

A COMPARISON OF THE MALE PARENTAL INFLUENCE ON
THE INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOR OF YOUNG ADULTS
RELATIVE TO PATTERNS OF COMMUNICATION

By

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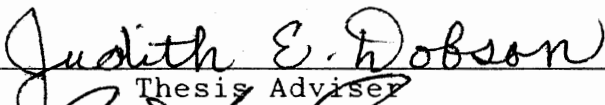
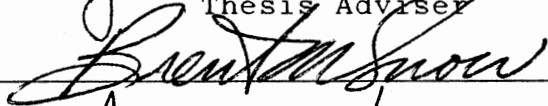
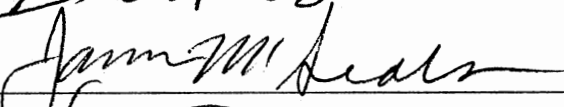
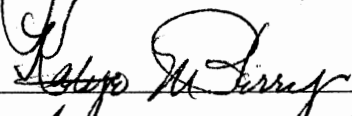
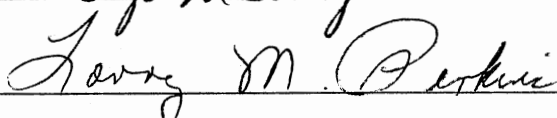
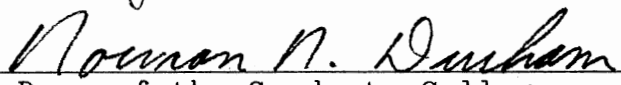
Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
December, 1988

Thesis
1988D
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OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY

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Thesis Approved:


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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is with sincerity and gratitude that I extend my appreciation to the members of my doctoral committee. A very special thanks is extended to Dr. Judith Dobson, my committee chairperson who provided invaluable guidance with unwaivering devotion, relentless patience, and understanding beyond measure. Appreciation also goes to Dr. Katye Perry, for her extensive knowledge, dedication, and caring, which was essential for making a task of this magnitude much easier. Thanks also goes to Dr. Jim Seals, Dr. Brent Snow, and Dr. Larry Perkins for their knowledge, assistance, and suggestions.

Gratitude is generously given to colleagues and friends, such as Dr. Dennis Hellewege, Dr. Terry Shaw, Dr. Mark Sperle, Dr. Bruce Hodson, Randy Jarman, Jean Birbilos all of which gave me enduring support and continuous encouragement throughout this research.

Most of all I give my love and appreciation, in the deepest of sincerity to my wife, Debbie, who never failed in giving me her support, understanding, love, and hours of assistance in research, typing, and valuable suggestions in my endeavor to complete this task. Also, it is with love and pride that I dedicate this research to my stepdaughter, Cynthia Taylor, who assisted me in the library on numerous

occasions, without hesitation. And also I give thanks to my loving sister, Glenda Lee Martin, who has always encouraged, supported, and at times made possible my educational pursuits. And finally I grant thanks to my lovely daughter, Summer Lee Moore whose birth gave me further inspiration to bring this endeavor to completion.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The importance of identification in child development (a development process in which an individual acknowledges and exhibits some aspect of another's characteristics, behaviors, beliefs, values, and/or attitudes) has been accentuated in various theoretical models (McDonald, 1980). According to Freud (1949), the essence of secondary identification involves anxieties which are triggered by the "Oedipal" (p. 63) situation. This results in the child identifying with the same sex parent in an attempt to reduce tension created over the fear of rejection or aggression. Freud (1949) continues that this allows the child to vicariously obtain the affection of the opposite sex parent.

In the context of a social learning model, identification is the process of direct training of children's socialization. Children acquire behavioral repertoires through the process of identifying or modeling with significant others. This process has been defined in behavior theory as "vicarious learning" (Logan, Olmstead, Rosner, Schwartz & Stevens, 1955, p. 149). Kagan (1958) defined the identification process as the acquisition of

cognitive responses within the individual relative to the characteristics, attitudes, motives, and affective states of a model.

The concept of identification as it relates to child development has been primarily investigated through parent-child relationships, particularly the effect of parental influence in determining offspring's vocational choices, attitudes, religious, and political orientations (Acock, Bentgson, 1978; Crites, 1962; Steimel & Suziedelis, 1963; White, 1959). Jurovsky (1948) emphasized the importance of the parent-child relationship relative to children's social development. He suggests, that the personality is largely determined in early years, much of which will continually influence the development of their attitudes beliefs and behaviors throughout life.

Galbo (1983) reiterates the importance of the relationship between adults and children in the identification process, in his opinion, the relationship constitutes a pathway by which society transmits cultural values through generations. Years ago Dewey (1916) stated:

Society exists through a process of transmission quite as much as biological life. This transmission occurs by means of communication of habits, of doing, thinking, and feeling, from the older to the younger (p. 3).

Thus, the significance of the parent-child relationship in

the realm of identification has been historically evident. Unfortunately, the traditional parent-child relationship under the nuclear family model has been disrupted by ever increasing divorce rates. Researchers have already suggested that by the year 2000, the once dominant nuclear family unit will be exceeded by the number of stepparent and/or single-parent families, and one of every two children under the age of 18 will likely live part of their childhood in a stepfamily or single-parent family environment (Bryan, Ganong, Coleman, & Bryan, 1985). To date however, systematic research relative to the effects of parental remarriage and stepfamily living, particularly as it relates to the development and growth of children, is sparse (Levitin, 1979).

Fast and Cain (1966) attempt to bring to light the potential for dysfunction in stepfamily units. They assert that stepparents often are plagued with destructive folklore concerning their roles in the family. As a result, stepparents often are posed with dilemmas relative to the differing roles they are required to assume or not assume. This intrapsychic and interpersonal conflict seems to serve as a catalyst for difficulties that may compound the stepparents uncertainties regarding their appropriate parental roles.

Fast and Cain (1966) further suggest that the emotional reactivity surrounding the insecurities of role

confusion often manifests itself in an acute hypersensitivity of the stepparents dilemma. Therefore, interpersonal tensions become magnified. Although they were not speaking specifically to stepparent-child relations and the process of identification, Filsinger and Lamke (1983) suggest there has been little research which specifically investigates the lineage of interpersonal relationship characteristics.

Statement of the Problem

Studies have indicated that the stepfamily is often plagued with problems relative to confusion of roles and interpersonal relations (Bowerman & Irish, 1962; Linbergh, 1980; Perkins & Kahan, 1979;). According to the Perkins and Kahan study (1979) which compared natural fathers and stepfathers, the stepchild indicates less understanding of the stepfather than did the natural child of the natural father. This study indicates support for the contention that the development of interpersonal relations between the stepchild and stepfather to be poor. They acknowledge that 15 out of 20 of the natural children would seek out guidance from their natural fathers, whereas only 4 out of 20 stepchildren indicate a willingness to do so from their steptfather's.

Bowerman and Irish (1962) indicate that stepparents have not been as successful in obtaining the level of affection and cohesiveness with the stepchild as natural

parents have been able to establish with natural children. Given the relative importance of parental influence in child development and the lack of systematic research encompassing the effects of remarriage and stepfamily living on children, there is a need to study family relationships involving stepchildren. This study is designed to answer the following question: How do interpersonal relations between natural parent and child, and between stepparent and stepchild, influence that child's interpersonal behavior as an adult?

Significance of the Study

Paitich and Langevin (1976) assert that, even though the relationship between child and parent may not be reported accurately by the child as an adult, their perceptions of their relationships with parents is often significant in a therapeutic sense. In fact treatment is often structured around attempting to understand the influence of these early perceptions relative to their attitudes as adults. In their study evaluating the Clarke Parent-Child Relationship Questionnaire, they found that most individuals perceive their parents relative to: (a) the affections expressed by the parents to the child; (b) how strict or aggressive that parent was to the child; (c) the extent of aggression expressed toward the other parent; and (d) the extent to which the individual views each

parent as being competent. Stagner (1948) states:

The manner in which the child perceives his parent (as accepting or rejecting, loving or disliking, tender or harsh to him/her), may be expected to transfer to his/her interpretation of society in general. This relates to the fact that the parent is a model, a pattern which may be imitated by the child or which may be rejected, in which case the child may strive for a completely different pattern (p. 350-352).

There is a need to examine the perceived interpersonal relationships of individuals raised in stepfamilies and intact family units relative to their parents or step-parents. The results of this study could be useful to family and marriage counselors and/or psychotherapists' working with emotional or adjustment difficulties in children stemming from transitional problems associated with stepfamily living. By clarifying to both the practitioner and client the ramifications of dysfunctional interpersonal relations within family units the results may also help those professionals involved in providing services to individuals having difficulty in establishing positive and meaningful interpersonal relationships.

Definition of Terms

Communication patterns. Communication patterns relative to

those perceived by the child in relation to his/her respective father/stepfather will be measured by the Parent-Adolescent Communication inventory and will delineate communication pattern as manifested predominantly by one of the following scales.

Open patterns of communication. This refers to those communications focusing on the freedom or free flowing exchange of information, both factual and emotional as well as the sense of lack of constraint along with degree of understanding and satisfaction experienced in the interaction (Olson & Barnes, 1982).

Closed patterns of communication. This refers to those communications focusing on the negative aspects of communication, hesitancy to share, negative styles of interaction along with selectivity and caution in what is shared. Open or closed lines of communication as reported by the student with parents or stepparents (Olson & Barnes, 1982).

Interpersonal relations behavior. This refers to those behaviors conducive in formulating positive, intimate, and cohesive personal involvement with significant others. The behaviors most relevant to this study are those dimensions of interpersonal behavior as measured by the FIRO-B, affection, control and inclusion (Shutz, 1958).

Affection. Affection refers to which individuals perceive themselves as becoming emotionally involved with others

Ryan, 1977).

Control. Control refers to the degree to which individuals perceive themselves as assuming responsibility, dominating, or deciding, for others (Ryan, 1977).

Inclusion. Inclusion refers to the degree to which individuals perceive themselves as associating with others (Ryan, 1977).

Intact family. Intact family refers to those individuals whose primary family of orientation consisted of being raised by both biological parents.

Stepfamily. Stepfamily refers to those individuals whose primary family of orientation consisted of being raised by one biological parent and a stepparent.

Null Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance:

1. For individuals overall, there will be no significant interaction between their family orientation (natural father versus stepfather), and their perception of communication pattern (open versus closed) with their corresponding stepparent or parent, on perceived levels of expressed affection, inclusion, and control. From this will evolve the following hypotheses:

2. For individuals overall, there will be no significant difference between family orientation (natural father

versus stepfather) on level of expressed affection, inclusion, and control regardless of their perception of communication pattern (open versus closed).

3. For individuals overall, there will be no significant difference between perceived communication patterns (open versus closed) and their perceived level of expressed affection, inclusion, and control, regardless of their family of orientation (natural father versus stepfather).

