THE EFFECTS OF BIRTH ORDER ON CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF PARENT BEHAVIOR IN DIVORCED AND MARRIED FAMILIES

Ву

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Divorce has become an increasingly prominent feature of American life. More and more frequently, when marriages end, one or more children are involved. Since it is now estimated that close to half of today's young children will, if only temporarily, be members of divorced families (Glick & Norton, 1979), researchers are devoting increasing attention to the assessment of divorce's impact upon children. The conclusion that divorce represents a crisis in family life is being replaced with a more recent view that divorce is a "life transition period" which affects those involved in varying ways (Felner, Farber, Ginter, Boike & Cowen, 1980). This indicates that children have differing perceptions of the divorce experience. Because it is widely recognized that parents have a lasting impact upon the psychological well-being and self-esteem of their children, it is important to determine which aspects of the parentchild relationship may be difference as the result of divorce. Furthermore, it is important to explore the criteria which determine the way a particular child may adjust to divorce.

Authors note that continuous, prolonged marital discord

can have a more unfavoarable effect upon children than parental divorce (Friedman, 1980; Longfellow, 1979; Luepnitz, 1979). While this may indeed be true, divorce represents a special set of circumstances because it alters the basic structure of the family unit. Patterns of relationships which previously existed within the family are changed. The departing parent, most typically the father, is often faced with the "simultaneous loss of his wife, his children and his dwelling place . . . " (Friedman, 1980, p. 117). The mother who retains custody may be burdened by financial problems, increased responsibilities at home, and emotional stress. The resulting circumstances often produce feelings of confusion and anxiety in the children. They may turn for emotional reassurance to parents who have a diminished capacity to offer it (Hulls & Wedemeyer, 1980).

While family life usually regains stability within one or two years following divorce (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1979), the parent-child relationship often remains permanently changed. Differences in patterns of communication and discipline between divorced and married families have been reported (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1979). Research indicates that children from divorced families may exhibit more "acting-out" behavior and experience greater feelings of parental rejection than children from married families experience (Felner et al., 1980). In addition, Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979) reported that divorced mothers were more restrictive than married mothers, while divorced

fathers were more lenient with their children than married fathers.

Recent literature indicates that birth order is an important variable which influences the child's experience within the family (Adams, 1972; Droppleman & Schaefer, 1963; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Hilton, 1979). This may be of special significance in divorced families since children may "experience pressure from their parents to provide support or enter into emotional alliance" on the basis of their birth order (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1979, p. 470). However, in order to clarify the impact of birth order upon the child, it is necessary to simultaneously consider the child's age. In this way, differences in siblings' experiences which are attributable to birth order can be separated from differences which are more a factor of chronological age, or developmental level. This issue has received little attention.

Research related to birth order has come primarily from married families. The most widely supported results indicate that first-born children are more achievement oriented and more dependent than second-born children (Adams, 1972). It has been noted that first-born children often receive a great deal of parental attention prior to the birth of subsequent siblings (Hamid, 1970). However, Hilton (1967) sugtests that this attention may lack the consistency which later siblings receive. It is important to note that the effect of a child's birth order upon the parent-child

relationship in divorced families has not been explored.

Parents have traditionally been the most widely used source of information concerning parent-child relationships. However, the value of determining the child's perception of the parent-child relationship is receiving increasing recognition (Serot & Teevan, 1961; Cox, 1970; Margolies & Weintraub, 1977). As Serot and Teevan (1961) have stated:

The child's perception of the parent-child relationship is of extreme importance to him, for it is directly related to his adjustment . . . the child reacts to his perception of the situation, and not the situation itself (p. 377).

Therefore, children's perceptions of parent behavior are being increasingly explored.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There is a limited amount of research dealing with the effect of birth order upon children's perceptions of parent behavior in divorced and married families. The problem may be considered by organizing the available related literature into the following topics: (1) the impact of divorce on the parent-child relationship, including (a) the mother-child relationship in divorced families, and (b) the effect of father absence in divorced families, (2) the impact of birth order upon children's familial relationships, and (3) the importance of considering the child's perceptions of parent behavior.

The Impact of Divorce on the Parent-Child Relationship

A variety of literature has been generated which suggests that the parent-child relationship is altered as the result of divorce. Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1979) noted that the first year following divorce is often the most stressful in terms of the parent-child relationship, with stabilization occurring after the initial upheaval period. However, in spite of improvements, permanent changes were

noted. Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1979) reported that

divorced parents made fewer maturity demands, communicated less well, tended to be less affectionate, and showed marked inconsistency in discipline and control of their children in comparison to married parents (p. 163).

Felner et al., (1980, p. 69) reported that children from divorced families were evaluated as possessing "fewer competencies overall, as well as in the specific areas of frustration tolerance and peer sociability" than children from married families were evaluated. In addition, they reported greater financial stress and less parental acceptance in divorced families.

Zill (1978) reported differences in the parent-child relationship between children living in divorced families and those living with two happily married parents. He wrote:

Divorce significantly increases a children's risk of developing emotional and behavioral problems. Children whose parents have been divorced by the time the child is of grammar school-age are twice as likely to need or have gotten psychiatric help as children in intact families (p. 53).

He also noted that children from divorced families reported less parental acceptance than children living in married families. However, Zill was very careful to qualify this statement by pointing out the distinction between happily married and unhappily married parents. He stated that children in divorced families often fared better than those living with two unhappily married parents.

It has been reported that children experience anxiety

as the result of loving two parents who no longer love each other. Wallerstein and Kelly (1979, p. 470) noted that "youngsters in latency characteristically struggle with painful conflicts regarding loyalty to both parents". They went on to report that the intensity of these conflicts may, in part, be determined by the children's birth order and sex.

Hetherington (1979) pointed out that, in some cases, divorced mothers may make developmentally inappropriate demands for maturity from their children. She wrote:

If the mother is not making excessive or inappropriate demands for emotional sustenance, her greater openness about concerns and plans can lead to a companionate relationship between her and her children. However, being pushed toward early independence and the assumption of adult responsibilities leads to feelings of being overwhelmed by unsolvable problems, and resentment about lack of support and unavailability of mothers . . . (p. 857).

Rotter (1966) reported that the behavior of children from father absent homes was more often influenced by sources external to the child, while the behavior of children from father present, intact families showed more internal control. However, in a related study, Parish and Copeland (1980) reported this difference to be true only in cases where father loss was caused by death, and not divorce.

Differences in boys and girls reactions to the divorce experience have been reported by Zill (1978). He noted higher incidents of aggression for boys than girls in

divorced families. He also reported that girls from divorced families were more aggressive than girls from married families. Hetherington (1979) stated that divorce's impact is felt more negatively by boys than girls. She wrote that boys are more likely to

confront inconsistency, negative sanctions, and opposition from parents, particularly from mothers, following divorce. In addition, boys received less positive support and nurturance, and are viewed more negatively by mothers, teachers, and peers in the period immediately following divorce than are girls (p. 853).

Kurdek and Siesky (1980) found that those children who made a positive adjustment to their parents' divorce exhibited certain common characteristics. For example, these children

defined divorce in terms of psychological separation, shared news of the divorce with friends, had relatively positive evaluations of both parents, and saw themselves as having acquired strengths and responsibilities as the result of divorce (p. 85).

In a study involving college students who had grown up in divorced families, Luepnitz (1979) wrote that the majority of participants did not report prolonged negative effects as a result of their parents' divorce.

The Mother-Child Relationship in

Divorced Families

Several studies have reported changes in the motherchild relationship as the result of divorce. Parish and Kappes (1980) noted that "fatherless children are actually indirectly affected by father loss through the mother, her personality, attitudes and behavior" (pp. 107-108). Longfellow (1979) echoed this idea by writing:

The absence of the father may exert its most direct influence on the mother, which in turn affects how she behaves toward her child. The influence of father absence in the <u>mother</u> may be a more powerful determinant of the child's adjustment (p. 287).

Longfellow has also noted that mothers who continued to have the support of their husbands after divorce experienced greater success in their relationships with their children.

Differences in the way divorced mothers and fathers behaved toward their children were reported by Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979). They stated:

The divorced mother tried to control her child by being more restrictive and giving more commands which the child ignored or resisted. The divorced father wanted his contacts with his child to be as happy as possible. He began by being extremely permissive and indulgent and becoming increasingly restrictive over the two year period, although he was never as restrictive as fathers in intact homes. The divorced mother used more negative sanctions than divorced fathers or parents in intact families. Divorced mothers' use of negative sanctions decreased over time, while fathers' increased (p. 164).

