PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY FUNCTIONING AND EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY FROM PARENTS IN EARLY ADOLESCENTS

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PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY FUNCTIONING AND EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY FROM PARENTS IN EARLY ADOLESCENTS

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine family functioning factors (cohesion, flexibility, parent-adolescent communication, and family life satisfaction) in relation to three aspects of adolescent emotional autonomy dimensions (de-idealization, individuation, and non-dependency). Three separate regression models, sex (entered Step 1), cohesion and flexibility (entered Step 2), and parent-adolescent communication effectiveness and adolescent family life satisfaction (entered Step 3) are tested for each of the three dimensions of emotional autonomy. The results provide support for the consideration of selected family variables as predictors of adolescent autonomy. The results are discussed in light of previous work, possible future areas of research, and possible applications.

Perceptions of Family Functioning and Emotional Autonomy From Parents in Early Adolescents

Introduction

Scholars in the field of adolescent development identify the formation of identity as a primary area of development during adolescence (Blos, 1979, 1989; Erikson, 1950). One area of identity development is emotional autonomy development. Emotional autonomy from parents refers to the ability of individuals to reconfigure their bonds with parents to allow for a clear sense of separation from the family of origin while retaining a sense of family connectedness. The study of adolescent autonomy development centers around two themes emerging from separate theoretical bases: (a) *individuation* (Blos, 1979, 1988; Chen & Dornbusch, 1998) and (b) *differentiation* (Bowen, 1988; Kerr & Bowen, 1988). *Individuation,* based in psychoanalytic thought, describes the "progressive disengagement from primary love objects, i.e., from the infantile parental figures or substitutes" (Blos, 1979; p. 118). Thus, the construct of individuation is based on the assumption that the development of the individual self is based upon a separation from parents (Blos, 1989). *Differentiation* founded in Bowenian family systems theory, focuses upon relationships rather than the individual. As a person moves toward maturity the nature of their relationships with others change. Specifically, a person moves from a state of "fusion" with the family origin in which the individual does not have a sense of themselves apart from the family system toward connections with the family that allow for a sense of self apart from the family. This process opens the door for allowing close emotional relations to develop with others outside the family of origin. As individuals differentiate form their family of origin, they are able to develop new relationships based

upon the sense of themselves as individuals while retaining more adult-like relationships with their parents. Differentiation is not simply an "emotional cutoff" from the family of origin. Rather, it is a redefinition of relationships whereby one negotiates new adult relationships with both one's family and others retaining connectedness based upon a clear sense of self (Bowen, 1988). Hence, adolescent emotional autonomy from parents involves (a) a reduction in dependency upon parents, (b) seeing parents as distinct individuals beyond their parental roles, and (c) a reduction in idealizations of their parents formed by individuals during their youth (Blos, 196; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986).

Despite the focus on aspects of autonomy in both psychoanalytic and family systems theory, little research has been conducted to examine how the concepts of family functioning from a systems perspective relate to the psychoanalytic concepts of emotional autonomy. Although both psychoanalytic and family systems perspectives both highlight autonomy during adolescent development, the psychoanalytic view focuses on the separation from the family whereas the family systems perspective focuses upon maintenance of family connections. Based on these ideas, *the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship of adolescents' perceptions concerning family functioning components (cohesion, adaptability, and parent-adolescent communication) to dimensions of adolescents' perceived emotional autonomy detachment (de-idealization of parents, individuation, and non-dependency on parents) in early adolescence.*

Theoretical Models

Psycho-analytic Theory

Much of the Psycho-analytic theoretical work on identity development, including autonomy development, revolves around adolescents resolving infantile sexual issues established during the Oedipal stage and the second Oedipal stages in human development (Blos, 1989). The first Oedipal stage is grounded in the early childhood explosion of learning about the body, social expectations of sex, and an individual's position in a system larger than the child. Children observe their parents and other "adult" individuals for cues pertaining to expectations of female or a male behavior as they discover and define their personal biological characteristics (Martin & Halverson, 1981). So, children participating in the first Oedipal period constructs their personal identity based on perceptions from salient cues of male and female behavior in immediate systems. Thus, children form their early identity in terms of their individual biology and how they perceive individuals with their biology as fitting into a family, without regards for obvious maturational limitations.

Then, with puberty, physical and cognitive developments challenge the child again. As both physical capabilities and social outlets for establishing their sexual identity explosively increase again, children must re-establish their personal identity (Blos, 1989). Therefore, during adolescence there is a "psychic re-structuring" of the individual, or a second individuation, where adolescents engage in both a dissolution and re-organization of personal perceptions of themselves, others, and their relationships with others (Blos, 1980). Thus, by resolving these issues adolescents prepare for leaving childhood and entering adulthood by loosening their ties to their parents (Blos, 1989).

Further, the second individuation involves a maturation of the individual from a dichotomous mode of thinking (all bad versus all good) in favor of allowing for a broader range of classifications (both good and bad). For individuals to achieve a higher level of differentiation they must pass through the second individuation (Blos, 1989). As part of the second Oedipal stage, the child must resolve and reconcile their perceptions of their parents from both the earlier Oedipal stage and the current stage. From the reconciliation and resolution of the second Oedipal stage the individual is able to transfer emotional bonds from their parents to other non-familial people (Blos, 1980, 1989). Resulting from the second Oedipal stage is the second individuation; differentiation must occur for an individual to form an adult identity and adult relationships.

Bowenian Systems

Bowen (1988) asserts that the suppression of emotional impulsiveness is needed to maintain healthy interpersonal relationships. In Bowen's view (1988), humans have dual needs for individuality and togetherness that operate in opposition to each other. The level of differentiation is represented by a continuum ranging from fusion to complete autonomy in a relational context. A person who is more differentiated has a greater capacity for reacting to situations based upon a separation of intellect and emotion. Therefore, higher levels of differentiation enable individuals to process their responses on an objective level (Bowen, 1988; Kerr & Bowen, 1988). Hence, a family's stability, cohesion, and cooperation is affected by the interplay of individuality and togetherness that is perceived and acted upon by individual family members (Bowen, 1988).

Consequently, differentiation of the self from the family of origin occurs within the context of family interactions.

Circumplex Model of Family Systems

In the original Circumplex Model of Family Systems (Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell, 1979), family interaction is characterized by two key elements of family interaction (adaptability or flexibility and cohesion), facilitated by a third dimension (communication), and evaluated for health based upon a fourth dimension (family life satisfaction). While flexibility, cohesion, and family life satisfaction are theoretical constructs, *communication* is described as a behavior consisting of skills (listener skills, speaker skills, and clarity of communication) and behaviors (respect and regard, continuity and tracking, and self-disclosure) (Olson, 1994). *Family flexibility* refers to the ability of a family to " change in its leadership, role relationships, and relationship rules" (Olson, 1994; p. 476, italics omitted). *Family cohesion* is defined as, "The emotional bonding that family members have towards one another " (Olson, 1994; p. 475, italics omitted). A fourth dimension of family functioning is *family life satisfaction,* or the gratifications that individuals perceive based on family interaction (Henry, 1994). Thus, family life satisfaction provides an indicator of the extent to which individuals find the family system to provide an acceptable environment. The relative health of a family can be assessed, in part, by asking individual family members about their level of satisfaction with the family system

Adolescent Emotional Autonomy from Parents

The development of autonomy involves three separate but interrelated spheres: (a) emotional autonomy, (b) behavioral autonomy, (c) value autonomy (Douvan & Adelson,

1966). *Emotional autonomy* is theorized as comprising elements of self-reliance and self-control that allow individuals to reconfigure bonds with family members and establish connections with others outside the family. *Behavioral autonomy* refers to the ability of individuals to make and carry through with decisions and responsibilities. *Value autonomy* describes the ability of individuals to set standards for behavior rather than following through on pressures or expectations from others about moral issues. The present study focuses upon the affective aspect of autonomy, *emotional autonomy*.

Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) propose a psychoanalytic view of emotional autonomy development. As emotional autonomy develops, two steps at different stages of adolescence are involved: (a) detaching from one's parents in favor of peers during early adolescence and (b) developing a sense of emotional autonomy integral for one's identity during late adolescence. Consequently, the psychoanalytic view requires that the context of adolescent autonomy be identified. For example, an early adolescent can have emotional autonomy from parents and low emotional autonomy from peers, thus not possessing an inherent personal identity trait of emotional autonomy. Therefore, to understand adolescent emotional autonomy from parents requires a specific focus on the context of parent-adolescent relationships (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Hauser, Powers, & Noam, 1991; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993).

A predominate approach to studying adolescent emotional autonomy is based upon the work of Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) who developed self-report scales for assessing dimensions of emotional autonomy as defined by Peter Blos's psychoanalytic orientation. Thus, these scholars operationalize emotional autonomy as a component in the development of a "individuation process" (Blos, 1980; p.146) where adolescents

relinquish their childhood dependencies and conceptualizations of their parents by detaching from the parents and the adolescent's infantile perceptions of the parents (Blos, 1989). Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) established a measure of emotional autonomy from parents that encompasses both cognitive and affective elements of emotional autonomy. Specifically, cognitive elements involve de-idealizing parents and seeing them as people whereas affective elements involve non-dependency on parents and individuation.

Assuming that adolescent emotional autonomy is a part of the process leading up to healthy emotional autonomy during late adolescence (as proposed by psychoanalytic theory), the question arises about timing at which such detachments may relate to positive outcomes in youth. Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) found that three of the four elements of emotional autonomy from parents were progressively higher for students in grades between fifth and ninth grades, except in the case of seeing parents as people, which remained fairly constant for students in fifth through ninth grades. Interestingly, these authors also found a negative relationship between adolescent emotional autonomy from parents and the ability to remain autonomous in the face of pressure from peers for involvement in antisocial activities. These findings are consistent with the growing body of literature that suggests adolescents who retain close connections to their parents progress through adolescence with enhanced well-being (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986).

Previous research has been conducted to examine how parenting styles relate to variation in the emotional autonomy of adolescents (Hauser et al., 1991, Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993). However, additional research is needed to examine how adolescents

perceptions of broader family systems dynamics relate to adolescent emotional autonomy.

Complexity of adolescent development of emotional autonomy may be misconstrued if only a composite score is obtained on the Emotional Autonomy Scale and interpreted to measure an adolescent's actual autonomous functioning (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Silverberg & Gondoli, 1996; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986). Therefore, in this study each sub-scale of the Emotional Autonomy Scales will be treated as a separate dimension. Also, since emotional autonomy development appears to be a component of maturation, it is reasonable to expect that each adolescent should have varying levels as part of a natural progression of development. However, since an adolescent's perception of parents as people is linked to maturation (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998) this dimension is not examined, because it has not had time to develop in early adolescence.

Family Functioning and Emotional Autonomy

From a systems perspective, a normative developmental task in the families of adolescents is to allow for the adolescent to gradually develop a sense of autonomy while retaining a sense of connection to the family. Within the systems perspective, a balance of togetherness and separation is a challenge within family systems because too much togetherness can stifle the development of individuals, while not enough connection can result in individuals lacking the sense of belonging or support (Bowen, 1988). Consequently, the systems perspective on autonomy development suggests that adolescents go through a process of redefining family relationships to allow for expanding the social world to allow for establishing intimate relationships beyond the

family of origin. Yet, the family still remains important in allowing adolescents to perceive a supportive base from which to develop a sense of self. This idea is supported by earlier research, which indicates adolescents indicate a desire for higher cohesion (or bonding) in their families (Noller & Callan, 1986).

Since following emancipation, adolescent emotional autonomy is formed over time as both adolescents and parents progressively redefine their relationships, higher levels of perceived family functioning may reduce a need for adolescents detaching and separating from their parent (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Hauser et al., 1991). From this perspective, adolescents distancing themselves from their parents and earlier concepts of their parents and family may not necessarily include physical or emotional detachment (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993). Therefore, family connections provide a base for personal growth and autonomy development (Hauser et al., 1991). Thus, the process of developing emotional autonomy does not preclude closeness of adolescents with their families (Peterson, 1986). Instead, closeness with the family can create a positive context for identity exploration (Cooper, Grotevant, & Condon, 1983).

