

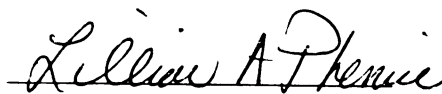


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RESEARCH ARTICLES IN THE JOURNAL
OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
IN THE EIGHTIES: A CONTENT ANALYSIS

presented by

Evelyn Suleeman

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for
Master of Arts degree in Family Studies


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RESEARCH ARTICLES IN THE JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE
AND THE FAMILY IN THE EIGHTIES:
A CONTENT ANALYSIS STUDY

By

Evelyn Suleeman

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

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1992

ABSTRACT

RESEARCH ARTICLES IN THE JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY IN THE EIGHTIES: A CONTENT ANALYSIS

By

Evelyn Suleeman

This study was a content analysis review of articles found in the 1980s decade of the Journal of Marriage and the Family. During the 80s social changes provided the stimuli for study of emerging phenomena in family studies. Most of these research were descriptive in nature using cross sectional designs. Sample size tended to be large, however, many were nonrandom samples. The most popular technique for gathering data were the use of questionnaires and interview schedules. Statistical techniques became more sophisticated and varied compared with earlier periods.

An increase in teams of authorship were found as well as male and females within co-authorship. Most research subject included middle class, individuals, mostly located in urban areas, with mix ethnic backgrounds.

Three conceptual frameworks found most often were structural functional, symbolic interactional, and social exchange still the most conceptual frameworks used. Most of the research were conducted in micro-systems level.

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trial.

during my study and gave joy in my life, and taught me more than anyone else about the "family"-- the laboratory of my field. Let me dedicate this study to them who enrich my life.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Comprehensive reviews of research or theoretical literature in family science are scarce. It is often left to the scholar to gather various information related to studies in specific areas. Since critical analyses of findings over time are difficult to locate, it will be difficult to assess the importance of the findings. However, a comprehensive look at journal articles can help family scholars find congruencies to better understand ways in which family research occurs and progresses over time. This type of study would also provide information to researchers by identifying problems which systematically can occur in the publication of articles in journals.

Given these problems, the primary focus of this study was to review the literature in The Journal of Marriage and Family.

The Journal of Marriage and Family (JMF) is one of the most popular professional journals used by scholars when publishing research studies on families. First published in 1939, it emphasizes articles related to marriage and family

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issues. Published quarterly, it consists of approximately 20 research articles in each issue.

Since 1960 it has been a tradition of the JMF to publish decade reviews dealing with certain themes. The reviews are in the November issues of the first year of the new decade, such as the 1960, 1970, 1980, and 1990 issues. There are limited studies dealing with what the Journal has published over time. A comprehensive study of the articles published in the JMF from 1980-1989, such as this study, will meet that need.

The Background of the Study

A systematic study of the family began during the late 1800s. Komarovsky and Waller (1945) studied the progress in family studies in the first 50 years by looking at three different periods. In the first period, 1895-1914, moral evaluations were used rather than modern value-free evaluation (p. 443). The second period, 1915-1926, was characterized by the separation of science and morality. In this period, empirical research was done and official statistics were used for the first time (p. 445). The use of official statistics, such as the governmental surveys, was increased in the last period, 1927-1944 (p. 446).

In a review of the family research in four principal sociological journals, American Sociological Review, American Journal of Sociology, Social Forces, and Sociology and Social Research, Nye (1988) reported that in 1937 there

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were seven articles based primarily on research. In a 1948 review of periodicals using the International Index to Periodicals, Nimkoff (1948) reported an increase in the number of research articles from 14% in 1920-1923 to 48% in 1943-1946. This dramatic increase in research on the family radically changed the "image" of family studies. In his comprehensive study of 50 years of family research, Nye (1988) pointed out, "A new era of scientific research in family behavior was beginning, and an exciting new perspective was opening for scholars and students of the family [i.e., since 1937]" (p. 305).

Many family experts recognize the need for reviewing and summarizing the research studies conducted in their field. A review of the literature is a valuable and comprehensive measure of the scientific endeavor of family scholars to understand the family phenomenon. It also improves research quality as well as contributes to the process of theory-building.

Review of Family Research

Several review studies have been conducted on family research and literature. These studies often reported the theoretical approaches and methodological approaches used in family research. Most of the studies included journal articles as their primary source for analyzing the literature (Hodgson & Lewis, 1979; Lavee, 1986; Nimkoff,

1948; Nye, 1988; Nye & Bayer, 1963; Ruano, Bruce, & McDermott, 1969). Most family research studies are reported in journals, and therefore, these journals are the primary medium for publication of the researches (Ehrmann, 1955; La Rossa & Wolf, 1985). Summaries of comprehensive reviews can also be found in books, dissertations, or other published reports (Ehrmann, 1955; Hill, 1958; Mogey, 1969).

The themes of the studies have varied throughout different decades. The themes of marital satisfaction and conflict have been dominant in family research ever since they first emerged in the 1940s (Nimkoff, 1948; Nye, 1988; Nye & Bayer, 1963). During 1947-1961, dating, courtship, and mate selection were the predominant themes in research articles in The American Sociological Review, The American Journal of Sociology, Social Forces, and Marriage and Family Living (Nye & Bayer, 1963).

In the decade of the 1960s, teenage parenthood, sex roles, family stress and coping, and family violence either were not included or were given little attention (Berardo, 1980). Violence, drug abuse, alcoholism, or other child problems did not become prevalent in the literature until the mid-1980s (Gelles, 1980; Nye, 1988). Nye reported that "almost all of the social work articles listed on topics of the family in the Social Science Index in 1986 dealt with some aspects of family violence . . ." (Nye, 1988, p. 309). Although personality emerged as a phenomena in the 1920s

(Nimkoff, 1948), it was still a minor topic in the JMF until 1987 (Nye, 1988).

Overall, Streib and Beck (1980) argued that the major focus of research in the 60s and 70s was on internal relationships between family members or on the micro-systems level, to use Bronfenbrenner's term for the level of ecological environment (1979). Because the welfare system in the United States has become so extensive in influencing many people, Streib and Beck (1980) suggested that researchers in the 1980s examine the impact of macro-environmental influences, such as the welfare program, on the family or on the meso-system level, to again utilize Bronfenbrenner's (1979) terminology.

Theory Building Period

Family studies entered a period of systematic theory building in 1950 (Christensen, 1964; Thomas & Wilcox, 1987). More family scholars have taken an interest in theory building since that time. In the first Workshop on Marriage and Family Research in 1951, there was an attempt to identify the major theoretical approaches used in the study of the family as the (1) institutional, (2) structural functional, (3) situational, (4) interactional, (5) family development, (6) learning theory-maturational, and (7) household economics-home management (Hill, 1951).

In the 1960s, there were attempts to summarize and integrate the five dominant theoretical approaches utilized

in family study as the (1) institutional, (2) structural-functional, (3) interactional, (4) situational, and (5) developmental (Christensen, 1964; Hill & Hansen 1960). The household economics-home management approach was no longer included in the theoretical approach "because of its failure to generate a full-fledged conceptual framework . . ." (Hill & Hansen, 1960, p. 299). The learning theory-maturational approach was also excluded because it only dealt with the individual and not the family as a whole (Hill & Hansen, 1964).

In 1966, Nye and Berardo published a book containing a large number of essays on theoretical approaches which had been used in family study. During the 1960s, general systems theory, balance theory, game theory, and exchange theory were also introduced into family studies (Broderick, 1971).

The rapid development of family theory, however, was not followed by its utilization in family research. Klein, Clavert, Garland, and Poloma (1969) reported in their survey of journal articles dealing with marriage and the family during 1962-1968 that there was a general lack of utilization of theory to guide empirical research. They found only 96 out of 600 articles, from 12 social science journals, using a certain theoretical approach. Nye (1988) reported that "the more impressive statistic is the overwhelming proportion of projects that employ no type of

theory-about 80% for the entire time period, and over 75% in 1987" (p. 311).

After it was first formalized in 1951, the developmental approach dominated the family field in 1950s and 1960s (Broderick, 1988). In addition to the developmental approach, the structural-functional and interactional approaches were the most popular among researchers throughout the 1960s (Klein, Clavert, Garland, & Poloma, 1969; Nye & Berardo, 1981). During the years 1969-1976, the interactional theory was the most popular, followed by the structural-functional, the developmental and the institutional theory (Hodgson & Lewis, 1979).

During the 1970s, interactional theory was the dominant theoretical approach among the family scholars. Following interactional theory, exchange theory and systems theory replaced structural-functional theory and developmental theory as the major schools of thought in that decade (Holman & Burr, 1980).

Data Collection and Data Collection Techniques

Data collection and data collection techniques are part of the methodology which was discussed in the previous reviews of family research. Secondary data, such as the census, vital statistics records, and historical documents were a major source from 1937 to 1987 (Nye, 1988).

Questionnaires and interviews were the most popular

techniques for gathering data since the 1940s (Hill, 1958; Hodgson & Lewis, 1979; Nye, 1988; Nye & Bayer, 1963; Moge, 1969; Ruano, Bruce, & McDermott, 1969).

Time Dimension

The time dimension in family studies varies according to the purpose of the research. There are behavior patterns best understood by means of cross sectional studies (Walters & Walters, 1980). There are themes better understood by taking a longitudinal dimension, such as divorce and remarriage, as processes and impacts on behavior of the early parent-child relationship and the later parent-child relationship (Price-Bonham & Balswick, 1980; Walters & Walters, 1980). Longitudinal studies based on repeated observations "are essential to understanding the processes of change" (Davies, 1987, p. 1). However, these longitudinal studies on divorce and remarriage are difficult to conduct because remarried couples and stepfamilies are very mobile (Coleman & Ganong, 1990).

Sample Size

During the 1947-1961 period, there was a tendency to use small sample sizes (less than 100) (Nye & Bayer, 1963). After 1967 large sample sizes (more than 1,000) were popular (Nye, 1988). According to Nye and Bayer (1963), the sample size was related to using census data. The tendency to use a small sample was followed by a decline in using census

data. Sample size also depended on the themes being studied. For example, a large sample was difficult to obtain for adolescent childbearing because the researchers had to obtain parental permission to interview an adolescent (Walters & Walters, 1980). A majority of the researchers used small samples to study remarried families and stepfamilies; their mobility made a random sample difficult to obtain (Coleman & Ganong, 1990).

Statistical Techniques

Statistical techniques have become more popular in family research. More empirical research used one or more statistical analyses. During 1947-1951, only 29.6% of all empirical research projects used any statistical technique (Nye & Bayer, 1963). In 1987, 80% of all empirical research projects used statistical analysis (Nye, 1988). Chi-square was the statistical test most often used by researchers (Nye & Bayer 1963; Ruano, Bruce, & McDermott, 1969).

Not only did more studies use statistical analyses, the family researchers also attempted explanatory studies in addition to descriptive studies (Nye, 1988).

Rationale for the Study

Although the importance of review in family research is generally known, there is no study that covers a whole decade using one specific journal. This study contributed to the literature of review of family research.

This study was concerned with several issues which have been studied before, such as themes, theoretical approaches, statistical techniques, and data collection, as well as several issues which have been little studied before, such as the social class of the respondents. This study also included the level of ecological environment being researched.

Assumptions

Assumption 1: Research articles in the JMF reflect a good sample of what family researchers are doing in present time.

Assumption 2: Research articles in the JMF dealt with varied themes.

Assumption 3: Research articles in the JMF were framed by various theoretical approaches.

Assumption 4: Research articles in the JMF dealt with varied techniques for gathering data.

Assumption 5: Research articles in the JMF dealt with varied samples.

Assumption 6: Research articles in the JMF had a different designs of research.

Assumption 7: Research articles in the JMF used different statistical techniques.

Assumption 8: Content analysis is an effective method for gathering data in this study.

Research Questions

All the research articles in JMF in 1980-1989 were used in this study. The following research questions were used in this study:

Question 1: How many articles between 1980 through 1989 dealt with the themes which were used in the 1980s review?

Question 2: How many articles between 1980 through 1989 dealt with exploratory studies, how many with descriptive studies, how many with explanatory studies, and how many with meta-analysis studies?

Question 3: What kind of theoretical framework was used most during the 1980s?

Question 4: How many studies dealt with cross-sectional studies and how many with longitudinal studies during the 1980s?

Question 5: What was the dominant technique used for gathering data in the research articles between 1980 and 1989?

Question 6: How many studies used random samples and how many non random samples during the 1980s?

Question 7: How many studies involved females, males, or both in their samples during the 1980s?

Question 8: How many studies were conducted in the urban area and rural area during the 1980s?

Question 9: Were certain ethnic groups used as samples in the studies during the 1980s?

Question 10: How many studies used lower-, middle-, or upper class as their samples during the 1980s?

Question 11: How many studies dealt with micro-systems, meso-system, exo-system, and macro-system levels during the 1980s?

Question 12: How many studies dealt with primary, secondary, and meta-analysis during the 1980s?

Question 13: Was there a preferred statistical technique used during the 1980s?

Question 14: Were there more advanced statistical techniques than simple ones used during the 1980s?

Limitations of the Study

As with any other research, this study had some limitations:

First, themes for this study were derived from the titles of the article. Therefore some themes that emerged in the content of the research were not included in this study.

Second, past studies about the review of family research used more than one reader to evaluate an article and compare their evaluations (Klein, Clavert, Garland, & Poloma, 1969; Nye & Bayer, 1963; Ruano, Bruce, & McDermott, 1969). However, since this review and coding of the literature was done by the author alone, there may be subjective judgments and/or errors in coding.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Content Analysis as a Research Technique

This study dealt with articles in the Journal of Marriage and the Family and used content analysis as a tool to gather data. Content analysis is primarily used as a research technique in the field of communication where it is used for analyzing the content in a text.

According to Budd, Throp, & Donohew (1967) content analysis is "a systematic technique for analyzing message content and message handling. . ." (p. 2). It can be applied to any form of communication, oral or written, such as books, journals, magazines, poems, speeches, motion pictures, broadcasts, photographs, or songs. The basic goal of content analysis is to "take a verbal, non-quantitative document and transform it into quantitative data" (Bailey, 1978, p. 276).

Carrying out a content analysis is basically the same as doing a structured observation, except that the former is applied to documents rather than to observation of nonverbal behavior (Bailey, 1978). As in any other research method, variables in content analysis should have categories which

are exhaustive. Every unit of analysis should have a category that is mutually exclusive with only one correct category for one unit analysis. Each category must be independent which means that the value of one category does not determine the value of another category (Holsti, 1969).

According to Holsti (1969), the unit of analysis in content analysis can be: (1) a single word or symbol, (2) a theme which refers to the purpose of a document, (3) a character, such as a character in a novel or radio play, (4) a sentence or paragraph, or (5) an item which refers to the entire document. Also mentioned was the notion that several units of analysis can be used simultaneously in doing a content analysis.

Sometimes the unit of analysis cannot be put into a given category without "considering the context in which it is found" (Bailey, 1978, p. 282). If that happens, the researcher should choose subjectively a context unit, which is a larger unit that includes the unit of analysis. For example, if the sentence is the unit of analysis, the context unit can be a paragraph, chapter, or an entire document.

Quantifying the data may be as simple as counting the number of a given word in a paragraph or counting the number of photographs appearing in a book. According to Holsti (1969), this is quantitative research for it offers a precise, objective, and reliable observation about the

frequency of a particular content variable. Babbie (1989) called it a manifest content because it is visible. On the other hand, in qualitative research inferences are made on the basis of the underlying meaning (Holsti, 1969).

Therefore, qualitative research may be more sophisticated because it needs the researcher's knowledge to assess the latent content, to use Babbie's (1989) term.

Holsti (1969) gave four ways to quantify data in content analysis:

1. Appearance: the researcher finds whether the data are appearing or not in an article or broadcast program.

2. Frequency: the researcher counts the number of times the data appear.

3. Number of space: the researcher measures the size of an article or the amount of time in a broadcast program. Holsti (1969) mentioned that this measure is crude for analyzing the intensity of attitudes or values because it does not measure the content of the data itself.

4. Strength or intensity of the statement: the researcher measures the strength of a statement by comparing it with other relevant statements. The stronger statements will have greater value than the rest; in other words, they will more likely represent the attitudes. For example, one of two articles could be concluded to have more positive attitudes expressed toward AIDS by comparing their statements.

The survey data of a content analysis as can be presented in tables containing frequencies and percentages.

Operational Definitions of Variables

Variables in this study were operationalized as below:

Year of the Issues is the year the journal was published. This study includes all issues in the Journal of Marriage and the Family from the years 1980 to 1989.

Number of Authors is the actual number of authors of the article such as one, two, and three or more.

Gender of Authors is the description of the gender of the authors, such as male, female, male and female, and not known.

Theme is the emerging issue in research that distinguishes one research from another. Categories for themes in this study are:

Gender Roles. Concepts included are gender stratification, gender differentiation, division of labor by gender, gender norms, gender-role attitudes, and gender-role ideologies.

Premarital and Sexual Relationship. Concepts included are sexual interaction with persons other than one's spouse or with an individual outside the marriage, such as necking, kissing, breast fondling, or intercourse; as well as attitudes toward premarital and extra-marital relationship.

Mate Selection. Concepts included are physical attractiveness, personality factors, birth order factor, arranged marriage, and demographic factors such as age, education, religion, race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status, as well as attitudes toward mate selection.

Adolescent Sexual Behavior. Concepts included are sexual intercourse, contraception, marriage, adoption, and childrearing among teens; and attitudes toward adolescent sexual behavior.

Parent-child Relationship. Concepts included are child abuse, parent abuse, value of children, parental influences on infant and adolescent behavior, parent-child communication, child care, interaction between noncustodial parent and child, socialization, adoption, as well as attitudes toward parent-child relationship.

Family Power. Concepts included are acts related to decision making, and perceptions of power in the family.

Family Stress and Coping. Concepts included are events and related hardships that lead to crisis such as physical and mental well-being of the members of the family, prolonged war-induced separation, imprisonment, interpersonal conflict, suicide, financial hardships, transition to parenthood, child launching, empty nest,

retirement, widowhood, family adjustment to these crisis, as well as attitudes toward family stress and coping.

Family Violence. Concepts included are physical assault such as throwing an object; pushing, grabbing, or shoving; slapping or spanking; kicking, biting, or hitting with a fist or with an object; beating up; threatening with a knife or gun; and sexually abusing a spouse, children, or parents; as well as attitudes toward spouse, child, or parental abuse.

Nontraditional Family Forms. Concepts included are different family lifestyles, such as nonmarital cohabitation, voluntary childlessness, single-parent, divorce and remarriage, dual earner marriage, commuter marriage, same-sex intimate relationships, communal living, affiliated families and expanded families, and multilateral marriage; as well as attitudes toward nontraditional family forms.

Kinship. Concepts included are family relationships, such as interactions, being a caregiver, sharing a household, and mutual aid among siblings, aid from elderly parent to adult children, aid from adult children to elderly parent, as well as attitudes toward kinship.

Divorce. Concepts included are demographic factors and interpersonal relationships related to divorce or

desertion, divorce or desertion adjustment, as well as attitudes toward divorce or desertion.

Remarriage and Stepfamilies. Concepts included are probability of remarriage, the dynamics of remarriage, relationship between stepparent and stepchildren, as well as attitudes toward remarriage and stepfamilies.

Marital Quality. Concepts included are marital happiness, marital success, marital satisfaction, and marital stability, as well as attitudes toward marital quality.

Family in Later Life. Concepts included are family stages such as the empty nest, the middle years, and the aging years.

Family and Religion. Concepts included are religious beliefs, practices, and commitment; new religious movements; intergenerational religious values; religious homogamy; missionaries and clergy; religious factors on marital stability and quality; religious factors and family experiences; as well as religious factors and family customs and traditions.

Family and Economy. Concepts included are parents' employment, children's employment, occupational patterns, occupational changes, economic changes, dual earner couples, work socialization, work stress, women's employment, work - family conflict, as well as attitudes toward family and economy.

Family Policy. Concepts included are governmental goals and activities directed toward the well-being of families, such as AFDC, Medicaid, Medicare, and Food Stamps.

A Hypothesis is a testable statement consisting of two or more variables which are related. Categories used for it are any hypothesis and no hypothesis.

Purpose of Research. The purpose taken by the researcher to formulate a specific research question.

Categories used for purpose of research are:

Exploration. An exploratory study is when a subject is relatively new or unstudied to find out what the important variables and issues are.

Description. A descriptive study is when it is necessary to describe situations, behavior, and events.

Explanation. An explanatory study is when it is necessary to provide reasons why a certain situation happens by identifying antecedents and consequences of the situations, behavior or events.

Conceptual Framework. A group of concepts integrating into a meaningful configuration by their basic assumptions. In this study categories of conceptual frameworks used were:

The Institutional Framework: A framework which deals with:

1. The family institution and its changes over periods of time. For example, the roles of husband and wife at the present time are more equal than in the past.

2. The family institution at a given point in time for different cultures. For example, a comparison of the patterns of mate selection in the United States and in Japan.

The Structural Functional Framework: A framework which focuses on the analysis of:

1. The structure of the nuclear family and its relation to other social systems such as economy, politics, community, and value system. For example, the relationship between industrialization-urbanization and the family structure (McIntyre, 1981).

2. The internal family activities such as task performance, family leadership, integration and solidarity, and pattern maintenance. For example, the division of labor between the sexes and the functions of this division of labor for the maintenance of the family.

3. The relationships between the family and the personality of the individual member. For example, the relationship between the maternal child-training practices and children's behavior (Minturn and Lambert, 1968).

The Symbolic Interaction Framework: A framework which focuses on the interpersonal interaction among the family members based on their interpretation of

symbols in terms of definitions of the situation. For example, the extent to which a husband and wife are able to recognize their roles in a family decision-making session (Kenkle & Hoffman, 1956).

The Situational Framework: A framework which focuses on the behavior of the family members in a certain situation. For example, the coping patterns of prisoners' wives when their husbands are imprisoned.

The Developmental Framework: A framework which deals with the changing role patterns in the family over its life cycle. Family life cycle and developmental task are the basic concepts for this framework. For example, the husband-wife interaction in the new parenthood stage, the launching stage and the retirement stage.

The Conflict Framework: A framework which views the role of the family member in promoting family instability through the use of competition, conflict, consensus, negotiation and bargaining, power and influence, and aggression. For example, the problems created by the birth of the first child in the relationship between the husband and the wife.

The Social Exchange Framework: A framework which assumes that people avoid costly behavior and seek to maximize rewards in their, relationships, interactions, and feeling states. For example, the younger child, the less likely that the mother will be employed

because the cost of good care for younger children is greater than the benefit from work (Nye, 1979).

The Social Psychological Framework: A framework which focuses on the self-concept and its relationship to the family. Self-concepts are developed by the individual through interaction with others. At least a minimum of needs must be fulfilled directly or indirectly in order for an individual to be able to cope with others. For example, the influence of birth order on the personality of an individual (Brown, 1981).

The Psychoanalytic Framework: A framework which focuses on the influence of early familial experience on the individual. For example, "the quality of the husband-wife relationship may be viewed as a function of the love or hate originally held for a parent transferred to the spouse, as the spouse is unconsciously identified with the parent of the opposite sex" (Bayer, 1981, p. 164).

The Systems Framework: A framework which focuses on the processes that occur, and the interrelationships between event, people, or other elements of the system. It assumes an interdependence of all systems components, which means that a change in one subsystem is generally followed by a change in another subsystem in that system. The key concepts for this framework are system, subsystem, boundaries, input, output,

positive and negative feedback, strata hierarchies, and rules of transformation (Broderick & Smith, 1979; Giles-Sims, 1983).

The Environmental System. The setting which is used to relate to the research purposes. Categories included:

Micro-systems refers to "a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by a developing person in a given face-to-face setting with particular physical and material features, and containing other persons with distinctive characteristics of temperament, personality, and systems of belief" (Bronfenbrenner, 1989, p. 227). For example, the effect of the husband-wife relationship on the parent-child relationship (Bronfenbrenner, 1989).

Meso-system refers to a pattern of activities, roles and interpersonal relations experienced directly by family members in two or more settings. For example, children will be more independent and will have greater initiative if, in their homes or classroom, they have greater opportunities to communicate or make a decision (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

Exo-system refers to one or more settings where family members indirectly affect or are affected by what happens in that setting without entering the setting. For example, there are more neglected

children among the families with weak kinship networks and irregular church attendance (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

Macro-system refers to

overarching pattern of micro-, meso-, and exosystems characteristic of a given culture, subculture, or other broader social context, with particular reference to the developmentally-institutive belief systems, resources, hazards, life styles, opportunity structures, life course options, and patterns of social interchange that are embedded in each of these systems (1989, p. 228).

For example, patterns of socialization in the lower, middle and upper classes.

Time Dimension. Time used for collecting the data.

Categories included are:

Cross Sectional a study which is based on observations made at one time.

Longitudinal a study which is based on observations made at many times. There are three types of longitudinal studies:

1. Trend study which deals with some general population over time. For example, polls during the beginning and the end of Gulf War.

2. Cohort study which deals with more specific subpopulations (cohorts) as they change over time. For example, a sample of persons 20-29 years of age might be surveyed in 1970, another sample of persons 30-39 of age in 1980, and another sample of those 40-49 years of age in 1990, and used to study attitudes toward abortion.

3. Panel study which is a combination of trend and cohort studies. It examines the same set of people over time.

Type of Samples. Types of samples which distinguish the selecting observations. Categories included are:

Probability Sample. The sample that all members of the population have an equal chance of being selected in the sample. Simple random, systematic, and stratified sampling are types of probability samples.

Nonprobability Sample. The sample that not all members of the population have an equal chance of being selected in the sample. Purposive and quota samples are types of nonprobability samples. It is called a purposive sampling if the researcher uses her own judgement in the selection of the sample members. In a quota sample, the sample members are selected in such a fashion as to include different composite profiles that exist in the population (quota matrix).

Level of Data Analysis. The level of analysis based upon the sources of data. Categories included are:

Primary Analysis is an analysis of original data in a research.

Secondary Analysis is a re-analysis of old data or analysis of the existing data.

Meta-analysis is an analysis of results from individual studies for the purpose of integrating the findings.

Sample Size. The size of a sample used in the research. Categories included are less than 100, 100 - 250, 251 - 500, 501 - 1000, and more than 1000.

Location of the Study. The location where the research is conducted. Categories for location of the study are urban, rural, urban and rural, and not mentioned.

Type of Research Subject. The type of the respondent in a research. Categories included are individual, a couple, child-parent, child-grandparent, siblings, and others.

Gender of the Research Subject. The description of the gender of the subject such as male, female, and male and female.

Social Class of the Research Subject. The social position in the society which distinguishes one person from another person. Categories included are lower; middle; upper; lower and middle; upper and middle; upper and lower; lower, middle, and upper; and not mentioned.

The Indicator of Social Class of the Research Subject. The sources used in defining the social class of the research subject. Categories included are family income; educational level; occupational level; family income and educational level; family income and occupational level; educational level and occupational level; family income, educational level, and occupational level; and not mentioned.

Ethnicity of the Research Subject. The description of the ethnic groups included in a research. Categories included are Black, Hispanics, White, Mixed, others, and not mentioned.

Gender of the Interviewer. The description of the gender of the interviewer in a research such as male, female, male and female, and not mentioned.

