

PARENTAL BEHAVIOR IN DIVORCED
AND MARRIED FAMILIES

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INTRODUCTION

The body of this dissertation consists of a complete manuscript for publication, "Parental Behavior in Divorced and Married Families." The manuscript was based on results of the dissertation research of Jane K. Teleki and was coauthored by Judith A. Powell, dissertation adviser to the first author.

Materials which, according to the Oklahoma State University thesis format, are usually included in the main text, such as the literature review, are included in the appendices. Also included in the appendices are letters, copies of instruments used in the research, and other supplementary materials.

Preliminary reports of different aspects of this research have been presented at the Missouri Psychological Association Fall Convention, Springfield, Missouri, October, 1981; at the Oklahoma Home Economics Association Annual Meeting, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, March, 1982; and at the Annual Conference of the Southern Association on Children Under Six, Tulsa, Oklahoma, March, 1982. In addition, a preliminary report of the results of the study has been accepted for presentation at the American Home Economics Association Annual Meeting, Cincinnati, Ohio, June, 1982.

Parental Behavior in Divorced
and Married Families

Jane K. Teleki and Judith A. Powell
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Introduction

This article is based on the doctoral dissertation research of the first author, conducted under the direction of the second author. The research was supported by the Family Study Center and Home Economics Research Funds at Oklahoma State University. A preliminary report of the results has been accepted for presentation at the Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Cincinnati, Ohio, June, 1982. Requests for reprints should be addressed to the first author, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078.

Running Head: Parental Behavior

Abstract

Schaefer's CRPBI was administered to 59 children and their parents to determine whether or not reports of parental behavior differ as a function of family structure. Factor analysis of scale scores resulted in pairs of scales loading on the anticipated three factors except for children's reports of divorced mothers which yielded two factors. For each dimension of parental behavior--Acceptance, Psychological Control, Lax Discipline--analyses were computed for dyads within families and for comparisons between divorced and married families. Within married families, children reported fathers higher on Acceptance than fathers reported themselves to be. Within both types of families, children consistently reported parents higher on Psychological Control than parents reported themselves to be, and children reported mothers higher on Lax Discipline than mothers reported themselves to be. Within divorced families, children reported fathers higher than mothers on Lax Discipline. Comparisons between divorced and married families revealed no significant differences on Acceptance. On Psychological Control, children reported married fathers higher than divorced fathers. Children in divorced families reported fathers, but not mothers, higher on Lax Discipline than did children in married families. Finally, divorced mothers reported themselves higher on Lax Discipline than married mothers. Results are consistent with previous findings that divorced fathers are less restrictive with their children than married fathers.

Parental Behavior in Divorced and Married Families

Introduction

The number of divorces involving children have increased dramatically during the past two decades. Approximately one-half of the children being born today are expected to spend some portion of their lives prior to age 18 in a one-parent family (Bane, 1976; Glick, 1979). Most often, the child's living in a household maintained by a single adult will be a result of the separation or divorce of his/her parents.

The effect of marital status on the parent-child relationship has been cited as an area needing more empirical data (Schlater, 1970). Studies indicate that adults experiencing separation or divorce may be disturbed in all areas of their lives, including parenting (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978; Briscoe, Smith, Robins, Marten, & Gaskin, 1973; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Spanier & Casto, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1979). Hetherington, Cox, and Cox reported that parent-child relationships differ on many dimensions as a function of membership in a divorced or intact family. Children's reactions to divorce observed by Wallerstein and Kelly (1974, 1976, 1979) included changed perceptions of parents, anger at the parent whom the child thought initiated the divorce, and alignment with one parent aimed at exclusion or rejection of the other. Such changes or disturbances should be reflected in perceptions of parental behavior reported by both parents and children.

Bronfenbrenner (1977, 1979) maintains that what matters for behavior and development of the child is the environment as it is perceived rather than as it may exist in objective reality. This idea is

epitomized in the inexorable dictum of Thomas and Thomas (1928), "If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences" (p. 572).

Furthermore, research has demonstrated that children's perceptions of their parents' child-rearing behavior are more relevant determinants of children's behavior and adjustment than the objective reality to which those perceptions refer (Ausubel, Balthazar, Rosenthal, Blackman, Schpount, & Welkowitz, 1954; Cox, 1970; Devereux, Bronfenbrenner, & Rodgers, 1969; Michaels, Messé, & Stollak, 1977; Schaefer, 1965a). Yet, except for studies reported by Woyshner (1979) and Clark (1979), research dealing with children's perceptions of parental behavior have been limited to children from married families (Aquilino, 1979; Burger & Armentrout, 1975; Devereux, Bronfenbrenner, & Rodgers, 1969; Hower & Edwards, 1978; Kagan, Hosken, & Watson, 1961; Kelly & Worell, 1976; Schaefer, 1965a; Serot & Teevan, 1961) sometimes with the additional notation that children were living with both biological parents (Armentrout & Burger, 1972b; Dippleman & Schaefer, 1963; Robinson, 1978; Yairi & Williams, 1971).

For the past 20 years a major thrust of investigations concerning parent-child relationships has been in the area of children's perceptions of their parents' child-rearing behavior (Walters & Stinnett, 1971). In addition, the impact of divorce on children has received increasing attention from researchers (Walters & Walters, 1980). Despite such trends, only two studies requesting children from divorced families to report perceptions of their parents' child-rearing behavior were found in the literature. Moreover, systematic research concerning the impact of divorce on school-age children, the largest single group

affected (Johnson, 1980), is especially meager (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976).

Few studies have been designed to allow both children and their parents to respond to the same or similar questions concerning the child-rearing behavior of the parents. In the studies in which this was attempted, results were discrepant. Some studies showed differences between responses of parents and their children (Cox, 1970; Houston, 1980; Michaels, Messé, & Stollak, 1977; Robinson, 1978; Serot & Teevan, 1961; Woyshner, 1979) while others revealed generally convergent results for parents and their children (Bronson, Katten, & Livson, 1959) or positive but low correlations (Devereux, Bronfenbrenner, & Rodgers, 1969).

Also, differences between mothers' and fathers' reports of their own parenting behavior have been shown to be differentially correlated with the child's behavior (Cox, 1970; Eron, Banta, Walder, & Laulicht, 1961; Robinson, 1978). While some instruments designed for obtaining children's perceptions of parental behavior have been modified in order to obtain parents' self-reports of their parenting behavior (Cox, 1970; Michaels, Messé, & Stollak, 1977; Serot & Teevan, 1961), only four scales of Schaefer's (1965a) Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) have been rewritten to procure parents' self-reports (Robinson, 1978).

The CRPBI was designed specifically to assess parental behavior as perceived and reported by children. The original version consisted of 26 10-item scales based upon a two-dimensional model of parental behavior with orthogonal dimensions of "love versus hostility" and "autonomy versus control." Revisions of the instrument (Renson,

Schaefer, & Levy, 1968; Schaefer, 1965b) resulted in a 192-item inventory with six 16-item scales and 12 8-item scales which factored into three dimensions. As labeled and described by Schaefer (1965a, 1965b), Factor I, Acceptance versus Rejection, involves the bipolar dimensions of acceptance, emotional support, and equalitarian treatment on the positive end and ignoring, neglect, and rejection on the negative end. Factor II, Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control, describes the degree to which parents use covert, psychological methods of controlling the child's activities and behavior. Factor III, Firm Control versus Lax Control, refers to the degree to which the parent establishes and maintains limits (rules and regulations) concerning the child's activities.

Subsequent factor analyses of the 18 scales have consistently yielded three factors which are very similar to those identified by Schaefer (Armentrout & Burger, 1972a, 1972b; Burger & Armentrout, 1975; Burger, Lamp, & Rogers, 1975; Cross, 1969; Graybill & Gabel, 1978; Renson, Schaefer, & Levy, 1968). In addition, similar factors have emerged when the number of items per scale (Raskin, Boothe, Reatig, Schulterbrandt, & Odle, 1971; Schludermann & Schludermann, 1970) or the number of scales (Burger & Armentrout, 1971a; Burger, Armentrout, & Rapfogel, 1973; Margolies & Weintraub, 1977) were reduced.

For example, after generating exact factor scores following Horst's (1965) least square solution, Burger and Armentrout (1971a) and Burger, Armentrout, and Rapfogel (1973) investigated three methods for estimating exact factor scores for the CRPBI employing different numbers of scales for the factors. Set A included all scales that best defined each factor; Set B, the three scales that best defined

each factor; and Set C, the best two scales for each factor. They concluded that all three methods were highly accurate in estimating the exact score. Moreover, all three factors could be quite accurately estimated using three and even two scales for each factor.

Burger and Armentrout (1971a) argued that if factor analysis is employed to discover particular dimensions, it is the dimensions, or factors, that should be conceptualized as variables and not the smaller elements, or scales. Factor scores permit individual comparisons between groups of children, for example, children from divorced families compared with those from married families. Both factor scores and scale scores of the CRPBI have been shown to discriminate between groups (Raskin, Boothe, Reatig, Schulterbrandt, & Odle, 1971; Schaefer, 1965a, 1965b; Yairi & Williams, 1971).

For the current study the names of Factors II and III were modified slightly so that their content could be reflected more accurately. Factor II, Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control, was changed to Psychological Control versus Autonomy. Factor III, Firm Control versus Lax Control, was changed to Lax versus Firm Discipline.

Reliability and factor structure of the 56-item version of the CRPBI were investigated by Margolies and Weintraub (1977). The 56-item inventory was found to be highly reliable at one-week and five-week retest intervals. Factor structure of the revised version was similar to that of the original with Factor III, Firm Control versus Lax Control (i.e., Lax Discipline), somewhat less stable than Factors I and II. Margolies and Weintraub concluded that the 56-item version of the CRPBI appears to stand up well as a research instrument. Also, they noted its greater practicality when working with young children.

The present investigation was designed to determine whether or not perceptions of parental behavior differ as a function of membership in a divorced or married family. Since variation within families might be even greater than variation between family types, reports of parental behavior by parent-child dyads within each type of family were assessed. Three dimensions of parental behavior constituted the dependent variables of the study: Acceptance, Psychological Control, and Lax Discipline.

Several null hypotheses were formulated for the study. Within families, there will be no significant differences on any dimension between members of any of the following dyads: (a) children's reports for fathers and children's reports for mothers; (b) children's reports for mothers and mothers' self-reports. Additionally, within married families, there will be no significant differences between (c) children's reports for fathers and fathers' self-reports nor between (d) fathers' self-reports and mothers' self-reports. (Responses were not obtained from divorced fathers.)

There will be no significant differences between members of divorced and married families on any dimension; i.e., (a) children's reports for divorced versus married parents, (b) children's reports for divorced versus married mothers, (c) children's reports for divorced versus married fathers, and (d) self-reports by divorced versus married mothers. While all hypotheses are stated in the null form, differences between members of divorced and married families were expected for all three dimensions based on previous results reported in the literature. The direction of differences was not predicted.

The type of research employed for this study was that identified by Kerlinger (1973) as survey research. In survey research, samples chosen from populations are studied to discover the relative incidence, distribution, and interrelations of sociological and psychological variables. The present study was designed to assess the relationship between dyads within and between divorced and married families on three dimensions of parental behavior.

Two types of families, divorced and married, were selected for study. Responses were obtained from both parents and children during a single interview session in the family's home. Children's responses were classified by family structure, parent toward whom responding, and sex of child. Parents' responses were classified by family structure, sex of parent, and sex of younger child. Thus, the basic design for the study was a 2 x 2 x 2 factorial arrangement.

Method

Data for this study were collected through a larger research project on the management of resources and relationships in divorced and married families. The current study involves the relationships aspect of the larger project. More specifically, it involves perceptions of parental behavior.

Subjects

Subjects were parents and younger children in 30 one-parent and 30 two-parent families. Divorced parents with custody of both children included 29 mothers and one father. Inclusion of the father-headed divorced family confounded comparisons between divorced and married fathers; therefore, data for the family headed by a divorced father were excluded from any analyses reported herein. There were 30

married mother and father pairs. Consequently, the research sample consisted of 59 families.

Efforts were made to maintain homogeneity of the two groups except for marital status of the parents. Thus, both types of families were limited to those having two children between the ages of 7 and 18, a younger child between 7 and 11 years of age and an older child not more than 18 years of age. The younger child was the focal child for this study. If both children were between 7 and 11 years of age, the younger of the two was the focus of the research.

Among the 59 children were 25 males and 34 females. Eleven boys and 18 girls were living in families in which the parents had been legally separated or divorced for at least one year prior to the interview. The number of years as a divorced family ranged from one to nine with $\underline{M} = 4.67$ years and $\underline{SD} = 2.15$. The remaining 14 boys and 16 girls were living in married families. All children were living with their biological or adoptive parent or parents.

The age of the target child in both types of families ranged from 7 to 11 years ($\underline{M} = 9.10$, $\underline{SD} = 1.16$). For children in divorced families, $\underline{M} = 9.03$ years and $\underline{SD} = 1.30$; for children in married families, $\underline{M} = 9.17$ years and $\underline{SD} = 1.02$.

Divorced mothers were between 31 and 45 years of age ($\underline{M} = 35.83$, $\underline{SD} = 3.20$). Married mothers ranged from 32 to 43 years of age ($\underline{M} = 36.55$, $\underline{SD} = 3.10$), and married fathers were between 32 and 48 years of age ($\underline{M} = 39.17$, $\underline{SD} = 4.11$).

In divorced families, the parents had been married from 2 to 16 years prior to the divorce ($\underline{M} = 10.69$, $\underline{SD} = 3.46$). Parents in married families had been married from 12 to 24 years ($\underline{M} = 15.18$, $\underline{SD} = 2.76$).

As can be seen in Table 1, other demographic characteristics of

Insert Table 1 about here

the two types of families were very similar. Essentially, both groups were white Protestants who had attended college and were engaged in professional occupations. Of the 29 divorced mothers, 27 were employed outside the home as were 20 of the 30 married mothers. The majority of both types of families lived in similar neighborhoods, in single family units which they were buying or already owned.

The greatest demographic difference between the two types of families was income (Table 2). Fifteen divorced mothers reported

Insert Table 2 about here

annual earnings of less than \$15,000 while 15 married fathers reported annual earnings of over \$35,000. Even when child support and alimony were added to divorced families' earnings, means for the two groups remained widely discrepant.

Research Instruments

Individual and Family Information inventories were developed to obtain relevant demographic data (Appendix B). The 56-item 6-scale version of Schaefer's (1965a) Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) was employed to obtain measures of the dependent variables (Appendix B).

The 56-item 6-scale version of the CRPBI used in this study consists of one 16-item scale (Acceptance) and five 8-item scales. It is the version identified as Set C in Burger and Armentrout's investigations (Burger & Armentrout, 1971a; Burger, Armentrout, & Rapfogel,

1973). In this version, each of three factors is comprised of two scales from Schaefer's (1965b) 192-item 18-scale inventory. Factor I, Acceptance versus Rejection, consists of Acceptance (Scale 1) and Childcenteredness (Scale 2). Factor II, Psychological Control versus Autonomy, is made up of Control through Guilt (Scale 9) and Instilling Persistent Anxiety (Scale 15). Factor III, Lax versus Firm Discipline, includes Nonenforcement (Scale 12) and Lax Discipline (Scale 14).

Procedure

Selection of Subjects. Potential subjects were identified through letters to representatives of churches, singles groups, and square-dance clubs in the metropolitan area of Tulsa, Oklahoma. A total of 161 names of one-parent households and 299 names of two-parent households were obtained. The two lists of names were alphabetized separately according to surname of the family and numbered consecutively. Using a table of random numbers, 30 families from each group were selected.

A decision was made to screen and schedule interviews with one telephone call. Two doctoral students telephoned the families selected, explained the research, and asked questions to determine if the family met the criteria for participating in the study. (Copy of Screening Sheet in Appendix C). If the family had two and only two children in the criterion age categories, were the natural or adoptive parent or parents of both children, had no other adults living in the household, and for one-parent households, had been legally separated or divorced for at least one year and had not remarried then the respondent was informed that his/her family qualified for participation in the research. Additionally, the respondent was

apprised that the interview would take approximately two and one-half to three hours and would require that all family members be present. Respondents were assured that any information provided would be strictly confidential, that the family's participation was completely voluntary, and that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time.

Ultimately, attempts were made to contact all 161 one-parent households and 150 of the 299 two-parent households. Seventeen of the former and 12 of the latter families could not be reached by telephone. In addition, the screening procedure revealed 97 one-parent and 64 two-parent households which did not meet criteria for the study. Major reasons for families not meeting criteria were as follows:

1. Some had too few or too many children.
2. One or both children were not in the specified age range.
3. The relationship between one or both parents and one or both children was something other than that of natural or adoptive parent.
4. Some had other adults living in the household.
5. Some were headed by a single parent for reasons other than separation or divorce.
6. Some couples had not been legally separated or divorced for at least one year.
7. Some custodial parents had remarried.
8. Some divorced parents shared custody of the children with the former spouse.

