly under great pressure to meet deadlines. Because things haven't been running as smoothly as they should lately, despite your initiative and resourcefulness, you have planned some changes in personnel for the near future.

Before you do so, however, your superior officer arrives unexpectedly, asks some brusque questions about the work of the department, and then tells you that you are relieved of your post and your assistant is assigned to take your place.

What would your ACTUAL reaction be?

21. I'd accept my dismissal gracefully, since my superior is only doing his job.
22. I'd blame my superior for having made up his mind against me even before the visit.
23. I'd be thankful for having been relieved of such a tough job.
24. I'd look for an opportunity to undercut my assistant.
25. I'd blame myself for not being competent enough.

What would you IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?

26. Congratulate my assistant on the promotion.
27. Expose the probable plot between my superior and my assistant to get rid of me.
28. Tell my superior to go to hell.
29. I'd like to kill myself for not having made the necessary changes sooner.
30. I'd like to quit, but one can't do that in the army.

What THOUGHT might occur to you?

31. I wish I could come face to face with my superior in a dark alley.
32. In the army it is essential to have the right person in the right job.
33. There is no doubt that this was just an excuse to get rid of me.
34. I'm really lucky that I only lost my job and not my rank as well.
35. How could I be so dumb as to let things slide?

How would you FEEL and why?

36. Resentful, because he had it in for me.
37. Angry, at my assistant for getting the job.
38. Pleased that nothing worse happened.
39. Upset that I am a failure.
40. Resigned, after all one must be satisfied with having done the best one can.

You are living with your aunt and uncle, who are helping to put you through college. They have been taking care of you since your parents were killed in an automobile accident when you were in your early teens. On a night that you have a late date with your "steady", there is a heavy storm outside. Your aunt and uncle insist that you call and cancel your date because of the weather and the late hour. You are about to disregard their wishes and go out the door when your uncle says in a commanding tone of voice, "Your aunt and I have said that you can't go, and that is that."

What would your ACTUAL reaction be?
41. I would do as my uncle said because he has always wanted what was best for me.
42. I'd tell them, "I always knew you didn't want me to grow up."
43. I would cancel my date, since one must keep peace in the family.
44. I'd tell them it was none of their business and go out anyway.
45. I'd agree to remain at home and apologize for having upset them.

What would you IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?
46. Knock my head against the wall.
47. Tell them to stop ruining my life.
48. Thank them for being so concerned with my welfare.
49. Leave, slamming the door in their faces.
50. Keep my engagement, rain or shine.

What THOUGHT might occur to you?
51. Why don't they shut up and let me alone?
52. They never have really cared about me.
53. They are so good to me, I should follow their advice without question.
54. You can't take without giving something in return.
55. It's all my own fault for planning such a late date.

How would you FEEL and why?
56. Annoyed, that they think I am a baby.
57. Miserable, because there is nothing much I can do.
58. Grateful, for their concern.
59. Resigned, after all, you can't get your own way every time.
60. Furious, because they interfere with my private affairs.

You are extremely eager to do well in sports, but all of those at which you have tried your hand, only basketball have you been able to achieve a measure of success. However, until now, whenever you have applied for membership in a team or sports club, although the judges have appeared impressed with your initial performance, their final decision has always been the same -- they tell you that you've just missed making the grade.

One afternoon your car breaks down and you are forced to take a bus home during the rush hour. As you stand in the crowded bus, you hear your wife's voice. She is seated together with the manager of the team to which you have just applied. You overhear the manager tell her, "Your husband has a nice style of play, we're thinking of asking him to join our club." Then you hear your wife laugh and reply, "Take it from me, he hasn't got what it takes in the long run."

What would your ACTUAL reaction be?

61. I'd tell her off when we got home.
62. I would greet her affectionately as usual, when I arrived home, because I know that she really appreciates me.
63. I'd be quiet and withdrawn for the rest of the evening, not mentioning what I had overheard.
64. I'd take it in stride, for women's talk is never taken seriously.
65. I'd tell her that I wasn't surprised by what I'd overheard because I had always thought she was two-faced.

What would you IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?

66. Tell my wife that I overheard her and was proud of her frankness.
67. Break her neck.
68. Tell her that men expect loyalty from their wives.
69. Let her know that I'd always suspected her of talking behind my back.
70. Stop off somewhere so I wouldn't have to face her.

What THOUGHT might occur to you?

71. I bet she talks about me that way to everybody.
72. What could I have done that makes her feel that way about me?
73. I'm sure she's only kidding.
74. One shouldn't be bothered by that kind of talk.
75. She needs to be taught a lesson.

How would you FEEL and why?

76. Worthless, because I'd realize what a failure I was as a husband.
77. Furious at her for speaking about me that way.
78. Unconcerned, because women are like that.
79. Outraged, because her gossip has probably contributed to my past failures.
80. Serene, because I know the manager will realize that she doesn't know what she is talking about.

