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THE INFLUENCE OF A PARENT-TEEN EVENT ON PARENT-TEEN INTERACTION

By

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ABSTRACT

THE INFLUENCE OF A PARENT-TEEN EVENT ON PARENT-TEEN INTERACTION

By

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The purpose of this exploratory, quasi-experimental study was to examine the effects of a seminar entitled a Parent-Teen Event (PTE). This seminar, which emphasizes the family strengths of communication, conflict resolution, appreciation and time together, was presented to parents and adolescents. The family strengths on which the program focuses are supported by the research of Stinnett and DeFrain (1985). Major variables examined were positive parent-teen communication, family cohesion and family adaptability. Differences related to age, gender, form of family, parent education, income and occupations also were examined. Pre-tests and post-tests were completed at three month intervals by participants of the seminar and also by a control group. *ANCOVA* was used to determine significant differences between time one and time two.

This quantitative evaluation provided limited support for the effectiveness of a Parent-Teen Event. Although some differences in communication and cohesion were observed, most did not reach the .05 level of statistical significance.

Trends observed included increases in family communication, family cohesion and family adaptability for most participants, except for adolescent girls, whose scores decreased slightly for each variable. Communication posttest scores for parents and sons were higher than pretest scores. Family cohesion posttest scores as reported by parents were higher than pretest scores. Adaptability scores as reported by parents and

adolescents increased slightly. In general, mothers and sons were more positively affected by the PTE than were fathers and daughters. Anecdotal evidence from seminar participants indicated very positive results from the seminar.

Implications from this research address practitioners, policy-makers and researchers. Practitioners need to be aware of the value of seminars such as the PTE, and the possibility of adapting this seminar to their educational environment. Policy-makers are reminded of the need for policy that positively influences families, and researchers are encouraged to conduct further investigation into seminars such as a PTE.

This dissertation is dedicated to my friend Perk Hamming who has impacted my life for eternity and continues to positively influence my life and ministry for God.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Parenting adolescents often brings fear and dread to the hearts of parents. Even the anticipation of children becoming adolescents causes parents to wonder how well they will do as parents, and whether they will survive this difficult stage. Parents wonder if their children will survive adolescence without permanent scars. They are concerned about how their relationship with them will weather the anticipated storms of the adolescent years.

Parent-teen interaction is of great concern to parents and teens as well as family researchers and therapists (Montemayor & Hanson, 1985; Rawlins & Holl, 1988; Greenberger & O' Neil, 1990). Family researchers and therapists understand the importance of this relationship and recognize the difficulty of sustaining this relationship through the teen years. In a study of family relationships during the preadolescent years, Coughlin and Vuchinich (1996) found that good parent relations and discipline had significant protective effects against male delinquency during the adolescent years which followed. A study of intrafamily images of hospitalized adolescents found when communication was poor from a parent's perspective, the adolescent was seen as more compromised in almost every dimension. When the adolescent perceived the communication as poor, family alienation (separation and distancing of family members) occurred. This was particularly true of adolescents and their fathers (Young & Childs, 1994).

Another study of family processes during adolescence found that paternal warmth was longitudinally associated with parent-young adult attitude similarity. To the extent that adolescents' relationships with their fathers were warm, attitudes were similar six years later (Brody, Moore & Glei, 1994). Parent-child interaction is the strongest predictor of life satisfaction in adolescent offspring (Leung & Leung, 1992; Man, 1991), and children's satisfaction with family life is strongly correlated with psychological well-being (Huebner, 1991). It is obvious that parent-teen relationships are of great importance to the psychological and emotional health of the family system.

Adolescent family life satisfaction also is significantly correlated with family flexibility, family bonding and parental support (Henry, 1994). Olson, Russell & Sprenkle, (1983) suggest that a primary means through which family bonding is facilitated is communication. Working with families to develop effective communication skills can potentially enhance parent-teen bonding. By providing opportunities to engage in activities such as discussing concerns with each other, expressing feelings of closeness, spending time together, sharing activities with other family members and making family decisions, communication skills are built (McCubbin, Thompson, Pirner & McCubbin, 1988).

