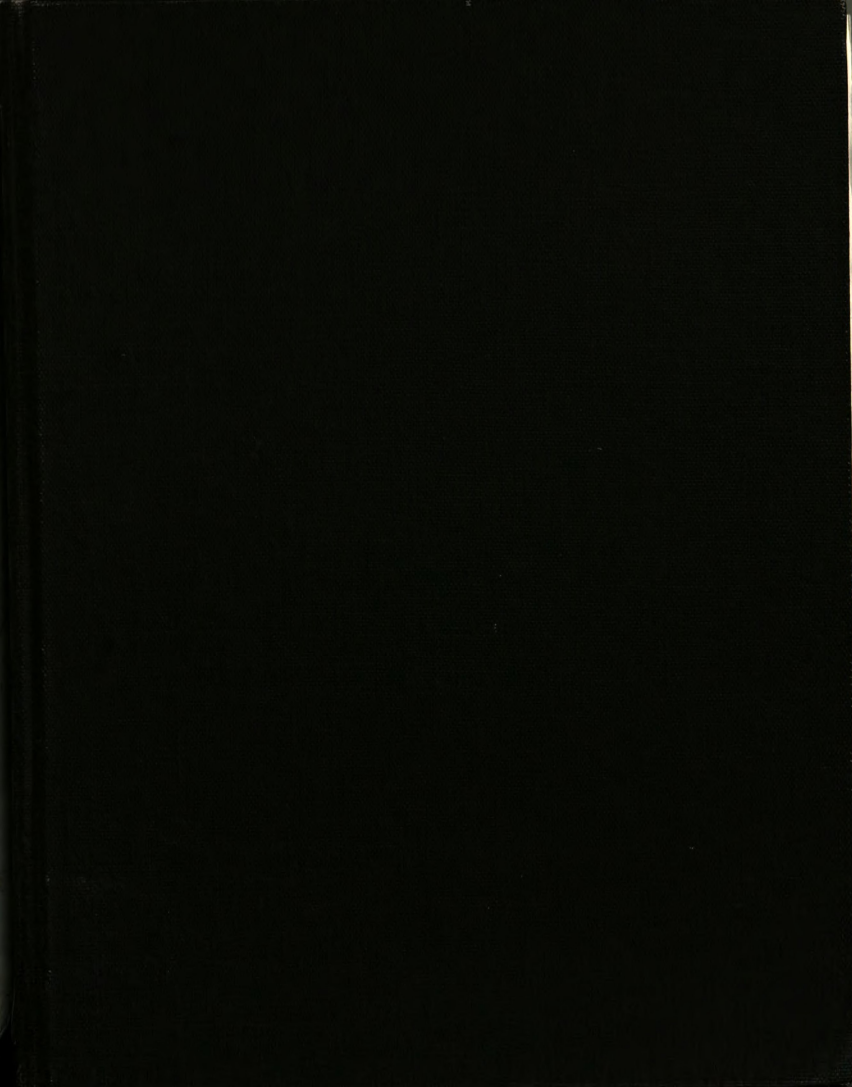
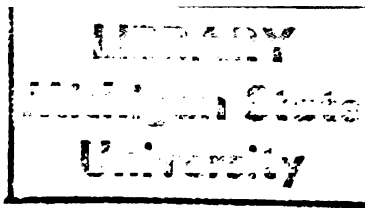






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CHILDREN FROM INTACT AND DIVORCED FAMILIES:
PERCEPTIONS OF PARENT BEHAVIOR AND
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presented by

Rowena Heather Krakauer

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of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Psychology

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CHILDREN FROM INTACT AND DIVORCED FAMILIES:
PERCEPTIONS OF PARENT BEHAVIOR
AND LOCUS OF CONTROL

By

Rowena Heather Krakauer

A DISSERTATION

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in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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Department of Psychology

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ABSTRACT

CHILDREN FROM INTACT AND DIVORCED FAMILIES: PERCEPTIONS OF PARENT BEHAVIOR AND LOCUS OF CONTROL

By

Rowena Heather Krakauer

This study examined the effects of divorce on later latency children from a nonclinical population. Perceptions of parent behavior and locus of control were assessed for 68 middle class children (34 boys and 34 girls) aged 9 to 12 years selected from 150 volunteer families from a total solicited sample of about 1000 families. Forty children from intact families and 28 children from divorced families completed the Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) and the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control scale. Demographic data were obtained from parents for each family. Families which volunteered to participate constituted only 15 percent of those contacted. The representativeness of these families must be questioned, a problem common to most divorce studies working with volunteer families.

Results showed a general absence of differences between children from divorced and intact families in their perceptions of parent behavior and locus of control. There were no significant differences between children from divorced and intact families on the three factors of the

CRPBI (Acceptance - Rejection, Psychological Control - Psychological Autonomy, and Firm Control - Lax Control), 17 of 18 scales of the CRPBI, and the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control scale. However, the Possessiveness scale of the CRPBI indicated that children of divorce perceived both their mothers and fathers as significantly more possessive than did children from intact families.

Children saw their mothers as significantly more psychologically controlling than their fathers. Within the divorced sample, several indices suggest that children viewed parents as more rejecting with increasing age. Father's remarriage, the years since father's remarriage, and custody arrangement were the divorce variables that affected children's perceptions the most.

The results showed that parental divorce did not impact strongly on children's perceptions of parents and locus of control and suggest minimal adverse effects of divorce, at least for children from the volunteer nonclinical population studied. Cautions that must be exercised in attempting to generalize the results from this study, in common with previous work, are discussed. Implications for future research and clinical interventions are also discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

The high divorce rate in contemporary American society has raised questions about the psychological effects of divorce. Initial psychological research on divorce focused on the adult experience of marital breakup. However, the fact that millions of American children now experience the divorce of their parents has fostered investigations of the impact of parental divorce on children.

The present study provides a child's-eye view of the effects of divorce. Much of the previous literature on the effects of divorce on children is based on the viewpoint of parents, teachers, or mental health professionals. Although the adult perspective continues to be useful, it is also important to understand the child's experience.

In the present study, later latency children from divorced and intact families were compared in their perceptions of parent behavior and locus of control. Divorce-related variables (e.g., parental remarriage, time since divorce) were also examined for their effects on children's perceptions. The results of this study should enhance our understanding of the effects of divorce on children.

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

The goal of this study was to improve our understanding of how divorce affects children. The study was conducted to provide information useful to mental health professionals, parents, teachers, and others who help children cope with the divorce of their parents.

This study examined perceptions of children from divorced and intact families. A primary objective was to determine if there were differences between children from divorced and intact families in their perceptions of parental behavior. Three major components of children's perceptions of parents' behavior were studied: (1) acceptance vs rejection, (2) psychological autonomy vs psychological control, and (3) firm control vs lax control. Another primary objective was to determine if children from divorced and intact families differ in their perceived "locus of control," i.e., the extent to which they believe that their destiny is controlled by internal vs external factors.

As secondary and more exploratory objectives, children's perceptions of their mothers were compared with their perceptions of their fathers, and for children of divorce, perceptions of custodial versus non-custodial parents were compared. I also tested for the effects of sex and for possible family x sex interactions on children's perceptions of parent behavior and locus of

control. Exploratory comparisons examined the effects of age, and for children of divorce, the effects of demographic variables (e.g., time since divorce) on children's perceptions of parent behavior and locus of control.

To address the objectives described above, children of divorce were studied by comparing them to a control group of children from intact families. The sample was drawn from a normal population of children in later latency.

A review of the literature relevant to the specific aspects of this study is given below. In particular, it will be demonstrated how previous studies led to the development of the present study. First, a review of research on children of divorce will be provided. Then, literature and rationale will be given for the following three specific features of the present study:

- 1) Later latency children of divorce;
- 2) Children's perceptions of parent behavior and locus of control;
- 3) Children of divorced and intact families from a normal population.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Background on Children of Divorce

Over the last two decades, the divorce rate in the United States has increased dramatically. Current figures indicate that about 47% of new marriages will end in divorce. More than one million children a year now experience the divorce of their parents. There are approximately twenty million children of divorce in the United States today (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980). Demographic projections estimate that in 1990, one-third of American children will have lived with a divorced parent before they are eighteen years old (Glick, 1979).

Clearly, children of divorce make up a sizable part of the population and will continue to do so in the future. Children of divorce have special psychological needs and better systems for the delivery of services to meet their needs are warranted (Benedek and Benedek, 1979). However, the literature on children of divorce is relatively small. Further research is called for to better understand and serve these children. A review of past research in this area will be presented here.

Levitin (1979) has divided the literature into three major research approaches: the single parent family research tradition, the clinical research tradition, and the classic studies. Single parent family research was conducted in the 1950's and 1960's and typically focused on the "father absent" household. Levitin (1979) notes that

in some cases, the cause of father absence (e.g., death, divorce) was not specified and that frequently the single parent family was regarded as a deviant form of the intact family. In contrast, there have also been studies which have not assumed that children of divorce will fare more poorly than children from intact families (For example, see reviews of Biller, 1970, 1976; Herzog and Sudia, 1973).

In the clinical research tradition, subjects are drawn from a patient population. The scientist-practitioner often uses his or her own case studies of children of divorce. The focus of clinical literature has been on the symptoms displayed by the child of a divorced family. For example, Gardner (1976) provides a thorough discussion of the problems and treatments of children of divorce. Westman et al., 1970, reported that 15% of all cases seen in a child psychiatry clinic were emotionally disturbed children of divorce. In another study of a child psychiatric population, children of divorce were distinguished from children from intact families by such symptoms as running away from home, delinquency, poor home behavior, and poor school behavior (McDermott, 1970). McDermott also found that one-third of children in the divorce group experienced moderate to severe forms of depression. In his review of the records of 400 children referred for outpatient psychiatric evaluation, Kalter (1977) reported that children of divorce appeared at almost twice the rate of their occurrence in the general

population. Nearly one-third of the referrals were children of divorce.

The "classic studies" include two longitudinal studies which both began in the 1970's. One study by Hetherington, Cox, and Cox (1976, 1978, 1979) investigated the effects of divorce on preschool children. They matched their sample of 48 preschool children of divorce on age and sex with 48 preschool children from intact families. Hetherington et al. noted an increase in negative behavior among children of divorce and a negative parent-child interaction in many divorce families. The mother-son relationship was especially difficult. One year after divorce, disturbances in play and social relations were observed in girls and boys of divorce. These disturbances had mainly disappeared in girls two years after the divorce. Many boys, however, continued to show developmental deviations two years following parental divorce.

The second major longitudinal study of divorce is by Wallerstein and Kelly (1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1980, 1983). Their sample included 131 children and adolescents from 60 divorcing families in Marin County, California. Clinical interviews and preventive, child-focused intervention were provided to the children and parents at the time of parental separation. One year, five year, and ten year followups have been conducted with these families. Wallerstein and Kelly divided their sample of children by developmental stages. They report that a central

determinant of the child's reaction to divorce is its age and developmental stage. The Wallerstein and Kelly study is a major contribution to the literature on the impact of divorce on children.

Later Latency Children of Divorce

Children of later latency age (9 - 12 years old) were chosen as the target population for the present study for the following reasons: As described above, Wallerstein and Kelly found that the child's age and developmental stage greatly affect the child's response to divorce. Therefore, in studying the important problem of the effects of divorce on children, it is best to select a particular age group for study. The present study focuses on later latency children of divorce because many children referred to mental health clinics are of later latency age (9 - 12 years old), but there are few studies which examine the effects of divorce on this age group (see review by Rohrllich et al., 1977). Further, later latency children were selected for a practical reason -- most children in this age group can read and respond to written questions. Thus, the cognitive abilities of later latency children made them excellent candidates for the present study which is based on children's reports of their perceptions of parent behavior and their locus of control. The next sections will describe the rationale for studying the effects of divorce on children's perceptions of parent behavior and locus of control.

Children's Perceptions of Parent Behavior
and Locus of Control

A major intention of this study was to obtain the child's perspective of the effects of divorce. Much of the previous research on the effects of divorce on children relies on the reports of parents, teachers or mental health professionals. Although the adult perspective is useful, it is also essential to directly examine the child's experience and viewpoint. The recent literature on children of divorce shows increasing awareness of the child's perspective (Kurdek and Berg, 1983), but many important questions remain unanswered. Therefore, the present study addresses some key questions related to two important aspects of children's perceptions: (1) children's perceptions of parent behavior and (2) children's perceptions of their own locus of control.