At your job you want to impress upon your foreman the fact that you are more skilled that your fellow workers. You are eagerly awaiting an opportunity to prove yourself.

One day a new machine is brought into the factory. The foreman calls all the workers together and asks whether anyone knows how to operate it. You sense the chance you have been waiting for, so you tell the foreman that you have worked with a similar machine and would like a chance to try your hand at this one. He refuses, saying, "Sorry, we can't take a chance," and calls a veteran worker to come over and try to get the machine started.

No sooner has the veteran worker pulled the starter, than sparks begin to fly and the machine grinds to a halt. At this point the foreman calls and asks you if you still want a chance to try and start the machine.

<u>What would your ACTUAL reaction be?</u>
81. I'd say that I doubt if I could do it either.
82. I'd tell my fellow workers that the foreman wants to hold me responsible for the machine's crack up.
83. I'd tell the foreman that I appreciated being given the chance.
84. I'd decline, cursing the foreman under my breath.
85. I'd tell the foreman that I would try because one must never back down from a challenge.

<u>What would you IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?</u>
86. Tell that foreman that he'll not make me the scapegoat for a broken machine.
87. Thank the foreman for not letting me try it first.
88. Tell the foreman that he should try to start the broken machine himself.
89. Point out to the foreman that experience doesn't guarantee success.
90. Kick myself for talking myself into an unbearable situation.

<u>What THOUGHT might occur to you?</u>
91. That foreman is really a pretty decent guy.
92. Damn him and his blasted machine.
93. This foreman is out to get me.
94. Machines are not always reliable.
95. How could I be so stupid as to even think of operating that machine.

<u>How would you FEEL and why?</u>
96. Indifferent, because when one's abilities are not appreciated, one's enthusiasm is lost.
97. Angry that I was asked to do an impossible job.
98. Glad that I didn't wreck the machine.
99. Annoyed that I was purposely put on the spot.
100. Disgusted with myself because I risked making a fool out of myself.

On your way to catch a train, you are hurrying through a narrow street lined with tall buildings. Suddenly, a piece of masonry comes crashing down from a roof where repairmen are working. A piece of brick bounces off the sidewalk, bruising your leg.

What would your ACTUAL reaction be?

101. I'd tell them I ought to sue them.
102. I'd curse myself for having such bad luck.
103. I'd hurry on, for one should not permit oneself to be diverted from one's plans.
104. I'd continue on my way, grateful that nothing worse had happened.
105. I'd try to discover who these irresponsible people are.

What would you IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?

106. Remind the repairmen of their obligation to public safety.
107. Assure those men that nothing serious had happened.
108. Give them a piece of my mind.
109. Kick myself for not having watched where I was going.
110. See to it that those careless workers pay for their negligence.

What THOUGHT might occur to you?

111. Those repairmen don't know how to do their job right.
112. I'm lucky that I wasn't seriously hurt.
113. Damn those men!
114. Why do these things always happen to me?
115. One can't be too careful these days.

How would you FEEL and why?

116. Angry, because I was hurt.
117. Furious, because I was almost killed by their negligence.
118. Calm, for one must practice self control.
119. Upset by my bad luck.
120. Thankful that I'd gotten away with no more than a scratch.

Driving through town in the late afternoon, you arrive at one of the busiest intersections. Although the light has changed in your favor, you see that pedestrians are not obeying the "wait" sign and are blocking your path. You attempt to complete your turn with due caution before the light turns against you, as the law requires. As you complete the turn, a traffic policeman orders you over to the side and charges you with violating the pedestrians' right-of-way. You explain that you had taken the only possible course of action, but the policeman proceeds to give you a ticket, nevertheless.

What would your ACTUAL reaction be?

121. I'd blame myself for having been careless.
122. I'd go to court and bring counter charges against the policeman.
123. I'd ask the policeman why he has such a grudge against drivers.
124. I'd try to cooperate with the policeman, who, after all, is a good guy.
125. I'd take the ticket without question, since the policeman was just doing his duty.

What would you IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?

126. Tell the policeman he can't use his position to push me around.
127. Kick myself for not having waited for the next green light.
128. Thank the policeman for saving me from a possible accident.
129. Stand up for my rights as a matter of principle.
130. Slam the door in his face and drive off.

What THOUGHT might occur to you?

131. He's doing the right thing, actually, I ought to thank him for teaching me an important lesson.
132. Each man must carry out his job as he sees it.
133. This guy ought to go back to pounding a beat.
134. How could I be so stupid.
135. I bet he gets a kick out of giving tickets to people.

How would you FEEL and why?

136. Boiling anger, because he's making trouble for me.
137. Resentment, because he's picking on me.
138. Ashamed, because I was negligent.
139. Indifferent, after all, this sort of thing happens all the time.
140. Relieved, because I'd been prevented from getting into worse trouble.