A major study of 46,000 adolescents lists 30 assets which help adolescents thrive and act responsibly when on their own. Included in that list are six assets that involve parent-teen interaction: family support, parents as social resources, parent communication, parental standards, parental discipline and parental monitoring. These six assets all helped adolescents as they moved from dependence to independence, the task of adolescence. While many of the assets decreased as the grade level increased, parent communication

increased substantially from grade six adolescents to grade twelve adolescents (Benson, 1990).

In another major review of the social science and health literature, the Minnesota Department of Education (1992) identified 26 strategies for prevention of alcohol, tobacco and drug use among adolescents. Three of these strategies would empower parents by (1) helping parents develop a commitment to play a primary role in prevention (2) teaching them how to establish rules, standards and effective discipline and (3) showing them how to support, nurture and affirm their children.

A family context characterized by warm, supportive family interaction promotes flexible, involved problem solving, which in turn decreases parent-adolescent conflict (Anderson & Sabatelli, 1990; Cooper, 1988; Galatzer-Levy & Cohler, 1993; Hauser & Boulds, 1990; Hill, 1993; Paikoff & Brooks-Gunn, 1991; Reuter & Conger, 1995; and Steinberg, 1990). Warm supportive family interaction strengthens family relationships during adolescence, especially if this type of family interaction is present prior to the teen years (Reuter & Conger, 1995).

Family communication affects adolescent identity formation (Cooper, Grotevant, & Condon, 1983), facilitates development of higher levels of moral reasoning in adolescents (Holstein, 1972), is related to higher self-esteem (Small, 1988) and is the mechanism families use to share their changing preferences, needs and feelings (Barnes & Olson, 1985). Family communication is vitally important if adolescents are to accomplish the developmental tasks of this stage of life. Contrary to popular opinion and anecdotal information, adolescents desire more parental interest, help, listening, understanding, talking, love, acceptance, trust and autonomy than they are presently receiving

(Schiamberg, 1988). However, parents are not always aware of this, and often parent-adolescent communication suffers during this period of life. There is often great emotional distance when adolescents need their parents most. Both adolescents and parents struggle with this distance.

Scope of the problem

Researchers have pictured adolescents as "the new lost generation" (Ianni, 1989). Juvenile delinquency has increased almost three-fold since WWII (Demo, 1992); suicide rates for children in the 5-14 age group increased from 0.2 per 100,000 population in 1950 to 0.7 per 100,000 in 1994 (Wright, Andrews & McMeel, 1995;and suicide rates for ages 15-19 increased from 8.5 per 100,000 population in 1980 to 11.0 per 100,000 in 1991 (National Center for Health Statistics, cited by Barna, 1995). On the average, mothers and fathers engage in no more than ten minutes per day of direct conversation with their older adolescent children (Demo, 1992).

The adolescent period of life is described as a period of great psychological upheaval and disturbance (Allerbeck & Hoag, 1985; Eissler, 1958). Others have called this a time of storm and stress (Kenniston, 1970; Blos, 1979). Although the storm and stress theory has been challenged by many (Conger, 1981; Dusek & Flaherty, 1981; Offer, Ostrov & Howard, 1981; Offer, Ostrov, Howard & Atkinson, 1988; O' Malley & Bachman, 1983; Rutter, Graham, Chadwick & Yule, 1976; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986), a majority of parents still perceive adolescence as the most difficult stage of parenting. Several researchers suggest that parenting is particularly stressful at the adolescent stage of the life cycle (Kidwell, Fisher, Dunham & Baranoski, 1983;

Montemayor, 1983; Pasley & Gecas, 1984; Small, Cornelius & Eastman, 1983; Olson, Russell & Sprenkle (1983), marital satisfaction is at its lowest point (Gegas & Seff, 1990; Rollins & Feldman, 1970) and life satisfaction at this stage is lowest for parents (Hoffman & Manis, 1978), particularly for fathers (Umberson, 1989). Parents need help understanding their teenage children and their role of parents during this stage of life.