Techniques of Data Collection. The techniques used for data collection in a research. Categories included are experiments, self-administered questionnaires, interviews, observation, secondary data, and content analysis.

Statistical Techniques. The statistical techniques used in a research for analyzing the data. Categories included are univariate analysis, correlation, test hypothesis, regression, path analysis, ANOVA, factor analysis, log-linear/logit model/probit model, test of hypotheses, multiple classification analysis, and discriminant analysis, ANCOVA, LISREL, life table method/proportional hazards model.

Sample

Since the 1950s, the Journal of Marriage and the Family (JMF) has been the principal interdisciplinary journal about marriage and the family (Ehrmann, 1955; La Rossa & Wolf, 1985; Nye, 1987). It has a long history and although it was first published in 1939 under the title Living, the journal's name was changed in 1941 to Marriage and Family

Living. In 1964 it was changed again to Journal of Marriage and the Family. It publishes important research findings related to marriage and the family, but it has had a tradition of publishing a decade review of research on the various themes found in marriage and family. Several themes have been reviewed in the November issues of the 1960s, 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s. However, these are only reviews of one issue. There has not been a comprehensive review on the research articles in the JMF, itself, especially a review of all of issues for one decade. Therefore, this study will review all articles that were published in one decade. The 1980 decade was chosen for this study because this decade published the most recent articles in the area of marriage and family.

All of the articles in the issues of JMF from 1980 to 1989 were used in this study. Most of the journals were found in the Main Library at Michigan State University. Because the 1980 and 1981 issues were the only ones that could be borrowed from the Library, the researcher borrowed some of the issues from Dr. Barbara Ames and Dr. Lillian Phenice.

The JMF publishes four issues each year: February, May, August, and November. Each issue consists of approximately 20 research and nonresearch articles. The total number of the articles included in this study was 867.

Data Collection

In order to do this study using the technique of content analysis, each article published in the JMF was read. Assistants Louise Sternberg, a member of the researcher's host family, and Trisno Sutanto, the researcher's husband, aided in data collection by identifying the title, volume, month of issue, year of issue, number of author(s), and gender of author(s).

Articles with explicitly stated words or phrases identifying certain variables, such as the conceptual framework, presented little, if any, problems. There were considerable problems, however, when the researcher had to determine subjectively the correct category for a word or phrase when the author had not adequately stated these variables clearly. Each article was analyzed to identify the themes, conceptual framework, purpose of the study, time dimension, technique for gathering data, the respondent, sample size, level of analysis, statistical technique, and level of the environment.

A category for including a variable included only a single word such as volume, month, year, and themes. A category might be a sentence or a paragraph for other variables. Sometimes the researcher considered the context when putting the variable in a given category, such as in deciding what themes or conceptual framework were used.

[illegible]

In some cases, due to the different cultural backgrounds of the researcher and use of initials by the author(s), it was nearly impossible for the researcher to decipher the gender of the author(s), hence they were listed under not mentioned. For example, an Indonesian named "Ira" is usually for a female, but in the United States, this name is usually for a male. Further, a person named Lynn can be either a male or a female in the United States.

The themes in a research article were identified by key words in the title. Then the researcher selected key words in the title and omitted prepositions and conjunctions. For example, an article entitled "Changes in Chinese Urban Family Structure" was listed under the key words of family structure and Chinese. These key words then were put into the categories of others and cross cultural family perspective. Sometimes the researcher made inferences in order to put the key words into the category. For example, an article entitled "The Determinants of Depression in Two-Income Marriages" was listed under the key words depression and two income marriages; and put into family stress and coping, nontraditional family forms, and family and the economic categories.

When an author explicitly had stated the conceptual framework which was employed in the research, the researcher listed it under a particular category. For example, an article stating "Based on the exchange perspective..."

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(Stoller, 1985, p. 336), was placed in the exchange framework. However, when the authors did not indicate the framework explicitly, the researcher made an inference from the latent statement of the assumptions of a given framework. On the other hand, when an author did not state a particular framework in the study and the researcher could not clearly infer that a certain framework had been used, the article was placed in the not using theoretical framework category.

The category for coding of the hypotheses was more difficult. In many cases authors did not explicitly mention hypotheses in their studies. The researcher made inferences from the statement concerning the authors' expectations in their findings. Expectations were usually found either in the beginning or the latter part of an article. For example, if an article stated a relationship in the beginning such as, "We anticipate that the higher the income level of a state, the less the gap between material means and ends and the lower the rate of suicide" (Stack, 1980, p. 86), the researcher assumed that sentence was the author's hypothesis. If there were no research questions nor expectations, the article was placed in the category of no hypotheses.

If the purpose of the study was not stated explicitly by the authors, the researcher made inferences from the statement of the problem or the questions asked. The

article was placed in a descriptive category when the authors wanted only to describe the situations and events. For example from this kind of statement,

The purpose of the present discussion is to provide recent estimates on the extent of married and unmarried cohabitation, to highlight change during the 1975-1980 period, to provide an updated profile of social and economic characteristics of unmarried couples, and to compare and contrast couples who live together without being married to each other with those who are married to each other (Spanier, 1983, p. 277),

the researcher could infer that the author's intention was a descriptive study.

Usually the authors mentioned the time dimension of their research. For example, "the data used in this study were taken from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics . . ." (McLanahan, 1983, p. 349). When the time dimension was not stated, it was inferred from the data whether based on observations made at one time or at many times.

Nonprobability sampling method was usually mentioned clearly in the article, that is, through newspaper advertisements, friends of other respondents, members of a certain support group, clinical sample, and so forth. However, when the authors did not mention how they had obtained their samples, the researcher put them in the category not mentioned.

Because the authors clearly mentioned the technique of data collection used in their research, there was little difficulty in categorizing it.

In some instances the authors did not mention whether the sample was from urban or rural locations. In these cases the researcher put the article under the not mentioned category.

There was little difficulty in determining gender and types of subjects in this study because these characteristics were mentioned by the authors.

Many of the authors did not explicitly mention the social classes of their subjects. Inferences were made by the researcher by looking at the categories used in measuring the respondent's social class. For example, an article that stated the respondent's occupational status score ranging from 1 to 7 [that is, 1 = unskilled employees, 7 = higher executives] (Schoenbach, 1985, p. 598), is listed under the category of lower, middle, and upper class because the author measured all of the social class categories of the respondents. When the author did not indicate the respondent's social class, it was coded put into not mentioned category.

The researcher identified the ethnicity of the sample when it were mentioned. Australians, Canadians, and European are categorized under white people.

There were no authors in this study who identified their level of environment. Inferences were made from the focus of their research. For example, research about the relationship between adolescents and drugs (Hundleby &

Mercer, 1987) was listed under the meso-system category because it referred to activities experienced directly by the adolescents in two settings, that is at home with their families and outside home with their friends.

The means of determining the level of data analysis used in the article was by determining at how the authors gathered their data. If they collected their own data, the article was classified as primary analysis. But if they analyzed the data from other sources, it was classified as secondary analysis.

The researcher read every article to see whether these or not categories appeared in the article. The data were then counted and put into a frequency table.

Reliability and Validity

As in other measurements, content analysis has problems of reliability and validity. Reliability means that the same results will be found when anyone uses the same techniques on the same material. There is no great problem in the matter of reliability in a manifest content because it is stated explicitly. Reliability is more difficult when the researcher must make a subjective analysis. Certain techniques have been developed for dealing with the problem of reliability, that is, instrument reliability: comparing similar documents at two or more points in time; and analyst reliability: comparing the results of two or more coders at the same point in time (Bailey, 1978).

A valid measure is one that taps the construct the researcher intends to tap (Budd & Throp, 1967). According to Holsti (1969), there are four kinds of validity: (a) content or face validity, whether the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure; (b) predictive validity, whether the instrument is valid for predicting a particular phenomenon in the future; (c) concurrent validity, whether the instrument "is able to distinguish sources with known differences" (p. 144); and (d) construct validity, whether the instrument is concerned with the theory underlying the measure. The "hypotheses derived from the theory should yield similar results in different settings" (p. 148).

Because this study was a descriptive study, content validity is sufficient (Holsti, 1969). The researcher measured this by doing a pretest for the instrument used in this study with professors who specialized in family studies.

For reliability testing, one professor, one graduate student in Family and Child Ecology, and the researcher piloted the instrument. The same article was read and coded; the average agreement was 90%.

Results will be discussed in the following chapters.

CHAPTER III

THEMES IN THE EIGHTIES

The Journal of Marriage and the Family (JMF), especially in the 80s, discussed a wide range of issues which can be divided into research articles and non research articles. The non research articles discussed reviews of such topics as theories in family fields and methodological issues. Some were international or comparative articles while others focused on certain ethnic problems. In the JMF during the 80s, 15.5% of the articles featured were non research articles. Compared to Nimkoff's study (1948), research articles increased from 48% in 1943-1946 to 84.5% in the 80s.

Among the research articles, six percent discussed family theory and research methods. Some articles discussed a certain scale's application used in measuring family problems; some assessed techniques for gathering data, such as family observations; some discussed a certain type of subject, such as a couple or an individual, as a methodological tool; while others discussed the application of a theory.

In the present study 16.2% of the research was done in a country other than the U.S. or was a comparison study with country other than the U.S. These studies, were categorized as cross-societal researches. Osmond (1980) argued that the advent of the Journal of Comparative Family Studies in 1970 and the International Journal of Sociology of the Family in 1971 stimulated a greater interest in doing cross-societal family research in the decade of the 1970s. In 1967 the JMF was beginning to publish cross-cultural perspective articles under the International section.

Blacks were the only minority reviewed in the JMF of the 60s. Historically, the 60s are known as the most productive era of research on the Black family (Staples, 1971). The assumption that Black families are an important subculture of American society inspired JMF to devote its entire November 1978 issue to Black families (Peters, 1978). Research on the Black family has been used to shape public policy in an effort to diminish the causes of poverty among them (Staples, 1971).

In a decade review of minority families in the 1970s, JMF included Asian Americans, Hispanics, and Native Americans, as well as Black families. In this decade, a new ethnic identification emerged with a huge number of immigrants from Asia and Latin America (Staples & Mirande, 1980).

In the present study 3.7% of the research articles were of the race-cultural variation using minority groups as research subjects. Unlike the decade review of the 70s, there were only Black and Hispanic families as research subjects in the JMF during the 80s. The growing Hispanic population during the 1980s caused them to be the second largest minority population in the United States (Wilkinson, 1987), stimulating researchers to study this ethnic group.

Staples and Mirande (1980) argued that Asian American families were largely neglected in the family literature. They cited, as main reasons for this, the small numbers of Asian Americans which represent less than 10% of all minority groups, and their lifestyles, which are viewed as not being very different from the majority.

Themes during the Eighties

The categories for themes in this study follow the categories used in the JMF decade reviews. In observing the last three decades it is seen that new themes have appeared while others have disappeared in the titles of the JMF decade reviews. Table 1 compares the number of research articles during two periods: 1980-1984 and 1985-1989. It also consists of the total number of each research articles during the 80s.

Gender Roles

Until the 60s little research was done on gender roles, gender roles were seen as a minor area in family study. This may be the reason for the lack in the JMF decade review on gender roles for the 60s (Scanzoni & Fox, 1980).

During the 1970s, gender became an important social issue after "the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that gender discrimination violated the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment" in 1971 (Caycedo, Wang, & Bahr, 1991, p. 450). The importance of this issue can be seen in the increase of research on gender roles in the family in the 70s. The decade of the 1970s was characterized as the decade which gave attention to the division of labor by gender (Osmond, 1980).

Before the 80s, the term "sex role" was used instead of "gender role" (Scanzoni & Fox, 1980). In the 70s the term "sex role" was criticized for its deficiency and, ambiguity of the term, the confusion and overlap with genuine sexual issues, and the failure to identify the gender status differences (Scanzoni, 1980). The term "gender," now preferred, refers to "socially constructed behavior and usually insist it be distinguished from biological features" (Gould, 1980, p. 462).

Thompson and Walker (1989) did a review on gender in three domains of family life-marriage, work, and parenthood. In the JMF decade review of the 80s, gender role is

Table 1

Themes by Five Year Periods, 1980-1989

| Themes | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|--------------------------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Gender Roles | 23 | 4.8 | 23 | 3.9 | 46 | 4.3 |
| Premarital Sexual Relationship | 6 | 1.3 | 15 | 2.6 | 21 | 2.0 |
| Mate Selection | 13 | 2.7 | 16 | 2.7 | 29 | 2.7 |
| Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 7 | 1.5 | 14 | 2.4 | 21 | 2.0 |
| Parent-Child Relationship | 76 | 16.0 | 114 | 19.6 | 190 | 17.9 |
| Marital Quality | 51 | 10.7 | 45 | 7.7 | 96 | 9.1 |
| Family Power | 16 | 3.4 | 8 | 1.4 | 24 | 2.3 |
| Family Stress | 55 | 11.6 | 80 | 13.7 | 135 | 12.7 |
| Family Violence | 17 | 3.6 | 19 | 3.3 | 36 | 3.4 |
| Nontraditional Family Forms | 18 | 3.8 | 25 | 4.3 | 43 | 4.1 |
| Kinship | 25 | 5.3 | 23 | 3.9 | 48 | 4.5 |
| Divorce | 29 | 6.1 | 51 | 8.7 | 80 | 7.6 |
| Remarriage and Stepfamily | 3 | 0.6 | 21 | 3.6 | 24 | 2.3 |
| Family in Later Life | 23 | 4.8 | 21 | 3.6 | 44 | 4.2 |
| Family and Religion | 17 | 3.6 | 23 | 3.9 | 40 | 3.8 |

Table 1 (Continued)

| Themes | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|----------------------|-----------|------|-----------|-----|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Family and Economy | 58 | 12.2 | 50 | 8.6 | 108 | 10.2 |
| Family Communication | 8 | 1.7 | 5 | 0.9 | 13 | 1.2 |
| Family Policy | 3 | 0.8 | 3 | 0.5 | 6 | 0.6 |
| Others | 28 | 5.9 | 24 | 4.1 | 52 | 4.9 |
| Total | 476 | 100 | 583 | 100 | 1059 | 100 |

Note: The "others" category covers a diversified group, including quality of life, family and politics, life course, family structure, family formations, life cycle, leisure activity, birth order, and structure and size of households.

discussed in the article on feminism and family research (Ferree, 1990). In the present study, the percentage of research articles on gender roles decreased from 4.8% to 3.9% in the second five year period.

Premarital Sexual Relationship

Many studies showed that attitudes and behavior in relation to premarital sexual relationship changed among young adults during the 60s (Bell & Chaskes, 1970; Bell & Coughy, 1980; Cannon & Long, 1971; Chilman, 1980a, 1980b; Reiss, 1966; Robinson & Jedlicka, 1985). Social changes, such as the accessibility of birth control pills and student militancy in the mid-1960s, were the most frequently cited factors for explaining this phenomenon.

In both JMF decade reviews of the 60s and 70s, factors correlated to sexual behavior and impact of premarital sexual attitudes and behavior were discussed (Cannon & Long, 1971; Scanzoni & Fox 1980). Because many former studies were conducted to describe the variety of premarital sexual relationships, it would have been redundant to do the same thing in the decade review of the 80s (Surra, 1990). By discussing the effects of the premarital sexual relationship on mate selection in her decade review, Surra showed the importance of premarital sexual relationship in relation to other populations, such as divorced or older people.

In this study the percentage of research articles on premarital sexual relationships doubled, increasing from 1.3% in the first period to 2.6% in the second period.

Mate Selection

In a book about courtship, engagement, and marriage, Burgess, Wallin, and Schultz (1954) pointed out that more research on love and marriage was conducted after World War I. Before that time, discussion about sexual relations in marriage was taboo. For an example, in the mid-20s, two professors at a state university lost their positions after approving an empirical study on attitudes toward sex (Burgess, Wallin, and Schultz, 1954).

In a review of dating, courtship, and mate selection at the beginning of the 60s, Burchinal (1964) pointed out that dating is known as an American innovation that began in the 1920s. More studies about dating were conducted after Lowrie published an article about dating as a neglected area in Marriage and Family Living (now JMF) in 1948 (Burchinal, 1964).

In a decade review of mate selection of the 70s, Murstein (1980) said that the 70s was characterized by a decline in dating among the college students. A decline in dating on campus life led to a decline in research on dating since the research subjects were usually college students. In the JMF decade review of the 70s, mate selection is broadly formulated by including premarital relationships

generally, not just those that result in marriage (Surra, 1990).

Research on mate selection in this study was steady in two periods, i.e., 2.7% and 2.7%, consecutively in the first and second periods.

Adolescent Sexual Behavior

Since the mid-1960s and continuing through at least 1976, teenage sexual behavior experienced a dramatic increase. This phenomenon, on the one hand, can be explained by a lack of social or psychological studies of the consequences of adolescent sexuality before the 1970s (Chilman, 1980a). On the other hand, it can also be an impetus for an increase of research in this area during the 1970s (Chilman, 1980a). Researchers are interested in studying adolescent sexual behavior because it is seen as a critical process of family formation (Miller & Moore, 1990). The dramatic increase in adolescent sexuality during the 70s predictably made it "an area of major investigation in the eighties" (Berardo, 1981, p. 251).

In a review of adolescent sexuality, Dyk, Christopherson, and Miller (1991) found an enormous increase in research in this area in the 80s. Funding from the Adolescent Family Life Act of 1981 encouraged research on adolescent sexuality. The percentage of articles of this theme in the present study increased even though the number was still low, from 1.5% in the first five year period to

2.4% in the second five year period. The small amount of research in adolescent sexual behavior in the JMF might be explained by the appearance of articles dealing with this theme in other adolescence journals such as Adolescence, Youth and Society, and Journal of Youth and Adolescence. However, this is a speculation by the author as she has no empirical data to support this conclusion.

Parent-child Relationship

The JMF decade review of the 60s included the broad issues concerning parent-child relationships, such as gender role identification, intergenerational relationships between parents and adult children (family in later life), effects of divorce and stepparents (divorce and remarriage), and occupational choice and mobility aspiration (family and economy). In later JMF decade reviews, these subthemes were reviewed separately.

Although the decade review of the 80s did not mention a single article dealing with the "parent-child relationship," this does not indicate that there was no review of this theme. The theme of the parent-child relationships in the 80s decade review was divided into family and adolescence (see Gecas & Seff, 1990), and parental-nonparental child care and children's socioemotional development (see Belsky, 1990). The JMF November 1989 issue had two reviews of parent-child relationship, i.e., between aging parents and adult children (see Mancini & Blieszner, 1989) and between

mothers and daughters (Boyd, 1989). These several reviews of subthemes of the parent-child relationship indicated many studies had been done in these areas.

In the present study the parent-child relationship was the most popular theme. The percentage of articles of this theme increased from 16.0% in the first period to 19.6% in the second period. These findings were not surprising since all themes can be studied, directly or indirectly, in terms of the parent-child relationship. Many issues can be viewed from the perspective of relationships between parent and children, including the relationship between children and the custodial parent, the impact of parental divorce on courtship, child abuse, premarital sexual behavior among adolescents as a function of their mothers' marital status, the relationship between the presence of adult children and the stress for elderly couples, and the impact of children on marital quality.

Marital Quality

Marital quality has been the dominant topic since it emerged in the 1940s (Nimkoff, 1948; Nye, 1988; Nye & Bayer, 1963). The 1970 decade review featured articles on marital happiness and marital stability (Hicks & Platt, 1970). Their review focused on divorce as an indicator of marital instability and "the subjective feeling about the state of marriage" (p. 59), which can be labeled as happiness, satisfaction, success, or adjustment. Though

these concepts are difficult to define and often used interchangeably, they are most frequently used to describe the subjective state of the marital relationship or the quality of marriage (Burr, 1973; Hicks & Platt, 1970; Lewis & Spanier, 1979).

During the 1970s, marital quality continued to be one of the most widely studied in the family field, although there was still little agreement on the definition and the use of the terms marital quality, satisfaction, adjustment, and happiness (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). During this decade marital quality was recognized as encompassing multidimensional phenomena (Spanier & Lewis, 1980).

After two decades, marital quality was still being studied. Unlike Hicks and Platt's (1970) review which mentioned the relationship between communication and marital happiness, the review in the 80s about marital quality is divided into marital quality (Glenn 1990), and marital communication (Noller & Fitzpatrick 1990).

As Spanier and Lewis (1980) predicted, research on marital quality was still dominant during the 80s, though the research articles on this theme decreased from 10.7% in the first period to 7.7% in the second period.

Family Power

In an article about family power in 1963, Heer (1963) said that family power has been a neglected area in family study for a long time. Several studies of family power was

conducted in the late 1950s. The increase of employed married women was the factor most often mentioned as the impetus for studying family power. It was assumed that the "husband-dominated family becomes more equalitarian as a result of the wife's employment outside the home" (Blood & Hamblin, 1958, p. 347). The year 1950 was the first time in American history that married women were the majority of all working women (Blood & Wolfe, 1960).

An abundance of research on family power was conducted in the 60s (Safilios-Rothschild, 1971). One of the problems in studies of family power during this time was the lack of definition of terms such as "family power," "power structure," "decision-making," "disagreement," "family authority," and "influence," some of which have been used interchangeably (Bahr, 1974; Safilios-Rothschild, 1971).

The problem of defining the concept of family power has continued during the 70s and is still not entirely resolved (McDonald, 1980; Szinovacz, 1987). Nevertheless, Bahr (1974) argued that we can "examine the substantive findings regarding power without becoming involved in excessive methodological detail" (Bahr, 1974, p. 172). This area continued as a major topic in family studies during the 70s (McDonald, 1980).

In the Table of Contents of the JMF decade review of the 80s, no article addressed the issue of family power. The only discussion about power in the family was included

in articles about feminism (Ferree, 1990). In this study the percentage of research articles decreased from 3.4% in the first period to 1.4% in the second period.

Family Stress and Coping

Not one article about family stress and coping was mentioned in the JMF decade review of the 60s, though the topic was mentioned by Broderick (1971) in the discussion of conceptual frameworks. According to Broderick (1971), family stress was one of the areas in family study in the 1960s which produced the most theory. In the decade review of the 70s, McCubbin, Joy, Cauble, Comeau, Patterson, and Needle (1980) had similar findings as in the 1960s, mentioning the continuing lack of family stress research in the 70s.

In the JMF decade review of the 80s, family stress was discussed in two reviews, family and health (Ross, Mirowsky, & Goldsteen, 1990) and in a specific area, i.e., economic distress (Voydanoff, 1990). The JMF decade review of the 80s included the theme of family and health (Ross, Mirowsky, & Goldsteen, 1990), a theme was not found in the earlier JMF decade reviews. However, this is not a recent theme, especially if we look at the definition that has been used. Ross, Mirowsky, and Goldsteen (1990) used the World Health Organization's definition of health in their review, i.e., "a state of physical and emotional well being." This theme can also be put into a family stress and coping theme

because it looks at the relation between life stress and illness (McCubbin, Joy, Cauble, Comeau, Patterson, & Needle, 1980). In the decade review of family and health, there is a discussion of things that explain physical and emotional health, which in family stress is called coping behavior. These themes are combined under family and stress.

Economic distress, which was recognized as "important interrelated consequences of the restructuring of the American economy" (Voydanoff, 1990, p. 1099), is assumed to create worker-earner and employment-income problems in the family.

In the present study, the percentage of articles on the family stress and coping theme increased from 11.6% to 13.7% in the second period.

Family Violence

Although the JMF decade review in the 60s did not contain any review of research on family violence, child abuse was recognized as the only form of family violence in the 60s, and many of these studies was written by and for medical or mental health professionals (Gelles 1980; Gelles, 1985; Steinmetz, 1978; Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980).

The terms abuse and violence were often used interchangeably, while they are not conceptually equivalent (Gelles, 1980; Gelles, 1985; Straus & Gelles, 1990). One frequently used definition of violence, proposed by Gelles and Straus (1979) as "an act carried out with the intention

of, or perceived as having the intention of, physically hurting another person" (p. 554). On the other hand, abuse frequently cited from the Federal Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act of 1974 (PL 93-237) is defined as ". . . the physical or mental injury, sexual abuse, negligent treatment, or maltreatment of a person. . . ." (Gelles, 1985; 1990). This definition can be applied to wife abuse or parent abuse by broadening it to include "sexual abuse, marital rape, and even pornography" (Gelles, 1990, p. 21). In the present study, research on family violence focus on either abuse or violence.

In the 70s, wife abuse was acknowledged as a form of family violence and recognized as an important social problem after Erin Pizzey published a book about the shelters for battered women in 1977 (Hudson & McIntosh, 1981). During the 80s, the public became aware of "the battered aged-elderly parents who are in a helpless and dependent position" (Steinmetz, 1978). The neglect of parent abuse as an aspect in family violence also can be seen in the two National Surveys (Straus & Gelles, 1986) which did not mention it. Although Steinmetz (1978) and Sigler (1989) mentioned elder abuse, they did not mention violence of children toward their middle-aged parents, which Peek and Fischer (1985) said has been neglected as a research theme.

Among the articles about family violence in the JMF during the 80s, spouse abuse has been the most studied (48.6%), followed by child abuse (29.7%). Research article of parent abuse consist of only 8.1%. No articles about elder abuse is in the Table of Contents of the JMF during the 80s.

Although Gelles and Conte (1990) said that the increase of studies on domestic violence and sexual abuse in children in the 80s were greater than any other topic in social science, the percentage of articles about family violence research in the JMF during the 80s actually decreased slightly from 3.6% in the first five year period to 3.3% in the second five year period. The reason for this lack of research can be explained by the fact that many articles dealing with this topic appear in other journals, such as the Journal of Interpersonal Violence, Gerontologist, Aging, Violence and Victims, and Journal of Family Violence.

Nontraditional Family Forms

The categories of nontraditional family forms or "alternative lifestyles" for this study follow the categories given by Macklin (1980), except for divorce and remarriage (including stepfamily). The reason for not including divorce, remarriage and stepfamilies in the theme of nontraditional family forms is that they have been reviewed separately in single articles since the last decade review. The nontraditional family forms include single

parent families (never-married or once married); different types of communal families (multilateral marriage, communal living, affiliated families and expanded families); androgynous marriage (including the O'Neills' "open marriage", dual-earner families, and commuter marriage); never-married singlehood; nonmarital cohabitation; and voluntary childlessness.

The emergence of the nontraditional families in the United States in the late 60s or the earlier 70s (Macklin, 1978) can explain the absence of a single article about this theme in the JMF decade review of the 60s.

In a decade review of the 70s, Macklin (1980) found indications of changes within the family, with increasing diversity of nontraditional family forms during the 70s. The women's liberation movement and the development of a highly individualized and industrialized society can be seen as having a profound influence on the emergence of a variety of family forms (Butler, 1979; Macklin, 1980).

The JMF decade review of the 70s discussed some of the family forms such as the single-parent family (Walters, & Walters, 1980) and the dual-earner family (Scanzoni & Fox, 1980). Remarriage and stepfamilies were the only nontraditional forms discussed in a single article in the JMF decade review of the 80s. The dual-earner and single-parent families were discussed in other reviews such

as parental employment (McLanahan & Booth, 1989; Menaghan & Parcel, 1990; Miller & Moore, 1990; Voydanoff, 1990).