You return home after spending two years in the army. At the time you joined, you had had a choice between enlistment and a position in your father's business. You preferred the army despite parental advice. Now that you are home again, you find that your range of opportunity hasn't widened appreciably. You can either join your father's business or get a job as an untrained worker. You would like to open a coffee shop, but you lack the capital necessary to carry out such an enterprise. After a great deal of hesitation, you decide to ask your father to put up the money. After listening to your proposal, he reminds you that he had wanted you to take a job with his firm instead of joining the army. Then he tells you, "I'm not prepared to throw away my hard-earned on your crazy schemes. It's time you started helping me in my business."

What would your ACTUAL reaction be?
141. I'd accept his offer since everyone depends on everyone else in this world.
142. I would admit to him that I guess I am a bad risk.
143. I'd tell him off in no uncertain terms.
144. I'd tell him that I'd always suspected that he had a grudge against me.
145. I'd thank him for holding a job open for me all these years.

What would you IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?
146. Go to work for him and make him happy.
147. Give up trying and end it all.
148. Take my father's offer since offers like that don't grow on trees.
149. Let him know what a miser everyone thinks he is.
150. Tell him that I wouldn't work for him if he were the last man on earth.

What THOUGHT might occur to you?
151. He'll get what's coming to him one day.
152. Family considerations can't enter into business decisions.
153. Why was I so stupid as to bring the subject up.
154. I must admit that my father is acting for my own good.
155. This proves what I've suspected all along, that my father has never believed in me.

How would you FEEL and why?
156. Angry, because he doesn't want me to succeed on my own.
157. Grateful, for his offer of a job with a future.
158. Resentful, that he is sabotaging my future.
159. Resigned, since you can't have everything your own way all of the time.
160. Hopeless, because I couldn't get my father's approval.

One afternoon while you and a close friend are cramming for exams, your girlfriend drops by unexpectedly. Although you and she have been going steady for over a year, you have not been able to see much of each other lately; therefore you are very happy she has come. You invite her in and introduce her to your friend and the three of you spend a pleasant hour together. A few days later you ring her up and invite her to go out on the town to celebrate the end of exam week, but she tells you that she has come down with a bad cold and thinks that it is best for her not to leave the house. After dinner you feel sort of let down and decide to go to the movies by yourself. Coming out of the movie theater, you come upon your pal arm-in-arm with your girlfriend.

What would your ACTUAL reaction be?

161. I'd tell my girl she could have told me it was over instead of cheating behind my back.
162. I'd greet them politely as a civilized person should.
163. I'd make sure they both knew I wanted nothing more to do with them.
164. I'd tell them that I am delighted that they have become friends.
165. I'd duck out of sight to avoid facing them.

What would you IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?

166. Go home and sulk.
167. Knock him down and grab the girl away.
168. Show them the I really don't mind their being together.
169. Ask him if stealing is the only way he knows of getting a woman.
170. Indicate that it takes more that one battle to win a war.

What THOUGHT might occur to you?

171. This wouldn't have happened if I had been more attentive to her.
172. All's fair in love and war.
173. They certainly are a pair of double-crossers.
174. I hope they get what they deserve.
175. I was getting tired of her anyhow.

How would you FEEL and why?

176. Relieved, that I was free again.
177. Upset, because I shouldn't have been so trusting.
178. Resigned, because you've got to take life as it comes.
179. Disgusted, because of their dishonesty.
180. Furious, at them because of what happened.

You and an old school friend are competing for a newly vacated executive position in the firm where you work. Although both your chances seem about equal, your friend has had more opportunity to show resourcefulness in critical situations. Recently, however, you have successfully pushed through some excellent deals. In spite of this, the board of directors decides to promote your friend rather than you.

<u>What would your ACTUAL reaction be?</u>
181. I'd try to find out which director "blackballed" me.
182. I'd continue to do my duty as a responsible person must.
183. I'd accept the outcome as proof that I'm not executive material.
184. I'd protest the decision of the board most vehemently.
185. I'd congratulate my friend on the promotion.

<u>What would you do IMPULSIVELY (in fantasy) want to do?</u>
186. Ask the board to reconsider, since a mistake would be detrimental to the company.
187. Kick myself for having aspired to a job for which I wasn't qualified.
188. Show the board how biased they've been in their unjust treatment of me.
189. Help my friend make a success at the new job.
190. Break the neck of each and every member of the board of directors.

<u>What THOUGHT might occur to you?</u>
191. I guess I just don't have what it takes.
192. I probably wouldn't enjoy an executive position as much as the one I have now.
193. There certainly is something fishy about the board's decision.
194. One must take a blow such as this in one's stride.
195. Damn that board of directors.