Limitations

The following limitations are inherent in this study:

1. This study is limited to entry level college students enrolled at two land grant universities, one four year college, and two junior colleges (one in a major metropolitan area and the other in a rural community), all of which are located in the Southwest.

2. The researcher assumes that the data collected from the self-report inventories reflects honest perceptions as to how subjects perceive themselves and their relations with their parents.

3. This study utilized only those subjects having stepfathers from stepfamily orientation and those having natural fathers from intact family orientation, and therefore, the results of this study can only generalize to the population of individuals who possess

similar characteristics.

Organization of the Study

This chapter introduced the topic under investigation. Also included in this chapter was the statement of the problem, significance of the study, definition of the terms, limitations, and hypotheses. Chapter II contains a review of pertinent literature and research. Chapter III, Design and Method, includes a discussion of the subjects, data gathering procedure, instrumentation, methods and statistical analysis of the data. The findings and results of the study are presented in Chapter IV. Chapter V presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter contains a review of the pertinent literature relative to the developmental process of identification and parent-child relationships. This chapter also examines research which focuses on the transmission of behavior from parent to child relative to communication and affection.

Parent-Child Relations and Identification

Parent-child relations along with the concept of identification has long served as an impetus for research relative to the dynamics of personality development. Psychologist and researchers interested in the transmission of behaviors, values, attitudes, and stable patterns of learned behavior look often at the child's immediate environment as being an intricate determinant for psychological functioning and as a place to find influencing variables relative to learned behavior patterns (Cass, 1952).

Bronfenbrenner (1960) gave a very extensive overview concerning the process of identification relative to its function developmental process and attempts to define the

different forms in which identification takes place. This overview captures the broadness with which Freud himself used the concept of identification. In one incidence identification with the father may represent an attachment of the child's ego to that of the father (subject), or in other words that which the child wishes to be. Yet in another sense, identification may represent an attachment of the child's ego to that of the father (object). The distinction between the two lies in the belief that the former type of identification is possible prior to any sexual or objective choice made by the child. According to this definition, Freud (1949), implies that a clearcut distinction between these different modes of identification is very difficult, thus contending that identification is a process of molding and shaping an individual's ego after the fashion of one who has been taken as a model.

Bronfenbrenner asserts that in regarding males, the psychoanalytic concept of the process of identification is much more explicit than it is concerning females because of its direct link to the "Oedipal" complex. For females the motivation for identification is lacking, in that they have no need to fear castration. However, Bronfenbrenner further asserts that in the psychoanalytic sense, anaclitic identification (identification through the loss of a loved object) may serve to explain the process of identification for females.

Brodbeck (1954) implemented a study designed to relate the internalized standards of conduct of young adolescents to the relative influence of their mothers and fathers. The main objective of the study was to test the operational extent to which internalized values are a product of "Oedipal" motivation relative to sextyping. Subjects were all 10 to 14 year old boys and girls who resided in a small rural community in Illinois. The results of the study revealed several interesting aspects of parental influence during child development. At the younger age levels, girls appear to be more heavily influenced by their mothers than their fathers. After the age of 10 and on up to age 14, however, there appears to be a trend for heavier identification with the father. At the younger age level boys appear to be more heavily influenced by their fathers, however, after the age of 10 and on up to the age of 14 there is a tendency for the boy to identify increasingly with their mother. The fathers influence on the boys standard of conduct at almost all age levels from 10 to 14 exceed that of his influence on the girls standard of conduct.

White (1959) examined the relationship between self-concept and parental identification versus junior college girls vocational interests and occupational choices. Subjects consisted of 81 freshman girls from a public junior college in California. The girls performed Q-sorts

on their ideal self-concept, their self-concept and their concept of what their parents would like them to be. Also, each of the girls took the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and gave personal information. Thirty-four pairs of parents were then interviewed, and they also made Q-sorts of the daughters as they would like her to be ideally. The results of the study indicated that the girls' Q-sorts were more like those of their mothers than they were their fathers and all three of the measurements of the self, ideal self, and parental ideal self descriptions. The researcher concluded that women identify more with their mothers than fathers.

Crites (1962) examined the degree to which identification of the child with the mother and father correlated with vocational interest patterns, and the pattern of identification as it is associated with masculinity-femininity of interests. Subjects involved in the study consisted of 350 males, subdivided into three groups, all from the University of Iowa over a period of one year. The results suggested that the degree of identification with fathers is correlated positively with the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (1943). This, however, was not found to be the case with mothers. Relevant to patterns of interest, Crites found that interests were consistent with the degree and kind of parental identification.

Acock and Bengtson (1978) investigated the inter-generational similarities of father-mother youth triads

relative to religious and political orientation. The results indicated support for the influence of parents in socialization of children. In examining the behavioral and attitudinal variables relative to religious and political orientations Acock and Bengtson found that religious behavior was the most highly predictive, giving evidence to the possibility that parent-child similarities are higher as related to behaviors than that of attitudes.

In a comparison of intact family children with step-family children Parish and Copeland (1979) found that young adults of intact family environments revealed self-concepts that were highly related to how they perceived or evaluated their parents. Interestingly, they also found that individuals having a father absent for some extent of time tended to identify more strongly with their mothers and stepfathers than they did with their natural fathers. As Parish and Copeland suggest, it is highly probable that through the process of comparing and contrasting themselves and their parents, individuals gradually develop self-concepts like that of their parents. This appears to be consistent with what Lifshitz (1975) proposed relative to identity, or self-concept:

Identity or self-concept develops as a function of successive comparisons and contrasts between mother, father, and ones self (p. 126).

Lifshitz further claims that self-perception is

analogous to a body situation between two separately perceived poles, the father and the mother, and when one pole is removed or absent, then the child is intuitively drawn to the remaining pole or parent.

Communication as a Factor of Influence

Giffin and Heider (1967) enumerate the significance of communication on child development. They point out that interpersonal communication is the child's pathway through which he/she perceives and receives information about the world around them. Interpersonal communication is the mode by which children reveal themselves to the world. They contend that the significance of early communication lies in the intrinsic value it has, and continues to influence the personality throughout life.

Fallot and Mahl (1976) expound on the variables which are considered in some theories to have major importance in the process of imitative behavior relative to fathers and sons. In psychodynamic theory, the affection of the father would play an integral role in the process of imitative behavior. In social learning theory, "social power" (control of resources) would be seen as central to the process of imitative behavior. These theories suggest that developmental identification would be furthered by a father who is affectionate and rewarding.

Hunter (1985), in a study utilizing 180 subjects

representing adolescents from three age groups, examined adolescent perceptions of discussions with parents and friends relative to the academic/vocational, social/ethical, family and peer domains of their children. The results suggest that both mothers and fathers are perceived as explaining more than they understand of the adolescent in all three domains.

Payne and Mussen (1956), using a sample of 72 boys of the junior and senior high school level, found support for previous clinical thought. Their parents assert that the child's perception of their relations with parents significantly influence the child's development. Boys who perceived their fathers as warm, gratifying, understanding, and rewarding were more likely to identify with their fathers than those who did not perceive their fathers in such a way. Thus, Payne and Mussen, propose that if in fact a boy's perception is determined by his father's behavior and interaction with him, then it can be further implied that fathers who maintain psychologically sound relationships with their sons and who are the source of many rewards, may also facilitate the boys' identification with them.

Mussen and Distler (1959) found further support for this contention. In their study appropriate sex-typing of interests among boys was an indicator of identification with the father. The results of the study revealed, that the more intense the father-son interactions, and the more

salient the child perceived the father, the more likely that the child would identify with the father. Yet it was also emphasized that the father who is highly nurturant and who possesses a high level of power (power being the magnitude of the effect of withdrawing his love) may exert a greater influence on the degree to which that child identifies with him.

Hetherington and Frankie (1967) investigated the effects of parental dominance, warmth, and conflict on the imitation of parents by boys and girls. Subjects consisted of 80 male and female nursery school and kindergarten children and their parents. Parental warmth and dominance were found to be salient variables in identification. However, parental dominance was more important for imitation by boys while maternal warmth was more effective with girls. In addition, support was found for identification with the aggressor under the conditions of a high conflict home where both parents were low in warmth. They conclude that a situation such as this gives the child no warm supportive parent with which to identify so the child may attempt to minimize his/her insecurity by identifying with a powerful punitive model.

Redd, Morris, and Martin (1975) investigated the effects of negative and positive interactions on children's preferences for adults. Five children served as subjects during daily sessions in which each of 3 adults followed

prescribed patterns of social interaction. One adult dispensed positive comments contingent upon either color sorting or completion of arithmetic problems. A second adult dispensed negative comments in the form of mild reprimands to the child for off-task behavior, and a third adult said nothing, thus serving a non-reactive function. Following every session the three adults re-entered and the child chose one of them for an additional period of interaction. Three response measures (frequency, latency, and percent of time on the task) and the children's preferences for adult figures were obtained daily. Results of the study indicated that the negative adult effected the most of task behavior and had the strongest stimulus control. The positive adult, though exerting little control over the children's behavior was the most preferred.

Utilizing 212 male high school students Neapolitan (1981) investigated the relationship of parental identification and communication between parent and child relative to aggressive delinquency. The findings suggest that physical punishment by parents model aggressive behavior and therefore, may contribute to juvenile aggression. The study also gave further support for the social learning proposition that parents positively influence delinquent behavior by providing positive results for such behavior (i.e., the influence of aggressive behavior is increased by extensive and intimate communication between father and

son). The maternal influence when considering communication was not a significant control of aggressive delinquency.

Conger (1977) in reflecting on Neapoliton (1981), suggested that although parents may influence their children's behavior by conditioning through punishments and rewards, of the behaviors they themselves model, the ability to punish or reward lies in the quantity and quality of communication between the child and the parent. Perkins and Kahan (1979) examined the differences of family systems between 40 volunteer stepfather and natural father families. The families consisted of triads representative of a husband, wife and child whose age was between 12 and 15 years old. The instruments utilized in the study were (a) a demographic questionnaire, (b) a semantic differential, (c) an interaction reaction questionnaire, and (d) the Family Concept Q-Sort. An analysis of variance on the data indicated that stepfather family systems are different from natural father family systems along the dimensions of psychological adjustment, perceived goodness and potency, satisfaction with family and reciprocal understanding. Thus, the researchers concluded that differences between the family systems in terms of interpersonal relations and perception effect the entire stepparent family system and its functioning.

As Perkins and Kahan point out, these findings tend to support the family systems model of Kantor and Lehr (1975).