The relationship between mothers and sons seems to be particularly vulnerable to the effects of divorce. Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979) reported more frequent behavior problems for boys living in mother-headed families and higher use of negative sanctions by divorced mothers with their sons. In addition, Hetherington (1972) reported a higher conflictual relationship between mothers and daughters in divorced families in comparison to those in married families.

The Effect of Father Absence in Divorced

Families

Previously cited studies indicating the importance of father presence in the establishment of a close mother-child relationship are supported by Gershanky and Hainline (1978). They developed a study using mothers' and children's rodand-frame scores which indicated that children in married families were helped by the presence of their fathers to develop a "cognitive style" which more closely matched that of their mothers.

Friedman (1980) noted that divorce often reduced family tension and allowed fathers to experience a more positive relationship with their children. They reported this to be especially true if the children were young when the parents divorced. Othner and Lewis (1979) noted that those fathers who had actively participated in the raising of their children experienced fewer problems in adjusting to a new relationship with their children following the separation.

Wallerstein and Kelly (1979, p. 471) reported that there was "a significant link between depression in younger children and adolescents and diminished visiting by the children's fathers".

In a study by Parish and Kappes (1980) involving college students, negative attitudes toward absent fathers were reported more frequently than toward fathers in married families. Hetherington (1972) noted that girls in divorced families had relatively negative views of their fathers.

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The Impact of Birth Order Upon Children's

Familial Relationships

Reports of the effect of birth order upon children's familial relationships, although widely documented, have come primarily from studies of children in married families. However, this literature provides many helpful insights. As Manaster (1977) wrote:

We assume then that children might, or might probably rise to the common challenges of their own birth order positions. Therefore, similarities may be found among persons occupying each birth order position and differences may be found between holders of the various birth order positions (p. 4).

Shulman and Mosak (1977, p. 114) described birth order as a "reference for locating the child in relation to siblings as well as to adults".

In a review of the birth order literature, Adams (1972) concluded that the most consistent findings indicated that first-born siblings achieved higher educational status and were more "affiliative" than later-born siblings. The later conclusion was supported by research done by Koenig (1969, p. 287) who reported that "first-borns have a greater need for affiliation than do later born individuals". Stewart (1967) measured the field dependence of first-and later-born siblings and found that first-borns have greater field dependency.

Schwab and Lundgren (1978) reported that first-borns placed a greater amount of importance upon how they were viewed by "significant others" than did later-born siblings.

However, they summarized that

perceived appraisals of close authority figures and particularly of fathers are most influential for first-born females, while perceived appraisals of close peers are especially important for firstborn males (p. 448).

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Differences in parental response to first-and laterborn children have been reported. Kammeyer (1967) wrote that parents were lacking in experience with their firstborn children, and that first-borns received a higher concentration of parental attention. However, this attention was significantly diminished with the arrival of subsequent siblings.

Hilton (1967, pp. 282-283) found that "the inexperienced mother of the firstborn is more interfering, more inconsistent and more extreme (either supportive or critical) in her child treatment". She also reported that while first-borns may show more outward signs of independence than later-born siblings, this did not indicate a deeper psychological independence.

The literature indicates contradictory findings with respect to the relationship between personality, behavior and birth order. Stroup and Hunter (1965) reported no significant differences between the personality adjustment of first-and later-born children. However, Croak and Olson (1977, p. 17) using the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, reported that "oldest and youngest groups were more likely to have scores in the direction of maladjustment". Tsukada (1979, p. 235) reported that in families in which parents were "incapable of, or unable to assume full parental executive responsibilities" children were often called upon to perform those functions. Tsukada called these children "parentified", and maintained that they were most often the eldest children in the family. Tsukada's description may have special significance for divorced families in which the parent retaining custody of the children experiences increased stress in coping with the parental role, and may transfer some the the responsibilities to the first-born child.

Lahey, Hammer, Crumrine, and Forehand (1980) conducted a study rating children according to the following factors: Hostile-Aggressive; Anxious-Fearful; and Hyperactive-Distractible. Findings revealed that in families containing two children, the first-born male child received the greatest scores on all dimensions, thereby indicating that firstborn male children were most likely to manifest behavioral problems.

Anxiety and dependency have been considered in relationship to birth order. Kushnir (1978) found that under some stressful circumstances, first-born females reported higher states of anxiety than did later-born females. Kushnir noted no differences in the dependency of first-and later-borns, except that first-born females were reported as having higher levels of dependency in particularly stressful situations. First-born females were also reported by

Dember (1964) as attaching higher significance to the appraisal of others.

One of the findings in a study by Bartelt (1974) indicated a positive relationship between self-esteem and birth order. He noted higher self-esteem in first-born males than in first-born females. However, while Schwab and Lundgren (1978) reported higher self-esteem for first-borns than later-borns, they found it to be higher in first-born females than first-born males.

Several studies have been conducted dealing with the effect of birth order upon children's relationships with various family members. A study by Henry (1957) noted differences in children's perceptions of authority figures as a result of birth order. He also reported that with the birth of subsequent children, mothers relied increasingly upon fathers as primary disciplinarians of first-born children. Furthermore, this shift to discipline by fathers was more pronounced for first-born males. In a related study, Bartelt (1974) reported that the same sex parent more often served as primary disciplinarian of the child. In a study employing a schematical representation of family members, Hamid (1970, p. 807) reported that "firstborns placed themselves farther away from mothers and younger siblings, and closer to fathers than laterborns".

In a study dealing with the relation between birth order and children's perceptions of love, authority and personality adjustment, Corsello (1973, p. 3132-A) found

that "first-born boys demonstrated a higher perception of parental authority than second or third born boys". No significant differences were reported for first-born females. Birth order was not a significant factor in male and female reports of parental love. However, a significant difference in personality adjustment for first-born males was reported by Corsello (1973, p. 3132-A), who found a "higher social and total adjustment level on a self report scale" being reported for first-born males than for second-or third-born males.

The Importance of Considering the Child's Perception of Parent Behavior

For the most part, information about parents' behavior toward their children has come from parents and researchers, but seldom from children themselves. However, several researchers have indicated that children's perceptions may provide an important indication of the effect of parent behavior. As Serot and Teevan (1961) have stated:

It seems that an important developmental step has been underemphasized in theory and almost absent from research. Previous experiments . . have failed to take into account the fact that the child reacts to his perception of the situation and not the situation itself (p. 377).

This conclusion is echoed by Schaefer (1965, p. 413) who stated that "a child's perception of his parents' behavior may be more related to his adjusment than is the actual behavior of his parents". Furthermore, Schaefer stated that

children's perception of parent behavior correlated with other important findings about parent-child relationships.

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Deveraux et al., (1969, p. 261) stated that in their study, "parents were more inclined than children to skew their responses toward the norm of social acceptability". Zill (1978) noted a "low correlation" between ratings obtained from parents and teachers and he cautioned against exclusive reliance upon these reports when seeking information about children's behavior.

These statements are supported by Woyshner (1979) who wrote that

children's perceptions of themselves and their environments are often very different from the perceptions of the adults who know them and with whom they share those environments. It is not always safe, therefore, to make assumptions about children based on adults' points of view (p. 45).

Ausubel, Balthazar, Rosenthal, Blackman, Schpoont, and Welkowitz (1954, p. 174) report

about their own behavior, parents had an "understandably strong motivation to perceive their role behavior in a favorable light and to similarly impress others". Ausubel et al., maintained that children, being less sophisticated, were more likely to give truthful answers.

Statement of the Problem

Although a great deal of research has been generated concerning the effect which birth order has upon children's familial relationships, the data have come primarily from married families. The purpose of this study was to

determine whether there were differences in children's reports of parent behavior according to birth order within and between divorced and married families. In addition, this research sought to determine the relationship between birth order and age in children's perceptions of parent behavior. First-born versus second-born sibling comparisons were made within divorced and married families. In addition, comparisons of children's perceptions of parent behavior between divorced and married families were made.