<u>How would you FEEL and why?</u>
196. Happy, that I still have the job I am used to.
197. Upset, because my inadequacy was made public.
198. Furious, at the directors because of their treatment of me.
199. Resigned, for that's the way it goes in the business world.
200. Angry, because I have been the victim of an unjust decision.

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT RELATIONSHIPS

This questionnaire is concerned with your experiences in relationships. Take a moment to think about these experiences and answer the following questions with them in mind. Select the choice that you feel best describes how you feel in relationships. Indicate your choice by marking the appropriate response on the enclosed computer scoring sheet. **Note: The words "close" and "intimate" refer to psychological or emotional closeness with others. "Others", "people", and "partner(s)" refer to people who you encounter frequently, including special friendships, romantic partners, co-workers, acquaintances, roommates, your parents, other adults, and other relatives including your siblings.**

Using the scale below, fill in the appropriate number (1 through 5) on the scoring sheet for each question.

Not at all like me or Strongly disagree		Somewhat like me or Neither agree or disagree		Very much like me or Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

1.   I find it easy to get emotionally close to others.

2.   I'm not very comfortable having to depend on other people.

3.   I'm comfortable having other people depend on me.

4.   I worry about being abandoned by others.

5.   I don't like people getting too close to me.

6.   I'm somewhat uncomfortable being too close to others.

Using the scale below, fill in the appropriate number (1 through 5) on the scoring sheet for each question.

Not at all like me or Strongly disagree		Somewhat like me or Neither agree or disagree		Very much like me or Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

7. I find it difficult to trust others completely.

8. I worry about others getting too close to me.

9. Others often want me to be closer that I feel comfortable being.

10. I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like.

11. I often worry that others don't or won't really love me.

12. I rarely worry about others leaving me.

13. I often want to merge completely with others, and this desire sometimes scares them away.

14. It is very important to me to be independent.

15. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.

16. I am comfortable without close emotional relationships.

17. I am not sure that I can always depend on others to be there when I need them.

18. I worry about being alone.

19. I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.

20. I know that others will be there when I need them.

21. I haven't received enough appreciation from others.

22. I don't hesitate to ask for help when I need it.

23. I'm often not sure how I feel about people.

Using the scale below, fill in the appropriate number (1 through 5) on the scoring sheet for each question.

Not at all like me or Strongly disagree		Somewhat like me or Neither agree or disagree		Very much like me or Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

24.   I find it easy to trust others.

25.   Other people have not been as consistently available as I would like.

26.   Other people don't take my concerns seriously.

27.   When something good happens, I can hardly wait to tell certain people.

28.   I don't mind asking others for comfort, advice, or help.

29.   Certain people have rarely given me enough of their time.

30.   People have often let me down.

31.   I like to tell my partner(s) all about my day.

32.   I rarely ask others for any kind of help.

33.   I sometimes get frustrated and angry because no one loves me the way I'd like to be loved.

34.   I like to share new ideas with my partner(s).

35.   I'm not the kind of person who readily turns to others in times of need.

36.   I sometimes feel that getting too close will cause trouble for me.

37.   Some people have often been inconsiderate.

38.   I seek comfort from others when I'm troubled or ill.

39.   Sometimes when I get what I want in a relationship, I'm not sure I want it anymore.

Using the scale below, fill in the appropriate number (1 through 5) on the scoring sheet for each question.

Not at all like me or Strongly disagree		Somewhat like me or Neither agree or disagree		Very much like me or Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

40. My partner(s) haven't usually understood what I needed.

41. I miss my partner(s) intensely when we're apart, but sometimes when we're together I feel like escaping.

42. It's best to be cautious in dealing with most people.

43. I often get frustrated because others don't understand my needs.

44. I've generally been able to count on partner(s) for comfort and understanding.

45. Often, just when you think you can depend on someone, the person doesn't come through.

46. When I'm not involved in a relationship, I feel somewhat anxious and insecure.

47. My partner(s) make me doubt myself.

48. I don't seek out others when I am feeling troubled or ill.

49. I sometimes feel angry or annoyed with my partner(s) without knowing why.

50. It's risky to open up to another person.

51. My partner(s) usually do what they want regardless of my wishes.

52. I usually prefer to be alone rather than with others.

53. I'm not very comfortable being away from my partner(s).

54. I've often gotten angry at partner(s) for ignoring me.

55.　　Now read each of the three self-descriptions of "relationship styles" below (A, B, and C). Select the choice that you feel best describes how you feel in relationships. Indicate your choice by marking the appropriate response for Question #55 on the enclosed computer scoring sheet. Again: **The words "close" and "intimate" refer to psychological or emotional closeness with others. "Others", "people", and "partner(s)" refer to people who you encounter frequently, including special friendships, romantic partners, co-workers, acquaintances, roommates, your parents, other adults, and other relatives including your siblings.**

Style A (Choice 1).　　I am uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.

Style B (Choice 2).　　I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.