Children's perceptions of parent behavior were studied because such perceptions are important in their own right and because children's perceptions are good indicators of many other important attributes. Schaefer (1965a) has pointed out that many studies have shown that children's reports of parental behavior are significantly related to other data on parent-child relationships (e.g., Andry, 1957; Bronson, Katten and Livson, 1959), to inventory measures of child adjustment (e.g., Berdie and Layton, 1957; Serot and Teevan, 1961), to observers' reports of child behavior (Brown et al., 1947; Bronfenbrenner, 1961), to school achievement (Morrow and Wilson, 1961) and to

other criteria of the child's adjustment (Ausubel et al., 1954; Cooper and Blair, 1959). Studies have also shown that children's reports of parent behavior differentiate normal subjects from psychiatric patients (e.g., Greenfield, 1959; Garnezy et al., 1961). In some cases, the child's adjustment may be more closely related to the child's perception of its parents' behavior than to the actual parental behavior (Schaefer, 1965a). Further, I chose to study children's perceptions of parent behavior because there is evidence suggesting that this parameter may be affected by divorce, as described below.

Previous studies have described various negative effects of divorce on later latency children that have been viewed as characteristic of the later latency child's level of self-reflective social reasoning (Longfellow, 1979). From their study of 31 later latency children (age 9 - 10), Wallerstein and Kelly (1976) concluded that later latency children of divorce were most clearly distinguished by their intense anger towards one or both parents. Other reactions of the later latency child included fears of being unloved and abandoned (Wallerstein and Kelly, 1976). Wallerstein and Kelly (1976) also reported that parents were often so involved with their own problems during divorce that there was a sharp withdrawal of interest in their children.

In sum, previous work suggests that later latency children of divorce experience anger towards parents, fear

of rejection, and withdrawal of parental interest. These experiences would be expected to influence the later latency child's perception of parental acceptance/rejection. Thus, a key issue addressed in the present study is the effect of parental divorce on the later latency child's perception of parental acceptance/rejection. Results from previous work, as described above, suggest that divorce may cause later latency children to perceive their parents as less accepting/more rejecting. This is the first major hypothesis tested in the present study.

Weiss (1979) proposed that the echelon structure of a two-parent household enables children to remain dependent. In contrast, he noted that children growing up in single-parent households displayed an earlier maturity prompted by demands on them for autonomy and responsibility. If these demands for autonomy are reflected in the later latency child's perceptions of parent behavior, then children of divorce would be expected to perceive their parents as less controlling and more granting of autonomy to the child. This idea was tested as the second major hypothesis in the present study.

It has been suggested that divorced parents often experience difficulty in exercising authority and firm discipline (Hetherington, 1979; Tooley, 1975). Thus, the later latency child's perceptions of parents' disciplinary control may be affected by divorce. The third major

hypothesis tested in the present study is that later latency children of divorce perceive their parents as exercising less disciplinary control.

Some investigators have suggested that children of divorce are likely to develop external frames of reference, because a variety of events during divorce are outside the child's control (e.g., parental separation and divorce, changes in residence, school, and income; Duke and Lancaster, 1976; Kulka and Weingarten, 1979; Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980). If this suggestion is true, children of divorce would be expected to have an external locus of control. Thus, the fourth major hypothesis tested here was that later latency children of divorce develop external locus of control.

Previous studies have demonstrated that parental divorce may affect boys differently than girls (Hetherington, 1979; Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980; Kurdek and Berg, 1983; Slater et al., 1983). Therefore, in testing the four primary hypotheses described above, the sex of the child was taken into consideration.

Children of Divorced and Intact Families from a Normal Population

There have been many excellent studies of children and divorce, but most have looked only at children from divorced families without inclusion of a control group (e.g., Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980; Kurdek et al., 1981; Hingst, 1982). The present study examined the effect of

divorce per se by comparing children from divorced families with a control group of children from intact families.

An "intact" family is defined here as a family in which: (1) both of the child's biological parents are present, and (2) there has never been a legal divorce. It is recognized that the parents in an "intact" family may be "emotionally divorced" (Despert, 1962), but for the purposes of this study the variable of legal divorce was examined. Thus, "children of divorce" are defined as children whose parents are legally divorced and no longer live together.

Levitin (1979) observed that "since the children who are in therapy are apt to be the most distressed of children, the clinical literature on children of divorce describes the most extreme and pathological patterns of response." By using a normal population in the present study, the potentially confounding effect of interviewing the most disturbed children was reduced.

Sampling and the Problem of Generalizability

As stated above, the present study improves upon prior research by studying a non-clinic sample of children of divorce in comparison with a control group of children from intact families. However, there is another problem with the studies reviewed that also applies to the present work. Families of divorce approached to participate in research frequently refuse to do so. There are many reasons why

this may be so: Concern that such research may complicate the process of adjustment for children, defensiveness in the face of still-prevalent stigmatization of families of divorce, reluctance to cope with yet another demand on strained family resources. For those families that participate, there is no way of knowing how representative they are of families of divorce in general. Are they among those which are not coping well but hope to obtain some help through the research process? Are they among those which are coping well and are proud enough of the fact to want to show others how well they are doing? Clearly, either of these descriptions would imply quite different family characteristics and therefore quite different interpretations of research findings. This problem has not been sufficiently acknowledged in prior research reports. Given the nature of divorce and the difficulties faced by divorcing families, it may be a functionally unresolvable problem. In any case, the results not only of the present study but of prior research must be read with this limitation on generalizability in mind.

HYPOTHESES

The general trend in the literature suggests that divorce will have a negative impact on children. Therefore, the theme underlying the major hypotheses in this study was that later latency children of divorce would differ from children from intact families by showing more negative perceptions of parent behavior and more external locus of control.

Based on the literature reviewed in the previous section, the following four major hypotheses were tested:

1. Later latency children of divorce will perceive their parents as less accepting/more rejecting.
2. Later latency children of divorce will perceive their parents as less controlling and more granting of psychological autonomy to the child.
3. Later latency children of divorce will perceive their parents as exercising less disciplinary control.
4. Later latency children of divorce will show an external locus of control.

While testing the four major hypotheses, the effects of sex of the child were also examined.

The first three hypotheses are related to the three primary factors of the Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI): (1) Acceptance vs Rejection, (2) Psychological Control vs Psychological Autonomy, and (3) Firm Control vs Lax Control (Schaefer, 1965a, 1965b). Therefore, the first three hypotheses predict that later

latency children of divorce will perceive their parents as lower on the Acceptance, Psychological Control, and Firm Control factors. Definitions for the three CRPBI factors and descriptions of the CRPBI scales which load on each factor are given below in the Method section. The fourth hypothesis relates to children's locus of control.

As corollaries to the three primary hypotheses relating to the three factors of the CRPBI, subsidiary hypotheses relating to the 18 scales of the CRPBI were also tested. It was hypothesized that scales loading on a particular factor would reflect the differences expected for that factor. For example, the Acceptance scale has a positive loading on the Acceptance-Rejection factor. Thus, in line with the first major hypothesis, children of divorce were expected to be lower on the Acceptance scale.

In addition to the four major hypotheses and the corollary hypotheses, a number of exploratory comparisons were made. Children's perceptions of their mothers were compared with their perceptions of their fathers. Other exploratory analyses looked at the effects of age, and for the divorced group, the effects of demographic variables on children's perceptions of parent behavior and locus of control. For children of divorce, there were also comparisons of the children's perceptions of custodial vs non-custodial parents.

METHOD

Design

A two-way design was used. The first independent variable was the child's family type: divorced versus intact. The second independent variable was sex of the child. Among the children from divorced families, there were eight other independent variables: mother's remarriage, father's remarriage, custody arrangement, visitation by the non-custodial parent, siblings living with the child, years since divorce, years since mother's remarriage, and years since father's remarriage. The dependent variables were the children's perceptions of parent behavior as indicated by their responses to the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) devised by Schaefer (1965a) and the children's locus of control as measured by the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control scale (1973).

Subjects

Sixty-eight 9-12 year old subjects participated in this study. Criteria for inclusion of the subject were: 1) age between 9-12 years, 2) family structure defined as intact or divorced, 3) ability to read and write in English, and 4) residence with at least one of the child's biological parents. The definitions of intact vs divorced family structure (See Review of the Literature) were

strictly adhered to. Adopted children were excluded from the study.

Subjects were recruited from the East Lansing/Lansing, Michigan area and other surrounding communities. Recruitment of subjects was arranged with the cooperation of church and synagogue youth education groups, the Haslett Public Schools, and the Ingham County Friend of the Court. Class lists and addresses of families with age appropriate subjects were obtained from the above groups. A letter to parents (See Appendix C) explaining the study was sent to approximately one thousand families. Parents were asked to return an enclosed postcard indicating whether they were interested in participating with their children. Of the approximately 1000 initial contacts, 300 postcards were returned, yielding a 30% return rate. About one half of these postcards were refusals and the other half were positive replies. Interested parents were contacted by phone to answer further questions about the study. If selection criteria were satisfied after the telephone screening, appointment times were set up.

From the pool of 300 returned postcards, a total of 66 potential subjects were eliminated due to selection criteria (e.g., age, family type, adoption) with the majority excluded because the children didn't meet the age criteria. Another 42 potential subjects from intact families were screened by telephone and appeared to satisfy the selection criteria. However, these children were not

tested because there was already an adequate number of subjects from intact families. All of the appropriate subjects from divorced families were tested. The relatively low number of appropriate subjects obtained from divorced families may have been due to a low frequency of divorced families in the population contacted and/or a lower rate of responding.

Following screening, seventy-two subjects were tested. However, two subjects were discarded after testing because they were deemed inappropriate by the selection criteria. Another two subjects were lost when the procedure criteria were not satisfied.

The final sample was composed of 68 subjects from middle class neighborhoods. Sample sizes for subject groups by family type and sex are given in Table 1. Subjects ranged in age from 9.0 to 12.9 years. See Table 2 for mean ages and standard deviations by family type and sex. Eighty-six percent of the children from divorced families had siblings; 92% of the children from intact families had siblings.

Within the divorced group, the time since parental divorce ranged from one to eleven years. For girls from divorced families, the mean number of years since parental divorce was 6.4 years ($SD = 2.8$ years). There was a mean time of 6.1 years ($SD = 2.7$ years) since parental divorce for boys. Children's custody arrangements included: 82% mother custody, 11% father custody, and 7% joint custody.

Table 1. Sample Sizes

	Divorced	Intact	Total
Boys	15	19	34
Girls	13	21	34
Total	28	40	68

Table 2. Mean Ages and Standard Deviations for Children

	Divorced		Intact		Total	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Boys	11.1	1.0	11.2	1.0	11.1	1.0
Girls	11.5	1.0	11.1	1.2	11.2	1.2
Total	11.2	1.0	11.1	1.1	11.2	1.1

Table 3. Demographic Data for the Parents of Subjects

	Divorced		Intact	
	Mother	Father	Mother	Father
Mean age	35.4	37.4	39.8	39.6
Age range	28 - 44	30 - 45	30 - 53	33 - 54
Education				
High school	64%	46%	30%	22%
College	14%	29%	40%	22%
Postgraduate	21%	25%	30%	55%
Currently remarried	32%	43%	---	---

Children's current living arrangements showed 79% living with mother, 14% living with father, and 7% living alternately with mother and father. About 89% of the children were visited by their non-custodial parent.

Demographic data for the parents of the 68 subjects appear in Table 3. For the intact group, the mean length of parents' marriage at the time of the study was 15.9 years (range: 12 - 24 years).

Procedure

All subjects were tested in their homes at the convenience of the parents and children. It was required that a parent be at home during testing. Informed consent was obtained with the parent's signature on an explanatory consent form prior to their child's participation. Verbal assent was obtained from the children. Children and parents were assured that their responses were strictly confidential. Parents were then asked to fill out a demographic survey form containing such information as family type (divorced versus intact), custody arrangement, time since divorce, and number and ages of children. A copy of the parent form is found in Appendix D.

After the parent's forms were completed, the experimenter tested the child in a quiet, private room. There was a brief initial period during which the experimenter conversed and established rapport with the child. A short explanation was given by the experimenter to every child about the researcher's interest in studying

children's feelings about their parents. The CRPBI and the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control scale were administered to each child with standardized instructions. The entire administration per subject lasted approximately one hour.

Instruments

Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory

(CRPBI)

The accumulating evidence of the validity of children's reports of parental behavior motivated Schaefer (1965a) to develop "short, reliable scales for a systematic sample of parental-behavior concepts"; thus he devised an instrument called the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI). The present study employed Schaefer's CRPBI, because unlike earlier inventories, it describes the child-parent interaction rather than marital/parental adjustment. This important feature enabled a focus on the child's perspective. The CRPBI also distinguishes maternal from paternal behavior, which is necessary to compare children's perceptions of mothers vs fathers and custodial vs non-custodial parents, as stated in the secondary objectives (see above).