Predicted Outcomes

The literature indicates that birth order has a significant influence upon children's experiences within the family. Kammeyer (1967) has indicated that first-born children receive more parental attention than second-born children, although the level of this attention is reduced with the birth of subsequent siblings. In addition, the literature indicates that first-born children are more affiliative than later-born siblings (Koenig, 1969), and place greater importance upon how they are viewed by significant others (Schwab & Lundgren, 1978). Based upon this information, it may be predicted that first-born children within both divorced and married families would report significantly more psychological control and discipline than their younger siblings would report.

The literature also indicates that the parent-child relationship is altered as the result of divorce. Children in

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divorced families may experience greater feelings of rejection from fathers than children in married families experience (Zill, 1978). Considering the affiliative nature of the first-born child, it may be predicted that first-born children in divorced families would report fathers as being less accepting than first-born children in married families would report.

According to Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1979) divorced mothers used more negative sanctions than married mothers. In addition, they attempted to be more controlling in their child treatment than married mothers. Based upon this information, it may be predicted that, in divorced families, first-born children would report mothers as exercising more psychological control and discipline than first-born children in married families would report for mothers.

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CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This research project was part of a larger study which sought to determine whether differences existed between divorced and married families along the following dimensions: (1) the nature of the parent-child relationship, (2) knowledge of child development, (3) management of resources, (4) use of time, and (5) perceptions of the adequacy of resources (e.g., time, money, energy, information, skills, knowledge, family and community support systems).

The specific focus of this study was to examine the effect of birth order upon children's perceptions of parent behavior in divorced and married families. Comparisons both within and between each family type were made.

Sample

The sample for the larger study consisted of 210 parents and children from 59 families drawn from a region in central Oklahoma. A detailed description of the sample is presented in Tables I and II. Twenty-nine of the families were divorced and 30 were married. The 59 families were selected from a larger population of 450 families which were identified through contacts with social square dance groups,

TABLE I

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| | Divorced Families | Married | Families |
|----------------------|-------------------|---------|----------|
| | Mothers | Mothers | Fathers |
| Characteristics | n=29 | n=30 | n=30 |
| Ethnic Group | | | |
| White | 27 | 30 | 29 |
| Native American | l | | 1 |
| Asian American | l | | |
| Age | | | |
| Under 35 | 10 | 8 | 3 |
| 35 to 40 | 16 | 17 | 17 |
| Over 40 | 3 | 4 | 10 |
| Missing | | 1 | |
| Religious Preference | | | |
| Protestant | 23 | 24 | 24 |
| Catholic | 2 | | |
| Jewish | l | 3 | 3 |
| Other | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Education | | | |
| High School Graduat | ;e 3 | 5 | |
| Some College | 12 | 11 | 7 |
| College Graduate | 14 | 14 | 23 |
| | | | |

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FOR 29 DIVORCED AND 30 MARRIED FAMILIES WITH TWO CHILDREN

TABLE I (Continued)

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| | Divorced Families | Married Families |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| | Mothers | Mothers Fathers |
| Characteristics | n=29 | n=30 n=30 |
| Occupation | | |
| Administrative or Professional | 18 | 9 22 |
| Technical, Clerica or Sales | 1 8 | 8 5 |
| Service | | 2 |
| Farming and Relate | d | 1 |
| Precision, Craft o Repair | rl | 2 1 |
| Homemaker | | 10 |
| Student | 2 | |
| Tenure | | |
| Buying | 24 | 29 29 |
| Renting | 4 | 1 1 |
| Other | 1 | |
| Type of Residence | | |
| Single Family Unit | 25 | 3 0 30 |
| Apartment | 3 | |
| Mobile Home | l | |

TABLE II

| Source | Divorced (n=29) | Married (n=30) |
|---------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Salary | \$13,103 ^a | \$38,833 ^b |
| Child Support | 3,400° | |
| Alimony | 4,950 ^d | |
| Total | \$16,600 | \$38,833 |

ESTIMATED MINIMUM ANNUAL INCOME FLOW AVERAGED FOR 59 FAMILIES BY FAMILY STRUCTURE

<u>Note</u>: In 11 divorced families and two married families, at least one child was employed at least part-time. Three divorced mothers reported that they receive financial support from relatives; this information was not obtained from married families. Three divorced mothers reported having no health insurance. Nineteen married families were two-earner families.

^aRange = \$5,000 to \$30,000^bRange = \$15,000 to \$80,000

^CIncome flow for 24 divorced mothers included child support payments; four divorced mothers reported that child support was not paid regularly.

^dIncome flow for four divorced mothers included alimony payments. parent groups, and 495 churches in the Tulsa, Oklahoma region. For the purpose of this study, only divorced families which had been headed by a single adult for at least one year were used. These criteria were employed in order to control for the initial, post-divorce readjustment period described by Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978). Both divorced and married families were randomly drawn from the larger population. Each family consisted of two children between the ages of 7 and 18 years. The second-born child was between the ages of 7 and 11 years (\underline{M} =9.12 years), while the first-born child was older than the second-born child, but not more than 18 years of age (\underline{M} =12.31 years). A total of 118 children participated in this study. Sixty were from married families, and 58 were from divorced families. The sample of children consisted of 59 males and 59 females.

As Table II illustrates, the major difference between divorced and married families occurred in the area of income. Although 15 married fathers reports annual earnings of more than \$35,000, 15 divorced mothers reported annual earnings of less than \$15,000. Income for married families ranged from \$15,000 to \$80,000. Income for divorced families ranged from \$5,000 to \$30,000. These financial differences persisted even when child support and alimony were added to the divorced mother's income.

Instrument

The Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory

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(CRPBI) was used in this study as a measure of children's perceptions of parent behavior. This instrument was developed by Schaefer (1965) and originally consisted of 26 scales of 10 items each, for a total of 260 items. These items produced three measurable factors which described parent behavior. These factors were (1) Acceptance versus Rejection, (2) Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control, and (3) Firm Discipline versus Lax Discipline.

For the purposes of this study, a revised version of Schaefer's original instrument was used. This revision, one of three identified by Burger and Armentrout (1971) has been found to yield the same factors as the original instrument, but consists of 56 items instead of the original 260 items. Margolies and Weintraub (1977), who studied the 56-item revision, concluded:

The 56-item CRPBI appears to be a more practical research instrument than the more cumbersome 260 item original. Indeed, when one is working with research populations that contain children, a shorter instrument certainly would be of value provided that it proved to be an acceptable substitute for the original . . The revised 56-item CRPBI generally appears to stand up well as a research instrument (p. 475).

For these reasons, the revised 56-item version of the CRPBI (Appendix A) was selected for use with the children in this study.

Methods

Initially, telephone contact was made from the Family Study Center at Oklahoma State University to a pool of

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eligible families which had been obtained through contacts with square dance groups and churches in the Tulsa, Oklahoma area. Each family was informed from where their name had been obtained and then screened to determine whether or not they fit the criteria for the study (i.e., whether they had been divorced for at least one year, and had two children between the ages of 7 and 18). After eligibility was confirmed, the researcher explained the purpose of the study. If the family agreed to participate, an appointment was made.

The data were collected from the families by a team of researchers who went to the home and met with parents and children at an agreed upon time when all members of the family could be present. One researcher interviewed the parent(s) while the other worked with the children in a separate area of the house. Interviews typically lasted from 2 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours. During the course of the interview, children filled out both the mother and father froms of the 56-item CRPBI. One-half of the children filled out the mother form first, while the other half filled out the father form first. This schedule was ramdomly determined. Between filling out the two forms, the children participated in an unrelated, game-like activity.

The instructions for the CRPBI were read aloud, either by the interviewer or the child. The interviewer clarified any ambiguities to the child. Following this, the child filled out the CRPBI, responding to the items in terms of

whether a statement such as "Cheers me up when I am sad" was "Like". "Somewhat Like", of "Not Like" the parent for whom they were responding.

Analysis

Based upon the available related literature, several null hypotheses were generated for the purpose of statistical analysis. These hypotheses compare children's perceptions of parental acceptance, psychological control, and discipline within and between divorced and married families. The instrument which was used in this study, the Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), measures children's perceptions of three factors: Acceptance, Control, and Discipline. Within-family hypotheses compare siblings' perceptions of these three factors within divorced and married families. Between-family hypotheses compare first-born children's perceptions of these three factors between divorced and married families.