Style C (Choice 3).　　It is easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me.

Now please rate each of the relationship styles described above according to the extent to which you think each description corresponds to your general relationship style. Fill in the appropriate number (1 through 5) on the scoring sheet for each question.

		Not at all like me		Somewhat like me		Very much like me
56.	Style A is:	1	2	3	4	5
57.	Style B is:	1	2	3	4	5
58.	Style C is:	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

RELATIONSHIPS QUESTIONNAIRE SUBSCALE ITEMS[3]

Mistrust of Intimacy Scale

Item No.	Item
5.	I don't like people getting too close to me
6.	I'm somewhat uncomfortable being too close to others
7.	I find it difficult to trust others completely
8.	I worry about others getting too close to me
9.	Others often want me to be closer than I feel comfortable being
24.	(I find it easy to trust others)[4]
36.	I sometimes feel that getting too close will cause trouble for me
42.	It's best to be cautious in dealing with most people
50.	It's risky to open up to another person

Fear of Loss Scale

Item No.	Item
4.	I worry about being abandoned by others
10.	I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like
11.	I often worry that others don't or won't really love me
12.	(I rarely worry about others leaving me)
13.	I often want to merge completely with others, and this desire sometimes scares them away
19.	I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them
21.	I haven't received enough appreciation from others
25.	Other people have not been as consistently available as I would like

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[3] From Aronoff & Stollak, 1994

[4] Items in parentheses are reverse scored

Fear of Loss Scale cont'd

Item No.	Item
26.	Other people don't take my concerns seriously
29.	Certain people have rarely given me enough of their time
30.	People have often let me down
33.	I sometimes get frustrated and angry because no one loves me the way I'd like to be loved
37.	Some people have often been inconsiderate
43.	I often get frustrated because others don't understand my needs
45.	Often, just when you think you can depend on someone, the person doesn't come through
46.	When I'm not involved in a relationship, I feel somewhat anxious and insecure
47.	My partner(s) make me doubt myself
54.	I've often gotten angry at partner(s) for ignoring me

Secure Intimacy Scale

Item No.	Item
22.	I don't hesitate to ask for help when I need it
27.	When something good happens, I can hardly wait to tell certain people
28.	I don't mind asking others for comfort, advice, or help
31.	I like to tell my partner(s) all about my day
32.	(I rarely ask others for any kind of help)
34.	I like to share new ideas with my partner(s)
35.	(I'm not the kind of person who readily turns to others in times of need)
38.	I seek comfort from others when I'm troubled or ill
44	I've generally been able to count on partner(s) for comfort and understanding
48.	(I don't seek out others when I am troubled or feeling ill)

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

THE HASSLES AND UPLIFTS SCALE

HASSLES SCALE

Directions: Hassles are irritants that can range from minor annoyances to fairly major pressures, problems, or difficulties. They can occur few or many times.

Listed on the following pages are a number of ways in which a person can feel hassled. Read through the list, and every time you find a hassle that has happened to you in the past month, underline that item. For example, the first item on the list is "Misplacing or losing things." If this has been an annoyance or problem for you in the past month, then underline that statement. For now, ignore the items to the right of the statement. Just read through the list and underline ALL the items that have hassled you. If an item has not hassled you in the past month, don't underline it.

	Somewhat Severe	Moderately Severe	Extremely Severe
1. Misplacing or losing things	1	2	3
2. Troublesome roommates/suitemates hallmates/neighbors	1	2	3
3. Social obligations	1	2	3
4. Inconsiderate smokers	1	2	3
5. Troubling thoughts about your future	1	2	3
6. Thoughts about death	1	2	3
7. Health of a family member	1	2	3
8. Not enough money for college	1	2	3
9. Not enough money for luxuries	1	2	3
10. Concerns about owing money	1	2	3
11. Concerns about getting credit	1	2	3
12. Concerns about money for emergencies	1	2	3
13. Someone owes you money	1	2	3
14. Smoking too much	1	2	3
15. Use of alcohol	1	2	3

	Somewhat Severe	Moderately Severe	Extremely Severe
16. Personal use of drugs	1	2	3
17. Too many responsibilities	1	2	3
18. Decisions about having children	1	2	3
19. Care for pet	1	2	3
20. Cleaning up	1	2	3
21. Concerned about the meaning of life	1	2	3
22. Trouble relaxing	1	2	3
23. Trouble making decisions	1	2	3
24. Problems getting along with other people	1	2	3
25. Concerns about succeeding in school	1	2	3
26. Problems with classwork	1	2	3
27. Don't like current work duties	1	2	3
28. Don't like fellow workers	1	2	3
29. Not enough money for basic necessities	1	2	3
30. Too many interruptions	1	2	3
31. Unexpected company	1	2	3
32. Too much time on hands	1	2	3
33. People making you wait	1	2	3
34. Accidents	1	2	3
35. Being lonely	1	2	3
36. Not enough money for healthcare	1	2	3
37. Fear of confronting others	1	2	3
38. Silly practical mistakes	1	2	3
39. In ability to express yourself	1	2	3
40. Physical illness	1	2	3
41. Side effects of medication	1	2	3
42. Concerns about medical treatment	1	2	3
43. Physical appearance	1	2	3
44. Fear of rejection	1	2	3
45. Sexual problems, physical	1	2	3