Kantor and Lehr proposed a family systems model which incorporates several subsystems that interact with one another as well as the external environment. The subsystems are the family unit, the interpersonal, and the personal. According to Kantor and Lehr, each subsystem has its own boundaries and own set of interrelated parts, when any two or more of the subsystems meet congruently with one another they are said to have made a successful interface. To be congruent with one another the subsystems have to have similar or agreeing views of the world. If the subsystems do not meet in this fashion, the interface is said to have failed. According to Perkins and Kahan:

Success at interface is vital to the system's functioning and depends upon how the members of the systems or subsystems interact and behave both within themselves and across other systems. It is when the interfaces fail that interpersonal and intrapersonal problems manifest themselves (p. 176-177).

Perkins and Kahan further reiterate on how this is analogous to the communicative dilemmas experienced in stepfamilies relative to interpersonal relations:

If a family member places themselves or is placed in the position of being inside the family perimeter but outside the interpersonal subsystem, they will have a different experiential domain from the other family members and will feel dislocated and cut-off from the

family. This is exactly the experience of many step-parents, they are caught in the intraspace, inside the family perimeter but outside the interpersonal subsystem, that of the children. Likewise, step-children are often caught in the intraspace, without access to the marital interpersonal subsystem (p. 177).

Affection and Modeling

Bandura and Huston (1961) conducted a study involving 45 to 61 month old nursery school children in an effort to determine whether or not incidental learning is a function of the identification process. Of interest is that the findings suggest that children portray a fair amount of social learning in an incidental learning fashion and that nurturance is one avenue which promotes this type of imitative learning. Also the results suggest that mere observation despite poor quality model-child relationships at least in the realm of aggression is a sufficient means by which children may produce imitative behavior indicative of aggression.

Fryrear and Thelen (1969) found evidence that modeled affectionate behavior induces imitative affection in pre-school children. Using 30 boys and 30 girls of nursery school age the researchers concluded that not only was sex of the model and observer important in the imitation of affection, but that there is also an interaction effect

between these two factors. Sex of the model appeared to be significant only when the observers were girls. The results further indicate that males imitate males and females imitate females only when the behavior is perceived by the observer as sex appropriate. When the behavior is seen as sex inappropriate by the observer (not sex-typed), the difference in imitation displayed by the observer, may be of little consequence relative to the effectiveness of male or female models.

Pirot and Schubert (1977) also investigated the effect of modeling affectionate behavior relative to young children. In their study involving 20 girls and 20 boys ranging in age from 3 to 5 years old, they attempted to explore the effects of modeling, "neutral" physical contact, "warm" physical contact, "neutral" verbal contact, and "warm" verbal contact in inducing affectionate behavior in young children. The study revealed that "warm" physical contact by a female experimenter led to a significant increase in affectionate behavior among the children.

Pirot and Acker (1977) investigated the effects of modeling and instruction on imitative and free play affectionate behavior of young children toward a toy object (teddy bear). Utilizing 15 boys and 15 girls from a pre-school in the British Columbia area, they found that children who imitated a male model that was nurturant toward the toy were subsequently more inclined to exhibit nurturant

behavior in a free play testing period. Further, in a second experiment which replicated the first, they found that mere participation without imitation of nurturance and neutral physical contact was not effective in promoting affectionate behavior.

Yarrow and Scott (1972) investigated the influences of the model-child relationship relative to the child's imitative behavior in a laboratory setting. Utilizing two groups, 118 pre-school children were placed in small play groups under the supervision of either a non-nurturant or nurturant caretaker. Based on the results of the study the researchers concluded that nurturance and non-nurturance operate in a unique way in affecting what is imitated by the child. When the child was allowed to observe both aggressive and nurturant behavior from the model, the models nurturance acted to suppress the child's reproduction of aggressive action, while the models non-nurturance had the effect of encouraging the child's portrayal of non-nurturance. Mowrer (1950) found that boys having nurturant fathers indicated similarities in their responses to items on a personality questionnaire. The researchers interpreted this to indicate that the relationship between nurturance and identification is that affectional rewards increase the secondary reinforcing properties of the model and, thus predispose the imitator to reproduce the behavior of the model for the satisfaction these cues provide.

Bowerman and Irish (1962) combined information gained from two separate though related studies. The first study consisted of data collected in Washington State in the spring of 1953, while that of the second study was collected in North Carolina and Ohio in the spring of 1960. In both studies, questionnaires were administered by teachers to junior and senior high school students. The study reflected the involvement of 2,145 stepchildren found among almost 29,000 teenagers who were involved in the two endeavors. The results suggest that when the scores toward stepparents were compared to those toward real parents of the same sex, the majority of stepparents were not able to attain the level of affection and closeness as real parents. The results further indicated that children residing in homes with a stepfather had slightly lower scores in the realm of affectional orientation toward their mothers than those children who remained in unbroken homes. Finally, inspection of the data concerning father-stepmother families revealed that fathers in such family systems were close slightly more often than toward fathers in intact-family systems. However, affectional orientation with the stepmother was often quite low, while adolescents in these family systems tended to experience closer bonds with the real father than with the stepmother.

Summary

The review of the literature in this chapter focused on the nature of identification and modeling relative to such factors as communication and affection. The main objective of the chapter was to present an unbiased account of the literature and research that addresses how parents and significant others can vicariously influence the behaviors, values, and attitudes of children (Acock & Bentgson, 1978; Brodbeck, 1954; Crites, 1962; White, 1959). The review reiterates the importance of parental behavior and functioning where children are concerned, and also reflects the lack of research in the area of transmission of interpersonal behavior from one generation to the next (Filsinger & Lamke, 1983; Levitin, 1978; Lifshitz, 1975). According to the literature identification may enhance a child's social and interpersonal abilities, depending upon whether the process incorporates the attributes of a father or mother who manifests those abilities (Crites, 1962; Parish & Copeland 1979; Payne & Mussen 1956). Identification was also considered a major function of contrasting and comparing oneself to the mother and father in the process of developing a self-concept (Lifshitz, 1975). And finally the literature suggests that on a developmental time frame boys and girls identify more strongly with parents of the opposite gender between the

ages of 10 to 14, and there was some evidence that this subsides in later adolescence and the identification process may reverse with mothers having more influence over daughters, and fathers over son's in some areas, e.g., vocation and self-concept, (Brodbeck 1954). In the realm of communication, the literature was very consistent in attributing how a child perceives and receives information as a major influence on that child's personality development (Giffen & Heider, 1967; Payne & Mussen, 1956, 1959). In essence, some parental communication that involved warmth and understanding was seen as conducive to identification, however the literature also suggests that if aggressive behavior is communicated it may promote the exhibition of the same behavior in the child (Conger, 1977; Hetherington & Frankie 1957).

Relative to the concept of modeling and affectionate behavior, the majority of the literature supports the idea that modeling of the behavior promotes imitation of the behavior, especially when that model is perceived in a positive frame of reference (Bandura & Huston, 1961; Fryrear & Thelan, 1969; Mowrer, 1950; Pirot & Acker, 1977; Pirot & Schubert, 1977; Yarrow & Scott, 1972). Also, in the literature is the demise of stepfamily living and the interpersonal difficulties that stepparents have in establishing positive and meaningful relationships with stepchildren (Bowerman & Irish, 1962; Lindbergh, 1980; Perkins & Kahan, 1979).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study will be to examine the perceived interpersonal relations of individuals raised in stepfamilies with stepfathers and individuals raised in intact families with natural fathers to determine if open or closed communication between individuals and their respective stepfathers or fathers influence their interpersonal behavior as adults. Discussed in this chapter are procedures for the selection and classification of subjects. A description of the instruments and procedure for administration is followed by the research design and the statistical procedure to be used in analyzing the data.

Subjects

Out of an original sample size of 630 undergraduate students, 489 freshmen and sophomores participated in this research study. Subjects were selected from the following secondary educational institutions: a large comprehensive university, a regional university, one four year college, and two junior colleges (one in a major urban area, and the other in a rural community), all of which are located in the

southwest.

Of the educational settings represented 38% of the sample size came from the college setting, of this 16% were male and 22% were female. One of the universities comprised 28% of the sample with 11% being male, and 17% being female. The metropolitan junior college comprised 6% of the sample, 1% being male and 5% being female. The rural junior college comprised approximately 2.5% of the sample, with .005% being male, and .02% female. Finally, the regional university comprised 25% of the total sample with 10.5% being male, and 14.5% being female (see Table 1).

Table 1

Frequency of Students Categorized According to Gender of Subject, College of Enrollment, and Family Orientation

Fam. Orient.		Gender		T
		Male %	Female %	
Natural Father	COLLEGE	61 (.12)	88 (.18)	(.38)
Stepfather	COLLEGE	20 (.04)	20 (.04)	
Natural Father	UNIV. (comp)	47 (.10)	72 (.15)	(.28)
Stepfather	UNIV. (comp)	6 (.01)	12 (.02)	
Natural Father	J. COLL. (rur)	2 (.004)	8 (.016)	(.025)

(table continues)

		Gender		
Fam. Orient.		Male %	Female %	T
Stepfather	J. COLL. (rur)	1 (.002)	1 (.002)	
Natural Father	UNIV. (reg)	45 (.09)	62 (.13)	
Stepfather	UNIV. (reg)	7 (.014)	8 (.016)	(.25)
Natural Father	J. COLL. (urban)	5 (.01)	19 (.04)	
Stepfather	J. COLL. (urban)	1 (.002)	4 (.008)	(.06)

The frequency of students according to gender, family orientation, and pattern of communication was recorded, and presented in Table 2. The natural father group comprised 409 subjects with 160 being male and 249 being female. The stepfather group comprised 80 subjects with 35 being male and 45 being female. However, 14 of the stepfather subjects who either did not identify themselves as stepchildren or natural parent children on the demographic data sheet, or who identified themselves as natural parent children on the demographic data sheet and then answered their Parent-Adolescent Communication inventories as stepchildren were acknowledged and recorded in this study as stepchildren. This left 409 natural father subjects, which represents 83% of the participants, while the stepfather group comprised 17% of the total sample. The Parent-

Adolescent Communication Inventory was utilized as the definitive criteria as to which family of orientation the subject would be considered, over the demographic data sheet simply because subjects were informed to answer the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory according to the parents they identified with and as having the most parental influence in their lives. Relative to patterns of communication, 69% of the males and 69% of the females having stepfathers indicated open communication with their stepfathers. Of the natural father subjects 42% of the males reported having open communication with their fathers, and 40% of the females also reported open communication with their fathers.