Schaefer (1965b) reported a configurational analysis of the CRPBI in which he found three replicated factors: Acceptance versus Rejection, Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control, and Firm Control versus Lax Control. These factors were used in the present study to compare children from divorced and intact families.

The original CRPBI is composed of 26 scales which each contain 10 items. Schludermann and Schludermann (1970) developed a shortened form of the CRPBI which consists of 18 scales. Six of these scales contain 8 items per scale; the other 12 scales contain 5 items per scale. They chose the 18 scales using the criteria of high scale reliability, variability, and applicability to parental behavior. Those items which were inappropriate for ethnic and religious minority groups were eliminated in order to make the instrument suitable for diverse groups. The same 108 items were used on separate maternal and paternal forms.

Schludermann and Schludermann (1970) conducted a methodological study of the factor structure of the modified CRPBI using two different independent samples. They found that the three factors (Acceptance versus Rejection, Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control, and Firm Control versus Lax Control) were highly replicable across parental forms, sex groups, and independent samples. Since the CRPBI factors showed such a high replicability, Schludermann and Schludermann recommended using the three factors to describe results rather than reporting the 18 scale scores (Schludermann and Schludermann, 1970, 1971, 1983).

"The Acceptance vs Rejection factor describes the subject's perception of different degrees of parental acceptance or rejection" (Schludermann and Schludermann, 1983). The scales with positive loadings on the Acceptance

vs Rejection factor are Acceptance, Childcenteredness, Possessiveness, Positive Involvement, and Acceptance of Individuation; the Rejection and Hostile Detachment scales load negatively on this factor.

The Psychological Control vs Psychological Autonomy factor is defined by scales which "describe covert, psychological methods of controlling the child's activities and behaviors that would not permit the child to develop as an individual apart from the parent" (Schaefer, 1965b). The following scales which comprise the Psychological Control vs Psychological Autonomy factor all have positive loadings on this factor: Intrusiveness, Control through Guilt, Hostile Control, Inconsistent Discipline, Instilling Persistent Anxiety, and Withdrawal of Relations.

The Firm Control vs Lax Control factor "indicates the degree to which the parent makes rules and regulations, sets limits to the child's activities, and enforces these rules and limits" (Schaefer, 1965b). Scales loading positively on this factor are Control and Enforcement. The Nonenforcement, Lax Discipline, and Extreme Autonomy scales have negative loadings on the Firm Control vs Lax Control factor.

The CRPBI has been administered in such diverse studies as the following: normal school children and delinquent boys (Schaefer, 1965a); French-speaking Belgian high school students (Renson et al., 1968); Manitoban university students (Schludermann and Schludermann, 1970);

Canadian Hutterite adolescents (Schludermann and Schludermann, 1971); and Canadian and Indian adolescents (Schludermann and Schludermann, 1983). The three basic factor dimensions were replicated in all studies. There appears to be good evidence for the CRPBI's cross-cultural validity (Renson et al., 1968; Schludermann and Schludermann, 1971, 1983).

The shortened 108-item version of Schaefer's Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) was used to measure children's perceptions of their parents' behavior (Schaefer, 1965a, 1965b; Schludermann and Schludermann, 1970, 1971, 1983). The 108 items describing parental behavior were found on separate but equivalent forms for mother and father. The language on the maternal and paternal forms was appropriate for the parent's gender. Subjects were instructed to rate each item as "Like," "Somewhat Like," or "Not Like" their parent's behavior (e.g., "Gives me a lot of care and attention"; "Is very strict with me"). Every child was reminded to report on his or her biological mother and father. The maternal and paternal forms of the CRPBI were administered to subjects in counterbalanced order. Items on the CRPBI received scoring values ("Like" = 3; "Somewhat Like" = 2; and "Not Like" = 1). These item scores were totaled and multiplied by a coefficient to determine the scale scores. Factor scores were obtained by adding designated scale scores and dividing by the number of scales. Each child received 3

factor scores and 18 scale scores for both the maternal and paternal forms of the CRPBI. See Appendix A for a copy of the CRPBI, a sample scoring sheet, and complete scoring instructions.

Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale

The "internal-external locus of control" construct was derived from social learning theory (Rotter, 1954, 1966). MacDonald (1973) summarized the construct in the following way: "Internal-external locus of control refers to the extent to which persons perceive contingency relationships between their actions and their outcomes." At one end of the scale are "Internals" who believe that they have some control over their destinies. In contrast, "Externals" believe that their outcomes are determined by factors extrinsic to themselves, such as luck or powerful others.

There is a large literature on the locus of control construct which MacDonald (1973) attributes to its generalizability and social relevance. Internal locus of control is seen as a distinct social advantage. For example, significant relationships between internal locus of control and achievement have been found (Coleman et al., 1966; Nowicki and Roundtree, 1971).

The locus of control variable has been shown to have considerable relationship to children's behavior. One of the reasons this study included a locus of control measure is because previous investigators have found that locus of control is a significant predictor of children's divorce

adjustment. Children with internal locus of control orientations were more likely to show better adjustment to their parents' divorce (Kurdek et al., 1981). Other studies have suggested that internal locus of control (especially for boys) is significantly related to academic achievement, social maturity, and independent, self-motivated behavior (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973).

Researchers have developed instruments to study the locus of control dimension in children (see Bialer, 1961; Battle and Rotter, 1963; Crandell et al., 1965; Nowicki and Strickland, 1973). In his 1973 review, MacDonald remarked that:

"The Nowicki and Strickland Locus of Control Scale is a 40-item yes-no paper-pencil test that has been used extensively with subjects ranging from the third grade through college. Information on the scale's internal consistency reliability, test-retest reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity indicates it to be the best measure of locus of control as a generalized expectancy presently available for use with children."

The Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control scale was used because of its strength as a reliable and valid measure. Another positive feature was the short form of the instrument recommended by the authors, which was employed in this study to reduce the demand on subjects.

The Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control scale was administered last to each child. This 40-item scale required the child to answer "yes" or "no" to straightforward questions (e.g., "Do you believe that most problems will solve themselves if you just don't fool with them?").

Items were scored using a point system to derive a locus of control score for each subject. See Appendix B for a copy of the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control scale.

RESULTS

The results relating to the four primary hypotheses are described below. Next, results relating to the corollary hypotheses are described. Finally, results of the exploratory comparisons are presented. Exploratory comparisons are reported in the following sections: comparisons between mother and father, effects of age, and effects within the divorced group.

Comparisons between Children from Divorced and Intact Families

Primary analyses: CRPBI factors and locus of control

Means and standard deviations for the CRPBI factors and locus of control appear in Tables 4 and 5, respectively.

The results show that in the present study children of divorce and children from intact families did not differ significantly in perceptions of parent behavior as measured by the three CRPBI factors. Two-way ANOVA showed no significant main effects of family type for the three CRPBI factors for mother or for father (See Table 6). These results do not support the three primary hypotheses predicting differences between children from divorced families and children from intact families.

The results also show no significant difference between children from divorced and intact families in locus of control. Two-way ANOVA showed no significant main effect of family type on locus of control (See Table 6).

Table 4. Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory Factors

Factor	Divorced				Intact			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Acceptance-Rejection								
Mother	25.7	1.9	24.9	2.1	25.3	2.4	24.7	4.2
Father	25.7	1.3	24.5	2.0	24.1	3.2	24.9	4.1
Psychological Control - Psychological Autonomy								
Mother	15.7	2.2	15.6	2.6	15.1	2.8	15.0	3.3
Father	14.8	1.7	14.1	2.0	14.1	2.2	14.2	2.1
Firm Control - Lax Control								
Mother	22.1	2.9	21.5	3.6	21.9	2.6	22.6	3.1
Father	21.3	2.8	20.1	2.5	21.1	3.0	22.0	2.9

Table 5. Locus of Control Scores for Children
from Divorced and Intact Families

Divorced				Intact			
Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
12.7	4.2	13.1	3.6	11.8	5.0	11.7	4.1

This observed lack of difference between children from divorced and intact families conflicts with the hypothesis predicting that children of divorce would have more external locus of control.

In summary, the four primary hypotheses predicting differences between children from divorced and intact families were not supported by the data. Two-way ANOVA also showed no significant effects of sex and no significant family type x sex interactions on either the CRPBI factors or the locus of control (See Table 6).

Table 6. Two-way ANOVA of CRPBI Factors
and Locus of Control

Factor	Probability Values for Effects*		
	Family	Sex	Family x Sex
Acceptance-Rejection			
Mother	0.68	0.36	0.96
Father	0.42	0.79	0.18
Psychological Control - Psychological Autonomy			
Mother	0.37	0.84	0.98
Father	0.54	0.63	0.41
Firm Control - Lax Control			
Mother	0.52	0.91	0.41
Father	0.22	0.87	0.16
Locus of Control	0.29	0.89	0.80

* No differences were significant at $p < 0.05$.

Secondary analyses: Individual CRPBI scale scores

Means and standard deviations for the individual CRPBI scales are given in Tables 7 and 8. Results for each CRPBI scale for each parent were analyzed by two-way ANOVA to test for main effects of the two independent variables family type and sex and for potential family type x sex interactions. The data for boys and girls were also analyzed separately by one-way ANOVA to test for effects of family type on each sex independently. By making these numerous comparisons, the probability that true differences go undetected is reduced, but the chance for type I errors is increased. Therefore, interpretation of the results will focus on differences that are highly significant or that represent a pattern in the results for both parents. The two-way ANOVA showed no effects of family type or sex for 17 of the 18 CRPBI scales for mother and father. The one exceptional scale showing significant main effects was Possessiveness. The means for Possessiveness were significantly higher for children of divorce than for children from intact families for both mothers, $F(1,64) = 9.5$, $p < 0.005$, and for fathers, $F(1,64) = 4.6$, $p < 0.05$.

One-way ANOVA yielded significant main effects of family type for boys on 2 of the 18 CRPBI scales for mother. The means were significantly higher for boys of divorce than for boys from intact families on mothers' Possessiveness, $F(1,32) = 4.3$, $p < 0.05$, and on mothers' Instilling Persistent Anxiety, $F(1,32) = 5.1$, $p < 0.05$.

Table 7. Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory Scales for Mother

Scale	Divorced				Intact			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Acceptance	26.6	3.4	26.5	2.5	26.8	3.6	26.2	5.2
Childcenteredness	24.3	4.1	24.3	3.4	24.0	4.0	23.5	5.6
Possessiveness	21.5	2.6	20.6	3.6	18.6	4.8	17.9	3.1
Rejection	13.5	2.4	14.1	3.0	12.8	2.7	13.5	4.9
Control	21.5	4.3	19.5	5.5	19.7	4.7	20.5	4.9
Enforcement	17.2	3.9	16.0	3.9	16.5	3.3	17.0	4.9
Positive Involvement	26.8	2.4	26.3	3.1	26.6	3.2	26.1	4.8
Intrusiveness	19.3	4.0	18.2	4.0	19.6	4.6	17.7	3.8
Control through Guilt	15.1	4.3	15.4	5.1	15.1	4.5	13.8	3.0
Hostile Control	16.2	2.9	16.3	3.0	15.3	3.7	16.3	5.0
Inconsistent Discipline	15.2	3.4	15.2	4.0	14.6	4.6	14.6	4.2
Nonenforcement	14.7	3.6	15.4	4.1	15.3	4.6	13.9	3.5
Acceptance of Individuation	25.8	2.8	23.8	3.3	25.9	4.0	25.1	4.7
Lax Discipline	17.3	3.4	17.5	4.6	17.1	3.6	16.6	4.2
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	15.9	3.8	14.2	3.2	12.9	3.7	14.2	5.3
Hostile Detachment	11.7	1.2	12.8	2.8	11.8	2.7	12.5	4.4
Withdrawal of Relations	12.8	3.7	14.3	3.4	13.1	2.8	13.1	5.6
Extreme Autonomy	16.3	4.7	14.9	3.9	14.2	3.6	13.8	3.2

Table 8. Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory Scales for Father

Table 8. Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory Scales for Father

Scale	Divorced				Intact			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Acceptance	26.7	2.4	25.6	2.6	25.4	3.8	26.4	5.1
Childcenteredness	25.1	3.4	23.8	4.0	22.6	4.6	24.5	5.4
Possessiveness	19.6	3.6	18.6	3.2	16.7	5.0	17.3	3.4
Rejection	11.7	1.8	12.7	2.5	12.6	2.7	12.8	3.8
Control	19.5	3.4	19.1	2.9	18.4	4.3	20.3	4.5
Enforcement	16.7	3.3	14.4	2.1	16.9	4.1	17.2	4.2
Positive Involvement	27.3	1.9	26.2	3.1	24.5	3.9	26.3	5.3
Intrusiveness	18.5	4.5	17.1	3.6	16.6	5.0	16.4	4.8
Control through Guilt	15.2	3.4	13.8	3.9	14.1	3.4	13.2	3.0
Hostile Control	14.8	2.9	14.6	3.4	13.3	2.4	15.2	3.5
Inconsistent Discipline	14.8	4.0	15.4	2.6	15.5	4.8	14.5	4.0
Nonenforcement	15.6	3.6	17.4	4.5	16.6	4.9	15.1	4.0
Acceptance of Individuation	24.8	3.8	24.0	3.3	24.3	4.5	24.8	5.3
Lax Discipline	18.3	4.0	18.1	2.6	17.8	4.5	17.4	4.5
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	13.4	3.6	12.3	2.3	12.2	3.3	13.4	3.2
Hostile Detachment	11.8	1.5	14.1	3.8	12.5	3.3	12.1	3.7
Withdrawal of Relations	12.0	2.3	11.5	2.0	12.6	3.3	12.7	2.7
Extreme Autonomy	16.0	4.5	17.2	6.6	15.4	3.8	15.0	3.4

There was only one CRPBI scale for mother for which one-way ANOVA showed a significant main effect of family type for girls. Girls from divorced families had significantly higher means for mothers' Possessiveness than did girls from intact families, $F(1,32) = 5.4, p < 0.05$.