Several null hypotheses were formulated in order to test for the possibility of within-and between-family differences. Within divorced and married families, there will be no significant differences in first-born versus secondborn siblings' perceptions of parent behavior for the factors of Acceptance, Control, and Discipline. Between divorced and married families, there will be no significant differences in first-born children's perceptions of fathers' behavior for the factor of Acceptance. In addition, between divorced and married families, there will be no significant differences in first-born children's perceptions of mothers' behavior for the factors of Control and Discipline.

Since comparisons were made both within and between divorced and married families, two methods of data analysis were used. Comparisons of siblings' perceptions of parent behavior within divorced and married families were made using analysis of variance. This was accomplished with the General Linear Models Procedure of the Statistical Analysis System (Helwig & Council, 1979). Factor scores constituted the dependent variables and were obtained by unweighted summation of scale totals identified by previous researchers (Burger & Armentrout, 1971; Burger, Armentrout & Rapfogel, 1973; Schaefer, 1965b) as comprising that factor.

Analyses between divorced and married families were conducted using only the first-born child in order to determine if there were differences in first-born children's perceptions of parent behavior according to family structure. In order to accomplish this, analyses using two independent sample \underline{t} tests were employed.

To control for the intervening variable of age of child in exploring within-family differences in siblings' perceptions of parent behavior, two categories were created. Because of the investigators' experiences with the families during the interviews, they felt that this study involved families at two distinct stages of the life cycle, "schoolage child" families, and "teen-age child" families.

Therefore, separate analyses were conducted for "school-age child" families (n=20), in which both first-and second-born children were between 7 and ll years of age, and "teen-age child" families (n=39), in which the first-born child was between 12 and 18 years of age, and the second-born child was between 7 and ll years of age. It was felt that the real test of differences according to birth order would take place in those families in which both the first-and secondborn children were school-age. It was further felt that, for families where the first-born child was a teen-ager and the second-born child was school-age, differences in perceptions of parent behavior between first-and second-born siblings would more likely be related to age and developmental level than to birth order.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the variable of birth order as it related to children's perceptions of parent behavior. To help clarify the relationship between birth order and age, the families were divided into "schoolage child" families, in which both children were between 7 and 11 years of age, and "teen-age child" families, in which the youngest child was between 7 and 11 years of age, and the oldest child was between 12 and 18 years of age.

Comparisons were made within each family type (divorced and married) to determine whether there were differences in first-and second-born siblings' perceptions of parent behavior for each of the three factors of Acceptance, Control and Discipline. It was felt that the truest test of birth order differences would occur in "school-age child" families where age differences were minimized.

In addition, based upon the literature indicating the more affiliative nature of first-born children, comparisons between divorced and married families were made using only first-born children in order to determine whether divorce precipitated any differences in first-born children's perceptions of parent behavior for the factors of Acceptance,

Control, and Discipline.

For both within-and between-family comparisons, results will be discussed in terms of the statistically analyzed null hypotheses which were generated for the study, as well as the alternative predictions which have been proposed.

Comparisons of Siblings' Perceptions of Parent Behavior Within Divorced and Married Families

For the purpose of within-family comparisons, three major null hypotheses were tested. These are discussed below. Tables III and IV present mean factor scores for within-family comparisons.

Hypothesis 1(a): For the factor of Acceptance, there will be no significant differences in first-born versus second-born siblings' perceptions of parent behavior.

In "school-age child" families, where both siblings were between 7 and 11 years of age, no significant differences emerged in first-born versus second-born siblings' perceptions for fathers or mothers for the factor of Acceptance. This was true for both divorced and married families (Tables X, XI, Appendix B).

In "teen-age child" families, however, there were significant differences in siblings' perceptions of fathers' behavior for the factor of Acceptance. This is illustrated in Table V. Mean factor scores for second-born siblings $(\underline{M}=59.49)$ were higher than mean factor scores for teen-agers

TABLE III

MEAN FACTOR SCORES FOR CHILDREN'S REPORTS OF FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' PARENTAL BEHAVIOR BY FAMILY STRUCTURE AND RESPONDENT IN "SCHOOL-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| | Acc | eptance ^a | Con | trol ^b | Dis | cipline ^C |
|-------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|
| Subgroup | <u>n</u> | M | <u>n</u> | M | <u>n</u> | M |
| Children Reportin | £ | | | | | |
| for Fathers | | | | | | |
| Family Structur | е | | | | | |
| Divorced | 19 | 58.90 | 20 | 24.25 | 19 | 31.47 |
| Married | 18 | 58.39 | 18 | 26.22 | 18 | 21.94 |
| Respondent | | | | | | |
| First-Born | 19 | 58.16 | 19 | 24.00 | 19 | 26.95 |
| Second-Born | 18 | 60.17 | 19 | 26.37 | 18 | 26.72 |
| Children Reportin | g | | | | | |
| for Mothers | | | | | | |
| Family Structur | e | | | | | |
| Divorced | 22 | 58.86 | 21 | 29.76 | 22 | 25.59 |
| Married | 17 | 61.41 | 17 | 25.12 | 18 | 22.72 |
| Respondent | | | | | | |
| First-Born | 20 | 59.95 | 19 | 26.84 | 20 | 24.15 |
| Second-Born | 19 | 60.00 | 19 | 28.53 | 20 | 24.45 |
| | | | | | | |

^aScores could range from 24 to 72, mid-point=48; measured by scales of Acceptance and Childcenteredness.

^bScores could range from 16 to 48, mid-point=32; measured by scales of Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety.

^CScores could range from 16 to 48, mid-point=32; measured by scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline.

TABLE IV

MEAN FACTOR SCORES FOR CHILDREN'S REPORTS OF FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' PARENTAL BEHAVIOR BY FAMILY STRUCTURE AND RESPONDENT IN "TEEN-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| | Acc | eptance ^a | Con | trol ^b | Disc | ipline ^C |
|-------------------|------------|----------------------|----------|-------------------|----------|---------------------|
| Subgroup | <u>n</u> | M | <u>n</u> | M | <u>n</u> | M |
| Children Reportin | ıg | | | | | |
| for Fathers | | | | | | |
| Family Structu | ce | | | | | |
| Divorced | 30 | 54.57 | 30 | 23.43 | 31 | 29.77 |
| Married | 42 | 58.14 | 42 | 26.26 | 42 | 24.91 |
| Respondent | | | | | | |
| First-Born | 37 | 63.97 | 37 | 23.92 | 37 | 26.65 |
| Second-Born | 3 5 | 59.49 | 35 | 26.31 | 36 | 27.31 |
| Children Reportin | ng | | | | | |
| for Mothers | | | | | | |
| Family Structu: | re | | | | | |
| Divorced | 34 | 61.79 | 35 | 26.83 | 34 | 27.15 |
| Married | 42 | 58.21 | 42 | 26.20 | 42 | 24.31 |
| Respondent | | | | | | |
| First-Born | 39 | 59.56 | 39 | 26.10 | 39 | 24.67 |
| Second-Born | 37 | 60.08 | 38 | 27.00 | 37 | 26.54 |
| | | | | | | |

^aScores could range from 24 to 72, mid-point=48; measured by scales of Acceptance and Childcenteredness.

^bScores could range from 16 to 48, mid-point=32; measured by scales of Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety.

^CScores could range from 16 to 48, mid-point=32; measured by scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline. $(\underline{M}=53.97)$. This indicated that second-born siblings perceived fathers as being more accepting than first-born siblings perceived fathers.

In addition, family structure did not emerge as a significant source of variation for children's perceptions of acceptance for either fathers or mothers in "teen-age child" families (Table V and Table XII, Appendix B).

TABLE V

| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR F |
|-----------------|----|---------|--------|------|------|
| MODEL | 3 | 866.59 | 288,86 | 3.02 | .04 |
| ERROR | 68 | 6495.73 | 95.53 | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 71 | 7362.32 | | | |
| STFAM | l | 189.46 | | 1.98 | .16 |
| RESP | l | 595.76 | | 6.24 | .02 |
| STFAM*RESP | 1 | 118.37 | | 1.24 | .27 |
| | | | | | |

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR FATHERS ON ACCEPTANCE IN "TEEN-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

STFAM=Divorced or Married; RESP=First-Born or Second-Born Child

In conclusion, based upon the data, there were no significant differences in children's perceptions of parent behavior for the factor of Acceptance except in "teen-age child" families, in which second-born siblings perceived fathers as being more accepting than first-born siblings perceived fathers. Except for this instance, the null hypothesis may be accepted.