Olbrich and Todt (1984) call the adolescent stage of life a period of coping. If the adolescent task is moving from dependence to independence, the parental task during this stage seems to be coping with the changing adolescent. Coping contributes to achievement and management of developmental tasks (Eisen, 1986; Tyler, 1978). Developmental tasks for the adolescent include achieving emotional independence from parents, developing appropriate social roles and preparing for marriage and family life and economic independence (Havighurst, 1953, 1972; Liepman & Sticksrud, 1985; Oerter, 1985).

As children progress through adolescence they become more independent (Schoenleber & Collins, 1988), more concerned about their desires and goals, and more reluctant to pursue parental goals, especially when those goals conflict with one another (Csikszentmihalyi & Larsen, 1984). Generational differences over issues such as independence versus dependence tend to combine with negative perceptions of communication to produce increased parent-child conflict (Hall, 1987). Family tension is to be expected (Campbell, 1969) and requires interaction skills to effectively resolve. Many families lack these skills.

The transition from adolescence to adulthood often brings issues of power, sexuality and personal identity to the forefront (Blos, 1979; Elkind, 1984; Erikson, 1968).

These issues create conflict in the family system and in adolescents themselves. It is important for parents to provide a good "transitional world" through which adolescents can progress to the social interdependence of adulthood (Ianni, 1989).

Statement of the problem

Researchers have recognized that dyadic and family relationships can be improved through a variety of assertiveness training programs that include building social skills (Alexander, 1973; Barton & Alexander, 1981; Blechman & Olson, 1976; Goldstein & Pentz, 1984; Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw & Klein, 1980; L'Abate, 1977; Robin, 1981; Tisdell & St Laurence, 1988). Educators and clinicians have designed many programs to equip parents and teens with knowledge and communication skills, e.g.. PET, STEP, FIP (Garbarino, Schellenbach, Sebes & Associates. 1986). However, most of these programs are offered for clinical populations only. Few studies have examined the effectiveness of social skill training with parents and adolescents in non-clinical populations (Openshaw, Mills, Adams & Durso, 1992). Also, most of these programs train parents and adolescents separately. They do not bring them together to develop these skills and practice them as a family. Garbarino, Schellenback & Sebes & Associates (1986) suggest "double programming", or programming for both parents and adolescents together, as a solution to this problem.

Generally there is a lack of programs designed to build parent-teen interaction. A literature search reveals only one other seminar, Parent-Adolescent Relationship Development (PARD), which brings parents and teens together to build positive parent-teen interaction. PARD was created as a way to improve the relationship between fathers

and sons. This 10-session seminar which brings fathers and their adolescent sons together in small groups to learn communication and relationship skills, helps fathers and sons to improve positive feelings toward each other, and feel better about themselves (Ginsberg, 1995). Results of PARD are not presently available.

Kumpfer (1989) reports positive prevention results for an experimental study of the impact of such a program designed to strengthen family dynamics. Kumpfer's study was done in the context of adolescent alcohol and drug abuse. Face to Face Ministries, a non-profit organization in Grand Rapids, Michigan has designed a seminar called, "A Parent-Teen Event"(PTE) which brings parents and adolescents together for a one-day seminar to develop interactive skills and strengthen family relationships (see Appendix A for description). This seminar, which is based on Stinnett and DeFrain's (1985) research on family strengths, addresses both parents and teens together in a highly interactive one-day seminar. However, it has never been tested for its effectiveness in strengthening parent-teen interaction. The Parent-Teen-Event was specifically designed to meet the need for double programming in educating parents and adolescents.

Purpose of the study

Parent-Teen Events are projected by the founders to be presented to over 5,000 families in the next five years. A video series is being considered to increase the availability of the live seminar to greater numbers of people. This research will assess the effectiveness of a PTE and provide direction for further development of this seminar. If this research indicates significant increase in positive parent-teen interaction following a

PTE, this seminar could become a national model for increasing positive parent-teen interaction and serve as a valuable tool to strengthen parent-teen relationships.

Significance of research

The Parent-Teen Event (PTE) enables parents and teens to actually practice interacting positively together during the one day seminar. This seminar could be a valuable resource to churches and community groups across the country, especially if a video format became available to make it more accessible to groups of all sizes in various locations. The PTE can be used by almost any parent-teen group because of its non-sectarian theoretical base. It has been presented to both Protestant and Catholic groups with participants from various racial and ethnic backgrounds with similar results and reception. For example, this seminar was presented to three different groups in the Hawaiian Islands with participants from at least five different racial/ethnic backgrounds, various types of interracial marriages and blended families.