	Somewhat Severe	Moderately Severe	Extremely Severe
46. Concerns about health in general	1	2	3
47. Friends or relatives too far away	1	2	3
48. Preparing meals	1	2	3
49. Wasting time	1	2	3
50. Problems with auto or other transportation	1	2	3
51. Filling out forms	1	2	3
52. Being exploited	1	2	3
53. Concerns about bodily functions	1	2	3
54. Not getting enough rest	1	2	3
55. Not getting enough sleep	1	2	3
56. Problems with brothers and/or sisters	1	2	3
57. Problems with your lover	1	2	3
58. Too many family responsibilities	1	2	3
59. Too many things to do	1	2	3
60. Concerns about meeting high standards	1	2	3
61. Financial dealings with friends or acquaintances	1	2	3
62. Worries about decision to change jobs	1	2	3
63. Trouble with reading, writing, or spelling abilities	1	2	3
64. Trouble with arithmetic skills	1	2	3
65. Gossip and other things that people say	1	2	3
66. Concerns about weight	1	2	3
67. Any problems about television	1	2	3
68. Not enough personal energy	1	2	3
69. Concerns about inner conflicts	1	2	3
70. Regrets over past decisions	1	2	3

		Somewhat Severe	Moderately Severe	Extremely Severe
71.	Menstrual (period) problems	1	2	3
72.	Nightmares	1	2	3
73.	Hassles from boss or supervisor	1	2	3
74.	Difficulties with friends	1	2	3
75.	Not enough time for family	1	2	3
76.	Not enough money for entertainment and recreation	1	2	3
77.	Annoyances when shopping	1	2	3
78.	Prejudice and discrimination from others	1	2	3
79.	Not enough time for entertainment and recreation	1	2	3
80.	Noise	1	2	3
81.	Crime	1	2	3
82.	Traffic	1	2	3
83.	Pollution	1	2	3
84.	Concerns about your major	1	2	3
85.	Problems with roommates	1	2	3
86.	Problems with instructors	1	2	3
87.	Don't like certain classes	1	2	3
88.	Concerns about exams	1	2	3
89.	Concerns about school work	1	2	3
90.	Roommates taking things that are yours	1	2	3

HAVE WE MISSED ANY OF YOUR HASSLES? IF SO, WRITE THEM IN BELOW:

91. _____   1   2   3

NOW GO BACK TO PAGE ONE, and for all the items that you've underlined, think about how severe the hassle has been in the past month, and give your answer by circling a 1, 2, or 3. Only circle the items you have already underlined. Leave the others blank.

UPLIFTS SCALE

Directions: Uplifts are events that make you feel good. They can be sources of peace, satisfaction, or joy. Some occur often, others are relatively rare.

Read through the list on the following pages and every time you find a event that has made you feel good in the past month, underline that item. For example, the first item on the list is "Getting enough sleep." If this has been an uplift for you in the past month, then underline that statement. For now, ignore the items to the right of the statement. Just read through the list and underline ALL the items that have made you feel good. If an item has not made you feel good in the past month, don't underline it.

	Somewhat Often	Moderately Often	Extremely Often
1. Getting enough sleep	1	2	3
2. Practicing your hobby	1	2	3
3. Being lucky	1	2	3
4. Saving money	1	2	3
5. Nature	1	2	3
6. Liking fellow workers	1	2	3
7. Gossiping: "shooting the bull"	1	2	3
8. Successful financial dealings	1	2	3
9. Feeling healthy	1	2	3
10. Finding something presumed lost	1	2	3
11. Recovering from illness	1	2	3
12. Staying or getting in good physical shape	1	2	3
13. Being with children	1	2	3
14. "Pulling something off"; getting away with something	1	2	3
15. Visiting, phoning, or writing someone	1	2	3
16. Relating well with your lover	1	2	3
17. Completing a task	1	2	3
18. Giving a compliment	1	2	3
19. Meeting family responsibilities	1	2	3
20. Relating well with friends	1	2	3