Table 2

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Gender,
Family of Orientation, and Pattern of Communication

Gender					
		Male		Female	T%
Pattern of Comm.	Open	Closed		Open	Closed
<u>Fam. Orient.</u>					
Stepfather	24(.69)	11(.31)		31(.69)	14(.31) (.17)
Natural Father	67(.42)	93(.58)		100(.40)	149(.60) (.83)

Classification of Subjects

The Demographic Data Sheet (Appendix A) was completed by all subjects. Two items were used to separate individuals into categories of entry level students of freshmen/sophomore and natural-family/stepfamily, these items were number 2 and 4 respectively. Further delineation of whether the individual of stepfamily orientation was later made utilizing the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Olson & Barnes, 1983), simply by noting if the individual answered relative to a stepmother or stepfather; those that answered indicating stepmother were not utilized in the study. In order for individuals to be classified as stepfather participants, they had to identify themselves as a stepchild on the demographic data sheet as well as answer the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory indicating a natural mother and stepfather family of orientation. The demographic data sheet further identifies the sample relative to the following: sex, ethnicity, age at onset of becoming a stepchild (if applicable), developmental age categories at onset (5-12/13-18), length of time spent in a single parent household, choice of living arrangement (whether living with either parent after divorce was a matter of choice), if a stepchild--was parents separation due to death or divorce, how many if any natural siblings lived in the household of which the individual grew

up, how many if any step-siblings in the household of which the individual grew up, whether the the individual grew up with any older same sex siblings either natural or step-sibling.

Table 3 identifies frequency of subjects according to gender, and age category at onset of becoming a stepchild. As indicated, 57% of the stepchildren were female and 43% were male. Of these, 70% became stepchildren within the 5 through 12 age range, while the remaining 30% became stepchildren within the 13 through 18 age range. Relative to gender, 27% of the males were represented in the 5 through 12 age range while 16% were represented in the 13 through 18 age range. Females comprised 43% of the 5 through 12 age range, while they represented only 14% in the 13 through 18 age range.

Table 3

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Gender, Age at Onset of Becoming a Stepchild

Age at Onset	Gender		T%
	Male	Female	
5-12	22 (.27)	34 (.43)	(.70)
13-18	13 (.16)	11 (.14)	(.30)

Frequency of the subjects categorized according to gender, family of orientation, and ethnic background is presented in Table 4. Native Americans represented 12% of the total sample with 7% being female, and 5% being male. Of the natural father group, 7% were female and 4% were male. Of the stepfather group, the Native Americans comprised 15% of the sample with 10% being male and 5% being female.

Blacks represented only 4% of the total sample with 2% being female and 2% being male. The majority of students were caucasian representing 81% of the total sample. Of these, males indicating natural fathers comprised 26%, while males indicating stepfathers comprised only 5% of the sample. Caucasian females indicating natural fathers comprised 42%, while those indicating having stepfathers comprised only 7% of the sample size. The remaining 3% of the sample were represented by those indicating other ethnic backgrounds.

Table 4

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Gender,
Family Orientation, and Ethnic Background

		Gender		
		Male %	Female %	T%
Natural Father	NATIVE AMER.	16 (.04)	28 (.07)	(.12)
	BLACK	6 (.01)	8 (.02)	(.03)
	CAUCASIAN	128 (.31)	204 (.50)	(.81)
	OTHER	8 (.02)	7 (.02)	(.04)
Stepfather	NATIVE AMER.	8 (.10)	4 (.05)	(.15)
	BLACK	0 (0)	4 (.05)	(.05)
	CAUCASIAN	26 (.32)	36 (.45)	(.78)
	OTHER	1 (.01)	1 (.01)	(.02)

Table 5 indicates the frequency of subjects categorized according to gender, ethnic background, and pattern of communication. Native American males expressing open communication with their respective fathers or stepfathers represented 38% of the male Native American sample. Native American females expressing open communication with their respective fathers or stepfathers

represented 47% of the female Native American sample. Of the male native Americans, 62% expressed closed communication with their respective fathers or stepfathers, while 53% of the Native American females expressed closed communications with their respective stepfathers or natural fathers. Of the caucasian males, 48% expressed open communications with their fathers or stepfathers, while 78% of the males represented by other ethnic backgrounds also expressed having open communication with their respective fathers or stepfathers. Caucasian females indicated that 44% of their group expressed open communication with their respective fathers or stepfathers. Further, 63% of the females represented by other ethnic backgrounds expressed open communications with their fathers or stepfathers. Of the black females sampled, 50% indicated open communications, while there were no black males expressing open communication with their respective fathers or stepfathers.

Table 5

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Gender,
Ethnicity, and Pattern of Communication

Pattern of Communication		Gender	
		Male	Female
Open	NATIVE AMERICAN	9 (.38)	15 (.47)
	BLACK	0 (0)	6 (.50)
	CAUCASIAN	74 (.48)	105 (.44)
	OTHER	7 (.78)	5 (.63)
Closed	NATIVE AMERICAN	15 (.62)	17 (.53)
	BLACK	6 (1.0)	6 (.50)
	CAUCASIAN	80 (.52)	135 (.56)
	OTHER	2 (.22)	3 (.37)

Table 6 presents the frequency of subjects according to gender, pattern of communication, and time spent in a single parent household before becoming a stepchild. Of the total sample of subjects, 15% lived in a single parent home for 6 months to 1 year before becoming stepchildren. Of this, 12% indicated open communication with their stepfather while 3% expressed closed communications with their respective stepfathers. Further delineation indicates that 30% of the

subjects representing the total sample lived in a single parent household for 1 to 2 years before becoming step-children. Of this, 18% expressed open communication with their stepfathers while 12% expressed closed communications with their stepfathers. Continued examination reveals that 17% of the sample consists of subjects that lived in a single parent home for 2 to 3 years before becoming step-children, of which 12% expressed open communications with their stepfathers and the remaining 5% expressed closed communications with their stepfathers. Finally, 38% of the total sample is represented by subjects who lived in a single parent home for 3 years or longer before becoming a stepchild. Of this, 23% indicated open communications with their respective stepfathers, while the remaining 15% expressed closed communications with their stepfathers (see Appendix B).

Table 7 categorizes subjects according to gender, family of orientation, and older same sex siblings. As indicated, 44% of the male subjects from natural father families had at least one older brother in the household of which he was raised, while 29% of the male subjects from stepfather families were raised with at least one older brother. Further, 41% of the female subjects from natural father families had at least one older sister in the home of which she was raised, while 34% of those females raised in stepfather indicated at least one older sister in the

household of which she was raised (see Appendix B).

Frequency of subjects according to family of orientation, and number of natural siblings living in the same household was recorded and presented in Table 8. As indicated, 34% of those raised in natural father families had at least one natural sibling, 25% had at least two natural siblings, 12% had at least three natural siblings, and 14% had four or more natural siblings in the home of which they were raised. Also 44% of those subjects raised in stepfather families indicated at least one natural sibling, 29% had two natural siblings, 13% had three natural siblings and 11% had four or more natural siblings in the household of which they were raised (see Appendix B).

Table 9 presents frequencies according to gender, and number of stepsiblings living in the same household. Examination of the data reveals that 25% of the stepchildren subjects had at least one stepsibling living in the household of which they were raised, 21% had at least two, 6% had at least three or more stepsiblings living in the household of which they were raised (see Appendix B).

Overall, 60% of the subjects were male, 40% female, with 70% of the stepfather subjects classified in the 5 through 12 age category, and 30% being in the 13 through 18 age category. Of the stepchildren subjects, 86% indicated their parents separation as due to divorce, while 14% identified death as the cause of separation. Also 54% of

the stepchildren subjects claimed to not have been given a choice as to which parent to live, while 46% indicated they were given a choice.

The aforementioned frequencies are based on the data relative to the primary analysis for which this study was directed, however because of concern for gender having an underlying effect on the results, a secondary analysis was incorporated utilizing gender of subject as an independent variable and eliminating pattern of communication.

Unfortunately, the sample frequencies relative to the secondary analysis do not coincide with the frequencies of the primary analysis. The discrepancy is identified by the following: 423 subjects indicated on the demographic data sheet that they were natural father children. Of these 423 subjects, nine answered their Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory as stepfather children, and since the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory took precedence over the demographic data sheet, they were included in the study as stepchildren. This then left 414 natural father children. However, five of these students did not identify themselves as either natural father or stepfather children, and therefore were included as stepchildren because they answered their Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventories as stepchildren, bringing the total number of natural father children to 409, leaving 80 stepfather children for an overall total of 489 subjects.

In the secondary analysis, however, the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory was eliminated and as a result, out of the 409 natural father subjects, the nine who specified natural-father status and answered the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory stepchildren were included as natural father children because the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory was not used to designate otherwise. This brought the natural father subject total to 418. The 5 that failed to identify themselves as either natural father or stepfather subjects on the demographic data sheet were also included as natural father students, bringing the total natural father subjects to 423 and leaving 66 stepfather subjects for an overall total of 489 subjects.

Instrumentation

The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory

The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Olson & Barnes, 1983), is a self-report, group administered scale containing 20 items designed to measure aspects of the parent-adolescent interaction. Responses are made on a Likert-type scale with a five point scale of agreement (5) to disagreement (1). Scores for determining open communication between the student and the respective parent/stepparent were obtained by adding the responses of

the subscale which included items 1, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 16 and 17. To obtain closed communication scores the response values of items 2, 4, 5, 11, 12, 15, 18, 19 and 20 were added and subtracted from 60. The two subscale scores are then added together and the resulting score determines whether the communication between the individual and that parent is predominantly closed or open based on the mean of total score norms of adolescents relative to their parents.

The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory was used to categorize the intact and stepfamily participants into the various groups relative to open or closed communication between individuals and their respective parent or stepparent. Selection of this instrument was based on rapidity, ease of administration, and as a reliable as well as valid means of obtaining an estimate of the individual's self-report on perceived communication with the respective parent or stepparent. The instrument contains items that are appropriate for entry level undergraduate students as it was normed with high school and university students.

Reliability. Assessment of the internal consistency reliability on the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory was made using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliabilities, when computed over two samples and a composite of these two samples, (a) $n=925$; (b) $n=916$; (c) total $n=1,841$, was .87 for positive/open communications with specific family members, and .78 for negative/problematic or

closed communications with specific family members.

Validity. Construct validity of the inventory was established utilizing factor analyses, employing both principle factoring and varimax rotation. As a result of the analyses, three main components emerged, and were given the following names: (a) open communications; (b) closed communications (c) selective communications. Due to the preference of the authors of the first two factors and considering that the third factor was conceptually part of the other two, only the first two factors, open communications and closed communications, were utilized in developing the final form of the inventory.

The FIRO-B

The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior Inventory (FIRO-B) was developed by Schutz (1958) as a self-report inventory consisting of 54 items which assess an individual's perceived interpersonal behavior relative to the dimensions of inclusion, control, and affection (Schutz, 1958). The inventory is scored by use of the Likert scale of which respondents choose from among six responses the one which best describes their behaviors relative to each item. The response values for each item are based on cut-off points for either acceptance or rejection of that item. Respondents have nine opportunities to accept or reject each of the six basic questions

concerning expressed (e) and wanted (w) levels of behavior on each of the three dimensions of inclusion, control, and affection. Scoring consists of weighting the response values that match the keyed response value and summing the weights for a composite score on each of the behavioral dimensions of interpersonal relations. Norms are based on samples of children and youths ranging in age from 13 up to college level.