Based upon these ideas, families who are more cohesive (or those with stronger emotional bonding) and those with greater flexibility (or ability to respond to needs of the family or family members in an adaptive manner) are expected to provide a stronger family foundation for healthy development of emotional autonomy. However, since emotional autonomy from parents is actually a representation of adolescent separation from the potentially supportive base of families, *it was hypothesized that early adolescent reports of family cohesion and family flexibility would be negatively related to the dimension of adolescent emotional autonomy from parents.*

Parent-Adolescent Communication and Emotional Autonomy

Since families provide a base for adolescent development, problems within the parent-adolescent context such as communication directly relate to adolescent development such as facilitating an arrest in development, or premature immature adaptations (Fuhrman & Holmbeck, 1995). So, openness and responsiveness in communication seem adaptive for positive adolescent development (Cooper, Grotevant, & Condon, 1983). According to Barnes and Olson (1992) problems in communication directly impacted adolescent identity formation, facilitating an arrest in development, or premature immature adaptations. In an alternate study by Youniss and Ketterlinus (1987), openness in parent-adolescent communication is linked to de-idealization of stereotypes entertained by the parent about the adolescent, and the adolescent about the parent. So, communication openness and responsiveness, the overall effectiveness of communication, are adaptive for positive adolescent development (Cooper et al., 1983). Such an expectation is supported by findings indicating that adolescents with higher adolescent family life satisfaction report greater emotional disclosure with parents (Papini, Farmer, Clark, Micka, & Barnett, 1990). Thus, *it is hypothesized that adolescent reports of effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication will be negatively related to adolescent emotional autonomy from their parents.*

Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction and Emotional Autonomy

Because adolescent family life satisfaction is defined as the degree of gratification that adolescents report in relationships within their families (Henry, 1994), it is expected that adolescents who are satisfied with their families will be less likely to detach from their parents during early adolescence. Additionally, adolescents reporting of higher

adolescent family life satisfaction also reported a greater quality of life (Schumm, Bugaighis, Bollman, & Jurich, 1986). Thus, *it is hypothesized that adolescent family life satisfaction will be negatively related to adolescent emotional autonomy from their parents.*

Sex of the Adolescent and Emotional Autonomy

While gender does not describe the actual biological sex an individual is born with, gender does refer to the organization of traits within the individual that a society may view as assets to females, males, or both (Baumrind, 1980; Gilligan, 1982). Gender is linked to multiple concepts within the formation of identity ranging from the individual's definition of their personal sex to their socialized gender roles; causing confusion. However, sex of the individual merits consideration in relation to emotional autonomy development because of the relationship between sex and socialized gender development (Baumrind, 1980; Gilligan, 1982; Osmond & Thorne, 1993). Since Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) found limited support for sex differences in adolescent emotional autonomy from parents, it was *it was hypothesized that sex would result in significant differences in adolescent emotional autonomy from parents.*

Method

Research Design

Subjects for this study are part of Phase I of a longitudenal study of how family, individual, and community resources relate to selected aspects of adolescent adaptation funded by the Oklahoma Agricultural Experimental Station and being conducted by Dr. Carolyn S. Henry and Dr. Linda Robinson. Data for Phase I was collected in the spring and fall of 1997 from 321 ninth and tenth grade students in three non-metropolitan Oklahoma communities (population 7,500 and less). Each community has four additional

commonalties, they have one high school, no university, no military base, and are not considered suburbs of any metropolitan area.

From the overall sample of 321 early adolescents a sub-sample of 133 was selected from the population who were in ninth and tenth grade and living in families where both biological parents are present. Age composition of the sample used is 66 fourteen year olds (46.8%), and 75 fifteen yea r olds (53.2%). The grades represented in sub-sample are 100 ninth (70.9%) and 41 tenth (29.1%). Sub-sample sex is divided into 56 male (39.7%) and 85 female (60.3%). Racial composition of the sample is as follows: 4 Black (2.8%), 3 Asian (2.1%), 107White (75.9%), 15 Native American (10.6%), 4 (Mexican-American 2.8%), 7 other (5%), and 1 individual not reporting on the subject of racial heritage (.7%).

Procedure

The first step in collecting the data was to obtain permission from the individual schools to permit collection times during the school day, and facilitate access to the three populations. Then, school officials were contacted in order to set a time for distributing consent forms and to describe the study to participants, teachers, and all concerned with the research. After obtaining parental and participant consent, the same self report questionnaires administered to the pilot group were distributed, completed, and returned in the same day.

Measurement

Emotional Autonomy. Measurement of this variable utilzed Steinberg and Silverberg's (1986) Emotional Autonomy Scale (EAS). This scale measures adolescent autonomy within the following components: perception of parents as people (6 items), parental de-idealization (5 items), non-dependency on parents (4 items), and individuation (5 items), with a total of 20 items. The Cronbach coefficient alphas for internal consistency reliability of each sub-scale are perception of parents as people (.61), parental de-idealization (.63), non-dependency on parents (.51), individuation (.60), and

(Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986). In this study Cronbach's coeffecients were parental deidealization (.69), non-dependency on parents (.51), individuation (.66), and a .81 for an overall alpha.. Based upon prior scholarship, each sub-scale will be used as a reflection of separate features of emotional autonomy development (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Ryan & Lynch, 1989). Further, reflecting research and theorizing about adolescent development indicates that adolescent perceptions of their parents as people is age related, and being more relevant in later adolescence (Blos, 1980, 1985; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993; Ryan & Lynch, 1989; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Therefore, consistent with previous literature the fourth sub-scale, designed to obtain scores on perception of parents as people, is omitted due to the ages represented in the sample frame.

Specifically, the EAS *De-idealization, Individuation,* and *Non-dependency* sub-scales were used. Scores are obtained by summing individual items on a 4-point Likert type scale with 1= *strongly disagree* to 4= *strongly agree*. Sample items on the EAS: (1) "My parents hardly ever mistakes" (de-idealization), (2) "My parents would be surprised to know what I'm like when I'm not with them" (individuation), and (3) "When I've done something wrong, I depend on my parents to straighten things out for me" (non-dependency).

Overall family system characteristics. Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales II (FACES II; Olson & Tiesel, 1992) were used as a self-report to assess cohesion (16 items) and flexibility (14 items), with a total of 30 items. Olson (1995) recommends FACES II use based upon the (a) level of alpha reliability (.87 for cohesion, .78 for flexibility), (b) low levels of correlation between the social desirability measure and both cohesion (r = .39) and flexibility (r = .38), and (c) concurrent validity with the global measure of the family health component of the Dallas Self-Report Inventory (Hampson, Hulgus, & Beavers, 1991). For this study, Cronbach's alphas were .46 (cohesion) and .62 (flexibility). Sample items are: (a) "Family members are

supportive of each other during difficult times" (cohesion), and (b) "Our family tries new ways of dealing with problems" (flexibility). Choices for response range from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree* on a Likert type scale.

Parent-Adolescent Communication. Effectiveness of parent-adolescent relational communication will be measured using a modified version of the Parent-Adolescent Communication Index (Barnes & Olson, 1992). This modified instrument contained 20 items scored and a 5-point Likert type scale. The original Barnes and Olson instrument in the past reported a Cronbach's coefficient of .87 for open parent-adolescent communication, .78 related to problems in parent adolescent communication, and .88 for a total parent-adolescent communication effectiveness scale (Barnes & Olson, 1992). Instructions for participants were to provide responses to each item twice, once for each parent or stepparent living in the home. In this study, Cronbach's coefficients .are 95 for a total parent-adolescent communication effectiveness scale, .92 for open parent-adolescent communication, and .89 related to problems in parent adolescent communication. Sample items include: (a) "When I ask questions, I get honest answers from this parent (mother/father)," and (b) " Sometimes I have trouble believing everything this parent tells me (mother/father)" (reverse coded). Ranges for responses are from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.

Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction. Satisfaction of the adolescent with the family will be conducted using Parent Sub-scale on the Family Life Satisfaction Index (Henry et al., 1992). This sub-scale is comprised of 7 items. Likert scored response scales for each individaul questions range from 1= *strongly disagree* to 5= *strongly agree.* Previous reported Cronbach's alpha's are .89 (Henry et al., 1992) and .85 (Henry & Plunkett., 1995). For this study, obtained Cronbach's alpha's are .86 for the total Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction Scale scores and .83 for the Parent Sub-scale. Examples of the Parental Sub-Scale are: (a) "I am satisfied with the amount of influence my parent(s) have over my actions", (b) "I am satisfied with my overall relationship with my parent(s)." Scores

are obtained by summing all items and then dividing them by the number of items to generate a mean score.

Analysis

Prior to data analysis sex of the adolescent was dummy coded (male = 0 and female = 1, Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Each score represents a mean for the individual instrument. Mean scores were used for simplification of comparisons between scales with disparate numbers of items. Thus, statistics use means of each scale for each subject. Bivariate correlations were examined first to evaluate the significance of correlations between the predictor variables and the three criterion variables to be used in the multiple regression analysis. Separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were then used (See Figure 1) to examine the extent to which sex of the adolescent (Step 1), overall family system characteristics (Step 2), and the evaluation of family factors (Step 3) relate to each of three aspects of adolescent autonomy (deidealization, individuation, and non-dependency on parents). All variables were entered into each of the regression equations using a default value of .10 as the low level of tolerance. Results of the multiple regression analyses using this tolerance level indicated that multicollinearity was not great enough to be a problem in any of the three models (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Analysis of regressions were used to (a) examine the extent to which specific predictor variables in the research model relate to dimensions of adolescent autonomy and (b) to examine the additional variance in dimensions of adolescent autonomy accounted for by the sets of variables in the research model (sex, overall family system characteristics, and evaluation of family factors). Since this research conceptualizes each scale representing a separate construct, three regressions are required in examining each differing dimension. Finally based upon theory, analyses of each regression require that both individual and system levels are necessary for interpretation.

Results

Bivariate Correlations

The results of the one-tailed bivariate correlations provided substantial support for the research hypotheses. Adolescent perceptions of family cohesion, family flexibility, effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication, and adolescent family life satisfaction showed significant and negative correlations ($p < .01$) with each of the three dimensions of adolescent emotional autonomy development (see Table 1). The significant correlations between emotional autonomy de-idealization and the family variables are: cohesion ($r = -.39$), flexibility ($r = -.27$), parent-adolescent communication ($r = -.45$), and adolescent family life satisfaction ($r = -.47$). Significant correlations with emotional autonomy individuation are: cohesion ($r = -.54$), flexibility ($r = -.33$), parent-adolescent communication ($r = -.54$), and adolescent family life satisfaction ($r = -.54$). Emotional autonomy nondependency significant correlations with family system variables are: cohesion ($r = -.43$), flexibility ($r = -.31$), parent-adolescent communication ($r = -.38$), and adolescent family life satisfaction ($r = -.38$). However, sex significantly correlates in this study with only one of the three aspects of emotional autonomy, emotional autonomy de-idealization ($r = .21$).

Insert Table 1 about here

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Models

Model 1. Tested in the first model, the relationships between sex (Step 1), the overall family system characteristics (Step 2), the parent-adolescent relationship

characteristics (Step 3) and *adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization* (See Table 2). In Step 1, adolescent sex was significantly positively related to adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization (ß = .21), showing that adolescent females reported higher early adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization than males. In Step 2, adolescent sex (ß = .17; p<.05) and family cohesion (ß = -.32; p<.01) were significantly related to early adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization, and family flexibility (ß = -.11) was non-significant in relation to early adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization. In Step 3, the two parent-adolescent relationship characteristics, parent-adolescent communication (ß = -.24; p<.05) and adolescent family life satisfaction (ß = -.28; p<.05) were significantly and negatively related to early adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization in Step 3. However, adolescent sex (ß = .14), family cohesion (ß = -.05;), and family flexibility (ß = .05) were no longer significantly related to early adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization. Each step in Model 1 yielded significant increases in the amount of variance explained by the variables in the steps. Specifically, Step 1 adolescent sex explained 4% of the variance in early adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization (ΔR^2=.04), Step 2, the overall family system characteristics explained an additional 15% of the variance in early adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization (ΔR^2=.15), and Step 3 an additional 8% of the total variance(ΔR^2=.08). Finally, the total model explained 27% of the variance in early adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization.

Insert Table 1 about here

Model 2. Tested in the second model, the relationships between sex (Step 1), the overall family system characteristics (Step 2), the parent-adolescent relationship characteristics (Step 3) and *adolescent emotional autonomy individuation*. In Step 1, adolescent sex is non-significant in relation to adolescent emotional autonomy individuation (ß = .07). In Step 2, family cohesion (ß = -.49; p< .01) is significantly and negative in relation to adolescent emotional autonomy individuation, but adolescent sex (ß = .02) and family flexibility (ß = -.09) are not significant in relation to early adolescent emotional autonomy individuation. In Step 3, both family cohesion (ß = -.26; p<.05) and perception of effective parent adolescent communication (ß = -.28; p<.01) showed significant negative relationships to early adolescent emotional autonomy individuation, yet adolescent sex (ß = .01), family flexibility (ß = .04) and adolescent family life satisfaction (ß = -.16), were each non-significant in relation to early adolescent emotional autonomy individuation. For Model 2, Step 1 the sex of the adolescent was not significant in explaining only 1% of amount of variance in development of emotional autonomy individuation (ΔR^2= .01). However, Step 2 explained 29 % of the variance significantly (ΔR^2=.29) and Step 3 explained a significant additional 6% more of the variance(ΔR^2=.06), with p<.01 in each step. Model 2 explained a total 36% of the variance in development of early adolescent emotional autonomy individuation.

Model 3. Tested in the final model, the relationships between sex (Step 1), the overall family system characteristics (Step 2), the parent-adolescent relationship characteristics (Step 3) and *early adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency* (See Table 2). In Step 1, adolescent sex is not significant in relation to emotional adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency (ß = .01). In Step 2, only family cohesion (ß = -.36;

$p<.01$) is significantly and negatively related to adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency, however, adolescent sex ($\beta = -.03$) and family flexibility ($\beta = -.13$) are not significant in relation to early adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency. Next, in Step 3, adolescent sex ($\beta = -.03$), family flexibility ($\beta = -.09$) adolescent family life satisfaction ($\beta = -.02$),and perception of effective parent adolescent communication ($\beta = -.14$) are all not significant in relation to early adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency. Family cohesion ($\beta = -.28$; $p<.05$) in relation to adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency. For Model 3, both Step 1 ($\Delta R^2 = .00$) and Step 3 ($\Delta R^2 = .01$) do not explain significant amounts of variance in development of early adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency. However, Step 2 explained 19% of variance in non-dependency ($p<.01$). The total amount of variance explained in early adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency by Model 3 is 20%.