The emergence of numerous alternative family forms encouraged scientists to publish Alternative Lifestyles, a journal devoted to research on nontraditional family forms, in 1978 (Macklin, 1980). The existence of this journal may account for the JMF decade review of the table of Contents as not having a single article on the theme for the 80s

Research articles on nontraditional family forms for the 80s discussed single-parent families, dual-earner families, and nonmarital cohabitation more than before. The subthemes of never-married singlehood, voluntarily childlessness, and communal living received less coverage in the 80s. The percentage of articles with these themes increased from 3.8% in the first five year period to 4.3% in the second period.

Kinship

Research on kin interaction was rare among American sociologists before the 1950s, the decade when "kin networks were rediscovered" (Drabek, Key, Erickson, & Crowe, 1975, p. 37). During the 1950s and the 1960s numerous studies found some evidence against the assumption that the urban American families are isolated from wider kin relations (Lopata, 1978).

Compared to the interaction between husband-wife and parent-child, the interaction between and among siblings has

been given less attention (Irish, 1964). The view that contact among adult children and their aging parents is more frequent than among siblings or other kin can account for this (Adams, 1971).

The number of research articles on kinship in the 70s decreased from the 60s (Lee, 1980). However, this does not mean that this area is not important at the present time. According to Lee (1980), studies about kinship in the 70s are more varied than in the past because they included gender, age, and marital status which were not mentioned earlier; and were oriented more toward/ explanatory than descriptive generalizations.

Although the Table of Contents of the JMF decade review of the 80s lacked a single article about kinship, the topic of kinship was discussed in other articles, such as family in later life (Brubaker, 1990), the consequences of divorce (Kitson & Morgan, 1990), Black families (Taylor, Chatters, Tucker, & Lewis, 1990), Hispanic families (Vega, 1990) and family and health (Ross, Mirowsky, & Goldsteen, 1990). In the present study, the percentage of research articles decreased from 5.3% to 3.9% in the second five-year period.

Divorce

Review of divorce in the JMF for the 60s was inherent in a review of marital happiness and stability because research related to these topics concentrated on analyzing divorce and desertion data (Hicks & Platt, 1970). Divorce

Divorce and desertion relates to marital stability since a marriage will be called unstable if it is ended by divorce, separation, desertion, or annulment (Lewis & Spanier, 1979). In a decade review in the 60s (Hicks & Platt, 1970) the discussion centered around the demographic and personality factors of divorced and non divorced persons which reflected the lack of emphasis on divorce on that time.

The enormous increase in the divorce rate during the mid-60s and 70s led to an increase in research, books, and articles on this topic during the 70s (Price-Bonham & Balswick, 1980). A decade review in 1980 about divorce, remarriage, and desertion reflected increased research during the 70s. Concerns about divorce as a social problem can be seen in the decade review of the 70s which discussed broader aspects such as the adjustment to divorce and the relationship with the former spouse. According to White (1990), high rates of divorce were not only a phenomenon in the 1970s, but divorce has become a common "standard part of America family experience" (p. 904). The high rate of divorce can be seen from the refined divorce rate which has increased from 8% in 1920 (US. Bureau of the Census, 1975) to 20.8% in 1987 (US. Bureau of the Census, 1991). Reviews of divorce in the JMF in 1990 are divided into two articles: the determinants (White, 1990) and the consequences of divorce (Kitson & Morgan, 1990). In the present study

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articles on divorce increased from 6.1% in the first period to 8.7% in the second period.

Remarriage and Stepfamily

Remarriage and stepfamily issues were ignored in the literature before 1978 (Coleman & Ganong, 1990; Price-Bonham & Balswick, 1980). Remarriage and the stepfamily were not mentioned in the JMF decade review in the 60s (Hicks & Platt, 1970), and discussions of theory on the quality of marriage (Lewis & Spanier, 1979) reflected the lack of studies in this area.

Although the remarriage rate declined in the early 80s after reaching a peak in the 60s (Pasley & Ihinger-Tallman, 1987), the decade of the 80s was noticeable as "the most productive period for research on remarriage and stepfamilies" (Coleman & Ganong, 1990, p. 925).

Remarriage is recognized as having unique problems. In contrast to earlier times where remarriage followed the death of a spouse, the majority of remarriages in the last two decades were preceded by divorce (Cherlin, 1978; Coleman & Ganong, 1990; Ihinger-Tallman, 1988; Spanier & Furstenberg, 1987). Remarriage following divorce is argued as having more problems than remarriage following the death of a spouse because (a) remarriage consists of "people who are predisposed to seek divorce as a solution to marital unhappiness" (Coleman & Ganong, 1990, p. 931); and (b) as noted by Cherlin (1978), there is a lack of

"institutionalized guidelines," such as law, for couples in remarriage after divorce. This causes a lack of norms in solving their common problems.

The increased research on remarriage and stepfamilies enabled it to be discussed in a single article in the JMF decade review of the 80s. In the present study, the percentage of research article on remarriage and stepfamilies has increased about six times from 0.6% to 3.6% in the second five year-period. Less than 5% (2.3%) for the total percentage of research on remarriage during the 80s in the JMF does not mean that there was little research on remarriage, but other research were published in other journals, such as, the Journal of Family Issues, Family Relations, Family Process, Journal of Divorce, and Child Development.

Family in Later Life

During the 1940s and 1950s an interest in studying elderly people emerged which focused on "the adjustment of recipients of old-age assistance and other effects of the Great Depression" (Hess & Markson, 1980, p. 13). Interest in this area continued into the 1960s with the production of handbooks, and a focus on research and methodology on the family in later life. Troll (1971), who did the first review in the JMF in this area, argued that although the studies on the "second half of the family cycle" were few before, during the 60s the number increased rapidly.

During the 70s attention to the family in later life increased as can be seen in the emerging abundance of publications, workshops, seminars, and courses in colleges during this time (Streib & Beck, 1980). The decade review of the 70s included economics, law and public policy, all aspects of this problem which were excluded in the decade review of the 60s.

The 80s were recognized as a period of an "explosion" of research on the family in later life (Brubaker, 1990). The tremendous amount of research during this time enabled Mancini and Blieszner (1989) to do a review on the relationship between aging parents and adult children.

In this study the percentage of articles about family in later life decreased from 4.8% to 3.6% in the second period. Research on this theme, which is published in other journals such as Research on Aging, Family Relations, Journal of Family Issues, Gerontologist, and Journal of Gerontology, may explain why there are not many research articles on this theme in the JMF during the 80s.

Family and Religion

In the Table of Contents of the JMF decade review of the 60s and 70s, there were no articles about religion. Religion was almost completely neglected in the two prominent textbooks of family theories published in 1979 (Thomas & Cornwall, 1990). This does not mean that there was no research about the relationship between religion and

family before the 60s. In a review of religion and families over 60 years, Jenkins (1991) found research conducted since the 30s on the influence of religion on dating behavior, mate selection, and marital satisfaction.

Concern about religion and the family has increased in the 1980s. Several events showed this increase, such as a seminar about religion at the University of Notre Dame in 1981; the "Middletown studies" in 1982 and 1983; the 1984 National Council of Family Relations Conference, which began a new section on religion, and a conference about religion at Brigham Young University in 1984 (Thomas & Cornwall, 1990).

In a study of about 17 journals publishing articles on religion and the family during the 80s (Thomas & Cornwall, 1990), it was found that an increasing number of articles appeared in the second five-year period, from 44.8% to 55.3%. The majority (7.3%) of the articles were published in the JMF. The number of articles about religion in the JMF during the 80s in Thomas and Cornwall's (1990) study was greater than those which were found in the present study. This difference is due to two factors. The first is the different approach used in computing the articles. In Thomas and Cornwall's study, if a key word "religion" appeared in the title or abstract and in a Table or Figure, the article was included; while in the present study, the key word was counted only when it was included in the title

of the article. The second factor is that articles used in the present study were only the research articles.

In this present study, the number of research articles on religion increased from 17 (that is, 42.5% of all articles about family and religion) in the first five years to 23 (57.5%) in the second five years during the 80s. Although the number in the two studies was different, there were similar findings on the increase in the number of articles during the two periods of time. One reason for this increase is the publication of the Brigham Young conference papers in a special section of religion in the JMF May, 1985.

Family and the Economy

The growing numbers of women in the labor force was one of the main reasons to study the relationship between women's work and the family, since nonemployed wives were viewed as the norm (Piotrkowski, Rapoport, & Rapoport, 1987; Spitze, 1989). A review about family and the economy in the JMF decade review of the 60s was under the title family management.

A book-length review of working mothers and the effects on children, power in the families, division of labor, and husband-wife relationship was written by Hoffman and Nye in 1974. The JMF decade review of the 70s did not contain a single article about family and the economy. This theme has been treated as a part of other reviews such as the

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consequences of women's paid employment for household task-performance (gender role), and financial problems among divorced and remarried people (divorce and remarriage).

In the JMF 1989 there was a review about women's employment and family relations (Spitze, 1989). Unlike earlier reviews, this review discussed broader aspects, i.e. relations with extended family members.

During the 80s massive research on the family and the economy was undertaken. Menaghan and Parcel's (1990) argument that the daily interactions of family life are affected by the economic activities of family members could account for this trend. In the present study the percentage of articles with this theme was still high although in the second period it decreased from 12.2% to 8.6%. The abundance of research on family and the economy enabled the topic to be divided into two articles in the JMF decade review for the 80s, i.e., parental employment (Menaghan & Parcel, 1990) and economic distress (Voydanoff, 1990).

Family Communication

In the JMF decade reviews of the 60s and the 70s, family communication was discussed within the context of marital quality. Although during the 80s the percentage of articles on this theme in the JMF was 1.7% in the first period and 0.9% in the second period, this does not mean that little attention was paid to this theme. During the 80s the importance of both affective and cognitive factors

of family communication and the type of marriage were recognized. This encouraged researchers to study this area separately from reviews of marital quality in general. The family communication theme is more prevalent in psychological journals, such as Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, and Journal of Family Psychology than in the JMF.

Family Policy

Interest in discussing the effectiveness of family policy "to promote family well-being and in which areas it should intervene" (Aldous & Dumon, 1990, p. 1137) began in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Interest in family policy has also emerged among the scientists in evaluating the achievements of particular policy, considering the legislative process for a policy, and shaping issues of public concern. Family policy was discussed in the 80s decade review for the first time indicating the scientists' concern (Aldous & Dumon, 1990).

Research articles about family policy in the JMF during the 80s were not numerous and the percentage in the first and second period was steady at 0.6% to 0.5%. Reasons given for this small number are (a) many articles about family policy were published in other journals, such as Journal of Family Issues, Social Service Review, or Gerontologist; (b)

some articles about family policy in the JMF 1980s were categorized as non research articles.

Summary on Themes

Themes during the 80s can be summarized under five aspects.

1. New themes. Several themes such as, gender roles, adolescent sexual behavior, family stress and coping, violence, nontraditional family forms, remarriage, family and religion, and family policy did not appear in the JMF review of the 60s. Other themes, such as divorce, remarriage, family and economy, and family communication were only subthemes in the former reviews.

2. Increase in research. The increase of research on divorce, family stress and coping, family and the economy, and family communication during the 80s, caused these topics from subthemes to be reviewed individually as a theme. In the JMF during the 80s the first three themes were reviewed in two articles, such as determinants and consequences of divorce; family and health, and economic distress; and parental employment and economic distress.

3. Disappearance of themes or decreasing research. Compared to the former decades, the 80s research on gender roles and kinship decreased. Review on gender roles was discussed under feminism, while kinship are now becoming subthemes under family in later life, divorce, Black

families, Hispanic family, and family and health, probably because kinship covered broader issues.

4. Stability. Research on marital quality was still predominant during the 80s since its appearance in 1940s. Though parent-child relationships were the most dominant theme in the 80s, they were discussed under subthemes such as family and adolescent; parental-nonparental childcare and children's emotional development; aging parents and adult children; and mothers and daughters.

5. Small percentage. During the 80s, the percentage of research on some themes, such as adolescent sexual behavior, premarital sexual relationship, family violence, nontraditional family forms, remarriage, family in later life, family communication, and family policy, was small. It does not mean that these themes were not popular but many of them were published in other journals rather than in the JMF.

CHAPTER IV

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH DURING THE EIGHTIES

The trends in the characteristics of family study since 1947 to 1987 have been reviewed (Hodgson & Lewis, 1979; Klein, Clavert, Garland, & Poloma, 1969; Mogey, 1969; Nye & Bayer, 1963; Nye, 1988). In the present study some of the characteristics of research, such as purpose of the study, using hypothesis, level of data analysis, time dimension, and statistical techniques were examined.

Purpose of the Study

Nye (1988) found that family research had moved beyond the description of marriage and family situations, behavior and events, to the explanatory model of reasons for certain situations happening. In the JMF during the 80s, more than half (61.6%) of the studies were descriptive, and about a quarter (24.6%) of them were explanatory (Table 2). Fewer than 1% (0.5%) studies were categorized as meta-analysis. The purpose of a meta analysis study is to summarize, integrate, and interpret the findings of individual studies, especially when the findings were different (Vemer, Coleman,

Table 2

Purpose of the Study by Five Year Periods, 1980-1989

| Purpose of the Study | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|-------------------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Exploratory | 41 | 12.1 | 56 | 14.2 | 97 | 13.2 |
| Descriptive | 212 | 62.5 | 240 | 60.8 | 452 | 61.6 |
| Explanatory | 85 | 25.1 | 96 | 24.3 | 180 | 24.6 |
| Meta-analysis | 1 | 0.3 | 3 | 0.8 | 4 | 0.5 |
| Total | 339 | 100 | 395 | 100 | 734 | 100 |

Ganong, & Cooper 1989). In the previous reviews no research articles mentioned having done this type of study. This canbe explained by the fact that meta-analysis research was first mentioned in 1976 by Glass (1976). Some themes are more researched in the exploratory model, descriptive, or explanatory than others as seen in Appendix A.

In this study researchers most frequently used the exploratory model when dealing with the following four themes: nontraditional family forms (20.9%), family power (20.8%), divorce (21.3%), and remarriage (25.0%). This finding concerning nontraditional family form studies supports the conclusions of other studies (Houseknecht,

1987; Macklin 1987) which found that most of the initial research on nontraditional family forms during the 80s and 70s used the exploratory model.

In the present study the descriptive model was more frequently used in research on premarital relationships (85.7%) and family violence (75.0%). Steinmetz (1987), in the review of research on family violence, had similar findings. In contrast to Lee's conclusions (1980) of using more explanatory than descriptive model in kinship studies during the 70s, this present study of the 80s shows more (58.3%) descriptive studies in research on kinship than explanatory (18.8%).

In a review of family in later life in the 70s, Streib and Beck (1980) found that research in this area was primarily descriptive. Although most of the research on family in later life in JMF during the 80s was descriptive (61.4%), more than a quarter of the research was explanatory.

Three themes, gender roles (37.0%), family communication (30.8%), and family policy (50.0%) used more explanatory studies than the others. Meta-analysis studies in the JMF during the 80s were few and were limited to the themes of gender roles, marital quality, family stress and coping, remarriage, and family and economy.

Use of Hypotheses in Research

In their study of trends in family research, Nye and Bayer (1963) found an increase in research articles stating a formal or informal hypotheses from 45.1% in the period 1947-1951 to 78.5% in the period 1957-1961. Twenty years later, Nye (1988) did a trend in family research during the 50 years in five journals, i.e., the Journal of Marriage and the Family, the American Sociological Review, American Journal of Sociology, Social Forces, and Sociology and Social Research. The years 1937, 1947, 1957, 1967, 1977, and 1987 were chosen as the sample. Nye (1988) found an increase of stating hypotheses from 1937 to 1987. In the first three years, 22% of the articles stated a hypotheses, while in the last three years, the percentage became 49%.

Similar to Nye's (1988) findings, the present study frequently found hypotheses were given without any stated theory. Although more of the research articles in the JMF in the 80's did not use any hypotheses, research articles using hypotheses increased from 30.1% in 1980-1984 to 39.2% in 1985-1989 (Table 3). In this study the use of hypotheses was more frequently found with certain themes i.e, gender roles (41.3%), mate selection (41.4%), family power (50.0%), family stress and coping (47.4%), family in later life (45.5%), and family communication (53.8%) (Table 4).

Table 3

Use of Hypotheses by Five Year Periods, 1980-1989

| Using Hypotheses | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|------------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Not used | 237 | 69.9 | 240 | 60.8 | 477 | 65.0 |
| Used | 102 | 30.1 | 155 | 39.2 | 253 | 35.0 |
| Total | 339 | 100 | 395 | 100 | 734 | 100 |

Table 4

Use of Hypotheses in Themes

| Themes | Not used | | Used | |
|----------------------------|----------|------|------|------|
| | | (%) | | (%) |
| Gender Roles | 27 | 58.7 | 19 | 41.3 |
| Premarital Relationship | 15 | 71.4 | 6 | 28.6 |
| Mate Selection | 17 | 58.6 | 12 | 41.4 |
| Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 13 | 61.9 | 8 | 38.1 |
| Parent-Child Relationship | 122 | 64.2 | 68 | 35.8 |
| Marital Quality | 61 | 63.5 | 35 | 36.5 |
| Family Power | 12 | 50.0 | 12 | 50.0 |
| Family Stress and Coping | 71 | 52.6 | 64 | 47.4 |
| Family Violence | 28 | 77.8 | 8 | 22.2 |
| Nontraditional Family Form | 35 | 81.4 | 8 | 18.6 |
| Kinship | 29 | 60.4 | 19 | 39.6 |
| Divorce | 51 | 63.0 | 29 | 36.3 |
| Remarriage | 20 | 83.3 | 4 | 16.7 |
| Family in Later Life | 24 | 54.5 | 20 | 45.5 |
| Family and Religion | 26 | 65.0 | 14 | 35.0 |
| Family and Economy | 68 | 63.0 | 40 | 37.0 |
| Family Communication | 6 | 46.2 | 7 | 53.8 |
| Family Policy | 4 | 66.7 | 2 | 33.3 |
| Others | 41 | 78.8 | 11 | 21.2 |

Cannon and Long (1971) stated that research on premarital relationships during the 60s lacked hypotheses. In the JMF during the 80s there are still relatively few studies in this area using hypotheses (28.6%). More studies on family stress and coping used hypotheses than studies on other themes, supporting Huang's conclusion (1991). In a review about research on family stress and coping, Huang (1991) found that "in the 1980's, a larger proportion of researchers than in previous decades formulated hypotheses" (p. 318).

Level of Data Analysis

Level of data analysis was one of the methodologies that was also examined in Nye and Bayer's (1963). Though secondary analysis was popular in the first ten-year period of their study (Nye & Bayer, 1963), 31.0% in the period 1947-1951, and 30.5% in the period 1952-1956, it decreased in 1957-1961 to 13.1%. Ruano, Bruce, & McDermott (1969) found a slight increase (17.3%) over the findings reported by Nye and Bayer (1963). Nye (1988) also found an increase from 43% in 1977 to 53% in 1987 in the use of secondary data in five journals. During the 80's research article in the JMF use of secondary data decreased slightly from 28.0% in the first five-year period to 26.1% in the second five year-period (Table 5).

Table 5

Level of Data Analysis by Five Year Periods, 1980-1989

| Level of Data Analysis | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|---------------------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Primary Analysis | 242 | 71.4 | 287 | 72.7 | 529 | 72.1 |
| Secondary Analysis | 95 | 28.0 | 103 | 26.1 | 198 | 27.0 |
| Meta Analysis | 1 | 0.3 | 3 | 0.8 | 4 | 0.5 |
| Primary and Secondary | 1 | 0.3 | 2 | 0.6 | 3 | 0.4 |
| Total | 339 | 100 | 395 | 100 | 734 | 100 |

future: it is time consuming and expensive to collect the primary data; and a tendency of declining responses in data collection. Miller, Rollins, & Thomas (1982) cited Schuman's findings that during the last twenty years response rates declined by 15-20%.

In the same article Miller, Rollins, & Thomas (1982) noted the weakness of secondary data, especially the limitations of the questions which "cannot be added or rephrased more appropriately to address a research issue" (p. 863). Therefore, the researcher was restricted in analyzing the study (Miller, Rollins, & Thomas 1982; Raschke, 1987; White, 1990).

Although the amount was very small (0.5%), several research articles used meta-analysis. Previous reviews of research articles never mentioned this method of analysis (see purpose of the study section).

Levels of data analysis may depend on the themes of the research. During the 80s, in comparison to other themes, premarital relationship (38.1%), mate selection (41.4%), divorce (48.8%), and family policy (66.7%) used more secondary data than primary data (Appendix B).

In a review about determinants of divorce in the 80s, White (1990) found that most of research during this decade used secondary analysis, such as the National Labor Surveys, Panel Study of Income Dynamics, National Studies of Family Growth, Current Population Surveys, or the General Social Surveys. In the JMF during the 80s research on divorce was one that used almost as much secondary data (48.8%) as primary (51.3%). In this present study only research on gender roles, marital quality, family stress and coping, remarriage, and family and economy used meta analysis.

Time Dimension

Time dimension has also been mentioned in previous reviews (Mogey, 1969b; Ruano, Bruce, & McDermott 1969). In a study about marriage and the family in 1957-1968, Mogey (1969) found more research were cross sectional rather than longitudinal. In 1969, 14% of all the research articles in Ruano's study (1969) reported using longitudinal study.

Although a tendency to conduct cross sectional studies was still found in the JMF in 80s, there was an increase in longitudinal studies from 25.7% in the first five-years to 29.4% in the second five-years (Table 6). The increasing

Table 6

Time Dimension by Five Year Periods, 1980-1989

| Time Dimension | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|----------------------------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Cross sectional | 251 | 74.0 | 277 | 70.1 | 528 | 71.9 |
| Longitudinal | 87 | 25.7 | 116 | 29.4 | 203 | 27.7 |
| Cross sectional and Longitudinal | 1 | 0.3 | 2 | 0.5 | 3 | 0.4 |
| Total | 339 | 100 | 395 | 100 | 734 | 100 |

trend of using longitudinal study was mentioned by Johnson (1988). In the same article, Johnson (1988) mentioned the advantages and the disadvantage of longitudinal study. In this study, trend studies, cohort studies, and panel studies were grouped into longitudinal studies. Less than 1% (0.4%) of the research used both longitudinal and cross sectional techniques.

The majority (71.9%) of the researches in this study was cross sectional. Cross sectional studies were recognized to have limitations, such as being incapable of

detecting the consequences of behavior. For example, "Without longitudinal data regarding the quality of the marital relationship prior to extramarital sex (EMS) it is difficult to determine the effect of EMS on marriage" (Macklin, 1987, p. 334).

Some themes relied more frequently on longitudinal studies than others (Table 7). Table 7 shows time dimension during the 80s by themes. Almost half (43.0%) of the studies of divorce in the JMF in the 80s used the longitudinal technique. Similar results were found by Kitson and Morgan (1990) and White (1990) in their reviews of research of divorce during the 80s. These findings indicate an improvement in the time dimension since longitudinal studies on divorce were almost nonexistent during the 70s (Price-Bonham & Balswick, 1980). The advantage of longitudinal studies on divorce research is the increased insight into the process of postdivorce, such as the types of family reorganization, change over time in response to the changing needs of the divorced individuals, or changes in depressive feeling among the divorced (Johnson, 1988; Menaghan & Lieberman, 1986).

Studies about family in later life during the 60s were deficient in longitudinal research (Troll, 1971). Streib and Beck (1980) found that in the 70s there was still a lack of longitudinal studies in the family in later life research. Though Brubaker (1990) said that longitudinal

Table 7

Themes by Time Dimension

| Themes | Cross Sectional | | Longitudinal | | Cross Sectional and Longitudinal | |
|-----------------|--------------------|------|--------------|------|--|-----|
| | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) |
| Gender Roles | 37 | 80.4 | 9 | 19.6 | - | |
| Premarital | | | | | | |
| Relationship | 14 | 66.7 | 7 | 33.3 | - | |
| Mate Selection | 21 | 72.4 | 8 | 27.6 | - | |
| Adolescent | | | | | | |
| Sexual Behavior | 14 | 66.7 | 7 | 33.3 | - | |
| Parent-Child | | | | | | |
| Relationship | 142 | 74.7 | 48 | 25.3 | - | |
| Marital Quality | 81 | 84.4 | 15 | 15.6 | - | |
| Family Power | 23 | 95.8 | 1 | 4.2 | - | |
| Family Stress | | | | | | |
| and Coping | 92 | 68.1 | 30 | 31.9 | - | |
| Family Violence | 27 | 75.0 | 9 | 25.0 | - | |
| Nontraditional | | | | | | |
| Family Forms | 30 | 69.8 | 12 | 27.9 | 1 | 2.3 |
| Kinship | 40 | 83.3 | 7 | 14.6 | 1 | 2.1 |
| Divorce | 45 | 56.3 | 34 | 43.0 | 1 | 1.3 |
| Remarriage | 16 | 66.7 | 7 | 29.2 | 1 | 4.2 |
| Family in | | | | | | |
| Later Life | 36 | 81.8 | 7 | 15.9 | 1 | 2.3 |
| Family and | | | | | | |
| Religion | 31 | 77.5 | 9 | 22.5 | - | |
| Family and | | | | | | |
| Economy | 72 | 66.7 | 35 | 32.4 | 1 | 0.9 |
| Family | | | | | | |
| Communication | 9 | 69.2 | 4 | 30.8 | - | |
| Family Policy | 2 | 33.3 | 4 | 66.7 | - | |
| Others | 30 | 57.7 | 22 | 42.3 | - | |

studies became more prevalent in the 80s, this present study found that research on family in later life was one of the themes that used far less (15.9%) longitudinal studies.

In a review about family stress in the 70s, McCubbin, Joy, Cauble, Comeau, Patterson, and Needle (1980) mentioned that the distinction between stressor and family response was predictably difficult to achieve because investigators tended to focus on families at a cross-section in time. In the present study, stress was often defined in the context of events such as transition to parenthood, chronic illness, divorce, financial hardship, and widowhood. The percentage of the longitudinal studies was 31.9%.

Although Walters and Walters (1980) mentioned the desirability of longitudinal studies in the 70s' review of the parent-child relationships, most studies of parental behavior and adolescent socialization in the 80s were cross sectional (Gecas & Seff, 1990). This study showed that only about a quarter (25.3%) of the research used the longitudinal design. The paucity of longitudinal studies on the effects of stressful family transition on child behavior is too limited to infer a conclusion.

Majority of marital quality studies used the cross sectional design although there was an awareness of the importance of longitudinal study in this research during the 70s (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). In the 80s there was an increase in longitudinal studies, but still much of the

research on marital quality was conducted in the cross sectional dimension (Glenn, 1990). In this study, research on marital quality was one of the themes that less frequently (15.6%) used the longitudinal dimension.

The lack of longitudinal studies was also found in family violence research in the 70s and 80s (Gelles, 1980; Gelles, 1990; Gelles & Conte, 1990). The findings of this study support their conclusions by showing that most (75.0%) of the family violence research in the JMF during the 80s was still conducted in the cross sectional dimension. Although longitudinal studies are recognized as overcoming the cross sectional weakness, they are limited "by the low rate of domestic violence and the need to follow subjects over a long period of time" (Gelles, 1990, p. 25).