For each family which did not meet all criteria established for the study, another family was randomly selected from the appropriate list.

Of the remaining 47 one-parent and 74 two-parent families, 10 of the former and 15 of the latter refused to participate in the research before qualifications could be ascertained. This left 37 divorced and 59 married families who met established criteria.

Among the 37 divorced families who qualified for the study, interviews could not be arranged with seven families due to conflicts arising from different family members' schedules and end of school activities. Of the 59 married families who met all criteria, 12 declined to participate. For another 13 married families, interviews could not be scheduled for the same reasons identified by divorced families. Four married families tentatively scheduled interviews which were not completed.

Interviewers. Data were collected by two-person teams of interviewers. Ten of the interviewers were female and one was male. Five interviewers were trained as lead interviewers; i.e., to collect information from both parents and children. Another six persons were trained to obtain information from the children and served as assistant interviewers. Only one lead interviewer actually engaged in both roles.

Training for interviewers included lecture/discussion and observation of a staged interview with opportunity for questioning and discussion. Each interviewer implemented at least one interview with a family in a pilot study before collection of data began in the Tulsa area.

Pilot Study. Prior to actual collection of data, a pilot study was conducted with an available sample of five divorced and five married families in Stillwater, Oklahoma. Purposes of the pilot study

were to determine the most effective methods for collecting information from families, to identify potential problems with the instruments, and to provide experience in data collection procedures for interview teams.

Administration of Inventory. When the team of interviewers arrived at the family's residence, one worked with the parents while the other worked with the child in a separate area of the home. Participants were reminded that any information provided would be confidential. Subjects' names did not appear on any forms and were not requested during the interview. Children were further advised that the interviewer would not share anything the child told her/him with other members of the family.

Responses to the CRPBI were obtained from both children and parents in a single session. Subjects were directed to read the instructions at the top of the form, to respond on their own, and to ask questions about any items which were not clearly understood. Standard responses had been designed for questions about certain items based on queries arising in the pilot study. To assess whether or not a child might have difficulty reading the items, each child was asked to read the instructions aloud. Even though some children were just over seven years of age, all subjects were able to read satisfactorily.

Children responded to both the mother and father forms of the CRPBI (Appendix B). According to a randomly-assigned schedule, one-half of the children in each group, divorced and married, completed the mother form first while the remainder completed the father form first. Children participated in an unrelated game-like task between administration of the two forms. Children responded to the items in terms

of whether a statement, such as "Enjoys doing things with me," was "Like," "Somewhat Like," or "Not Like" the parent for whom they were responding.

Self-reports by parents were obtained from parents with whom children were currently residing; i.e., reports were not secured from 29 absent fathers. Parents responded in terms of whether a statement such as "Enjoy doing things with child," was "Like," "Somewhat Like," or "Not Like" their child-rearing behavior relative to their younger child. Responses of both parents and children were scored 3, 2, and 1 respectively.

Statistical Methods. Since no record was found of the CRPBI having been used with children in divorced families and since it was modified slightly for use with parents in this study, factor analysis was used to assess reliability of the six scales for the current sample. Children's reports of parents', fathers', and mothers' behavior were analyzed separately for children living in divorced families and those living in married families. This resulted in six sets of analyses. Also, separate analyses were performed for divorced mothers, married mothers, and married fathers yielding another three sets of analyses.

Each of the nine correlation matrices for the six scales were factor analyzed by the principal axis method with unity in the diagonals using the Factor Procedure of the Statistical Analysis System (Helwig & Council, 1979). Factoring was terminated when eigenvalues fell below 1.00. Factor matrices were rotated orthogonally using the Varimax option. A scale was considered to load on a factor if it showed its highest loading on that factor and loaded at least .40.

For each dimension of parental behavior--Acceptance, Psychological Control, and Lax Discipline--analyses were computed for dyads within families and between divorced and married families. Within families, analyses included the following: (a) Children's reports for fathers versus children's reports for mothers were assessed using an analysis of variance model with repeated measures. (b) Paired t tests were employed to assess differences between reports by children and mothers and by children and fathers. Only married families could be assessed in child and father dyads. (c) An analysis of variance model with repeated measures was utilized to evaluate fathers' self-reports versus mothers' self-reports. This assessment could be completed for married families only. Finally, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed for parent-child pairs within families (divorced mothers and children, married mothers and children, married fathers and children).

Between families, analyses were conducted as follows: (a) Children's reports for divorced versus married parents were appraised through an analysis of variance model with repeated measures; (b) a 2×2 (family structure \times sex of child) analysis of variance model was used to determine whether or not differences existed between children's reports of divorced and married fathers; (c) a 2×2 (family structure \times sex of child) analysis of variance model was used to assess differences between children's reports of divorced and married mothers; and (d) divorced versus married mothers' self-reports were explored using a 2×2 (family structure \times sex of child) analysis of variance model.

Results and Discussion

Reliability and Validity

For the six factor analyses involving children's reports of parental behavior, variation explained by the first unrotated factor ranged from 34 to 51 percent (Table 3). For parents' self-reports,

Insert Table 3 about here

variation explained by the first unrotated factor ranged from 33 to 40 percent (Table 4). These figures are well above Nunnally's (1978)

Insert Table 4 about here

suggested minimum of 25 percent.

Orthogonal (Varimax) rotation resulted in pairs of scales loading on the anticipated three factors in eight of the nine sets of analyses (Tables 5 and 6). In the case of children reporting for divorced

Insert Tables 5 and 6 about here

mothers (Table 5), the scales of Acceptance, Childcenteredness, Non-enforcement, and Lax Discipline loaded on one factor while the scales of Acceptance, Control through Guilt, and Instilling Persistent Anxiety loaded on a second factor. While Acceptance loaded on both factors, it had a negative relationship with the other scales which loaded on the second factor; i.e., Control through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety. This means that for children reporting for divorced mothers, the factor structure is less fully differentiated.

The unique factor structure observed for children's reports of divorced mothers indicates that these children did not differentiate

the factors of Acceptance and Discipline to as high a degree as children reporting for married mothers, married fathers, or, interestingly, divorced fathers. This result may be related to Margolies and Weintraub's (1977) finding of less stability for Factor III, Lax Discipline. Perhaps this unique pattern is a function of the instrument's being more valid for reports of parental behavior by children living in married families. However, children's reports for divorced fathers yielded the expected three factors.

Therefore, the unique factor structure obtained for children's reports of divorced mothers may reflect basic differences in how children from divorced and married families view their mothers' parenting behavior. Historically, in the traditional two-parent household, the father has been considered the disciplinarian despite the fact that he was away from the children for long periods each day or perhaps for several days at a time. While divorce creates a situation whereby the father's absence is more pronounced, it may not substantially alter the child's perception of the father (on the dimensions assessed) from the view held by the child prior to the divorce.

Another explanation for the phenomenon of Acceptance and Discipline loading on the same factor in children's reports for divorced mothers may be found in Weiss' (1979) theory concerning the structure and functioning of single-parent households. Weiss proposes that the two-parent household maintains a hierarchy, or echelon structure, whereby two adults on a superordinate level (parents) exercise authority over anyone on a subordinate level (children). Without a second parent in the home, however, the echelon structure dissolves. Collapse of the echelon structure makes possible the development of a

new relationship in which the children are defined as having responsibilities and rights in the household very similar to the parent's own. Not only do children perform additional chores, but also they participate in decision-making that affects continued functioning and maintenance of the household system.

Consequently, children in single-parent households may become more responsible, more independent, and more alert to adult values than other children of the same age. Such children may perceive a high degree of maternal (in mother-headed households) acceptance. At the same time, viewing themselves as responsible partners in the household enterprise, these children do not need to distinguish a separate disciplinarian role for the mother.

In any event, scale scores for children's reports of divorced mothers loaded such that Acceptance and Discipline comprised one factor. Additional use of the CRPBI with groups of children living in divorced families could help to clarify this result.

Correlations

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients for divorced mothers and their children, married mothers and their children, and married fathers and their children are reported in Table 7. For the

Insert Table 7 about here

dimension of Acceptance, correlation coefficients were not statistically significant for any parent-child pairs. However, on the dimensions of Psychological Control and Lax Discipline, correlation coefficients were statistically significant ($p < .01$) for married father-child pairs but not for married mother-child pairs nor for

divorced mother-child pairs. Lack of correlation for reports of parental behavior by mother-child dyads is consistent with results obtained by other researchers (Gecas & Nye, 1974; Houston, 1980; Jessop, 1981; Kandel, Lesser, Roberts, & Weiss, 1968; Larson, 1974; Niemi, 1974; Woyshner, 1979) who found differences in perceptions reported by mother-child pairs.

Analyses of Data

Factor scores constituted the three dependent variables and were obtained by unweighted summation of scale totals identified by previous researchers (Burger & Armentrout, 1971a, 1971b; Burger, Armentrout, & Rapfogel, 1973; Schaefer, 1965b) as comprising that factor. The score for Factor I consisted of the sum of scores for the scales of Acceptance and Childcenteredness. The score for Factor II was obtained from scores for the scales of Control through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety. The score for Factor III was comprised of the scores for the scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline.

Higher mean factor scores indicate that parents were perceived or perceived themselves as exhibiting relatively more of the trait measured by the particular scales making up that factor. For example, higher scores on Factor I, Acceptance versus Rejection, mean that the parent was perceived as relatively more accepting and childcentered. Higher scores on Factor II signify that the parent was viewed as relatively more psychologically controlling. Higher scores on Factor III indicate that the parent was considered relatively lax in disciplinary control.

Analysis of variance for children's reports of parental behavior were computed for the main effects of parent and sex of child within

divorced families and within married families (Tables 8 and 9).

Insert Tables 8 and 9 about here

Since a single child responded for both a mother and a father, parent was treated as a repeated measure. Paired t tests were employed to compare differences between reports by children and mothers within divorced families and within married families and by children and fathers within married families (Table 10). Within married families,

Insert Table 10 about here

analysis of variance for parents' self-reports was computed for the main effects of parent and sex of child (Tables 11 and 12). Since

Insert Tables 11 and 12 about here

both parents were responding relative to the same child, parent was treated as a repeated measure.

Between families, analyses were conducted for children's reports of divorced versus married parents (Tables 13 and 14), mothers (Tables 15 and 16), and fathers (Tables 15 and 16). In addition, analyses

Insert Tables 13, 14, 15, and 16 about here

were computed for self-reports by divorced mothers versus self-reports by married mothers (Tables 17 and 18). Results will be discussed

Insert Tables 17 and 18 about here

according to findings for each factor or dimension.

Dimensions

Acceptance. For the dimension of Acceptance versus Rejection, no statistically significant differences were found either within or between families except for statistically significant ($p < .05$) differences between fathers and children within married families (Table 10). Mean differences indicate that children reported fathers higher than fathers reported themselves on this dimension. The hypothesis of no significant differences between children's reports for fathers and fathers' self-reports was rejected. The hypothesis that there would be no significant differences between divorced and married families was not rejected for the dimension of Acceptance versus Rejection.

One of the most consistent results of this study was the finding of few statistically significant differences on the factor of Acceptance versus Rejection. Mean factor scores (Table 9) reveal that children in both types of families reported both their parents to be relatively high on the dimension of Acceptance. Children in divorced families perceived themselves to be as accepted by their parents as did children in married families. Moreover, children in divorced families did not perceive themselves to be rejected by their divorced fathers. Such findings contradict the literature indicating that children of divorce feel rejected (Gardner, 1974; Homan, 1969; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976; Zill, Note 1).

Of interest is the finding that within married families, mean factor scores for children's reports of fathers were higher than scores for fathers' self-reports. Low correlation coefficients (Table 7) for these two groups indicate that what constitutes Acceptance may differ

for fathers and children. Perhaps fathers see themselves in the traditional view of father as disciplinarian, lacking demonstrative acceptance of the child, and more involved in providing for the material well-being of the family at the expense of childcenteredness. Nevertheless, children perceived these fathers as accepting and child-centered.

Psychological Control. For the dimension of Psychological Control, paired t tests revealed statistically significant ($p < .05$) differences between children's reports of parents and parents' self-reports within families (Table 10). Mean differences indicate that children reported parents higher on this factor than parents reported themselves. Therefore, the hypothesis of no differences between parent-child dyads within families was rejected for the dimension of Psychological Control for divorced mothers and children, married mothers and children, and married fathers and children.

Although mean scores for children's reports of parents were relatively low on Psychological Control (Table 9), children perceived parents as higher in Control through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety than parents perceived themselves to be. Maybe parents have learned that such methods of control are undesirable. Perhaps these parents are reacting to use of such methods by their own parents, choose not to use them with their own children, and even think that they are not using them. This attitude may have been reinforced by popular child-rearing experts who warned against imposing a heavy sense of guilt on young children (Dodson, 1970; Fraiberg, 1959; Ginott, 1965; Homan, 1969; Spock, 1976). Parents may sense the social undesirability of such methods and report that they do not use them (Radke, 1946).

Maybe parents simply are not consciously aware that they "feel hurt by things the child does" or that they "talk to the child again and again about anything bad he/she does."

No other within-family analyses reached statistical significance on Psychological Control. However, when separate analyses of variance were performed for mothers and fathers, statistically significant ($p < .05$) differences were found for children's reports for fathers by family structure (Table 15). Higher mean factor scores (Table 16) were found for children's reports of married fathers than for children's reports of divorced fathers. The hypothesis of no significant differences between children's reports for divorced and married fathers was rejected for the dimension of Psychological Control. This finding is strengthened by the fact that correlation coefficients for married father-child dyads were statistically significant ($p < .001$) on this factor (Table 7).

Between-family differences were found for children's reports of divorced versus married fathers. The relatively greater absence from the child's life of the divorced father may account for his being viewed as less psychologically controlling than the married father.

Lax Discipline. The majority of statistically significant differences both within and between families appeared for Factor III, Lax versus Firm Discipline. Within divorced families, statistically significant ($p < .05$) differences were found between children's reports for fathers and children's reports for mothers on the dimension of Lax Discipline (Table 8). Mean factor scores (Table 9) were higher for children's reports for fathers than for children's reports for mothers indicating that children perceived fathers as more lax than mothers in

disciplinary matters. The hypothesis of no significant differences between children's reports of fathers and mothers within divorced families was rejected for the dimension of Lax Discipline.

The divorced father's relatively higher absence probably explains why he is seen as exercising less disciplinary control than the mother. If he is not there when the need for disciplinary action arises, he can hardly administer disciplinary control.

Spanier and Casto (1979) reported that one complaint of many custodial parents is that the other parent, who sees the child only occasionally, does not have to deal with all the problems of discipline and may, therefore, be more attractive to the child. Children in the present study not only viewed their divorced fathers as exercising less disciplinary control but also as being just as accepting of them as their mothers or as fathers in married families (Table 9).

Paired *t* tests revealed statistically significant ($p < .05$) differences between mother-child dyads within both divorced and married families on the dimension of Lax Discipline (Table 10). Mean differences indicate that within both types of families, children's reports for mothers were higher than mothers' self-reports on this factor. The hypothesis of no differences between mother-child dyads within families was rejected for the dimension of Lax Discipline. This result occurred despite the fact that mean scores (Table 9) on this factor for children from both types of families were slightly below the midpoint of the possible range thereby tending toward the firm end of the lax-firm discipline scale.

Once again, the influence of social desirability may have been at work. Having been informed by the popular press that permissive

child rearing was responsible for the youth rebellion of the sixties, these mothers may be convinced that children need firm disciplinary control and are responding accordingly. The Judeo-Christian admonition to "spare the rod and spoil the child" might have been a strong influence for this particular sample of mothers drawn primarily from church membership lists. In any case, mothers reported themselves to be firmer disciplinarians than their children reported them to be.

A statistically significant ($p < .01$) difference was found for children's reports of parents by family structure (Table 13) on Lax Discipline. Means (Table 14) indicate that children reported divorced parents higher than married parents on Lax Discipline. The hypothesis of no differences between children's reports for divorced and married parents on Lax Discipline was rejected.

For both groups of children, mean scores (Table 14) on Lax Discipline were below the midpoint tending toward the firm end of the lax-firm dimension. Thus, children in both types of families recognized their parents as exercising relatively firm disciplinary control over them. Even so, children in divorced families viewed their parents as more lax in disciplinary control than did children in married families.

The finding that children living in divorced families viewed their parents as higher in Lax Discipline supports Hetherington, Cox, and Cox's (1978) conclusion that divorced parents tended to have less control over their children's behavior than did parents in "intact" families. Similar results were obtained using different instruments for data collection and employing different statistical analyses.

On Lax Discipline, a significant interaction effect appeared for family structure by parent for whom the child was reporting (Table 13).