Discussion

The results provided partial support for the hypotheses that adolescent perceptions of family functioning would be negatively related to three dimensions of adolescent emotional autonomy from their parents. Adolescent reports of family cohesion were negatively related to adolescent reports of non-dependency on their parents. Adolescent perceptions of effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication were negatively related to adolescent de-idealization and individuation. Further, adolescent reports of satisfaction with family life were negatively related to adolescent de-idealization of their parents. Although the bivariate correlations showed that girls reported higher levels of more de-idealization of their parents than boys, these results did not explain unique variance in early adolescent emotional autonomy from parents beyond that also explained by the family functioning variables.

Family Functioning and Emotional Autonomy De-Idealization

In the hierarchical multiple regression analyses relating to adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization, support was provided for two of the four family functioning

hypotheses. Specifically, both adolescent perceptions of effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication and adolescent satisfaction with family life were negatively related to adolescent reports of emotional autonomy de-idealization from their parents. Thus, effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication may help protect adolescents against early separation from parents in the formation of emotional autonomy de-idealization. Such results support the idea that when adolescent perceive effective communication with their parents, the bonds to their parents remain closer (Cooper et al., 1983). In turn, adolescents who feel closer to their parents are at reduced risk for responding to negative peer pressure (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Ryan & Lynch, 1989).

Although it may seem paradoxical that adolescents who see effective communication are less likely to de-idealize their parents, these results are congruent with the expectation that premature de-idealization of parents may not be an indicator of effective progression in adolescent development (Fuhrman & Holmbeck, 1995). Further, significant negative relationships of adolescent family life satisfaction with parents to emotional autonomy de-idealization suggest that adolescents perceiving greater family life satisfaction are less likely to de-idealize their parents.

Family Functioning and Emotional Autonomy Individuation

Results for hypotheses are mixed regarding the relationships of perceptions of overall family system characteristics and adolescent perceptions of the parent-adolescent relationship characteristics. One of the four hypotheses regarding the relationships between family functioning and adolescent emotional autonomy from parents was supported. Specifically, adolescent reports of effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication were negatively related to adolescent emotional autonomy from parents in the form of individuation. Further, family cohesion showed a significant negative relationship with early adolescent emotional autonomy individuation when sex of adolescent and family system characteristics were examined, yet when communication and family life satisfaction were also added to the research model family cohesion was no

longer significantly related to early adolescent emotional autonomy individuation from parents. Thus, in the third step effectiveness of parent-adolescent communication was the only significant variable. Since individuation involves reordering relationships, high cohesion may limit the ability of adolescents to refine and redefine their position in the family. However, communication may serve as a more important dimension than cohesion in the overall family functioning by facilitating redefinition of relationships; making detachment unnecessary for individuation.

Family Functioning and Emotional Autonomy Non-dependency

One of the four hypotheses regarding family functioning and adolescent well-being was supported by the hierarchical multiple regression analyses. Specifically, adolescent perceptions of family cohesion were negatively related to higher adolescent reports of emotional autonomy non-dependency from their parents. Therefore, significance of family cohesion resonates with Ryan and Lynch's (1989) findings where adolescents with higher perceptions of emotional autonomy perceived themselves to less emotionally utilize their parents.

Sex of the Adolescent and Emotional Autonomy

The hypothesis that sex of the adolescent would be a significant predictor of adolescent emotional autonomy from their parents was not supported by two of the three research models. These findings are consistent with prior scholarship, sex of the adolescent did not supply unique contributions to explaining the variance in either adolescent emotional autonomy individuation from parents or adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency on parents (Fuhrman & Holmbeck, 1995; Hauser et al., 1987; Youniss & Kettlinus, 1987). However, these findings are in contrast to the Blos' theory of ego development (1988), which assert that autonomy is more important for males.

In contrast to the theory that sex difference would be found regarding adolescent de-idealization of their parents, the results showed that early adolescent girls reported

more de-idealization of their parents than early adolescent males. However, this is consistent with findings in which females in earlier high school grades reported higher levels of global emotional autonomy (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993). In previous literature, the Emotional Autonomy De-idealization Sub-scale has been linked with higher female scores, leading some to surmise that findings of sex may be linked to maturation cultural expectations, and scale sensitivity (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993). Even though sex is not significant, more support is given to the belief that the Emotional Autonomy Sub-scales should be used individually as to not misconstrue emotional autonomy development from parents.

Conclusions and Implications for Practice

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of adolescents' perceptions concerning family functioning components (cohesion, adaptability, parent-adolescent communication, and adolescent family life satisfaction) to differing levels of adolescents' perceived emotional autonomy from their parents (de-idealization of parents, individuation, and non-dependency on parents) in early adolescence. Since there are varied methods of conceptualizing autonomy development (differentiation and individuation), analysis of findings is complicated. Beginning with the Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) measures of emotional autonomy from parents, a focus on individual adolescents separating emotionally from their parents is thought to be essential. Consequently, family functioning variables focusing on adolescent relationships with their families logically should be inversely related to the individually focused Steinberg and Silverberg scales. Since considerable evidence suggests that adolescents benefit from the support of their parents during early adolescents, premature separation may not be

helpful for adolescents in terms of autonomy as a part of the broader concept of adolescent identity development (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Fuhrman & Holmbeck, 1995; Ryan & Lynch, 1989). The current findings support this assertion by consistently showing negative relationships of family variables with dimensions of adolescent autonomy from parents when examining the bivariate correlations.

Consistent with other research (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Ryan & Lynch, 1989), all significant correlations and betas concerning family system characteristics and parent-adolescent relationships in this study were negative. Thus, adolescent emotional autonomy as operationalized may appear as detachment, but may only be dimensions of development for autonomy from parents not necessarily detachment.

Based upon the significance of each model, it appears that family functioning variables are related to adolescent emotional autonomy from parents during early adolescence. However, there is not conclusive support that early adolescent emotional autonomy from parents, as measured here, is necessary. With significance for family system characteristics being negative in every model, support is found for salience in early adolescence for parents in autonomy development. Thus, consistent significant negative correlational relationships between family system characteristics and parent-adolescent relationship dimensions to early adolescent emotional autonomy support a family systems perspective.

Since cohesion and enmeshment are possibly separate family constructs (Barber & Buehler, 1996), if a family has an enmeshed system then detachment may serve as distancing, or creating a "psychological buffer," for adolescent development. Then, negative correlations and betas may be explainable in light of Ryan and Lynch's (1989)

findings concerning emotional autonomy and parent-adolescent relationships, indicating higher Emotional Autonomy Scale scores relate to less adolescent felt security in the parent-adolescent relationship, lower utilization of parents, greater perceived parental rejection, less perceived parental acceptance, and lower experienced family cohesion.

Differences in each model lend support for arguing a need to treat each sub-scale of the Emotional Autonomy Scale as separate dimensions in relation to the overall family system. Since perceived elements of family functioning described by the Circumplex Model may work together as predictors of adolescent emotional autonomy from parents, different sub-scales may yield differing relationships when emotional autonomy dimensions are considered separately. So congruent with previous scholarship, results suggest the complexity of adolescent emotional autonomy from parents may better be captured with individual sub-scales than a composite score on the Emotional Autonomy Scale. Thus, using separate dimensions appears as aiding to prevent misinterpreting an adolescent's global score as a measure of an adolescent's actual autonomous functioning (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Silverberg & Gondoli, 1996; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986).

Therefore, by facilitating effective parent-adolescent communication and family cohesion the family environment provides a supportive context where an early adolescent does not need to develop emotional autonomy from his or her parents. Further, adolescent family life satisfaction relates to feelings of connection to parents. Through promoting family interaction that relates to adolescent family life satisfaction, the perceived needs by adolescents for separation in the form of emotional autonomy from parents may be diminished.

Since this study examines only early adolescents livingin intact two parent families, further research into family form and functioning would do much in advancement of knowledge about roles of family in adolescent autonomy development. In addition, replicating the current study using adolescents representing a wider age range would allow for comparisons among age groups of adolescents. More precise theoretical definitions and clarifications of detachment, differentiation, individuation, and autonomy would do great wonders in facilitating any additional research into adolescent autonomy development.

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Table 1: Bivariate Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Sex[a]	—						
2. Cohesion	-.09	—					
3. Flexibility	-.01	.50**	—				
4. Parent-adolescent Communication	-.08	.69**	.54**	—			
5. Adolescent family life satisfaction	-.16	.68**	.58**	.67**	—		
6. Emotional autonomy de-idealization	.21**	-.39**	-.27**	-.45**	-.47**	—	
7. Emotional autonomy individuation	.07	-.54**	-.33**	-.54**	-.54**	.50**	—
8. Emotional autonomy Non-dependency	.02	-.43**	-.31**	-.38**	-.38**	.55**	.49**

** Significant $\alpha < .01$ (one tailed bivariate correlations)

[a] Dummy coded (male= 0, female= 1)

Table 2: Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Models

	De-idealization Model 1				Individuation Model 2				Non-dependency Model 3			
	b	SE	β	ΔR^2	b	SE	β	ΔR^2	b	SE	β	ΔR^2
Step 1				.04*				.01				.00
Sex [a]	.24	.01	.21*		.08	.11	.07		.01	.11	.01	
Step 2				.15**				.29**				.19**
Sex	.20	.01	.17*		.03	.09	.02		-.03	.10	-.03	
Cohesion	-.02	.01	-.32**		-.03	.01	-.49**		-.36	.01	-.36**	
Flexibility	-.01	.01	-.11		-.01	.01	.09		-.13	.01	-.13	
Step 3				.09**				.06**				.01
Sex	.16	.09	.14		-.01	.09	-.01		-.04	.01	-.03	
Cohesion	-.00	.01	-.05		-.01	.01	-.26*		-.02	.01	-.28*	
Flexibility	-.00	.01	.05		.00	.01	.04		-.01	.01	-.09	
Parent-adolescent communication	-.10	.05	-.24*		-.13	.05	-.28*		-.06	.05	-.14	
Adolescent family life satisfaction	-.22	.09	-.28*		.14	.09	-.16		-.01	.10	-.02	
Multiple R				.52				.60				.45
R^2				.27				.36				.20
Adjusted R				.24				.33				.17
F Value				9.53**				14.09**				6.61**

*p< .05

**p< .01

[a] Dummy coded (male= 0, female= 1)

APPENDIX A

Perceptions of Family Functioning and Emotional Autonomy From Parents in Early Adolescents

Introduction

Overview and Context

It has been suggested that the main task associated with adolescence is the formation of identity (Blos, 1979, 1988; Erikson, 1950). While studying identity formation three constructs appear as central in the individual's personal development of autonomy: (a) *individuation* (Blos, 1979, 1988; Chen & Dornbusch, 1998), (b) *differentiation* (Bowen, 1988; Kerr & Bowen, 1988), and (c) *detachment* (Blos, 1979, 1988; Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993; Fuhrman & Holmbeck, 1995; Ryan & Lynch, 1989). However, these three separate dimensions in autonomy development are often confused by unclear delineation or differing conceptualizations between studies. *Individuation* in adolescence is conceived to be, "A progressive disengagement from primary love objects, i.e., from the infantile parental figures or substitutes" (Blos, 1979; p. 118). This construct of individuation is tied to the individual's capacity for development of self-object relations (Blos, 1989). *Differentiation*, however, is a relational construct based upon the individual's level of "fusion" or autonomy in dyadic or triadic relationships (Bowen, 1988). From the family systems perspective differentiation of an individual is based upon person's ability to maintain both a sense of self and a level of connection within a relationship. Juxtapositioning individuation and differentiation, differentiation focuses on a relational level of individual functioning, while individuation emphasizes the personal level of functioning. Finally, *detachment*, "an absence of experienced attachment or cohesion (Ryan & Lynch, 1989; pp. 341)," or

loosening of previous bonds within the family in facilitation of potential attachments in a wider community (Blos, 1979), becomes an expression of the individuation and differentiation abilities of the person within relationships. Therefore, detachment acts on both the individual and system levels based upon the context of interaction.

As adolescence marks a change in cognitive development, it also accompanies changes in modes of thinking (Inhelder & Piaget, 1958). The development of formal operational thought permits an expansion in an individual's freedom of thought. With this expansion of thought, novel comparisons become possible because of developing abilities to perceive dialectical differences. Therefore, during adolescence an individual develops an ability to reason between different alternatives and choose outcomes for their lives potentially changing the nature of the parent-adolescent relationship.

In previous work on adolescence, there are indications that family is possibly the most important social environment in operating during development of individual identity (Peterson & Leigh, 1990; see for further discussion). With autonomy development, adolescents pose possible challenges for a family system as differentiation occurs between personal values previously socialized and accepted, as the adolescent establishes there individuated values (Erikson, 1950). Thus, the adolescent's growth and development of differentiation may conflict with their parent's need for continuity and stability in the family (Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxem, & Wilson, 1983). So, conflicts may appear from discrepancies between the adolescent's needs and development, established family values, parent's personal needs and development (Olson et al., 1983).