Steggell and Harper (1991) found that almost all of the research on family communication in the 80s was cross sectional. Of 13 studies on family communication in this study, nine were conducted using a cross sectional design.

A third (33.3%) of the research on adolescent sexual behavior in this study used the longitudinal dimension. A National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) initiated in 1979 and continued through the 1980s (Miller & Moore, 1990) made it possible to conduct many of the studies in this area in the longitudinal dimension.

Statistical Techniques

In the last 30 years, a trend towards greater complexity in the statistical techniques in family research has been established. During the years 1962-1968, 20% of published research did not use any statistical techniques (Ruano, Bruce, & McDermott 1969), whereas in the JMF during the 80s only 1.8% of the research articles did not report any statistical techniques. Table 8 compares the statistical techniques used in the research during 1980-1984 period and 1985-1989 period.

One third (34.7%) of the research articles reported used only descriptive statistical techniques during the years 1962-1968 (Ruano, Bruce, & McDermott 1969). During the 80s, using only descriptive statistical techniques, decreased from 3.8% in the first five-year period to 1.3% in Compared to Hodgson and Lewis's study (1979), research articles in the JMF during the 80s used a greater variety of statistical techniques the second five-year period (Table 8). In Hodgson and Lewis's study (1979) test hypotheses, regression, correlation, and factor analysis were the statistical techniques used during 1969-1976 in three journals related to the family field, i.e., the Journal of Marriage and the Family, The Family Coordinator, and Family Process. In the JMF during the 80s, statistical analysis most used were ANOVA, log-linear, path analysis, multiple

Table 8

Statistical Techniques by Five Year Periods, 1980-1989

| Statistical Technique | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|---|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Univariate | 16 | 3.8 | 7 | 1.3 | 23 | 2.4 |
| Correlation | 43 | 10.3 | 37 | 7.0 | 80 | 8.5 |
| Test Hypothesis | 106 | 25.3 | 140 | 26.6 | 246 | 26.0 |
| Regression | 116 | 27.7 | 152 | 28.9 | 268 | 28.4 |
| Anova | 55 | 13.2 | 73 | 13.9 | 128 | 13.5 |
| Factor Analysis | 32 | 7.6 | 20 | 3.8 | 52 | 5.5 |
| Log-linear/Logit Model/ Probit Model | 12 | 2.9 | 31 | 5.9 | 43 | 4.5 |
| Path Analysis | 22 | 5.3 | 17 | 3.2 | 39 | 4.1 |
| MCA | 12 | 2.9 | 15 | 2.9 | 27 | 2.9 |
| Discriminant Analysis | 11 | 2.6 | 12 | 2.3 | 23 | 2.4 |
| Ancova | 2 | 0.5 | 9 | 1.7 | 11 | 1.2 |
| LISREL | 3 | 0.7 | 5 | 1.0 | 8 | 0.8 |
| Life Table Method/ Proportional Hazards Model | 1 | 0.2 | 8 | 1.5 | 4 | 0.4 |
| Total | 419 | 100 | 526 | 100 | 945 | 100 |

classification analysis, discriminant analysis, ANCOVA, LISREL, and the proportional hazards model.

The use of statistical techniques may vary according to the research themes (see Appendix C). Research on adolescent sexual behavior in the 80s increased in statistical sophistication utilizing techniques, such as MCA, log-linear, discriminant function analysis, path analysis, and LISREL techniques (Dyk, Christopherson, & Miller, 1991; Miller & Moore, 1991). Research on adolescent sexual behavior in the JMF during the 80s used path analysis (6.9%), log-linear (13.8%), and MCA (3.4%).

One important aspect of research on determinants of divorce during the 80s was the use of increasingly sophisticated statistical techniques in comparison to the 70s. Many studies on divorce used proportional-hazards or probit or logit regression (White, 1990). In the present study research on divorce used varied statistical techniques, such as proportional hazards model (2.2%), MCA (5.4%), discriminant analysis (0.9%), log-linear (4.5%), and path analysis (2.7%).

In the present study, a variety of statistical techniques was used to research marital quality, such as path analysis (5.9%), log-linear (5.9%), discriminant analysis (0.7%), MCA (0.7%), and proportional hazards model (0.7%). This finding supports Spanier and Lewis (1980) and Glenn (1990) studies which stated that the use of

multivariate statistics for data analysis on marital quality research has increased since the 70s.

Research on family interaction and communication during the 80s used a variety of statistics, such as "lag sequential analysis, time-series analysis, log-linear hazards, and logit models, structural equation modeling and path analysis, and multivariate and covariate analysis of variance" (Steggell & Harper, 1991, p. 143). Unlike Steggell and Harper's (1991) results, research on family and communication in the JMF during the 80s used ancova (8.7%), anova (21.7%) and factor analysis (4.3%).

Busby (1991) found that multivariate analysis was used much more frequently in research on family violence in the 80s than before. In the JMF during the 80s, research on violence used variations of multivariate analysis, such as log-linear (10.8%), discriminant functional analysis (4.3%), factor analysis (2.1%), and proportional hazards model (2.1%) in their analyses.

ANOVA, multiple regression, and LISREL were common in research on gender roles during the 80s (Caycedo, Wang, & Bahr, 1991). Gender roles was one of the themes that used a variety of statistical techniques, such as path analysis (3.3%), factor analysis (8.3%), anova (11.7%), log-linear (5.0%), discriminant functional analysis (1.7%), ancova (1.7%), MCA (1.7%), and LISREL (1.7%).

In a review about family stress and coping Huang (1991) reported that analysis of variance, multiple regression, and LISREL were commonly used in family stress research during the 80s. In the present study, regression (32.4%), factor analysis (6.5%), analysis of variance (13.5%), path analysis (6.5%) and log-linear (4.3%) was commonly used in research on family stress and coping.

Clayton and Bokemeier (1980) predicted that advanced statistical techniques would be used in the research on premarital relationship during the 1980s. Research on premarital relationship in the JMF during the 80s used varied statistical techniques, such as anova (10.3%), factor analysis (3.4%), log-linear (3.4%), discriminant functional analysis (3.4%), ancova (3.4%), LISREL (3.4%) and proportional hazards model (3.4%).

Summary

In general most research in the JMF during the 80s was descriptive. Not many reviews mentioned the purpose of the study which made it difficult to compare a trend or purpose of the study with previous research. Exploratory models were used more in some themes, such as nontraditional family forms, family power, divorce, and remarriage. Research on family violence were more descriptive and supported as in Steinmetz's study (1987). Research on family in later life in the JMF during the 80s continued to be descriptive as was in the 70s. In contrast to Lee's conclusion the use of more

explanatory than descriptive model on kinship, the descriptive model was used more in the 80s. Explanatory model were used more in three themes--gender roles, family communication, and family policy. The use of meta analysis in the JMF during the 80s was limited to themes, such as gender roles, marital quality, family stress and coping, remarriage, and family and the economy.

Until the 80s most research in the JMF did not make use of hypotheses. Only two JMF reviews mentioned the use of hypotheses in research (Canon & Long, 1971; Huang, 1991). Themes in the JMF during the 80s that used more hypotheses were gender roles, premarital sexual relationship, mate selection, family power, family stress and coping, family in later life, and family communication.

From the year 1957 to the 1980s, most research on parent-child relationship, marital quality, family violence, family in later life, and family communication were conducted in cross sectional. In the 80s more longitudinal studies were used in some themes, such as adolescent, family stress and coping, and divorce.

Compared to Nye's (1988) study which showed an increase in secondary data, the JMF during the 80s showed a decreased in the use of secondary data. Most researchers in the 80s used primary data. Compared to other themes, premarital relationship, mate selection, divorce, and family policy more using research was conducted secondary data.

Meta-analysis techniques was never mentioned in previous reviews, was now used in gender roles, marital quality, family stress and coping, remarriage, and family and the economy studies.

Findings show an increasing complexity in the statistical techniques in the 80s. In this study less than 5% of research in the JMF during the 80s used descriptive statistics. Multivariate statistical techniques used in research during the 80s and not mentioned in the former decades were analysis of variance, log-linear, path analysis, multiple classification analysis, discriminant analysis, analysis of co-variance, LISREL, and the proportional hazards model.

CHAPTER V

AUTHORS AND RESEARCH SUBJECTS IN THE EIGHTIES

Authors in the Eighties

Almost half (45.0%) of the articles in the Journal of Marriage and the Family in the 80s were written by two authors, followed by one author (37.7%) and by three or more authors (17.3%). These findings support Hill's (1981) findings about changes in family research authorship. In analyzing the research trends during 1900-1979, Hill (1981) found there was a change from one author to "networks or teams." The trend can also be seen in Mogey's (1969) and Bayer's (1982) studies. A study on the sociology of marriage and family behavior conducted in ten regions in 1957-1968, Canada, Latin America, Japan, USSR, Asia, Africa, Western Europe, Eastern Europe, Northern Europe, and Australia and New Zealand, found that over 80% of the research was written by one author (Mogey, 1969), while a study of the "regular" articles in the JMF 1970-1973, Bayer (1982) found that 56.4% of them were written by one author.

More males (34.9%) than females (27.6%) wrote research articles in the JMF during the 80s. About one third (30.8%)

of all research articles were written by both females and males. The trend that females and males co-authored articles may be useful in "reducing potential researcher bias on gender issues" (Vemer, Coleman, Ganong, & Cooper, 1989, p. 723). It has been found that researchers tend to report studies that are flattering to their own gender (Eagly & Carli, 1981; Wood, 1987). For example, male researchers tend to report the gender differences which reflect unfavorably on females rather than on males (Eagly & Carli, 1981).

As indicated in Table 9, more females than males wrote on certain themes such as gender roles, parent-child relationship, kinship, remarriage, family in later life, and family and the economy. Trend for this can be explained by their interest in issues, such as gender roles and family and economy; or kin relations as in parent-child relationship, remarriage, and family in later life. Previous studies found that both husbands and wives believe that wives should keep in touch with kin, therefore, females tend to be closer to their own and their husbands families (Bahr, 1976; Booth, 1972; Di Leonardo, 1987; Rosenthal, 1985; Scott, 1990). Closer relationship can be seen in such phenomena as the burden assumed by daughters in caring for elderly mothers, adult daughters visiting their parents more than sons do; the strength of the sister-sister tie. Wives

Table 9

Themes by Gender of Authors

| Themes | Male and Female | | Male | | Female | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|------|------|------|--------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Gender Roles | 18 | 40.0 | 11 | 24.4 | 16 | 35.6 |
| Premarital Sexual Relationship | 5 | 31.3 | 6 | 37.5 | 5 | 31.3 |
| Mate Selection | 7 | 30.4 | 11 | 47.8 | 5 | 21.7 |
| Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 11 | 55.0 | 7 | 35.0 | 2 | 10.0 |
| Parent-Child Relationship | 69 | 38.5 | 48 | 26.8 | 62 | 34.6 |
| Marital Quality | 32 | 36.8 | 38 | 43.7 | 17 | 19.5 |
| Family Power | 10 | 43.5 | 8 | 34.8 | 5 | 21.7 |
| Family Stress and Coping | 24 | 28.9 | 26 | 31.3 | 33 | 39.8 |
| Family Violence | 21 | 58.3 | 9 | 25.0 | 6 | 16.7 |
| Nontraditional Family Forms | 11 | 29.7 | 13 | 35.1 | 13 | 35.1 |
| Kinship | 12 | 26.7 | 10 | 22.2 | 23 | 51.1 |
| Divorce | 22 | 30.6 | 29 | 40.3 | 21 | 29.2 |
| Remarriage | 8 | 34.8 | 6 | 26.1 | 9 | 39.1 |
| Family in Later Life | 14 | 32.6 | 9 | 20.9 | 20 | 48.5 |
| Family and Religion | 20 | 52.6 | 14 | 36.8 | 4 | 10.5 |
| Family and Economy | 26 | 26.0 | 29 | 29.9 | 45 | 45.0 |
| Family Communication | 4 | 30.8 | 7 | 53.8 | 2 | 15.4 |
| Family Policy | - | | 3 | 50.0 | 3 | 50.0 |
| Others | 14 | 29.8 | 18 | 38.3 | 15 | 31.9 |
| Family Theory and Research Methods | 17 | 40.5 | 18 | 42.9 | 7 | 16.7 |

call, write, visit, give presents and cards to kin, invite both their own and their husband's kin, organize the holiday and ritual gatherings, and maintain quasi-kin relations far more often than do husbands. Women also were more likely to maintain kin ties after divorce or remarriage following divorce than men (Gerstel, 1988).

On the basis of such findings, it can be said that females were more interested in the themes that were more related to them (Eagly & Carli, 1981). Female authors used more female as their research subject than both male and female authors or male authors only (Table 10).

Table 10

Gender of the Research Subject by Gender of the Author

| Gender by the Research Subject | Male and Female | | Female | | Male | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|------|--------|------|------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Male and Female | 169 | 74.1 | 116 | 62.7 | 159 | 75.4 |
| Female | 49 | 21.5 | 61 | 33.0 | 44 | 20.9 |
| Male | 10 | 4.4 | 8 | 4.3 | 8 | 3.8 |
| Total | 228 | 100 | 185 | 100 | 211 | 100 |

Research Subject in the Eighties

The majority (92.2%) of the research subjects in the JMF of the 80s were persons. The remaining research subjects (7.8%) were articles, societies, and novels.

Gender of the Research Subject

The majority (70.4%) of the research subjects in the 80s were males and females rather than one gender. However, females were studied six times more than males (24.8% and 4.0% respectively) in the studies that used one gender as the research subject. Until the end of the 60s, the majority of family studies were based on wives' response rather than husbands' (Safilios-Rothschild, 1969). A tendency to rely more heavily on wives than on husbands was based on the assumption that husbands' responses were quite similar to wives'. Scanzoni (1965) argued that this tendency was influenced by the Burgess, Cottrell, Terman and Wallin' study which showed that no significant differences existed between males and females in marital adjustment. The other reason for using females or wives as research subjects rather than males or husbands is the increased convenience of interviewing only one representative. The wife was easier to meet because the husband usually worked outside the house (Blood & Wolfe, 1960).

In studying families, Safilios-Rothschild (1971) argued that researchers cannot describe the entire picture of the

Table 11

Themes by Gender of the Research Subject

| Themes | Male and Female | | Male | | Female | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------|------|------|-----|--------|------|
| | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) |
| Gender Roles | 34 | 77.3 | 2 | 4.5 | 8 | 18.2 |
| Premarital Sexual Relationship | 15 | 75.0 | - | | 5 | 25.0 |
| Mate Selection | 21 | 84.0 | 1 | 4.0 | 3 | 12.0 |
| Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 10 | 47.6 | 1 | 4.8 | 10 | 47.6 |
| Parent-Child Relationship | 130 | 70.3 | 7 | 3.8 | 48 | 25.9 |
| Marital Quality | 76 | 80.0 | 2 | 2.1 | 17 | 17.9 |
| Family Power | 18 | 85.7 | 1 | 4.8 | 2 | 9.5 |
| Family Stress and Coping | 89 | 69.0 | 4 | 3.1 | 36 | 27.9 |
| Family Violence | 24 | 68.6 | 2 | 5.7 | 9 | 25.7 |
| Nontraditional Family Forms | 30 | 76.9 | 2 | 5.1 | 7 | 17.9 |
| Kinship | 31 | 67.4 | 2 | 4.3 | 13 | 28.3 |
| Divorce | 51 | 81.0 | 1 | 1.6 | 11 | 17.5 |
| Remarriage | 17 | 81.0 | - | | 4 | 19.0 |
| Family in Later Life | 25 | 62.5 | 3 | 7.5 | 12 | 30.0 |
| Family and Religion | 29 | 76.3 | 2 | 5.3 | 7 | 18.4 |
| Family and Economy | 52 | 53.6 | 7 | 7.2 | 38 | 39.2 |
| Family Communication | 13 | 100 | - | | - | |
| Family Policy | 3 | 75.0 | - | | 1 | 25.0 |
| Others | 28 | 63.6 | 4 | 9.1 | 12 | 27.3 |

familial power structure by relying on one family member's response.

Compared to other themes, research on adolescent sexual behavior mostly used females as the research subject (47.6%). Similar findings were reached by Miller and Moore (1990) in their review of adolescent sexual behavior in the 80s. The two main reasons for this phenomenon are first, it was found that the rate of premarital sexual behavior was significantly greater among college females than among college males (Bell, & Coughy, 1980; Robinson, King, & Balswick, 1972). This encouraged researchers to study adolescent sexual behavior more among females than among males. Second, the researchers tend to view females as the primary or the only persons responsible for the consequences of their sexual behavior, though this behavior is highly dependent on male behaviors (Chilman, 1980a).

Unlike research of the premarital relationship in the 70s that was mostly based on one gender (Clayton & Bokemeier, 1980), most of the research (75%) in this study was based on two genders, male and female, as the research subjects. Even so, no research on this area relied on male as their only research subject. Even in premarital relationship the assumption is that females are the primary persons responsible for the consequences of their premarital

sex behavior (Chilman, 1980a). This account for the tendency to exclude males as the subjects.

There are similar findings with the previous reviews of research of marital quality research. Most research on marital quality in the JMF in the 80s (80.0%) including males and females in the sample has been conducted since the 70s (Spanier & Lewis, 1980).

During the 60s, most of the studies on family power used wives as their research subjects since they were generally much more willing to participate and much easier to locate (Safilios-Rosthschild, 1969; 1971). During the 80s family power was one of the themes that mostly used both females and males as the research subjects (85.7%).

In family violence research reported in the JMF during the 80s more females (26.5%) acted as the research subjects than males (5.9%). This may be explained by greater number of articles about spouse abuse in this study (see Family Violence in Chapter III) than any other topic and that many studies relied heavily on samples of women who sought help at battered wife shelters (Gelles, 1985).

In reviews of divorce research (Albrecht, Bahr, & Goodman, 1983) and consequences of divorce (Kitson & Lorgan, 1990) the research often also relied heavily on females' reports. In this study, reviews of research articles on divorce showed that female respondents are no longer only relied. The majority of divorce research (81.0%) used

females and males as the research subjects. Similar findings were also described by White (1990) who concluded that in major journals today only a few studies relied solely on women.

Research on the family in later life was one of the themes that used females more frequently (30.0%) than males (7.5%) as the research subject. This is probably due to the fact there are more females who are living to older age than males. In general, it is believed that women are biologically stronger than men (Verbrugge, 1985). Verbrugge (1985) gave some explanations for this difference: (a) genetic risks for each sex (e.g. women have high estrogen to protect from degenerative disease); (b) risks acquired during life (men tend to have more risks because of their daily activities such as jobs, smoking and drinking); and (c) health attitudes (women are more concerned about their health and seek prevention or medical help). As a consequence, there are more older women than older men, or in other words, there are more women in family in later life than men.

The other reason can be based on the assumption that females are closer to their own and their husband's kin (see Author in the Eighties section). This encourages the researchers to use only females in their study. Similar to research on family in later life, research on kinship was

one of the themes that used more females (28.3%) than males (4.3%) as their research subject.

More females (39.2%) than males (7.2%) act as the research subjects in research on family and economy in the JMF during the 80s. This phenomenon can be explained by the many studies which focus on the effect of women's work on children and husband-wife relationships.

Type of the Research Subject

The majority of persons used as subjects of research in the JMF during the 80s were individuals (65.4%). Only 21% of the research used couples as research subjects. Siblings (0.4%) are not a popular subject in the family field, even after Irish (1964) wrote an article about siblings as a neglected aspect in family studies in 1964. Subjects categorized as "others" included child-caretaker, child-grandparent, parent-child-teacher, and family. The type of subjects in samples can be determined by the themes that were studied (Appendix D). For example, research on premarital sexual relationship, adolescent sexual behavior, and family policy relied more on individuals than any other themes.

In the JMF during the 80s, couple as a subject was found more in themes such as gender roles, marital quality, family power, and family communication. Related to the increased use of males in the samples of studies on marital quality (see Gender of the Research Subject section), was

also a growing interest in focusing more directly on the couple as the research subject in contrast to studying only the individual. In the 70s most of the marital quality studies still focused mainly on the individual, while in the 80s almost half of the studies (44.3%) focused on the couple.

Almost half (47.6%) of the research on family power in this study used the couple as a research subject. This supports the previous findings that research on family power no longer relies solely on wives' responses (see Gender of the Research Subject section).

Parent-child as a research subject can be mother-father-child, mother-child, or father-child. In this study these types of subject were found in some themes, such as adolescent sexual behavior (14.3%), parent-child relationship (26.9%), kinship (21.3%), remarriage (14.3%), and family in later life (17.1%).

Although the percentages were small, siblings were studied in some themes, such as family in later life (2.3%), kinship (2.1%), parent-child relationship (1.6%), family stress and coping (0.8%), and others (2.2%). When the percentages of siblings and parent-child as research subjects were compared, it was seen that the percentage for siblings was smaller both in kinship and family in later life than for parent-child. This finding supported the assumption that the aging parent-adult child bond is assumed

to be more important than any other kin relation (Adams, 1971; Gold, 1989; Irish, 1964). It could be they have more contact, more give and take, and feel closer and more affectionate to each other (Adams, 1971).

The sibling relationship in later life was an interesting subject for study in kinship and family in later life because "siblings relationships represent a continuity in family history that is uncommon to most other family relationships, and, in some families, may represent the only surviving dyadic relationship from the family of origin" (Brubaker, 1990, p. 971). The sibling bond may become more salient in later life as a source of emotional support in old age, though contact may be less frequent (Goetting, 1986; Gold, 1989; Scott, 1990; Shanas, 1973). People who have no children or have never been married are often dependent on their siblings in later life for social and psychological support that others receive from their children. Gold (1989) predicted that most members of the baby boom generation will have sisters and brothers available as potential sources of social support, while the older people will have fewer adult children upon whom to depend for social support.

Ethnicity of the Research Subject

Some differences in family life were found among the ethnic groups. For example, kin ties among Blacks was found to be stronger than kin ties among whites (Lee, 1980).

Blacks were more likely to be divorced than whites (White, 1990), but white women tend to remarry more often than black women (Price-Bonham & Balswick, 1980).

In a study of unmarried women in 1966-1971, more black female teenagers than white were sexually experienced (Zelnik & Kantner, 1977). This difference may result from different values among Blacks and whites. "Blacks appear to be more tolerant of sexual activity outside marriage, . . . and perceive a greater tolerance in their neighborhood for an out-of-wedlock birth" (Miller & Moore, 1990, p. 1030).

Although some researchers recognized the influence of ethnicity in family life, many of the JMF decade reviews of the 70s did not mention what ethnic groups had been widely studied during the 70s. Few studies examined ethnic differences in adjustment to divorce (Kitson & Morgan, 1990). Streib and Beck (1980) in a decade review concluded that ethnicity received limited attention in research on family in later life during the 70s. During the 60s, most studies on marital quality were based on white samples (Hicks & Platt, 1971).

Similar findings were also found by Woehrer (1978) who argued that until the end of the 70s, research on ethnic families had been limited. Most studies about ethnic groups tend to compare black families with white families. In a decade review of the 80s, Brubaker (1990) concluded that no research on racial differences in remarriage had been done.

The trend to deny ethnicity as an important factor in family research was also found in this study. Among the research articles that used persons as their research subject, 41.6% did not mention the ethnicity of the subject.

In this study, most of the subjects (53.4%) in the research during the 80s can be categorized as "mixed" (Table 12). An article was put into "mixed" because the sample

Table 12

Ethnicity of the Research Subject by Five Year Periods,
1980-1989

| Ethnicity | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|-----------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Black | 2 | 1.2 | 9 | 3.7 | 11 | 2.7 |
| Hispanic | 5 | 2.9 | 13 | 5.3 | 18 | 4.3 |
| White | 54 | 31.6 | 83 | 34.2 | 137 | 33.1 |
| Mixed | 100 | 58.5 | 121 | 49.8 | 221 | 53.4 |
| Others | 10 | 5.8 | 17 | 7.0 | 27 | 6.5 |
| Total | 171 | 100 | 243 | 100 | 414 | 100 |

Note: Others consists of Bangladesh, Guatemala, India, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Nigeria, Singapore, Sudan and Thailand.

consisted of more than one ethnic group. Usually they consisted of white and Blacks. The high percentage of the "mixed" category can be caused by different definitions of "mixed."

People of European ancestry were usually put into the "white" category based on the assumption that family patterns of the various immigrant groups have blended into one uniform American pattern. This uniform pattern can be seen in "the common school, mass media, loss of native language, and the common experience of American culture" (McCready, 1974, p. 160). Although these elements are put into one category, there are differences existing among them (Woehrer, 1978). In some cultural groups, families are more closed, relating mainly to people within the family and not depending on people outside the family for social and emotional support. In other cultural groups, it is the reverse. In a 1967 neighborhood study, Greeley (1971) found Jews were close to their parents but relatively less close to their siblings whereas Italian sibling bonds were very important.

Blacks and Hispanics were the only minorities which were studied individually. Although the Hispanics are the second largest minority population in the U.S. after Blacks, in this study the percentages of Hispanics (2.9% in the first-period and 5.3% in the second-period) as the research subject were greater than of Blacks (1.2% in the

first-period and 3.7% in the second-period) in both periods. There was more research on Hispanics than Blacks, indicating an increasing interest in Hispanics during the 80s. The two reasons for this growing research interest on Hispanics in the 80s, are (1) in the 1970 census, most people of Spanish ancestry were classified as "white," while in 1980 some of them identify themselves as "other" (Wilkinson, 1987); (2) the rapidly growing Hispanic population during the 80s (Wilkinson, 1987; Vega, 1990).

People of Spanish origin were put into one category, i.e., "Hispanics." However, it was realized that they are composed of numerous ethnic groups such as Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and other Latin Americans whose cultural origins are rich and diverse (Vega, 1990; Wilkinson, 1987). For example, while Puerto Ricans have relatively low rates of exogamy, Hispanics from Central America and Cuba have high rates of interethnic marriage (Wilkinson, 1987).

In a review of research on remarriage Coleman and Ganong (1990) found that most research during the 80s was based on white respondents. In the present study half of the research used an all white sample as their study population (Appendix E).

Most research on women's employment used white respondents (Spitze, 1988). In this study research of family and economy 35.6% used an all white sample.

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In a review of the multiple consequences of divorce Kitson and Morgan (1990) found that research was still based on white respondents. In comparison, this study's sample consisted of more than a half (57.5%) of mixed ethnic group.

Social Class of the Research Subject

Almost 20 years ago Jacob (1975) mentioned the lack of the effect of social class in most family interaction studies. In the JMF in the 60s (Heiskanen, 1971), 18.7% of the research articles did not mention the social class of their research subject. Twenty years later, findings do not show much improvement of using social class as a variable in the research subject. In this study 64.3% of the research articles did not mention the social class of the research subject.

Social class affects many aspects of family life. Without explaining why, Mahoney (1978) argued that attitudes toward premarital coitus were different between the genders in different social classes. It was found that middle class females have more permissive attitudes toward premarital coitus over a period of time, while the high class females have less permissive attitude.