Reliability. Test-retest reliability coefficients (Bloxom, 1978) were high for all the subscales in the FIRO-B ($r = .70$ or higher). The correlations among the FIRO-B subscales of inclusion, control and affection range from .06 to .49 with enough significance to suggest the scales are not independent. Bloxom (1978) reports that this lack of independence should not be interpreted as indicating poor test construction. He contends that expressed and wanted inclusion reflect similar needs, i.e., the need for inclusion, as do expressed and wanted affection, i.e., the need for affection; and that the need for inclusion is slightly and positively related to one's need for affection.

Validity. Using the Spearman (ρ) correlation Gluck (1979) found that actual and predicted FIRO-B scores in a college student population ($n = 23$) suggested a true relationship at the $p < .01$ level with each subscale obtaining a (ρ) above .89. From this study, Gluck concludes the FIRO-B shows evidence of construct validity in so far as

respondents can recognize the constructs of inclusion, control, and affection in their own behavior

Research Design

The design used for this study was causal-comparative. This is selected because of the feasibility of random selection and the need to obtain information relative to differences between groups whose members represent individuals raised in stepfamily homes and natural family homes while focusing on the interpersonal relations they have with their stepfather or father. A total of four groups of subjects were involved in the study. The first group consisted of those subjects who expressed open communication with their father, while a second group consisted of those subjects who expressed open communication with their stepfather. Those subjects who were raised in natural family homes and who express closed communication with their father comprised group three and those subjects who were raised in natural family homes expressing closed communication with their stepfather comprised group four. For statistical analysis, these four groups provided a comparison between stepfathers with natural fathers relative to the dimensions of interpersonal behavior as measured by the FIRO-B.

Procedure

Subjects enrolled as freshmen and sophomore students at two universities, one large comprehensive university, and a regional university, one four year college, and two junior colleges (one in a major metropolitan area, and the other in a rural community), all located in the Southwest were administered the FIRO-B, the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory and asked to sign a release for participation and complete a short demographic form. The written instructions on the cover sheet were read aloud (see Appendix C).

Once the inventories were completed and data collected, participants were assigned to a group according to their match with the characteristics of one of two independent variables needed to test each hypothesis. The two independent variables were:

Family of orientation with two levels:

- (1) subjects raised in a stepfamily with a stepfather.
- (2) subjects raised in an intact family with a natural father.

Communication pattern of the individual with his/her respective stepfather or father with two levels:

- (1) closed communication patterns.
- (2) open communication patterns.

After attaining information from the subjects relative

selected from the initial 630 subjects utilizing a stratified random sampling. Following this, 75 subjects were omitted because of not meeting the criteria of freshmen/sophomore or stepfather classification.

Table 10 identifies the four groups of which the participants were divided relative to their match with the two independent variables.

Table 10

Summary of Research Design

Family of Orientation	Patterns of Communication
Natural Father	Open
Stepfather	Open
Natural Father	Closed
Stepfather	Closed

SPSS* Manova (Nie, 1983) was used to analyze the data utilizing a between subjects method. Clarification of interactional effects as well as main effects was done with appropriate comparisons of the means, and Eta Squared provided a Strength of Association.

Following the results of the aforementioned analyses, specific comparisons of the means were made to establish significance between selected cell means. This procedure

provided further information concerning the relationship of the independent variables of Family of Orientation and Patterns of Communication.

Statistical Analysis

A Between Subjects Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) procedure was used in order to determine statistical significance between the groups. More specifically, a 2x2 multivariate analysis of variance was used to test hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 as illustrated in Figure 1. Scores for individual subjects were computed and group means for each group was calculated relative to the three dependent variables of inclusion, control, and affection. An experimentwise error rate of $p < .05$ was used to test each hypothesis.

Summary

Chapter III has presented a description of the subjects, methods, and nature of the study relative to interpersonal relations behavior and family environment. This chapter also presented the procedure for determining if significant differences in interpersonal relations behavior exists between subjects raised in intact families with natural fathers and those raised in stepfamilies. A total of 489 entry level college students participated in this study. Each student was given two inventories designed to

obtain information about interpersonal relations; (a) the FIRO-B, to assess how the student perceives him/herself, and (b) the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory, to assess the student's interpersonal relations (open or closed) with their respective parents or stepparents.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the statistical analyses of the data which were collected for this study. Specifically, the results of the three null hypotheses are presented, and where appropriate, are followed by posteriori comparisons between selected cell means. Prior to the chapter summary, a secondary analyses is interpreted in an effort to clarify a lack of accountability regarding the variance in the linear combination of interpersonal relations behavior relative to the primary analyses.

Tests of the Null Hypotheses

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1983), the Multivariate Analysis assumptions of multivariate normality and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices are robust to modest violation if the sample sizes are unequal and Box's M test is not rejected at $p < .001$, and if the sample size is large enough to produce at least 20 degrees of freedom. Both of these conditions were met in this analysis. Outliers were checked through SPSS^x (Nie, 1983) by the

within cell normal and detrended normal plots. It was not found necessary to eliminate any data.

A 2x2 between subjects multivariate analysis of variance, using Wilks' Lambda, produced a significant interaction effect [(F 3, 483)= 3.02, $p < .05$]. No significant main effects were observed. All scores are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Multivariate Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source	Test Name	Value of F.	D.F.	Sig. of F
Family Orient.	Wilks' Lambda	.33787	3,483	.798
Pattern Comm.	Wilks' Lambda	1.08758	3,483	.354
Fam. or Pat. Comm.	Wilks' Lambda	3.01653	3,483	.030

The cell means and standard deviations of the data are presented in Table 12. As inspection of the table reveals the highest mean scores for both male and female in both natural father and stepfather family of orientation were relative to expressed levels of inclusion. The lowest scores for subjects overall were in expressed levels of control.

Table 12

Cell Means and Standard Deviations for Subjects

Interpersonal Behavior	Family Orientation	Patt. Comm.	Mean	S.D.
Ex. Affection	Stepfather	Open	3.4884	2.2506
		Closed	3.5652	2.6255
	Nat-father	Open	3.6704	2.2704
		Closed	4.0041	2.3490
Ex. Inclusion	Stepfather	Open	4.5814	2.2911
		Closed	4.4783	2.2937
	Nat-father	Open	4.4022	2.2623
		Closed	4.9098	2.1276
Ex. Control	Stepfather	Open	1.6744	2.0670
		Closed	3.0435	2.3641
	Nat-father	Open	2.4134	2.2628
		Closed	2.1189	2.3426

Hypothesis 1. For students overall, there will be no significant interaction between their family orientation (natural father versus stepfather) and their perception of communication pattern (open versus closed) with parent/step-parent, on perceived levels of expressed affection, inclusion, and control.

A 2x2 between subjects multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine if a significant interaction between family orientation and pattern of communication existed. The interaction effect was found to indicate a significant difference between the groups relative levels of expressed control, according to Wilks' Lambda with 1 and 485 degrees of freedom, beyond the .05 level of significance. Support for the dependent construct from the univariate F's was found for expressed levels of control ($F = 6.95$, $df = 1$, 485). A measure of Strength of Association for the multivariate test as determined by Eta squared indicates that 2% of the variance in the linear combination of interpersonal relations behavior is accounted for by family orientation and pattern of communication between students and their respective fathers or stepfathers. Eta square for the univariate analysis indicated that 1.5% of the variance for interpersonal relations behavior was accounted for by expressed control. This was further confirmed by use of the Roy-Bargman Stepdown F-Tests (see Table 13). Consequently the Null Hypothesis was rejected. Because the comparison only involved two groups, post hoc utilizing contrasts were not performed. The means of the significant data were compared, however, to determine the nature of the interaction using a $p < .05$ as the level of significance.

Table 13

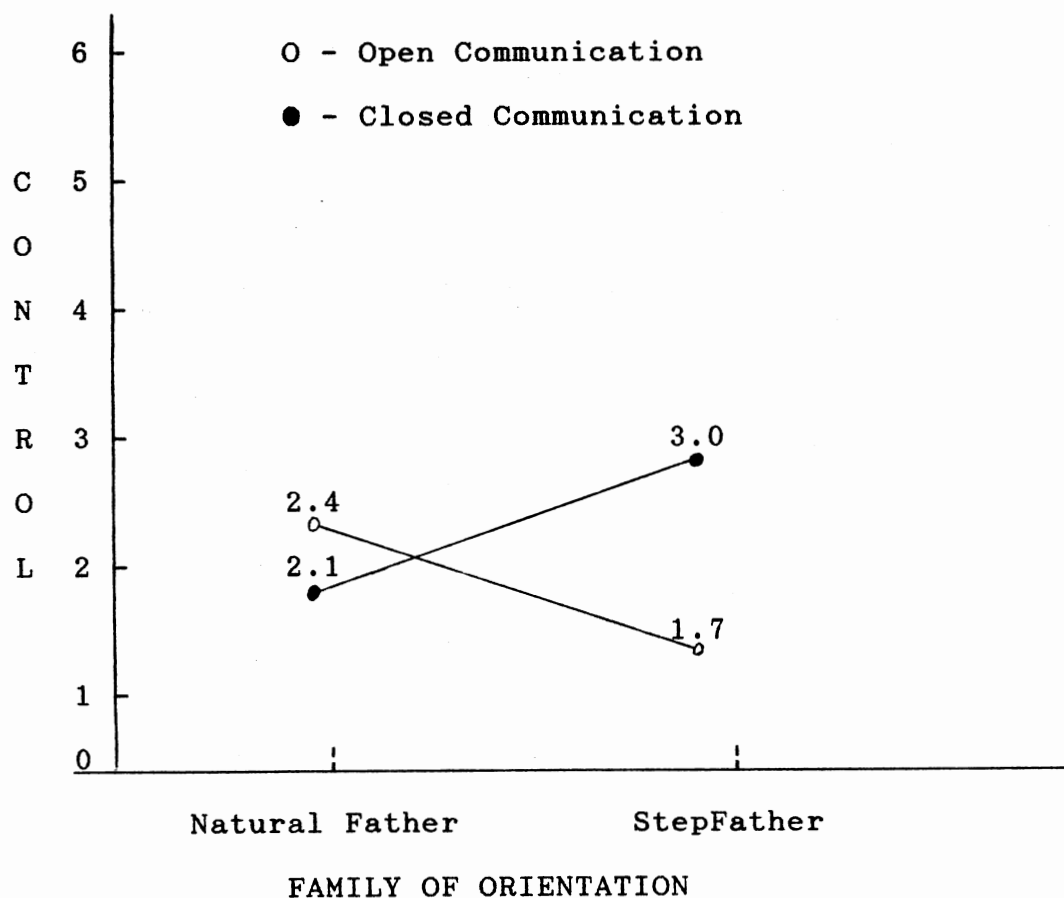
Results of F Test for the Interaction Effect

Component	Test	F	D.F	Sig of F
Expressed Control	Stepdown F	6.89331	1,484	.009
	Univariate F	6.89534	1,485	.009

A graph of the cell means is presented in Figure 2 to clarify the interaction. By inspection, the means of those participants in the natural father group having closed patterns of communication are considerably lower in levels of expressed control than those participants having stepfathers and indicating closed patterns of communication. In comparison those participants having natural fathers and indicating open patterns of communication have considerably higher levels of expressed control than those participants having stepfathers and indicating open patterns of communication.