Justification.

Literature on adolescent identity development, however, tends to focus on autonomy being formed from the "breaking away" of the adolescent from the family of origin (Cooper, Grotevant & Condon, 1983), or striving for recognition as a distinct individual interrelated to other people (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). As an adolescent develops individuation a process of detaching from a family is theorized to involve differentiation of: (a) dependency upon parents, (b) parents as distinct individuals apart from parental role expectations, and (c) youthful, "infantile," idealizations of parents (Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986). Since individuation and differentiation are relational constructs, balancing "connectedness" with individuality over time and environments, they should not be considered as individual traits inherent to the person (Bowen, 1988; Cooper et al., 1983). Thus, individuation is compatible with Bowen's (1988) conceptualization of differentiation. So, the ability of an adolescent to operate with an internal locus of control, detach, is expressed in varied ways dependent upon their relationship contexts and the personal and family histories involved of all individuals. Autonomy then is personal resolution of tensions between the need for connectedness, the need for recognition as an individual, and operation as a distinct entity.

Current research on individuation indicates adolescents develop with more socially desirable behaviors in families where individuality and connectedness are balanced (Bhushan & Shirali, 1992; Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Fuhrman & Holmbeck, 1995; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993; Ryan & Lynch, 1989). Further, adolescents who are distant, or psychologically detached, exhibit poor developmental adjustment (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993; Ryan & Lynch, 1989). *Because of the*

importance of the adolescent's experience within their families in development of adolescent autonomy, this study proposes an examination of family variables in relation with on adolescent emotional autonomy development. Therefore, based upon these ideas, the following research question was developed: "*To what extent do adolescents' perceptions of their family's functioning relate to perceived dimensions of adolescent emotional autonomy?*"

Theories

Psycho-analytic Theory of Adolescence

Siegfried Bernfeld is quoted by Peter Blos as saying, "Adolescence is a normative psychosis (1988; p. 13). In this "traditional" perspective, marked by an early "storm and stress" theoretical foundation (Freud, S. 1949) adolescence is characterized as a disturbance in the individual's development because of somatic and psychological changes (Blos, 1980). Much of the Psycho-analytic theoretical work on identity development in adolescence revolves around infantile sexual resolution of the Preoedipal and Oedipal stages in human development (Blos, 1989). Emphasized in a Psycho-analytic developmental perspective adolescence is a normative stage where individuals leave childhood for adulthood (Blos, 1989). So, adolescence is the terminal stage of childhood which specifically relates early childhood experiences to adult functioning (Blos, 1989).

During adolescence there is a "psychic re-structuring" of the individual, or a second individuation (Blos, 1980). For the adolescent there must be both a dissolution and re-organization of personal perceptions of themselves, others, and their relationships with others. The second individuation involves a maturation of the individual from a dichotomous mode of thinking (all bad versus all good) to allow for possible variations in

classifications (both good and bad). So, for an individual to achieve a higher level of differentiation they must pass through the second individuation.

Rooted in Freudian thought, during adolescence the individual experiences the second individuation as a part of the second Oedipal stage (Blos, 1989). Where in the first Oedipal stage the individual is not physically mature enough to assert their sexual choices, in adolescence, with the onset of puberty, the adolescence is able to consolidate their personal sex ascription (Freud, 1949). As part of the second Oedipal stage, the child must resolve and reconcile their perceptions of their parents from both the earlier Oedipal stage and the current stage. From the reconciliation and resolution of the second Oedipal stage the individual is able to transfer emotional bonds from their parents to other non-familial people (Blos, 1980, 1989). Resulting from the second Oedipal stage is the second individuation; differentiation then must occur for an individual to form an adult identity and adult relationships.

Family Systems Theory

Starting from other sciences, especially natural sciences, General Systems Theory appealed to many therapists studying patients who appeared healthy in clinical settings, but symptomatically regressed upon returning to their families (Kerr, 1981; Whitechurch & Constantine, 1993). *Family systems theory* suggests an organization of observations and relational dynamics into hierarchies of interrelated individuals or dynamics (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Within this perspective family interactions have two basic organizational modes, (a) *the subsystem*, or smaller organizational models embedded in a larger system and (b) *the suprasystem*, larger organizational models encompassing multiple subsystems (Whitechurch & Constantine, 1993). Central in studying family dynamics using a family systems vantage is a notion of punctuation, or selecting a point to begin inquiries about relationships then examining linkages from the selected point.

Punctuating a family system with adolescent emotional autonomy development, as an adolescent matures the individual becomes a subsystem of varying emotional autonomy dimensions within a family suprasysytem. Dimensions of adolescent emotional autonomy development then interacts within a larger subsystem of parent-adolescent relations. Thus, individual development in adolescence impacts upon relationship processes between parent and adolescent. Also, a, parent-adolescent relational subsystem interact with adolescent development forming a feedback loop. Growing from the roots of psychoanalysis and utilizing family systems Theoretical approaches, family therapy focuses on the relationships of individual family members in their relation to the health of the individual (Kerr, 1981).

Bowenian Theory

In context of family therapy, Bowen (1988) asserts suppression of emotional impulsiveness is needed in maintaining relationships. So, an individual's ability to function in a differentiated manner is a topic of personal mental health. In Bowen's view (1988), humans have dual needs operating in opposition, needs for individuality and "togetherness." Thus, differentiation is then seen as a polar continuum ranging from fusion to complete autonomy in a relational context. *Fusion*, according to Bowen (1988), is the amount which people's intellectual processes are dominated by their emotional responses, or what "feels right." Thus, full *differentiation* becomes an opposing pole of the differentiation continuum where people react based on separation of intellect and emotion; or have capacity for processing responses on an objective level (Bowen, 1988; Kerr & Bowen, 1988).

Within their relationships individuals exhibit two types of "selves" based upon levels of differentiation, a pseudo-self and a solid-self (Bowen, 1988). The *pseudo-self* is a participant in relationships that are fused. Within fused relationships, those displaying a pseudo-self lose sense of personal identity gaining new definitions of self formed by dependency on other individuals. Through use of pseudo-self individuals collect multiple

principles, beliefs, philosophies, and knowledge from various sources with awareness of possible discrepancies. Opposite of the pseudo-self, the *solid self* is a non-participant in fused relationships. Thus, a solid self derives personal sense of self from intellectually reasoning between clearly defined opinions, beliefs, convictions, and life experiences. So, the solid self represents a polar end of differentiation in social relationships. Therefore, as a person is more "solid" and differentiated they function more autonomously (Kerr & Bowen, 1988).

Formation of self-differentiation is enacted in the family. The relation of an individual's differentiation is related with the degree of differentiation within parents, and how individual parent's differentiation is enacted in their family (Bowen, 1988). Bowen states, "The child is 'programmed' into the emotional configuration of the family in early life (1988; p. 537)." So, a child developing in the emotional field of a family may become entangled in the familial relationships and processes (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). Further, the parent-child relationship is experienced differently dependent upon the parent and the individual child in the family. Therefore, the individual experiences of an individual in the family may interact with the family system either constraining or enabling the adolescent's development (Cooper et al., 1983). Thus, each individual experiences each other individual in the family differently. Adaptations are made in response to the group's emotional processes (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). So, the family's stability, cohesion, and cooperation is affected by the interplay individuality and togetherness perceived and acted upon by individual members (Bowen, 1988).

The Circumplex Model of Family Systems

To operationalize the concepts of adaptability and cohesion for use in a clinical setting David Olson and colleagues developed a mid-range theoretical model, the Circumplex Model, of family functioning in 1970's. In the Circumplex Model a typology of families is developed based upon the levels of family adaptability and family cohesion for clinical assessment of family functioning (Cluff, Hicks & Madsen, 1994;

Olson, 1994). Within the family two dimensions of functioning, *flexibility* and *cohesion*, are considered as relating to the relative health of a family system for the system and its members (Olson, 1994). In the original Circumplex Model (Olson, Sprenkle & Russell, 1979), these dimensions were conceptualized as curvilinear and facilitated by a third dimension of communication. Extreme scores obtained by the family in the Circumplex Model are theorized to indicate more problems in family functioning; balanced scores indicate the greater likelihood of healthy family functioning. Yet, the relative healthfulness of a family system is said to be based upon the family life satisfaction of the individual members (discussed later), a possible fourth dimension of family functioning. However (as will be discussed later), in empirical studies the using the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales (FACES), the dimensions of family cohesion and family adaptability have operated in a linear fashion, with higher levels indicative of higher functioning (Cluff et al., 1994; Olson, 1994). The FACES instrument (Olson et al., 1979; Olson et al.1985, 1992) developed by Olson and his associates is said to test the dimensions of the Circumplex Model, and will be discussed later.

Within the Circumplex Model the relationship of family flexibility and cohesion are facilitated by a third dimension, communication (Olson, 1994; Olson et al., 1983). *Family flexibility*, as defined in the Circumplex model is, "The amount of change in its leadership, role relationships, and relationship rules" (Olson, 1994; pp. 476, emphases omitted). For the Circumplex Model, *family cohesion* is defined as, "The emotional bonding that family members have towards one another" (Olson, 1994; p. 475, emphases omitted). Then for the third dimension, *communication*, is described rather than defined as consisting of skills (listener skills, speaker skills, and clarity of communication) and behaviors (respect and regard, continuity and tracking, and self-disclosure) (Olson, 1994). So, the possibility for the fourth dimension *family life satisfaction* is suggested in the comments that families can function anywhere on a continuum from balanced to extreme

if members of the family are satisfied with the family system (Cluff et al., 1994; Olson et al., 1979)

The Circumplex Model asserts that family functioning may be described as on of 3 types, (a) balanced, (b) mid-range, or (c) extreme (Olson, 1994; Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxem, & Wilson,1983, 1992; Olson et al., 1979). *Balanced* families are supposed to have characteristics of flexibility and cohesion in relatively equaling amounts, creating families with healthy functions. *Mid-range* families are then theorized to function with relatively unequal amounts of flexibility and cohesion, producing family functions that are only moderately healthy. Finally, *extreme* families are conceived to operate with highly unequal amounts of flexibility and cohesion, making family functioning problematic and difficult. Yet, families can experience differing types of functioning based upon the needs of differing situations, but normally not for an extended period of time (Cluff et al., 1994; Olson et al., 1979). When culture or social norms support a family functioning type an unhealthy family type may persist over time, but at the expense of individual members' autonomy and independence (Cluff et al., 1994; Olson, Russell, & Sprenkle, 1980; Olson et al., 1979). Therefore, the satisfaction of individual family members in expected role performance and family functioning is important in assessing the relative health of the family's functioning.

Since the Circumplex Model was originally designed relating family flexibility and cohesion to the relative healthfulness of a family functioning, the exact nature of the relationship is quite important. Much of the debate generated by the Circumplex Model revolves around whether or not flexibility and cohesion operate in a linear or curvilinear relationship (Beaver & Voeller, 1983; Cluff & Hicks, 1994; Cluff et al., 1994; Eckblad, 1993; Olson, 1994; Olson et al., 1983). Still, in research the dimensions of flexibility and cohesion, as operationalized by the FACES, have proved useful for over 300 studies (Olson, 1986, p. 337). So, the bulk of the discussion centers on the usefulness of a model that permits families exhibiting unhealthy functioning (extreme types) to be seen as

healthy and normative based upon congruent family life satisfaction ratings among family members and socio-cultural expectations. However, "...just because a relationship strategy is adaptive, does not necessarily mean the strategy is optimal" (Fuhrman & Holmbeck, 1995; p. 806).

Adolescent Emotional Autonomy

Defining Adolescent Autonomy

Development of autonomy is identified to involve three different spheres, that are separate but interrelated: (a) emotional autonomy, (b) behavioral autonomy, (c) value autonomy (Douvan & Adelson, 1966). *Emotional autonomy* is theorized as comprising elements of self-reliance and self-control while being capable of transferring attachments from the family group to peer groups. *Behavioral autonomy* is referred to as the freedom an individual exercises in exhibited actions. Finally, *value autonomy* is the individual's choices in life of vocation, morals, and values. However, for conceptual clarity in study the sphere of emotional autonomy is treated as a construct in a relational context to the adolescent's family of origin.

Dimensions of Adolescent Emotional Autonomy

Much of the past research of emotional autonomy development has utilized the Emotional Autonomy Scale created by Laurence Steinberg and Susan B. Silverberg (1986; see Appendix A). In Steinberg and Silverberg's scales (1986) emotional autonomy is operationalized as an "individuation process" from a psychoanalytic framework, where an adolescent relinquishes childhood dependencies and conceptualizations of parents; detaching from the parents and the adolescent's infantile perceptions of the parents (Blos, 1980; p.146). Encompassing four separate factors, emotional autonomy is said to consist of; (a) parental deidealization; (b) individuation; (c) non-dependency; and (d) perception of parents as people. Using a neo-analytic framework Lamborn and Steinberg (1993), assert that emotional autonomy is an initial start toward development of self-reliance and responsible decision making.