People in the middle class tend to work in occupations requiring a greater degree of self-direction, while in the working class occupations, individuals follow explicit rules set down by someone in authority (Kohn, 1959, 1963). The consequences of these different values influence the

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parent-child relationships (Kohn 1963; Gecas & Nye, 1974). Middle class parents tend to judge the intention of their children's actions, while working class parents were concerned with the consequences of their children's behavior. This pattern prevailed during the 80s, where parents, particularly mothers, from the middle class tended to be less restrictive, punishing, and controlling, but more positively affectionate and responsive toward their children than parents from the working class (Belsky, 1990).

Schneider and Smith (1973) argued that there is a different "pattern of priority of solidarity emphasis" (p. 42) among the middle and lower class. While the middle class emphasizes the self-sufficiency and solidarity of the nuclear family, the lower class emphasizes the cooperation and solidarity with a wide range of kin.

Class differences are revealed in the types and frequency of kin contact (Troll, 1971), i.e. visiting is more sex segregated in the working class than in the middle class. While the working class parents give services, the middle class give financial assistance. Research in the 60s found that kin ties were stronger among the working class than the middle class (Adams, 1971).

In a review of nontraditional family forms, it was mentioned that people who are involved in voluntary childlessness, open marriage, extramarital sex, sexually open marriage, same-sex intimate relationships, multi-adult

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households, and nonmarital relationships tend to be from the upper or middle class (Macklin, 1980).

Studies about divorce found an inverse relation between socioeconomic status and the likelihood of divorce (Raschke, 1987; White, 1990). Until the 80s, social economic status was not examined for research on remarriage among older people (Brubaker, 1990).

Although some differences in attitudes and behavior of family among the lower, middle, and upper class was recognized, only a few reviews mentioned the use of the social class category. For example, Clayton and Bokemeier (1980) in the JMF review of the 70s found that many of the premarital sex studies in the 70s were based on samples that were homogeneous in social class.

Among those who mentioned social class, the majority (37.2%) studied all classes, i.e., lower, middle, and upper social class, followed by studies of the middle class, and of the lower class (Table 13). The percentage for the lowerclass studies in the 80s has increased from 8.1% in the 60s (Heiskanen, 1971) to 12.6% in the 80s. The upper class was the least (2.8%) used as the subject in the JMF during the 80s. Almost two thirds (62.6%) were heterogenous social class samples.

In the JMF during the 80s, the middle class was predominant (41%), followed by lower (32.5%), and upper

Table 13

Social Class

1980-1989

Social Class

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Table 13

Social Class of the Research Subject by Five Year Periods,
1980-1989

| Social Class | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|--------------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Lower | 10 | 7.8 | 21 | 17.6 | 31 | 12.5 |
| Middle | 32 | 24.8 | 23 | 19.3 | 55 | 22.1 |
| Upper | 7 | 5.4 | - | | 7 | 2.8 |
| Lower-Middle | 14 | 10.9 | 17 | 14.3 | 31 | 12.5 |
| Upper-Middle | 10 | 7.8 | 15 | 12.6 | 25 | 10.1 |
| Upper-Lower | 4 | 3.1 | 3 | 2.5 | 7 | 2.8 |
| Lower-Middle-Upper | 52 | 40.3 | 40 | 33.6 | 92 | 37.1 |
| Total | 129 | 100 | 119 | 100 | 248 | 100 |

class (26.5%). The tendency to use middle class respondents has continued since the 60s (Heiskanen, 1971).

Studies of different themes related to certain social class categories (Table 14). As in previous studies (Brubaker, 1990; Coleman & Ganong, 1990; Demo & Acock, 1988; Gecas & Seff, 1990; Ihinger-Tallman, 1988; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1990), the present study found a preponderance of studies relying on middle class families in the areas of family communication (62.5%); remarriage and

Table 14

Themes by t

Themes

Gender Role
Premarital
Relationship
Mate Selection
Adolescent
Behavior
Parent-child
Relationships
Marital Quality
Family Power
Family Structure
and Coping
Family Violence
Nontraditional
Forms
Kinship
Divorce
Remarriage
Stepfamily
Family in
Later Life
Family and
Family and
Family Cohesion
Family Power
Others

Table 14

Themes by the Research Subjects' Social Class

| Themes | Lower | | Middle | | Upper | |
|--------------------------------|-------|------|--------|------|-------|------|
| | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) |
| Gender Roles | 9 | 29.0 | 13 | 41.9 | 9 | 29.0 |
| Premarital Sexual Relationship | 3 | 27.3 | 4 | 36.4 | 4 | 36.4 |
| Mate Selection | 6 | 30.0 | 7 | 35.0 | 7 | 35.0 |
| Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 5 | 38.5 | 4 | 30.8 | 4 | 30.8 |
| Parent-child Relationship | 48 | 33.6 | 60 | 42.0 | 35 | 24.5 |
| Marital Quality | 15 | 27.3 | 24 | 43.6 | 16 | 29.1 |
| Family Power | 2 | 20.0 | 6 | 60.0 | 2 | 20.0 |
| Family Stress and Coping | 30 | 33.7 | 38 | 42.7 | 21 | 23.6 |
| Family Violence | 10 | 40.0 | 10 | 40.0 | 5 | 20.0 |
| Nontraditional Family Forms | 12 | 32.4 | 13 | 35.1 | 12 | 32.4 |
| Kinship | 10 | 35.7 | 13 | 42.4 | 5 | 17.9 |
| Divorce | 15 | 36.6 | 17 | 41.5 | 9 | 22.0 |
| Remarriage and Stepfamily | 5 | 29.4 | 7 | 41.2 | 5 | 29.4 |
| Family in Later Life | 10 | 34.5 | 12 | 41.4 | 7 | 24.1 |
| Family and Religion | 5 | 25.0 | 10 | 50.0 | 5 | 25.0 |
| Family and Economy | 28 | 33.7 | 30 | 36.1 | 25 | 30.1 |
| Family Communication | 1 | 12.5 | 5 | 62.5 | 2 | 25.0 |
| Family Policy | 5 | 83.3 | 1 | 16.7 | - | |
| Others | 10 | 29.4 | 13 | 38.2 | 11 | 32.4 |

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stepfamily (41.2%); families in later life, parent-child relationship (42.0%); divorce (41.5%).

For the past 15 years, most research on women's employment used middle class respondents (Spitze, 1988). Unlike Spitze's (1988) study, this study found that family and economy referred to all social class categories.

Most research subjects in nontraditional family forms were middle class subjects (Macklin, 1987). In this present study there was no tendency to focus the research using respondents from a certain social class.

Steinmetz (1987) in an article Family Violence. Past, Present, and Future mentioned that social class was one of the most frequently used variables in family violence research. A review of family violence in the 70s showed that domestic violence was studied more in the lower socioeconomic class (Gelles, 1980). This conclusion may be due to the underrepresentation of reported violence in middle class families or to the different services used by lower and middle class families. The upper and middle class have access to private "social support system" who maintain the privacy of the professional relationship, such as a private doctor, lawyer, minister or family counselor. On the other hand, since the lower class families can not afford those services they rely on "social control agencies" who keep public records, such as police, social service, family court worker or clinic agencies. In this study,

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research on family violence looked at both lower and middle class rather than upper subject.

Compared to others, family policy was the only theme which relied heavily on lower class (83.3%) respondents data. This can be explained by the use of welfare data.

The Indicator of Social Class of the Research Subject

Some studies did not identify the social class of the research subjects, but mentioned indicators used for measuring it. In this present study most research articles (64.3%) did not include the variable social class, but more than half (61.4%) of the studies included the indicator of social class used. In this study, education was most frequently (18.6%) cited as a single indicator of social class, followed by income (14.6%) and occupation (11.1%) (Table 15). This same trend is found when using composite indicators. Education was also the most frequently-used indicator when used in combination with income and/or occupation (41.9%), followed by income (32.5%) and occupation (29%).

These findings differed from Otto's (1975) study about social indicators and use in the Journal of Marriage and the Family and American Sociological Review during 1969-1975. In that study, occupation was most cited as a single indicator of social position. Occupational position was argued to be closely connected with prestige status and especially with economic class. For example, in most cases

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Table 15

Indicator of the Research Subject's Social Class

| Indicator | | (%) |
|----------------------------------|-----|------|
| Education | 79 | 18.6 |
| Income | 62 | 14.6 |
| Occupation | 47 | 11.1 |
| Income and Education | 97 | 22.8 |
| Education and Occupation | 62 | 14.6 |
| Income and Occupation | 10 | 2.4 |
| Education, Income and Occupation | 68 | 16.0 |
| Total | 425 | 100 |

occupational position determined economic resources. Researchers using education as a social class indicator argue that it probably influences the occupational status and income levels (Sewell & Hauser, 1972).

The social class indicator may vary among the themes as seen in Table 16. Education was the preferred social class indicator, for studies of adolescent sexual behavior, parent-child relationship, marital quality, family stress and coping, family violence, divorce, remarriage, religion, and family communication.

In a review of extramarital sex, Macklin (1980) found an increase in the rate of research articles reporting the research on female same-sex relationships were educated

Table 16

Themes by Social Class Indicator

| Themes | Education | | Income | | Occupation | |
|--------------------------------|-----------|------|--------|------|------------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Gender Roles | 19 | 36.5 | 18 | 34.6 | 15 | 28.8 |
| Premarital Sexual Relationship | 3 | 37.5 | 3 | 37.5 | 2 | 25.0 |
| Mate Selection | 6 | 53.5 | 5 | 27.8 | 7 | 38.9 |
| Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 6 | 42.9 | 3 | 23.1 | 4 | 30.8 |
| Parent-child Relationship | 84 | 43.3 | 61 | 31.4 | 49 | 25.3 |
| Marital Quality | 50 | 46.7 | 31 | 29.0 | 26 | 24.3 |
| Family Power | 7 | 36.8 | 9 | 47.4 | 3 | 15.8 |
| Family Stress and Coping | 68 | 44.4 | 56 | 36.6 | 29 | 19.0 |
| Family Violence | 13 | 40.6 | 11 | 34.4 | 8 | 25.0 |
| Nontraditional Family Forms | 21 | 38.9 | 18 | 33.3 | 15 | 27.8 |
| Kinship | 19 | 38.8 | 20 | 40.8 | 10 | 20.4 |
| Divorce | 23 | 42.6 | 19 | 35.2 | 12 | 22.2 |
| Remarriage | 12 | 41.4 | 12 | 41.4 | 5 | 17.2 |
| Family in Later Life | 16 | 36.4 | 16 | 36.4 | 12 | 27.3 |
| Family and Religion | 21 | 50.0 | 10 | 23.8 | 11 | 26.2 |
| Family and Economy | 44 | 36.1 | 43 | 35.2 | 35 | 28.7 |
| Family Communication | 4 | 57.1 | 1 | 14.3 | 2 | 28.6 |
| Family Policy | - | | 5 | 100 | - | |
| Others | 18 | 37.5 | 17 | 35.4 | 13 | 27.1 |

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(Macklin, 1987). In this study research article on premarital relationship (37.5%) and nontraditional family forms (38.9%) used education as the social class indicator extramarital sex among the educated women. Most subjects of less frequently than compared to those that have been mentioned above.

There were more studies on marital quality and remarriage using education as the variable, supporting Price-Bonham and Balswick's study (1980). They found education to be negatively related to marital stability and remarriage.

Education completed by parents was found to be negatively related to adolescent sexual activity (Miller & Moore, 1990). Parents with more education tended to emphasize the higher value of achievement and work than parents with less education. Similar to Miller and Moore's (1990) study, in this study more research on adolescent sexual behavior (42.9%) and parent-child relationship (43.3%) used education than income or occupation as the social class indicator.

Studies on family policy used income as the only social class indicator. These studies were related to those that examined the data collected by welfare program (Darity & Myers, 1984; Nichols-Casebolt, 1986; Rank, 1986; Scheirer, 1983; Spakes, 1982; Wright, & Price, 1986).

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Location of the Research Subject

In this study, two out of five (43%) of the authors did not mention the location of their samples. Not many decade reviews mentioned the location variable of subjects. Among those that who mentioned a location variable more than three out of five (63.4%) of the studies were conducted in urban areas, while only 4.5% of the studies were conducted in rural areas and 31.3% were conducted in both urban and rural areas.

Since the 60s (Hicks & Platt, 1971), most studies on marital quality used urban respondents, i.e. college students. In this present study, 76.2% of research on marital quality was based on the urban setting (Table 17).

In the present study the majority (71.4%) of research on adolescent sexuality was conducted in urban areas. Samples consisted of college students. Reasons given for using college students were they are older and relatively free of parental control. Generally, researchers must have the parent's consent to ask adolescent to be a respondent in a research on adolescent sexuality (Chilman 1980a). Often parents hesitate in giving this permission due to traditional values related to the topic of sex.

Most of the research (72.7%) on premarital relationships in this study was conducted in urban areas using college student samples. Similar findings were found by Surra (1990). There are more studies on premarital

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Table 17

Themes by Location of the Research Subject

| Themes | Urban | | Rural | | Urban and Rural | |
|--------------------------------|-------|------|-------|------|-----------------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Gender Roles | 23 | 85.2 | 1 | 3.7 | 3 | 11.1 |
| Premarital Sexual Relationship | 8 | 72.7 | - | | 3 | 27.3 |
| Mate Selection | 9 | 50.0 | 1 | 5.6 | 8 | 44.4 |
| Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 10 | 71.4 | - | | 4 | 28.6 |
| Parent-Child Relationship | 83 | 76.1 | - | | 26 | 23.9 |
| Marital Quality | 32 | 76.2 | 2 | 4.8 | 8 | 19.0 |
| Family Power | 10 | 66.7 | 2 | 13.3 | 3 | 20.0 |
| Family Stress | 31 | 62.0 | 1 | 2.0 | 18 | 36.0 |
| Family Violence | 9 | 60.0 | - | | 6 | 40.0 |
| Nontraditional Family Forms | 15 | 68.2 | 2 | 9.1 | 5 | 22.7 |
| Kinship | 21 | 61.8 | 2 | 5.9 | 10 | 29.4 |
| Divorce | 22 | 46.8 | - | | 24 | 51.1 |
| Remarriage | 5 | 41.7 | - | | 7 | 58.3 |
| Family in Later Life | 18 | 69.2 | 1 | 3.8 | 7 | 26.9 |
| Family and Religion | 12 | 57.1 | 2 | 9.5 | 7 | 33.3 |
| Family and Economy | 40 | 67.8 | 4 | 6.8 | 14 | 25.4 |
| Family Communication | 7 | 87.5 | - | | 1 | 12.5 |
| Family Policy | - | | - | | 2 | 100 |
| Others | 14 | 42.4 | 5 | 15.2 | 14 | 42.4 |

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relationships using college students based on the assumption that students are more liberal in their values about premarital coitus as well as in their actual behavior (Bell & Coughy, 1980; Robinson, King & Balswick, 1972).

The emergence of dating in urban and college setting in the 1920s (Moss, Apolonio, & Jensen, 1971) may explain more liberal values about premarital relationships among college students.

Most studies in nonmarital cohabitation during 1968-1977 (Macklin, 1978) were based on college samples which were usually obtained through advertisements in classes or campus newspapers. The communes were more likely to be urban (Macklin, 1987). Most research (68.2%) on nontraditional family forms in this study, was conducted in urban areas.

Summary

Since 1900 there has been an increase of two or more authors writing research articles. About one third of the authors were female and male pairs which can infer a reduction of potential researcher bias on gender issues. More female than male authors wrote certain themes, gender roles, parent-child relationship, kinship, remarriage, family in later life, and family and economy, probably due to the assumption of females are being closer to their kin or their husband's kin. Findings in the JMF during the 80s

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showed more female authors using female research subjects than male authors or both female and male authors.

Family research does not relying mostly on females anymore, but to both females and males. Compared to previous decades, many research on premarital sexual relationship, family power, and divorce relied on females subjects. Research on these themes in the JMF during the 80s used female and male as their research subject. Compared to other themes, adolescent sexual behavior used more females subjects. Two reasons for this are: (a) the rate of premarital sexual behavior was greater among the college females than college males; and (b) the assumption of females as the primary responsible persons for their consequences sexual behavior.

Individuals as subjects were most studied in the JMF during the 80s, followed by couples, parent-child, and siblings. Other types included child-caretaker, child-grandparent, parent-child-teacher, and family. Research on premarital sexual relationship, adolescent sexual behavior, and family policy used more individuals than other themes. More couple samples were used in studies on gender roles, marital quality, family power, and family communication. Parent-child as research subject were found in adolescent sexual behavior, parent-child relationship, kinship, remarriage, and family in later life. Samples of

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siblings were used to study parent-child relationship, family stress and coping, kinship, and family in later life.

The trend to include ethnicity in family research has still not happened. About two out of five of research articles in the JMF during the 80s did not mention the ethnicity of the subject. Of those who included ethnicity, a majority mentioned "mixed" category. Although in reality the number of Hispanics are smaller than Blacks, the percentages of Hispanics as research subject were greater than of Blacks. This phenomena indicated increasing interest in Hispanics during the 80s.

More than half of the research articles in the JMF during the 80s did not mention the social class of the research subject. Middle class was the predominant category used. Research on parent-child relationship, divorce, remarriage, family in later life, and family communication in the 80s relied on middle class subject. Family policy was the only theme that relied heavily on lower class.

During the 80s education was most frequently cited as a social indicator, followed by income and occupation. Themes using this indicator included adolescent sexual behavior, parent-child relationship, marital quality, family stress and coping, family violence, divorce, remarriage, religion, and family communication. Related to their focus family policy research used income as the only social class indicator for the research subject.

About two out of five of the authors did not mention the location of the subject. More studies were conducted in urban areas, followed by both urban and rural, and rural areas. Research on adolescent sexual behavior, premarital sexual relationship, marital quality, and nontraditional family forms relying more on urban settings.

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CHAPTER VI

TECHNIQUES OF GATHERING DATA AND SAMPLE ISSUES DURING THE EIGHTIES

Techniques of Gathering Data

Family researchers are interested in knowing what techniques were used to gather data. Most family researchers use questionnaires and/or interviews for data collection (Hodgson & Lewis, 1979, Miller, Rollins, & Thomas 1982; Mogey, 1969; Nye & Bayer, 1963; Ruano, Bruce, & McDermott 1969). This study supports those findings. The percentages of use of questionnaires and use of interviews were 34.7% and 29.5% in the first period and 35.0% and 32.8% in the second period, consecutively. The private nature of the family was the reason for relying on interviews and questionnaires as data collecting techniques.

The same reason was given for the difficulty of using observation in family research (Gelles, 1978). Another reason was that it was a "time consuming and expensive" technique (Gelles, 1978, p. 417). In this study the

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Table 18

Techniques of Gathering Data by Five Year Periods,
1980-1989

| Techniques of Gathering Data | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|---|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Questionnaire and standardized tests | 133 | 34.7 | 160 | 35.0 | 293 | 34.9 |
| Interview | 113 | 29.5 | 150 | 32.8 | 263 | 31.3 |
| Secondary sources | 97 | 25.3 | 106 | 23.3 | 203 | 24.2 |
| Observation (Participation) | 18 | 4.7 | 20 | 4.4 | 38 | 4.5 |
| Content Analysis | 11 | 2.9 | 13 | 2.8 | 24 | 2.9 |
| Experiment | 10 | 2.6 | 7 | 1.5 | 17 | 2.0 |
| Focus Group | - | | 1 | 0.2 | 1 | 0.1 |
| Simulation | 1 | 0.3 | - | | 1 | 0.1 |
| Totals | 383 | 100 | 457 | 100 | 840 | 100 |

percentage of use of the observation technique was 4.7% in the first period and 4.4% in the second period. Advanced technology, such as videotape, can be used to record the natural and actual interaction. Walters and Walters (1980) stated that this is one of the advantages because it "becomes possible to code behavior continuously rather than within discrete time periods" (p. 816). The other advantages are that with videotape, the margin of error is reduced; also the results can be directly transferred to a computer for analysis while it may reduce the limitation of observing the private nature but not the costs.

Secondary sources, as a means of gathering data, were also popular among the researchers in the JMF during the 80s. This technique ranked third after questionnaires and interviews. Sources of the secondary data were the census, National Labor Surveys (NLS), Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), National Studies of Family Growth (NSFG), Current Population Surveys (CPS), or the General Social Surveys (GSS). Availability of computer processing abilities and large nationwide resources encourage the researcher to use secondary sources (Jenkins, 1991). As a source of collecting data, secondary data sets have a limitation, see Level of Data Analysis section.

Experiments which are usually used in psychological research were used during the 80s. The percentage used in the second period decreased from 2.6% to 1.5%. In this

study, other means of gathering data--such as focus group, and simulation--were also found which were not found in the previous studies. Although the percentages of those techniques used were small, they indicated many ways to gather data in the family research.

Techniques for gathering data may depend on the themes that were studied as was seen in Appendix F. A certain technique was used to explore a certain theme. Interviews were more frequently used in research on adolescent sexual behavior, kinship, nontraditional family forms, family in later life, and family violence. Questionnaires were more frequently used in research on gender roles, premarital relationships, parent-child relationships, marital quality, family stress, remarriage and stepfamilies, family and religion, family and economy, and family and communication. Secondary sources were frequently used in research on premarital relationship, mate selection, divorce, and family policy.

Questionnaires were the predominant technique in research on stepchildren during 1956 to 1983 (Ganong & Coleman, 1984), and stepfamilies during the 80s (Ganong & Coleman, 1990). In this study 40.7% of the studies on remarriage used questionnaires for gathering data.

Interviews and questionnaires were popular for gathering data on nonmarital cohabitation research during 1968-1977 (Macklin, 1978, 1987). Most research on the sexually open marriage used interviews and questionnaires

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(Macklin, 1987). In this study, research on nontraditional family forms which included nonmarital cohabitation and sexually open marriage, used more interviews (39.0%) and secondary sources (31.7%) than questionnaires for collecting data.

Caycedo, Wang, and Bahr (1991) found that questionnaires and interviews were the preferred techniques for collecting data for gender role research in a decade review of the 80s. Only a small percentage of research used observation or experiments. Findings of the present study for gender roles support Caycedo, Wang, and Bahr's (1991) conclusion, i.e., 54.3% of research on gender roles used questionnaires while 23.9% used interviews. Less than 5% (2.2%) of the research used experiments, and no research used observation as a technique for collecting data.

Interviews and questionnaires were the preferred techniques in the parent-child research (Hartup, 1978). During the 80s most of the research on adolescence used interviews or questionnaires and very few used laboratory or natural observation (Gecas & Seff, 1990). In this study questionnaires were the most preferred technique (40.3%), followed by interviews (35.6%) in the research on parent-child relationship. Less than 10% (5.1%) of the research used observation to collect data.

During the 70s, interviews and questionnaires were the main techniques used in research on adolescent sexual

behavior (Dyk, Christopherson, & Miller, 1991). In the 80s Miller and Moore (1990) found that most of the major data of adolescent sexual behavior was based on secondary sources. In this study, interviews were the most preferred (42.3%), followed by questionnaires (34.6%) as the techniques of research on adolescent sexual behavior. Less than a quarter (23.1%) of the studies on this theme published in the JMF during the 80s used secondary sources.

Similar to the findings in this study, White (1990) found in the JMF decade review that most research on divorce in the 80s used secondary sources, such as the National Labor Survey, Current Population Surveys, National Studies of Family Growth, Panel Study of Income Dynamics, and the General Social Surveys.

Most research on family violence in the 70s, gathered data through questionnaires and interviews (Gelles, 1980). Both techniques, i.e., interviews (41.5%) and questionnaires (39.0%), still dominate other techniques in research published in the JMF in the 80s.

Safilios-Rothschild (1971) discussed the controversy of using survey techniques or observation techniques in research on family power. In conclusion, she suggested that the use of each type of technique depends for example on which dimensions of power can be measured by it. In this study, most research on family power used questionnaires (37.5%) and interviews (33.3%). Less than 5% (4.2%) of the research on this theme was based on observation.

Joint interviews, observation, and secondary sources were used more frequently as the techniques for gathering data in the research on marital quality during the 70s (Spanier & Lewis, 1980). In this study, almost half (48.8%) of the research on marital quality used questionnaires, followed by interviews (27.3%), secondary sources (12.4%), observation (6.6%), experiments (4.1%), and content analysis (0.8%). Spanier and Lewis (1980) argued that better access to national samples for marriage research enabled the researcher to use secondary sources.

Jenkins (1991) found that more than 70% of the reviewed studies in the 80s used questionnaires and about 25% used secondary sources. In this study, the questionnaire was the preferred technique (40.8%) although the percentage was far less than Jenkins' study. The use of secondary sources was the second most (28.6%) preferred technique, followed by the use of interviews (26.5%).

Interviews were the primary technique of collecting data in research on family stress and coping until the 70s (Huang, 1991). In this study, questionnaires were the most frequent technique (43.7%) used followed by interviews (35.6%) and secondary sources (13.8%).

Gender of the Interviewer

A certain topic in family study, such as attitudes and behavior toward sexuality, was assumed to be "sensitive." In the 70s, unmarried people felt embarrassed and were

reluctant to report their sexual behavior in the study of sexuality because sexuality was a private issue and premarital sexuality was generally unaccepted (DeLamater, 1974). These problems can be reduced by not using a cross-gender interviewer (Benney, Riesman, & Star 1956; Schofield, 1965). DeLamater (1974) argued that the respondent might view the cross-gender interviewer as a potential dating partner, particularly if the interviewer were attractive.

Influence of the gender of interviewer was also found in a study of family power. Kenkel (1961) found that the gender of the interviewer influenced the decision making process and affected the observed power structure (e.g. wives tended to be more involved in the decision making when the interviewer was a woman).

Most research in this study, which used interviews as a technique for gathering data, did not mention the gender of the interviewer. In fact 7.6% mentioned the gender of the interviewer. Of this small percentage, more than half (55%) of the interviewers were female, 30% who were male, and 25% were done by a female and a male. More than half (55%) of the interviewers in this study interviewed the same gender respondents. The rest 45% did interviews with different gender. Six out of nine of the cross-gender interviewers were males.

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Table 19

Gender of the Interviewer and Gender of the Subject

| Gender of the interviewer | Female | | Male | | Female and Male | |
|---------------------------|--------------|------|--------------|----|-----------------|------|
| | _____ (%) | | _____ (%) | | _____ (%) | |
| Female | 8 | 72.7 | - | | 3 | 27.3 |
| Male | 1 | 50 | 1 | 50 | - | |
| Female and Male | - | | - | | 5 | 100 |
| Same as the subject | - | | - | | 2 | 100 |

Sampling Issues

The type and size of samples are common issues that were discussed because they are related to the representativeness of the research subject.

The Type of Sample

Based on the sampling procedures used, samples can be categorized into random and nonrandom samples. A random sample is used if the researcher wants to make an inference for the larger population. On the other hand, a nonrandom sample is usually used if the topic is sensitive or if it is difficult to find research subjects. See Kitson, Sussman, Williams, Zeehandelaar, Schikmanter, and Steinberger (1982)

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for details of the advantage and disadvantage for random and nonrandom samples.

Among the researchers who used samples in their studies, more than a quarter (27.1%) did not mention whether a random or nonrandom sample was used.

More than half (54.9%) of the studies used random samples and 43.9% used nonrandom samples. A very small portion (1.2%) of the research was based on random and nonrandom samples. Types of sample depended on the themes that were studied as seen in Table 20.