As noted above, for children in divorced families, scores on Lax Discipline were higher for fathers than for mothers (Table 9). At the same time, for children in married families, scores for mothers were slightly higher than scores for fathers. This opposing condition contributed to the interaction. (See Figure 1.)

When analyses of variance were computed separately for mothers and fathers, statistically significant ($p < .001$) differences were found between children's reports for divorced fathers and children's reports for married fathers (Table 15) on Lax Discipline. Means (Table 16) indicate that children reported divorced fathers higher than married fathers. The hypothesis of no significant differences between divorced and married families on children's reports for fathers was rejected for the dimension of Lax Discipline.

Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978) relate that the divorced father wanted his contacts with his children to be happy. Just after the divorce, the father was extremely permissive and indulgent with his children. While divorced fathers became increasingly restrictive over the two-year period, they were never so restrictive as fathers in "intact" families. Results of the current study extend this empirical evidence to school-age children.

Parents' Self-Reports

Since both parents in married families were reporting their child-rearing behavior relative to the same child, an analysis of variance model with repeated measures was employed to assess differences between mothers' and fathers' self-reports. Differences were not statistically significant for any of the three factors; however, there was a tendency for fathers' scores (Table 12) to be higher ($p < .06$) than their wives' scores on Lax Discipline (Table 11).

Finally, analysis of variance indicated statistically significant ($p < .05$) differences between self-reports of divorced and married mothers on Lax Discipline (Table 17). Mean scores (Table 18) on this factor were higher for divorced mothers than for married mothers. The hypothesis of no significant differences between self-reports of divorced and married mothers was rejected.

There were differences between divorced and married mothers' self-reports on Lax Discipline. That divorced mothers had higher scores on this factor indicates that they perceived themselves as exercising less disciplinary control over their children than did married mothers. Several influences may have contributed to this outcome.

First, divorced mothers may perceive themselves to be involved in such a myriad of activities other than parenting, such as adjusting to changes brought about by the divorce, earning a living, establishing new patterns of social interaction (Spanier & Casto, 1979), that they feel they are devoting little time and energy to disciplining their children. Second, having found themselves in a position where functioning independently and living with the consequences of one's own decisions are necessary skills, perhaps these mothers purposely, either consciously or subconsciously, avoid exercising undue control over their children in an effort to force the children to experience the consequences of their own decisions. A third clue to this finding may have been contained in at least one divorced mother's comment that having a positive relationship with her children was much more important than an immaculate house, so she refused to hassle her children about things like keeping their rooms clean.

Weiss (1979) theorizes that in a single-parent household, the echelon structure dissolves thereby creating the possibility for a

more companionate relationship between parent and child than is possible in the two-parent household. In addition, children in single-parent households assume a greater share of the responsibilities involved in the maintenance and functioning of the household and are afforded more power than are children in two-parent households. Perhaps children in divorced families simply are more responsible and need less disciplinary control.

Sex Differences

Although sex of child was entered as a variable when analyses were computed, differences between boys and girls did not attain statistical significance. While Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) did not find consistent sex differences in parent-child interaction, such differences are reported in the literature (Block, 1976; Elrod & Crase, 1980; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Noller, 1978). The absence of sex differences in this study contrasts with findings that the adverse effects of divorce are more severe and enduring for boys than for girls (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976).

Differences in findings of the current study relative to previous studies may be a result of differences in composition of the samples. Subjects in Hetherington, Cox, and Cox's (1978, 1979) studies were preschool-age children, and those in the Kelly and Wallerstein (1976) study were "early latency" (7 to 8 years of age). The mean age of boys in the current study was 9.28 years; the range of ages was 7 to 11 years. Also, in the current study, the small number of boys living in divorced families (11) may have been insufficient for statistical analyses of correlations and differences. Whatever the reasons, sex differences were not statistically significant.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The most outstanding result of this study was the finding on the dimension of Acceptance of no significant differences between divorced and married families. Children in the divorced group reported their parents, both fathers and mothers, to be just as accepting as did children living in married families. Also, self-reports by divorced and married mothers did not differ significantly on this dimension.

Statistical analyses of children's responses to the mother and father forms of the CRPBI revealed only three significant differences between reports of children living in divorced families and reports of children living in married families. All three of these differences involved children's reports for divorced versus married fathers on the dimensions of Psychological Control and Lax Discipline. Significant differences between children's reports for divorced versus married mothers did not appear for any of the three dependent variables. For each dimension, mean scores for children's reports of divorced mothers were very similar to scores for children's reports of married mothers. Thus, for children in this study, significant differences in reports of parental behavior as a function of family structure may be attributed to differences in children's perceptions of fathers on the dimensions of Psychological Control and Lax Discipline. On Psychological Control, scores for children's reports for fathers were higher in married than in divorced families.

On the dimension of Lax Discipline, scores for children's reports for parents were higher for children in divorced families than for children in married families. A significant interaction for family structure by parent for whom the child was reporting was observed in

this analysis. Within-family analyses revealed that within divorced families scores for children's reports for fathers were higher than those for mothers on Lax Discipline. Also, on this dimension, scores for children's reports for divorced fathers were higher than scores for children reporting for married fathers.

Overall, children in divorced families viewed their fathers, who were not living in the household, as accepting, not prone to heavy use of psychological control, and fairly lax in disciplinary control. In such situations, the assumption might be made that divorced mothers would take on more responsibility for controlling and disciplining the child. Such did not appear to be the case for divorced mothers in the current sample.

Mean scores for children's reports of mothers' child-rearing behavior did not differ significantly as a function of family structure on the dimensions of Psychological Control and Lax Discipline. In addition, the only other between-family difference that was statistically significant involved self-reports by mothers on the dimension of Lax Discipline. Mean scores for mothers in divorced families were higher than those for mothers in married families on this dimension. This indicates that divorced mothers perceived themselves to be less firm disciplinarians than married mothers perceived themselves to be. In both types of families, mean scores for children's reports for mothers were higher than scores for mothers' self-reports on Lax Discipline. The differences between mothers and children's reports were statistically significant.

For the dimensions assessed in the current study, it appears that differences between divorced and married families are related to the

fact that the father-disciplinarian is no longer residing in the household. What, if any, difference does this make concerning the child's behavior and development? An outcome measure, such as adjustment, self-esteem, or academic success would have allowed assessment of the implications of this finding. For example, whether or not a systematic relationship exists between children's reports for fathers and children's adjustment could have been investigated. Unfortunately, project constraints did not allow the securing of such a measure. Replications of the study should include at least one outcome measure.

Results of this study raise the question of whether or not similar findings would emerge if children were reporting for divorced fathers with whom they were residing. Would fathers heading single-parent households behave like married fathers? In view of the increasing number of single-parent households headed by fathers, a replication of the study in families experiencing this situation could provide valuable information.

Responses from divorced fathers would have allowed comparisons between divorced father-child pairs and divorced mother-father pairs as well as comparisons between divorced and married fathers. Are differences between children's reports of divorced and married fathers a result of divorce or a result of fathers' absence from the household? A study which includes samples of divorced fathers not residing in the same household as the child and married fathers who spend extended periods of time away from the household could help to resolve this question.

The study needs to be replicated with samples that include varying levels of income, numbers of children, and locations of residence

(e.g., rural). Relationships between the three dimensions and age of child at time of divorce, length of time as a divorced family, and sex of child should be explored in future research.

In addition, parents need to complete inventories concerning their child-rearing behavior relative to each of their children. Several parents commented that their answers would be different if they were responding in terms of the older child. Crase, Clark, and Pease (1980) found evidence for stability in parenting behaviors relative to a specific child over a one-year period regardless of age or sex of child.

Results of this study are relevant to the issue of whether or not it is legitimate to rely exclusively on mothers' reports to assess children's perspectives. Of the correlation coefficients for parent-child dyads, only those for father-child pairs were statistically significant. In addition, comparisons for divorced mother-child, married mother-child, and married father-child pairs using the paired t test revealed that children reported parents higher on Psychological Control than parents reported themselves. Differences were significant. For mother-child dyads in both divorced and married families, a similar result appeared on the dimension of Lax Discipline. Children reported mothers higher on Lax Discipline than mothers reported themselves to be. Thus, researchers need to decide whether the parent's report, the child's report, or reports from both best meet their objectives for a particular investigation.

A problem related to instrumentation surfaces when doing research with single-parent families. Available instruments, especially those which assess children's reports of parental behavior, were standardized

using samples of children from married families. In the current study, a different factor pattern emerged for children's reports of divorced mothers. This raises questions about the wisdom of continuing to use the CRPBI with samples of children living in divorced families without further tests of its reliability and validity for use with this population.

Goldin (1969) warns that excessive heterogeneity in the populations on which factor analyses are performed constitute a statistical limitation that must be addressed in interpreting the results. In addition, much research on divorced families is complicated by factors such as socioeconomic status, income, education level, and ethnic group. In the current study, homogeneity of the sample helped to resolve these problems to some degree. Such extraneous variables should be carefully considered in future studies.

Further exploration of the CRPBI as a measure of parents' reports of their own child-rearing behavior is needed. If modification of the CRPBI could be demonstrated to be reliable and valid as a measure of parents' self-reports of parental behavior, then parents and children could be assessed on the same measure. This would allow comparisons between parent-child dyads in empirical research and might serve as a tool for counselors and teachers to use in helping establish more effective relationships between parents and their children.

In modifying the instrument for use with parents, the addition of a few items to assess the tendency for subjects to provide socially desirable responses is recommended. Parents tend to be more prone to provide socially desirable responses than are children (Jessop, 1981; Kandel, Lesser, Roberts, & Weiss, 1968; Larson, 1974; Niemi, 1974;

Yarrow, 1963). However, during the early years of middle childhood, children seem to be interested in pleasing adults (Williams & Stith, 1980), thus adding such items to the children's form might also be prudent.

In conclusion, results of the study indicated no significant differences in reports of parental behavior by children of divorced and married mothers. Differences which existed appeared to be tied to one parent, the father-disciplinarian, no longer residing in the household. Whether or not it makes any difference if it is the mother or the father who no longer resides in the household is yet to be determined. Future studies of parent-child relationships will need to address dimensions of mother-child and father-child relationships before conclusions can be drawn relative to differences in parent-child relationships between divorced and married families.

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Table 1
Demographic Data for 29 Divorced and 30 Married
Families with Two Children

Characteristics	<u>Divorced Families</u>	<u>Married Families</u>	
	Mothers n=29	Mothers n=30	Fathers n=30
Ethnic Group			
White	27	30	29
Native American	1		1
Asian American	1		
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	1	3	3
Other	3	3	3
Education			
High School Graduate	3	5	
Some College	12	11	7
College Graduate	14	14	23

Table 1 (Continued)

Characteristics	<u>Divorced Families</u>	<u>Married Families</u>	
	Mothers n=29	Mothers n=30	Fathers n=30
Occupation			
Administrative/Professional	18	9	22
Technical/Clerical/Sales	8	8	5
Service			2
Farming and Related		1	
Precision/Craft/Repair	1	2	1
Homemaker		10	
Student	2		
Tenure			
Buying	24	29	29
Renting	4	1	1
Other	1		
Type of Residence			
Single Family Unit	25	30	30
Apartment	3		
Mobile Home	1		

Table 2
 Estimated Minimum Annual Income Flow Averaged for
 59 Families by Family Structure

Source	Divorced (n=29)	Married (n=30)
Salary	\$13,103 ^a	\$38,833 ^b
Child Support	3,400 ^c	
Alimony	<u>4,950^d</u>	<u> </u>
Total	\$16,600	\$38,833

Note: 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.

Table 3
 Factor Pattern for Children's Reports of Parental
 Behavior by Family Structure

Scales	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Factor I Unrotated
Children Reporting for Parents			
Divorced ^a			
Acceptance	41.36	6.07	.80
Childcenteredness	18.64	3.49	.73
Control Through Guilt	13.20	3.73	-.54
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	12.58	3.73	-.66
Nonenforcement	13.44	2.86	.50
Lax Discipline	14.98	3.48	.62
Portion of Variance Explained			.42
Married ^b			
Acceptance	41.69	5.64	.56
Childcenteredness	18.10	3.18	.64
Control Through Guilt	14.54	4.05	.68
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	13.47	3.90	.31
Nonenforcement	11.78	2.95	.69
Lax Discipline	12.81	2.90	.78
Portion of Variance Explained			.40

Table 3 (Continued)

Scales	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Factor I Unrotated
Children Reporting for Mothers			
Divorced ^c			
Acceptance	41.85	6.72	.88
Childcenteredness	18.89	3.71	.78
Control Through Guilt	14.00	4.08	-.52
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	13.48	3.89	-.68
Nonenforcement	12.67	2.20	.69
Lax Discipline	14.00	3.37	.68
Portion of Variance Explained			.51
Married ^d			
Acceptance	41.52	5.98	.51
Childcenteredness	17.90	3.20	.56
Control Through Guilt	14.41	4.03	.69
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	13.34	3.96	.36
Nonenforcement	11.90	3.17	.70
Lax Discipline	13.03	3.21	.82
Portion of Variance Explained			.39

Table 3 (Continued)

Scales	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Factor I Unrotated		
Children Reporting for Fathers					
Divorced ^e					
Acceptance	40.78	5.31	-.33		
Childcenteredness	18.35	3.26	.08		
Control Through Guilt	12.26	3.11	.87		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	11.52	3.31	.76		
Nonenforcement	14.35	3.30	.57		
Lax Discipline	16.13	3.31	.51		
Portion of Variance Explained			.34		
Married ^f					
Acceptance	41.87	5.39	.60		
Childcenteredness	18.30	3.21	.73		
Control Through Guilt	14.67	4.13	.67		
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	13.60	3.91	.28		
Nonenforcement	11.67	2.77	.68		
Lax Discipline	12.60	2.61	.75		
Portion of Variance Explained			.41		
^a _n = 50	^b _n = 59	^c _n = 27	^d _n = 29	^e _n = 23	^f _n = 30

Table 4
Factor Pattern for Parents' Reports of Parental
Behavior by Family Structure

Scales	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Factor I Unrotated
Divorced Mothers ^a			
Acceptance	42.93	4.06	-.55
Childcenteredness	17.28	3.49	.09
Control Through Guilt	10.62	2.43	.83
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	10.48	2.01	.82
Nonenforcement	11.00	3.13	-.52
Lax Discipline	13.24	2.90	-.14
Portion of Variance Explained			.33
Married Mothers ^b			
Acceptance	41.23	4.38	-.78
Childcenteredness	16.37	2.68	-.14
Control Through Guilt	11.10	2.80	.78
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	11.40	2.28	.86
Nonenforcement	9.90	1.71	.52
Lax Discipline	11.87	2.08	-.24
Portion of Variance Explained			.38

Table 4 (Continued)

Scales	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Factor I Unrotated
Married Fathers ^C			
Acceptance	40.97	4.20	.07
Childcenteredness	15.80	2.94	.67
Control Through Guilt	10.73	2.15	.81
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	10.60	2.59	.81
Nonenforcement	10.60	2.65	-.60
Lax Discipline	12.87	2.50	-.50
Portion of Variance Explained			.40

^a_n = 29 ^b_n = 30 ^c_n = 30

Table 5
 Factor Structure for Children's Reports of
 Parental Behavior by Family Structure

Scales	<u>Factors Rotated Orthogonally</u>		
	I	II	III
Children Reporting for Parents			
Divorced (n = 50)			
Acceptance	<u>.87</u>	-.35	.04
Childcenteredness	<u>.91</u>	.04	.27
Control Through Guilt	-.06	<u>.93</u>	.03
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	-.17	<u>.92</u>	-.08
Nonenforcement	.03	-.05	<u>.91</u>
Lax Discipline	.29	.00	<u>.85</u>
Portion of Variance Explained	.33	.36	.32
Married (n = 59)			
Acceptance	<u>.90</u>	-.03	.07
Childcenteredness	<u>.90</u>	.06	.13
Control Through Guilt	.29	<u>.87</u>	.19
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	-.21	<u>.91</u>	.05
Nonenforcement	-.01	.15	<u>.93</u>
Lax Discipline	.24	.07	<u>.90</u>
Portion of Variance Explained	.35	.31	.34

Table 5 (Continued)