Figure 1

Interpersonal Behavior Scale Means of Expressed Control as Related to Family Orientation and Pattern of Communication



Hypothesis 2. For students overall, there will be no significant difference between family orientation (natural father versus stepfather) on level of expressed affection, control, and inclusion, regardless of their perception of pattern of communication (open versus closed).

orientation was not significant [$F(3, 483) = .33787$, $p = .798$]. This is not surprising considering that the overall strength of association for both family orientation and pattern of communication accounted for only 2% of the variance in the linear combination of interpersonal relations behavior. Therefore, this non-significant effect appears only to establish that most of the variance is accounted for by other factors. As a result, Hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 3. For students overall, there will be no significant difference between perceived communication patterns (open versus closed) and level of expressed affection, control, and inclusion, regardless of the students family orientation (natural father versus stepfather).

As indicated by Table 11, the main effect for pattern of communication was not significant [$F(3, 483) = 1.08758$, $p = .354$]. Again, considering that the overall strength of association for both family orientation and pattern of communication accounted for only 2% of the variance in the linear combination of interpersonal relations behavior this finding was not surprising. As a result, Hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

Post hoc comparisons of selected cell means was done utilizing Tukeys (a) test for confounded means. Table 14

reveals that specific comparisons relative to the interaction effect of family orientation and pattern of communication relative to expressed control were significantly different. The level of significance was .05.

Table 14

Summary of Post Hoc Comparisons for Family Orientation and Pattern of Communication Relative to Expressed Control

Family Orientation	Pattern of Communication	Differences Between Cell Means			
		<u>Natural Father</u>		<u>Stepfather</u>	
		Open	Closed	Open	Closed
Stepfather	Open	.739	.4445		
	Closed		.6301*	1.3691*	
Nat. Father	Open				
	Closed	.2945			.9246*

Secondary Analyses

In an effort to clarify the results of the preceding analysis relative to the lack of accountability for variance in interpersonal relations behavior, a secondary analysis was implemented. This analysis involved the elimination of

patterns of communication as an independent variable, subsequently replacing it with gender of subject. Because this is a secondary analyses no hypotheses were generated.

Again the assumptions of multivariate normality and homogeneity of variance-covariance were met relative to a Box M test which was not rejected at $p < .001$, and a sample size large enough to produce at least 20 degrees of freedom (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1983). Outliers were checked through SPSS^x (Nie, 1983) by within cell normal and detrended plots. It was not found necessary to eliminate any data.

A 2x2 between subjects multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine if a significant interaction between family orientation and gender of subject existed. No interaction effects were found to be significant. The multivariate test for the main effect of gender of subject, however, did indicate a significant difference between groups relative to levels of expressed affection and expressed control, according to Wilks' Lambda with 3 and 483 degrees of freedom, at beyond the .05 level of significance. All scores are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Multivariate Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source	Test Name	Value of F.	D.F.	Sig.of F.
Fam. Orient.	Wilks' Lambda	.67816	3,483	.566
Gender	Wilks' Lambda	4.3966	3,483	.005*
Fam.or Gender	Wilks' Lambda	.30926	3,483	.819

The cell means and standard deviations of the data are presented in Table 16. As inspection of the table reveals the highest scores for both male and female in both natural father and stepfather family orientation were relative to expressed levels of inclusion. The lowest scores for subjects overall were in expressed levels of control.

Table 16

Cell Means and Standard Deviations for Subjects

Interpersonal Behavior	Family Orientation	Gender	Mean	S.D.
Ex. Affection	Stepfather	Male	3.2286	2.4264
		Female	3.8667	2.4643
	Nat-Father	Male	3.3500	2.1521
		Female	4.1888	2.3539
Ex. Inclusion	Stepfather	Male	4.4000	2.2906
		Female	4.4667	2.3218
	Nat-Father	Male	4.3812	2.2088
		Female	4.9398	2.1516
Ex. Control	Stepfather	Male	2.4286	2.2659
		Female	1.6000	2.1574
	Nat-Father	Male	2.6312	2.4123
		Female	2.0602	2.2253

Support for the dependent construct from the univariate F's was found for the expressed levels of affection ($F = 6.720$, $df = 1,485$), and expressed control. A measure for Strength of Association for the multivariate test indicates that 2.5% of the variance in the linear combination of interpersonal relations behavior is accounted for by Gender of Subject.

Eta square for the univariate analysis indicated that 1.3% of the variance for interpersonal relations behavior was accounted for by expressed affection and 1.2% was accounted for by expressed control. This was further confirmed by use of the Roy-Bargman Stepdown F-Tests (see Table 17).

Table 17

Results of F-Test for the Main Effect of Gender

Component	Test	F	D.F.	Sig. of F
Ex. Affection	Stepdown F	6.72038	1,485	.010
	Univariate F	6.72038	1,485	.101
Ex. Control	Stepdown F	6.36128	1,485	.012
	Univariate F	6.14323	1,485	.014

Subsequently the secondary analyses utilizing Gender of Subject does not enhance clarification of a lack of accountability of variance in the linear combination of interpersonal relations behavior. A graph of the cell means is presented in Figure 3 to clarify the main effect of gender of subject relative to expressed levels of affection.

Figure 2

Interpersonal Behavior Scale Means of Expressed Affection as
Related to Gender of Subject

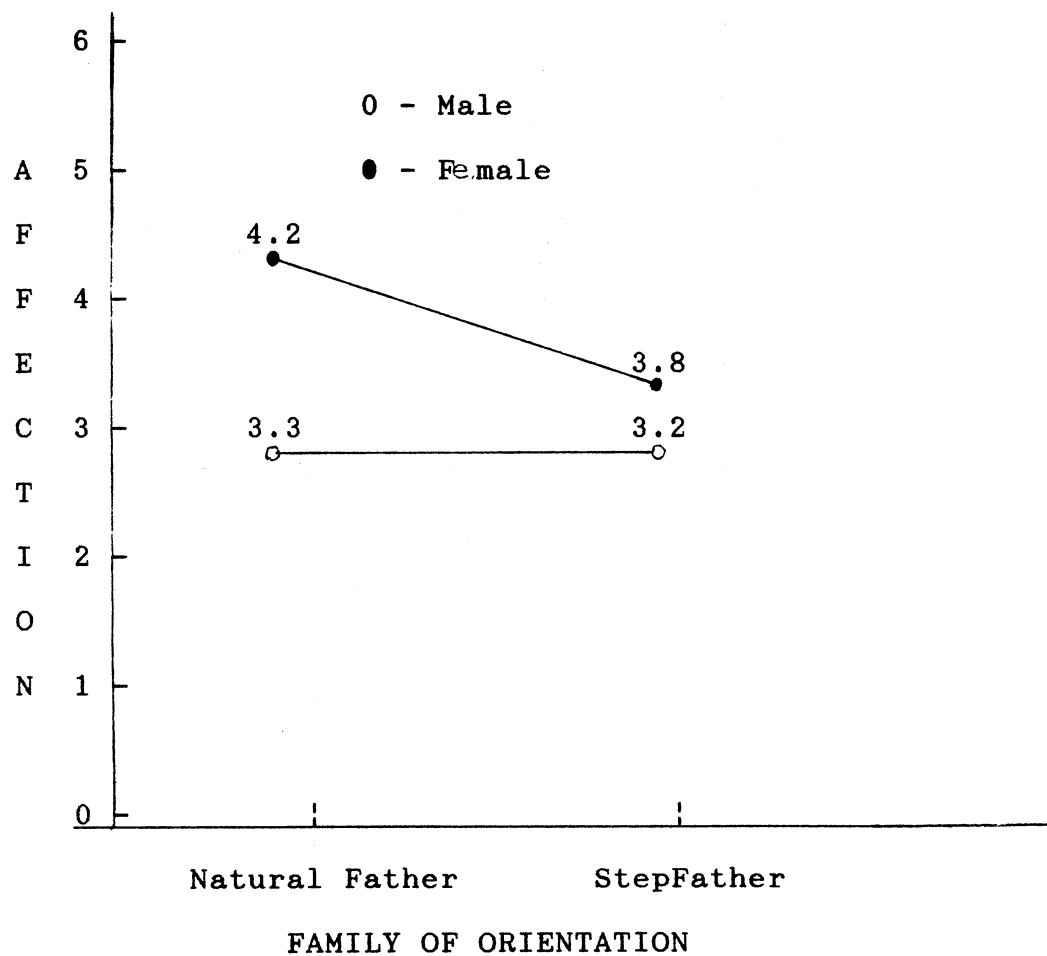
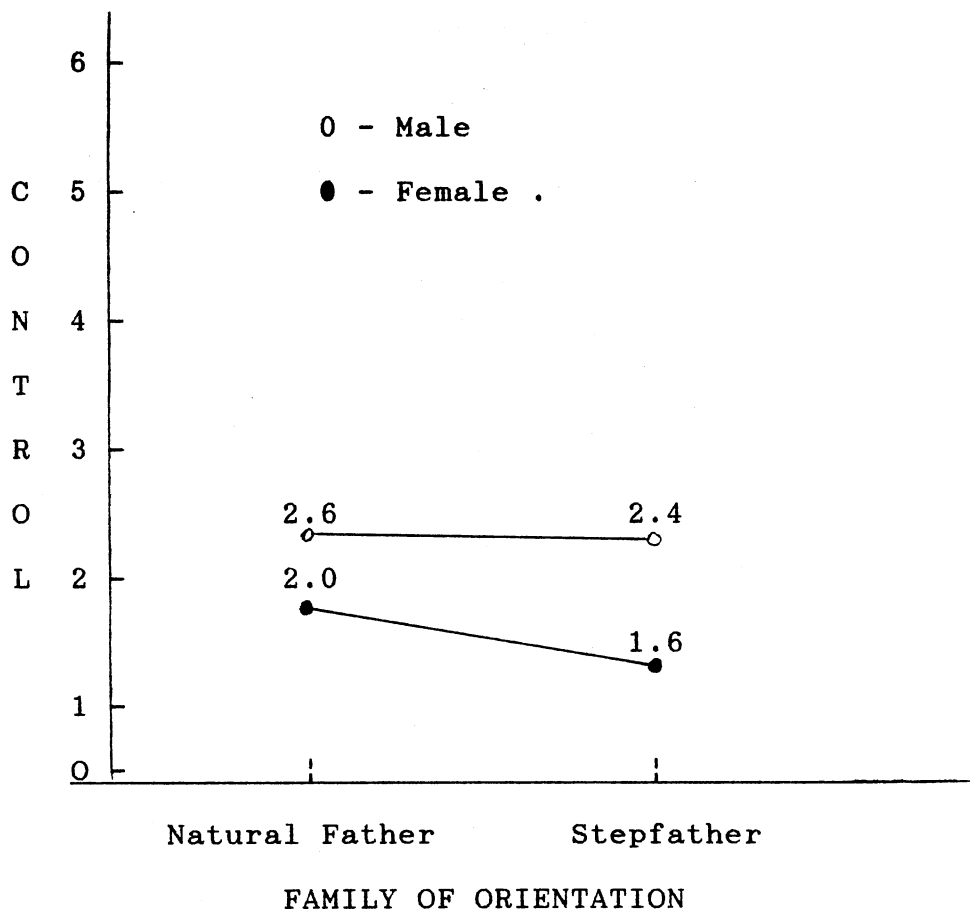