Anecdotal reports of improved communication and positive parent-teen interaction are many, but until now there has been no research to assess this Parent-Teen-Event presented by Face to Face Ministries of Grand Rapids, Michigan. This research was undertaken to substantiate the value of a PTE and to give direction for further development, and increased effectiveness among diverse audiences.

Theoretical models

This research is based on two theoretical models, the Family Strengths model (Stinnett and DeFrain, 1985) and the Circumplex Model of Family Systems (Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen & Wilson, 1989).

Family Strengths Model. Stinnett and DeFrain (1985) studied 3000 families to determine the characteristics of strong families. They discovered six major strengths from their research: Family commitment, family appreciation, family communication, family time together, spiritual wellness and the ability to resolve family conflict and crisis.

The Family Strengths Model was used as the basis for development of the Parent-Teen Event (PTE). The PTE presents the following four family strengths from Stinnett and DeFrain's research: family appreciation, family communication, family time together and family ability to resolve conflict and manage crises. Family appreciation is defined as recognizing positive characteristics in other family members and expressing appreciation for those characteristics. Family communication is the ability to clearly give and receive messages. This process involves at least four components: talking, listening, understanding and non-verbal language. Time together is a quantity of time in which there are opportunities for quality experiences and mutual satisfaction and fulfillment. The ability to resolve conflict and manage crises assumes that conflicts and crises are faced and resolved without major disruption of the family system.

The PTE consists of four one and one-half hour presentations, which were presented to parents and teenagers together in a conference setting. These sessions were presented with a variety of methods: lecture, discussion, brainstorming exercises, video, small group exercises and various paper exercises. Each session was designed to involve

parents and their teenagers in discussion and application of the four family strengths. Sessions were titled "Just Say It" (the family strength of appreciation), "More Than Words Can Say" (the family strength of communication), "Saturday Night at the Fights" (the family strength of conflict resolution) and "Totally Necessary Time (TNT) (the family strength of time together).

The Circumplex Model of Family Systems. The Circumplex Model of Family Systems (Appendix B) was developed to bridge the gap between research, theory and practice. This model is not only used in research but also in clinical practice to assess marital and family systems. It has three dimensions: cohesion, adaptability, and communication. Cohesion is defined as the emotional bonding that family members have with one another. Family adaptability is the ability of a marital or family system to change its structure, its relationships and its rules in response to various stressors. Communication enables couples and families to move on the other two dimensions. Positive communication skills enable families to share with each other their changing needs and preferences as they relate to cohesion and adaptability. Positive communication skills will enable balanced families to change their levels of cohesion and adaptability more easily than those at the extremes. Balanced families score higher than extreme families on both dimensions, cohesion and adaptability. The following hypotheses have been derived from the Circumplex Model (Olson, Fournier & Druckman, 1988, pp113-115):

1. Couples/families with balanced (two central levels) cohesion and adaptability will generally function more adequately across the family life cycle than those at the extreme of these dimensions.

2. Balanced family types have a larger behavioral repertoire and are more able to change compared with extreme family types.
3. If the normative expectations of a couple or family support behaviors extreme on one or both of the Circumplex dimensions, they will function well as long as all family members accept these expectations.
4. Balanced couples/families will tend to have more positive communication skills than extreme families.
5. Positive communication skills will enable balanced couples/families to change their levels of cohesion and adaptability more easily than those at the extremes.
6. To deal with situational stress and developmental changes across the family life cycle, balanced families will change their cohesion and adaptability, whereas extreme families will resist change over time.

The Circumplex Model was used in this study to assess the degree of emotional closeness between parents and adolescents and the degree of adaptability of families studied. This model also was used to assess changes in emotional closeness and adaptability for participants in the Parent-Teen-Event. Emotional closeness and adaptability are both important elements of positive parent-teen interaction (Barnes & Olson, 1985).