Scales	Factors Rotated Orthogonally		
	I	II	III
Children Reporting for Mothers			
Divorced (n = 27)			
Acceptance	<u>.62</u>	<u>-.64</u>	
Childcenteredness	<u>.82</u>	<u>-.21</u>	
Control Through Guilt	<u>.03</u>	<u>.90</u>	
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	<u>-.13</u>	<u>.94</u>	
Nonenforcement	<u>.82</u>	<u>-.06</u>	
Lax Discipline	<u>.88</u>	<u>.03</u>	
Portion of Variance Explained	<u>.54</u>	<u>.46</u>	
Married (n = 29)			
Acceptance	<u>.89</u>	<u>-.07</u>	<u>.11</u>
Childcenteredness	<u>.91</u>	<u>.09</u>	<u>.05</u>
Control Through Guilt	<u>.28</u>	<u>.88</u>	<u>.17</u>
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	<u>-.23</u>	<u>.91</u>	<u>.06</u>
Nonenforcement	<u>-.01</u>	<u>.06</u>	<u>.96</u>
Lax Discipline	<u>.19</u>	<u>.16</u>	<u>.92</u>
Portion of Variance Explained	<u>.34</u>	<u>.31</u>	<u>.34</u>

Table 5 (Continued)

Scales	<u>Factors Rotated Orthogonally</u>		
	I	II	III
Children Reporting for Fathers			
Divorced (n = 23)			
Acceptance	<u>.88</u>	-.21	-.08
Childcenteredness	<u>.90</u>	.05	.28
Control Through Guilt	-.15	<u>.88</u>	.23
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	-.02	<u>.94</u>	-.03
Nonenforcement	-.06	.09	<u>.86</u>
Lax Discipline	.27	.08	<u>.84</u>
Portion of Variance Explained	.34	.35	.32
Married (n = 30)			
Acceptance	<u>.92</u>	.03	.01
Childcenteredness	<u>.88</u>	.02	.26
Control Through Guilt	.29	<u>.86</u>	.21
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	-.18	<u>.90</u>	.03
Nonenforcement	-.02	.26	<u>.90</u>
Lax Discipline	.30	-.03	<u>.87</u>
Portion of Variance Explained	.36	.32	.33

Table 6
 Factor Structure for Parents' Reports of Parental
 Behavior by Family Structure

Scales	Factors Rotated Orthogonally		
	I	II	III
Divorced Mothers (n = 29)			
Acceptance	<u>.80</u>	<u>-.40</u>	.11
Childcenteredness	<u>.88</u>	.26	.00
Control Through Guilt	.08	<u>.93</u>	.05
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	-.09	<u>.85</u>	-.06
Nonenforcement	-.10	-.23	<u>.93</u>
Lax Discipline	.21	.23	<u>.91</u>
Portion of Variance Explained	.29	.38	.33
Married Mothers (n = 30)			
Acceptance	<u>.67</u>	<u>-.59</u>	.05
Childcenteredness	<u>.93</u>	.20	-.01
Control Through Guilt	.09	<u>.87</u>	-.05
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	-.03	<u>.90</u>	.07
Nonenforcement	-.27	<u>.40</u>	<u>.73</u>
Lax Discipline	.19	-.24	<u>.85</u>
Portion of Variance Explained	.29	.45	.26

Table 6 (Continued)

Scales	Factors Rotated Orthogonally		
	I	II	III
Married Fathers (n = 30)			
Acceptance	<u>.93</u>	-.16	.02
Childcenteredness	<u>.70</u>	<u>.55</u>	-.11
Control Through Guilt	.02	<u>.90</u>	-.13
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	-.02	<u>.92</u>	-.10
Nonenforcement	.04	-.21	<u>.85</u>
Lax Discipline	-.08	-.03	<u>.89</u>
Portion of Variance Explained	.28	.41	.32

Table 7
 Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients for Reports
 of Parental Behavior by Parents and Their Children

Pair	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor I: Acceptance versus Rejection			
Divorced Mothers/Children	27	.37	.060
Divorced Mothers/Sons	9	-.17	.661
Divorced Mothers/Daughters	18	.44	.070
Married Mothers/Children	29	.29	.133
Married Mothers/Sons	14	.52	.056
Married Mothers/Daughters	15	.06	.821
Married Fathers/Children	30	.33	.079
Married Fathers/Sons	14	.38	.177
Married Fathers/Daughters	16	.29	.280
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy			
Divorced Mothers/Children	28	.31	.103
Divorced Mothers/Sons	10	.58	.080
Divorced Mothers/Daughters	18	.25	.324
Married Mothers/Children	29	.10	.608
Married Mothers/Sons	14	.37	.198
Married Mothers/Daughters	15	-.07	.792

Table 7 (Continued)

Pair	<u>n</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy (Continued)			
Married Fathers/Children	30	.70	.001
Married Fathers/Sons	14	.74	.002
Married Fathers/Daughters	16	.74	.001
Factor III: Lax versus Firm Discipline			
Divorced Mothers/Children	27	.35	.074
Divorced Mothers/Sons	9	-.05	.894
Divorced Mothers/Daughters	18	.46	.057
Married Mothers/Children	30	-.09	.646
Married Mothers/Sons	14	-.09	.747
Married Mothers/Daughters	16	-.13	.626
Married Fathers/Children	30	.52	.003
Married Fathers/Sons	14	.69	.007
Married Fathers/Daughters	16	.46	.074

Table 8
 Analysis of Variance for Children's Reports of Parental
 Behavior Within Families by Sex of Child and Parent

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor I: Acceptance versus Rejection				
Divorced				
Total	49	3846.00		
Between	27	1422.00		
Sex	1	.34	.01	.938
Error(a)	26	1421.66		
Within	22	2423.99		
Parent	1	2.27	.02	.891
Parent*Sex	1	78.57	.67	.422
Error(b)	20	2343.15		
Married				
Total	58	3807.56		
Between	29	2749.56		
Sex	1	.49	.01	.944
Error(a)	28	2749.07		
Within	29	1058.00		
Parent	1	2.48	.06	.803
Parent*Sex	1	.71	.02	.894
Error(b)	27	1054.81		

Table 8 (Continued)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy				
Divorced				
Total	51	2426.67		
Between	27	1821.17		
Sex	1	1.45	.02	.886
Error(a)	26	1819.72		
Within	24	605.49		
Parent	1	72.52	3.01	.096
Parent*Sex	1	3.71	.15	.698
Error(b)	22	529.26		
Married				
Total	58	2956.98		
Between	29	2658.48		
Sex	1	25.78	.27	.605
Error(a)	28	2632.70		
Within	29	298.50		
Parent	1	.43	.04	.840
Parent*Sex	1	19.00	1.84	.186
Error(b)	27	279.07		

Table 8 (Continued)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor III: Lax versus Firm Discipline				
Divorced				
Total	50	1626.63		
Between	27	816.63		
Sex	1	54.84	1.87	.183
Error(a)	26	761.79		
Within	23	810.00		
Parent	1	153.39	4.92	.038
Parent*Sex	1	1.56	.05	.825
Error(b)	21	655.05		
Married				
Total	59	1729.65		
Between	29	1428.15		
Sex	1	30.10	.60	.444
Error(a)	28	1398.05		
Within	30	301.50		
Parent	1	8.82	.84	.366
Parent*Sex	1	.00	.00	.983
Error(b)	28	292.68		

Note: Sex = boy or girl. Parent = father or mother.

Table 9
 Mean Factor Scores for Children's Reports of Parental
 Behavior Within Families by Sex of Child and Parent

Subgroups	Acceptance ^a		Control ^b		Discipline ^c	
	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>
Divorced						
Sex						
Boys	19	60.10	20	25.50	19	29.89
Girls	31	59.94	32	25.84	32	27.75
Parent						
Mother	27	60.74	28	27.25	27	26.67
Father	23	59.13	24	23.92	24	30.67
Married						
Sex						
Boys	28	59.89	28	27.32	28	23.89
Girls	31	59.71	31	28.64	32	25.31
Parent						
Mother	29	59.41	29	27.76	30	25.03
Father	30	60.17	30	28.27	30	24.27

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

^bScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Control Through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety.

^cScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline.

Table 10
 Paired t Tests for Reports of Parental Behavior
 by Parents and Their Children

Pair	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u> (diff)	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor I: Acceptance versus Rejection					
Divorced Mothers/Children	27	.18	9.32	.10	.919
Divorced Mothers/Sons	9	.44	8.00	.17	.872
Divorced Mothers/Daughters	18	.06	10.14	.02	.982
Married Mothers/Children	29	-1.28	8.58	-.80	.430
Married Mothers/Sons	14	-.14	7.25	-.07	.942
Married Mothers/Daughters	15	-2.33	9.80	-.92	.372
Married Fathers/Children	30	-3.40	8.23	-2.26	.031
Married Fathers/Sons	14	-3.00	7.47	-1.50	.157
Married Fathers/Daughters	16	-3.75	9.07	-1.65	.119
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy					
Divorced Mothers/Children	28	-6.46	7.20	-4.75	.001
Divorced Mothers/Sons	10	-4.90	4.75	-3.26	.010
Divorced Mothers/Daughters	18	-7.33	8.25	-3.77	.002
Married Mothers/Children	29	-5.38	8.20	-3.53	.002
Married Mothers/Sons	14	-4.43	6.15	-2.70	.018
Married Mothers/Daughters	15	-6.27	9.89	-2.45	.028

Table 10 (Continued)

Pair	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u> (diff)	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy (Continued)					
Married Fathers/Children	30	-6.93	5.16	-7.36	.001
Married Fathers/Sons	14	-7.79	5.09	-5.73	.001
Married Fathers/Daughters	16	-6.19	5.27	-4.70	.001
Factor III: Lax versus Firm Discipline					
Divorced Mothers/Children	27	-2.44	6.12	-2.07	.048
Divorced Mothers/Sons	9	-3.22	6.51	-1.48	.176
Divorced Mothers/Daughters	18	-2.06	6.07	-1.44	.169
Married Mothers/Children	30	-3.27	6.92	-2.58	.015
Married Mothers/Sons	14	-3.00	7.28	-1.54	.147
Married Mothers/Daughters	16	-3.50	6.82	-2.05	.058
Married Fathers/Children	30	-.80	4.62	-.95	.351
Married Fathers/Sons	14	.57	3.84	.56	.587
Married Fathers/Daughters	16	-2.00	5.02	-1.59	.132

Table 11
 Analysis of Variance for Married Parents' Reports of Parental
 Behavior by Sex of Child and Parent Responding

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor I: Acceptance versus Rejection				
Total	59	2110.98		
Between	29	1047.48		
Sex	1	68.00	1.94	.174
Error(a)	28	979.48		
Within	30	1063.50		
Parent	1	10.42	.28	.598
Sex*Parent	1	25.03	.68	.416
Error(b)	28	1028.05		
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy				
Total	59	1204.58		
Between	29	805.08		
Sex	1	25.90	.93	.343
Error(a)	28	779.18		
Within	30	399.50		
Parent	1	20.42	1.55	.224
Sex*Parent	1	9.11	.69	.413
Error(b)	28	369.97		

Table 11 (Continued)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor III: Lax versus Firm Discipline				
Total	59	906.18		
Between	29	529.68		
Sex	1	.20	.01	.919
Error(a)	28	529.48		
Within	30	376.50		
Parent	1	43.35	3.82	.061
Sex*Parent	1	15.47	1.36	.253
Error(b)	28	317.68		

Note: Sex = boy or girl. Parent = mother or father.

Table 12
 Mean Factor Scores for Married Parents' Reports
 of Parental Behavior by Sex of Child
 and Parent Responding

Subgroups	<u>n</u>	Acceptance ^a	Control ^b	Discipline ^c
Sex of Child				
Boy	28	58.32	21.21	22.68
Girl	32	56.19	22.53	22.56
Parent Responding				
Mother	30	57.60	22.50	21.77
Father	30	56.77	21.33	23.47

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

^bScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Control Through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety.

^cScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline.

Table 13
 Analysis of Variance for Children's Reports of Parental
 Behavior by Family Structure, Sex of Child, and Parent

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor I: Acceptance versus Rejection				
Total	108	7654.68		
Between	57	4172.68		
Structure	1	1.12	.01	.905
Sex	1	.83	.01	.918
Structure*Sex	1	.00	.00	.997
Error(a)	54	4170.73		
Within	51	3482.00		
Parent	1	.04	.00	.982
Structure*Parent	1	4.72	.07	.800
Sex*Parent	1	26.30	.36	.549
Structure*Sex*Parent	1	52.98	.73	.396
Error(b)	47	3397.96		
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy				
Total	110	5530.56		
Between	57	4626.56		
Structure	1	146.90	1.78	.188
Sex	1	20.80	.25	.618
Structure*Sex	1	6.44	.08	.781
Error(a)	54	4452.42		

Table 13 (Continued)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy (Continued)				
Within	53	904.00		
Parent	1	27.51	1.67	.203
Structure*Parent	1	45.44	2.75	.103
Sex*Parent	1	20.53	1.24	.270
Structure*Sex*Parent	1	2.18	.13	.718
Error(b)	49	808.34		
Factor III: Lax versus Firm Discipline				
Total	110	3775.37		
Between	57	2663.86		
Structure	1	419.09	10.48	.002
Sex	1	.71	.02	.894
Structure*Sex	1	84.22	2.11	.152
Error(a)	54	2159.84		
Within	53	1111.49		
Parent	1	35.10	1.81	.184
Structure*Parent	1	127.10	6.57	.014
Sex*Parent	1	.58	.03	.864
Structure*Sex*Parent	1	.98	.05	.822
Error(b)	49	947.73		

Note: Structure = divorced or married. Sex = boy or girl.
 Parent = mother or father.

Table 14
 Mean Factor Scores for Children's Reports of Parental
 Behavior by Family Structure, Sex of Child,
 Parent, and Group

Subgroups	<u>Acceptance^a</u>		<u>Control^b</u>		<u>Discipline^c</u>	
	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>
Family Structure						
Divorced	50	60.00	52	25.71	51	28.55
Married	59	59.80	59	28.02	60	24.65
Sex of Child						
Boy	47	59.98	48	26.56	47	26.32
Girl	62	59.82	63	27.22	64	26.53
Parent						
Mother	56	60.05	57	27.51	57	25.81
Father	53	59.72	54	26.33	54	27.11
Group						
Divorced-Boy	19	60.10	20	25.50	19	29.89
Divorced-Girl	31	59.94	32	25.84	32	27.75
Married-Boy	28	59.89	28	27.32	28	23.89
Married-Girl	31	59.71	31	28.64	32	25.31

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

^bScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Control Through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety.

^cScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline.

Table 15
 Analysis of Variance for Children's Reports of Mothers'
 and Fathers' Parental Behavior by Family
 Structure and Sex of Child

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor I: Acceptance versus Rejection				
Children Reporting for Mothers				
Total	55	4480.84		
Between	3	75.37		
Structure	1	24.62	.29	.592
Sex	1	28.84	.34	.562
Structure*Sex	1	21.91	.26	.613
Error	52	4405.47		
Children Reporting for Fathers				
Total	52	3170.75		
Between	3	45.35		
Structure	1	13.98	.22	.642
Sex	1	12.17	.19	.664
Structure*Sex	1	19.20	.30	.586
Error	49	3125.40		
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy				
Children Reporting for Mothers				
Total	56	2968.25		
Between	3	48.61		

Table 15 (Continued)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy (Continued)				
Structure	1	3.68	.07	.797
Sex	1	42.56	.77	.383
Structure*Sex	1	2.37	.04	.836
Error	53	2919.62		
Children Reporting for Fathers				
Total	53	2524.00		
Between	3	262.17		
Structure	1	252.30	5.58	.022
Sex	1	.72	.02	.900
Structure*Sex	1	9.15	.20	.655
Error	50	2261.83		
Factor III: Lax versus Firm Discipline				
Children Reporting for Mothers				
Total	56	1758.88		
Between	3	69.25		
Structure	1	37.91	1.19	.280
Sex	1	.02	.00	.982
Structure*Sex	1	31.32	.98	.326
Error	53	1689.63		

Table 15 (Continued)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor III: Lax versus Firm Discipline (Continued)				
Children Reporting for Fathers				
Total	53	1969.33		
Between	3	583.58		
Structure	1	546.13	19.71	.001
Sex	1	.03	.00	.975
Structure*Sex	1	37.42	1.35	.251
Error	50	1385.75		

Note: Structure = divorced or married. Sex = boy or girl.

Table 16
 Mean Factor Scores for Children's Reports of Mothers' and Fathers'
 Parental Behavior by Family Structure and Sex of Child

Subgroup	<u>Acceptance^a</u>		<u>Control^b</u>		<u>Discipline^c</u>	
	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>
Children Reporting for Mothers						
Family Structure						
Divorced	27	60.74	28	27.25	27	26.67
Married	29	59.41	29	27.76	30	25.03
Sex of Child						
Boy	23	60.78	24	26.54	23	25.65
Girl	33	59.55	33	28.21	34	25.91
Children Reporting for Fathers						
Family Structure						
Divorced	23	59.13	24	23.92	24	30.67
Married	30	60.17	30	28.27	30	24.27
Sex of Child						
Boy	24	59.21	24	26.58	24	26.96
Girl	29	60.14	30	26.13	30	27.23

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

^bScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Control Through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety.

^cScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline.