Since the only significant differences in children's perceptions of parental acceptance occurred in "teen-age child" families, in which there was a wide age gap between the siblings, and did not occur in "school-age child" families where siblings were closer in age, it can be concluded that differences in siblings' perceptions of fathers' acceptance were more a factor of age, or developmental level, than of birth order.

<u>Hypothesis 1(b)</u>: For the factor of Control, there will <u>be no significant differences in first-born versus second-</u> <u>born siblings' perceptions of parent behavior within either</u> <u>divorced or married families</u>.

Although this is the hypothesis which was statistically tested, based upon the literature an alternative prediction was that first-born children within divorced and married families would perceive significantly more psychological control than their younger siblings would perceive.

The results indicated that in "school-age child" families, where it was felt that the truest test of birth order differences existed, no significant differences emerged in

first-born versus second-born siblings' perceptions of parent behavior for either fathers or mothers for the factor of Control (Tables XIII, XIV, Appendix B). This was true in both divorced and married families.

In addition, no significant differences were found in "teen-age child" families for first-born versus second-born siblings' perceptions of psychological control for either fathers or mothers (Table XV, XVI, Appendix B). Family structure did not emerge as a significant source of variation.

Therefore, for the factor of Control, analysis of variance showed that first-born children did not perceive more psychological control than second-born siblings perceived. This is contrary to such studies as those by Hilton (1967) and Kammeyer (1967) which indicate greater parental involvement with first-born children, and Koenig's (1969) findings related to the greater affiliative nature of the first-born child. Therefore, based upon the data from this study, the alternative prediction is rejected in favor of the null hypothesis.

<u>Hypothesis 1(c)</u>: For the factor of Discipline, there will be no significant differences in first-born versus second-born siblings' perceptions of parent behavior within either divorced or married families.

Analysis of variance for "school-age child" families showed no significant differences in siblings' perceptions of discipline for either fathers or mother within either divorced or married families (Tables XVII, XVIII, Appendix B). These results were consistent for "teen-age child" families (Tables XIX, XX, Appendix B). Since birth order did not emerge as a significant source of variation for the factor of Discipline, the null hypothesis is accepted. These results contradict the alternative prediction that firstborn children within divorced and married families would perceive more discipline than second-born children would perceive. Based upon the data, the alternative prediction is rejected in favor of the null hypothesis.

> Comparisons of First-Born Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Between Divorced and Married Families

For the purposes of between-family comparisons, three major null hypotheses were tested. These are discussed below. Tables VI and VII present mean factor scores for between-family comparisons.

<u>Hypothesis 2(a)</u>: <u>There will be no significant differ-</u> ences in first-born children's perceptions of fathers' behavior for the factor of Acceptance between divorced and married families.

Although this is the hypothesis which was statistically tested, based upon the literature an alternative prediction was that first-born children in divorced families would perceive fathers as being significantly less accepting than first-born children in married families would perceive

TABLE VI

MEAN FACTOR SCORES FOR FIRST-BORN CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' PARENTAL BEHAVIOR BY FAMILY STRUCTURE IN "SCHOOL-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| | Acce | eptance ^a | Cont | trol ^b | Disc | cipline ^C |
|------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|-------------------|----------|----------------------|
| Subgroup | <u>n</u> | <u>M</u> | <u>n</u> | M | <u>n</u> | M |
| Children Report | ing | | | | | |
| for Fathers | | | | | | |
| Family Structure | | | | | | |
| Divorced | 10 | 58.60 | 10 | 24.00 | 10 | 31.50 |
| Married | 9 | 57.66 | 9 | 24.00 | 9 | 21.89 |
| Children Report | ing | | | | | |
| for Mothers | | | | | | |
| Family Struct | ure | | | | | |
| Divorced | 11 | 60.09 | 10 | 29.40 | 11 | 26.45 |
| Married | 9 | 59.77 | 9 | 24.00 | 9 | 21.33 |
| | | | | | | |

^aScores could range from 24 to 72, mid-point=48; measured by scales of Acceptance and Childcenteredness.

^bScores could range from 16 to 48, mid-point=32; measured by scales of Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety.

^CScores could range from 16 to 48, mid-point=32; measured by scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline.

TABLE VII

MEAN FACTOR SCORES FOR FIRST-BORN CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' PARENTAL BEHAVIOR BY FAMILY STRUCTURE IN "TEEN-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| | Acce | eptance ^a | Cont | rol ^b | Disc | cipline ^C |
|--------------------|----------|----------------------|----------|------------------|----------|----------------------|
| Subgroup | <u>n</u> | M | <u>n</u> | M | <u>n</u> | M |
| Children Reporting | ; | | | | | |
| for Fathers | | | | | | |
| Family Structure | | | | | | |
| Divorced | 16 | 50.63 | 16 | 23.38 | 16 | 29.28 |
| Married | 21 | 56.52 | 21 | 24.33 | 21 | 24.57 |
| Children Reporting | • | | | | | |
| for Mothers | | | | | | |
| Family Structure | | | | | | |
| Divorced | 18 | 60.83 | 18 | 26.94 | 18 | 26.39 |
| Married | 21 | 58.48 | 21 | 25.38 | 21 | 23.19 |
| | | | | | | |

^aScores could range from 24 to 72, mid-point=48; measured by scales of Acceptance and Childcenteredness.

^bScores could range from 16 to 48, mid-point=32; measured by scales of Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety.

^CScores could range from 16 to 48, mid-point=32; measured by scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline. fathers. However, analysis using a two independent sample <u>t</u> test produced no significant differences between divorced and married families for the factor of Acceptance. This was true for both "school-age child" families and "teen-age child" families (Table XXI, Appendix B). Therefore, the alternative prediction is rejected in favor of the null hypothesis. These results are surprising in light of the divorce literature indicating that children often experience feelings of rejection as a result of divorce. It is also surprising in light of the birth order literature which states that first-born children are more affiliative than second-born children (Adams, 1972; Koenig, 1969), and that they place a greater amount of importance on how they are viewed by "significant others" (Schwab & Lundgren, 1978).

<u>Hypothesis 2(b)</u>: <u>There will be no significant differ</u>-<u>ences in first-born children's perceptions of mothers' be</u>-<u>havior for the factor of Control between divorced and</u> <u>married families.</u>

An alternative prediction was that first-born children in divorced families would perceive mothers as exercising significantly more psychological control than first-born children in married families would perceive. As Table VIII illustrates, a significant difference according to family structure was found in "school-age child" families. In these families, mean factor scores (Table VI) for first-born children in divorced "school-age child" families ($\underline{M}=29.40$) were higher than mean factor scores for first-born children in married "school-age child" families ($\underline{M}=24.00$).

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TABLE VIII

SUMMARY OF TWO INDEPENDENT SAMPLE <u>T</u> TESTS FOR REPORTS OF FIRST-BORN CHILDREN TOWARD MOTHERS

.

| Respondent | <u>n</u> | M | SD | <u>t</u> | p |
|---------------|--------------|----------|----------|-----------|---------|
| FACTOR II: P | SYCHOLOGICAL | AUTONOMY | VS. PSYC | HOLOGICAL | CONTROL |
| First-Born Ch | ild | | | | |
| Between 12 an | d 18 Yrs. | | | | |
| Family Stru | cture | | | | |
| Divorced | 18 | 26.94 | 7.01 | 70 | 7 |
| Married | 21 | 25.38 | 6.28 | •73 | •47 |
| First-Born Ch | ild | | | | |
| Between 7 and | ll Yrs. | | | | |
| Family Stru | cture | | • | | |
| Divorced | 10 | 29.40 | 5.54 | 2.23 | • 04 |
| Married | 9 | 24.00 | 4.95 | ر ۲۰۷ | • 04 |
| | | | | | |

This indicates that first-born children in divorced "school-age child" families perceived mothers as exercising more psychological control than first-born children in married "school-age child" families perceived for mothers. Therefore, the alternative prediction may be accepted for "school-age child" families.

However, similar results were not obtained when "teenage child" families were considered. There were no significant differences in first-born children's perceptions of mothers' behavior for the factor of Control in "teen-age child" families (Table VIII). Therefore, the null hypothesis may be accepted in "teen-age child" families.