	Somewhat Often	Moderately Often	Extremely Often
21. Being efficient	1	2	3
22. Meeting your responsibilities	1	2	3
23. Quitting or cutting down on alcohol	1	2	3
24. Quitting or cutting down on smoking	1	2	3
25. Solving an ongoing practical problem	1	2	3
26. Daydreaming	1	2	3
27. Weight	1	2	3
28. Sex	1	2	3
29. Friendly people	1	2	3
30. Having enough time to do what you want	1	2	3
31. Getting out of a bad relationship	1	2	3
32. Eating out	1	2	3
33. Resolving inner conflicts	1	2	3
34. Being with older people	1	2	3
35. Finding no prejudice or discrimination when you expect it	1	2	3
36. Cooking	1	2	3
37. Capitalizing on an unexpected opportunity	1	2	3
38. Life being meaningful	1	2	3
39. Being well-prepared	1	2	3
40. Eating	1	2	3
41. Relaxing	1	2	3
42. Being visited, phoned, or sent a letter	1	2	3
43. Thinking about the future	1	2	3
44. Spending time with family	1	2	3
45. Home (inside) pleasing you	1	2	3
46. Reading	1	2	3
47. Giving a present	1	2	3
48. Getting a present	1	2	3
49. Having enough money for health care	1	2	3
50. Traveling or commuting	1	2	3

		Somewhat Often	Moderately Often	Extremely Often
51.	Having enough money for transportation	1	2	3
52.	Health of a family member improving	1	2	3
53.	Resolving conflicts over what to do	1	2	3
54.	Thinking about health	1	2	3
55.	Being a "good" listener	1	2	3
56.	Socializing (parties, being with friends, etc.)	1	2	3
57.	Making a friend	1	2	3
58.	Sharing something	1	2	3
59.	Having someone listen to you	1	2	3
60.	Entertainment (movies, concerts, TV, etc.)	1	2	3
61.	Good news on local or world level	1	2	3
62.	Getting good advice	1	2	3
63.	Recreation (sports, games, hiking, etc).	1	2	3
64.	Paying off debts	1	2	3
65.	Using skills well at work	1	2	3
66.	Past decisions "panning out"	1	2	3
67.	Growing as a person	1	2	3
68.	Being complimented	1	2	3
69.	Having good ideas at work	1	2	3
70.	Improving or gaining new skills	1	2	3
71.	Expressing yourself well	1	2	3
72.	Laughing	1	2	3
73.	Liking work duties	1	2	3
74.	Music	1	2	3
75.	Getting unexpected money	1	2	3
76.	Changing jobs	1	2	3
77.	Dreaming	1	2	3
78.	Having fun	1	2	3
79.	Going someplace that's different	1	2	3
80.	Pets	1	2	3
81.	Car working/running well	1	2	3
82.	Pleasant smells	1	2	3
83.	Getting love	1	2	3
84.	Successfully avoiding or dealing with bureaucracy or institutions	1	2	3
85.	Making decisions	1	2	3

	Somewhat Often	Moderately Often	Extremely Often
86. Thinking about the past	1	2	3
87. Giving good advice	1	2	3
88. Praying	1	2	3
89. Meditating	1	2	3
90. Fresh air	1	2	3
91. Confronting someone or something	1	2	3
92. Being accepted	1	2	3
93. Giving love	1	2	3
94. Boss pleased with your work	1	2	3
95. Being alone	1	2	3
96. Feeling safe	1	2	3
97. Working well with fellow workers	1	2	3
98. Knowing your job is secure	1	2	3
99. Feeling safe in your neighborhood	1	2	3
100. Doing volunteer work	1	2	3
101. Contributing to a charity	1	2	3
102. Learning something	1	2	3
103. Being "one" with the world	1	2	3
104. Fixing/repairing something (besides at your job)	1	2	3
105. Making something (besides at your job)	1	2	3
106. Exercising	1	2	3
107. Meeting a challenge	1	2	3
108. Hugging and/or kissing	1	2	3
109. Flirting	1	2	3

HAVE WE MISSED ANY OF YOUR UPLIFTS? IF SO, WRITE THEM IN BELOW:

110. _____ _____ _____	1	2	3

NOW, GO BACK TO PAGE SIX, and for off the items that you've underlined, think about how often the uplift event has made you feel good in the last month; give your answer by circling a 1, 2, or 3. Only circle the items that you have already underlined. Leave the others blank.

APPENDIX E

MODIFICATIONS TO THE HASSLES AND UPLIFTS SCALE

Items Added to the Hassles Scale

Cleaning up
Concerns about succeeding in school
Problems with classwork
Problems with brothers or sisters
Concerns about your major
Problems with roommates
Problems with instructors
Don't like certain classes
Concerns about exams
Concerns about schoolwork
Roommates taking things that are yours

Items Deleted from the Hassles Scale

Financial responsibility for someone who doesn't live with you
Cutting down on electricity, water, etc.
Non-family members living in your house
Customers or clients giving you a hard time
Home maintenance (inside)
Concerns about job security
Concerns about retirement
Laid-off or out of work
Not enough money for food
Financial security
Difficulties with getting pregnant
Sexual problems other than those resulting from physical problems
Not seeing enough people
Neighborhood deterioration