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Positive parent-teen interaction, which is the freedom of flow of factual and emotional information and the absence of problem communication, is related to many different facets of adolescent life: school attitudes and achievement, personal identity, family cohesion and adaptability, prosocial behavior, psychological development, self-esteem, disclosure to parents and parental support. Gender of parent, gender of adolescent and age of adolescent also are related to the degree of positive parent-teen interaction.

School attitudes and achievement

Positive school attitudes and higher academic achievement are correlated with positive parent-teen interaction and quality family relationships. Adolescents who describe their parents as treating them warmly and democratically are more likely than their peers to develop positive attitudes toward school achievement and do well in school (Steinberg, Elmen & Mounts, 1989; Cotterell, 1992). Public school families who scored higher on communication reflected fewer problems than alternative (parochial or other) school families (Masselam, Marcus & Stunkard, 1989) and the quality of family relationships, not social class or absence of father or mother, determined academic achievement (Clark, 1983).

Positive parent-teen interaction helps students to develop positive attitudes toward academic achievement and do better both academically and behaviorally. The research

seems clear that the quality of a parent-teen relationship is closely related to school achievement and adolescents' attitudes toward school.

Personal identity

Various studies suggest that personal identity formation for adolescents is strongly affected by parent-adolescent relationships and positive parent-teen interaction. In a study of 410 college students, Kamptner (1984) found that parental warmth, parental autonomy and family cohesion have a direct positive impact on adolescent identity formation. These three items were all positively correlated with positive self-identity and with Erikson's scales of psycho-social stages of industry, identity and intimacy. Several other studies indicate that high parental support, positive parent-teen communication and parent involvement facilitate the development of ego identity in adolescence (Adams & Fitch, 1982; Campbell, Adams & Dobson, 1984; Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Hauser, Powers, Noam & Bowlds, 1987). In addition, Grotevant and Cooper (1985) found that identity exploration in boys is associated with "connecting types of interactions with parents", particularly with their fathers. It is easier for adolescent boys to work on identity exploration when they have positive interaction and a positive relationship with their fathers. Together these studies indicate that positive parent-teen interaction which includes parental warmth, parental autonomy, parental involvement, positive communication and family cohesion, is positively related to identity formation in adolescence.

Cohesion and adaptability

Cohesion is the emotional closeness and bonding between family members. Adaptability is the ability of a family system to change its structure, its relationships and its rules in response to various stressors.

Contrary to popular beliefs, between two-thirds and three-quarters of adolescents feel close to their parents, identify with them and are satisfied with the "way they get along" (Bachman, Johnston & O' Malley, 1987; Steinberg, Elmen & Mounts, 1989). These adolescents who report close and satisfactory relationships with parents routinely turn to them for advice and guidance (Demo, 1992).

Families who report open communication and satisfaction with family interactions perceive themselves, in terms of the Circumplex Model of Family Systems, as higher on family cohesion and family adaptability (Barnes & Olson, 1985). Adolescents' disclosure to parents is strongly associated with family cohesion (Papini, Clark, Barnett & Snell, 1989). Communication in "balanced families" is more positive, especially with mothers, who have a significantly higher rate of supportive communication, than in families which are "extreme" on the dimensions of cohesion and adaptability (Rodick, Henggeler & Hansen, 1986). Balanced families are not extreme on either of the scales of cohesion or adaptability as measured by Olson's Circumplex Model of Family Systems. Steinberg (1987, 1988, 1990) found diminished levels of positive interaction and heightened bickering and squabbling over mundane issues of daily life during adolescence. However, this did not seem to negatively affect parent-adolescent bonding and cohesion, especially within the context of a close emotional relationship between parent and adolescent.

Family cohesion affects parent-teen relationships in many ways. For example, different levels of cohesion, adaptability and communication may create different moral expressions and preferences in adolescents (White, 1996). Substance abuse was more prevalent with adolescents in families with lower family cohesion, less adaptability and less family togetherness (Malkus, 1994). Delinquent behavior of adolescents was more likely to occur where family adaptability was low (Shields, 1995). In a study of depression in adolescents in therapy compared to a non-clinical group, Cumsille and Epstein (1994) found that the strongest predictor of depressive symptoms was the adolescent's level of satisfaction with cohesion and adaptability in their families. Family cohesion was inversely related to depression. This was especially true of depression among male adolescents.