A significant main effect of family type for boys was revealed by one-way ANOVA on just one CRPBI scale for father. On the fathers' Positive Involvement scale, boys from divorced families had significantly higher means than boys from intact families, $F(1,32) = 6.1, p < 0.05$.

One-way ANOVA also showed a significant main effect of family for girls on only one CRPBI scale for father. The means for fathers' Enforcement were significantly lower for girls of divorce than for girls from intact families, $F(1,32) = 5.1, p < 0.05$.

In summary, there were few significant differences between children from divorced and intact families in their perceptions of parent behavior as indicated by the CRPBI scales. Possessiveness was the only CRPBI scale which showed significant main effects of family type for boys and girls combined. Overall, children of divorce perceived both their mothers and fathers as significantly more possessive than did children from intact families. The probability that both of these differences occurred by chance is less than 0.00025. Thus, the difference in the Possessiveness scale most likely reflects a true difference between the children from divorced and intact families.

Since the Possessiveness scale has a positive loading on the Acceptance vs Rejection factor, this result was in the opposite direction of the corollary hypothesis that children of divorce would perceive their parents as less accepting and hence less possessive.

When the data were analyzed separately for boys and girls, 4 of the 5 significant main effects of family type on the CRPBI scales were also in the opposite direction of the corollary hypotheses. However, the finding that girls of divorce perceived their fathers as significantly lower on the Enforcement scale than girls from intact families supported a corollary hypothesis; the Enforcement scale has a positive loading on the Firm Control factor and children of divorce were hypothesized to be lower on the Firm Control factor. Thus, the corollary hypotheses were generally not supported by the data because there were few effects of family type on the CRPBI scales and because nearly all of the effects that were observed were not in the expected direction.

Exploratory Comparisons

Comparisons between Mother and Father

Paired t-tests were used to compare mothers' and fathers' CRPBI factor scores. Girls of divorce perceived their mothers as significantly higher on the Psychological Control factor than their fathers ($t = 2.6$, $df = 12$, $p < 0.03$). On the Firm Control factor, girls of divorce also

saw their mothers as significantly higher than their fathers ($t = 2.2$, $df = 12$, $p = 0.05$). Boys of divorce viewed their mothers as significantly higher than fathers on the Psychological Control factor ($t = 2.4$, $df = 14$, $p < 0.05$).

Girls from intact families perceived no significant differences between mothers and fathers. They perceived mother and father as similar on all three factors. However, boys from intact families gave their mothers significantly higher Psychological Control factor scores than their fathers ($t = 3.0$, $df = 18$, $p < 0.01$). It is striking that all children except girls from intact families saw mother as significantly higher than father on the Psychological Control factor.

Mother versus father scale scores on the CRPBI were compared using paired t-tests. Girls from divorced families viewed their mothers as exerting significantly greater Hostile Control than their fathers ($t = 2.8$, $df = 12$, $p < 0.02$). The girls from divorced families also perceived their mothers as significantly higher than their fathers on two other scales: Instilling Persistent Anxiety ($t = 2.4$, $df = 12$, $p < 0.05$) and Withdrawal of Relations ($t = 3.2$, $df = 12$, $p < 0.01$). Boys of divorced families gave their mothers significantly higher scores on the Rejection scale than their fathers ($t = 3.6$, $df = 14$, $p < 0.005$). On the Instilling Persistent Anxiety scale, boys from divorced

families saw their mothers as significantly higher than their fathers ($t = 3.1$, $df = 14$, $p < 0.01$).

There were no significant differences on mother versus father CRPBI scale scores for girls from intact families. These girls saw their mothers and fathers as alike on all 18 scales!

Boys from intact families reported the most differences in their perceptions of mother vs father. The boys from intact families viewed their mothers as significantly higher than their fathers on the following five scales: Possessiveness ($t = 2.5$, $df = 18$, $p < 0.05$), Positive Involvement ($t = 3.0$, $df = 18$, $p < 0.01$), Intrusiveness ($t = 3.0$, $df = 18$, $p < 0.01$), Hostile Control ($t = 2.6$, $df = 18$, $p < 0.02$), and Instilling Persistent Anxiety ($t = 2.1$, $df = 18$, $p < 0.05$). Note that on the Instilling Persistent Anxiety scale mother's scores were significantly higher than father's for all children except girls from intact families.

Effects of Age

Regression analysis of the CRPBI scales was performed to determine effects of age. For children of divorced families, perceptions of maternal Rejection increased as age increased, $F(1,26) = 9.0$, $p < 0.01$. Also, for girls from divorced families, mothers' Rejection scores increased with the girls' ages, $F(1,11) = 8.4$, $p < 0.02$. There were no other age effects on any maternal scales for children from intact or divorced families.

On the CRPBI scales for father, regression analysis revealed more effects of age. Paternal Acceptance scores decreased as the age of children from divorced families increased, $F(1,26) = 6.2, p < 0.02$. Children from intact families did not show an age effect on paternal Acceptance. Another age effect was seen in the fathers' Acceptance of Individuation scale for boys but not for girls. As age increased for boys, the fathers' Acceptance of Individuation scores increased, $F(1,32) = 4.2, p < 0.05$.

Three strong age effects were found for boys of divorce on the paternal scales. Fathers' Acceptance decreased as age increased for boys of divorce, $F(1,13) = 6.0, p < 0.03$. As the age of divorced boys increased, paternal Possessiveness also increased, $F(1,13) = 6.8, p = 0.02$. Scores on the fathers' Acceptance of Individuation scale increased as age increased for boys of divorce, $F(1,13) = 6.4, p < 0.03$. It is striking that there were strong effects of age on the paternal CRPBI scales for boys of divorced families but there were no significant age effects for girls of divorced families.

For girls of intact families, fathers' Extreme Autonomy decreased as the girls' ages increased, $F(1,19) = 5.8, p < 0.03$. In addition to this strong effect, a weaker age effect was found on the paternal Hostile Control scale. As the age of girls from intact families increased, fathers' Hostile Control scores decreased, $F(1,19) = 4.3, p$

= 0.05. There were no age effects on the paternal scales for boys from intact families.

Overall, there was a pattern in which children of divorce showed age effects in their perceptions of parental rejection while children from intact families did not show such age effects. With only one exception (fathers' Acceptance of Individuation for boys), all significant age effects for children of divorce showed increasing parental rejection with increasing age. From the pattern of results observed here, it may be worth investigating further the effects of age on the perceptions of children of divorce.

No age effects were evident on the locus of control measure for children from divorced families, for children from intact families, or for boys or girls.

Effects within the Divorced Group

The variables of mother's remarriage, father's remarriage, custody arrangement, visitation by the non-custodial parent, and siblings living with the child were crossed with sex of child in separate two-way ANOVAs to test for effects on the CRPBI factors and on the CRPBI scales. As noted above, there were no main effects of sex of child on the CRPBI factors or scales. The results reported here include effects of the aforementioned divorce variables and divorce variable x sex interaction effects. In addition, correlation analysis was used to examine the relationship between the CRPBI scales and years since

divorce, years since mother's remarriage, and years since father's remarriage.

Effects of Demographic Variables on Children's Perceptions of Mother

There were no significant main effects of mother's remarriage on any of the three factors for mother. However, a mother's remarriage x sex of child interaction was seen on the maternal Acceptance factor, $F(1,24) = 4.3$, $p < 0.05$. If mother was remarried, boys saw mothers as lower on Acceptance than boys whose mothers were not remarried; the reverse pattern was true for girls. The variable of father's remarriage showed no significant main or interaction effects on the three factors for mother.

Custody arrangements yielded a significant main effect on the maternal Firm Control factor. On the Firm Control dimension, scores for mother were highest for children in mother custody ($M = 22.7$), intermediate for children in joint custody ($M = 18.6$), and lowest for children in father custody ($M = 17.3$), $F(2,22) = 6.1$, $p < 0.01$.

There were no significant main effects of visitation by the non-custodial parent on the three maternal factors. A visitation by non-custodial parent x sex interaction was revealed on the maternal Acceptance factor, $F(1,24) = 4.2$, $p = 0.05$. Boys who were visited by the non-custodial parent saw mothers as higher on the Acceptance factor than boys who were not visited. In contrast, the girls who were

visited by their non-custodial parent gave lower maternal Acceptance scores than girls who were not visited.

No main effects of living with siblings were present on the three maternal factors. There was a living with siblings x sex interaction on the maternal Firm Control factor, $F(1,24) = 5.9$, $p < 0.03$. For boys who lived with siblings, maternal Firm Control was higher than for boys who did not live with siblings. Girls living with siblings gave lower maternal Firm Control scores than girls not living with siblings.

There were no significant main effects of mother's remarriage for any of the 18 scales for mother, but mother's remarriage x sex interactions, $F(1,24)$, $p < 0.05$, were found on four of the scales for mother (See Table 9). For boys, Acceptance, Childcenteredness, Acceptance of Individuation, and Lax Discipline scores for mother were lower for remarried mothers than for mothers that were not remarried. Girls showed the opposite pattern on these four scales; girls awarded higher scores to their mothers if they were remarried.

Table 9. Effects of Mother's Remarriage on CRPBI Scales for Mother

Scale	Mother Remarried				Mother Not Remarried			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Acceptance	24.5	4.8	27.8	0.6	27.6	1.9	26.0	2.8
Childcenteredness	22.8	5.4	27.0	1.2	25.0	3.3	23.1	3.3
Possessiveness	21.6	3.0	21.5	1.0	21.4	2.5	20.2	4.3
Rejection	13.3	2.9	14.1	2.8	13.6	2.2	14.2	3.3
Control	24.8	3.9	19.0	6.0	19.8	3.6	19.8	5.7
Enforcement	18.0	4.7	15.5	3.4	16.8	3.7	16.2	4.3
Positive Involvement	26.0	3.2	28.1	2.4	27.1	2.0	25.6	3.1
Intrusiveness	21.2	4.6	17.0	3.8	18.4	3.5	18.7	4.2
Control through Guilt	16.0	4.7	16.0	7.7	14.6	4.2	15.1	4.0
Hostile Control	18.0	2.6	17.5	4.8	15.3	2.8	15.7	2.0
Inconsistent Discipline	15.2	3.0	17.0	5.0	15.2	3.7	14.4	3.6
Nonenforcement	14.4	3.6	16.5	5.0	14.8	3.8	14.9	3.9
Acceptance of Individuation	22.5	1.8	24.4	2.2	27.4	1.4	23.5	3.8
Lax Discipline	16.4	4.1	21.0	2.0	17.8	3.0	16.0	4.7
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	16.4	2.6	16.0	4.3	15.6	4.4	13.3	2.4
Hostile Detachment	12.3	1.0	12.5	3.5	11.4	1.2	12.9	2.7
Withdrawal of Relations	14.0	5.1	13.0	2.6	12.2	2.9	14.9	3.6
Extreme Autonomy	16.0	5.8	15.9	5.1	16.4	4.3	14.4	3.6

Father's remarriage affected the Enforcement and Instilling Persistent Anxiety scales for mother. The mean Enforcement score for mother was higher if the father was remarried ($M = 18.7$) than if he was not ($M = 15.1$), $F(1,24) = 6.6$, $p < 0.02$. The mean Instilling Persistent Anxiety score for mother was also higher if father was remarried ($M = 17.2$) than if he was not remarried ($M = 13.5$), $F(1,24) = 7.2$, $p < 0.02$. The other 16 scales for mother were unaffected by father's remarriage.