Many of the studies on premarital sexual relationships in the 70s were purposefully drawn from a pool of volunteers from one educational institution, such as a college (Clayton & Bokemeier, 1980). Most of the studies (61.1%) on premarital relationship in this study used nonrandom samples. The effects of volunteer biases in studies of sexual behavior and attitudes had been discussed since the 50s, but the findings were inconsistent. Maslow and Sakoda (1952) found that volunteers had higher self-esteem which might influence the result of the study. Bauman (1973) found a slight difference, while Kaats and Davis (1971) found no difference between volunteers and nonvolunteers.

Most research on stepfamilies between 1956 and the 80s used nonrandom samples (Ganong & Coleman, 1984; 1987). The difficulty of obtaining a random sample for this topic may be due to family mobility and the stigma associated with steprelationships during the time period. Remarried

Table 20

Themes by the Sampling Techniques

| Themes | Random | | Nonrandom | | Random and Nonrandom | |
|--------------------------------|--------|------|-----------|------|----------------------|-----|
| | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) |
| Gender Roles | 28 | 80.0 | 7 | 20.0 | - | |
| Premarital Sexual Relationship | 7 | 38.9 | 11 | 61.1 | - | |
| Mate Selection | 8 | 44.4 | 9 | 50.0 | 1 | 0.6 |
| Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 10 | 58.8 | 7 | 41.2 | - | |
| Parent-Child Relationship | 69 | 51.5 | 65 | 48.5 | - | |
| Marital Quality | 39 | 52.0 | 35 | 48.6 | 1 | 1.3 |
| Family Power | 7 | 36.8 | 12 | 63.3 | - | |
| Family Stress | 49 | 49.1 | 50 | 50.9 | - | |
| Family Violence | 15 | 50.0 | 15 | 50.0 | - | |
| Nontraditional Family Forms | 10 | 37.0 | 15 | 55.6 | 2 | 7.4 |
| Kinship | 24 | 58.5 | 16 | 39.0 | 1 | 2.4 |
| Divorce | 28 | 59.6 | 18 | 38.3 | 1 | 2.1 |
| Remarriage | 5 | 27.8 | 13 | 72.2 | - | |
| Family in Later Life | 25 | 69.4 | 11 | 30.6 | - | |
| Family and Religion | 16 | 55.2 | 11 | 37.9 | 2 | 6.9 |
| Family and Economy | 46 | 69.7 | 19 | 28.8 | 1 | 1.5 |
| Family Communication | 2 | 7.7 | 11 | 84.6 | - | |
| Family Policy | 3 | 75.0 | 1 | 25.0 | - | |
| Others | 23 | 67.6 | 11 | 32.4 | - | |

families were recognized as a mobile population (e.g., less than 40% of the remarried families reported their address) (Ganong & Coleman, 1990). The stereotype of the stepfamily was usually associated with a negative label, e.g., the stepchild was neglected and abused, and the stepmother was wicked (Coleman & Ganong, 1987).

A tendency to use nonrandom samples in research on remarriage and stepfamilies continued during the 80s in the JMF. Almost three-quarters (72.2%) of the research on this theme was based on nonrandom samples.

The problem of obtaining random samples in research on adolescent sexuality was due to conservative views on sexual behaviors and attitudes (Chilman, 1980a). Generally the researchers had to get the parent's permission to ask an adolescent to be a respondent. Parents tended to hesitate in giving this permission because they were worried that "sexual activity will be stimulated in their children" (Dyk, Christopherson, & Miller, 1991, p. 27) if questions about sexual attitudes and behaviors were posed. Because college students were assumed to be older and to be relatively free of parental control more of them were involved as the respondent than noncollege adolescent. Although using nonrandom samples still continued in the 80s (Dyk, Christopherson, & Miller, 1991), a tendency to use a more (58.8%) random sample was found in this study.

Subjects for the nontraditional family forms research were often difficult to locate and hence samples were usually nonrandom (Macklin, 1980; 1987). For example a random sampling of couples who voluntarily remain childless will not produce a sufficient number of respondents to enable a detailed analysis. The population is very small compared to the total population (Houseknecht, 1987). Samples for research on the same-sex relationships were also difficult to obtain. Most subjects were largely obtained through "homosexual bars and organization and on responses from only one person in the relationship" (Macklin, 1987, p. 338). In this study, more than half (55.6%) of the research on nontraditional family forms used nonrandom samples.

Many of the earlier studies in marital quality used nonrandom samples (Glenn & Weaver, 1978). More than half of research (52%) on marital quality during the 80s used random samples. This finding supports Glenn's (1990) conclusion about the increasing of random samples in research on marital quality. Similar to Noller and Fitzpatrick's (1990) findings in a review research on marital communication, this study found that 84.6% of research on this area used nonrandom samples. Noller and Fitzpatrick (1990) argued that the reason for choosing a nonrandom samples was it takes too many hours for both spouses to participate in a study. The researchers who used random samples selected their respondents from "a preexisting list" such as marriage license records or random digit dialing.

Before the 70s most of the research on child abuse and family violence was based on clinical samples, such as hospitalized children, sheltered women, patients of psychiatrists or social workers, and battered women's shelter (Gelles, 1980; Steinmetz, 1987; Straus & Gelles, 1990). In the same article, Gelles (1980) showed that research in the 70s were often based on nonclinical samples. Nonrandom samples were still frequent in the 80s however, random samples began to be used (Busby, 1991). Findings in this study support those findings as half (50.0%) of the research on family violence was based on random samples. The advantage of using a nonclinical sample is "it can overcome the confusion which arises out of confounding factors which lead to public identification of family violence with those factors casually related to violent behavior in the home" (Busby, 1991, p. 883). Different from other researchers, Straus & Gelles (1990) warns of the dangers of nonclinical samples which he called as "the representative sample fallacy" (p. 86). It refers to the implicit assumption of the superiority of representative samples to clinical samples. According to Straus this assumption is unwarranted if persons in the general population who manifest the problem are different from a "clinical" population manifesting the problem.

Samples in research on psychological and interpersonal adaptation of divorce in the 80s tended to be nonrandom (Kitson & Morgan, 1990). In this study, most (59.6%)

research on divorce was based on random samples, and more than a third (38.3%) was based on nonrandom samples.

Sample Size

The issue of the sample size is related to the use of statistical analysis. A certain sample size should be obtained to use appropriate statistics. Among the research (93.6%) which mentioned the sample size, there was a tendency to use larger samples in the second period. The percentages of samples of less than 100 decreased from 21.7% to 15.7% in the second period, while the percentages of samples from 100-1,000 and more than 1,000 increased from 47.2% to 50.3% and 31.1% to 34.1% consecutively, in the second period.

Table 21

Sample Size by Five Year Periods, 1980-1989

| Sample Size | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | |
|-------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | |
| < 100 | 70 | 21.7 | 57 | 15.7 |
| 100-<1,000 | 152 | 47.2 | 183 | 50.3 |
| >1,000 | 100 | 31.1 | 124 | 34.1 |
| Total | 322 | 100 | 364 | 100 |

These findings support Nye's (1988) study which found a trend for using samples of more than 1,000 after 1967. The sample size may relate to the level of data analysis. Nye (1988) found an increase of secondary analysis during 1977 to 1987. In this study the bigger sample sizes were mostly from the use of secondary data as seen in Table 22.

If the researchers took their own data for their studies, the sample size tends to be smaller, i.e., less than 1,000 or even less than 100. Although the size of the sample was frequently mentioned in reviews, they did not mentioned

Table 22

Sample Size by Level of Data Analysis

| Sample Size | Primary Analysis | | Secondary Analysis | | Meta-Analysis | | Primary and Secondary Analysis | |
|-------------|------------------|------|--------------------|------|---------------|------|--------------------------------|-----|
| | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) |
| <100 | 121 | 23.3 | 3 | 1.9 | 2 | 50 | 2 | 100 |
| 100-<1,000 | 298 | 57.4 | 36 | 22.5 | 1 | 25.0 | - | |
| >1,000 | 100 | 19.3 | 121 | 75.6 | 1 | 25.0 | - | |
| Total | 519 | 100 | 160 | 100 | 4 | 100 | 2 | 100 |

the actual number of the sample. In the 70s, much of the research on marital quality used small samples (Glenn & Weaver, 1978) although it was generally larger than samples in the 60s (Spanier and Lewis, 1980). During the 80s, there

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was an increase in the use of large samples in research on marital quality (Glenn, 1990). In this study, almost three quarters (71.0%) of the research on marital quality was based on more than 100 respondents.

This study supports Caycedo, Wang, & Bahr's (1991) findings that there was a tendency to use larger samples in the 80s. More than half (63.0%) of the research on gender roles was based on 100-1,000 respondents, and a quarter (25.0%) was based on more than 1,000 respondents.

Most research on nontraditional family forms used small samples (Macklin, 1987). For example, a third of the studies on voluntary childlessness that have been reviewed were based on fewer than 30 respondents (Houseknecht, 1987). About one fifth (21.1%) of the research on the nontraditional family forms in this study had fewer than 100 respondents.

During the decade of the 80s sample size in research on divorce increased. Most research on divorce that published in major journals during the 80s was based on large national data sets (White, 1990). In this study, more than half (50.7%) of the research on divorce used more than 1,000 respondents.

Sample size on the topic of remarriage in the 80s varied from 25 to 209 (Coleman & Ganong, 1990). The reasons for using small samples were the mobility of the population and the stigma of negative stereotypes (see Type of Sample

Table 23

Themes by Sample Size

| Themes | <100 | | 100-<1,000 | | >1,000 | |
|--------------------------------|------|------|------------|------|--------|------|
| | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) |
| Gender Roles | 5 | 11.4 | 28 | 63.6 | 11 | 25.0 |
| Premarital Sexual Relationship | 3 | 15.8 | 8 | 42.1 | 8 | 42.1 |
| Mate Selection | 4 | 17.4 | 6 | 26.0 | 13 | 56.5 |
| Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 1 | 5.0 | 11 | 55.0 | 8 | 40.0 |
| Parent-child Relationship | 32 | 17.1 | 99 | 52.9 | 56 | 29.9 |
| Marital Quality | 27 | 29.0 | 45 | 48.4 | 21 | 22.6 |
| Family Power | 5 | 20.8 | 17 | 70.8 | 2 | 8.3 |
| Family Stress and Coping | 33 | 25.2 | 63 | 48.1 | 35 | 26.7 |
| Family Violence | 3 | 8.3 | 18 | 50.0 | 15 | 41.7 |
| Nontraditional Family Forms | 8 | 21.1 | 20 | 52.6 | 10 | 26.3 |
| Kinship | 8 | 16.3 | 29 | 59.3 | 12 | 24.5 |
| Divorce | 10 | 14.9 | 23 | 34.3 | 34 | 50.7 |
| Remarriage | 3 | 13.6 | 15 | 68.2 | 4 | 18.2 |
| Family in Later Life | 2 | 4.7 | 29 | 67.4 | 12 | 27.9 |
| Family and Religion | 4 | 10.8 | 18 | 48.6 | 6 | 40.5 |
| Family and Economy | 9 | 9.0 | 62 | 62.0 | 28 | 28.0 |
| Family Communication | 7 | 53.8 | 6 | 46.2 | - | - |
| Family Policy | 1 | 20.0 | 1 | 20.0 | 3 | 60.0 |
| Others | 9 | 20.0 | 9 | 20.0 | 27 | 60.0 |

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section). Most (68.2%) research on this study was based on 100-1,000 respondents in the samples.

The size of the sample may be related to the techniques of gathering data used as is seen in Table 24.

Table 24

Techniques of Gathering data by Sample Size

| Techniques of Gathering Data | < 100 | | 100-1,000 | | >1,000 | | Total | |
|--|-------|------|-----------|------|--------|------|-------|-----|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Questionnaire and standardized tests | 72 | 24.7 | 183 | 62.9 | 36 | 12.4 | 291 | 100 |
| Interview | 56 | 21.8 | 135 | 52.5 | 66 | 25.7 | 257 | 100 |
| Secondary sources | 5 | 3.0 | 35 | 21.3 | 125 | 75.8 | 165 | 100 |
| Observation | 27 | 77.1 | 6 | 17.2 | 2 | 5.7 | 35 | 100 |
| Content analysis | 8 | 34.8 | 8 | 30.4 | 7 | 30.4 | 23 | 100 |
| Experiments | 11 | 64.7 | 6 | 35.3 | - | | 17 | 100 |
| Simulation | - | | 1 | 100 | - | | 1 | 100 |

Questionnaires and interviews as survey research techniques are good "in collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly" (Babbie, 1989, p. 237). This advantage was seen in this study. About three-quarters (75.3% and 78.2%, respectively) of research that used questionnaires and interviews were based on more than 100 respondents.

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Secondary sources were usually garnered from national surveys; therefore, it enabled the researcher to get larger samples. In this study, most studies (75.8%) that used secondary sources were based on more than 1,000 respondents. On the other hand, observation and experiments are usually used for small samples. Most (77.1% and 64.7%, respectively) studies that used observation and experiments were based on less than 100 respondents.

In a review of research on family violence, Steinmetz (1987) found that one-fourth of the studies had 20 respondents or fewer, and one-half had 60 respondents or fewer. Research on family violence published in the JMF during the 80s had larger samples than Steinmetz' study. The research in this study, 50% had 100- $<1,000$ respondents, while 41.7% had more than 1,000 respondents. Less than 10% (8.3%) of the research had less than 100 respondents.

Summary

Questionnaires and interviews are popular in family research. Some techniques, such as content analysis, focus group, and simulation was not mentioned as a technique in the previous reviews. For some themes, techniques for gathering data in the 80s were found to be similar to the previous reviews. For the themes gender roles, family violence, remarriage, and family and religion, the questionnaire was still a popular method in the 80s. For research on adolescent sexual behavior and marital quality

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the interview and questionnaire was more preferred methods. Divorce research usually relied on secondary data. For other themes, interview and questionnaire were interchangeably used as the preferred method. For example, interview method was popular in research on family stress and coping in the 70s, while in the 80s, the questionnaire was more popular than interview technique.

Little was reported on the interviewer's gender. Only 7.6% of the research using interview mentioned the gender of the interviewer.

Among all of the research reported mentioned the way the sample was gathered. Until the 80s, some themes, such as premarital sexual relationship, remarriage, nontraditional family forms, and family communication used nonrandom samples. In the JMF during the 80s themes, such as adolescent sexual behavior, marital quality, family violence, and divorce, used more random samples than the previous decade.

Sample sizes were larger during the period of 1985-1989. The larger samples tended to come from data sets using secondary analysis.

CHAPTER VII

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS IN THE EIGHTIES

One of the objectives in assessing the trends of family theory and methodology was the identification of the most used conceptual frameworks in the field of family studies. Larzelere and Klein (1987) mentioned three functions of the conceptual framework for research: (a) summarizing the research findings; (b) clarifying the important concepts which are defined in terms of one another; and (c) generating new research directions.

Klein, Clavert, Garland, and Poloma (1969) found that the symbolic interactional (27.3%), the structural functional (24.5%), and the developmental (14.6%) conceptual frameworks were the most used in the journal articles from 1962 through 1968.

In another study of journal articles, Hodgson and Lewis (1979) found the same pattern, i.e., the symbolic interactional (24%), the structural functional (22%), and the developmental (19%) conceptual frameworks continued to dominate the family study during 1969 to 1976. Hodgson and Lewis (1979) found that the institutional (16%) framework also became popular during those time.

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In this study, 54.7% of empirical research did not use a conceptual framework. Symbolic interaction and the structural functional conceptual frameworks still dominated the family study during the 80s. In this study most of the researchers used the structural functional framework (30.2%), followed by the symbolic interactional framework (22.5%). Social exchange framework was least used in Hodgson and Lewis study's (1979), replaced the developmental as the third dominant conceptual framework in this study followed by the developmental approach during the 80s.

Using a certain conceptual approach depends upon a theme being studied (Appendix G). For example, until the 80s, a conceptual approach was relatively unused in research concerning divorce issues. Many researcher relied on the common sense notion rather than on conceptual approaches (White, 1990). When a conceptual approach was used, it was usually social exchange framework (Raschke, 1987; White, 1990).

Symbolic Interaction Framework

The symbolic interaction conceptual framework argued that individuals were influenced directly by the meaning they gave to the response of others. In this study research on parent-child (34.8%), nontraditional families (36.4%), family stress and coping (31.5%), kinship (37.1%), family in later life (45.2%), and family communication (50%) had symbolic interaction as the themes' conceptual framework.

Table 25

Number of Articles using the Conceptual Frameworks by Five
Year Periods, 1980-1989

| Conceptual Framework | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | | Total | |
|------------------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| Structural Functional | 49 | 29.2 | 52 | 31.3 | 101 | 30.2 |
| Symbolic Interactional | 37 | 22.0 | 38 | 22.9 | 75 | 22.5 |
| Social Exchange | 27 | 16.1 | 28 | 16.9 | 55 | 16.5 |
| Developmental | 25 | 14.9 | 16 | 9.6 | 41 | 12.3 |
| Social Psychology | 10 | 6.0 | 12 | 7.2 | 22 | 6.6 |
| Institutional | 6 | 3.6 | 11 | 6.6 | 17 | 5.1 |
| Situational | 9 | 5.4 | 4 | 2.4 | 13 | 3.9 |
| Conflict | 3 | 1.8 | 4 | 2.4 | 7 | 2.1 |
| Psychoanalytic | 1 | 0.6 | 1 | 0.6 | 2 | 0.6 |
| Systems | 1 | 0.6 | - | | 1 | 0.3 |
| Total | 168 | 100 | 166 | 100 | 334 | 100 |

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For example the use of the symbolic interaction framework on research on nontraditional families look at how role strains in dual-earner family relate to husband's and wife's perceptions of the degree of marital interaction (Galambos & Silbereisen, 1989).

Research on parent-child relations included the children's perception of their parents' values and the children's definitions of situations as important factors in building their self-concept (Clark, Werthington, & Danser, 1988; Cooper, Holman, & Braithwaite, 1983; Demo, Small, & Savin-Williams, 1987; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Hoelter & Harper, 1987; McDonald, 1980); children's behavior, (Barness, Farrell, & Cairns, 1986; Coombs & Landsverk, 1988; Wright & Piper, 1986); as well as in the formation of attitudes (Acock & Bengston, 1980; Trimberger & MacLean, 1982); aspirations (Corder & Stephan, 1984); values (Whitbeck & Gecas, 1988); how parents' attitude affect their perceptions of their children's behavior (Demo, Small, & Savin-Williams, 1987; Houser & Berkmar, 1984); and how children's and parent's perceptions influenced each other (Felson & Zielinski, 1989; Walker & Thompson, 1989).

Research on kinship using symbolic interaction looked at how individuals define situations for role taking. For example, evidence show that older women who based a large part of their lives and definitions of self on a marital relationship felt more lonely after the relationship was disrupted through death or divorce (Essex & Nam, 1987). In

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other studies, it was found that family members of Alzheimer's patient derive meanings of kinship and caregiving from interacting with support groups (Gubrium, 1988). There is also evidence that mother's satisfaction with their relationships with their children related to their perceived quality of contact with children (Houser, & Berkman, 1984).

Research on family in later life using symbolic interaction focused on relationships between adult children and their elderly parents. Helping elderly parents was more evident when the adult children felt a greater sense of filial responsibilities and perceived that their elderly parents were more dependent (Cicirelli, 1983). The mothers' and adult daughters' perceptions of intimacy related to the exchange of aid (Walker & Thompson, 1983). The loss of a spouse may motivate a person to use other members of the family to overcome his/her own bereavement (Morgan, 1984).

Research on family stress and coping focused on how members of a family faced and overcame the hardships that lead to crisis. Some examples are stress, depression, and loneliness among family members were discussed as the result of multiple roles required of certain individuals (Berkowitz & Perkins, 1984; Bolger, DeLonigs, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989; Jones & Butller, 1980); loss of the established sources of definition of self and reality through the spouse's death or divorce (Essex & Nam, 1987); definition of the situation as in the case of incest victims (Morrow &

Sorell, 1989); perceptions of parental rejection (Robertson & Simons, 1989); and the presence of adult children at home (Suitor & Pillemer, 1987). How individuals cope with these hardships were also studied. For example Ward (1981) found that patients in alcohol treatments who experience satisfaction and meaning from their family relationships will more readily improve than those without such experience. Another example is that the older widows frequently got help from their unmarried sisters when they felt "blue" because the sisters had similar past experience and situations (O'Bryant, 1988).

Research on family communication focused on the perceptions of being understood by the other spouse in verbal and nonverbal communication (Allen & Thompson, 1984; Gottman & Porterfield, 1981).

Structural Functional Framework

Research on gender roles (42.3%), remarriage (58.3%), family and religion (53.3%), and family policy (100%) are the themes that used the structural functional conceptual framework. Examples of research on gender roles included the relationships between social class and gender roles, division of household labor (Secombe, 1986), sex-role differentiation and family social economic status among the adolescent (McCandless, Lueptow, & McClendon, 1989).

Research on remarriage discussed the structure of remarried families and the relationships between remarried

families and the societal norms. Cherlin and McCarthy (1985) explored the structure of remarried families after divorce. They found fewer remarried families with stepmothers than with stepfathers. Generally mothers had the children when they remarried. Different family structures may cause different problems (Amato, 1987; Lambert, 1986; Weingarten, 1985). For example, remarried persons may have problems with former spouses, with stepchildren, with absentee children, and with spouse's former spouse(s). The single woman with dependent children may join welfare as a result of financial needs instigated by divorce and remain there because of limited employment and child care options for her as a single parent (Weingarten, 1985).

The lack of clear norms guiding family relationships for remarried families makes remarriage problematic including poor integration within the community (Ihinger-Tallman & Pasley, 1986), patterns of functioning in families (Peck, Bell, Waldren, & Sorell, 1988), and continuity of abusive behaviors in remarriage (Kalmus & Seltzer, 1986).

Research on religion that included a structural functional conceptual framework looked at religious values as they specify standards within families and which are accepted by the members of the family. The Catholic church, for instances, teaches that the primary purposes of marriage are the procreation and education of children and that other aims must be regarded as secondary (Whelpton, Campbell, &

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Patterson, 1966). Therefore, Catholic women are expected to have children to fulfill their duty as Catholics. Thorton and Camburn (1989) studied Roman Catholic values as related to sexual attitudes and behavior. Heckert and Teachman (1985) investigated the time between births for Catholics and for non-Catholics. The norms of moral necessity to allow for the birth of all spirits accounted for a higher birth rate among Mormons (Toney, Golesorkhi, & Stinner, 1985). Religious values were also studied in relation to family affection (Wilkinson & Tanner III, 1980); in resolving conflict between Quaker husband and wife (Brutz & Allen, 1986); gender attitudes (Brinkerhoff & Mackie, 1985), and as a predictor for marital adjustment (Filsinger & Wilson, 1984).

There was only one study on family policy used any conceptual framework, i.e., the structural functional. Rank (1986) studied the relationships between family structure and welfare utilization. He found that single heads of households experienced limitations in labor-market participation; hence they were more likely to need public assistance over longer periods of time than married couples.

Institutional Framework

Studies on mate selection (33.3%) and premarital relationships (33.3%) were themes that more frequently used the institutional conceptual framework. Research on mate selection found changes in the process of mate selection

during certain periods. For example, a change in mate selection occurred from pre-1912 to 1962 in India. From the analysis of Gujarati fiction during the three periods, Kathri (1980) found that in pre-1912, the two genders were not allowed to interact. During the 1931-1937 period, interactions between the genders were freer. During the 1956-1962 period, people were allowed to select their own mate.

Meanwhile in the United States intermarriage has become more popular. Glenn (1982) showed the rapid increase of the interreligious marriages in the United States from 1957 to 1978. With those facts, he argued that the institution of marriage has become a secular institution. Labov and Jacobs (1986) found an increased interethnic marriage from 1950 to 1983 in Hawaii. They explained that the Hawaiian society is becoming a melting pot. A society which increases the cultural acceptance of intermarriages. Lee and Stone (1980) studied mate selection systems in relation to family structure and they found that an autonomous mate selection based on romantic attraction is more likely to happen in societies with nuclear family systems than in those with extended family.

Situational Framework

Research on family stress, coping, and divorce were the themes more frequently found using the situational framework. The focus was on helping or coping patterns

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among family members in certain situations, such as old age, ill, or imprisonment. Barbarin, Hugher, & Chesler (1985) and McCubbin, McCubbin, Patterson, Cauble, Wilson, and Warwick (1983) studied parental coping patterns in the care of an ill child; while Lowenstein (1984) studied the coping patterns of prisoners' wives. In another study Bankoff (1983) focused on situational factors could influence the psychological well-being of widows. She found that whether a support was helpful or harmful to the widow's well-being was depended upon the type of support given, as well as its source and where the widow was in the adjustment process. For example, parental support was important for the widow's well being in the crisis loss phase, while ties with peers was important in introducing new networks. Cousins and Vincent (1983) found that better adjusted couples expressed more emotion, more support, and less aversive behavior than poorly adjusted couples in dealing with negative affect expressed by their partners.

Katz and Pesach (1985) studied the patterns of distress and adjustment for divorced men and women in Israel. Parenthood was the most stressful area for divorced men, while the reestablishment of social and intimate relationships was difficult for divorced women. Their explanations were based on gender role differentiation. In Israel a divorced mother was expected to devote most of her time, energy, and other resources to her children, while a divorced father was encouraged to pursue new intimate

relationships. Differences in the adjustment process among men and women were also found in Bloom and Caldwell's (1981) study. Without explaining why, they found that women made less adjustment during the pre-separation period, while men made less adjustment during the early postseparation period.

Conflict Framework

Research on family communication was the theme most studied using the conflict framework. For example, Jones and Gallois (1989) studied how public and private conflict between husband and wife were managed. Public settings were described as situations where the individuals were with friends, acquaintances, or strangers. They found five rules which involved both verbal and nonverbal behavior that facilitated communication, i.e., consideration, rationality, specific self-expression, conflict resolution, and positivity.

Social Exchange Framework

The social exchange conceptual framework assumes that individuals will try to maximize rewards and minimize costs in their relationships. Research on family power (61.5%) and family violence (50.0%) were the themes that more frequently used the social exchange framework or variants of it as the conceptual framework. Research on family power that used social exchange framework discussed the power that a family member has related to decision making. The greater

power the wives have, such as employment status, income, occupational prestige, education, and low level of parity; the greater the influence they have over the decision making process (Rank, 1982; Shukla, 1987) because these powers refer to social competence in the family (McDonald, 1980). The individual's perceptions were as significant in determining marital power as were actual resources exchanged (Sexton & Perlman, 1989). A spouse who perceived resource exchanges with the other spouse as more equitable would more equitable decision. Adolescent power was also studied (Giles-Sinis & Crosbie-Burnett, 1989). For example, whether adolescents had alternatives related to accepting a stepparent's role as an authority figure in the stepparent family, or whether financial support from or the adolescent's contact with the outside parent may become resources for the adolescent to make their own decision in the stepfamilies were studied.

There is evidence to support the notion that having power in marital relationships is also related to making a decision to remain or leave an abusive relationship. For example, the more dependent the wife on her husband in the marriage, such as economic dependency, love, or the perceptions about whether she or her husband would be hurt more if their marriage were to break up; the more likely she was to remain with her abusive husband (Kalmus & Straus, 1982; Strube & Barbour, 1983; Strube & Barbour, 1984). Findings of more studies in family violence which used the

social exchange framework were different from The systems framework was the conceptual framework most frequently used in research on family violence.