Table 17
 Analysis of Variance for Mothers' Reports of Parental
 Behavior by Family Structure and Sex of Child

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor I: Acceptance versus Rejection				
Total	58	2290.17		
Between	3	197.58		
Structure	1	100.21	2.63	.110
Sex	1	80.20	2.11	.152
Structure*Sex	1	17.17	.45	.505
Error	55	2092.59		
Factor II: Psychological Control versus Autonomy				
Total	58	1098.95		
Between	3	65.09		
Structure	1	28.76	1.53	.221
Sex	1	8.58	.46	.502
Structure*Sex	1	27.75	1.48	.230
Error	55	1033.86		

Table 17 (Continued)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Factor III: Lax versus Firm Discipline				
Total	58	1222.98		
Between	3	107.63		
Structure	1	90.31	4.45	.039
Sex	1	.24	.01	.913
Structure*Sex	1	17.08	.84	.363
Error	55	1115.35		

Note: Structure = divorced or married. Sex = boy or girl.

Table 18
 Mean Factor Scores for Mothers' Reports of
 Parental Behavior by Family Structure
 and Sex of Child

Subgroup	<u>n</u>	Acceptance ^a	Control ^b	Discipline ^c
Family Structure				
Divorced	29	60.21	21.10	24.24
Married	30	57.60	22.50	21.77
Sex of Child				
Boy	24	60.08	22.38	22.88
Girl	35	58.06	21.43	23.06

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

^bScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Control Through Guilt and Instilling Persistent Anxiety.

^cScores could range from 16 to 48, midpoint = 32; measured by scales of Nonenforcement and Lax Discipline.

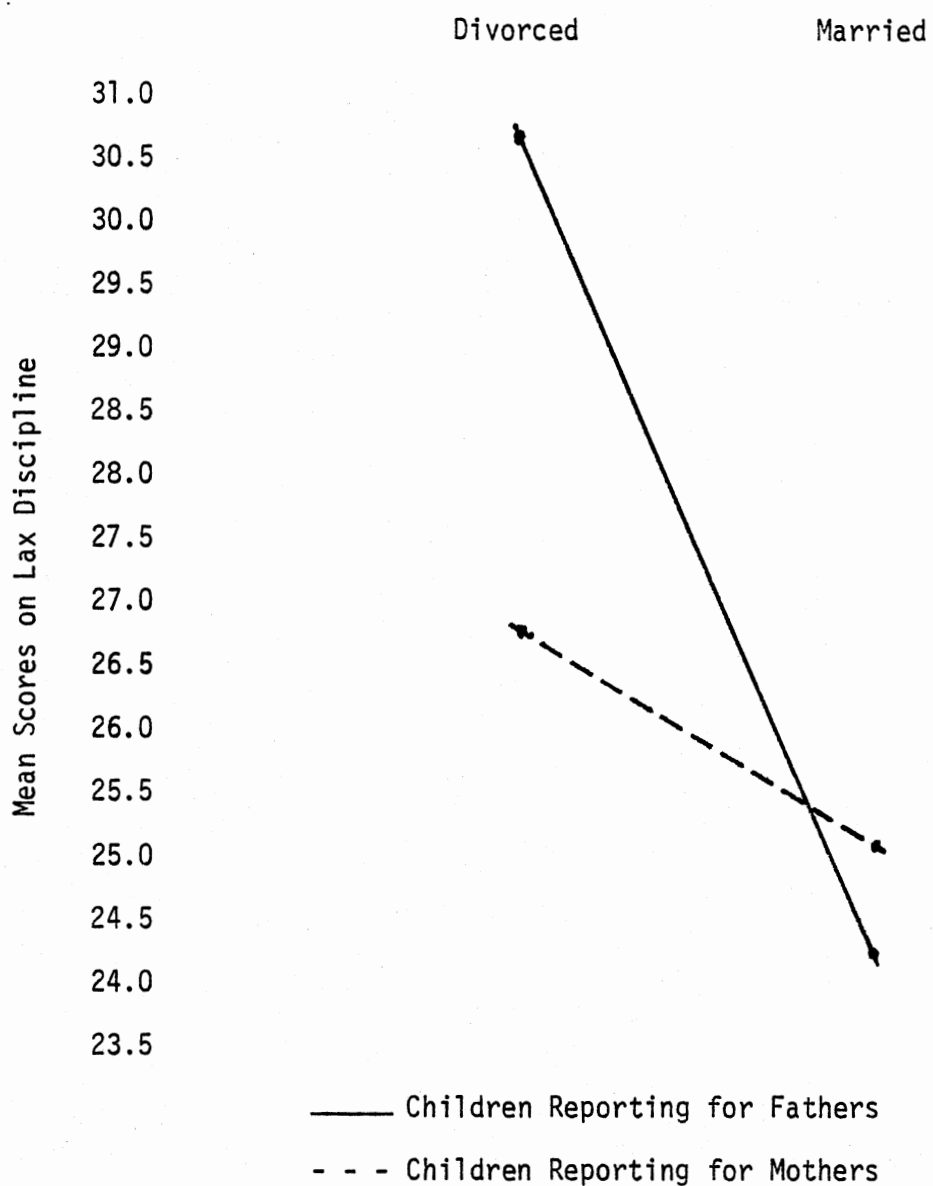


Figure 1. Mean Scores on the Factor of Lax Discipline for Reports of Mothers' and Fathers' Behavior by Children Living in Divorced and Married Families

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature Review

The present research is an attempt to determine whether or not there are differences in reports of parental behavior by members of divorced versus married families. Two broad areas of literature have a bearing on this work: studies concerning the impact of divorce on adults, on children, and on the parent-child relationship and perceptions of parental behavior by both parents and children. The literature relative to the impact of divorce will be presented first followed by discussion of an ecological model as an appropriate framework for exploring the effects of divorce. After that, the literature relevant to perceptions of parental behavior will be reviewed.

Introduction

The number of divorces involving children have increased dramatically during the past two decades. Bane (1976) estimates that between 32 and 44 percent of the children born in the nineteen seventies will be involved in the marital disruption of their parents. Glick (1979) predicts that if the rate of divorce continues to increase at the rate it increased between 1960 and 1976, by 1990 close to one-third of all children can be expected to experience a parent's divorce before they reach 18 years of age.

In an extensive review of research pertaining to parent-child relationships, Walters and Stinnett (1971) noted that research concerning the effects of divorce was limited during the decade of the nineteen sixties. In their review, the one paragraph dealing with divorce focused on the effects of divorce on children.

In a later review of research relevant to parent-child relationships Walters and Walters (1980) recognized divorce as a substantive

issue emerging during the period from 1970 to 1979. They identified two major studies of divorce which included information concerning divorce and the parent-child relationship. One of these was the research done by Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978, 1979) in Virginia and the other was the clinical study of Wallerstein and Kelly (1974, 1975, 1976; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976) in California. Walters and Walters (1980) noted that research on divorce has focused on the effects of divorce on either the children or the spouses and that very few studies have focused on the nature of family relationships before and after the divorce.

Effects of Divorce on Adults

Studies indicate that adults experiencing divorce may be disturbed in all areas of their lives including parenting (Bloom, Asher, & White, 1978; Blumenthal, 1967; Briscoe, Smith, Robins, Marten, & Gaskin, 1973; Gove, 1972a, 1972b; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Spanier & Casto, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1979). In reviewing the research concerning marital disruption, Bloom, Asher and White (1978) concluded that there is a growing body of evidence that separation or divorce constitutes a severe stress. Consequences of such stress can be seen in a wide variety of physical and emotional disorders. For example, persons who are divorced or separated have been repeatedly found to be overrepresented among psychiatric patients (Crago, 1972). Both acute and chronic alcoholism are more prevalent among the divorced than among the married (Wechsler, Thum, Demone, & Dwinell, 1972; Rosenblatt, Gross, Malenowski, Broman, & Lewis, 1971). Such disturbances may be expected to affect the parent-child relationship.

While both men and women may experience difficulties in the area

of child care, women are more likely to experience difficulties in this area (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1977; Brandwein, Brown, & Fox, 1974; Ferri, 1973). Often the entire responsibility for rearing children rests with the mother.

Effects of Divorce on Children

Prior to about 1970, research concerned with the effects of divorce on children was relatively scarce. As late as 1979, Levitin noted the paucity of such studies. Many of the earlier studies of divorce and children can be found within the research traditions of either studies of single-parent families or studies of clinical populations.

Single-Parent Family Research

The bulk of early studies on the single-parent family focused on demonstrating causal relationships between a child's living in a single-parent household and the child's becoming delinquent, failing in school, developing inappropriate sex role attitudes and behaviors, or exhibiting other types of pathologies (Levitin, 1979). Much of this early research dealt with father absence and failed to distinguish reasons for the father's absence (Herzog & Sudia, 1973). Levitin (1979) summarized other problems associated with these early studies: use of single outcome measures, often of unknown quality; lack of adequate controls for factors such as social class and education; failure to use comparison groups of two-parent families, where needed, or when comparison groups were used, the lack of attention to matching them on relevant variables such as number and ages of children; the tendency to discuss correlational results in ways suggesting causal relationships; and the choice of samples of unknown representativeness.

Clinical Research

Studies of clinical populations concerning children of divorce have described the denial, grief, depression, fears of abandonment, loss of self-esteem, feelings of blame, guilt, shame, and anger typically felt by the children (Levitin, 1979). Also, frequently described in this literature are sexual and oedipal difficulties, acting out and withdrawal, immaturity, and hypermaturity.

While clinical research is often rich and uniquely sensitive to the range of feelings and problems that children of divorce experience, it involves widely recognized conceptual and methodological weaknesses (Levitin, 1979). Samples are often small, self-selected, and biased in unknown ways. Clinical impressions and insights are not easily replicated by other investigators. Numerous issues of reliability and validity are unresolved.

More importantly, children in therapy are apt to differ substantially from those children who experience the divorce of their parents but do not enter therapy. Yet, even five frequently-cited studies that represent systematic quantitative attempts to compare children of divorce and children from married families as they occur in child psychiatric populations (McDermott, 1970; Morrison, 1974; Sugar, 1970; Tuckman & Regan, 1966; Westman, Cline, Swift, & Kramer, 1970) have serious methodological problems. For example, none controlled simultaneously for both age and sex of the child.

Current Research

During the past few years, several studies have investigated the effects of divorce on children (Berg & Kelly, 1979; Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney, & Hunt, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979;

Jacobson, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Lowenstein & Koopman, 1978; Morrison, 1974; Raschke & Raschke, 1979; Rosen, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976; Weiss, 1979). While more recent studies of children and divorce have been less subject to the aforementioned methodological problems, they have been focused almost entirely on children's responses (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976), adjustments (Berg & Kelly, 1979; Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney, & Hunt, 1979; Jacobson, 1978a; Kurdek & Siesky, 1979; Rosen, 1979), and behavior changes (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Lowenstein & Koopman, 1978) following the divorce of their parents.

Both clinical (Jacobson, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Morrison, 1974; Rosen, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976; Weiss, 1979) and nonclinical (Berg & Kelly, 1979; Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney, & Hunt, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Lowenstein & Koopman, 1978; Raschke & Raschke, 1979) populations have been assessed. Various procedures for obtaining information have included observation (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979), standardized measures (Berg & Kelly, 1979; Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney & Hunt, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Jacobson, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c; Lowenstein & Koopman, 1978; Raschke & Raschke, 1979; Rosen, 1979) and interviews and questionnaires (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Jacobson, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Kurdek & Siesky, 1979; Rosen, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976; Weiss, 1979). Although reliance on parental recall for data on the child has been criticized for several years (Pyles, Stolz, & Macfarlane, 1935; Yarrow, 1963), in at least two recent studies data

concerning the child's adjustment to divorce were obtained from one or both parents (Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney, & Hunt, 1979; Kurdek & Siesky, 1979).

A few recent studies have included a control group of children from married families (Berg & Kelly, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Raschke & Raschke, 1979). Some have assessed the effects of parental behavior on fairly homogeneous age groups, i.e., less than a five-year span (Berg & Kelly, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976) while others have included a rather extended range of ages; i.e., more than a five-year span (Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney, & Hunt, 1979; Jacobson, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c; Kurdek & Siesky, 1979; Lowenstein & Koopman, 1978; Raschke & Raschke, 1979; Rosen, 1979; Weiss, 1979).

Findings

More recent studies of children and divorce have demonstrated gender (Hetherington, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1979) and developmental (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Kurdek & Siesky, 1979; Longfellow, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976) differences in children's responses to the divorce of their parents. The impact of marital discord and divorce appears to be more pervasive and enduring for boys than for girls (Hetherington, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976).

Adjustment (Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney, & Hunt, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, 1979; Jacobson, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Kurdek & Siesky, 1979; Rosen, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976; Weiss, 1979) and self-esteem (Berg & Kelly,

1979; Lowenstein & Koopman, 1978) or self-concept (Raschke & Raschke, 1979) of children following parental separation or divorce have been the outcome measures most often used in recent studies of children and divorce. Many current investigators have concluded that it is not the divorce per se but factors typically surrounding divorce that are related to the child's adjustment. In other words, the detrimental effects often associated with divorce are found among children living in married families who experience similar situations.

For example, Berg and Kelly (1979) found that children with divorced parents did not show self-esteem levels lower than those in intact-accepted families; however, self-esteem levels among children from intact-rejected families were significantly lower than those from divorced families and those from intact-accepted families. Similarly, Raschke and Raschke (1979) reported no significant correlations between self-concept scores and family structure, but they did find significantly lower self-concept scores for children who reported higher levels of family conflict.

Rosen (1979) found children to be poorly adjusted when there was a high degree of interparental turbulence preceding and/or surrounding the divorce. On the other hand, an earlier study by Landis (1960) revealed that divorce is not always preceded by open conflict and from the viewpoint of the child, the pre-divorce home may be quite satisfactory. In fact, those subjects who considered their homes happy before they learned of the divorce reported greater trauma and greater difficulty adjusting to the divorce than those who reported open conflict and unhappiness in the pre-divorce home.

The child's accessibility to the noncustodial parent has also

been related to the child's post-divorce adjustment. Rosen (1979) interviewed children relative to four types of access patterns: free access, regulated access, occasional access, and no access. While no statistically significant relationships emerged between the various types of access and the child's adjustment, Rosen noted that it was clear from the interviews that divorce was perceived as less traumatic where freedom of access had been permitted.

Lowenstein and Koopman (1978) reported that self-esteem of boys who saw their absent parent once a month or more was significantly higher than the self-esteem of boys who saw their absent parent less than once a month. Significant differences in self-esteem were not found between boys living with single-parent mothers versus single-parent fathers. Also, significant correlations were not found between self-esteem of boys and either the length of time they lived in a single-parent home or the quality of the parental relationship.

Jacobson (1978a) found a statistically significant association between time lost in presence of father and current psychosocial adjustment. The more time lost, the higher the maladjustment score. Findings were stronger for children aged 7 to 13 than for those 3 to 6.

Another factor which appears to affect the child's adjustment subsequent to parental divorce is parent-child communication. Jacobson (1978c) reported that the more attention the child received from parents in dealing with the separation, the better the child's adjustment. Also, children whose parents encouraged discussion and children who brought problems to the parents regarding the separation after the event were better adjusted.

Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney, and Hunt (1979) found that all

maladjusted children in their sample came from families who reported a 50 percent reduction in income immediately following parental separation. Further, maladjusted children were those between six and nine years of age at the time of separation. The child's adjustment score was obtained from the parent's response to the Louisville Behavior Checklist (Miller, 1977).

Some investigators have found positive outcomes in children's responses to the divorce of their parents. Parental perceptions of the child's adjustment were obtained by Kurdek and Siesky (1979) who concluded that children's adjusting to divorce often results not only in changes in their school performance but also in the children's acquiring responsibilities and strengths.

Weiss (1979) proposes that a single-parent household makes possible the development of a new relationship between the custodial parent and his/her children wherein children are defined as having responsibilities and rights very similar to the parent's own. Not only do children perform additional chores, but also they participate in decision making that affects continued functioning and maintenance of the household system. Consequently, children in a single-parent households may become more responsible, more independent, and more alert to adult values than other children of the same age.

While such responsibilities may have advantageous outcomes for adolescents, Weiss (1979) acknowledges that preadolescents in single-parent households may be more at risk than adolescents in the same situation. Preadolescents may become precocious and oddly self-reliant. Also, having learned to suppress their yearning for a parent's nurturance, they may have special vulnerabilities as adults.