Cohesion may vary with intact two-parent families and other forms of family. A study of 758 adolescents from intact families and 95 adolescents from stepfamilies found stepfamilies were less cohesive than intact families (Barber & Lyons, 1994). However, functional levels of cohesion are maintained when the children's biological parents continue to interact in a healthy manner. In a study of 50 non-custodial fathers, Esposito (1995) found functional levels of family cohesion when these fathers maintained quality interactions with their children and ex-wives.

In summary, parents and adolescents who perceive their communication as positive and open are higher in cohesion and adaptability. Mundane issues do not seem to affect a close emotional relationship between parents and adolescents. Levels of family cohesion vary with different forms of family, and adolescents from families with lower levels of cohesion may be more susceptible to substance abuse and depression.

Prosocial behavior

Prosocial behavior is that which is acceptable to society in general. As adolescents search for identity and move toward independence, they often challenge prosocial behavior. According to several researchers, the challenge of psychosocial development is both a search for individuality and connectedness (Bakan, 1966; Block, 1973; Chodorow, 1978; Cooper, Grotevant & Condon, 1983; Gilligan, 1982; Hassan & Bar-yam, 1987; Leaper, 1989; Selman, 1989; White, Speisman, Costos & Smith, 1987). Connectedness with parents is crucial during adolescent identity exploration. This connectedness enables parents to provide supportive behavior to their adolescent children as they seek independence and identity. Parental supportive behavior is related to prosocial outcomes in children of all ages and across ethnic, social and cultural boundaries (Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Rhoner, 1986; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). Adolescent prosocial behaviors are enhanced when behavioral expectations are clearly specified and reinforced with praise, encouragement and other positive rewards (Coombs & Landsverk, 1988; Benson, Williams & Johnson, 1987). Family closeness is negatively correlated with adolescent delinquent behavior. In a study of 471 adolescents, Barber and Buehler (1996) found that cohesion was negatively associated with adolescent delinquent behavior, both externalized and internalized. Prosocial behavior was clearly associated with positive parent-teen interaction and parental support.

Psychological development

Psychological development of adolescents is related to positive parent-teen interaction. Warm family relationships, clear expectations of adolescents and autonomy all

contribute to adolescent psychological development. Adolescents thrive developmentally when their family environment is characterized by warm relationships in which individuals are permitted to express their opinions and assert their individuality and in which parents expect mature behavior and set and enforce reasonable rules and standards (Grotevant & Cooper 1986; Cotterell, 1992). The opportunity for individuality and autonomy is needed for adolescents to complete the "task of adolescence".

Parents are more likely now than thirty years ago to emphasize autonomy for their children (Demo, 1992), and adolescents who report more autonomy also report better communication with both mother and father (Hamil, 1988). Conversely, children who are over controlled psychologically may lack confidence to deal with the external world (Barber, 1992) and may lack social competence with peers. These children may withdraw and refuse or be unable to take social initiative (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Intrusive psychological control can limit the child's opportunity for self-discovery, disrupt the individuation process and transmit anxiety to the child (Costanzo & Woody, 1985). Adolescents are adversely affected by psychological control but positively affected by behavioral control (Steinberg, 1990). Disagreements concerning everyday issues may be viewed as adaptive, and part of the negotiation of independence between adolescents and their parents. This may facilitate adjustment and individuation (Holmbeck & O' Donnell, 1991). In a study of family interaction and individual psychological health, Amerikaner (1994) found that psychological health in 301 undergraduates was positively related to family cohesion, satisfaction with family and communication with parents.

In summary, positive parent-teen interaction in a warm family environment positively influences adolescent psychological development. Adolescents thrive in such an

environment. A lack of this kind of an environment is negatively associated with psychological development and adversely affects the adolescent.

Self-esteem

Adolescent females who experienced positive communication in their relationship with their mothers perceived themselves to have high self-esteem (Lyle & Newton, 1979: Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Intimacy between adolescents and their fathers is positively correlated with self-esteem (LeCroy, 1988; Wenk, Hardesty, Morgan & Blair, 1994).