<u>Hypothesis 2(c)</u>: <u>There will be no significant differ-</u> <u>ences in first-born children's perceptions of mothers' be-</u> <u>havior for the factor of Discipline between divorced and</u> <u>married families.</u>

An alternative prediction was that first-born children in divorced families would perceive mothers as exercising significantly more discipline than first-born children in married families would perceive. The data for this study indicated significant differences according to family structure in children's perceptions of discipline for mothers. This difference was reported in "school-age child" families (Table IX). However, it was in an opposite direction than predicted.

Mean factor scores for first-born children in divorced "school-age child" families ($\underline{M}=26.45$) were higher than mean factor scores for first-born children in married "school-age child" families ($\underline{M}=21.33$). This indicates that first-born children in divorced "school-age child" families perceived mothers as being higher in lax discipline than first-born

children in married "school-age child" families perceived mothers. Based upon this information, neither the null hypothesis nor the alternative prediction is accepted.

TABLE IX

SUMMARY OF TWO INDEPENDENT SAMPLE <u>T</u> TESTS FOR REPORTS OF FIRST-BORN CHILDREN TOWARD MOTHERS

| Respondent | <u>n</u> | M | SD | <u>t</u> | p |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|----------|-----|
| FACTOR III: H | FIRST VEF | RSUS LAX 1 | DISCIPLIN | E | |
| First-Born Child | | | | | |
| Between 12 and 18 Yrs | 5. | | | | |
| Family Structure | | | | | |
| Divorced | 18 | 26.39 | 5.88 | 1 0 2 | .06 |
| Married | 21 | 23.19 | 4.43 | 1.93 | .00 |
| First-Born Child | | | | | |
| Between 7 and 11 Yrs. | • | | | | |
| Family Structure | | | | | |
| Divorced | 11 | 26.45 | 5.63 | 2.36 | •03 |
| Married | 9 | 21.33 | 3.57 | 0ر • 2 | •05 |
| | | | • • • • | | |

Although results in "teen-age child" families did not reach the level of statistical significance, there was a trend toward a difference according to family structure for first-born children's reports for mothers (p $\langle.07\rangle$). This is illustrated in Table IX. Again, mean factor scores were higher for first-born children in divorced "teen-age child" families (<u>M</u>=26.39) than first first-born children in married "teen-age child" families (<u>M</u>=23.19). This indicates that first-born children in divorced families perceived mothers as being higher in lax discipline than first-born children in married families perceived.

The literature on divorce indicates that children in . divorced families experience conflicting and inconsistent discipline from their mothers. Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979) report that divorced mothers are more restrictive and issue more commands than married mothers. In addition, the birth order literature states that first-born children are subject to more parental attention and control than other siblings. Based upon this information, it was predicted that first-born children in divorced families would perceive more discipline from mothers than first-born children in married families would perceive. However, the data for this study produced results in an opposite direction than predicted. Perhaps this is because, as Tsukada (1979) suggested, parents who are not able to perform all the functions of their role may turn to their children for assistance. This may be especially true for divorced mothers, who are burdened by increased responsibilities and stresses. They may rely upon their children to help them with many of the tasks of keeping the household running smoothly. Hence,

their relationship with them may become more egalitarian. They may be less disciplining.

Although it was not the specific focus of this study, similar findings were revealed for children's perceptions of fathers for the factor of Discipline. Children in both divorced "school-age child" and "teen-age child" families perceived fathers as being significantly higher in lax discipline than children in married "school-age child" and "teen-age child" families perceived (Tables XVII, XIX, Appendix B). These results are consistent with a report by Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979) which stated that divorced fathers are more lenient with their children than married fathers.

The author recognizes that the CRPBI has not been previously used with divorced families. Therefore, it is not clear whether the instrument is sensitive enough to effectively measure children's perceptions of parental acceptance, control and discipline in divorced families. This issue could be clarified by further research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine how birth order effected children's perceptions of parent behavior in divorced and married families. The more specific purpose of this study was to determine a) if there were differences in first-born and second-born siblings' reports of parent behavior <u>within</u> divorced and married families, and b) if there were differences in first-born children's reports of parent behavior <u>between</u> divorced and married families.

Method of the Study

The sample for this study consisted of 118 first-and second-born children between the ages of 7 and 18 years. The children represented 59 families drawn from a region in central Oklahoma. Each family had two children. The secondborn child was between 7 and 11 years of age, while the first-born child was older than the second-born child, but not over 18 years of age. Twenty-nine of the families were divorced and 30 were married. The children responded by

filling out both the mother and father forms of the Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), which yielded scores for three factors: Acceptance, Psychological Control and Lax Discipline. The data were collected during the months of April, May, and June, 1981.

For the purpose of first-born versus second-born sibling comparisons within divorced and married families, separate analyses were conducted for "school-age child" families, in which both first-and second-born children were between 7 and 11 years of age, and "teen-age child" families, in which the first-born child was between 12 and 18 years of age, and the second-born child was between 7 and 11 years of age. These categories were also utilized in comparisons between divorced and married families, in which only firstborn children were considered.

Results and Conclusion

Major results and conclusions are presented in terms of the three factors measured by the CRPBI: Acceptance, Psychological Control, and Lax Discipline.

First-born children within divorced and married families did not perceive less parental acceptance than secondborn children perceived. The only exception occurred in "teen-age child" families, in which second-born children perceived fathers as being significantly more accepting than first-born children perceived. This was true in both divorced and married families. Because of the relatively large age difference between siblings in "teen-age child" families, it appears more likely that differences in perception for the factor of Acceptance for fathers are related to chronological age, or developmental level, than to birth order.

One possible explanation for the discrepancy between teen-age and school-age children's reports for fathers may be that during the teen-age years, there is the potential for conflict between parents and their adolescent children as the children struggle for autonomy and independence. In order to understand why teen-agers perceived fathers, but not mothers, as less accepting than younger children perceived, it is helpful to consider a study exploring children's perceptions of parent behavior in which it was reported that "children viewed the fathers as more powerful and as agents of discipline and mothers as nurturing" (Baumwart, 1978, p.56). Many of the items on the CRPBI which refer to the factor of Acceptance, such as "Gives me lots of care and attention", and "Comforts me when I'm afraid", deal with nurturance. This may help explain why teen-agers do not view mothers as less accepting than younger siblings view mothers. Based upon this information, it is plausible that teen-age children would perceive fathers as being less accepting than their younger siblings would perceive.

Comparisons between divorced and married families, which considered only first-born children, yielded no differences in children's perceptions of parent behavior for the factor

of Acceptance. In fact, one of the most surprising findings of this study was that first-born children in divorced families did not perceive less acceptance than first-born children in married families perceived. This is in conflict with the birth order literature indicating the more affiliative nature of the first-born child (Adams, 1972; Koenig, 1969; Schwab & Lundgren, 1978), and the divorce literature, which indicates that children experience feelings of parental rejection as the result of divorce (Felner, et al, 1980; Zill, 1978). One possible explanation for this could be the nature of the sample which was used in this study. The parents in this study, both divorced and married, seemed to exhibit an above average degree of childcenteredness and acceptance as reported by their children. For the factor of Acceptance, first-born children's reports for mothers and fathers in both divorced and married families were higher than the median (M=48). Therefore, it may be that the sample used in this study was not representative of the general population as a whole.

There were no differences in children's perceptions of parental control according to birth order. First-born children within both divorced and married families did not perceive either mothers or fathers as exercising more psychological control than second-born children perceived. This finding is contradictory to the birth order literature which indicates greater parental involvement with first-born children (Hilton, 1967; Kammeyer, 1967). However, differences

in first-born children's perceptions of control between divorced and married families were found. First-born children in divorced "school-age child" families perceived mothers as exercising more psychological control than first-born children in married "school-age child" families perceived. These results are consistent with a study by Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1979) which indicated that divorced mothers were more restrictive in their child treatment than married mothers were.

Psychological Control, as defined by the CRPBI, is measured by the scales of Control through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety. Children respond to such items as "Says if I loved him, I'd do what he wants me to do", and "Feels hurt when I don't follow advice". Perhaps divorced mothers are perceived as exercising more psychological control than married mothers in "school-age child" families because divorced mothers may have a greater need to control their children's behavior through internalized methods such as guilt and anxiety. Since divorced mothers often can not be present to administer more direct forms of discipline, they may seek to insure that their children will behave in an acceptable way when they are absent by exercising greater psychological control.