Researchers using the Emotional Autonomy Scales have decried the value of the scales due to perceived inconsistent results (Ryan & Lynch, 1989). However, inconsistencies in literature are explained by noting that the researchers utilize either Emotional Autonomy Scale scores as a global construct for emotional autonomy, or utilize separate sub-scales as indicators of emotional autonomy. Yet, using the Emotional Autonomy Scale as either a global descriptor, or relying only on certain sub-scales, the complexity of adolescent emotional autonomy development may be misconstrued (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Silverberg & Gondoli, 1996). Further complicating the literature, differing conceptualizations of autonomy development in adolescence accompany varying usage of the Emotional Autonomy Scales. Thus, theoretical variations and variations in scale usage provided conflicting results dependent upon researcher's personal proclivities.

Whereas, global scale reports of Emotional Autonomy Scale have yielded data apparently rife with negations, by delineating differences due to usage of the Emotional Autonomy Scale inconsistencies are minimized. In the literature using a global emotional autonomy score, emotional autonomy in relation to adolescent adjustment is associated with healthy identity development (Frank, Pirsch, & Wright, 1990). This perspective is consistent with Lamborn and Steinberg's (1993) findings indicate that when high composite emotional autonomy obtained by a shortened version of the original scales (Emotional Autonomy Scale subscales: de-idealization, individuation, and non-dependency) are related to individuation. When individuation is operationalized as an collection of traits it predicted positive adolescent adjustment, academic success and psychosocial maturity. However, in this study, individuation is operationalized differently than Frank and others (1990), where individuation is derived from adolescents reporting scores in the top third for supportive families and on the Emotional Autonomy Scale (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993). Yet, subjects with only high global emotional autonomy

scores were without high family support, were reported to have more behavioral problems and internal distress.

Chen and Dornbusch (1998) further contend that emotional autonomy is best viewed using the separate scales of the Emotional Autonomy Scale with a structural equation model, that support individual scale use in research based upon their research. However, using separate Emotional Autonomy Scale subscales, Chen and Dornbusch (1998) found that the Emotional Autonomy Scale; Individuation Scale associated highly with socially undesirable traits in adolescence. Differences between both sets of findings is not consistent, but possible, since each study uses differing definitions of individuation, one involving parental support as an individuation factor (Ryan & Lynch, 1989), and the other involving only the adolescent (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998). Additionally, differences in findings extend beyond the individuation construct, Chen and Dornbusch (1998) found that the Emotional Autonomy Scale Deidealization of Parents Scale related negatively to peer-pressure susceptibility and higher education expectations. Yet, when controlling for moderating family influence the significance of high Emotional Autonomy Scale; Deidealization of Parents Scale scores had no effects for adolescent outcomes. Conclusions drawn form the data states that the Emotional Autonomy Sub-scale scores are best used as a measures of detachment (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Ryan & Lynch, 1989).

Fuhrman and Holmbeck (1995) also noted that the Emotional Autonomy Scale probably should be used as a detachment instrument, when controlling for family. Fuhrman and Holmbeck found higher composite Emotional Autonomy Scale scores correlated negatively in families with high affect environments, and positively in families with low affect environments. Factors that were found relating to positive adolescent adjustment in the family were contextually based such as cohesion, maternal warmth, parental control, and intensity of parent-adolescent conflict. Thus, it is concluded that

adolescents may detach from families for preservation of self, but this detachment may not facilitate gains in self-governance.

Yet, the discussion of the Emotional Autonomy Scales relation to detachment in adolescence is not unique to Fuhrman and Holmbeck (1995) or Chen and Dornbusch (1998). Ryan and Lynch (1989) asserted that since there are few significant differences between Emotional Autonomy Scale subscales to outcome variables, the Emotional Autonomy Scale scores are best treated as measurement of detachment. Findings from the research suggest that adolescents with higher composite emotional autonomy scores felt less secure in parent-adolescent relationships, perceived higher parental rejection, and reported less experiences in cohesive families, and experienced less parental acceptance (Ryan & Lynch, 1989). Further, Frank and others (1990) using only the Emotional Autonomy Scale; the Deidealization Scale found that higher scores reflected healthy identity development, but lower feelings of relatedness and relationship security.

Finally, in keeping with the fact that the Emotional Autonomy Scale is based upon Blos' (Blos, 1980, 1989; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986) conceptualization of a second individuation consisting of detachment of the child from the parent during adolescence, findings supporting a theoretical link between detachment and Emotional Autonomy Scale are logical. Unfortunately, based upon empirical evidence disengagement of the adolescent from parents is neither healthy, nor necessary for the individual to attain appropriate functioning levels (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998). Since emotional autonomy as measured by the Emotional Autonomy Scale is not healthy or desirable, the usefulness of using the psychoanalytic perspective is unsupported (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998). *Thus, in light of the previous research, this study the Emotional Autonomy Sub-Scales will be used as measures of separate types of detachment in early adolescence of the child from their parents indicative of the adolescent's perception of their individual autonomy.*

Families as Context for Development

Since autonomy is developed through a relationship redefinition process engaged in by the adolescent and parent throughout adolescence, the development must be viewed in context of the parent-adolescent relationship (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Hauser, Powers, & Noam, 1991; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993). For families to maintain cohesion, there must be a range of adaptation in the family system for differing level of autonomy in each individual member. So, during adolescence the diversity of the family is particularly salient (Hauser et al., 1991). Therefore, parenting styles may be seen as contributing to the context of adolescent development (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). In support for the argument of parenting style influence, research using Baumrind's (1978) parenting typologies, adolescents from homes that reportedly use authoritative parenting styles are better adjusted, less delinquent, more confident, and more competent than adolescents from homes reporting differing parenting styles (Lamborn, Mounts, & Steinberg, 1991). So, family functioning appears to be salient in the development of emotional autonomy.

Family Dimensions and Emotional Autonomy

Autonomy cannot be developed before a sense of agency has emerged in the adolescent (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). In defining autonomy, Youniss and Smollar (1985) use two components; self-reliant reasoning and mutual understanding. Thus, at a point of emancipation, when the adolescent is capable and realizes dependence upon their parents, detachment and transference of emotional bonds becomes possible. However, detachment, being optional for adolescent development, does not have to be the optimal, central, thrust of development in adolescence. For adolescent maturation an incorporation of other people's perceptions into their self-definition is required. If the perspectives of other people are not incorporated in the adolescent's self definition, the adolescent risks self-delusion or possible arrested development (Youniss & Smollar, 1985).

Following emancipation, adolescent development of emotional autonomy is formed over time through both the adolescent and parent(s) progressively redefining of the parent-adolescent relationship, rather than the adolescent detaching and separating from the parent (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Hauser, Houlihan, Powers, Noam, Weiss-Perry, Follansbee, & Book, 1991). From this perspective adolescents may distance themselves from their parents and earlier concepts of their parents and family, without physical or emotional detachment (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993). So, through family connectedness, permeability, and mutuality, the adolescent acquires a base for personal growth and autonomy development, but is not entirely predictive the development of the adolescent (Hauser et al., 1991). With development of emotional autonomy then, there is not a preclusion of parent-adolescent closeness (Peterson, 1986).

Parent-Adolescent Communication and Emotional Autonomy

Within the family, communication between the parent and adolescent apparently influences the individual's development by affecting the structuring of emotions and reactions (Emde, 1994). Since, communication is an important dynamic family interaction in the Circumplex Model, and identity development begins in the context of the family environment; the influence of communication in the family on the formation of adolescent identity merits examination. Research by Powers and her associates have examined the function of communication in the development of individual identity in adolescence (Hauser et al., 1991; Powers et al., 1983).

In the research literature, verbal and non-verbal communication patterns have emerged as key features in family relationships adolescence (Hauser et al, 1991; Powers et al, 1983). Thus, the type of parent-adolescent communication was found to function in global ego-development of the adolescent. As the adolescent develops, changes in communication types affected the openness of communication within the relationship. Problems in communication directly impacted adolescent identity formation, facilitating an arrest in development, or premature immature adaptations (Barnes & Olson, 1992).

In an alternate study by Youniss and Ketterlinus (1987), openness in parent-adolescent communication is linked to deidealization of stereotypes entertained by the parent about the adolescent, and the adolescent about the parent. So, connection between the parent and the adolescent creates positive context for identity exploration (Cooper, Grotevant, & Condon, 1983). Consistent with the literature on emotional autonomy development, high identity is related in families exhibiting lower positive-affect environment (Bhushan & Shirali, 1992; Cooper et al., 1983; Fuhrman & Holmbeck, 1995). Thus, according to Cooper and associates (1983), communication openness and responsiveness are adaptive for positive adolescent development.

Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction Development and Emotional Autonomy

An adolescent's perception of family cohesion may represent their perception of the family's connectedness (Henry, Sager, & Plunkett, 1996). Family life satisfaction for adolescents (AFLS) is defined by, "The extent which an adolescent is satisfied with the ability of their families to provide a sense of connectedness while encouraging the development of autonomy in relationship with the parents and siblings and in the parents relationship with each other" (Henry, Ostrander, & Lovelace, 1992; p. 1225). So, the adolescent family life satisfaction should influence the parent-adolescent relationship, and the overall functioning of the family. Accordingly, adolescents in more balanced families that paid attention to family times and routines report higher levels of AFLS (Henry, 1994). Further, moderate levels of cohesion and adaptability in the family may act as resources for adolescents reporting higher AFLS (Olson et al., 1983).

So, the extent which adolescents perceive their families in a positive manner is related to AFLS (Henry et al., 1992). Adolescents who have higher AFLS tend to report larger amounts of family flexibility (Henry, 1994). Findings further indicate that adolescents with higher AFLS scores report greater emotional disclosure with parents (Papini, Farmer, Clark, Micka, & Barnett, 1990). Additionally, adolescents reporting of higher AFLS also reported a greater quality of life (Schumm, Bugaighis, Bollman, &

Jurich, 1986). Thus, adolescents in families reported to have healthy functioning levels report greater satisfaction.

Family life satisfaction appears to influence the dynamics involved in family communication, because of the influence the role of family life satisfaction in the parent-adolescent relationship requires examination. Communication between family members is a family strength in families that report low stress, generally resulting higher levels of family life satisfaction (Olson et al., 1983). Within the family stress comes from a child's changing needs for independence. However, another possible source of family stress is discrepant perspectives between the adolescent and parent over family issues and relationships. With the adolescent development of individuation stress may be initiated by the emerging disparities between the child and parent (Bowen, 1988; Olson et al., 1983). Findings from Olson and his associates (1983), indicate that adolescents tend to perceive family functioning as more extreme, while parents tend to perceive family functioning as more balanced. Further, when both parents and adolescents report more extreme family functioning, the discrepancies between the adolescent and parents' perception are greater. Finally, the development of individuation may be the cause of the discrepancies within the adolescent and parents' perceptions.

Biological Sex and Emotional Autonomy

While gender does not describe the actual biological sex an individual is born with, gender does refer to the organization of traits within the individual that a society may view as assets to females, males, or both (Baumrind, 1980; Gilligan, 1982). Gender is linked to multiple concepts within the formation of identity ranging from the individual's definition of their personal sex to their socialized gender roles; causing confusion. However, sex of the individual merits consideration in relation to emotional autonomy development because of the relationship between sex and socialized gender development (Baumrind, 1980; Gilligan, 1982; Osmond & Thorne, 1993).

Blos (1967) asserts that sex differences exhibited in adolescent identity formation are results of differences in pubertal timing inherent in the genetic composition of the individual. Therefore, the importance of biological sex manifests in differences between socialization and expectations of male and female gender roles in society as an individual matures. Research for parents' impact on the context of development, indicate that the sex of the parent also may create variance in the relationship more than the adolescent's sex (Hauser & et al., 1987; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Yet, differences based upon sex are not fully explained as reflections of adolescent reaction to specific sex of either parent, or parenting behaviors (Hauser, Powers, Noam, & Jacobson, 1987).

Summary

Complexity of adolescent development of emotional autonomy may be misconstrued if only a composite score is obtained on the Emotional Autonomy Scale and interpreted to measure an adolescent's actual autonomous functioning (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Silverberg & Gondoli, 1996; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986). Subjects with only high global emotional autonomy scores, without high family support, were reported to have more behavioral problems and internal distress; family context appearing to have a mediating role in development.

Factors influencing positive adolescent adjustment in the family were cohesion, maternal warmth, parental control, supportiveness, and intensity of parent-adolescent conflict. Further, findings from Fuhrman and Holmbeck (1995) tend to confirm that higher composite Emotional Autonomy Scale scores in relation to adolescent well-being are sensitive to family environments. Higher reported Emotional Autonomy scores correlate with outcomes that are negative in families with high affect environments, and positive in families with low affect environments. Therefore, problems within the parent-adolescent context such as communication directly impact adolescent development such as facilitating an arrest in development, or premature immature adaptations. So, openness and responsiveness in communication seem adaptive for positive adolescent

development. Further research on parents' impact on the context of development, indicate that the biological gender of the parent may influence the relationship more than the adolescent's sex.