There was significant variation in scores for mother's Inconsistent Discipline, Lax Discipline, and Extreme Autonomy among children living in different custody arrangements. Inconsistent Discipline scores for mother were higher for children in joint custody ($M = 22.0$) than for children in mother ($M = 14.6$) or father custody ($M = 15.3$), $F(2,22) = 4.8$, $p < 0.02$. For maternal Lax Discipline, children in mother custody ($M = 16.5$) reported lower scores than children in joint ($M = 22.0$) or father custody ($M = 18.7$), $F(2,22) = 3.6$, $p < 0.05$. Extreme Autonomy scores for mother were highest for children in joint custody ($M = 23.0$), intermediate for children in father custody ($M = 20.7$), and lowest for children in mother custody ($M = 14.5$), $F(2,22) = 6.8$, $p = 0.005$.

No significant main effects of visitation by the non-custodial parent occurred on any of the 18 scales for mother. However, an interaction effect of visitation by the non-custodial parent x sex was found on the

Childcenteredness scale for mother, $F(1,24) = 6.2$, $p = 0.02$. Boys who were visited by their non-custodial parent perceived mother as higher on Childcenteredness than boys who were not visited. In contrast, girls who were visited by the non-custodial parent gave mother a lower Childcenteredness score than girls who were not visited.

Children who lived with siblings reported a significantly higher score for mother on Lax Discipline ($M = 18.3$) than children who did not live with siblings ($M = 14.2$), $F(1,24) = 5.4$, $p < 0.03$. There were living with siblings $\times$ sex interactions on the scales for Acceptance of Individuation $F(1,24) = 4.2$, $p = 0.05$, and Lax Discipline, $F(1,24) = 9.4$, $p < 0.01$. On both scales, boys living with siblings had lower scores than boys not living with siblings, but the opposite pattern occurred for girls.

For the divorced group, Possessiveness was the only maternal scale that was correlated with years since divorce ($r = 0.38$, $df = 26$, $p < 0.05$). There was also a single maternal scale that was correlated with years since father's remarriage; children gave their mothers higher Control scores as years since father's remarriage increased ($r = 0.61$, $df = 26$, $p < 0.05$). There were no significant correlations between any of the scales for mother and years since mother's remarriage for the divorce group (boys and girls lumped).

For boys of divorce, maternal Hostile Control scores were correlated with years since divorce ($r = 0.61$, $df =$

13, $p < 0.02$). Girls showed no significant correlations between any of the maternal scales and years since divorce. There were also no correlations between the scales for mother and the years since mother's remarriage for boys or girls.

Boys' scores for maternal Nonenforcement were negatively correlated with years since father's remarriage ($r = 0.56$, $df = 13$, $p < 0.03$). Girls' perceptions of mother showed the greatest influence of years since father's remarriage with strong correlations on three of the maternal scales. As the years since father's remarriage increased, girls saw mothers as lower on Acceptance of Individuation ($r = -0.97$, $df = 11$, $p < 0.03$). Girls also perceived increasing maternal Hostile Detachment as years since father's remarriage went up ($r = 0.98$, $df = 11$, $p < 0.02$). A near-perfect positive correlation was found between girls' perceptions of maternal Withdrawal of Relations and years since father's remarriage ($r = 0.997$, $df = 11$, $p < 0.005$).

Effects of Demographic Variables on Children's Perceptions of Father

Mother's and father's remarriage had no significant effects on the three factors for father.

The custody arrangement affected the Firm Control factor for father. The paternal Firm Control scores were highest for children in mother custody ($M = 21.5$), intermediate for children in joint custody ($M = 18.0$), and

lowest for children in father custody ($M = 17.1$), $F(2,22) = 4.9$, $p < 0.02$. This same pattern of custody arrangement effects was seen above on the maternal Firm Control factor. In addition, there was a custody arrangement $\times$ sex interaction on the paternal Acceptance factor, $F(2,22) = 7.9$, $p < 0.003$. In mother custody, boys and girls rated father alike on Acceptance. In father and joint custody, boys viewed fathers as higher on Acceptance than did girls.

Visitation by the non-custodial parent and living with siblings did not affect any of the three paternal factors.

No significant main effects of mother's remarriage were seen on any of the 18 scales for father. However, there was a mother's remarriage $\times$ sex interaction on the Possessiveness scale for father, $F(1,24) = 4.8$, $p < 0.05$. If their mothers were remarried, boys gave their fathers lower Possessiveness scores than if their mothers were not remarried. In contrast, girls rated their fathers as higher on Possessiveness if their mothers were remarried.

Father's remarriage was associated with significant main effects on the Rejection and Hostile Detachment scales for father. The mean Rejection score for father was higher if the father was remarried ($M = 13.0$) than if he was not remarried ($M = 11.5$), $F(1,24) = 8.6$, $p < 0.01$. The mean Hostile Detachment score for father was also higher if father was remarried ($M = 14.2$) than if he was not remarried ($M = 11.9$), $F(1,24) = 14.2$, $p = 0.001$. In addition, there were father's remarriage $\times$ sex interaction

effects on the paternal scales for Rejection, $F(1,24) = 5.3$, $p = 0.03$, and Hostile Detachment, $F(1,24) = 5.4$, $p < 0.03$. Girls with remarried fathers gave higher paternal Rejection and Hostile Detachment scores than girls whose fathers were not remarried. If their fathers were remarried, boys showed no effect on paternal Rejection and little effect on paternal Hostile Detachment. In summary, if father remarried, he was seen as more rejecting and as showing more hostile detachment; this was especially true for girls.

There were four scales for father that were significantly affected by custody arrangement: Control ($p < 0.05$), Inconsistent Discipline ($p < 0.005$), Hostile Detachment ($p < 0.03$), and Extreme Autonomy ($p < 0.001$), ($df = 2,22$; see Table 10). Control scores for father were lower in joint custody than in mother or father custody. Father's Inconsistent Discipline and Hostile Detachment scores were highest in joint custody, intermediate in father custody, and lowest in mother custody. Surprisingly, fathers received the highest scores for Extreme Autonomy from children in father custody! Children in mother custody reported the lowest scores for father's Extreme Autonomy.

Custody arrangement $\times$ sex interactions were found on five scales for father: Acceptance ($p < 0.05$), Childcenteredness ($p < 0.05$), Possessiveness ($p < 0.03$), Positive Involvement ($p < 0.01$), and Hostile Detachment

Table 10. Effects of Custody Arrangement on CRPBI Scales for Father.

Scale	Mother Custody		Father Custody		Joint Custody	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Acceptance	26.5	26.5	25.0	23.1	30.0	21.3
Childcenteredness	24.9	25.4	22.0	19.0	30.0	18.0
Possessiveness	19.4	19.6	24.0	13.0	18.0	20.0
Rejection	11.7	12.3	12.5	12.5	10.0	17.5
Control	19.8	20.0	20.0	17.0	14.0	14.0
Enforcement	16.6	14.7	18.0	13.0	16.0	14.0
Positive Involvement	26.9	27.4	28.8	21.3	30.0	23.8
Intrusiveness	18.0	17.4	22.0	14.0	22.0	20.0
Control through Guilt	15.4	14.6	18.0	12.0	10.0	10.0
Hostile Control	14.8	15.0	15.0	12.5	15.0	15.0
Inconsistent Discipline	13.7	14.8	20.0	18.0	24.0	16.0
Nonenforcement	15.4	16.4	16.0	19.0	18.0	24.0
Acceptance of Individuation	24.6	23.6	25.0	26.3	27.5	23.8
Lax Discipline	17.7	17.8	24.0	21.0	20.0	16.0
Instilling Persistent Anxiety	13.3	12.8	18.0	11.0	10.0	10.0
Hostile Detachment	11.8	13.1	12.5	14.4	10.0	23.8
Withdrawal of Relations	12.0	12.0	10.0	10.0	14.0	10.0
Extreme Autonomy	14.9	14.8	22.0	30.0	24.0	16.0

($p < 0.005$), ($df = 2,22$; see Table 10). In mother custody, boys and girls viewed father alike on these five scales. In father and joint custody, however, boys perceived father as higher on Acceptance, Childcenteredness, and Positive Involvement than girls perceived father. In addition, in father custody, boys saw fathers as higher on Possessiveness than did girls. In joint custody, girls gave fathers a much higher score on Hostile Detachment than did boys.

As reported above for the maternal scales, there were no main effects due to visitation by the non-custodial parent on the paternal scales. A significant interaction effect of visitation by the non-custodial parent $\times$ sex was noted on the Hostile Detachment scale for father, $F(1,24) = 4.2$, $p = 0.05$. Boys visited by the non-custodial parent reported a higher score for father's Hostile Detachment than boys who were not visited; the reverse was true for girls.

The mean paternal Inconsistent Discipline score was higher for children living with siblings ($M = 16.1$) than for those not living with siblings ($M = 12.9$), $F(1,24) = 6.0$, $p < 0.03$. There were no other effects of living with siblings on the paternal scales.

There were no significant correlations for the entire divorced sample between any of the scales for father and years since divorce or years since father's remarriage. However, there was a significant correlation between one

paternal scale and years since mother's remarriage; as years since mother's remarriage increased, children gave their fathers lower Control through Guilt scores ($r = -0.66$, $df = 26$, $p = 0.05$).

Boys of divorce showed no significant correlations between any paternal scales and years since divorce, years since mother's remarriage, or years since father's remarriage. In contrast, girls' views of their fathers were more influenced by the divorce variables. For girls, there was a correlation between paternal Acceptance of Individuation and years since divorce ($r = 0.56$, $df = 11$, $p < 0.05$). Also as years since divorce increased, girls perceived fathers as lower on Withdrawal of Relations ($r = -0.63$, $df = 11$, $p < 0.03$). Another negative correlation was noted for girls between paternal Nonenforcement and years since father's remarriage ($r = -0.97$, $df = 11$, $p < 0.05$). Again, there were no significant correlations for girls between any of the paternal scales and years since mother's remarriage. It is striking that only one scale in this entire analysis was correlated with years since mother's remarriage.

In summary, the time since father's remarriage affected children's perceptions of their parents more than time since divorce or time since mother's remarriage. Also, girls' views were more greatly influenced by the time since father's remarriage than were boys' perceptions of their parents.

Effects of Demographic Variables on Locus of Control

Within the divorced group, there were no significant main effects or interaction effects on the locus of control score for the following variables: mother's remarriage, father's remarriage, custody arrangement, visitation by the non-custodial parent, and siblings living with the child.

For the total divorce sample, there were no significant correlations between locus of control and years since divorce, years since mother's remarriage, and years since father's remarriage. However, when examining the effects of the above variables by sex, girls of divorce showed a near perfect correlation ($r = 0.99$, $df = 11$, $p = 0.01$) between their locus of control scores and years since father's remarriage. Locus of control scores for boys of divorce were negatively correlated ($r = -0.74$, $df = 13$, $p < 0.05$) with years since father's remarriage. Thus, as years since father's remarriage increase girls of divorce show more external locus of control while boys of divorce show more internal locus of control. The years since divorce and years since mother's remarriage were not correlated with locus of control for boys or girls.

Comparisons between the Custodial and Non-Custodial Parents

The comparisons between custodial and non-custodial parents for the CRPBI factors and scales were performed via paired t-tests. These comparisons showed results similar to the mother versus father factor and scale score comparisons because 82% of children were in mother custody.

Girls of divorce viewed the custodial parent as significantly higher on the Firm Control factor than the non-custodial parent ($t = 2.3$, $df = 12$, $p < 0.05$). For boys of divorce, the custodial parent was seen as significantly higher on the Psychological Control factor than the non-custodial parent ($t = 4.1$, $df = 14$, $p = 0.001$).

Girls of divorce saw the custodial parent as significantly higher on the Hostile Control ($t = 2.2$, $df = 12$, $p = 0.05$) and Instilling Persistent Anxiety ($t = 2.9$, $df = 12$, $p < 0.02$) scales. The exceptions to the mother vs father pattern were the differences on the Nonenforcement scale and the absence of differences on the Withdrawal of Relations scale. On the Nonenforcement scale, girls of divorce rated the custodial parent as significantly higher than the non-custodial parent ($t = 2.6$, $df = 12$, $p < 0.03$). Boys of divorce gave significantly higher scores to the custodial parent on Rejection ($t = 3.2$, $df = 14$, $p < 0.01$) and on Instilling Persistent Anxiety ($t = 3.8$, $df = 14$, $p < 0.005$).