Effects of Divorce on the Parent-Child Relationship

The authors of a popular child development textbook introduce their chapter on middle childhood with the statement that ". . . the kind of parents a child has and the kind of relationships he has with them remain, for the average child, the most significant environmental factors in determining the kind of person he will become" (Mussen, Conger, & Kagen, 1974, p. 422). Since the days of colonization in this country, it has been widely accepted that parental behavior exerts a major influence on the behavior and adjustment of the child (Baldwin, Kalhorn, & Breese, 1945; Baumrind, 1967; Bjorklund, 1977; Greven, 1973; Sears, Maccoby, & Levin, 1957; Symonds, 1939; White, 1975, 1979). More recently, however, there is evidence that the relationship between parents and children is a two-way process (Bell, 1968; Schaefer & Bayley, 1963; Bell & Harper, 1977).

Assessing the impact of divorce on the parent-child relationship is a complex problem. The relationship between the two members of the marital dyad has been shown to affect the parent-child relationship (Aquilino, 1979; Farber, 1962; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Kemper & Reichler, 1976; Porter, 1955; Rosen, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1976). In addition, the child affects the relationship between the husband and wife (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Dyer, 1963; Hobbs, 1965; Landis & Landis, 1963; Lerner & Spanier, 1978) and is perceived to influence parental socialization (Devor, 1970).

Divorce has been described as a process or sequence of experiences involving a transition in the lives of family members (Hetherington, 1979; Pais & White, 1979). Although divorce symbolizes the public dissolution of marital rights and responsibilities, it "most

realistically represents a process of dramatic redefinitions of the family rather than the actual termination of these relationships" (Pais & White, 1979, p. 272). Perceptions of the factors associated with divorce will be modified according to the point at which the sequence of events is observed (Hetherington, 1979).

In the past decade, two major studies have reported changes in the parent-child relationship following divorce of the parents (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976). Other studies addressing factors surrounding divorce that are tangential to the parent-child relationship were identified earlier in this review (Berg & Kelly, 1979; Jacobson, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c; Landis, 1960; Lowenstein & Koopman, 1978; Raschke & Raschke, 1979; Rosen, 1979) and will not be dealt with here.

The California Study

Probably the most systematic exploration of responses of children at various ages to divorce-related family change is that undertaken by Wallerstein and Kelly (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1976) whose inquiry represents an in-depth look at children of divorce drawn from a normal population with no history of psychiatric or psychological contact. The entire sample included 131 children between the ages of 2.5 and 18.0 years from 60 families who, in 1971, resided in a metropolitan suburb in northern California (Marin County), an area with one of the highest divorce rates in the world.

Children were seen in the divorce counseling service on referral from family lawyers, pediatricians, and school personnel within the framework of a preventively-oriented planning service for divorcing

families with children. "They were not referred as identified patients or as families in declared distress" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975, p. 601).

Data were obtained in four to six individual clinical interviews with each family member over a six-week time span shortly after the initial separation of the parents and interviews conducted one year later. In addition to information provided by family members, independent information was obtained from school personnel at each of these times.

Results at four developmental stages are reported in different articles: preschool (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975), early latency (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976), later latency (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976), and adolescence (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974). This review of the California study will focus on findings relevant to the parent-child relationship.

Preschool. The 34 preschool children from 27 families ranged in age from 2.5 to 6.0 years (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975). Wallerstein and Kelly reported that changes in the parent-child relationship in the year following separation were substantial. In almost half of the families, a diminution in the quality of the mother-child relationship occurred and was strongly associated with deterioration in the psychological condition of the child. Somewhat surprisingly, father-child relationships tended to improve in the year following divorce. Yet, an improved father-child relationship did not forestall a post-divorce downward spiral in the preschool child. Of the 15 children found to be in worsened condition at follow-up, 40 percent of their fathers had developed a more affectionate and less conflicted relationship with their preschool children.

Early Latency. The early latency group consisted of 26 children who were 7 and 8 years old when seen for the initial counseling intervention following their parents' separation (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976). Kelly and Wallerstein (1976) reported that in this group ". . . none of the children was pleased or relieved with the divorce, despite a history in many of these families of chronic, often violent marital conflict to which most of these children were witness" (p. 26).

With regard to the departed father, the early latency group exhibited a strong sense of loss. Those most affected were boys, especially younger boys. Nearly all children in this sample longed for more frequent visits with their fathers. Many expressed a need for their father to provide discipline and external controls.

Relative to their custodial mother, some children in the early latency group expressed considerable anger at their mother for either causing the divorce or driving the father away. More characteristic of this group, however, were fears of antagonizing the mother in whose custody they had been left, coupled with fantasies of a powerful mother. In part, this fear had a basis in reality. Nearly three-fourths of the mothers in this group had initiated the decision to divorce, thus precipitating the departure of the father. In addition, many of these mothers were very angry.

These children were of sufficient age to be enlisted by one or both parents in the waging of hostile confrontations with pressure for alignment with one parent aimed at exclusion or rejection of the other. Unlike older children, the children in this group seemed to lack any adaptive solutions for avoiding the pain produced by this situation. Frequently in secret and at great psychic cost, these children retained their loyalty to both parents.

At the one year follow-up, these children's responses to their parents' divorce had been modified. In about one-third of the boys, reconciliation fantasies persisted. In these cases, the fantasy was being kept alive by the openly expressed wishes of a parent or the parent-child relationship had deteriorated to such an extent that the child perceived reconciliation as his only hope.

Later Latency. The later latency group included 31 children from 28 families (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976). These children were between 9 and 10 years of age when initially seen. Changes in the parent-child relationship constituted a significant component of the total response of children in this age group. Wallerstein and Kelly noted that at this age, one of the attributes of the parent-child relationship is a peculiar interdependence of parent and child which accords the child a significant role in restoring or further diminishing the self-esteem of the parent.

Following the parental separation, over one-fourth of the children in this group formed a relationship with one parent which was specifically aimed at the exclusion or active rejection of the other. Although such alignments were usually initiated and always fueled by the embattled parent, they struck a responsive chord among children in this particular age group.

Subsequent to the separation and divorce, heightened empathic response to one or both distressed parents, and siblings, was catalyzed in several children. "Some youngsters were able to perceive their parents' needs with great sensitivity, and to respond with compassion and caring" (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976, p. 267). Parents often expressed profound appreciation for such sensitivity and

consideration. Many parents relied heavily on these children for emotional support and advice, as well as for practical help. After one year, relatively few of the later latency children were able to maintain good relationships with both parents.

Adolescence. The 21 subjects in the adolescent group were 13 to 18 years of age (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974). Characteristic responses of these adolescents following parental separation and divorce included precipitously changed perceptions of parents, accelerated individuation of parents, heightened awareness of parents as sexual objects, and loyalty conflicts arising from the requirement for alignment by one or both parents.

By the follow-up a year later, virtually all of the adolescents had been able to disengage themselves from the active loyalty conflicts imposed by their parents. With varying degrees of success, all adolescents in this study made use of distancing and withdrawal as a defense against experiencing the pain of family disruption.

The Virginia Study

In introducing their two-year longitudinal study of the impact of divorce on family functioning and children's development, Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978) noted that divorce is a critical event that affects the entire family system as well as the functioning and interactions of members within that system. For a true picture of the impact of divorce, its effects on both parents and children must be examined.

The final sample consisted of 96 families for which complete data were available (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978). These families were divided into four groups of 24 families each: "intact" families with

girls, "intact" families with boys, divorced families with girls, and divorced families with boys. Children from divorced and intact families were matched on gender, age, birth order, and nursery school. An attempt was made to match parents on age, education, and length of marriage.

A multimethod, multimeasure approach was used to investigate family interaction. Data were obtained through interviews with and structured diary records of the parents, observations of the parents and child interacting in the laboratory and in the home, behavior checklists of child behavior, parent rating of child behavior, and a battery of personality scales administered to parents. Additionally, observations of the child were conducted in the nursery school, and peer nomination, teacher ratings of the child's behavior, and measures of the child's sex-role typing, cognitive performance, and social development were obtained. These measures were administered to both parents and children at two months, one year, and two years following the divorce.

Parent-Child Relations. Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978) reported that interaction patterns between divorced parents and children differed significantly from those of intact families on many variables. Although differences were greatest during the first year following divorce, parent-child relations in divorced and intact families still differed on many dimensions at the end of the second year.

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.
(Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, p. 163)

Especially for divorced mothers, the stress in parent-child relations appeared to peak one year after divorce. By two years after divorce, mothers were demanding more autonomous, mature behavior of their children, communicated better with them, and used more explanations and reasoning. In addition, they were more nurturant and consistent and were better able to control their children than before.

Divorced fathers became increasingly less available to their children and ex-spouses over the two year period. Over time, fathers also made greater demands for maturity, communicated better with their children, and were more consistent with them, however, they became less nurturant and more detached from their children. With time, divorced fathers ignored their children more and showed less affection.

The lack of control divorced parents had over their children was associated with different patterns of relating to children by mothers and fathers. The divorced mother tried to control her child by being more restrictive and giving more commands which the child resisted or ignored. The divorced father began by being extremely permissive and indulgent with his child. Although divorced fathers became increasingly restrictive over the two year period, they were never so restrictive as married fathers.

At first, the divorced mother used more negative sanctions than the divorced father or than parents in intact families. By the second year the divorced mother's use of negative sanctions had declined while the divorced father's had increased. After the first year, the divorced mother's use of positive sanctions increased as the divorced father's decreased.

As the "every day is Christmas" behavior of the divorced father declined with time, the divorced mother's futile attempts at

authoritarian control decreased, and she became more effective in dealing with her child. However, divorced mothers and fathers never gained as much control as their married counterparts.

Examining parental ignoring responses revealed that one way divorced parents coped with noncompliance was by pretending it did not happen.

The chains of noncompliance by children, followed by ignoring, were of longer duration in divorced families than in intact families, especially in the interactions of divorced mothers and their sons. (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978, p. 169)

According to Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978) the divorced mother's relationship with her son was especially conflictual. Poor parenting was most evident when divorced parents, especially mothers, interacted with their sons. Divorced mothers and fathers communicated less well, were less consistent, and used more negative sanctions with sons than with daughters. In addition, divorced mothers exhibited fewer positive behaviors and more negative behaviors with sons than with daughters. Sons of divorced parents appeared to have a difficult time. This may partly explain why the adverse effects of divorce are more severe and enduring for boys than for girls.

Although divorced mothers may have given their children a difficult time, mothers, especially divorced mothers, got rough treatment from their children, especially their sons. While girls were more whining, complaining, and compliant, boys were more oppositional and aggressive. Over time children of divorced parents showed increased dependency and exhibited less sustained play than children of intact families. The divorced mother was harassed by her children, especially her sons. Results of cross-lagged panel correlations suggested that

divorced mothers' self-esteem, feelings of parental competence, anxiety, and depression were caused by the behavior of the children, particularly the sons.

In summarizing the changes that occurred in the parent-child relationship subsequent to divorce, Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1978) noted that divorced parents infantilized their children and communicated less well with them than parents in intact families. Also, divorced parents tended to be more inconsistent and less affectionate and to have less control over their children's behavior.

Relative to children in intact families, children in divorced families were more dependent, disobedient, aggressive, whining, demanding, and unaffectionate. These effects were more pronounced in mother-son interactions.

A peak of stress in parent-child relationships appeared one year after divorce. Thereafter, marked improvement was shown, especially in mother-child relations.

Concluding Comments on Divorce Literature

Indeed, assessment of the impact of divorce is a complex problem. The task is made even more difficult by confounding factors such as reduction in economic well-being (Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney, & Hunt, 1979; Johnson, 1980), social situations (Brandwein, Brown, & Fox, 1974), and mental health of parents (Blumenthal, 1967; Briscoe, Smith, Robins, Marten, & Gaskin, 1973; Carter & Glick, 1976; Gove 1972a, 1972b).

Logically, changes in the parent-child relationship subsequent to parental divorce, such as those identified in this review, should be reflected in children's reports of parental behavior as well as

parents' self-reports of their parenting behavior. If this is true, then differences should appear for members of divorced versus married families.

Bronfenbrenner (1977, 1979) maintains that what matters for the behavior and development of the child is the environment as it is perceived rather than as it may exist in objective reality. While empirical support exists for this view (Ausubel, Balthazar, Rosenthal, Blackman, Schpoont, & Welkowitz, 1954; Cox, 1970; Devereux, Bronfenbrenner, & Rodgers, 1969; Michaels, Messé & Stollak, 1977; Schaefer, 1965a), research dealing with children's perceptions have been limited to children from married families except for recent studies by Zill (Note 1) and Clark (1979). Moreover, systematic research concerning school-age children, the single largest group affected (Johnson, 1980), is especially meager (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976).

Determining the impact of divorce on the parent-child relationship requires examination of various dyadic relationships and must take into account other aspects of the environment. Bronfenbrenner (1977, 1979) and Scott (1980) have inferred that this type of investigation requires an ecological approach.

The Ecological Framework

Bronfenbrenner (1977, 1979) contends that the understanding of human development "requires examination of multiperson systems of interaction not limited to a single setting and must take into account aspects of the environment beyond the immediate situation containing the subject" (p. 21). In the ecology of human development, the ecological environment is conceived as a set of nested structures composed of a series of systems. The innermost level is a microsystem, defined

as "a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics" (p. 22). Subsequent levels are identified as the mesosystem: "the interrelations among two or more settings in which the developing person actively participates" (p. 25); the exosystem: "one or more settings that do not involve the developing person as an active participant, but in which events occur that affect, or are affected by what happens in the setting containing the developing person" (p. 25); and the macrosystem:

consistencies, in the form and content of lower-order systems . . . that exist, or could exist, at the level of the subculture or culture as a whole, along with any belief systems or ideology underlying such consistencies.
(p. 26)

The phenomenon of movement through ecological space is accounted for with the concept of "ecological transitions." "An ecological transition occurs whenever a person's position in the ecological environment is altered as the result of a change in role, setting, or both" (p. 26). As noted elsewhere (Hetherington, 1979; Pais & White, 1979), divorce is a transitional process that a family experiences.

In traditional laboratory research procedures, data are typically collected and reported for one person at a time even though two or more may concurrently be present in the setting. In contrast, the ecological approach calls for analyzing environments in systems terms using the dyad, or two-person system, as one of the basic units of analysis. The ecological orientation to research takes seriously and translates into operational terms the thesis that reality is what is perceived by the individual (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), ". . . the aspects of the environment that are

most powerful in shaping the course of psychological growth are overwhelmingly those that have meaning to the person in a given situation"

(p. 22). Bronfenbrenner (1979) defined an ecological experiment as

an effort to investigate the progressive accommodation between the growing human organism and its environment through a systematic contrast between two or more environmental systems or their structural components, with a careful attempt to control other sources of influence either by random assignment (planned experiment) or by matching (natural experiment). (p. 36)

Perceptions of Parental Behavior

Both psychologists and sociologists have expounded the thesis that "what matters for behavior and development is the environment as it is perceived rather than as it may exist in 'objective' reality"

(Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p. 4). This idea is epitomized in Thomas and Thomas' (1928) inexorable dictum that "If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences" (p. 572).

Research studies have demonstrated that children's perceptions of their parents' child-rearing behavior are more relevant determinants of children's behavior and adjustment than the objective reality to which those perceptions refer (Ausubel, Balthazar, Rosenthal, Blackman, Schpount, & Welkowitz, 1954; Cox, 1970; Devereux, Bronfenbrenner, & Rodgers, 1969; Jourard & Remy, 1955; Michaels, Messé, & Stollak, 1977; Schaefer, 1965a). Other studies have shown a relationship between children's reports of parental behavior and inventory measures of child development (Brown, Morrison, & Couch, 1947; Serot & Teevan, 1961; Stott, 1941), observers' reports of child behavior (Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Brown, Morrison, & Couch, 1947), and observers' reports of parent behavior (Bronson, Katten, & Livson, 1959). After finding no measurable relationship between the adjustment

characteristics of children and child rearing attitudes held by their parents, Burchinal (1958) concluded that

what is important for the personality development of the child is not necessarily what his parents report as their attitudes toward him, but what the child perceived as his parents' attitudes and behaviors toward him. (p. 77)

Yet, except for studies reported by Woysner (1979) and Clark (1979), research studies dealing with children's perceptions of parental behavior have been limited to children living in married families (Aquilino, 1979; Armentrout & Burger, 1972b; Ausubel, Balthazar, Rosenthal, Blackman, Schpount, & Welkowitz, 1954; Bronson, Katten, & Livson, 1959; Burger & Armentrout, 1975; Cox, 1962; Cox, 1970; Dahlem, 1970; Devereux, Bronfenbrenner, & Rodgers, 1969; Droppleman & Schaefer, 1963; Hower & Edwards, 1978; Jessop, 1981; Kagan, Hosken, & Watson, 1961; Kelly & Worell, 1976; Nutall & Nutall, 1976; Robinson, 1978; Rowe, 1980; Schaefer, 1965a; Serot & Teevan, 1961; Yairi & Williams, 1971) sometimes with the additional notation that children were living with both biological parents (Armentrout & Burger, 1972b; Droppleman & Schaefer, 1963; Robinson, 1978; Yairi & Williams, 1971). Many reports of studies concerning children's perceptions of parental behavior did not include information about family structure (Armentrout & Burger, 1972a; Brown, Morrison, & Couch, 1947; Burger & Armentrout, 1971a, 1971b; Burger, Armentrout, & Rapfogel, 1973, 1975; Burger, Lamp, & Rogers, 1975; Cross, 1969; Cross & Davis, 1976; Graybill, 1978; Graybill & Gabel, 1978; Kagan, 1956; Kagan & Lemkin, 1960; Margolies & Weintraub, 1977; Raskin, Boothe, Reatig, Schulterbrandt, & Odle, 1971; Renson, Schaefer, & Levy, 1968; Schaefer, 1965b; Schludermann & Schludermann, 1970; Stehbens & Carr, 1970; Stott, 1941).