Figure 3 presents a graph of the cell means to clarify the main effect of gender relative to expressed levels of control. By inspection of the means, females expressed higher levels of affection than males irregardless of family

environments expressed higher levels of affection than both males and females in the stepfather group. Relative to expressed control, males in both stepfather and natural father groups expressed higher levels than females overall. Again, those raised in natural father environments expressed slightly higher levels of control than did those raised by stepfathers. The slightly larger natural father cell size in the analysis is accounted for relative to the subsequent elimination of the patterns of communication. In short, those 14 students who either identified themselves as natural father children or did not identify themselves as natural father or stepfather but answered their Parent-Adolescent Communication inventories as stepfather children were included in this analysis as natural father students simply because the Parent-Adolescent Communication inventory was not utilized to delineate the categories. Therefore the demographic data sheet became the definitive criteria for group selection and the total number of participants remained the same.

Figure 3

Interpersonal Behavior Scale Means of Expressed Control as
Related to Gender of Student



Summary

Presented in this chapter are the results of this study, which include the statistical analyses and interpretation of the data collected. Two separate 2x2 between subjects multivariate analyses of variance were performed, as well as posteriori comparisons of selected

primary multivariate analysis, a brief interpretation was given relative to the three hypotheses generated for this study. Subsequently, another multivariate analyses was undertaken in an effort to clarify inquiries made relative to the primary analyses.

For students overall, the analysis resulted in the rejection of Hypothesis 1. However, Hypotheses 2 and 3, which dealt with the main effects of family orientation and communication patterns failed to be rejected. Through graphing of the interaction, those students having natural fathers and indicating open patterns of communication have considerably higher levels of expressed control than those students having stepfathers and indicating open communications. Further comparison of the selected cell means also indicated that students reporting closed communications with stepfathers have considerably higher levels of expressed control. Expressed affection and expressed inclusion did not significantly contribute to the variance in the dependent construct of interpersonal relations behavior and therefore were not considered in the interpretation. There were no significant main effects.

Finally, the secondary analyses consisted of eliminating the independent variable of pattern of communication and replacing it with gender of subject in an attempt to clarify the lack of accountability for variance in the linear combination of interpersonal relations

behavior. Since this was not the primary directive for this study, no hypotheses were generated. Although inspection of the data failed to reveal a significant interactional effect, it did reveal a significant main effect for gender of subject. Further inspection of the univariate F's also gave support for the dependent construct relative to expressed affection as well as expressed control.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the differences in the interpersonal relations behavior of subjects raised in natural father family orientations and those raised in stepfather family orientations relative to pattern of communication. Specifically, the dimensions of interpersonal relations behavior studies were inclusion, control, and affection as measured by the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior inventory (Schutz, 1958). Patterns of communication was measured by the Parent-Adolescent Communication inventory (Barnes & Olson, 1982). Students were from one comprehensive university, one regional university, one four year college, and two junior colleges (one in a major metropolitan area, and the other in a rural community), all of which were located in the Southwest. All subjects were obtained through introductory classes relevant to freshman and sophomore classification. All students were administered the inventories in the classroom setting. All subjects were

requested to complete the demographic data sheet, the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation Behavior inventory (FIRO-B), and the Parent-Adolescent Communication inventory, and a consent for participation form. The variables used for the analyses of the data from the Parent-Adolescent Communication inventory were as follows:

Independent variables—Pattern of Communication (open versus closed), and Family Orientation (natural father versus stepfather); Dependent variables were taken from the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation Behavior inventory (FIRO-B), utilizing the subjects expressed level of inclusion, control, and affection.

The three null hypotheses generated for this study were:

Hypothesis 1. For subjects overall, there will be no significant interaction between their family orientation, and their respective parent/stepparent on perceived levels of expressed affection, expressed inclusion, and expressed control.

Hypothesis 2. For subjects overall, there will be no significant difference between family orientation on expressed levels of affection, control, and inclusion, regardless of perception of pattern of communication.

Hypothesis 3. For subjects overall, there will be no significant difference between perceived communication patterns and their perceived levels of expressed affection,

inclusion, and control, regardless of family orientation.

A 2x2 between subjects MANOVA was performed to statistically analyze the data. Following the analyses specific comparisons of the means were made to establish significance between selected cell means.

Statistical significance was reached ($p < .05$) for one of the three hypotheses, concerning the interaction effect (Family Orientation x Pattern of Communication). The two hypotheses concerning the main effects, family orientation and pattern of communication, were nonsignificant ($p > .05$). The specific comparisons of selected cell means suggested significant differences ($p > .05$) for the natural father students having closed communications as considerably lower in levels of expressed control than those students having stepfathers and indicating closed communications. Further, those students having natural fathers and indicating open communications had considerably higher levels of expressed control than those students having stepfathers and perceiving open communications.

Of the dependent construct, control was the only dimension of interpersonal relations behavior that was effected by family orientation and pattern of communication. Both expressed affection and, expressed inclusion were nonsignificant ($p < .05$).

The failure to reject the two hypotheses concerning the main effects of family orientation and pattern of

communication, was not surprising for only 2% of the variance in the linear combination of interpersonal relations behavior was accounted for by family orientation and pattern of communication. However, it was determined by the researcher that gender may have been a greater influence of the significance to the study than pattern of communication.

As Brodbeck (1954) found, the girl becomes more heavily influenced by the father after the age of 10 to 14 and for the boy to become more heavily influenced by the mother during the same age span. Since mothers were not included in this study, and it was considered that pattern of communication may be a disturbance variable masking the influence of gender, a secondary analysis was performed. Because this study was not directed toward the secondary analysis, no hypotheses were generated. In this analysis, pattern of communication was eliminated and replaced by gender of student.

A 2x2 between subjects MANOVA was performed to statistically analyze the data. The secondary analysis revealed a significant main effect for gender on both expressed levels of affection, and expressed levels of control for the dependent construct of interpersonal relations behavior at ($p < .05$). However, interpretation of these findings are limited and cannot be accepted as valid, as this was not the purpose of this study. An important

consideration to account for in the interpretation is that 14 of the students included in the natural father group were taken from the stepfather group. This was a result of the subjects not identifying themselves as either stepfather or natural father children on the demographic data sheet, or identifying themselves as natural father children on the demographic data sheet but answering their Parent-Adolescent Communication inventory as stepfather children. Because the primary analysis utilized the Parent-Adolescent Communication inventory to define criteria of classification of stepfather or natural father student, it was not possible to use it to define the classification in this secondary analysis, as it was excluded from the analysis altogether. In view of the aforementioned, the results of the secondary analysis indicate that females of both natural father and stepfather family orientation were considerably higher in expressed levels of affection than males of natural father family orientation. The males of both natural father and stepfather family orientation were considerably higher in expressed levels of control than females of natural father and stepfather family orientation.

Some literature does suggest that having no father at all is more negative for boys than having a stepfather figure. Parish and Copeland (1979), reiterate the possibility that the loss of a father figure may result in an increase of the emotional distance children place between

themselves and their respective absent fathers, thus creating allegiance with the remaining mother and stepfather. In accordance with Landis (1960) and Wallerstein (1976), they further suggest that this allegiance may be an attempt for the child to regain some of the stability they have lost.

Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1981) assert that highly active stepfathers who are able to communicate warmly and yet set consistent limits with the children, when the mother welcomes the stepfathers support, tend to facilitate that child's (especially boys) ability to function. Generally these children have less difficulty than children in single parent homes or conflicted nondivorced families. Oshman and Manosevitz (1976) also found stepfathers have a positive effect on stepsons. Basically, their study focused on father absence and the effects of stepfathers on the psychosocial development in males. The presence of stepfathers was found to greatly reduce the quantitative amount of paternal deprivation. The quality of the relationship established between the stepfather and the father absent boy was also a significant factor contributing to positive outcome. The mothers of the fatherless boys who remarry may possess more adaptive psychological resources than do the mothers of those fatherless boys who remain single.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are presented based upon the results of this study. The results of this study appear to support Perkins and Kahans (1979) conclusions that stepfather family systems are stressed, along the dimensions of satisfaction with family and reciprocal understanding, perceived goodness and potency, and psychological adjustment. They suggested that differences between the family systems in terms of interpersonal relations and perception affect the entire stepparent family system.

1. Hypothesis 1 was rejected, indicating that a significant interaction did exist between family orientation (natural father versus stepfather), and perceived communication pattern (open versus closed) with the subjects corresponding stepparent or parent relative to perceived communication patterns, and the subjects perceived level of expressed control. Possibly this results from the stepchilds need to incorporate the stepparent as a model, or as someone with whom they can identify. Another possible explanation, and the one that Atkinson and Ogston (1974), along with Santrock (1975) concluded is the tendency for mothers and stepfathers to utilize power assertive approaches to gain compliance with children. This may foster a dependence which manifests itself through the child conforming to expectancies rather than running the risk of

being rejected. Santrock, Warshak, Lindbergh, and Meadows (1982) found that boys raised in stepfather families indicate more competent social behavior than the boys raised in intact families. Certainly the fact that this study indicates stepfather children to be completely opposite on expressed levels of control lends support to Kantor and Lehrs (1975) family systems model, relative to stepfamilies interpersonal difficulty getting inside the families interpersonal subsystem.