DISCUSSION

Comparisons between Children from Divorced and Intact Families

A striking result of this study was the absence of differences between children from divorced and intact families on the three CRPBI factors for mother and father. It was earlier hypothesized that children of divorce would perceive their parents as lower on Acceptance, Psychological Control, and Firm Control than children from intact families. These hypotheses were based on studies which found discipline problems and diminished parenting for children of divorce (Tooley, 1975; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976, 1980, 1983; Hetherington, 1979). However, in the present study, overall, children of divorce do not appear to view their parents more negatively than children from intact families.

Since the CRPBI factors measure gross dimensions of parent behavior, the CRPBI scales were used for more detailed comparisons. The finding of no differences between children from intact and divorced families on 17 of the 18 scales again suggests less impact of divorce on children's perceptions of parental behavior than was expected.

The data also showed no significant differences in locus of control between children from divorced and intact families. This refutes the prediction that children of divorce would have more external locus of control than

children from intact families. Other researchers have found significantly more external locus of control for children from divorced families when compared to children from intact families (Lancaster & Richmond, 1983).

Likewise, a retrospective study indicated that children who experienced father loss through divorce during the latency phase of childhood had more external locus of control than children from intact families (Parish & Nunn, 1983).

However, children from divorced and intact families in the present study were considerably more internal than their counterparts in the Lancaster & Richmond (1983) study. In fact, children from divorced and intact families in this study showed more internal locus of control than children of comparable age in the standardization sample (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973).

Why were the children from divorced and intact families similar in their perceptions of parent behavior and in their locus of control? A major reason for this similarity may be that the experience of parental divorce did not impact strongly on children's perceptions of parents and locus of control. There is a growing body of literature which suggests that overall, children's perceptions and development are not negatively influenced by parental divorce (Reinhard, 1977; Rosen, 1977; Kurdek & Siesky, 1980; Kurdek et al., 1981; Goldblum, 1984). Studies which specifically addressed the issue of children's adjustment found children of divorce to be well

adjusted (Kurdek & Siesky, 1980; Kurdek et al., 1981; Goldblum, 1984); some researchers even reported positive outcomes of divorce such as children's increased responsibility, sensitivity, growth, and autonomy (Reinhard, 1977; Rosen, 1977; Weiss, 1979). Of course these findings conflict with other reports of emotional turmoil and maladjustment following divorce (McDermott, 1970; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976, 1980, 1983).

Another potential explanation may involve the quality of the parent-child relationship. Hess and Camara (1979) reported that relationships between family members had more influence on a child's behavior than marital status; positive relationships with one or both parents greatly decreased the negative effects of divorce on a child's behavior. It has also been reported that a continuing relationship with the non-custodial parent influences the child's positive adjustment to divorce (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975, 1976, 1980; Hess & Camara, 1979; Hetherington, 1979). It is possible that the children of divorce in this study maintained positive relationships with one or both of their parents. Since 89% of the children in this sample were visited by their non-custodial parent, these continuing parent-child relationships may have contributed to the children's positive divorce outcomes.

In view of the problems of sampling and generalizability mentioned in the introduction, and in view of the fact that only 15 percent of families initially contacted

agreed to participate in this study, it may be argued that the children of divorce in this sample were volunteers drawn from families with greater stability and sensitivity about divorce-related issues. Kurdek and Berg (1983) found moderate relationships between children's divorce adjustment and both an internal locus of control and a high degree of interpersonal understanding. The internal locus of control displayed by the children of divorce in this sample is indicative of their adjustment to divorce. The control group of children from intact families showed a similar internal locus of control. Although the act of volunteering to participate in psychological research may have attracted families with better adjusted children in both groups, it could also have attracted help-seeking families with maladjusted children. Without knowing how representative these families are, one cannot say which interpretation is more apt. Therefore, caution must be exercised in attempts to generalize the results obtained here. Of course, these concerns apply not only to the present study but to previously published work as well. A full comparison of demographic data could help to reduce this problem in future studies.

Another consideration was that the current study included subjects from a normal (nonclinical) population. This was especially important for children of divorce because clinical populations probably include the children most disturbed by divorce. The studies cited above which

reported positive outcome and adjustment to divorce all employed nonclinical subjects whereas the more negative effects of divorce were often seen in clinical studies.

It could also be argued that time since divorce affected the children in this sample. The average amount of time since divorce in this study was about six years, so it is possible that the effects of divorce were ameliorated. Other studies have shown more acute problems for children in the years immediately following divorce (Hetherington, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). However, the variable of time since divorce (ranging from one to eleven years) was tested in this sample and showed little or no effect on children's perceptions.

The main trend in this study showed children from divorced and intact families to be similar in perceptions of parent behavior, yet there were some significant differences between the groups. Possessiveness was the only CRPBI scale showing significant differences between children of divorced and intact families for both boys and girls and for both parents. Children of divorce rated both their mothers and fathers significantly higher on Possessiveness than did children from intact families. Further, maternal Possessiveness was positively correlated with years since divorce.

The Possessiveness scale has significant positive loadings on the Acceptance versus Rejection factor (Schludermann & Schludermann, 1983). Items such as

"Becomes very involved in my life," and "Wishes I would stay at home where she/he could take care of me," are included in the Possessiveness scale. High scores on the Possessiveness scale connote an overinvolved form of acceptance by the parents. A previous study using the CRPBI included the Possessiveness scale as part of its Maternal Neurosis Factor (Rode, 1971).

The perceptions of high parental Possessiveness by the children of divorce in the present study suggests that divorced parents cling to their children to combat the loss of their marital relationship and to provide a sense of continuity. Other researchers have noted the tendency of some divorced parents to turn to their children for emotional support and companionship (Beal, 1979; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Weiss (1979) reported that the child often assumes a peer or partnership role with its single parent. The heightened parent-child relationship may result in the divorced parent behaving more possessively toward his or her child. The positive correlation between maternal Possessiveness and years since divorce suggests that this effect intensifies for mothers as the time since the divorce increases.

Comparisons between Mother and Father

Results showed that girls of divorce, boys of divorce, and boys from intact families viewed their mothers as significantly higher than their fathers on the Psychological Control factor and on the Instilling

Persistent Anxiety scale. In contrast, girls from intact families showed no significant differences in their perceptions of mother versus father on any of the CRPBI factors or scales.

The general trend for children in this sample to rate mothers higher on Psychological Control than fathers suggests the mothers' tendency of using psychological methods to control their children. Mothers may resort to more psychological means of control because of their difficulty in exerting disciplinary control. Rode's (1971) study of individually alienated adolescents concluded that adolescent boys and girls perceived their mothers as exercising psychological control via methods such as instilling persistent anxiety. In his factor analysis of the CRPBI, Cross (1969) found that males evaluated their mothers primarily on the Psychological Control dimension and related this to the more neurotic involvement of the mother-son relationship. The intensified bond between mother and son could account for boys in this study viewing their mothers as more psychologically controlling than their fathers. In a study of traditional Canadian Hutterite adolescents, girls perceived their mothers as higher on the Psychological Control factor than their fathers while boys perceived no differences (Schludermann & Schludermann, 1971). However, it is difficult to compare these results with the present findings because of the clear cultural differences.

Assuming the results of this study were reliable, why might boys from intact families view their mothers as more psychologically controlling and indeed show the most mother versus father differences on the CRPBI scales? Some researchers have reported that boys from intact families showed more separation anxiety and lower levels of social development than boys of divorce in mother custody or father custody (Santrock & Warshak, 1979; Warshak & Santrock, 1983). The boys from intact families in the current study saw their mothers as significantly higher than their fathers on the Possessiveness, Positive Involvement, Intrusiveness, Hostile Control, and Instilling Persistent Anxiety scales. With the exception of the Positive Involvement scale, the other scales point to the type of neurotic mother-son interaction cited above (Cross, 1969; Rode, 1971). The reduced compliance of sons, particularly to mothers (Hetherington et al., 1978), may also necessitate increased control of boys by their mothers.

The girls from intact families viewed their mothers and fathers alike on all dimensions. Unlike the other groups, these girls did not view their mothers as more psychologically controlling. Possible explanations for their views may include more compliant behavior by the girls, less neurotic involvement with mothers, and the absence of stress by divorce.

In this sample, girls of divorce perceived their mothers (and custodial parents) as significantly higher on Firm Control than their fathers (and non-custodial parents). This result was unexpected, because previous studies have reported divorced mothers' problems in disciplining their sons (Tooley, 1975; Hetherington, 1979).

Sex Differences and Effects of Age

There was a profound absence of main effects of sex of child on all of the CRPBI factors and scales for both parents and on the locus of control measure. This was noteworthy for children of divorce, because some researchers have documented sex differences such that boys of divorce showed more emotional and developmental problems (Hetherington, 1979) and poorer divorce adjustment (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; Kurdek & Berg, 1983) than girls of divorce. However, other studies did not find significant sex differences in children's divorce adjustment (Reinhard, 1977; Kurdek et al., 1981). Other investigators have reported interaction effects such that children living with the opposite sex parent (mother custody boys and father custody girls) are less well adjusted than children who live with the same sex parent (Santrock & Warshak, 1979; Warshak & Santrock, 1983). Interaction effects with sex of child were noted for children in this sample and are discussed in this section.

The most compelling effects of age were seen among children in the divorced sample. For children of divorce

and for girls of divorce, maternal Rejection increased as age increased. Likewise, the children of divorce and boys of divorce saw decreasing paternal Acceptance with increasing age. The findings that these children of divorce perceived their parents as more rejecting with increasing time may be related to the observation that older latency children experience intense anger towards parents (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976, 1980). As predicted earlier, these intense angry feelings could cause children to perceive their parents as more rejecting.

Effects within the Divorced Group

Mother's remarriage showed no main effects on any of the CRPBI factors or scales for mother or father. It is also notable that only one CRPBI scale in the whole analysis was correlated with years since mother's remarriage. In addition to the other 35 CRPBI scales, the locus of control measure was also uncorrelated with years since mother's remarriage. These findings suggest that mother's remarriage had little impact on children's perceptions of parents and on locus of control. Mitchell (1983) reported no differences in parenting when comparing remarried mothers with single divorced mothers. The present data did contain an interesting mother's remarriage x sex interaction on the maternal Acceptance factor. Boys with remarried mothers viewed their mothers as lower on Acceptance than boys whose mothers were not remarried. The presence and possible displacement by the stepfather as a

new male figure in the household may cause boys to see their remarried mothers as less accepting. The close mother-son relationship discussed above may also be weakened with the entry of a stepfather. In contrast, girls perceived their remarried mothers as more accepting, possibly because of their lower neurotic involvement with mothers and lack of Oedipal competition for mothers' love.

Although father's remarriage did not affect the CRPBI factors for either parent, it showed effects on CRPBI scales for both parents. If father was remarried, mother was perceived as significantly higher on Enforcement and on Instilling Persistent Anxiety than if father was not remarried. This suggests that the father's remarriage may affect the mother's approach to discipline and control. Father's remarriage also affected the children's perceptions of paternal behavior. Remarried fathers were seen as more rejecting and as showing more hostile detachment; these perceptions were especially evident in girls. The view of remarried fathers as more rejecting and detached may relate to the observation of the rapidly diminished availability of divorced fathers to their children (Hetherington, 1979). The remarried father with a new family may experience difficulty in maintaining ties with children from his previous marriage. Other researchers found that fathers maintained more frequent and longer visits with sons than with daughters (Hess & Camara, 1979). The remarriage of her father to a new woman may

result in the girl's feelings of rejection by father; unresolved Oedipal jealousies may be reawakened as well.

The finding that years since father's remarriage affected children's perceptions of their parents more than the years since mother's remarriage or the years since divorce again underscores the influence of father's remarriage. The girls' perceptions of parent behavior were more affected by the time since father's remarriage than were boys' perceptions. Locus of control scores for girls and boys were also correlated with years since father's remarriage but not correlated with years since mother's remarriage or years since divorce. With increasing years since father's remarriage, girls showed more external locus of control but boys showed more internal locus of control.

All of these findings indicate an impact of father's remarriage on girls' perceptions. The girls' more external perceptions of themselves may be related to their feelings of having little control over life changes such as father's remarriage and decreased contact with father (Hess & Camara, 1979; Kurdek & Berg, 1983). Some researchers have argued that girls display better adjustment to divorce than boys (Hetherington, 1979; Kurdek & Berg, 1983). However, other studies have shown more negative effects for girls. Slater, Stewart, and Linn (1983) reported poorer self-concept and poorer perceptions of their family environment for adolescent girls of divorce than for girls from intact families; the opposite pattern was true for boys. Another

study showed increased dependent behavior by girls but not by boys towards their custodial parents in the fourth year after divorce (Goldblum, 1984). In the present study, the years since father's remarriage seem to impact negatively on girls' locus of control and perceptions of parent behavior while for boys there are more positive effects such as increased internality.