There were no differences in first-born children's perceptions of psychological control for mothers between divorced and married "teen-age child" families. One possible explanation for the difference in school-age and teen-age

children's perceptions of maternal psychological control may be that mothers exercise greater control over young children, and as children grow older, there is simply less need for as much psychological control as is used with young children.

For the factor of Discipline, there were no differences in children's perceptions of parent behavior according to birth order. The items on the CRPBI which pertained to Discipline contained such statements as "Doesn't insist that I do my homework" and "Doesn't say no to anything I want". First-born children within divorced and married families did not perceive either mothers or fathers as exercising more discipline than second-born children perceived. However, strong differences emerged between divorced and married families. First-born children in divorced "school-age child" families perceived parents as exercising less discipline than first-born children in married "school-age child" families perceived. In addition, first-born children in divorced "teen-age child" families perceived fathers as exercising less discipline than first-born children in married "teen-age child" families perceived. Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1979) reported that divorced fathers are more lenient with their children than married fathers are. This is consistent with the results of this study.

Although it did not reach the level of statistical significance, there was a trend for first-born children in "teen-age child" families to report similar results for mothers. In order to understand why first-born children in

divorced families tended to perceive mothers as less disciplining than first-born children in married families perceived, it is helpful to consider a report by Hulls and Wedemeyer (1980). They suggested that divorced mothers may experience greater pressures and responsibilities than married mothers. They may have less time for direct discipline. Because of this, it is plausible that their relationships with their children may be altered. The children may provide them with help and emotional support, which may cause mothers to relate to their children more as equals. As a result, they may be less disciplining.

In conclusion, the results from this study indicated that birth order was not a significant factor in children's perceptions of parent behavior within divorced and married families. First-born and second-born children perceived parents similarly. When differences did occur, such as for teen-agers reports of fathers as being less accepting than their school-age siblings' reported, they appeared to be more related to age, or developmental level, than to birth order. Differences in first-born children's perceptions of parent behavior between divorced and married families were more salient than differences in siblings' perceptions within divorced and married families.

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APPENDIXES

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APPENDIX A

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CHILD'S REPORT OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY (CRPBI)

CHILD'S REPORT FOR FATHER

۰.,

We want to learn more about parents and children. Many times parents are asked to tell about children. This time, we want children to tell us about parents.

Instructions

Read the following statements and circle the answer that best tells how your FATHER acts toward you.

If you think the statement is LIKE your father, circle L.

If you think the statement is SOMEWHAT LIKE your father, circle SL.

If you think the statement is NOT LIKE your father, circle NL.

BE SURE TO CIRCLE ONE ANSWER FOR EACH STATEMENT.

| Form | for Father | Like | Some what Like | Not Like |
|------|--|------|----------------------|-------------|
| 1. | Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with him. | L | SL | NL |
| 2. | Likes to talk to me and be with me much of the time. | L | SL | NL |
| 3. | Is easy with me. | L | SL | NL |
| 4. | Seems to see my good points more than my faults. | L | SL | NL |
| 5. | Feels hurt when I don't follow advice | L | SL | NL |
| 6. | Usually doesn't find out about my mis- behavior. | L | SL | NL |
| 7. | Worries about how I will turn out, be- cause he takes anything bad I do seri- ously. | L | SL | NL |
| 8. | Almost always speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice. | L | SL | NL |

| Form | for Father | Like | Some what Like | Not Like |
|------|--|------|----------------------|-------------|
| 9. | Is always thinking of things that will please me. | L | SL | NL |
| 10. | Lets me off easy when I do some- thing wrong. | L | SL | NL |
| 11. | Understands my problems and worries | L | SL | NL |
| 12. | Thinks I'm not grateful when I don't obey. | L | SL | NL |
| 13. | Doesn't pay much attention to my misbehavior. | L | SL | NL |
| 14. | If I break a promise, doesn't trust me again for a long time. | L | SL | NL |
| 15. | Enjoys talking things over with me. | L | SL | NL |
| 16. | Gives me lots of care and attention. | L | SL | NL |
| 17. | Can't say no to anything I want. | L | SL | NL |
| 18. | Enjoys going on drives, trips or visits with me. | L | SL | NL |
| 19. | Feels hurt by the things I do. | L | SL | NL |
| 20. | Doesn't insist that I do my home- work. | L | SL | NL |
| 21. | Says some day I'll be punished for my bad behavior. | L | SL | NL |
| 22. | Smiles at me very often. | L | SL | NL |
| 23. | Often gives up something to get something for me. | L | SL | NL |
| 24. | Excuses my bad conduct. | L | SL | NL |
| 25. | Is able to make me feel better when I am upset. | L | SL | NL |
| 26. | Tells me how much he has suffered for me. | L | SL | NL |

•••

| Form | for Father | Like | Some- what Like | Not |
|------|---|------|-----------------------|-----|
| 27. | Doesn't check up to see whether I have done what he told me. | L | SL | NL |
| 28. | Thinks and talks about my misbe- havior long after it is over. | L | SL | NL |
| 29. | Enjoys doing things with me. | L | SL | NL |
| 30. | Makes me feel like the most impor- tant person in his life. | L | SL | NL |
| 31. | Lets me stay up late if I keep asking. | L | SL | NL |
| 32. | Enjoys working with me in the house or yard. | L | SL | NL |
| 33. | Says if I loved him, I'd do what he wants me to do. | L | SL | NL |
| 34• | Seldom insists that I do anything. | L | SL | NL |
| 35. | Says that some day I'll be sorry that I wasn't better as a child. | L | SL | NL |
| 36. | Comforts me when I'm afraid. | L | SL | NL |
| 37• | Enjoys staying at home with me more than going out with friends. | L | SL | NL |
| 38. | Does not insist I obey if I complain or protest. | L | SL | NL |
| 39. | Cheers me up when I am sad. | L | SL | NL |
| 40. | Tells me of all the things he has done for me. | L | SL | NL |
| 41. | Does not bother to enforce rules. | L | SL | NL |
| 42. | Thinks that any misbehavior is very serious and will have future conse- quences. | L | SL | NL |
| 43. | Often speaks of the good things I do. | L | SL | NL |
| 44. | Makes his whole life center around his children. | L | SL | NL |

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| Form | for Father | Like | Some- what Like | Not |
|------|--|------|-----------------------|-----|
| 45. | I can talk him out of an order, if I complain. | L | SL | NL |
| 46. | Has a good time at home with me. | L | SL | NL |
| 47. | Says if I really cared for him, I would not do things that cause him to worry. | L | SL | NL |
| 48. | Lets me get away without doing work I have been given to do. | L | SL | NL |
| 49. | Says that sooner or later we always pay for bad behavior. | L | SL | NL |
| 50. | Seems proud of the things I do. | L | SL | NL |
| 51. | Spends almost all of his free time with his children. | L | SL | NL |
| 52. | Can be talked into things easily. | L | SL | NL |
| 53. | Isn't interested in changing me, but likes me as I am. | L | SL | NL |
| 54. | When I don't do as he wants, says I'm not grateful for all he has done for me. | L | SL | NL |
| 55• | Lets me get away with a lot of things. | L | SL | NL |
| 56. | Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do. | L | SL | NL |
| | | | | |

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For the following questions, circle the best answer.