In a study sponsored by the Foundation for Child Development (FCD), directed by Nicholas Zill, and reported by Woysner (1979) interviews were conducted with 2,279 children and 1,747 of their parents (usually mothers). The children represented a cross-section of American children 7 to 11 years of age whose living arrangements were quite varied and included traditional two-parent households and single-parent households with divorced mothers or divorced fathers or mothers who had never married. Many of the children were being reared by grandparents, adoptive parents, foster parents, and even divorced parents who were living together.

Among questions posed in the FCD study (Woysner, 1979) were some related to family life and rules. Over 90 percent of the children picked a happy face to show how they felt about their families. Most children perceived their parents to be proud of them, and nearly two-thirds reported that their parents treat them more like a grown-up than like a baby.

Although more than 95 percent of the parents in the survey said discipline is "very important" in rearing children, approximately 28 percent of the children reported that their parents make them follow rules "just some of the time" or "hardly ever." Concerning rules in the home, one-half of the children reported that they are allowed to watch television whenever they want and over one-third said they are allowed to watch whatever kinds of programs they want. Over one-fourth of the children said they are allowed to have snacks and to eat whatever they want. Children of divorced and never-married mothers were more likely to be allowed to do these things than children who reported their parents as happily married.

Clark (1979) assessed children's perceptions of their mother's general supportiveness. Subjects included 8 to 10 year old children from intact and single-parent families. The mothers' single-parent status could have been a result of separation, divorce, death of spouse, or having never been married.

Clark (1979) found that in both single-parent and intact families, girls' perceptions of maternal supportiveness were higher than boys' perceptions. Differences in male and female scores were even greater in single-parent families where boys' scores were not only lower than girls' scores but also lower than the scores of boys in intact families.

Parent and Child Perceptions

Few studies have been designed to allow both children and their parents to respond to the same or similar questions concerning child rearing behavior of the parents. In the studies in which this was attempted, results were discrepant. Some studies showed differences between responses of parents and their children (Cox, 1970; Houston, 1980; Michaels, Messé, & Stollak, 1977; Robinson, 1978; Serot & Teevan, 1961; Woysner, 1979) while others revealed generally convergent results for parents and their children (Bronson, Katten, & Livson, 1959) or positive but low correlations (Devereux, Bronfenbrenner, & Rodgers, 1969; Helper, 1958). When reports of parental behavior by children and their parents were compared to objective records of the parents' child rearing behavior, the children's reports were more consistent with objective records than were parents' reports of their own parenting behavior (Bronson, Katten, & Livson, 1959; Cox, 1970; Michaels, Messé, & Stollak, 1977; Robinson, 1978). Also, differences between mothers' and fathers' reports of their own parenting behavior have

been shown to be differentially correlated with the child's behavior (Cox, 1970; Eron, Banta, Walder, & Laulicht, 1961; Robinson, 1978).

At least three studies of parent and child reports of family life (Kandel, Lesser, Roberts, & Weiss, 1968; Larson, 1974; Niemi, 1974) have revealed low to moderate associations between reports by parents and their children, a good deal of disagreement, and some tendency for parents to give socially desirable responses more often than their children. In comparing parallel measures of parents and children in a variety of areas, Jessop (1981) found the least agreement in the area of family life. "In reporting about family life, parents and their adolescent children each systematically enlarge the degree of influence they have in the relationship" (Jessop, 1981, p. 103).

While some instruments designed for obtaining children's perceptions of parental behavior have been modified in order to obtain parents' self-reports of their parenting behavior (Cox, 1970; Michaels, Messé, & Stollak, 1977; Serot & Teevan, 1961), only four scales of Schaefer's (1965a) Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) have been rewritten to procure parents' self-reports (Robinson, 1978). Robinson (1978) examined parental child-rearing behavior in families with "beyond control" adolescent boys. One concern of his study was whether or not children's reports of parental behavior would differ significantly from the parents' reports of their own behavior.

Robinson (1978) adopted four scales of the CRPBI for completion by parents as well as by the adolescents. The scales of Inconsistency and Nonenforcement were used to assess parental consistency in setting and enforcing rules. The scales of Positive Involvement and Hostile

Detachment were used to determine the extent to which parents used, or did not use, positive means of promoting compliance and socially desirable behavior in their children.

Reports of parental behavior varied significantly according to the source of the report (Robinson, 1978). In both the "beyond control" and "within control" groups, adolescents described parents as being less positively involved, more detached, and higher in non-enforcement than parents reported themselves to be. There was a tendency ($p < .10$) for boys to report their mothers (but not their fathers) as more inconsistent than the mothers reported themselves to be. Mothers were rated as more positively involved than fathers regardless of the group.

Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory

The Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) (Schaefer, 1965a, 1965b) was designed specifically to assess parental behavior as perceived and reported by children. The original version consisted of 26 10-item scales based upon a two-dimensional model of parental behavior with orthogonal dimensions of "love versus hostility" and "autonomy versus control." Revisions of the instrument (Renson, Schaefer, & Levy, 1968; Schaefer, 1965b) resulted in a 192-item inventory with six 16-item scales and 12 8-item scales which factored into three dimensions. As labeled and described by Schaefer (Renson, Schaefer, & Levy, 1968; Schaefer, 1965a, 1965b) Factor I, Acceptance versus Rejection, involves the bipolar dimensions of acceptance, emotional support, and equalitarian treatment on the positive end and ignoring, neglect, and rejection on the negative end. Factor II, Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control, describes the

degree to which parents use covert, psychological methods of controlling the child's activities and behaviors that would not permit the child to develop as an individual apart from the parent. Factor III, Firm Control versus Lax Control, refers to the degree to which the parent establishes and maintains limits (rules and regulations) concerning the child's activities.

The CRPBI and its revisions have consistently yielded the same three factors over a variety of populations: American college students (Armentrout & Burger, 1972b; Cross, 1969; Cross & Davis, 1976; Hower & Edwards, 1978), American children in grades four through eight (Armentrout & Burger, 1972a), American children in grades five and six (Burger & Armentrout, 1971b), American elementary school children (Burger, Lamp, & Rogers, 1975; Graybill & Gabel, 1978; Margolies & Weintraub, 1977), Belgian high school students (Renson, Schaefer, & Levy, 1968), Canadian college students (Schludermann & Schludermann, 1970), Hutterite adolescents (Schludermann & Schludermann, 1971), and Brazilian children in grades six and seven and college students (Biaggio, 1979). In addition, both factor scores (Cross & Davis, 1976; Graybill, 1978; Nuttall & Nuttall, 1976; Schaefer, 1965a, 1965b) and scale scores (Stehbens & Carr, 1970; Yairi & Williams, 1971) of the CRPBI have been shown to discriminate between groups.

Burger and Armentrout (1971a) argued that if factor analysis is employed to discover particular dimensions, it is the dimensions, or factors, that should be conceptualized as variables and not the smaller elements, or scales. Factor scores permit individual comparisons between groups of children. For example, perceptions of parental behavior by children living in divorced families can be compared to

perceptions of parental behavior by children living in married families.

Subsequent factor analyses of the 18 scales of the CRPBI have consistently yielded three factors which are very similar to those identified by Schaefer (Armentrout & Burger, 1972a, 1972b; Burger & Armentrout, 1975; Burger, Lamp, & Rogers, 1975; Cross, 1969; Graybill, 1978; Graybill & Gabel, 1978; Renson, Schaefer, & Levy, 1968). In addition, similar factors have emerged when the number of items per scale (Raskin, Boothe, Reatig, Schulterbrandt, & Odle, 1971; Schludermann & Schludermann, 1970) or the number of scales (Burger & Armentrout, 1971a; Burger, Armentrout, & Rapfogel, 1973; Margolies & Weintraub, 1977) were reduced.

After generating exact factor scores following Horst's (1965) least square solution, Burger and Armentrout (Burger & Armentrout, 1971a; Burger, Armentrout, & Rapfogel, 1973) investigated three methods for estimating exact factor scores for the CRPBI employing different numbers of scales for the factors (Table 19). Set A included all scales that best defined each factor and consisted of 168 items. Set B was composed of the three scales that best defined each factor and consisted of 96 items. Set C involved the best two scales defining each factor and included 56 items.

The first method for estimating exact factor scores involved running three successive multiple regressions for each factor of the matrix. For the second method, sets of integer weights were determined by inspection of the relative magnitudes of the regressive coefficients obtained by the first method. For the third method, unweighted sums of the raw scores were calculated for scale combinations for each set of scales.

Table 19
 Median Correlations Between Estimates and Exact Factor
 Scores for Three Methods of Estimating Factor Scores

Factor	Set	Number of Scales	Multiple Regression	Weighted Sum	Unweighted Sum
I	A	6	.99	.97	.96
	B	3	.97	.95	.95
	C	2	.96	.92	.90
II	A	5	.97	.96	.95
	B	3	.92	.92	.92
	C	2	.86	.86	.85
III	A	4	.97	.93	.93
	B	3	.94	.93	.91
	C	2	.90	.90	.90

Note: Adopted from Burger and Armentrout, 1971a.

Comparisons of the coefficients in Table 19 suggest that all three methods were highly accurate in estimating the exact factor scores and that the number of scales used to obtain estimated factor scores is not a crucial issue. All three factors were quite accurately estimated using unweighted sums of scale scores and two scales. Thus, if shorter time of administration is desired, as might be the case when working with young children, then the number of scales contributing to each factor could be reduced to as few as two while sacrificing relatively little in the accuracy of factor scores.

The 56-item 6-scale version of the CRPBI used in this study consists of one 16-item scale (Acceptance) and five 8-item scales. It is the version identified as Set C in Burger and Armentrout's investigations (Burger & Armentrout, 1971a; Burger, Armentrout, & Rapfogel, 1973). In this version, each of three factors is comprised of two scales from Schaefer's (1965b) 192-item 18-scale inventory. Factor I consists of Acceptance (Scale 1) and Childcenteredness (Scale 2). Factor II is made up of Control through Guilt (Scale 9) and Instilling Persistent Anxiety (Scale 15). Factor III includes Nonenforcement (Scale 12) and Lax Discipline (Scale 14).

Margolies and Weintraub (1977) investigated the reliability and factor structure of the 56-item version of the CRPBI; i.e., Set C in Burger and Armentrout's investigations (Burger & Armentrout, 1971a; Burger, Armentrout, & Rapfogel, 1973). They found the 56-item inventory to be highly reliable at one-week and five-week retest intervals. They also found the factor structure of the revision similar to that of the original with Factor III, Firm Control versus Lax Control (i.e., Lax Discipline), somewhat less stable than the other two factors.

Margolies and Weintraub concluded that the 56-item version of the CRPBI appears to stand up well as a research instrument and noted its greater practicality when working with research samples containing young children.

Concluding Comments on Perceptions of
Parental Behavior Literature

For the past 20 years, a major thrust of investigations concerning parent-child relationships has been in the area of children's perceptions of their parents' child-rearing behavior (Walters & Stinnett, 1971). Evidence has been presented which indicates that children's perceptions of the environment differ from their parents' perceptions, that children's perceptions of parental behavior are more closely related to children's behavior and adjustment than their parents' perceptions, and that children's perceptions are less subject to a social desirability response set than their parents' perceptions.

Additionally, during the past 20 years, the number of children experiencing the divorce of their parents has increased dramatically, and the impact of divorce on children has received increasing attention from researchers (Walters & Walters, 1980). Despite such trends, only two studies (Clark, 1979; Woyshner, 1979) requesting children from single-parent families to report perceptions of their parents' child rearing behavior were found in the literature. Both studies confounded single-parent status by combining the various antecedents of single parenthood so that children of divorce and separation could not be distinguished from children living in single-parent households as a result of one parent's death or their mothers' never having been married.

Another limitation of both studies (Clark, 1979; Woysner, 1979) was their focus on a single dimension of parental behavior. Clark used four questions to assess maternal supportiveness, and questions about rules in the home (discipline) were used in the FCD study. While the FCD questions were apparently aimed at parents collectively, Clark's were directed toward mothers only.

Indeed, assessing the impact of divorce on the parent-child relationship is a complex problem. While such research is increasing, a much stronger empirical base is necessary if effective decisions involving children of divorce are to be made both at an individual counseling level and at a public policy level.

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APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENTS

Mother _____ Father _____

INDIVIDUAL INFORMATION

1. What is your ethnic background?

 White Black Native American Spanish-American Asian-American Other (Please specify) _____

2. What is your birthdate?

_____ Month _____ Year

3. What is your religious preference?

 Protestant Catholic Jewish Other (Please specify) _____4. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?
(Please check only one.) Less than high school graduation High school graduation Vocational or technical program Some college, did not graduate College degree, B.S. or B.A.

Please specify college major _____

 Advanced degree or degrees (Please list) _____Please specify major area of study for advanced degree(s)

5. Are you employed?
 Yes
 No
6. If employed, what is your job title? _____
7. How many hours did you work for pay at this job last week?
 Less than 20 hours
 20 to 40 hours
 More than 40 hours
 None
8. Do you work at a second job?
 Yes
 No
9. Please give job title (if applicable). _____
10. How many hours did you work at this second job last week?
 _____ hours
11. Please check the income range that includes your salary. (Please check only one category)
 Under \$5,000
 \$5,000 to \$9,999
 \$10,000 to \$14,999
 \$15,000 to \$19,999
 \$20,000 to \$24,999
 \$25,000 to \$29,999
 \$30,000 to \$34,999
 \$35,000 to \$39,999
 \$40,000 and over

Mother _____ Father _____

FAMILY INFORMATION

1. About your housing, are you (Please check only one)
 Buying (or already own)
 Renting or Leasing
 Receiving from friends, relatives, or employer
 Other (Please specify) _____
2. What is the type of your housing? (Please check only one)
 One family house
 Condominium
 Apartment, duplex, etc.
 Mobile home
 Other, (Please specify) _____
3. Does your family have health insurance?
 Yes
 No
4. Is your older child employed?
 Yes
 No
5. What is the child's job? _____
6. How many hours did the child work for pay last week?
 Hours
7. Is the younger child employed?
 Yes
 No
8. What is the child's job? _____

9. How many hours did the child work for pay last week?
_____ Hours
10. Will you please check the range that includes your total family savings? (Please check only one)
- _____ Under \$1,000
_____ \$1,000 to \$4,999
_____ \$5,000 to \$9,999
_____ \$10,000 to \$14,999
_____ \$15,000 to \$19,999
_____ Over \$20,000
11. What was the date of your marriage?
_____ Month _____ Year

If you head a one-parent household, please respond to the following items.

12. How many times has your family moved since you became a one-parent family?
_____ Times
13. Compared to your housing as a two-parent family, would you say that your present housing is
- _____ Much worse
_____ Somewhat worse
_____ About the same
_____ Somewhat better
_____ Much better
14. Do you receive financial support from your relatives?
_____ Yes
_____ No

15. Do you receive other help such as child care, clothing, or other tangible goods, from your relatives?
- Yes
- No
16. Do you receive child support payments?
- Yes
- No
17. Is your child support paid regularly?
- Yes
- No
18. Please check the amount you receive each month as child support payment. (Please check only one)
- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Under \$100 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$300 to \$399 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$100 to \$199 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$400 and over |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$200 to \$299 | |
19. The amount of child support above is paid
- for both children
- for only the older child
- for only the younger child
20. How does the amount you receive compare with the amount set in your settlement or court decree?
- It is more.
- It is the same.
- It is less.
21. Do you receive alimony?
- Yes
- No
22. What is the amount of your alimony? \$ _____ monthly

Age of Child _____

CHILD'S REPORT FOR MOTHER*

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 MOTHER acts toward you.

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

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

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

BE SURE TO CIRCLE ONE ANSWER FOR EACH STATEMENT.