Custody arrangements significantly affected children's views of maternal and paternal Firm Control. For both parents, Firm Control was highest for children in mother custody, intermediate for children in joint custody and lowest for children in father custody. The high maternal Firm Control reported by children in mother custody is consistent with the idea that mothers assert more control in the absence of a male authority figure (Slater et al., 1983). It is notable, however, that children in this study rated non-custodial and joint-custodial fathers as more controlling than custodial fathers. Apparently, fathers exert more control when they are not the primary parent.

Further examination of the effects of custody arrangement on the CRPBI scales shows that children perceived more control and discipline by both parents in the mother custody arrangement versus greater autonomy and lax discipline in joint and father custody. Mother custody is currently the more normative custody arrangement for children, and it appears to be associated with more parental discipline and structure. By virtue of their

alternative nature, joint and father custody arrangements may attract parents who permit more autonomy and looser discipline.

Other researchers have found that children living with the same sex parent (father custody boys and mother custody girls) were better adjusted than children living with the opposite sex parent (Santrock & Warshak, 1979; Warshak & Santrock, 1983). In the present study, there was a custody arrangement x sex interaction on the paternal Acceptance factor. Boys and girls in mother custody rated father alike on Acceptance. However, in father and joint custody, boys perceived fathers as higher on Acceptance than did girls. The more positive perception of paternal acceptance by the boys in father and joint custody in this study is consistent with the Santrock and Warshak (1979) finding of better adjustment for father custody boys. The issue of custody arrangement x sex of child interactions merits further investigation.

Visitation by the non-custodial parent and living with siblings had little or no effect on how children of divorce perceived their parents. These variables also showed no effects of children's locus of control. It should be noted that the majority of children in the divorced sample were visited by the non-custodial parent and lived with siblings. Although effects were not apparent here, the benefits of visitation by the non-

custodial parent have been documented (Rosen, 1977; Hess & Camara, 1979; Hetherington, 1979).

Implications for Future Research and Clinical Interventions

The results showed similarities between children from divorced and intact families in their perceptions of parent behavior and locus of control for those families which participated in the study. The findings highlight the need for inclusion of a control group when studying children from divorced families. Future studies of the impact of divorce on children will be more likely to yield objective assessments if they include children from both intact and divorced families. In addition, determining some means of assessing the representativeness of participating families would strengthen future studies.

The results of the present study and other studies (Reinhard, 1977; Rosen, 1977; Kurdek & Siesky, 1980; Kurdek et al., 1981; Goldblum, 1984) suggest that parental divorce has less impact on children than was previously believed. Nonetheless, divorce can be a time of family crisis accompanied by great stress on children. My results do not refute the idea that parental divorce can be difficult or even traumatic for some children. However, the present findings imply that for later latency children from a nonclinical population whose families volunteer to participate in research, divorce does not have major effects on children's perceptions of their parents or their locus of control.

Clinically, this study implies minimal long-term effects of divorce for normal children. Although my study did not include clinical subjects, the relative lack of chronic effects observed here and in other research may encourage clinicians to view divorce as a family crisis with short-term effects on children.

Other results noted in this study deserve clinical consideration. The finding that children of divorce saw both of their parents as significantly more possessive than children from intact families suggests the possibility of undue parental demands on children of divorce. The age effect seen in children of divorce with regard to perceptions of parental behavior merits further investigation. If divorced parents become increasingly more rejecting of their children over time, this could have consequences for the child's mental health and development as the child moves towards adolescence.

The largely negative influence of father's remarriage and increasing years since father's remarriage on children's views of both parents could also have clinical significance. Girls appeared to be particularly affected by father's remarriage and showed more external locus of control with increasing time since father's remarriage. This increased externality could signify diminishing adjustment and potential problems for the preadolescent girl.

The findings for children of divorce noted above may assist family therapists and child psychotherapists in assessment and treatment of the later latency child. Further research will be required to confirm the trend of minimal impact of divorce on children seen here.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:

Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory

(CRPBI)

and

Scoring Sheet

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APPENDIX A

Children's Reports of Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI)

FORM FOR MOTHER

INSTRUCTIONS

We are interested in learning more about the different experiences people have in their families. Please read each item on the following pages and circle the answer that most closely describes the way your mother acts toward you. BE SURE TO MARK EACH ITEM.

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

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

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

FORM FOR MOTHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
1. Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with her.	L	SL	NL
2. Isn't very patient with me.	L	SL	NL
3. Sees to it that I know exactly what I may or may not do.	L	SL	NL
4. Wants to know exactly where I am and what I am doing.	L	SL	NL
5. Soon forgets a rule she has made.	L	SL	NL
6. Is easy with me.	L	SL	NL
7. Doesn't talk with me very much.	L	SL	NL
8. Will not talk to me when I displease her.	L	SL	NL
9. Is very strict with me.	L	SL	NL
10. Feels hurt when I don't follow advice.	L	SL	NL
11. Is always telling me how I should behave.	L	SL	NL
12. Usually doesn't find out about my misbehavior.	L	SL	NL
13. Spends very little time with me.	L	SL	NL
14. Almost always speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR MOTHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
15. Is always thinking of things that will please me.	L	SL	NL
16. Believes in having a lot of rules and sticking to them.	L	SL	NL
17. Tells me how much she loves me.	L	SL	NL
18. Is always checking on what I've been doing at school or at play.	L	SL	NL
19. Punishes me for doing something one day, but ignores it the next.	L	SL	NL
20. Allows me to tell her if I think my ideas are better than hers.	L	SL	NL
21. Lets me off easy when I do something wrong.	L	SL	NL
22. Sometimes when she disapproves, doesn't say anything but is cold and distant for awhile.	L	SL	NL
23. Forgets to help me when I need it.	L	SL	NL
24. Sticks to a rule instead of allowing a lot of exceptions.	L	SL	NL
25. Tells me exactly how to do my work.	L	SL	NL
26. Doesn't pay much attention to my misbehavior.	L	SL	NL
27. Likes me to choose my own way of doing things.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR MOTHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
28. If I break a promise, doesn't trust me again for a long time.	L	SL	NL
29. Doesn't seem to think of me very often.	L	SL	NL
30. Doesn't tell me what time to be home when I go out.	L	SL	NL
31. Gives me a lot of care and attention.	L	SL	NL
32. Believes that all my bad behavior should be punished in some way.	L	SL	NL
33. Asks me to tell everything that happens when I'm away from home.	L	SL	NL
34. Doesn't forget very quickly the things I do wrong.	L	SL	NL
35. Wants me to tell her about it if I don't like the way she treats me.	L	SL	NL
36. Worries about me when I'm away.	L	SL	NL
37. Gives hard punishments.	L	SL	NL
38. Believes in showing her love for me.	L	SL	NL
39. Feels hurt by the things I do.	L	SL	NL
40. Lets me help to decide how to do things we're working on.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR MOTHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
41. Says some day I'll be punished for my bad behavior.	L	SL	NL
42. Gives me as much freedom as I want.	L	SL	NL
43. Smiles at me very often.	L	SL	NL
44. Is always getting after me.	L	SL	NL
45. Keeps a careful check on me to make sure I have the right kind of friends.	L	SL	NL
46. Depends upon her mood whether a rule is enforced or not.	L	SL	NL
47. Excuses my bad conduct.	L	SL	NL
48. Doesn't show that she loves me.	L	SL	NL
49. Is less friendly with me if I don't see things her way.	L	SL	NL
50. Is able to make me feel better when I am upset.	L	SL	NL
51. Becomes very involved in my life.	L	SL	NL
52. Almost always complains about what I do.	L	SL	NL
53. Always listens to my ideas and opinions.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR MOTHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
54. Would like to be able to tell me what to do all the time.	L	SL	NL
55. Doesn't check up to see whether I have done what she told me.	L	SL	NL
56. Thinks and talks about my misbehavior long after it's over.	L	SL	NL
57. Doesn't share many activities with me.	L	SL	NL
58. Lets me go any place I please without asking.	L	SL	NL
59. Enjoys doing things with me.	L	SL	NL
60. Makes me feel like the most important person in her life.	L	SL	NL
61. Gets cross and angry about little things I do.	L	SL	NL
62. Only keeps rules when it suits her.	L	SL	NL
63. Really wants me to tell her just how I feel about things.	L	SL	NL
64. Will avoid looking at me when I've disappointed her.	L	SL	NL
65. Usually makes me the center of her attention at home.	L	SL	NL
66. Often praises me.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR MOTHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
67. Says if I loved her, I'd do what she wants me to do.	L	SL	NL
68. Seldom insists that I do anything.	L	SL	NL
69. Tries to understand how I see things.	L	SL	NL
70. Complains that I get on her nerves.	L	SL	NL
71. Doesn't work with me.	L	SL	NL
72. Insists that I must do exactly as I'm told.	L	SL	NL
73. Asks other people what I do away from home.	L	SL	NL
74. Loses her temper with me when I don't help around the house.	L	SL	NL
75. Does not insist I obey if I complain or protest.	L	SL	NL
76. Cheers me up when I am sad.	L	SL	NL
77. Sees to it that I obey when she tells me something.	L	SL	NL
78. Tells me of all the things she has done for me.	L	SL	NL
79. Wants to control whatever I do.	L	SL	NL
80. Does not bother to enforce rules.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR MOTHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
81. Thinks that any misbehavior is very serious and will have future consequences.	L	SL	NL
82. Is always finding fault with me.	L	SL	NL
83. Often speaks of the good things I do.	L	SL	NL
84. Makes her whole life center about her children.	L	SL	NL
85. Doesn't seem to know what I need or want.	L	SL	NL
86. Is happy to see me when I come home from school or play.	L	SL	NL
87. Gives me the choice of what to do whenever possible.	L	SL	NL
88. If I've hurt her feelings, stops talking to me until I please her again.	L	SL	NL
89. Worries that I can't take care of myself unless she is around.	L	SL	NL
90. Hugged or kissed me goodnight when I was small.	L	SL	NL
91. Says if I really cared for her, I would not do things that cause her to worry.	L	SL	NL
92. Is always trying to change me.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR MOTHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
93. Is easy to talk to.	L	SL	NL
94. Wishes I were a different kind of person.	L	SL	NL
95. Lets me go out any evening I want.	L	SL	NL
96. Seems proud of the things I do.	L	SL	NL
97. Spends almost all of her free time with her children.	L	SL	NL
98. I have certain jobs to do and am not allowed to do anything else until they are done.	L	SL	NL
99. Is very interested in what I am learning at school.	L	SL	NL
100. Doesn't like the way I act at home.	L	SL	NL
101. Changes her mind to make things easier for herself.	L	SL	NL
102. Can be talked into things easily.	L	SL	NL
103. Wishes I would stay at home where she could take care of me.	L	SL	NL
104. Makes me feel I'm not loved.	L	SL	NL
105. Has more rules than I can remember, so is often punishing me.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR MOTHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
106. Says I make her happy.	L	SL	NL
107. Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.	L	SL	NL
108. Lets me do anything I like to do.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR FATHER

INSTRUCTIONS

We are interested in learning more about the different experiences people have in their families. Please read each item on the following pages and circle the answer that most closely describes the way your father acts toward you. BE SURE TO MARK EACH ITEM.