1. If I have any kind of problem, I can count on my father to help me out.

NEVER HARDLY EVER SOMETIMES FAIRLY OFTEN VERY OFTEN

2. My father makes me feel he is there if I need him. NEVER HARDLY EVER SOMETIMES FAIRLY OFTEN VERY OFTEN

•••

3. My father teaches me things I want to learn.

NEVER HARDLY EVER SOMETIMES FAIRLY OFTEN VERY OFTEN

4. My father says nice things about me.

NEVER HARDLY EVER SOMETIMES FAIRLY OFTEN VERY OFTEN

APPENDIX B

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TABLES

TABLE X

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SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR FATHERS ON ACCEPTANCE IN "SCHOOL-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR< F |
|-----------------|----|---------|--------|------|-------|
| MODEL | 3 | 57.48 | 19.16 | .18 | .91 |
| ERROR | 33 | 3558.84 | 107.84 | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 36 | 3616.32 | | | |
| STFAM | l | 2.11 | | .02 | .89 |
| RESP | l | 38.16 | | • 35 | • 56 |
| STFAM*RESP | l | 18.38 | | .17 | .68 |
| | | | | | |

STFAM=Divorced or Married; RESP=First-Born or Second-Born Child

TABLE XI

| SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN |
|--|
| AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR |
| MOTHERS ON ACCEPTANCE IN "SCHOOL- |
| AGE CHILD" FAMILIES |

| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR <f< th=""></f<> |
|-----------------|----|---------|-------|------|--------------------|
| MODEL | 3 | 146.46 | 48.82 | • 50 | .68 |
| ERROR | 35 | 3396.51 | 97.04 | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 38 | 3542.97 | | | |
| STFAM | l | 62.23 | | .69 | .41 |
| RESP | l | 2.48 | | .03 | .87 |
| STFAM*RESP | l | 84.05 | | .87 | • 36 |
| | | | | | |

TABLE XII

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR MOTHERS ON ACCEPTANCE IN "TEEN-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| DF | SS | MS | F | PR< F |
|----|--------------------|--|--|---|
| 3 | 278.98 | 92.99 | •94 | •43 |
| 72 | 7090.44 | 98.48 | | |
| 75 | 7369.42 | | | |
| 1 | 248.460 | | 2.52 | .12 |
| l | 10.80 | | .11 | •74 |
| l | 30.86 | | • 31 | •58 |
| | 3 72 75 1 | 3 278.98 72 7090.44 75 7369.42 1 248.460 1 10.80 | 3 278.98 92.99 72 7090.44 98.48 75 7369.42 1 1 248.460 1 1 10.80 10.80 | 3 278.98 92.99 .94 72 7090.44 98.48 75 7369.42 1 248.460 2.52 1 10.80 .11 |

TABLE XIII

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR FATHERS ON CONTROL IN "SCHOOL-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR <f< th=""></f<> |
|-----------------|----|---------|-------|------|--------------------|
| MODEL | 3 | 126.99 | 42.33 | 1.01 | .40 |
| ERROR | 34 | 1424.72 | 41.91 | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 37 | 1551.71 | | | |
| STFAM | 1 | 36.85 | | .88 | • 36 |
| RESP | l | 57.90 | | 1.38 | .25 |
| STFAM*RESP | l | 36.85 | | .88 | • 36 |
| | | | | | |

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR MOTHERS ON CONTROL IN "SCHOOL-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR< F |
|-----------------|----|---------|-------|------|-------|
| MODEL | 3 | 229.03 | 76.34 | 1.70 | .19 |
| ERROR | 34 | 1531.18 | 45.04 | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 37 | 1760.21 | | | |
| STFAM | 1 | 194.60 | | 4.32 | .05 |
| RESP | l | 22.01 | | •49 | •49 |
| STFAM*RESP | l | 6.64 | | .15 | • 70 |
| | | | | | |

TABLE XV

| AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR FATHERS ON CONTROL IN "TEEN- AGE CHILD" FAMILIES | | | | | | | |
|---|----|---------|-------|------|--------------------|--|--|
| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR <f< th=""></f<> | | |
| MODEL | 3 | 296.23 | 98.78 | 2.52 | .09 | | |
| ERROR | 68 | 2983.16 | 43.87 | | | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 71 | 3279.50 | | | | | |
| STFAM | l | 139.24 | | 3.17 | .08 | | |
| RESP | 1 | 69.20 | | 1.58 | .21 | | |
| STFAM*RESP | 1 | 60.78 | | 1.39 | .24 | | |

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN

TABLE XVI

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SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR MOTHERS ON CONTROL IN "TEEN-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR <f< th=""></f<> |
|-----------------|----|---------|-------|------|--------------------|
| MODEL | 3 | 116.79 | 38.93 | .85 | .48 |
| ERROR | 73 | 3363.30 | 46.06 | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 76 | 3479.09 | | | i |
| STFAM | l | 8.19 | | .18 | .67 |
| RESP | l | 8.98 | | .19 | .66 |
| STFAM*RESP | 1 | 93.94 | | 2.04 | .16 |
| | | | | | |

TABLE XVII

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR FATHERS ON DISCIPLINE IN "SCHOOL-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR< F |
|-----------------|----|----------|--------|-------|-------|
| MODEL | 3 | 839.42 | 279.81 | 9.56 | .0001 |
| ERROR | 33 | 965.61 | 29.261 | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 36 | 1805.127 | | | |
| STFAM | l | 837.96 | | 28.64 | .0001 |
| RESP | l | .01 | | .00 | •99 |
| STFAM*RESP | l | .07 | | .00 | •96 |
| | | | | | |

TABLE XVIII

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SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR MOTHERS ON DISCIPLINE IN "SCHOOL-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR <f< th=""></f<> |
|-----------------|----|--------|-------|------|--------------------|
| MODEL | 3 | 132.60 | 44.20 | 1.91 | .15 |
| ERROR | 36 | 831.80 | 23.11 | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 39 | 964.40 | | | |
| STFAM | l | 81.47 | | 3.53 | .07 |
| RESP | l | 2.73 | | .12 | •73 |
| STFAM*RESP | l | 50.23 | | 2.17 | .15 |
| | | | | | |

TABLE XIX

| SUMMARY OF ANAL | LYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN |
|-----------------|----------------------------------|
| AND SECOND. | -BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR |
| FATHERS | ON DISCIPLINE IN "TEEN- |
| | AGE CHILD" FAMILIES |

| SOURCE | DF | SS | MS | F | PR< F |
|-----------------|----|---------|--------|-------|-------|
| MODEL | 3 | 432.84 | 144.28 | 5.02 | .004 |
| ERROR | 69 | 1985.10 | 28.77 | | |
| CORRECTED TOTAL | 72 | 241.95 | | | |
| STFAM | l | 424.97 | | 14.77 | .0003 |
| RESP | l | 9.92 | | • 34 | • 56 |
| STFAM*RESP | l | .11 | | .00 | •95 |
| | | | | | |

TABLE XX

| MOTHERS ON DISCIPLINE IN "TEEN- AGE CHILD" FAMILIES | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|--|--|---|--|--|--|--|
| DF | SS | MS | F | PR <f< th=""></f<> | | | | |
| 3 | 225.87 | 75.29 | 2.45 | .07 | | | | |
| 72 | 2208.66 | 30.68 | | | | | | |
| 75 | 2434•53 | | | | | | | |
| l | 156.08 | | 5.09 | .03 | | | | |
| l | 69.47 | | 2.26 | .14 | | | | |
| l | 1.84 | | .06 | .81 | | | | |
| | DF 3 72 75 1 1 | AGE CHILD" 1 DF SS 3 225.87 72 2208.66 75 2434.53 1 156.08 1 69.47 | AGE CHILD" FAMILIES DF SS MS 3 225.87 75.29 72 2208.66 30.68 75 2434.53 1 156.08 1 69.47 | AGE CHILD" FAMILIES DF SS MS F 3 225.87 75.29 2.45 72 2208.66 30.68 30.68 75 2434.53 5.09 5.09 1 69.47 2.26 | | | | |

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR FIRST-BORN AND SECOND-BORN CHILDREN'S REPORTS FOR MOTHERS ON DISCIPLINE IN "TEEN-AGE CHILD" FAMILIES

STFAM=Divorced or Married; RESP=First-Born or Second-Born Child

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TABLE XXI

SUMMARY OF TWO INDEPENDENT SAMPLE <u>T</u> TESTS FOR REPORTS OF FIRST-BORN CHILDREN TOWARD FATHERS

| <u>t</u> p | SD | M | <u>n</u> | Respondent |
|-------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|---------------------|
| ECTION | JS REJECT | ICE VERSU | ACCEPTA | FACTOR I: |
| | | | | First-Born Child |
| | | | cs. | Between 12 and 18 Y |
| | | | | Family Structure |
| | 12.57 | 50.63 | 16 | Divorced |
| - 1.56 .13 | 10.47 | 56.52 | 21 | Married |
| | | | | First-Born Child |
| | | | 5. | Between 7 and 11 Yr |
| | | | | Family Structure |
| 7 | 15.17 | 58.60 | 10 | Divorced |
| | 5.85 | 57.67 | 9 | Married |
| .18 | | | | |

VITA

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