Form for Mother	Like	Some- what Like	Not Like
1. Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with her.	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 misbehavior.	L	SL	NL
7. Worries about how I will turn out, because she takes anything bad I do seriously.	L	SL	NL
8. Almost always speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice.	L	SL	NL
9. Is always thinking of things that will please me.	L	SL	NL
10. Lets me off easy when I do something wrong.	L	SL	NL
11. Understands my problems and my 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

Form for Mother	Like	Some- what Like	Not Like
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 a lot 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 homework.	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 she has suffered for me.	L	SL	NL
27. Doesn't check up to see whether I have done what she told me.	L	SL	NL
28. Thinks and talks about my misbehavior long after it's over.	L	SL	NL
29. Enjoys doing things with me.	L	SL	NL
30. Makes me feel like the most important person in her 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 her, I'd do what she 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

Form for Mother	Like	Some- what Like	Not Like
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 she 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 consequences.	L	SL	NL
43. Often speaks of the good things I do.	L	SL	NL
44. Makes her whole life center about her children.	L	SL	NL
45. I can talk her 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 her, I would not do things that cause her to worry.	L	SL	NL
48. Lets me get away without doing work I had 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 her free time with her 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 she wants, says I'm not grateful for all she has done for me.	L	SL	NL
55. Lets me get away with a lot of things.	L	SL	NL

Form for Mother	Like	Some- what Like	Not Like
56. Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.	L	SL	NL

*Child's Report for Father was identical except that pronouns she and her were changed to he and him respectively.

Mother _____ Father _____

PARENT'S REPORT OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR

We are interested in learning more about the different experiences people have in families. Therefore, we are asking a number of people to tell us about their experiences as parents.

For this part of the study, we need you to respond in terms of your YOUNGEST child who was at least 7 but not more than 10 years old on September 1, 1980.

Instructions

Read each of the following statements and circle the answer that best tells how you act toward your YOUNGEST child. The correct answer is the way you honestly think you behave toward your child.

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

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

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

BE SURE TO CIRCLE ONE ANSWER FOR EACH STATEMENT.

<u>Form for Parents of Son*</u>	Like	Some- what Like	Not Like
1. Make child feel better by listening to his worries.	L	SL	NL
2. Like to talk to child and be with him much of the time.	L	SL	NL
3. Am easy with child.	L	SL	NL
4. Seem to see child's good points more than his faults.	L	SL	NL
5. Feel hurt when child doesn't follow advice.	L	SL	NL
6. Usually don't find out about child's misbehavior.	L	SL	NL

Form for Parents of Son	Like	Some- what Like	Not Like
7. Worry about how child will turn out, because I take anything bad he does seriously.	L	SL	NL
8. Almost always speak to child with a warm and friendly voice.	L	SL	NL
9. Am always thinking of things that will please child.	L	SL	NL
10. Let child off easy when he does something wrong.	L	SL	NL
11. Understand child's problems and his worries.	L	SL	NL
12. Think child is not grateful when he doesn't obey.	L	SL	NL
13. Don't pay much attention to child's misbehavior.	L	SL	NL
14. If child breaks a promise, I don't trust him again for a long time.	L	SL	NL
15. Enjoy talking things over with child.	L	SL	NL
16. Give child a lot of care and attention.	L	SL	NL
17. Can't say no to anything child wants.	L	SL	NL
18. Enjoy going on drives, trips or visits with child.	L	SL	NL
19. Feel hurt by the things child does.	L	SL	NL
20. Don't insist that child do his homework.	L	SL	NL
21. Tell child that some day he'll be punished for his bad behavior.	L	SL	NL
22. Smile at child very often.	L	SL	NL
23. Often give up something to get something for child.	L	SL	NL
24. Excuse child's bad conduct.	L	SL	NL
25. Am able to make child feel better when he is upset.	L	SL	NL
26. Tell child how much I have suffered for him.	L	SL	NL

Form for Parents of Son	Like	Some- what Like	Not Like
27. Don't check up to see whether child has done what I told him.	L	SL	NL
28. Think and talk about child's misbehavior long after it's over.	L	SL	NL
29. Enjoy doing things with child.	L	SL	NL
30. Make child feel like the most important person in my life.	L	SL	NL
31. Let child stay up late if he keeps asking.	L	SL	NL
32. Enjoy working with child in the house or yard.	L	SL	NL
33. Tell child that if he loved me, he'd do what I want him to do.	L	SL	NL
34. Seldom insist that child do anything.	L	SL	NL
35. Tell child that some day he'll be sorry that he wasn't better as a child.	L	SL	NL
36. Comfort child when he's afraid.	L	SL	NL
37. Enjoy staying at home with child more than going out with friends.	L	SL	NL
38. Do not insist that child obey if he complains or protests.	L	SL	NL
39. Cheer child up when he is sad.	L	SL	NL
40. Tell child of all the things I have done for him.	L	SL	NL
41. Do not bother to enforce rules.	L	SL	NL
42. Think that any misbehavior is very serious and will have future consequences.	L	SL	NL
43. Often speak of the good things child does.	L	SL	NL

Form for Parents of Son	Like	Some- what Like	Not Like
44. Make my whole life center about my children.	L	SL	NL
45. Child can talk me out of an order, if he complains.	L	SL	NL
46. Have a good time at home with child.	L	SL	NL
47. Tell child that if he really cared for me, he would not do things that cause me to worry.	L	SL	NL
48. Let child get away without doing work he had been given to do.	L	SL	NL
49. Tell child that sooner or later we always pay for bad behavior.	L	SL	NL
50. Am proud of the things child does.	L	SL	NL
51. Spend almost all of my free time with my children.	L	SL	NL
52. Can be talked into things easily.	L	SL	NL
53. Am not interested in changing child, but like him as he is.	L	SL	NL
54. When child doesn't do as I want, I tell him he is not grateful for all I have done for him.	L	SL	NL
55. Let child get away with a lot of things.	L	SL	NL
56. Will talk to child again and again about anything bad he does.	L	SL	NL

*Form for Parents of Daughter was identical except that pronouns he and him were changed to she and her respectively.

APPENDIX C

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Family Code 1- _____

Interviewers 1) _____

2) _____

Screening Call for Interview:

One-Parent Family

Date of call _____ Telephone number _____

Time of call _____ Respondent _____

Name of Family _____ Mother Father

Number of Children in the Family _____ (if not two, terminate call).

Number of Adults in household _____ (if two or more, terminate call).

Are you the natural or adoptive parent of both children? yes _____ no _____

Date of separation or divorce: _____ month _____ year

Name of younger child: _____ male female

Birthdate of younger child: _____ month _____ year _____ year in school

Name of older child: _____ male female

Birthdate of older child: _____ month _____ year _____ year in school

Date of interview _____ Day of Week _____ Time _____

Will both children be at home the day before the interview and at the interview? yes _____ no _____

Alternate phone number (work): _____

Home Address: _____ Zip

Directions for reaching your home: (landmarks) _____

_____ Gave FSC telephone number.

Disposition:

Time arrived at home _____ Time left home _____

Family Code 2- _____

Interviewers 1) _____

2) _____

Screening Call for Interview:

Two-Parent Family

Date of call _____ Telephone number _____

Time of call _____ Respondent _____

Name of Family _____

Number of Children in the Family ____ (if not two, terminate call).

Are both of you the natural or adoptive parents of both children?

yes ____ no ____ (if no, terminate call).

Name of younger child: _____ male female

Birthdate of younger child: ____ month ____ year ____ year in school

Name of older child: _____ male female

Birthdate of older child: ____ month ____ year ____ year in school

Date of interview _____ Day of Week _____ Time _____

Will all four family members be at home for the interview? yes__ no __

Alternate phone number (work): _____

Home Address: _____

Directions for reaching your home: (landmarks) _____ Zip

_____ Gave FSC telephone number.

Disposition:

Time arrived at home _____ Time left home _____

APPENDIX D
CORRESPONDENCE

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
Family Study Center
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078

January 22, 1981

Dear Pastor:

Families in today's society are experiencing many changes. Perhaps the change affecting the greatest number is the trend toward more one-parent families. While there is much concern about how living patterns in one-parent families differ from those in two-parent families, there is little reliable information on this topic.

The goal of a research project of the Family Study Center at Oklahoma State University is to determine whether or not there are substantial differences in ways of living in one-parent and two-parent families in the Tulsa area. More specifically, we would like to know whether families differ in the adequacy of resources (e.g. time, support of relatives and friends), management of resources, knowledge of child development, and parenting behavior as seen by both parents and their children.

Churches are interested in the welfare of families and could use the results of this project in planning effective programs for families. For these reasons, we hope that you can assist in the project by helping us locate families who would be interested in participating in the study. To meet the purposes of the project, we need both one-parent and two-parent families with two children, the younger of which is between 7 and 10 years of age. The second child should be older, but not over 17 years of age.

Will you please complete the enclosed form and return it by January 30, 1981. The form is designed to estimate the number of families with the characteristics noted above. The research team will contact you in the near future to obtain a list of families who might participate in the project. Your assistance in providing names of families in no way obligates them to participate.

After obtaining the list of names from you, the research team will contact each family to explain the study and request their cooperation. We plan to interview the families in April and May, 1981. All information collected for this study will be confidential.

Sincerely,

Sharon Y. Nickols, Ph.D.
Director, Family Study Center

Judith A. Powell, Ed.D.
Associate Professor

SURVEY FORM FOR STUDY OF
ONE-PARENT AND TWO-PARENT FAMILIES

Please return to Family Study Center, 114 HEW, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078 by January 30, 1981. A stamped, addressed envelope is enclosed. For further information, call Virginia Rowland or Jane Teleki at (405) 624-6696.

Name of Church _____

Address _____

_____ Telephone _____

Our church is willing to furnish names of families who might participate in this study. Yes _____ No _____

Staff member providing leadership to single parent group(s):

Name _____

Title _____ Telephone _____

Address _____

Person such as Church School Superintendent or Minister of Education, to contact regarding two-parent families:

Name _____

Title _____

Address _____ Telephone _____

_____ one-parent families with two children between the ages of 7 and approx.17 years of age participating in our church programs.

#

_____ two-parent families with two children between the ages of 7 and approx.17 years of age participating in our church programs.

#

If you know of other churches or organizations providing services to one-parent families, will you please write the name of the organization, persons whom we might contact, and telephone numbers on the back of this sheet? Thank you very much

_____ date

_____ name of person completing this form

_____ telephone number

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
Family Study Center
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078

April 2, 1981

Dear Colleague,

The study of resources and relationships in one-parent and two-parent families in the Tulsa area has begun. Families whose names were randomly drawn from the lists many of you provided are being contacted for interviews by one of our research teams.

We want to express our gratitude for the help and time that you have given as we developed the project. Many of you have asked for the results of the study; we will be sharing these with you by mail when they are available. We anticipate that coding of data and analysis will occur during the summer and a preliminary report will be available in the fall.

Again, thank you for your continued interest and encouragement. If you have questions about the study, or if we can be of assistance to you, please contact us at the Family Study Center.

Sincerely,

Sharon Y. Nickols
Director, Family Study Center

Judith A. Powell
Associate Professor

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
Family Study Center
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078

June 29, 1981

name
address
city state zip

Dear greeting :

We would like to express our appreciation for your participation in the project "Managing Resources and Relationships in One-Parent and Two-Parent Families." With your help and that of many other families, the interviewers visited with 30 one-parent and 30 two-parent families before the school year was over. This was our goal and we are happy to have reached it.

It was a special privilege to come into your home and get to know your family. It is especially gratifying to sense the high regard families have for research at Oklahoma State University and the College of Home Economics.

We are now transferring the information provided by the families to computer cards. Toward the end of the summer we can begin some analyses. We will share findings with you as soon as possible. It is so exciting to be working on the first project of this kind in Oklahoma, and indeed, in the nation!

Again, as project directors we thank you and your family for being a part of the project.

Sincerely,

Sharon Y. Nickols
Director, Family Study Center

Judith A. Powell
Faculty Associate

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
College of Home Economics
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078

June 29, 1981

name
title
church
address
city state zip

Dear greeting :

We have completed interviews with 60 families in the Tulsa area for the project on Managing Resources and Relationships in One-Parent and Two-Parent Families. Your help with identifying families enabled us to complete the collection of data from 30 one-parent and 30 two-parent families before school was out. This was our goal and we are happy to have reached it!

It is gratifying to sense the high regard you and the families have for Oklahoma State University and the College of Home Economics. The families had a real understanding of the importance of family research and were very cooperative and interested. It was a special privilege to interview the families in their homes and get to know them.

The graduate students on the project are now coding the data and preparing to start analysis in the fall. We will be sharing the findings of the project with you as soon as possible.

Again, as project directors we thank you and your co-workers for assisting us with the project.

Sincerely,

Sharon Y. Nickols
Director, Family Study Center

Judith A. Powell
Faculty Associate

APPENDIX E

RAW DATA

RESPONSES TO ITEMS IN REPCFTS OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY BY PARENTS AND YOUNGER CHILDREN IN 59 FAMILIES

S T U D Y	F A M I L Y	P A R E N T	S E X	E T A G E	CHILDREN																																																				
					1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36																	
193	2	57	MO	G	3	3	2	2	1	1	3	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	3	3	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	1	1	3	3	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	3	2	2	1	2	1											
194	2	57	YF	B	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	1								
195	2	57	YM	B	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	3	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1							
196	2	56	FA	B	1	1	3	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	3	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1							
197	2	56	MO	G	3	3	2	3	1	1	1	3	3	1	3	1	1	1	3	3	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	1	3	2	1	3	1	1	1	1							
198	2	58	YF	B	1	3	2	2	3	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	3	2	3	2	2	1	3	3	1	1	3	2	2	3	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	2	2	1	3	2	1	2							
199	2	58	YM	B	3	3	3	2	3	1	1	2	3	3	3	1	1	3	3	1	3	1	3	1	1	2	2	3	3	1	3	3	1	3	3	1	3	3	1	3	3	1	1	3	2	2	3	1	2	3	3	3					
200	2	59	FA	B	3	3	3	3	2	1	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	3	2	1	3	1	1	3	3	2	1	2	1	1	1	3	3	1	2	1	1	2	3	1	1	3	1	2	1	3	2	2	1	1	1					
201	2	59	MO	G	3	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	3	2	3	1	1	1	3	2	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	1	2	3	1	1	1	3	3	1	3	1	2	2	1	1	3	2	3	1	1	1		
202	2	59	YF	B	3	3	2	3	3	1	1	3	3	2	3	3	1	1	3	3	1	3	1	1	2	3	2	1	3	1	3	1	3	3	1	3	2	1	3	2	1	3	1	1	1	2	3	1	3	2	3	1	1	1			
203	2	59	YM	B	3	3	2	2	3	1	1	3	2	2	3	3	1	1	3	3	1	1	3	2	2	1	1	3	2	3	3	1	2	1	3	3	1	3	1	1	1	3	3	1	3	1	1	1	2	3	3	1	3	1	1		
204	2	60	FA	B	3	2	3	3	2	2	1	3	1	3	2	2	1	3	2	1	2	1	2	1	3	2	1	2	1	3	1	1	1	3	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	1	2	3	1	1	1			
205	2	60	MO	G	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	3	2	2	3	1	1	1	3	2	1	3	1	1	1	3	2	1	3	1	1	1	5	2	1	3	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	2	1	3	1	1	1			
206	2	60	YF	G	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2			
207	2	60	YM	G	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	3	2	2	3	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

VITA

Jane King Teleki

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: PARENTAL BEHAVIOR IN DIVORCED AND MARRIED FAMILIES

Major Field: Home Economics-Family Relations and Child Development

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Siler City, North Carolina, July 16, 1943; daughter of Hugh Q. and Daphne A. King; wife of Elemér Teleki; mother of Marisa and Jason Teleki.

Education: Graduated from Chatham Central High School, Bear Creek, North Carolina, 1961; received Bachelor of Science degree in Vocational Home Economics Education from East Carolina University in 1965; received Master of Science in Home Economics degree in Family Relations and Child Development from the University of North Carolina at Greensboro in 1967; took doctoral level courses at the University of Oklahoma, 1975-1980; completed requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 1982.

Professional Experience: Graduate teaching assistant, Child Development Laboratory, School of Home Economics, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1965-67; Assistant Professor of Child Development and Head Teacher of Child Development Laboratory, School of Home Economics, University of Oklahoma, 1967-68; Consultant to Head Start as education specialist at national and state levels, 1968-1975; Head Start Planned Variation Specialist for Office of Child Development, Washington, DC, 1970-72; Representative of the Child Development Associate Consortium, Washington, DC, 1974-80; Assistant Professor of Child Development and Early Childhood Education, School of Home Economics, University of Oklahoma, 1974-80; graduate research assistant, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University, 1980-82.

Professional Affiliations: Omicron Nu; Phi Delta Kappa; American Home Economics Association; Oklahoma Home Economics Association; National Association for the Education of Young Children; Oklahoma Association for the Education of Young Children; Southern Association on Children Under Six; Oklahoma Association on Children Under Six; Southwestern Society for Research in Human Development.