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

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

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

FORM FOR FATHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
1. Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with him.	L	SL	NL
2. Isn't very patient with me.	L	SL	NL
3. Sees to it that I know exactly what I may or may not do.	L	SL	NL
4. Wants to know exactly where I am and what I am doing.	L	SL	NL
5. Soon forgets a rule he has made.	L	SL	NL
6. Is easy with me.	L	SL	NL
7. Doesn't talk with me very much.	L	SL	NL
8. Will not talk to me when I displease him.	L	SL	NL
9. Is very strict with me.	L	SL	NL
10. Feels hurt when I don't follow advice.	L	SL	NL
11. Is always telling me how I should behave.	L	SL	NL
12. Usually doesn't find out about my misbehavior.	L	SL	NL
13. Spends very little time with me.	L	SL	NL
14. Almost always speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR FATHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
15. Is always thinking of things that will please me.	L	SL	NL
16. Believes in having a lot of rules and sticking to them.	L	SL	NL
17. Tells me how much he loves me.	L	SL	NL
18. Is always checking on what I've been doing at school or at play.	L	SL	NL
19. Punishes me for doing something one day, but ignores it the next.	L	SL	NL
20. Allows me to tell him if I think my ideas are better than his.	L	SL	NL
21. Lets me off easy when I do something wrong.	L	SL	NL
22. Sometimes when he disapproves, doesn't say anything but is cold and distant for awhile.	L	SL	NL
23. Forgets to help me when I need it.	L	SL	NL
24. Sticks to a rule instead of allowing a lot of exceptions.	L	SL	NL
25. Tells me exactly how to do my work.	L	SL	NL
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FORM FOR FATHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
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32. Believes that all my bad behavior should be punished in some way.	L	SL	NL
33. Asks me to tell everything that happens when I'm away from home.	L	SL	NL
34. Doesn't forget very quickly the things I do wrong.	L	SL	NL
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36. Worries about me when I'm away.	L	SL	NL
37. Gives hard punishments.	L	SL	NL
38. Believes in showing his love for me.	L	SL	NL
39. Feels hurt by the things I do.	L	SL	NL
40. Lets me help to decide how to do things we're working on.	L	SL	NL

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47. Excuses my bad conduct.	L	SL	NL
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49. Is less friendly with me if I don't see things his way.	L	SL	NL
50. Is able to make me feel better when I am upset.	L	SL	NL
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63. Really wants me to tell him just how I feel about things.	L	SL	NL
64. Will avoid looking at me when I've disappointed him.	L	SL	NL
65. Usually makes me the center of his attention at home.	L	SL	NL
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FORM FOR FATHER

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70. Complains that I get on his nerves.	L	SL	NL
71. Doesn't work with me.	L	SL	NL
72. Insists that I must do exactly as I'm told.	L	SL	NL
73. Asks other people what I do away from home.	L	SL	NL
74. Loses her temper with me when I don't help around the house.	L	SL	NL
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76. Cheers me up when I am sad.	L	SL	NL
77. Sees to it that I obey when he tells me something.	L	SL	NL
78. Tells me of all the things he has done for me.	L	SL	NL
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	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
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92. Is always trying to change me.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR FATHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
93. Is easy to talk to.	L	SL	NL
94. Wishes I were a different kind of person.	L	SL	NL
95. Lets me go out any evening I want.	L	SL	NL
96. Seems proud of the things I do.	L	SL	NL
97. Spends almost all of his free time with his children.	L	SL	NL
98. I have certain jobs to do and am not allowed to do anything else until they are done.	L	SL	NL
99. Is very interested in what I am learning at school.	L	SL	NL
100. Doesn't like the way I act at home.	L	SL	NL
101. Changes his mind to make things easier for himself.	L	SL	NL
102. Can be talked into things easily.	L	SL	NL
103. Wishes I would stay at home where he could take care of me.	L	SL	NL
104. Makes me feel I'm not loved.	L	SL	NL
105. Has more rules than I can remember, so is often punishing me.	L	SL	NL

FORM FOR FATHER

	<u>Like</u>	<u>Some- what Like</u>	<u>Not Like</u>
106. Says I make him happy.	L	SL	NL
107. Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.	L	SL	NL
108. Lets me do anything I like to do.	L	SL	NL

SCORING SHEET FOR THE CHILD'S REPORT OF PARENT BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

(Schludermann, 1979)

Scores for Father _____
Mother _____

Name: _____

Subject No: _____

Subject's Age: _____

Sex: M or F _____

Location: _____

SCALE SCORES

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	Total by	Mal. reversed	PC, FC
1 Acceptance	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
2 Childcenteredness	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
3 Possessiveness	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76
4 Rejection	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97
5 Control	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118
6 Enforcement	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139
7 Positive Involvement	140	141	142	143	144	145	146	147	148	149	150	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	160
8 Intrusiveness	161	162	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	170	171	172	173	174	175	176	177	178	179	180	181
9 Control through Guilt	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190	191	192	193	194	195	196	197	198	199	200	201	202
10 Hostile Control	203	204	205	206	207	208	209	210	211	212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220	221	222	223
11 Inconsistent Discipline	224	225	226	227	228	229	230	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239	240	241	242	243	244
12 Nonenforcement	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252	253	254	255	256	257	258	259	260	261	262	263	264	265
13 Acceptance of Individuation	266	267	268	269	270	271	272	273	274	275	276	277	278	279	280	281	282	283	284	285	286
14 Lax Discipline	287	288	289	290	291	292	293	294	295	296	297	298	299	300	301	302	303	304	305	306	307
15 Instilling Persistent Anxiety	308	309	310	311	312	313	314	315	316	317	318	319	320	321	322	323	324	325	326	327	328
16 Hostile Detachment	329	330	331	332	333	334	335	336	337	338	339	340	341	342	343	344	345	346	347	348	349
17 Withdrawal of Relations	350	351	352	353	354	355	356	357	358	359	360	361	362	363	364	365	366	367	368	369	370
18 Extreme Autonomy	371	372	373	374	375	376	377	378	379	380	381	382	383	384	385	386	387	388	389	390	391
Total																				Divide by	
Subtotal scores																				Divide by	
																				Divide by	
																				Divide by	

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS: Items: score L=3, SL=2, ML=1. Record item scores in space designated by item number. Scales: Add up item scores across rows and record sum in column "Total." Multiply by coefficient in column "Mal. by" and record scale score in next open space. Subtotals: Calculate reversed scale scores by subtracting scale score from 40 and record in space designated by a. Acceptance (MI)-Rejection (Lo): Add scores in column AR. Divide column total by 7. Psychological Control (MI)-Psychological Autonomy (Lo): Add scores in column PC. Divide column total by 6. Firm Control (MI)-Lax Control (Lo): Add scores in column FC. Divide column total by 5.

APPENDIX B:

Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control scale

APPENDIX B

Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control scale

INSTRUCTIONS

Please read each question on the following pages and answer by circling either YES or NO. Be sure to answer every question.

- | | | |
|---|-----|----|
| 1. Do you believe that most problems will solve themselves if you just don't fool with them? | YES | NO |
| 2. Do you believe that you can stop yourself from catching a cold? | YES | NO |
| 3. Are some kids just born lucky? | YES | NO |
| 4. Most of the time do you feel that getting good grades means a great deal to you? | YES | NO |
| 5. Are you often blamed for things that just aren't your fault? | YES | NO |
| 6. Do you believe that if somebody studies hard enough he or she can pass any subject? | YES | NO |
| 7. Do you feel that most of the time it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right anyway? | YES | NO |
| 8. Do you feel that if things start out well in the morning that it's going to be a good day no matter what you do? | YES | NO |
| 9. Do you feel that most of the time parents listen to what their children have to say? | YES | NO |
| 10. Do you believe that wishing can make good things happen? | YES | NO |
| 11. When you get punished, does it usually seem it's for no good reason at all? | YES | NO |
| 12. Most of the time do you find it hard to change a friend's (mind) opinion? | YES | NO |

- | | | | |
|-----|--|-----|----|
| 13. | Do you think that cheering more than luck helps a team to win? | YES | NO |
| 14. | Do you feel that it's nearly impossible to change your parent's mind about anything? | YES | NO |
| 15. | Do you believe that your parents should allow you to make most of your own decisions? | YES | NO |
| 16. | Do you feel that when you do something wrong there's very little you can do to make it right? | YES | NO |
| 17. | Do you believe that most kids are just born good at sports? | YES | NO |
| 18. | Are most of the other kids your age stronger than you are? | YES | NO |
| 19. | Do you feel that one of the best ways to handle most problems is just not to think about them? | YES | NO |
| 20. | Do you feel that you have a lot of choice in deciding who your friends are? | YES | NO |
| 21. | If you find a four leaf clover do you believe that it might bring you good luck? | YES | NO |
| 22. | Do you often feel that whether you do your homework has much to do with what kind of grades you get? | YES | NO |
| 23. | Do you feel that when a kid your age decides to hit you, there's little you can do to stop him or her? | YES | NO |
| 24. | Have you ever had a good luck charm? | YES | NO |

- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| 25. Do you believe that whether or not people like you depends on how you act? | YES | NO |
| 26. Will your parents usually help you if you ask them to? | YES | NO |
| 27. Have you felt that when people were mean to you it was usually for no reason at all? | YES | NO |
| 28. Most of the time, do you feel that you can change what might happen tomorrow by what you do today? | YES | NO |
| 29. Do you believe that when bad things are going to happen they just are going to happen no matter what you try to do to stop them? | YES | NO |
| 30. Do you think that kids can get their own way if they just keep trying? | YES | NO |
| 31. Most of the time do you find it useless to try to get your own way at home? | YES | NO |
| 32. Do you feel that when good things happen they happen because of hard work? | YES | NO |
| 33. Do you feel that when somebody your age wants to be your enemy there's little you can do to change matters? | YES | NO |
| 34. Do you feel that it's easy to get friends to do what you want them to? | YES | NO |
| 35. Do you usually feel that you have little to say about what you get to eat at home? | YES | NO |

- | | | | |
|-----|--|-----|----|
| 36. | Do you feel that when someone doesn't like you there's little you can do about it? | YES | NO |
| 37. | Do you usually feel that it's almost useless to try in school because most other children are just plain smarter than you are? | YES | NO |
| 38. | Are you the kind of person who believes that planning ahead makes things turn out better? | YES | NO |
| 39. | Most of the time, do you feel that you have little to say about what your family decides to do? | YES | NO |
| 40. | Do you think it's better to be smart than to be lucky? | YES | NO |

APPENDIX C:

Letter to Parents

APPENDIX C

Letter to Parents

Dear Parent:

Our organization has been contacted by a researcher from Michigan State University's Department of Psychology who would like your help with an important project. The purpose of the project is to gain a better understanding of how children in different types of families perceive their experiences.

As you know, the nature of the family and its role in society is rapidly changing. It is important for parents, teachers and others who deal with children to understand how these changes in the family affect children.

This project will focus on 9 to 12 year old children. Children whose parents are still married and children whose parents are divorced will be included in the project. The project is designed to provide information which will improve understanding of children's needs. We hope that such information will be useful to parents and professionals.

Participants in this project will be volunteers. If you agree to participate, you and your child will be asked to complete a few questionnaires. One parent will be asked to fill out a short family information form which takes about 10 minutes. Your child will complete two questionnaires which will require a total involvement of about 1 hour. These materials will be personally delivered to your home at your convenience. All responses will be kept strictly confidential.

If you are interested in participating with your 9-12 year old child in this project, or would like further information, please return the enclosed postcard. Please check the box which indicates your interest. The director of the project will contact you personally by telephone to answer any questions and to set up an appointment time.

If you do not wish to participate, please check the appropriate box and return the enclosed postcard. This is to ensure that you will not be contacted again about this project.

Thank you for your consideration of what should be a
very valuable project.

Sincerely,

Signature of Organization Leader

APPENDIX D:

Parent Demographic Survey Form

APPENDIX D

PARENT DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY FORM

I. IDENTIFYING INFORMATION

Child's name _____

Child's sex (circle): M F

Child's age _____ Child's birthdate
Mo Day Year

Your name _____

Street address _____

City/State/Zip code _____

Your phone number _____

Your relationship to child _____

II. PARENTS

Please fill in the following information about the child's original (biological) parents:

Father's name _____

Father's age ____ (If deceased, year of death: 19__)

Father's occupation _____

Father's education _____

Mother's name _____

Mother's age _____ (If deceased, year of death: 19____)

Mother's occupation _____

Mother's education _____

III. FAMILY STATUS

(A) 1. The child currently lives with (please check one):

- a. both original parents
(biological mother and father) _____
- b. mother only _____
- c. father only _____
- d. other (please explain) _____

2. Have the children's original (biological) parents been legally divorced at any time since the child was born?

Yes _____ No _____

If yes, please skip to Part (B).
If no, please answer question 3 below.

3. How long have the child's parents been married? _____ (years)

Please go to Part (C).

(B) For children with divorced parents only

4. When were the child's parents divorced?

date _____ (give month & year
if possible)

5. Is the child's mother currently remarried?

Yes _____ No _____

6. If yes, how long has mother been remarried?

_____ (years)

7. Is the child's father currently remarried?

Yes _____ No _____

8. If yes, how long has father been remarried?

_____ (years)

9. Please specify the child's custody arrangement:

- a. mother _____
- b. father _____
- c. joint _____
- d. other _____
- _____

10. Does the child visit the non-custodial parent?

Yes _____ No _____

11. If yes, how often does the child visit the non-custodial parent?

(C) Please provide the following information about the child's siblings:

Number of siblings _____

Name	Age	Sex (M or F)	Relationship to child*	Lives with child (yes or no)
1. _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

8. _____

* please specify if sister, brother, step-sister, step-brother, half-sister, half-brother, adopted sister or brother

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