Of specific interest in this study was the fact that stepfather subjects having closed communications with their stepfathers indicated higher levels of expressed control than the natural father subjects who had open communications. There is some research that tend to support these positive effects on children raised in stepfather family orientations. According to Duberman (1973), stepfathers were able to achieve more satisfying relations with stepchildren than stepmothers. Bohannon and Erickson (1978) found that stepchildren having stepfathers get along as well as do natural children do with their natural fathers, according to ratings made by the stepchildren and their mothers. In a comparison study, Parish and Copeland (1979) found that those children having a father absent for a significant period of time tended to identify more with stepfathers and mothers than they did with natural fathers.

The literature concerning stepfather and stepdaughter

relationships is not as voluminous as that of stepfathers and stepsons. However, Santrock, Warshak, Lindbergh, and Meadows (1982) contend from their study that girls in stepfather families showed more anxiety than girls from intact families. Further they found that stepfathers having stepdaughters had contemplated divorce more often than fathers of intact families. Fischman (1988) expounds on the difficulties that stepfathers face in their attempts to establish meaningful parent-child relations with their stepdaughters. Several key issues are addressed, namely, the resentment, anger, and hostility that these girls project, along with easily misunderstood communications concerning the stepfathers attempts to be affectionate. Both stepdaughter and stepfather are confused concerning how to express normal affection, when neither are related.

Santrock (1972) concludes that the entrance of a stepfather into a boys home, where the boys natural father and mother had divorced before he reached 5 years old, had positive effects on the boys 6 to 11 years of age, but not the girls.

Several findings relative to the present study were addressed by Santrock, Warshak, Lindbergh, and Meadows (1982). Boys in stepfather families tend to be more mature than boys in the single-parent mother home. Boys in stepfather families expressed more warmth, less anger, less anxiety, and higher levels of self-esteem than boys in

intact families, while the girls expressed more anxiety than those of intact families. Boys showed more warmth toward their stepfathers than did girls.

It is plausible that the results of this study indicate a tendency of the stepson to overcompensate for a lack of warmth and affection as adults. As indicated by Francke and Reese (1980), stepchildren may feel defeated, first for not being able to prevent the divorce, and secondly for not preventing the remarriage. For the stepsons this could account for the need to express control.

Relative to stepdaughters the aforementioned research indicates less positive interpersonal relations with stepfathers. The stepdaughters need to express affection may be a need that is overcompensated for as an adult.

2. Hypothesis 2 failed to be rejected, indicating that no significant difference exists between family orientation (stepfathers versus natural fathers) irrespective of perceived patterns of communication (open versus closed), in perceived levels of expressed affection, control, and/or inclusion. Halperin and Smith (1983) assert that the lack of distinctive effects relative to differences in the comparisons of stepfather children and those of intact family units, may be more related to the child's perceptions toward his/her natural father. They suggest that during this period of disruption the child's confusion may be just as great toward the natural father as it is toward the

stepfather, thus, reducing the differences in positive and negative perceptions.

3. Hypothesis 3 also failed to be rejected indicating that no significant difference exists between perceived communication patterns (open versus closed) and the subjects perceived level of expressed affection, control, and/or inclusion, irrespect of family orientation (natural father versus stepfather). This seems to indicate that mere perception of communication between a child and parent or stepchild or stepparent is insufficient to alter that child's expressed level of affection, control, and/or inclusion. Certainly, one would be inclined to assume that closed perceptions of communications would indicate some difference in interpersonal behaviors expressed by that individual. For instance, an individual may tend to over-compensate for that interpersonal behavior, or not exhibit the interpersonal behavior at all as a result of not having it modeled sufficiently to promote imitation. In actuality it is difficult to determine from this study, if pattern of communication with the stepfather or natural father influences to a great deal the student's style of interpersonal relations as an adult. First of all, there is the possibility that gender is more of an influence than pattern of communication.

4. Certainly the secondary analysis, taking into account its many limitations, seemed to indicate that gender

contributed somewhat to both the students expressed level of affection and expressed level of control. Secondly, the fact that females expressed higher levels of affection than males in both stepfather and natural father family orientations, seems to make sense. The males higher levels of expressed control, if this is assessed relative to the subjects need to overcompensate for needs that were not met in childhood, also makes sense. Of even more concern to the practitioner, it is possible that the results of this study may tend to support a dual need among the stepfamily populations. For instance, if one is overcompensating for a need for affection while at the same time demanding control, then resolution is not possible as the needs work against fulfillment. These conclusions take into account only those variables which were measured and controlled. Obviously, there are many influences in the developmental process which were not included, such as, the attitudes of the custodial parent, religious beliefs and values, educational background and setting, amount of time and type of television viewed, parenting and disciplining style. All of these play an intense role in the child's interpersonal behavior, and need to be considered in the interpretation of the aforementioned conclusions as variables that were not controlled.

Recommendations

Considering the rejection of two of the three

hypotheses, as well as the results of the secondary analysis and specific comparisons of the selected cell means, the following recommendations are made concerning future research.

1. In future research, the use of patterns of communication need to include controlling for gender in such a way as to limit gender influence. This might be accomplished by assessing all females, and all males in separate analyses to both stepmothers and stepfathers relative to perceived patterns of communication.

2. In accord with a more comprehensive research design, a multimethod of utilizing observation as well as parent and child's perception should be utilized. This would provide qualitative support, or serve to negate the quantitative findings.

3. Another area of consideration for future research is to include different family structures (e.g., single-parent mother, single-parent father). This could also include significant others influence on the interpersonal behavior of the child.

4. Future research could utilize stepchildren and stepparents in the process of development of family roles, providing for more stringent control of age at onset, and perceptions based on present family involvement, instead of the retrospective approach utilized in this study.

5. Finally, it is recommended that the counseling

practitioner not overlook the possibility that needs relative to affection and control may in fact serve to work against one another.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A**DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET**

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Circle the number indicating the appropriate response:

(SEX)

- 1) 1. MALE 2. FEMALE

(CLASSIFICATION)

- 2) 1. FRESHMAN 2. SOPHOMORE 3. JUNIOR 4. SENIOR

(ETHNICITY)

- 3) 1. NATIVE AMER. 2. BLACK 3. CAUCASIAN 4. OTHER _____

(AGE)

Approximate age at onset of becoming a stepchild (if applicable)

- 4) Circle which age category this would put you in:
 1. 5 through 12
 2. 13 through 18
- 5) Now in this blank specify the exact age at which you became a step-child. _____. (answer if applicable)
- 6) Approximately how long did you live in a single-parent household before becoming a stepchild? (answer if applicable)
 1. 6mths. to a year or less.
 2. 1 to 2 years.
 3. 2 to 3 years.
 4. Longer than 3 years.
- (Choice of living arrangement)
- 7) If your parents divorced, did you have a choice of which parent you could live?
 1. Yes 2. No
- 8) If you are a stepchild, was your natural parents separation do to:
 1. Death
 2. Divorce
- 9) How many, if any, natural siblings, did you have living in the household of which you grew up?
 1. Only one other sibling.
 2. Two other siblings
 3. Three other siblings.
 4. more than 3 siblings
- 10) How many if any, step siblings did you have living in the household of which you grew up?
 1. One step-sibling.
 2. Two step-siblings.
 3. Three step-siblings.
 4. More than 3 step-siblings.
- 11) Did you have any older same sex siblings either natural or step-siblings living in the household of which you grew up?
 1. Yes.
 2. NO.

APPENDIX B

TABLES

Table 6

Frequency of Subjects According to Gender, Pattern of Communication, and Time Spent in a Single-Parent Household Before Becoming Stepchildren

		Time Spent with Single Parent			
Patt. of Comm.		6mths-1yr	1-2yrs	2-3yrs	Over 3yrs
		%	%	%	%
	Gender				
Open	Male	3	9	4	9
		(.12)	(.18)	(.12)	(.23)
	Female	8	8	7	12
Closed	Male	1	6	2	6
		(.03)	(.12)	(.05)	(.15)
	Female	2	5	3	8
Total %		(.15)	(.30)	(.17)	(.38)

Table 7

Frequency of Subjects According to Gender, Family
Orientation, and Older Same-Sex Siblings

Family Orientation	Gender			
	Male	%	Female	%
Natural Father	70	(.44)	103	(.41)
Stepfather	10	(.29)	14	(.34)

Table 8

Frequency of Subjects According to Family Orientation,
and Number of Natural Siblings Living in the Same Household

Family Orientation	Siblings							
	1	%	2	%	3	%	4/More	%
Natural Father	144	(.34)	106	(.25)	51	(.12)	60	(.14)
Stepfather	31	(.44)	20	(.29)	9	(.13)	8	(.11)

Table 9

Frequency of Subjects Categorized According to Gender, and
Number of Stepsiblings Living in the Same Household

Gender	Stepsiblings			
	1	2	3	4/More
Male	9	6	3	2
Female	11	11	2	3
Total %	(.25)	(.21)	(.06)	(.06)

APPENDIX C

RELEASE OF PARTICIPATION AND INSTRUCTIONS

Consent for Participation, Release of Information &
Statement of Confidentiality

Information given on the following instruments is for research purposes only and will be held in the strictest of confidence. It is, however, imperative that those participating in this study sign a consent for release of this information to the researcher. This consent will be separated from the packet of instruments that you are holding upon completion and the ultimate return of the instruments to the examiner. If, however, you decide to exercise your right not to participate in this study, just simply return this consent form and packet of instruments to the examiner without signing or marking on the instruments. Refusing to participate in this study will in no way interfere with your performance in this class. If you do participate and sign this consent, to do so, you will be agreeing to the following terms:

- a) That participant information will be held confidential, and used for research purposes only, no identifying information such as names, or place of residence will be used.
- b) The participant agrees to participate in this study, and release data obtained on the instruments used in this study.
- c) That participants will be given a short debriefing following completion of the instruments, informing the students of the exact nature of the study and what their data will be used for.

Instructions and Procedures:

There will be two instruments to complete. The first of these is the Fundamental Interpersonal Relationship Orientation of Behavior (FIRO-B). This is a 54 item inventory which takes between 15 to 20 minutes to complete. The objective of this instrument is to assess one's interpersonal behavior relative to interaction with others on the dimensions of affection, inclusion, and control. Answer the items as you perceive yourself.

The second instrument is part of Olson's Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales (FACES II). As you will notice, there are three copies of this instrument, be sure you fill out the right one. The first copy should be filled out by those of you who were raised in homes by both your natural father and mother, the second is for those of you who were raised in step-families consisting of a stepfather and a natural mother at sometime before you were 18, the third copy is for those of you that were raised in step-families consisting of a stepmother and a natural father at sometime before you were 18. This instrument assesses your perceived communications and interpersonal relations with your parent/stepparent. The instrument is a 20 item scale which takes between 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

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Participants Signature

VITA

DARWIN GLEN MOORE

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: A COMPARISON OF THE MALE PARENTAL INFLUENCE
ON THE INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOR OF YOUNG ADULTS
RELATIVE TO PATTERNS OF COMMUNICATION

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