Items Deleted from the Hassles Scale cont'd

Financing children's education
Problems with employees
Problems on the job due to being a woman or a man
Declining physical abilities
Rising price of common goods
Problems with aging parents
Problems with your children
Problems with persons younger than yourself
Difficulty seeing or hearing
Unchallenging work
Job dissatisfactions
Too many meetings
Problems with divorce or separation
Legal problems
Not enough time to do the things you need to
Feeling conflicted over what to do
The weather
Concerns about getting ahead
Transportation problems
Not enough money for transportation
Property, investments, or taxes
Yardwork or outside home maintenance
Concerns about news events

Items Added to the Uplifts Scale

Getting out of a bad relationship

Items Deleted from the Uplifts Scale

Not working (on vacation, laid-off, etc.)
Being rested
Financially supporting someone who doesn't live with you
Divorce or separation
Having enough personal energy
Using drugs or alcohol
Having the "right" amount of things to do
The weather
Being with younger people
Buying things for the house

Items Deleted from the Uplifts Scale cont'd

Shopping
Smoking
Buying clothes
Becoming pregnant or contributing thereto
Doing yardwork or outside housework
Your yard or outside of house is pleasing
Looking forward to retirement
Having enough money for entertainment and recreation
Job satisfying despite discrimination due to your sex
Free time
Vacationing without spouse or children
Having good credit
Deciding to have children
Enjoying non-family members living in your house
Neighborhood improving
Children's accomplishments
Things going well with employee(s)

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F

HASSLES CONTENT SUBSCALE ITEMS

Health Hassles

Item No.	Item
15.	Use of alcohol
16.	Personal use of drugs
40.	Physical illness
42.	Concerns about medical treatment
43.	Physical appearance
46.	Concerns about health in general
66.	Concerns about weight
68.	Not enough personal energy

Interpersonal Hassles

Item No.	Item
2.	Troublesome roommates/suitemates/hallmates/neighbors
24.	Problems getting along with other people
37.	Fear of comforting others
44.	Fear of rejection
61.	Financial dealings with friends or acquaintances
65.	Gossip and other things people say
74.	Difficulties with friends
85.	Problems with roommates
90.	Roommates taking things that are yours

Inner Concerns

Item No.	Item
5.	Troubling thoughts about your future
6.	Thoughts about death
21.	Concerned about the meaning of life
23.	Trouble making decisions
35.	Being lonely
39.	Inability to express yourself
44.	Fear of rejection
69.	Concerns about inner conflicts
70.	Regrets over past decisions

Academic Hassles

Item No.	Item
25.	Concerns about succeeding in school
26.	Problems with classwork
64.	Trouble with arithmetic skills
84.	Concerns about your major
86.	Problems with instructors
87.	Don't like certain classes
88.	Concerns about exams
89.	Concerns about schoolwork

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G

UPLIFTS CONTENT SUBSCALE ITEMS

Interpersonal Uplifts

Item No.	Item
7.	Gossiping: "Shooting the bull"
15.	Visiting, phoning, writing someone
20.	Relating well with friends
29.	Friendly people
42.	Being visited, phoned, or sent a letter
55.	Being a "good" listener
56.	Socializing (parties, being with friends, etc.)
57.	Making a friend
58.	Sharing something
59.	Having someone listen to you
62.	Getting good advice
68.	Being complimented
83.	Getting love
87.	Giving good advice
91.	Confronting something or someone
92.	Being accepted
93.	Giving love

Non-Interpersonal Uplifts

Item No.	Item
9.	Feeling healthy
10.	Finding something presumed lost
12.	Staying or getting in good physical shape
14.	"Pulling something off"; getting away with something
17.	Completing a task

Non-Interpersonal Uplifts cont'd

Item No.	Item
21.	Being efficient
23.	Quitting or cutting down on alcohol
25.	Solving an ongoing practical problem
27.	Weight
37.	Capitalizing on an unexpected opportunity
38.	Life being meaningful
39.	Being well-prepared
40.	Eating
41.	Relaxing
43.	Thinking about the future
45.	Home (inside) pleasing you
52.	Health of a family member improving
53.	Resolving conflicts over what to do
54.	Thinking about health
60.	Entertainment (movies, concerts, TV, etc.)
63.	Recreation (sports, games, hiking, etc.)
66.	Past decisions "panning out"
67.	Growing as a person
69.	Having good ideas at work
70.	Improving or gaining new skills
71.	Expressing yourself well
72.	Laughing
77.	Dreaming
79.	Going someplace that's different
82.	Pleasant smells
85.	Making decisions
86.	Thinking about the past
96.	Feeling safe
100.	Doing volunteer work
102.	Learning something
104.	Fixing/repairing something (besides at your job)
105.	Making something (besides at your job)
106.	Exercising
107.	Meeting a challenge