Developmental Framework

Research on marital quality (29.4%) and kinship (17.1%) most frequently used the developmental framework. The studies often discussed different stages in family life related to marital quality. For example themes of marital adjustment or satisfaction during pregnancy, after the first child born, or during the middle stage were studied (Belsky, Spanier, & Rovine, 1983; Lee, 1988; Snowden, Schott, Awalt, & Gillies-Knox, 1988; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1987; Waldron & Routh, 1981). Benin and Nienstedt (1985) found that life cycle stages have important effects for the husbands' marital happiness but not for the wives' marital happiness.

Kinship interactions were studied in different stages of the life cycle (Belsky & Rovine, 1984; Ishi-Kuntz & Seccombe, 1989; Kennedy & Stokes, 1982; Leigh, 1982). Kennedy and Stokes (1982) found that people in the early stages of their life cycle were more likely to receive help for purchasing their own home than in other groups. Interactions with kin were also related to the dimension of closeness between parents and children (Ishi-Kuntz & Seccombe, 1989). Closeness seem to vary depending on the stage in the family life cycle. For example, the mutual dependence between parent-preschool children was high

because of the physical and other needs of children. This kept parents from extensive interaction with their kin families of origin.

Social Psychology Framework

This framework was found in 36.4% of the research on the adolescent sexual behavior. Here are a few examples. Jorgensen and Sonstegard (1984) predicted the pregnancy risk-taking behavior of adolescent females. Marsiglio (1988) studied the adolescent males' intentions to live with their child and partner. Brazzell and Acock (1988) studied the adolescent females' intentions to deal with an unwanted pregnancy.

Psychoanalytic Framework

The psychoanalytic framework was used in research on the themes of mate selection and parent-child. Examples of this approach being used is the topic of mate selection which argues that a man is likely to marry someone resembling his mother and that a woman would marry someone resembling her father. Jedlicka's study (1984) supported that argument by finding that sons were more influenced by mothers in mate choice and daughters were more influenced by fathers.

Systems Framework

Only research on parent-child (1.0%) relationships used the systems conceptual framework. Larson (1983) studied the

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adolescent's relationship with family and friends. He used the concepts of feedback to compare these relationships. Interactions with friends were described as more open and free, while interactions with family were described as more rigid.

Summary

The structural functional, the symbolic interaction, and the social exchange were the most used in the JMF in the 80s. Symbolic interaction framework was used more in some themes, such as parent-child relationship, family stress and coping, nontraditional family forms, kinship, and family in later life.

Structural functional framework was used more in themes, such as gender roles, remarriage, family and religion, and family policy. They discussed the relationships between social class and gender roles, structure of remarried families, function of religion for family member's behavior, and relation between family structure and welfare utilization.

The institutional framework was used in research on mate selection and premarital relationship. They discussed the changes in the mate selection process during certain periods, and the changing values of intermarriage.

Situational framework was used in research on family stress, coping, and divorce. For example, focus on coping patterns among family members in a variety situation.

Conflict framework was used most in family communication research in the JMF in the 80s. It discussed how husband and wife managed conflicts in different situations.

Social exchange framework was used more in family power and family violence. The research focused on the power of family member pertaining to the decision making process.

Developmental framework was used in marital quality and kinship research studies. Discussed were different stages in family life and relations with marital adjustment, and interaction with kin members.

Social psychology framework was used in research on the topic of adolescent sexual behavior. Focused was on the relationships between knowledge of sexual behaviors, intention of sexual behaviors, beliefs of significant others and what they think the significant other should do, as well as the motivation to comply with these beliefs.

Psychoanalytic framework was discussed in mate selection and parent-child relationship research. Focus was on how a spouse resembles the mother's or the father's spouse, and offspring loneliness related to the lack of parental involvement in the early years.

Systems framework was discussed in the parent-child relationships, such as comparing adolescent's relationship with family and friends.

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CHAPTER VIII

THE ENVIRONMENTAL SYSTEM IN THE EIGHTIES

At the end of 1970s Bronfenbrenner introduced an ecological model for research in human development. This model enabled researchers to understand "the processes and outcomes of human development as a joint function of the person and the environment" (Bronfenbrenner, p. 188, 1989). This study found that most of the research in the 80s was conducted on the micro level, although the percentage decreased from 72.2% to 66.4% in the second period (Table 26).

The decrease in research on the micro level in the second period was followed by an increase in the percentage of research in other levels in the second period. The increase of research on the meso level was found in family research during 1945-1979 (Hill, 1981). The level of the environmental system may depend on the theme that was studied as seen in Appendix H.

Micro-Systems

Research on family and communication (92.3%), family violence (86.5%), and marital quality (83.2%) were the

Table 26

Environmental Systems by Five Year Periods, 1980-1989

| Environmental system | 1980-1984 | | 1985-1989 | |
|----------------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | |
| Micro-systems | 242 | 72.2 | 254 | 64.0 |
| Meso-system | 32 | 9.6 | 61 | 15.4 |
| Exo-system | 21 | 6.3 | 34 | 8.6 |
| Macro-system | 40 | 11.9 | 48 | 12.1 |
| Total | 335 | 100 | 397 | 100 |

themes that focused most on the micro level. Research on family communication focused on communication between husband and wife. In contrast to earlier research cited by Allen and Thompson (1984), it was found that understanding a spouse's perceptions was related to marital satisfaction. Allen and Thompson (1984) found that understanding cannot predict communicative satisfaction in marital dyad. Only agreeing and feeling understood were found to be the predictors of communicative satisfaction in marital dyad. Marital satisfaction was also related to the husband's ability to understand his wife's nonverbal messages. The husbands of satisfied wives were more able to read their wife's nonverbal language and vice versa (Gottman & Porterfield, 1981).

Various situations were studied on different dimensions of marital quality at the micro level, such as in premarital cohabitation (De Maris & Leslie, 1984), pregnancy (Snowden, Schott, Awalt, & Gillis-Knox, 1988), children (Callan, 1981; Glenn & McLanahan, 1982; Waldron & Routh, 1981), in leisure activity (Holman & Jacquart, 1988), and health (Simmons & Ball, 1984). For example evidence indicated that compared with noncohabitators, husband and wife cohabitators perceived lower quality of marital communication and marital satisfaction (De Maris & Leslie, 1984). It was argued that it is the characteristics of the people who do and do not choose to cohabit before marriage, rather than the experience of cohabitation itself, which that accounts for the difference. The cohabitators tended to expect more in marriage from the beginning and adapt less readily to the role expectations of conventional marriage than do the noncohabitators.

Although the direction of the relationship was not known, Snowden, Schott, Awalt, and Gillis-Knox (1988) found a relationship between uncertainty and conflict in becoming pregnant and low marital satisfaction at the beginning of pregnancy. Couples who had trouble in adjusting to the birth of their child tended to have trouble throughout pregnancy. Pregnant women who had more self-confidence tended to feel more satisfied in marital relationship.

The presence of a child was found to decrease the mothers' marital adjustment (Callan, 1981; Waldron & Routh,

1981,) and parents' marital happiness (Glenn & McLanahan, 1982). Infertile women reported that they felt more pleased with their husband with fewer quarrels, less regret about marriage, and greater happiness in the marital relationship than other women (Callan, 1981). This findings can be explained by the characteristics of the sample that had been drawn. The infertile women were on an in vitro fertilization program in attempting to have their own child, and they still had not given up in being mothers. The higher marital adjustment may possibly reflect their present status.

The lower marital adjustment among new mothers may be due to postpartum depression, a shift of mood due to feeling "tied" to the house, and fewer social interactions than before the birth of their child (Waldron & Routh, 1981).

The health of a spouse can influence a couple's marital adjustment. Simmons and Ball (1984) found that the wife who married after the husband's injury had better marital adjustment than the wife who married before an injury. Wives who married after an injury had better marital adjustment if they were more present centered, had a high capacity for developing intimacy and closeness with others, were interpersonally sensitive and reported good contact with other people.

The level of spousal communication may also influence marital satisfaction. Holman and Jacquart (1988) argued that joint spousal leisure activity is positively related to

marital satisfaction if the communication is high and the reverse if the communication is low.

Research on family violence on the micro level focuses on violence among family members. It was found that violent behaviors and attitudes may be acquired through direct experiences in the family, such as observed siblings aggression, parent aggression, or having experienced a childhood of family aggression (Forsstrom-Cohen & Rosenbaum, 1985; Gully, Dengerink, Pepping, and Bengstrom, 1981; Ulbrich & Huber, 1981). Marital violence tended to be more frequent in remarriage if both spouses were previously involved in violent marriages (Kalmuss & Seltzer, 1986).

Other research on family violence focused on family factors related to it. Some wives cannot work outside the household due to traditional husbands who will not permit their wives to work if they have young children. Therefore, they are economically dependent on their husbands and tend to experience more physical abuse from their husbands than working wives (Kalmuss & Strauss, 1982).

Meso-System

At the meso level, research studies on adolescent sexual behavior (26.1%), kinship (34.0%), and family and economy (21.1.2%), were more common. Some studies about adolescent sexual behavior focused on parental and peer influences. Shah and Zelnik (1981) found that during the transition from early to late adolescence, peers became a

more important reference group than parents. Therefore, higher levels of premarital pregnancy were found among girls who were more influenced by friends than by parents. Girls who involved parents in obtaining a method of contraception tend not to involve girl peers, and vice versa (Nathanson & Becker, 1986). Among those who mentioned both girlfriends and boyfriends as their advisors, they more frequently chose girlfriends to accompany them to the health clinic.

Robbins, Kaplan, and Martin (1985) found that school stress can be a strong predictor of premarital pregnancy in adolescence. They explained that "marginal students became pregnant because parenthood seems a viable alternative to continued self-devaluing experiences in the educational system" (p. 580).

Some research on kinship focused on the different relationships of various kin. The relationship between mothers and daughters become more positive with decreasing relational strain, increasing visiting or telephone contact, and when the daughter asks for advice in child rearing. In contrast to the relationship between mothers and daughters, the relationship between mothers-in-law and daughters-in-law becomes more negative with increasing relational strain, and daughters-in-law have ambivalent or negative feelings about receiving help from mothers-in-law (Fischer, 1983).

Social support from parents, in-laws, children, other close relatives, and friends may have different influences on widows in the long-term process of adjusting to the loss

of their husbands (Bankoff, 1983). Children appear to have no positive effect on the well-being of widows in the phase of crisis loss because they also are grieving and need support. Parental support, especially from widowed mothers, appeared to be very important for the well-being of the new widows during the period of intense grief soon after the death of a spouse. They are better able to understand their widowed daughter because they had gone through the same experience. A network of close relatives tended to restrict access to new information and social contacts for widows who began to reorganize herself around her new status. Friends introduced the widow to members of new networks who were more supportive to her newly acquired needs as a single person.

Some research on family and economy on the meso level focused on the relationships between parents' employment and child care. The presence of young children influenced the employment expectations of married mothers. Although these women experienced ambivalence toward employment during their infants' first year, most of them planned to return to work before their infant's first birthdays. The reasons for it were either economic or to protect themselves from discontinuous employment patterns (Hock, Gnezda, & McBride, 1984). Some mothers who wanted to combine work and motherhood chose a part-time job (Pistrang, 1984; Thomson, 1980). Women who had husbands with high income felt freer

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to return to work after they had babies because they could hire someone to do child care (Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980).

Some employed couples reduced their working hours when their children were young to minimize the time conflicts and role strain (Moen & Dempster-McClain, 1987). Or, if they did not arrange for either the husband or the wife to be available for child care during the day, they may have worked shifts that permitted either of them to pick up or take the child to the child care provider while the other was at work (Nock & Kingston, 1984).

Working mothers who chose the self-care arrangements for their children when they went to work used it when their children were older (Rodman & Pratto, 1987).

Exo-System

Research conducted on the exo-system level was more often focused on family policy (55.6%) and mate selection (27.6%). Research on family policy looked at the impact of social programs and policies on families. Spakes (1982) found that the AFDC mandatory work registration policy could have positive and negative impacts to their clients and their families. Positive impacts included the improvement of skills, self-concept, and extra money which may result in decreased family tension. On the other hand, negative impacts included lower self-concept as the result of failure to get a better job, more training, and family tension such

as inadequate child care because the mother must now accept a low-paying job.

Darity and Myers (1984) studied the effect of welfare dependency on the "Black female headship." It was argued that "Black female headship" were "the most overly represented group of individuals who are long term dependents on welfare . . ." (p. 767). But Darity and Myers (1984) found no influence of welfare dependency to "Black female headship."

Much of the research on mate selection discussed intermarriages. It focused on the factors that influenced the choice of a marriage partner. Education was one of the many factors that influenced intermarriage in two ways (Lee, 1988). First, the longer people remained in the formal education system, the longer they may share similar values and attitudes. Second, the use of English as the medium of instruction in the school can bypass the differences in cultural background, such as race or ethnic membership (Lee, 1988) and language (Stevens & Schoen, 1988).

Segregation was also found related to marital choice since "a person is likely to choose a spouse with similar values, that the residential environment may have helped to shape" (Morgan, 1981, p. 916). An individual's choice of marriage partner is constrained by whom he meets. Therefore, the larger the social networks, the greater the opportunity for the individual to choose a potential partner with whom she/he is likely to come into contact.

Davis-Brown, Salamon, and Surra (1987) found that the different religious groups in an agricultural community had more opportunities to interact with each other after school consolidation and integration. Marriage was more frequent among people from similar, rather than different, ecological areas (Morgan, 1981).

The size of the group is another factor related to marital choice. Labov and Jacobs (1986) found that intermarriage in Hawaii was influenced by the size of the groups whether they are age cohorts, ethnic groups, residential communities, or occupational groups. The larger the group, the lower the rate of intermarriages. For example, in Hawaii, Koreans were more likely to marry outside the group than other ethnic groups because the Korean population there was much smaller than that of other ethnic groups. The high rates of interracial marriage in the United States were aided partly by the lack of formal barriers such as the abolishment of the prohibition of interracial marriages with whites in 1967 (Kitano, Yeung, Chai, & Hatanaka, 1984).

Glenn (1982) found that the religious institution has a weak influence on marital choice because there were many interreligious marriages where persons married persons with a different religion and consequently changed their own religion.

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Macro-System

Research on the macro-system level was more likely to focus on factors related to divorce (23.3%), religion (35.9%), and family power (23.3%). Much research on divorce on the macro level discussed the antecedent factor or the impact of divorce. Social integration was found to be related to divorce, with integration increasing the likelihood that people will follow social norms in choosing an appropriate spouse and fulfilling their marital roles. On the other hand, the absence of integration or normlessness increases the likelihood that people will divorce (Glenn & Shelton, 1986). Migration was used as a factor to indicate level of social integration. It was assumed that migration affects the degree of social integration by causing instability in any social relationships among people (Glenn & Shelton, 1985). Therefore, except for Wilkinson, Reynolds, Thompson Jr., and Ostresh (1983) who found that migration had little influences on changes in divorce rates, others found that the more rapid the rate of social change as measured by migration, the higher the divorce rate (Breault & Kposowa, 1987; Glenn & Shelton, 1985; Makabe, 1980; Trovato, 1986a).

Divorce was seen as a factor associated with suicide. Divorced persons were assumed to experience significant losses the integration to the family institution by losing their spouse and/or children (Stack, 1980). Many divorced persons felt that divorce was a way to solve the problems

they experienced during their previous marriages. Often, they still experienced unhappiness, social isolation, hurt, guilt, depression, and perceived that suicide was the only alternative to end their depression. Findings indicated that divorce was significantly related to suicide (Stack, 1980; Trovato, 1986b).

Much of the research on religion at the macro level looked at the impact of the several religious affiliations on activities in marriage and family life, such as fertility expectations among Catholics and Mormons (see the Structural Functional Framework section), gender roles among the women who return to orthodox Judaism (Kaufman, 1985), and marital violence in Quaker families (Brutz & Allen, 1986).

In research about the effect of orthodox Judaism values on attitudes, practices, and beliefs in gender roles and familial lifestyles among women who returned to orthodox Judaism, it was found that the women found their identity as women after their return. Whereas before, they felt that their lives had been spiritually empty and without meaning, as expressed by one woman, " a new dignity, a dignity they felt most contemporary feminists disregarded and devalued" (Kaufman, 1985, p. 547). Quakers emphasize peaceful means to resolve conflict, regardless of personal sacrifice or adversity of conditions. With their commitment to Quaker beliefs, husbands and wives were less violent and use less abusive methods to resolve their marital conflicts (Brutz & Allen, 1986).

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Research on family power on the macro system level focused on the influence of cultural norms of power in the family. Warner, Lee, and Lee (1986) did research in 186 societies in a cross-cultural sample to begin to understand the conditions under which wives may have more power in decision making in marriage. It was found that wives have more power in marriage in societies with nuclear rather than extended family structures, and in societies with matrilineal, rather than patrilineal, customs of residence and descent.

Cooney, Rogler, Hurrell, and Ortiz (1982) studied the decision-making patterns within two generations of Puerto Rican families in the United States related to cultural norms. In patriarchal societies, norms were strong and shared by all classes of society. In egalitarian societies, individual's worth was based on socioeconomic achievements which act as a resource. Thus, in the parent generation, the husband with higher socioeconomic achievements had less power in decision making; while in the child's generation, the husband with higher socioeconomic achievements had more power in decision making. These differences reflected the cultural norms of the parent generation born and raised in Puerto Rico, which is a modified patriarchal society, and the cultural norms of the child's generation born and raised in the United States, a transitional egalitarian society.

Summary

Most of research in the JMF in the 80s were conducted at the micro-systems level. Micro system level of analysis was used more on research on marital quality, family violence, and family communication. They focused on marital quality in different situations, communication between husband and wife, and violence among family members.

Meso-system level of analysis was found more on research of adolescent sexual behavior, kinship, and family economies. Researchers focused on parental and peer influences on adolescent behavior; different relation with parents, in-laws, children, and friends; and the relationship between parents' employment and child care.

Research on family policy and mate selection were conducted at the exo-system level of analysis. They focused on the impact of social programs and policies on families and factors related to mate selection.

Research on macro-system level of analysis were more found in family power, divorce, and family and religion. They discussed the influence of the cultural norms on power in family members, relation between social integration and divorce, impact of religious values and family member's behavior

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSION

A lack of comprehensive review of research studies or theoretical literature in family science pulled the researcher's interest to do a content analysis of the Journal of Marriage and the Family (JMF). It is one of the most popular professional journals used by scholars to publish research studies on families. It was first published in 1939, with an emphasis on publishing articles related to marriage and family issues.

It has been a tradition for the JMF to publish decade reviews dealing with certain themes since 1960s. Yet there is a lack of studies that deal with what the JMF has published over time, with the subsequent problems noted above.

Social changes in the 60s and the 70s were cited as a stimulus for some emerging phenomena such as gender roles, adolescent sexual behavior, nontraditional family forms, and family policy which became new areas of interest in family studies. This supports Hess' view that "what is studied in any society at a given historical moment is determined by

. . . the cultural context and historical moment" (Hess, & Markson, 1980, p. 5). For example, family policy and gender roles were recognized as the important topics among social scientists after they became the political agenda. The enormous research on adolescent sexual behavior was conducted because of support from federal funding agencies. The increase in divorce rate during the mid-60s and 70s pulled the researchers to examine this phenomena.

Interest of the new areas can be seen in some themes, such as divorce, remarriage, family and economy, and family communication which were only subthemes in the former reviews, could be reviewed individually as a single theme in the 80s. The enormous research of some themes enables them to be reviewed in two different articles, such as determinants and consequences of divorce; family and health, and economic distress; and parental employment and economic distress.

The small percentage on some themes, such as adolescent sexual behavior, nontraditional family forms, remarriage, family in later life, family communication, and family policy, in the 80s does not mean that they were not popular. The author argued that many of them were published in other journals beside JMF.

In general, compared to the findings of previous reviews, research in the JMF during the 80s were still mainly descriptive in nature and without the use of hypotheses. Different from the previous reviews which did

not mention about meta-analysis, in this study a small amount of research in the 80s can be categorized as a meta-analysis study. The fact that meta-analysis was first mentioned in 1976 by Glass may explain a lack of this study in the previous decades.

Although most of the research were still conducted in cross sectional rather than longitudinal designs, there was an increase of longitudinal designs in the second five year period during the 80s. It may relate to the needs of knowing the process of a phenomenon which was the limitation of a cross sectional design.

Most of the researchers used primary data in the 80s. Reason for not using the secondary data may relates to the limitation of questions which cannot be manipulated in relation to the research issue.

Many samples of family research in the 80s were still nonrandom. Some themes such as premarital sexual relationship, remarriage, nontraditional family forms, and family communications used more nonrandom samples. The difficulty to get the research subject can be account for this. For example, remarried people were recognized as a mobile population. The stepfamily was usually associated to negative stereotype, such as the neglected and abused stepchild, or the wicked stepmother.

In the 80s there was an improvement in sample size which tended to be larger than earlier times. There was also an increase in the complexity of the statistical

techniques for analysis. Compared to the previous reviews, in the 80s there were more variety of statistical techniques, such as LISREL, log-linear, or proportional hazards model.

Research subject tended to be individuals, female and male, located in urban areas, "mixed" ethnicity, and middle class using education as the social class indicator. The dominant value in American society lies in the urban, Protestant, and middle class society (Spiegel, 1954) was cited as the reason why family research were more conducted among them. In the 80s sibling was still a neglected research subject in family research. The parent-child's bond is assumed to be more important than the sibling's bond can account for this.

Compared to other themes, adolescent sexual behavior used more female subjects. Reasons can be given for this: (a) the rate increase of premarital sexual behavior was greater among the college females than college males; and (b) the assumption of females as the primary responsible persons for their consequences sexual behavior.

Compared to other studies, in this study research subject were more from "mixed" ethnicity. It may be explained due to the different definitions of "mixed". Blacks and Hispanics were the only minority which were studied individually. There was no study deal with the Native American.

Family policy research was the only theme that used more research subject from the lower class and income as the only indicator for social class. It was due to the use of welfare data. Family communication was the only theme that use more middle or upper class research subject.

Since 1957 the percentage of the articles written by one author has decrease. A network or team of authors replaced single author in writing a research article. Though it was not examined in this study, hopefully a team of authors can be associated with higher quality of the article (Bayer, 1982).

More female and male together as authors in the 80s may reduce gender bias in research. While there was an increase in two gender authors research articles, female researchers often chose certain research themes, such as gender roles, parent-child relationship, kinship, remarriage, family in later life, and family and economy. They may find different perspective over problems from the male authors.

Questionnaires and interviews were the more popular techniques for gathering data in family research. It was due to the private nature of family. Simulation and focus group as the techniques for gathering data appeared in the 80s that were not mentioned in the previous decade.

The structural functional, the symbolic interaction, and the social exchange were the most often used conceptual frameworks in the JMF in the 80s. Most research in the JMF in the 80s were conducted in micro-systems level, to use

Bronfenbrenner's category. It means that there was a lack of research that examine two or more settings.

As a conclusion it can be said that family research has improved in larger sample size, research subject not limited to females, increase in multivariate statistical techniques, new techniques for gathering data, and teams of multi gender authors.

This study has some limitations. First, themes for this study were derived from the titles of the article. Different results will be found if themes are derived from the content of the research. Second, this study was conducted by one author. Two or more authors will enhance the results since one author may have subjective judgement. Third, since content analysis technique enables the materials to be recode, it will also influence the results.

Recommendations are given from this study:

1. The importance of explicitly stating underlying conceptual frameworks in research reports. Lavee (1986) mentioned the advantages of its relation to theory building process, interpretation of results, and research process. Similar to Lavee's experience, the author had a longer time or "frustrating" times, to use Lavee's (1986) word, to do the conceptual framework part compared to other parts, since many of the researcher did not explicitly mention any of the conceptual frameworks in their studies.

2. The importance of mentioning ethnicity, social class, and area of locations of the study in a research report since they influence the results.

3. The importance of including more Native American and Asian American studies in the future. There was no such single study in the JMF during 80s.

4. The importance of publishing studies using meta-analysis study. There is an advantage of using this methodology in future studies by pooling relevant data concerning a particular topic for a better understanding of the problem.