Parental supportive behavior is positively related to adolescent self-esteem, and controlling behavior is negatively related to adolescent self-esteem (Barber, 1990; Barber & Thomas, 1986; Felson & Zielinski, 1989; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Demo, Small & Savin-Williams, 1987). Lack of parental support is associated with low self-esteem (Peterson & Rollins, 1987; Simon & Miller, 1987).

Adolescent self-esteem is directly affected by the adolescent's relationship with his parents. It may even be said that a strong parent-teen relationship is a harbinger of adolescent self-esteem.

Disclosure

Adolescent disclosure to parents is strongly associated with their perceptions of openness of family communication, family cohesion and satisfaction with family relationships (Papini, Sebby & Clark, 1989). Communication difficulties are associated with relationship difficulties (Gottman, 1979; Prinz, Foster, Kent & O' Leary, 1979).

Memories and recollections of communicative interactions contribute to the quality of relationships (Duck, 1990; Surra & Ridley, 1991).

Parental support

Adolescents establish supportive relationships in three major areas: the family, the school and the world of their peers (Armsden & Greenburg, 1987; Offer, Ostrov & Howard, 1981; Dunn, Putallaz, Sheppard & Lindstrom, 1987). According to Offer, Ostrov & Howard (1981), adolescent well-being is still dependent upon positive relationships with parents.

Parental support affects adolescents' social competence, attitudes toward self, risk-taking behavior and life satisfaction. Parental support is defined as physical affection, companionship and sustained contact, and consists of variables such as acceptance, open communication, expressive and instrumental affection, nurturance, rapport, responsiveness and companionship (Barber & Thomas, 1986; Peterson, Rollins, Thomas & Ellis, 1980; Rhoner, 1986). After reviewing the extensive research on parental support, Rollins and Thomas (1979) conclude that the greater the parental support, the greater the child's social competence. They defined support as "behavior manifest by a parent toward a child that makes the child feel comfortable in the presence of the parent and confirms in the child's mind that he is basically accepted and approved as a person by the parent" (Rollins & Thomas, 1979, p.320). Parental support is an important antecedent in the development of positive attitudes of children towards themselves and their life circumstances (Barber, Olsen & Shagle, 1994; Barber & Thomas, 1986; Felson & Zielinski, 1989).

In a study of more than 2,500 teenagers and their sexual risk-taking behaviors, Luster and Small (1994) found that high risk females received lower levels of support from their parents. In addition, they were less likely to talk with their mothers about birth control than those in the low-risk group who were more likely to have discussed birth control with their mothers.

Another study assessed family characteristics as predictors of treatment outcome for adolescent substance abusers. The more positively subjects described the family's functioning and relationships at pretreatment, the more improvement was reported after treatment. FACES and the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory were two of the instruments used for assessment in this study (Friedman, 1995).

Positive perceptions of adolescents by their parents resulted in less conflict for those families. The opposite also was true, as negative perceptions of children by parents resulted in more conflict (Barber, 1994).

Adolescents' perceptions of parental support and closeness are positively correlated to their life satisfaction (Young, Miller, Norton & Hill, 1995). Conversely, adjustment difficulties in adolescents are directly linked to the lack of emotional support from parents. In a sample of normal and disturbed 13 to 18 year-olds Offer, Ostrov & Howard (1981) found the disturbed group was less close to parents, trusted parents less and relied upon them for help less than the normal group. Lack of parental support is associated with low self-esteem, delinquency, deviance, drug abuse and other problem behaviors (Peterson & Rollins, 1987; Simon & Miller, 1987).

Parental support continues to be a positive and necessary factor in parent-teen relationships. Parental support affects children's social competence and attitudes towards themselves and is correlated with children's life satisfaction.