Since development of emotional autonomy appears to be a component of maturation, it is reasonable to expect that each adolescent should have varying levels as part of a natural progression of development. Important to note, since an adolescent's perception of parents as people in is linked to maturation (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; for discussion) it is not useful to examine this dimension in early adolescence, because it has not had time to develop. However, with emotional autonomy being formed through the parent-adolescent relationship, parents appear occupying a central role in the development of the adolescent's definition of self. *Based upon these ideas, the purpose of this present study is to examine the relationship of adolescents' perceptions concerning family functioning components (cohesion, adaptability, and parent-adolescent communication) to differing levels of adolescents' perceived detachment (emotional autonomy: de-idealization of parents, individuation, and non-dependency on parents) in early adolescence.*

Hypotheses and Research Models

Stemming from Family Systems and a Psycho-analytic theoretical bases, sex of the adolescent, adolescent perceived dimensions in the overall family system of functioning, the relationship between the parents and adolescent, and the adolescent's reported satisfaction with their family life will contribute to the adolescent's perception of their emotional autonomy detachment dimensions. Sex, family functioning variables described by the Circumplex Model of Family Functioning, the perception of the of the parent-adolescent relationship, and the adolescent's satisfaction with the relationship with

their parents will contribute to the levels adolescent's report of their emotional autonomy detachment dimensions. Three models are tested:

Model 1. Sex, family cohesion and flexibility, adolescents' reports of communication effectiveness in parent-adolescent relationship, and adolescent reports of family life satisfaction with the parent-adolescent relationship will explain significant variation in adolescent emotional autonomy de-idealization sub-scale scores.

Hypotheses:

1. Adolescent males will report greater emotional autonomy de-idealization than females.
2. Adolescent reports of both family cohesion and family flexibility will be negatively related to emotional autonomy de-idealization.
3. Adolescent reports of both effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication and family life satisfaction with parent will be negatively related to emotional autonomy de-idealization.

Model 2. Sex, family cohesion and flexibility, adolescents' reports of communication effectiveness in parent-adolescent relationship, and adolescent reports of family life satisfaction with the parent-adolescent relationship will explain significant variation in adolescent emotional autonomy individuation sub-scale scores.

Hypotheses:

4. Adolescent males will report greater emotional autonomy individuation than females sub-scale scores.
5. Adolescent reports of both family cohesion and family flexibility will be negatively related to emotional autonomy individuation sub-scale scores.

6. Adolescent reports of both effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication and family life satisfaction with parent will be negatively related to emotional autonomy individuation sub-scale scores.

Model 3 Sex, family cohesion and flexibility, adolescents' reports of communication effectiveness in parent-adolescent relationship, and adolescent reports of satisfaction with the parent-adolescent relationship will explain significant variation in adolescent emotional autonomy non-dependency sub-scale scores.

Hypotheses:

7. Adolescent males will report greater emotional autonomy non-dependency than females sub-scale scores.
8. Adolescent reports of both family cohesion and family flexibility will be negatively related to emotional autonomy non-dependency sub-scale scores.
9. Adolescent reports of both effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication and family life satisfaction with parent will be negatively related to emotional autonomy non-dependency sub-scale scores.

Insert Table 5

Glossary

Adolescent autonomy- Autonomy is identified to involves the internalization of control and responsibility in the adolescent in three different spheres, that are separate but interrelated: (1) emotional autonomy, (2) behavioral autonomy, (3) value autonomy (Douvan & Adelson, 1966).

Adolescent detachment- Expression of the individuation and differentiation abilities of the person within relationships influencing: (a) "An absence of experienced attachment or cohesion" (Ryan & Lynch, 1989; pp. 341), and (b) a loosening of previous bonds within the family for facilitation of potential attachments in a wider community (Blos, 1979).

Adolescent emotional autonomy- Developing elements of self-reliance and self-control while being capable of transferring attachments from the family group to peer groups (Douvan & Adelson, 1966).

Adolescent family life satisfaction- "The extent which an adolescent is satisfied with the ability of their families to provide a sense of connectedness while encouraging the development of autonomy in relationship with the parents and siblings and in the parents relationship with each other" (Henry et al., 1992; p. 1225).

Adolescent individuation- "A progressive disengagement from primary love objects," i.e., from the infantile parental figures or substitutes (Blos, 1979; p 118); permitting development of self-object relations abilities (Blos, 1989)

Adolescent non-dependency on parents- Limited reliance and utilization of parents for support by the individual (Blos, 1979; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986).

Adolescent parental de-idealization- Relinquishment of conceptions concerning infantile parental figures or substitutes as external loci of control (Blos, 1979; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986).

Adolescent perceptions of parents as people- Understanding that parents occupy roles beyond parenting and pertaining to each individual parent, in example, parents may behave differently when their children are not present (Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986).

Autonomy- Two components are necessary for an internalized locus of control: self-reliant reasoning and mutual understanding between individuals in a relational context (Youniss & Smollar,1985).

Behavioral autonomy - Freedom an individual exercises in exhibited actions (Douvan & Adelson, 1966).

Communication- Behavior and skills for relating personal perceptions between people (Olson, 1994).

Differentiation- An individual's level of autonomy in dyadic or triadic relationships is based upon person's ability to maintain both a sense of self and connection within a relationship (Bowen, 1988).

Effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication- is The ability for individuals to utilize both communication skills (listener skills, speaker skills, and clarity of communication) and behaviors (respect and regard, continuity and tracking, and self-disclosure) in facilitating relationships (Barnes & Olson, 1994).

Emancipation- When an adolescent is capable, and realizes, dependence upon their parents, facilitating detachment and transference of emotional bonds outside the

family of origin over time in adolescence through progressively redefining parent-adolescent relationships, rather than adolescent separating from the parent (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Hauser et al., 1991; Youniss & Smollar,1985).

Family cohesion- "Emotional bonding that family members have towards one another" (Olson, 1994; p. 475, emphases omitted).

Family flexibility- "The amount of change in its leadership, role relationships, and relationship rules" (Olson, 1994; p. 476, emphases omitted).

Family Life Satisfaction- Satisfaction of individual family members in expected role performance and family functioning (Cluff et al., 1994; Olson et al., 1979)

Family of origin- The family system that interacts with an individual during maturation forming psychic structures and feedback loop for the individual influencing the adult behaviors, perceptions, and psychological patterns (Framo 1992).

Family systems- Organization concerning relational dynamics within a family between individuals, community, and dimensions of interactions (Whitechurch & Constantine, 1993).

Second Individuation- Maturation of an individual from dichotomous thinking (all bad versus all good) to allow for possible variations in classifications (both good and bad) (Blos, 1989).

Sex- Actual biological sex an individual is born with, while gender refers to organization of traits within the individual that a society may view as assets to females, males, or both (Baumrind, 1980; Gilligan, 1982).

Value autonomy Individual life-choices for vocation, morals, and values (Douvan & Adelson, 1966).

APPENDIX B

Methodology

Research Design

In essence this study is a secondary analysis of data. Subjects for this study are part of Phase I of a longitudenal study of how family, individual, and community resources relate to selected aspects of adolescent adaptation funded by the Oklahoma Agricultural Experimental Station and being conducted by Dr. Carolyn S. Henry and Dr. Linda Robinson. Data for Phase I was collected in the spring and fall of 1997 from 321 ninth and tenth grade students in three non-metropolitan Oklahoma (population 7,500 and less). Each community has four additional commonalties, they have one high school, no university, no military base, and are not considered suburbs of any metropolitan area. Age composition of the Phase I sample is 110 fourteen year olds (34 %), 154 fifteen year olds (47.5%), 56 sixteen year olds (17.3%), and 4 seventeen year olds (1.2%) (See Table 3). Represented in the Phase I sample are 1 eighth grader (3%), 176 ninth graders (54.3%), 146 tenth graders (45.1%), and 1 twelfth (.3%). In the Phase I sample sex is divided into 142 males (43.8%) and 182 females (56.2%). Racial composition of the sample is as follows: 12 Black (3.7%), 4 Asian (1.2%), 236 White (72.8%), 43 Native American (13.3%), 8 Mexican-American (2.5%), 14 other (4.3%), and with 7 individuals not reporting on the subject of racial heritage (2.2%).

Sample

From the overall sample of 321 early adolescents a sub-sample of 133 was selected from the population who were in ninth and tenth grade and living in families where both biological parents are present. Age composition of the sample used is 66 fourteen year olds (46.8%), and 75 fifteen yea r olds (53.2%). The grades represented in sub-sample are 100 ninth (70.9%) and 41 tenth (29.1%). Sub-sample sex is divided into 56 male (39.7%) and 85 female (60.3%). Racial composition of the sample is as follows: 4 Black (2.8%), 3 Asian (2.1%), 107White (75.9%), 15 Native American (10.6%), 4

(Mexican-American 2.8%), 7 other (5%), and 1 individual not reporting on the subject of racial heritage (.7%).

Procedure

The first step in collecting the data was to obtain permission from the individual schools to permit collection times during the school day, facilitating access to the three populations. Next, data were collected initially by administering a self-report questionnaire to a pilot study group to establish necessary parameters for collecting data with in the schools. Then, school officials were contacted, setting up a time to distribute consent forms and describe study to participants, teachers, and all concerned with the research. After obtaining parental and participant consent, the self report questionnaires were distributed, completed, and returned in the same day.

Measurement

Emotional Autonomy

Measurement of this variable was by Steinberg and Silverberg's (1986) Emotional Autonomy Scale (EAS). This scale measures adolescent autonomy within the following components: perception of parents as people (6 items), parental deidealization (5 items), non-dependency on parents (4 items), and individuation (5 items), with a total of 20 items. Cronbach's coefficient alphas for internal consistency reliability of each sub-scale are perception of parents as people (.61), parental deidealization (.63), non-dependency on parents (.51), individuation (.60), and with an overall alpha of .75 (Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986; See Table 4). Based upon prior scholarship, each sub-scale was used as a reflection of separate features of emotional autonomy development (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Ryan & Lynch, 1989). Further, reflecting research and theorizing about adolescent development indicates that adolescent perceptions of their parents as people is age related, and more relevant in later adolescence (Blos, 1980, 1985; Lamborn & Steinberg, 1993; Ryan & Lynch, 1989; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Therefore, consistent with previous literature the fourth sub-scale,

designed to obtain scores on perception of parents as people, was omitted due to the ages represented in the sample frame.

Specifically, the EAS *De-idealization, Individuation,* and *Non-dependency* sub-scales make were used. Scores are obtained by summing individual items on a 4 point Likert scale with 1= *strongly disagree* to 4= *strongly agree*. Sample items on the EAS are: (1) "My parents hardly ever mistakes" (de-idealization), (2) "My parents would be surprised to know what I'm like when I'm not with them" (individuation), and (3) "When I've done something wrong, I depend on my parents to straighten things out for me" (non-dependency).

Overall family system characteristics

Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales II (FACES II; Olson et al., 1992) were used as a self-report to assess cohesion (16 items) and flexibility (14 items), with a total of 30-item. Olson (1995) recommends FACES II use based upon the (a) level of alpha reliability (.87 for cohesion, .78 for flexibility), (b) low levels of correlation between the social desirability measure and both cohesion (r = .39) and flexibility (r = .38), and (c) concurrent validity with the global measure of the family health component of the Dallas Self-Report Inventory (r = .93 for cohesion and r = .79 for adaptability; Hampson, Hulgus, & Beavers, 1991; See Table 4). Sample items are: (a) "Family members are supportive of each other during difficult times" (cohesion), and (b) "Our family tries new ways of dealing with problems" (flexibility). Choices for response range from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree* on a Likert type scale.

Parent-Adolescent Communication

Effectiveness of parent-adolescent relational communication was measured using a modified version of the Parent-Adolescent Communication Index (Barnes & Olson, 1992). Instructions for participants was to provide responses to each item twice, once for each parent or stepparent living in the home. Sample items include: (a) "When I ask questions, I get honest answers from this parent (mother/father)," and (b) " Sometimes I

have trouble believing everything this parent tells me (mother/father)" (reverse coded). Ranges for responses are from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The original Barnes and Olson instrument in the past reported a Cronbach's coefficient of .87 for open family communication, .78 related to problems in family communication, and .88 for the total scale (Barnes & Olson, 1992; See Table 4).

Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction

Satisfaction of the adolescent with the family was conducted using the Parent Sub-Scale of the Family Life Satisfaction Index (Henry et al., 1992). This sub-scale is comprised of 7 items. Likert scored response scales for each individaul questions range from 1= *strongly disagree* to 5= *strongly agree*. Previously reported Cronbach's alphas are .89 (Henry et al., 1992) and .85 (Henry & Plunkett., 1995; See Table 4). Examples of the Parental Sub-Scale are: (a) "I am satisfied with the amount of influence my parent(s) have over my actions", (b) "I am satisfied with my overall relationship with my parent(s)." Obtaining scores is conducted by summing all items and then dividing them by the number of items to generate a mean score.

Analysis

Prior to data analysis sex of the adolescent was dummy coded (male = 0 and female = 1, Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Next, each obtained score wasdivided by half the number of instrument items to yield a mean score. Then this mean score was used to simplify comparisons between scales with disparate numbers of items. Bivariate correlations was examined to evaluate the significance of correlations between the predictor variables and the three criterion variables to be used in the multiple regression analysis. Separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses wasused to examine the extent to which sex of the adolescent (Step 1), overall family system characteristics (Step 2), and the evaluation of family factors (Step 3) related to each of three aspects of adolescent autonomy (deidealization, individuation, and non-dependency on parents). Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to (a) examine the extent to which

specific predictor variables in the research model related to dimensions of adolescent autonomy and (b) to examine the additional variance in dimensions of adolescent autonomy accounted for by the sets of variables in the research model (sex, overall family system characteristics, and evaluation of family factors). Since this research conceptualizes each scale representing a separate construct, three regressions are required in examining each differing dimension. Finally based upon theory, analyses of each regression require that both individual and system levels are necessary for interpretation.