5. More longitudinal studies in the future should be carried out. There was a lack of this type of study in the JMF during the 80s.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THEMES BY PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Table A1

Themes by Purpose of the Study

| Themes | Exploratory | | Descriptive | | Explanatory | | Meta-analysis | |
|--------|-------------|------|-------------|------|-------------|------|---------------|-----|
| | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) |
| 1. | 5 | 10.9 | 23 | 50.0 | 17 | 37.0 | 1 | 2.2 |
| 2. | 2 | 9.5 | 18 | 85.7 | 1 | 4.8 | - | |
| 3. | 2 | 6.9 | 21 | 72.4 | 6 | 20.7 | - | |
| 4. | 2 | 9.5 | 14 | 66.7 | 5 | 23.8 | - | |
| 5. | 20 | 10.5 | 118 | 62.1 | 52 | 27.4 | - | |
| 6. | 11 | 11.5 | 60 | 62.5 | 24 | 25.0 | 1 | 1.0 |
| 7. | 5 | 20.8 | 13 | 54.2 | 6 | 25.0 | - | |
| 8. | 20 | 14.8 | 83 | 61.5 | 30 | 22.2 | 2 | 1.5 |
| 9. | 6 | 16.7 | 27 | 75.0 | 3 | 8.3 | - | |
| 10. | 9 | 20.9 | 25 | 58.1 | 9 | 20.9 | - | |
| 11. | 9 | 18.8 | 28 | 58.3 | 11 | 22.9 | - | |
| 12. | 17 | 21.3 | 40 | 50.0 | 23 | 28.8 | - | |
| 13. | 6 | 25.0 | 16 | 66.7 | 1 | 4.2 | 1 | 4.2 |
| 14. | 5 | 11.4 | 27 | 61.4 | 12 | 27.3 | - | |
| 15. | 4 | 10.0 | 27 | 67.5 | 9 | 22.5 | - | |
| 16. | 16 | 14.8 | 58 | 53.7 | 32 | 29.6 | 2 | 1.9 |
| 17. | 1 | 7.7 | 8 | 61.5 | 4 | 30.8 | - | |
| 18. | - | | 3 | 50.0 | 3 | 50.0 | - | |
| 19. | 8 | 15.4 | 39 | 75.0 | 5 | 9.6 | - | |

Note:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Gender Roles | 11. Kinship |
| 2. Premarital Sexual Relationship | 12. Divorce |
| 3. Mate Selection | 13. Remarriage |
| 4. Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 14. Family in Later Life |
| 5. Parent-child Relationship | 15. Family and Religion |
| 6. Marital Quality | 16. Family and Economy |
| 7. Family Power | 17. Family Communication |
| 8. Family Stress and Coping | 18. Family Policy |
| 9. Family Violence | 19. Others |
| 10. Nontraditional Family Forms | |

APPENDIX B

THEMES BY LEVEL OF DATA ANALYSIS

Table B1

Themes by Level of Data Analysis

| | Primary Analysis | Secondary Analysis Analysis | Meta-analysis | Primary and Secondary |
|-----|---------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| | (%) | (%) | (%) | (%) |
| 1 - | 37 80.4 | 8 17.4 | 1 2.2 | - |
| 2 - | 13 61.9 | 8 38.1 | - | - |
| 3 - | 15 51.7 | 12 41.4 | - | 2 6.9 |
| 4. | 15 71.4 | 6 28.6 | - | - |
| 5. | 152 80.0 | 38 20.0 | - | - |
| 6. | 79 82.3 | 16 16.7 | 1 1.0 | - |
| 7. | 21 87.5 | 3 12.5 | - | - |
| 8. | 108 80.0 | 25 18.5 | 2 1.5 | - |
| 9. | 29 80.6 | 7 19.4 | - | - |
| 10. | 28 65.1 | 14 32.6 | - | 1 2.3 |
| 11. | 49 80.3 | 12 19.7 | - | - |
| 12. | 41 51.3 | 39 48.8 | - | - |
| 13. | 16 66.7 | 7 29.2 | 1 4.2 | - |
| 14. | 32 72.7 | 12 27.3 | - | - |
| 15. | 26 65.0 | 13 32.5 | - | 1 2.5 |
| 16. | 73 67.6 | 33 30.6 | 2 1.9% | - |
| 17. | 12 92.3 | 1 7.7 | - | - |
| 18. | 2 33.3 | 4 66.7 | - | - |
| 19. | 30 57.7 | 22 42.3 | - | - |

Note:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Gender Roles | 11. Kinship |
| 2. Premarital Sexual Relationship | 12. Divorce |
| 3. Mate Selection | 13. Remarriage |
| 4. Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 14. Family in Later Life |
| 5. Parent-child Relationship | 15. Family and Religion |
| 6. Marital Quality | 16. Family and Economy |
| 7. Family Power | 17. Family Communication |
| 8. Family Stress and Coping | 18. Family Policy |
| 9. Family Violence | 19. Others |
| 10. Nontraditional Family Form | |

APPENDIX C
THEMES BY STATISTICAL TECHNIQUE

Table C1

Themes by Statistical Techniques

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|----|-----|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1 | - | 8.7 | 28.3 | 30.0 | 3.3 | 8.3 | 11.7 | 5.0 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | - |
| 2 | 6.9 | 10.3 | 31.0 | 20.7 | - | 3.4 | 10.3 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.4 | - | 3.4 | 3.4 |
| 3 | 5.7 | 20.0 | 14.3 | 17.1 | 5.7 | 8.6 | 11.4 | 2.9 | 11.4 | - | 2.9 | - | - |
| 4 | - | 6.9 | 17.2 | 34.5 | 6.9 | 3.4 | 10.3 | 13.8 | - | - | 3.4 | - | 3.4 |
| 5 | 2.8 | 5.6 | 26.3 | 29.5 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 14.3 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 0.8 | 5.2 | 0.8 | 0.4 |
| 6 | - | 4.4 | 29.4 | 29.4 | 5.9 | 5.9 | 16.9 | 5.9 | 0.7 | - | 0.7 | - | 0.7 |
| 7 | - | 6.1 | 30.3 | 24.2 | - | 12.1 | 15.2 | 3.0 | - | - | 3.0 | 6.1 | - |
| 8 | 0.5 | 4.9 | 25.4 | 32.4 | 4.3 | 6.5 | 13.5 | 4.3 | 1.6 | 1.1 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 2.2 |
| 9 | 2.1 | 19.1 | 29.8 | 12.8 | - | 2.1 | 17.0 | 10.6 | 4.3 | - | - | - | 2.1 |
| 10 | 5.7 | 9.4 | 22.6 | 30.2 | 5.7 | 1.9 | 13.2 | 5.7 | - | 1.9 | 3.8 | - | - |
| 11 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 22.0 | 42.4 | 3.4 | 1.7 | 13.6 | 1.7 | 1.7 | - | 3.4 | - | - |
| 12 | 0.4 | 9.8 | 27.7 | 26.8 | 2.7 | 5.4 | 10.7 | 4.5 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 5.4 | - | 2.2 |
| 13 | - | 19.4 | 39.0 | 10.3 | - | 3.2 | 22.6 | 6.5 | - | 3.2 | 3.2 | - | 3.2 |
| 14 | 1.9 | 7.5 | 13.2 | 41.5 | 3.8 | 3.8 | 13.2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | - | 3.8 | - | - |
| 15 | 1.8 | 12.5 | 26.8 | 26.8 | 5.4 | 5.4 | 5.4 | 5.4 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 3.6 | - | 3.6 |
| 16 | 1.4 | 4.8 | 21.4 | 30.3 | 7.6 | 4.8 | 11.7 | 6.9 | 4.2 | 1.4 | 4.8 | 0.7 | - |
| 17 | - | 4.3 | 34.8 | 26.1 | - | 4.3 | 21.7 | - | - | 8.7 | - | - | - |

Table C1 (Continued)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|----|-----|------|------|------|-----|-----|------|-----|------|-----|----|------|------|
| 18 | - | 25.0 | 12.5 | 25.0 | - | - | - | - | 12.5 | - | - | 12.5 | 12.5 |
| 19 | 5.6 | 11.3 | 20.8 | 35.8 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 13.2 | 3.8 | 1.9 | 3.8 | - | - | - |

Note:

Row legends:

- 1 Gender Roles
- 2 Premarital Sexual Relationship
- 3 Mate Selection
- 4 Adolescent Sexual Behavior
- 5 Parent-child Relationship
- 6 Marital Quality
- 7 Family Power
- 8 Family Stress and Coping
- 9 Family Violence
- 10 Nontraditional Family Forms
- 11 Kinship
- 12 Divorce
- 13 Remarriage and Stepfamily
- 14 Family in Later Life
- 15 Family and Religion
- 16 Family and Economy
- 17 Family Communication
- 18 Family Policy
- 19 Others

Column legends:

- 1 Univariate
- 2 Correlation
- 3 Test Hypotheses
- 4 Regression
- 5 Path Analysis
- 6 Factor Analysis
- 7 Analysis of Variance
- 8 Log-linear
- 9 Discriminant Analysis
- 10 Analysis of Covariance
- 11 Multiple Classification Analysis
- 12 LISREL
- 13 Hazards Model

APPENDIX D

THEMES BY TYPE OF THE RESEARCH SUBJECT

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Table D1

Themes by Type of the Research Subject

| Themes | Individual | | Couple | | Siblings | | Parent-Child | | Others | |
|--------|------------|------|--------|------|----------|-----|--------------|------|--------|-----|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| 1. | 23 | 51.1 | 20 | 44.4 | - | | 2 | 4.4 | - | |
| 2. | 18 | 90.0 | 1 | 5.0 | - | | 1 | 5.0 | - | |
| 3. | 18 | 72.0 | 7 | 28.0 | - | | - | | - | |
| 4. | 18 | 85.7 | - | | - | | 3 | 14.3 | - | |
| 5. | 118 | 63.4 | 11 | 5.9 | 3 | 1.6 | 50 | 26.9 | 4 | 2.2 |
| 6. | 50 | 51.5 | 43 | 44.3 | - | | 4 | 4.1 | - | |
| 7. | 8 | 38.1 | 10 | 47.6 | - | | 3 | 14.3 | - | |
| 8. | 81 | 62.8 | 35 | 27.1 | 1 | 0.8 | 10 | 7.8 | 2 | 1.6 |
| 9. | 24 | 66.7 | 7 | 19.4 | - | | 2 | 5.6 | 3 | 8.3 |
| 10. | 28 | 71.8 | 9 | 23.1 | - | | 2 | 5.1 | - | |
| 11. | 33 | 70.2 | 1 | 2.1 | 1 | 2.1 | 10 | 21.3 | 2 | 4.3 |
| 12. | 48 | 78.7 | 8 | 13.1 | - | | 4 | 6.6 | 1 | 1.6 |
| 13. | 12 | 57.1 | 6 | 28.6 | - | | 3 | 14.3 | - | |
| 14. | 31 | 75.6 | 2 | 4.9 | 1 | 2.4 | 7 | 17.1 | - | |
| 15. | 27 | 71.1 | 8 | 21.1 | - | | 3 | 7.9 | - | |
| 16. | 75 | 76.5 | 17 | 17.3 | - | | 4 | 4.1 | 2 | 2.0 |
| 17. | 3 | 23.1 | 10 | 76.9 | - | | - | | - | |
| 18. | 4 | 100 | - | | - | | - | | - | |
| 19. | 40 | 88.9 | 3 | 6.7 | 1 | 2.2 | - | | 1 | 2.2 |

Note:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Gender Roles | 11. Kinship |
| 2. Premarital Sexual Relationship | 12. Divorce |
| 3. Mate Selection | 13. Remarriage |
| 4. Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 14. Family in Later Life |
| 5. Parent-child Relationship | 15. Family and Religion |
| 6. Marital Quality | 16. Family and Economy |
| 7. Family Power | 17. Family Communication |
| 8. Family Stress and Coping | 18. Family Policy |
| 9. Family Violence | 19. Others |
| 10. Nontraditional Family Forms | |

APPENDIX E

THEMES BY ETHNICITY OF THE RESEARCH SUBJECT

Table E1

Themes by Ethnicity of the Research Subject

| Themes | White | Black | Hispanic | Mixed | Others |
|--------|---------|-------|----------|---------|--------|
| | (%) | (%) | (%) | (%) | (%) |
| 1. | 7 43.8 | - | - | 8 50.0 | 1 6.3 |
| 2. | 5 41.7 | - | - | 7 58.3 | - |
| 3. | 7 33.3 | - | - | 13 61.9 | 1 4.8 |
| 4. | 6 35.3 | 1 5.9 | - | 10 58.8 | - |
| 5. | 46 39.3 | - | 3 2.6 | 64 54.7 | 4 3.5 |
| 6. | 15 31.3 | 3 6.3 | 3 6.3 | 26 54.2 | 1 2.1 |
| 7. | 5 62.5 | - | 1 12.5 | 1 12.5 | 1 12.5 |
| 8. | 23 29.9 | 1 1.3 | 5 6.5 | 42 54.5 | 6 7.8 |
| 9. | 5 35.7 | - | - | 2 14.3 | 7 50.0 |
| 10. | 4 20.0 | 1 5.0 | 1 5.0 | 13 65.0 | 1 5.0 |
| 11. | 9 37.5 | - | 2 8.3 | 12 50.0 | 1 4.2 |
| 12. | 14 35.0 | - | - | 23 57.5 | 3 7.5 |
| 13. | 7 50.0 | - | - | 7 50.0 | - |
| 14. | 10 38.5 | 1 3.8 | 1 3.8 | 14 53.8 | - |
| 15. | 12 48.0 | - | - | 12 48.0 | 1 4.0 |
| 16. | 21 35.6 | - | 3 5.1 | 31 52.5 | 4 6.8 |
| 17. | 1 50.0 | - | - | 1 50.0 | - |
| 18. | 1 20.0 | - | 1 20.0 | 3 60.0 | - |
| 19. | 6 17.1 | 3 8.6 | - | 21 60.0 | 5 14.3 |

Note:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Gender Roles | 11. Kinship |
| 2. Premarital Sexual Relationship | 12. Divorce |
| 3. Mate Selection | 13. Remarriage |
| 4. Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 14. Family in Later Life |
| 5. Parent-child Relationship | 15. Family and Religion |
| 6. Marital Quality | 16. Family and Economy |
| 7. Family Power | 17. Family Communication |
| 8. Family Stress and Coping | 18. Family Policy |
| 9. Family Violence | 19. Others |
| 10. Nontraditional Family Forms | |

APPENDIX F

THEMES BY TECHNIQUES OF GATHERING DATA

Table F1

Themes by Techniques of Gathering Data

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|-----|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|------|
| 1. | 23.9% | 54.3% | 17.4% | 2.2% | 2.2% | - | - | - |
| 2. | 20.7% | 41.4% | 34.5% | 3.4% | - | - | - | - |
| 3. | 20.6% | 14.7% | 38.2% | 8.8% | 2.9% | 11.8% | 2.9% | - |
| 4. | 42.3% | 34.6% | 23.1% | - | - | - | - | - |
| 5. | 35.6% | 40.3% | 18.5% | - | 0.5% | 5.1% | - | - |
| 6. | 27.3% | 48.8% | 12.4% | 0.8% | 4.1% | 6.6% | - | - |
| 7. | 33.3% | 37.5% | 12.5% | 4.2% | 4.2% | 4.2% | - | 4.2% |
| 8. | 35.6% | 43.7% | 13.8% | - | 1.1% | 5.7% | - | - |
| 9. | 41.5% | 39.0% | 17.1% | 2.4% | - | - | - | - |
| 10. | 39.0% | 22.0% | 31.7% | 2.4% | 2.4% | 2.4% | - | - |
| 11. | 48.2% | 19.6% | 23.2% | 1.8% | 1.8% | 5.4% | - | - |
| 12. | 31.4% | 17.4% | 45.3% | 3.5% | - | 2.3% | - | - |
| 13. | 25.9% | 40.7% | 25.9% | 7.4% | - | - | - | - |
| 14. | 49.0% | 19.6% | 25.5% | 3.9% | - | 2.0% | - | - |
| 15. | 26.5% | 40.8% | 28.6% | - | 2.0% | 2.0% | - | - |
| 16. | 30.4% | 33.0% | 30.4% | 3.5% | 0.9% | 0.9% | - | 0.9% |
| 17. | 9.1% | 45.5% | 9.1% | - | 27.3% | 9.1% | - | - |
| 18. | 28.6% | 28.6% | 42.9% | - | - | - | - | - |
| 19. | 30.9% | 20.0% | 36.4% | 3.6% | 1.8% | 7.3% | - | - |

Notes:

Row legends:

1. Gender Roles
2. Premarital Relationship
3. Mate Selection
4. Adolescent Sexual Behavior
5. Parent-child Relationship
6. Marital Quality
7. Family Power
8. Family Stress and Coping
9. Family Violence
10. Nontraditional Family Forms
11. Kinship
12. Divorce
13. Remarriage and Stepfamilies
14. Family in Later Life
15. Family and Religion
16. Family and Economy
17. Family Communication
18. Family Policy
19. Others

Column legends:

1. Interview
2. Questionnaire
3. Secondary Sources
4. Content Analysis
5. Experiment
6. Observation
7. Focus Group
8. Simulation

APPENDIX G

THEMES BY CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Table G1

Themes by Conceptual Framework

| Themes | Conceptual Framework | | | | | | | | | |
|--------|----------------------|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|------|-----|------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 1 | 15.4 | 42.3 | - | 11.5 | 26.9 | - | - | - | 3.8 | |
| 2 | - | 33.3 | 33.3 | - | 16.6 | - | - | 16.6 | - | - |
| 3 | 16.3 | 16.7 | 33.3 | - | 16.7 | 8.3 | - | 8.3 | - | - |
| 4 | 18.2 | 18.2 | - | - | 27.3 | - | - | 36.4 | - | - |
| 5 | 34.8 | 28.1 | 2.1 | 6.3 | 17.7 | 2.1 | 1.0 | 5.2 | - | 3.1 |
| 6 | 29.4 | 11.7 | 2.9 | 29.4 | 17.6 | - | - | 5.9 | - | 2.9 |
| 7 | 15.4 | 23.1 | - | - | 61.5 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 8 | 31.5 | 17.8 | - | 11.0 | 6.8 | - | - | 16.4 | 2.7 | 13.7 |
| 9 | 16.7 | 33.3 | - | - | 50.0 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 10 | 30.0 | 30.0 | - | 10.0 | 20.0 | - | - | 10.0 | - | - |
| 11 | 37.1 | 22.9 | - | 17.1 | 17.1 | - | - | - | - | 5.7 |
| 12 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 6.3 | 25.0 | - | - | - | - | 6.3 | 12.5 |
| 13 | 9.1 | 63.6 | 9.1 | - | 18.2 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 14 | 45.2 | 16.1 | - | 12.9 | 19.4 | - | - | - | - | 6.5 |
| 15 | - | 53.3 | 26.7 | - | 13.3 | - | - | 6.7 | - | - |
| 16 | 18.5 | 31.5 | - | 14.8 | 29.6 | - | - | 3.7 | 1.9 | - |

Table G1 (Continued)

| Themes | Conceptual Framework | | | | | | | | | |
|--------|----------------------|-------|---|---|------|---|---|---|------|----|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 17 | 50.0 | - | - | - | 25.0 | - | - | - | 25.0 | - |
| 18 | - | 100.0 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

Notes:

Row Legends:

1. Gender Roles
2. Premarital Sexual Relationship
3. Mate Selection
4. Adolescent Sexual Behavior
5. Parent-child Relationship
6. Marital Quality
7. Family Power
8. Family Stress and Coping
9. Family Violence
10. Nontraditional Family Forms
11. Kinship
12. Divorce
13. Remarriage and Stepfamilies
14. Family in Later Life
15. Family and Religion
16. Family and Economy
17. Family Communication
18. Family Policy

Column legends:

1. Symbolic Interactional
2. Structural Functional
3. Institutional
4. Developmental
5. Social Exchange
6. Psychoanalytic
7. Systems
8. Social Psychology
9. Conflict
10. Situational

APPENDIX H

THEMES AND THE ENVIRONMENTAL SYSTEM

Table H1

Themes and the Environmental System

| Themes | Micro-systems | | Meso-system | | Exo-system | | Macro-system | |
|--------|---------------|------|-------------|------|------------|------|--------------|------|
| | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | | (%) | |
| 1. | 31 | 68.9 | 6 | 13.3 | 4 | 8.9 | 4 | 8.9 |
| 2. | 18 | 78.3 | 2 | 8.7 | - | | 3 | 13.0 |
| 3. | 17 | 58.6 | - | | 8 | 27.6 | 4 | 13.8 |
| 4. | 15 | 65.2 | 6 | 26.1 | - | | 2 | 8.7 |
| 5. | 138 | 71.1 | 31 | 17.8 | 10 | 5.7 | 15 | 7.7 |
| 6. | 79 | 83.2 | 8 | 8.4 | 4 | 4.2 | 4 | 4.2 |
| 7. | 14 | 77.8 | - | | - | | 4 | 22.2 |
| 8. | 94 | 68.6 | 32 | 23.4 | 8 | 5.8 | 3 | 2.2 |
| 9. | 32 | 86.5 | 1 | 2.7 | 2 | 5.4 | 2 | 5.4 |
| 10. | 32 | 71.1 | 7 | 15.6 | 2 | 4.4 | 4 | 8.9 |
| 11. | 27 | 57.4 | 16 | 34.0 | 4 | 8.5 | - | |
| 12. | 37 | 48.1 | 11 | 14.3 | 11 | 14.3 | 18 | 23.4 |
| 13. | 16 | 69.6 | 3 | 13.0 | - | | 4 | 17.4 |
| 14. | 31 | 64.6 | 9 | 18.8 | 1 | 2.1 | 7 | 14.6 |
| 15. | 17 | 43.6 | 2 | 5.1 | 6 | 15.4 | 14 | 35.9 |
| 16. | 65 | 59.6 | 23 | 21.1 | 13 | 11.9 | 8 | 7.3 |
| 17. | 12 | 92.3 | 1 | 7.7 | - | | - | |
| 18. | 2 | 22.2 | 2 | 22.2 | 5 | 55.6 | - | |
| 19. | 32 | 61.5 | 5 | 9.6 | 3 | 5.8 | 12 | 23.1 |

Note:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Gender Roles | 11. Kinship |
| 2. Premarital Sexual Relationship | 12. Divorce |
| 3. Mate Selection | 13. Remarriage |
| 4. Adolescent Sexual Behavior | 14. Family in Later Life |
| 5. Parent-child Relationship | 15. Family and Religion |
| 6. Marital Quality | 16. Family and Economy |
| 7. Family Power | 17. Family Communication |
| 8. Family Stress and Coping | 18. Family Policy |
| 9. Family Violence | 19. Others |
| 10 Nontraditional Family Forms | |

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

| | | | |
|------------------------------------|----|----|-------|
| 1. Number of article | - | - | - |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2. Title ----- | | | |
| ----- | | | |
| ----- | | | |
| ----- | | | |
| 3. Volume | - | - | |
| | 4 | 5 | |
| 4. Month of issue: | | | |
| February (1) August (3) | | | - |
| May (2) November (4) | | | 6 |
| 5. Year of issue: | | | |
| 1980 (0) (1985) (5) | | | - |
| 1981 (1) (1986) (6) | | | 7 |
| 1982 (2) (1987) (7) | | | |
| 1983 (3) (1988) (8) | | | |
| 1984 (4) (1989) (9) | | | |
| 6. Author ----- | | | |
| ----- | | | |
| One (1) | | | - |
| Two (2) | | | 8 |
| Three or more (3) | | | |
| 7. Gender of author(s) | | | |
| Male (1) | | | - |
| Female (2) | | | 9 |
| Male and female (3) | | | |
| Can't tell (4) | | | |
| 8. THEMES | | | |
| Sex roles, family and society (01) | | | |
| Premarital relationship (02) | - | - | - |
| Mate selection (03) | 10 | 11 | 18 19 |
| Adolescent sexual behavior: (04) | | | |
| pregnancy and parenting | - | - | - |
| Parent-Child relationship (05) | 12 | 13 | 20 21 |
| Marital quality (06) | | | |
| Family power (07) | - | - | - |
| Family Stress and Coping (08) | 14 | 15 | 22 23 |
| Wife abuse (09) | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|------|----|----|----|----|
| Child abuse | (10) | - | - | - | - |
| Elderly abuse | (11) | 16 | 17 | 24 | 25 |
| Racial and Cultural variations among American families | (12) | | | | |
| Nontraditional family forms | (13) | | | | |
| Kinship | (14) | | | | |
| Divorce | (15) | | | | |
| Remarriage and Stepfamily | (16) | | | | |
| Marital and family therapy | (17) | | | | |
| Cross-societal family research | (18) | | | | |
| Families in later life | (19) | | | | |
| Religion and family | (20) | | | | |
| Family and health | (21) | | | | |
| Parental employment | (22) | | | | |
| Marital communication | (23) | | | | |
| Family policy | (24) | | | | |
| Others (specify) ----- | | | | | |

 -----(26)
 Not a research article (00)

9. Focus of the study -----

10 Empirical study (1) -
 Not an empirical study (2) 26

11 Hypotheses
 Any hypotheses (1)
 No hypotheses (2) -
 Not a research article (0) 27

12 Purpose of research

Exploratory (1) -
 Descriptive (2) 28
 Explanatory (3)

Meta-analysis (4)
 Not a research article (0)

13 Theoretical framework used

| | | | | |
|------------------------|-----|----|----|----|
| Interactionist | (1) | | | |
| Institutional | (2) | | | |
| Structural functional | (3) | | | |
| Situational | (4) | - | - | - |
| Developmental | (5) | 31 | 29 | 30 |
| Social exchange | (6) | | | |
| Others (specify)----- | | | | |
| ----- | (7) | | | |
| Not a research article | (0) | | | |

14 Time dimension

| | | |
|-------------------------|-----|----|
| Cross sectional studies | (1) | - |
| Longitudinal studies | (2) | 32 |
| Meta-analysis | (3) | |
| Not a research article | (0) | |

15 Sample -----

Sampling technique

| | | |
|------------------------|-----|----|
| a. Random | (1) | - |
| Non random | (2) | 33 |
| Not mention | (9) | |
| Not a research article | (0) | |

b. Number of samples (specify)-----

| | | | | | |
|------------------------|--------|----|----|----|----|
| not mention | (9999) | - | - | - | - |
| not a research article | (0000) | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 |

c. Location of the subjects:

| | | |
|-------------------------|-----|----|
| Urban | (1) | - |
| Rural | (2) | 38 |
| Urban and Rural | (3) | |
| Subject is not a person | (8) | |
| Not mention | (9) | |
| Not a research article | (0) | |

d. Type of subject:

| | | |
|--|-----|----|
| Individual | (1) | - |
| A Couple | (2) | 39 |
| Child-parent | (3) | |
| Child-Grandparent | (4) | |
| Siblings | (5) | |
| Others ----- | (6) | |
| Not a research article/subject is not a person | (0) | |

| | | | |
|--|-----|----|--|
| e. Gender of the subjects | | | |
| Male | (1) | - | |
| Female | (2) | 40 | |
| Male and female | (3) | | |
| Not mention | (9) | | |
| Not a research article/subject is not a person | (0) | | |
| f. Social class of the subjects: | | | |
| Lower | (1) | - | |
| Middle | (2) | 41 | |
| Upper | (3) | | |
| Lower and middle class | (4) | | |
| Upper and middle class | (5) | | |
| Upper and lower calss | (6) | | |
| Lower middle and upper | (7) | | |
| Subject is not a person | (8) | | |
| Not mention | (9) | | |
| Not a research article | (0) | | |
| g. Type of definition of social class: | | | |
| Family income | (1) | - | |
| Education level | (2) | 42 | |
| Occupational level | (3) | | |
| Family income and educational level | (4) | | |
| Family income and occupational level | (5) | | |
| Educational and occupational level | (6) | | |
| All of them | (7) | | |
| Subject is not a person | (8) | | |
| Not mention | (9) | | |
| Not a research article | (0) | | |
| h. Ethnicity of the subjects: | | | |
| Asian | (1) | - | |
| Black | (2) | 43 | |
| Hispanic | (3) | | |
| White | (4) | | |
| Others (specify)..... | (5) | | |
| Mixed | (6) | | |
| Subject is not a person | (8) | | |
| Not mention | (9) | | |
| Not a research article | (0) | | |

| | | | | |
|--|-----|----|----|----|
| 1. If an interview technique is used, the gender of the interviewer: | | | | |
| Male | (1) | - | | |
| Female | (2) | | | 44 |
| Male and female | (3) | | | |
| Not mention | (9) | | | |
| Not a research article/did not use interview | (0) | | | |
| 16 Levels of organization of the studies: | | | | |
| Microsystem | (1) | | | |
| Mesosystem | (2) | - | - | - |
| Exosystem | (3) | 45 | 46 | 47 |
| Macrosystem | (4) | | | 48 |
| Not a research article | (0) | | | |
| 17 Technique for gathering data: | | | | |
| Experiments | (1) | | | |
| Self administered questionnaire | (2) | | | |
| Interview | (3) | | | |
| Observation | (4) | | | |
| Secondary analysis | (5) | | - | - |
| Content Analysis | (6) | | 49 | 50 |
| Historical/comparative analysis | (7) | | | 51 |
| Life histories | (8) | | | |
| Others ----- | (9) | | | |
| Not a research article | (0) | | | |
| 18 Statistical Techniques | | | | |
| Univariate analysis (distributions, central tendency, dispersion) | (1) | | | - |
| Cross table | (2) | | | 52 |
| Measures of associations: nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio | (3) | | | - |
| Linear regression or multiple regression | (4) | | | 53 |
| Path analysis | (5) | | | - |
| Time series analysis | (6) | | | 54 |
| Factor analysis | (7) | | | |
| Tests of statistical significance | (8) | | | - |
| Others (specify) ----- | (9) | | | 55 |
| ----- | | | | |
| Not a research article | (0) | | | - |
| | | | | 56 |

19 Level of data analysis

- Primary analysis (1)
- Secondary analysis (2)
- Meta-analysis (3)
- Not research (4)

-
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