Table 3: Summary of Sample and Sub-sample Population Frequencies and Percentages

		Total Sample		Sub-Sample[a]	
		n	%	n	%
Sex					
	Female	142	43.8	85	60.3
	Male	182	56.2	56	39.7
Age					
	14	110	34.0	66	46.8
	15	154	47.5	75	53.2
	16	56	17.3	0	0
	17	4	1.2	0	0
Grade					
	8	1	.3	0	0
	9	176	54.3	100	70.9
	10	146	45.1	41	29.1
	12	1	.3	0	0
Race					
	Black	12	3.7	4	2.8
	Asian	4	1.2	3	2.1
	White	236	72.8	107	75.9
	Native-American	43	13.3	15	10.6
	Mexican-American	8	2.5	4	2.8
	Other	14	4.3	7	5.0
	Missing	7	2.2	1	0.7
Total		324		141	

[a] Sub-sample selected based upon grade and current residence with both biological parents in the home.

Table 2: Variable Measures, and Reliabilities

Measure	(Cronbach's Alpha) Previous Reliabilities	Present Reliabilities
Emotional Autonomy[1]	.75	.81
Deidealization	.63	.69
Individuation	.60	.66
Non-Dependency on Parents	.51	.51
Perceives Parents as People	.61	
Parent-adolescent Communication[2]	.88	.95
Openness	.87	.92
Problems	.78	.89
FACES II[3]		
Cohesion	.87	.46
Flexability	.78	.62
Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction[4]	.85	.86
Satisfaction with Parents		.83

[1] Steinberg & Silverberg (1986)
[2] Barnes & Olson (1992)
[3] Olson (1995)
[4] Henry & Plunkett (1995)

Table 5: Research Models

	Model 1 De-idealization	Model 2 Individuation	Model 3 Non-dependency
Step 1	Sex	Sex	Sex
Step 2	Sex Cohesion Flexibility	Sex Cohesion Flexibility	Sex Cohesion Flexibility
Step 3	Sex Cohesion Flexibility Parent-adolescent Communication Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction	Sex Cohesion Flexibility Parent-adolescent Communication Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction	Sex Cohesion Flexibility Parent-adolescent Communication Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction

APPENDIX C

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APPENDIX D

Adolescent Family Life-Satisfaction[1]: Instrument

Directions: Think about the family members living in your home (include stepfamily members or guardians). Decide how you feel about each statement and circle your answer as follows:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

When I think about my parent(s)/stepparent(s)/guardian(s) (include only those present in your home),
I am satisfied with:

1.	how much my parent(s) approve of me and the things I do	1	2	3	4	5	
2.	the amount of freedom my parent(s) give me to make my own choices	1	2	3	4	5	
3.	the ways my parent(s) want me to think and act	1	2	3	4	5	
4.	the amount of influence my parent(s) have over my actions	1	2	3	4	5	
5.	the ways my parent(s) try to control my actions	1	2	3	4	5	
6.	my parents' relationship with each other	1	2	3	4	5	One parent family
7.	my overall relationship with my parent(s)	1	2	3	4	5	

When I think about my brother(s) and/or sister(s) (include stepbrother(s)/sister(s) if present in your home),
I am satisfied with:

8.	how much my brothers and/or sisters approve of me and the things I do	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
9.	the amount of freedom my brothers and/or sisters give me to make my own choices	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
10.	the ways my brothers and/or sisters want me to think and act	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
11.	the amount of influence my brothers and/or sisters have over my actions	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
12.	the ways my brothers and/or sisters try to control my actions	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
13.	my overall relationship(s) with my brothers and/or sisters	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers

Scoring Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction: Total Scale–Sum all question

[1] Henry, C. S., Ostrander, D. L., & Lovelace, S. G. (1992). Reliability and validity of the Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction Index. Psychological Reports, 70, 1223-1229.

Adolescent Family Life-Satisfaction: Satisfaction with parent(s)

When I think about my parent(s)/stepparent(s)/guardian(s) (include only those present in your home),
I am satisfied with:

1.	how much my parent(s) approve of me and the things I do	1	2	3	4	5	
2.	the amount of freedom my parent(s) give me to make my own choices	1	2	3	4	5	
3.	the ways my parent(s) want me to think and act	1	2	3	4	5	
4.	the amount of influence my parent(s) have over my actions	1	2	3	4	5	
5.	the ways my parent(s) try to control my actions	1	2	3	4	5	
6.	my parents' relationship with each other	1	2	3	4	5	One parent family
7.	my overall relationship with my parent(s)	1	2	3	4	5	

Scoring Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction: Satisfaction With Parents–Sum all sub-scale questions

Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction: Satisfaction with sibling(s)[2]

When I think about my brother(s) and/or sister(s) (include stepbrother(s)/sister(s) if present in your home),

I am satisfied with:

8. how much my brothers and/or sisters approve of me and the things I do	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
9. the amount of freedom my brothers and/or sisters give me to make my own choices	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
10. the ways my brothers and/or sisters want me to think and act	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
11. the amount of influence my brothers and/or sisters have over my actions	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
12. the ways my brothers and/or sisters try to control my actions	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers
13. my overall relationship(s) with my brothers and/or sisters	1	2	3	4	5	No sisters/brothers

Scoring Adolescent Family Life Satisfaction: Satisfaction with Siblings Sub-scale–Sum all sub-scale questions

[2] The Satisfaction with Siblings Sub-scale is included here for the continuity of the instrument, but is not used in the present study.

Emotional Autonomy Scales: Full Scale[3]- Instrument

Directions: Please think about the family you live with and respond to the following statements using the following choices.

1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

(-)1.	*1 2 3 4* 1.	My parents and I agree on everything.
(-)2.	*1 2 3 4* 2.	I go to my parents for help before trying to solve a problem myself.
3.	*1 2 3 4* 3.	I have often wondered how my parents act when I'm not around.
(-)4.	*1 2 3 4* 4.	Even when my parents and I disagree, my parents are always right.
5.	*1 2 3 4* 5.	It's better for kids to go to their best friend than to their parents for advice on some things.
(-)6.	*1 2 3 4* 6.	When I've done something wrong, I depend on my parents to straighten things out for me.
7.	*1 2 3 4* 7.	There are some things about me that my parents don't know.
8.	*1 2 3 4* 8.	My parents act differently when they are with their own parents from the way they do at home.
(-)9.	*1 2 3 4* 9.	My parents know everything there is to know about me.
10.	*1 2 3 4* 10.	I might be surprised to see how my parents act at a party.
(-)11.	*1 2 3 4* 11.	I try to have the same opinions as my parents.[4]
(-)12.	*1 2 3 4* 12.	When they are at work, my parents act pretty much the same way they do when they are at home.
(-)13.	*1 2 3 4* 13.	If I was having a problem with one of my friends, I would discuss it with my mother or father before deciding what to do about it.
14.	*1 2 3 4* 14.	My parents would be surprised to know what I'm like when I'm not with them.
(-)15.	*1 2 3 4* 15.	When I become a parent, I'm going to treat my children in exactly the same way that my parents have treated me.
16.	*1 2 3 4* 16.	My parents probably talk about different things when I am around from what they talk about when I'm not.

[3] Steinberg, L, & Silverberg, S. B. (1986). The vicissitudes of autonomy in early adolescence. Child Development, 57, 841-851

17.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	17.	There are things that I will do differently from my mother and father when I become a parent.
(-)18.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	18.	My parents hardly ever make mistakes.
19.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	19.	I wish my parents would understand who I really am.
(-)20.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	20.	My parents act pretty much the same way when they are with their friends as they do when they are at home with me.

Scoring the Emotional Autonomy Full Scale: Reverse code all negatively indicated questions, then sum all the questions to obtain Emotional Autonomy: Full Scale Score.

Emotional Autonomy De-idealization of Parents Sub-Scale

(-)1. *1 2 3 4* 1.My parents and I agree on everything.

(-)4. *1 2 3 4* 4.Even when my parents and I disagree, my parents are always right.

5. *1 2 3 4* 5.It's better for kids to go to their best friend than to their parents for advice on some things.

(-)11. *1 2 3 4* 11.I try to have the same opinions as my parents.

(-)18. *1 2 3 4* 18.My parents hardly ever make mistakes.

Scoring the Emotional Autonomy: De-idealization of Parents Sub-Scale- Reverse code all negatively indicated questions, then sum all the questions to obtain Emotional Autonomy: De-idealization of Parents Sub-Scale.

Emotional Autonomy Individuation Sub-Scale

7.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	7.	There are some things about me that my parents don't know.
(-)9.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	9.	My parents know everything there is to know about me.
14.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	14.	My parents would be surprised to know what I'm like when I'm not with them.
17.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	17.	There are things that I will do differently from my mother and father when I become a parent.
19.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	19.	I wish my parents would understand who I really am.

Scoring the Emotional Autonomy: Individuation Sub-Scale - Reverse code all negatively indicated questions, then sum all the questions to obtain Emotional Autonomy: Individuation Sub-Scale.

Emotional autonomy: Non-dependency on Parents Sub-Scale

(-)2.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	2.	I go to my parents for help before trying to solve a problem myself.
5.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	5.	It's better for kids to go to their best friend than to their parents for advice on some things.
(-)6.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	6.	When I've done something wrong, I depend on my parents to straighten things out for me.
(-)13.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	13.	If I was having a problem with one of my friends, I would discuss it with my mother or father before deciding what to do about it.

Scoring the Emotional Autonomy: Non-dependency on Parents Sub-Scale - Reverse code all negatively indicated questions, then sum all the questions to obtain Emotional Autonomy: Individuation Sub-Scale.

Emotional autonomy: Perceives Parents as People Sub-Scale[5]

3.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	3.	I have often wondered how my parents act when I'm not around.
8.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	8.	My parents act differently when they are with their own parents from the way they do at home.
10.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	10.	I might be surprised to see how my parents act at a party.
(-)12.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	12.	When they are at work, my parents act pretty much the same way they do when they are at home.
16.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	16.	My parents probably talk about different things when I am around from what they talk about when I'm not.
(-)20.	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	20.	My parents act pretty much the same way when they are with their friends as they do when they are at home with me.

Scoring the Emotional Autonomy: Non-dependency on Parents Sub-Scale - Reverse code all negatively indicated questions, then sum all the questions to obtain Emotional Autonomy: Individuation Sub-Scale.

[5] The Perceives Parents as People Sub-Scale is included here, but will not be used in this study.

Parent-Adolescent Communication: Instrument[6]

Directions: Think about your relationship with your mother/stepmother (or female guardian) and or father/stepfather (or male guardian). RESPOND REGARDING THE FAMILY WITH WHOM YOU LIVE. Using the scale below, circle the answer that best describes your thoughts and feelings about each parent/stepparent (or guardian).

SD	D	N	A	SA
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither Agree Nor Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

	1. I can discuss my beliefs with this parent without feeling restrained or embarrassed.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
(-)	2. Sometimes I have trouble believing everything this parent tells me.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
	3. This parent is always a good listener.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
(-)	4. I am sometimes afraid to ask this parent for what I want.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
(-)	5. This parent has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
	6. This parent can tell how I'm feeling without asking.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
	7.I am very satisfied with how this parent and. I talk together	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
	8. If I were in trouble, I could tell this parent.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
	9. I openly show affection to this parent.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
(-)	10 When we are having a problem, I often give this parent the silent treatment.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
(-)	11. I am careful about what I say to this parent.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA
(-)	12. When talking to this parent, I have a tendency to say things that would be better left unsaid.	Mother Father	SD D N A SA SD D N A SA

[6] Barnes, H. L., & Olson, D. H. (1992). Parent-adolescent communication. In D. H. Olson, H. L. McCubbin, H. Barnes, A. Larsen, M. Muxen and M. Wilson (Eds.), Family inventories (2nd revision, pp. 29-44). St. Paul, MN: University of Minnesota, Department of Family Social Science.

	13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
		Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
	14. This parent tries to understand my point of view.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
		Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-)	15. There are topics I avoid discussing with this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
		Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
	16. I find it easy to discuss problems with this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
		Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
	17. It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
		Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-)	18. This parent nags/bothers me.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
		Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-)	19. This parent insults me when s/he is angry with me.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
		Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-)	20. I don't think I can tell this parent how I really feel about some things.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
		Father	SD	D	N	A	SA

Scoring Effectiveness in parent-adolescent communication:

Step 1. Reverse code all indicated items; 5= 1; 4= 2; 3= 3; 2= 4; 1= 5.
Step 2. Sum all items not reverse coded.
Step 3. Sum all reverse coded items.
Step 4. Subtract score on Step 3 from obtained score on Step 2.

Parent-Adolescent Communication: Problems In Communication Sub-Scale

(-) 2. Sometimes I have trouble believing everything this parent tells me.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-) 4. I am sometimes afraid to ask this parent for what I want.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-) 5. This parent has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-) 10 When we are having a problem, I often give this parent the silent treatment.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-) 11. I am careful about what I say to this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-) 12. When talking to this parent, I have a tendency to say things that would be better left unsaid.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-) 15. There are topics I avoid discussing with this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-) 18. This parent nags/bothers me.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-) 19. This parent insults me when s/he is angry with me.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
(-) 20. I don't think I can tell this parent how I really feel about some things.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA

Scoring Parent-Adolescent Communication: Problems in Communication Sub-Scale

Step 1. Reverse code all items: 5= 1; 4= 2; 3= 3; 2= 4; 1= 5.

Step 2. Sum all scale items

Parent-Adolescent Communication: Openness in Communication Sub-Scale

1. I can discuss my beliefs with this parent without feeling restrained or embarrassed.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
3. This parent is always a good listener.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
6. This parent can tell how I'm feeling without asking.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
7.I am very satisfied with how this parent and. I talk together	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
8. If I were in trouble, I could tell this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
9. I openly show affection to this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
14. This parent tries to understand my point of view.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
16. I find it easy to discuss problems with this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA
17. It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to this parent.	Mother	SD	D	N	A	SA
	Father	SD	D	N	A	SA

Scoring Parent-Adolescent Communication: Openness in

Barnes, H. L., & Olson, D. H. (1992). Parent-adolescent communication. In D. H. Olson, H. L. McCubbin, H. Barnes, A. Larsen, M. Muxen and M. Wilson (Eds.), Family inventories (2nd revision, pp. 29-44). St. Paul, MN: University of Minnesota, Department of Family Social Science.

Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale II (FACES II)[7]

***Directions*:** Please think about the family you currently live with and respond to the following statements using the following choices:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	1.Family members are supportive of each other during difficult times.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	2.In our family, it is easy for everyone to express his/her opinion.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	3.It is easier to discuss problems with people outside the family than with other family members.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	4.Each family member has input in major family decisions.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	5.Our family gathers together in the same room.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	6.Children have a say in their discipline.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	7.Our family does things together.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	8.Family members discuss problems and feel good about the solutions.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	9.In our family, everyone goes his/her own way.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	10.We shift household responsibilities from person to person.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	11.Family members know each other's close friends.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	12.It is hard to know what the rules are in our family.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	13.Family members consult other family members on their decisions.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	14.Family members say what they want.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	15.We have difficulty thinking of things to do as a family.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	16.In solving problems, the children's suggestions are followed.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	17.Family members feel very close to each other.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	18.Discipline is fair in our family.

[7] Olson, D.H. & Tiesel, J.W. (1992). FACES II—Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scales. In D.H. Olson, H.I. McCubbin, H. Barnes, A. Larsen, M. Muxen, & M. Wilson's (Eds.), Family Inventories: Inventories Used in a National Survey of Families Across the Family Life Cycle. (pp.12-19). St. Paul, MN: University of Minnesota..

(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	19.Family members feel closer to people outside the family than to other family members.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	20.Our family tries new ways of dealing with problems.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	21.Family members go along with what the family decides to do.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	22.In our family, everyone shares responsibilities.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	23.Family members like to spend their free time with each other.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	24.It is difficult to get a rule changed in our family.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	25.Family members avoid each other at home.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	26.When problems arise, we compromise.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	27.We approve of each other's friends.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	28.Family members are afraid to say what is on their minds.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	29.Family members pair up rather than do things as a total family.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	30.Family members share interests and hobbies with each other.

FACES II: Flexibility Sub-Scale

	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	2.In our family, it is easy for everyone to express his/her opinion.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	4.Each family member has input in major family decisions.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	6.Children have a say in their discipline.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	8.Family members discuss problems and feel good about the solutions.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	10.We shift household responsibilities from person to person.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	12.It is hard to know what the rules are in our family.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	14.Family members say what they want.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	16.In solving problems, the children's suggestions are followed.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	18.Discipline is fair in our family.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	20.Our family tries new ways of dealing with problems.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	22.In our family, everyone shares responsibilities.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	24.It is difficult to get a rule changed in our family.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	26.When problems arise, we compromise.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	28.Family members are afraid to say what is on their minds.

Scoring FACES II: Flexibility Sub-scale[8]-

1. Reverse score all indicate items.
2. Sum items 24 and 28.
3. Subtract score obtained in Step 1 from 12.
4. Sum all other even numbers, except item 30.
5. Add scores obtained on Step 2 and Step 3 for the total score.

[8] Olson, D.H. & Tiesel, J.W. (1992). FACES II—Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scales. In D.H. Olson, H.I. McCubbin, H. Barnes, A. Larsen, M. Muxen, & M. Wilson's (Eds.), Family inventories: Inventories used in a national survey of families across the family life cycle. (pp.12). St. Paul, MN: University of Minnesota.

FACES II: Cohesion

	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	1.Family members are supportive of each other during difficult times.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	3.It is easier to discuss problems with people outside the family than with other family members.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	5.Our family gathers together in the same room.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	7.Our family does things together.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	9.In our family, everyone goes his/her own way.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	11.Family members know each other's close friends.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	13.Family members consult other family members on their decisions.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	15.We have difficulty thinking of things to do as a family.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	17.Family members feel very close to each other.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	19.Family members feel closer to people outside the family than to other family members.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	21.Family members go along with what the family decides to do.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	23.Family members like to spend their free time with each other.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	25.Family members avoid each other at home.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	27.We approve of each other's friends.
(-)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	29.Family members pair up rather than do things as a total family.
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	30.Family members share interests and hobbies with each other.

Scoring FACES II: Cohesion Sub-scale[9]-

1. Reverse score all indicate items.
2. Sum items 3, 9, 15, 19, 25, and 29.
3. Subtract score obtained in Step 1 from 36.
4. Sum all other odd numbers, plus item 30.
5. Add scores obtained on Step 2 and Step 3 for the total score.

[9] Olson, D.H. & Tiesel, J.W. (1992). FACES II—Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scales. In D.H. Olson, H.I. McCubbin, H. Barnes, A. Larsen, M. Muxen, & M. Wilson's (Eds.), Family inventories: Inventories used in a national survey of families across the family life cycle. (pp.12). St. Paul, MN: University of Minnesota.

APPENDIX E

DATE

Dear Parents,

Your son or daughter has been asked to participate in a study conducted by the Department of Family Relations and Child Development at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK. This study is designed to examine how selected family, community, and demographic (e.g. age, gender) factors relate to indicators of well-being for adolescents in rural Oklahoma communities. The study is designed to have two separate collection dates for information gathering. The dates will be approximately two years apart.

Your son or daughter would be asked to complete self-report questionnaire regarding the following variables: family flexibility, bonding, hardiness, coherence, celebrations, routines; adolescent depression, self-esteem, empathy, religiosity, interest in others, conformity to parent's expectations, autonomy, and satisfaction with family life; parental support and control behaviors; parent-adolescent communication; and resources in the community. You, their parent and/or legal guardian, have the right to grant permission for your son or daughter to participate in this study. A consent form is included in this letter for you to inspect and sign should you consent for your son or daughter to participate in this study. Please take time to look over this information.

Sincerely,

Carolyn S. Henry, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
and Interim Department Head

Linda C. Robinson, Ph.D.
Associate Professor

PARENT INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I _____, hereby give permission for my child
(print name)

_____to participate in the following research study conducted by
(print name)

Carolyn Henry, Ph.D., Linda Robinson, Ph.D., and assistants of their choosing. I understand that my son's or daughter's participation in this project will take approximately 50 minutes at each point of collection and that there will be two points of collection. The first point of collection will be on _____ during my son's or daughter's _____ class. The second point of collection will be approximately two years after the first collection date and will be completed in a similar fashion. I authorize the use of data collected in this project as a part of a study on the family and community resources for youth in rural Oklahoma. Also, I authorize the use of the data in future research studies.

This study is designed to examine how selected family, community, and demographic (e.g. age, gender) factors relate to indicators of well-being for adolescents in rural Oklahoma communities. Specifically, the instrument will look at the following variables: family flexibility, bonding, hardiness, coherence, celebrations, routines; adolescent depression, self-esteem, empathy, religiosity, interest in others, conformity to parent's expectations, autonomy, and satisfaction with family life; parental support and control behaviors; parent-adolescent communication; and resources in the community. The results will be used to expand the knowledge base of current family and community resources in the lives of rural Oklahoma youth.

ASSURANCE OF CONFIDENTIALITY

I understand my son's or daughter's name will not be identified with any data collected in the study and the questionnaires will be considered for confidential research use only. I understand this consent form will be kept within a locked file cabinet in a secured office and will also be kept separate from the questionnaires' responses. The collected data will be viewed only by members of the current or future research teams who are authorized by the project director and who have signed an agreement to assure the confidentiality of information about the participants. I understand that my son's or daughter's participation is voluntary, that they are free to not respond to any item, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and son's or daughter's participation in this project at any time without penalty after notifying the project director.

I may contact **Carolyn Henry, Ph.D.** or **Linda Robinson, Ph.D.** at **(405) 744-5057**. I may also contact **Gay Clarkson**, IRB Executive Secretary, Oklahoma State University, 305 Whitehurst, Stillwater, OK 74078; **(405) 744-5700** as a resource person.

I have read and fully understand this form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date:_____

Signed:_____
(Signature of parent authorizing permission for son or daughterto participate)

Signed:_____
(Signature of investigator/witness)

ADOLESCENT ASSENT FORM

I _____, hereby agree to participate in the following research
(print name)
conducted by **Carolyn Henry, Ph.D., Linda Robinson, Ph.D.**, and assistants of their choosing. The research procedure will involve completing self-report questionnaires concerning the various aspects of my family and community. I understand that my participation in this project will take approximately 50 minutes at each point of collection and that there will be two points of collection. The first point of collection will be on _____ during my _____ class. The second point of collection will be approximately two years after the first collection date and will be completed in a similar fashion. I authorize the use of data collected in this project as a part of a study on the family and community resources for youth in rural Oklahoma. Also, I authorize the use of the data in future research studies.

This study is designed to examine how selected family, community, and demographic (e.g. age, gender) factors relate to indicators of well-being for adolescents in rural Oklahoma communities. Specifically, the instrument will include questions about the following variables: family flexibility, bonding, hardiness, coherence, celebrations, routines; adolescent depression, self-esteem, empathy, religiosity, interest in others, conformity to parent's expectations, autonomy, and satisfaction with family life; parental support and control behaviors; parent-adolescent communication; and resources in the community. The results will be used to expand the knowledge base of current family and community resources in the lives of rural Oklahoma youth.

ASSURANCE OF CONFIDENTIALITY

I understand my name will not be identified with any data collected in the study and the questionnaires will be considered for confidential research use only. I understand this consent form will be kept in a locked file cabinet in a secured office and will also be kept separate from the questionnaires' responses. The collected data will be viewed only by members of the current or future research teams who are authorized by the project director and who have signed an agreement to assure the confidentiality of information about the participants. I understand that my participation is voluntary, that I am free to not respond to any item, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time without penalty after notifying the project director.

I may contact **Carolyn Henry, Ph.D.** or **Linda Robinson, Ph.D.** at **(405) 744-5057**. I may also contact **Gay Clarkson**, IRB Executive Secretary, Oklahoma State University, 305 Whitehurst, Stillwater, OK 74078; **(405) 744-5700** as a resource person.

I have read and fully understand this form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date:_____

Signed:_____
(Signature of participant)

Signed:_____
(Signature of investigator/witness)

APPENDIX F

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 12-11-96 **IRB#: HE-97-017**

Proposal Title: FAMILY SYSTEM AND COMMUNITY RESOURCES AND THE ADAPTATION OF YOUTH IN RURAL OKLAHOMA

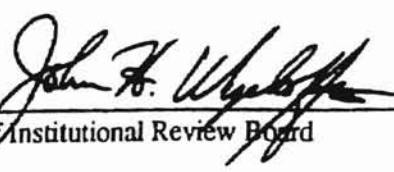
Principal Investigator(s): Carolyn S. Henry, Linda C. Robinson

Reviewed and Processed as: Full Board

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING, AS WELL AS ARE SUBJECT TO MONITORING AT ANY TIME DURING THE APPROVAL PERIOD.
APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.
ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature:  Date: December 23, 1996

Chair of Institutional Review Board

VITA

Erron L. Huey

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY FUNCTIONING AND EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY FROM PARENTS IN EARLY ADOLESCENTS

Major Field: Family Relations and Child Development

Biographical:

Education: Graduated from Tempe High School, Tempe, Arizona in May 1992; Received Bachelor of Arts in English from Harding University, Searcy, Arkansas, in May 1996; Completed the requirements for the Master of Science degree with a major in Family Relations and Child Development at Oklahoma State University in May, 1999.

Experience: Graduate Research Assistant from August 1997 to the present, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma; Volunteer Case Manager from September 1998 to present, Big Brothers Big Sisters of Stillwater, Inc.; Substitute Teacher during summer 1998 for the Child Development Labs, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma; Teaching Assistant in the summer 1997 for the Child Development Labs, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma; Graduate Teaching Assistant during the 1996-97 school year in the Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma; Intern for the 1996 summer for United States Army Europe, Heidelberg Youth Services; Head Tutor/Tutor Coordinator during 1995-96 school year for the Searcy Housing Authority After School Program, Searcy, Arkansas; Kindergarten Coordinator 1995-95 school year, Searcy Housing Authority After School Program Searcy, Arkansas.

Professional Memberships: National Council on Family Relations.