Gender differences

Gender of both parents and teenagers affect parent-teen interaction. Fathers and mothers in general treat their sons and daughters differently (Harris & Morgan, 1991; Siegal, 1987). The typical teenager is twice as likely to get along better with his mother as with his father (Bezilla, 1988). Mothers report more positive communication with their adolescents than do fathers (Barnes & Olson, 1985). The intensity of the mother-daughter relationship is greatest, and the father-daughter relationship is least intense (Steinberg, 1987). Girls with eating disorders reported more problems with their fathers with autonomy and problem solving than did girls without eating disorders. Parents did not report any difference, but subjects reported more global distress, dysfunctional family patterns and problems with their fathers (Eme, R.F. & Danielak, M.H., 1995). Girls report a better relationship with their mothers than do boys (Van Wel, 1994). Parents are reported to emphasize interpersonal closeness and intimacy more in daughters and encourage separation and autonomy more in sons (Block, 1983; Feldman, 1982; Huston, 1983; Leaper, 1989). While both boys and girls report a decline in affection between fifth and ninth grade, the greatest decline is in affection from fathers (Benson, Williams & Johnson, 1987).

Females exhibit greater self-disclosure to parents and peers than males (Papini, Clark, Barnett & Savage, 1989). Girls are more likely to talk to their mothers about

friends, their bodies, sex (Keith, 1985; Nolin & Petersen, 1992) and personal issues (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Fathers engage in less communication about sexuality with children of either gender than do mothers (Kahn, Smith & Roberts, 1984; Fox, 1986).

Both females and males report that they feel close or very close to both mother and father, but in times of stress males are more likely to keep their feelings to themselves (Keith, 1985). Sons report less communication within the family, fewer opportunities to discuss sexuality with the same sex parent and less discussion of topics likely to teach family values and norms about sexual behavior (Nolin & Petersen, 1992).

Female adolescents generally experience more conflict with parents than males, but males report more conflicts with parents concerning specific issues such as money (Ellis-Schwabe & Thornburg, 1986), drugs, cursing and drinking (Papini, Clark, Barnett & Savage, 1989).

To summarize, both male and female adolescents seem to interact better and report closer relationships with their mothers than with their fathers. Girls exhibit more self disclosure to their mothers than to their fathers, especially about sexual and personal issues. They also experience more conflict with their parents. Daughters experience more intimacy and closeness, while sons experience more autonomy. Fathers engage in less communication and give less affection than mothers.

Age of adolescents

Age of adolescents affects both parent-teen interaction and degree of conflict between parents and adolescents. The family is the preferred forum to express emotions for younger adolescents, while the peer group is the preferred forum for expressing

emotions for older adolescents (Papini Clark, Barnett & Snell, 1989). Older adolescents disclose significantly more to friends than do younger adolescents (Papini, Clark, Barnett & Snell, 1989). In contrast, Benson (1990), in a study of 46,000 6th to 12th grade students, reported an increase in parent adolescent communication from early to late adolescence (56% of 12th graders reported parent-teen communication as an asset compared to 44% of 6th to 8th graders). Older teens reported better relations with their mothers than did younger teens (Bezilla, 1988). Benson's study was supported by a later longitudinal study, which reported adolescent-parent intimacy from early adolescence to young adulthood. This study found that both boys and girls reported increases in intimacy with fathers over time. For boys, the increase in intimacy with mothers was greater from 8th to 12th grades than the increase through the young adult period. Girls' intimacy with mothers also increased over this time period. However, greater increases occurred during young adulthood for girls. Rice and Mulkeen (1995) found stability in parent-daughter and mother-son intimacy over time. Several researchers found a decrease in the amount of parent/adolescent conflict from middle to late adolescence (Papini & Sebby, 1987; Papini, Clark, Barnett & Savage, 1989; Smetana, 1988; Sullivan & Sullivan, 1980). It is possible that older adolescents may heighten their memories of certain communication interactions and diminish their memories of others (Ross & Sicoly, 1979).

In summary, while it has been generally recognized by many that older adolescents are closer to peer groups than younger adolescents, other research indicates older adolescents still regard their parents' interaction as very important to them. In many cases older adolescents report better relationships with parents than do younger adolescents.

Perceptions

Perceptions about parent-teen relationships are not always accurate, nor does everyone in a family agree when describing the relationships. For some, especially parents, social desirability is a factor to be considered. Parents generally report higher levels of communication with adolescents than do adolescents with parents (Barnes & Olson, 1985; Keith, 1985) and view their relationship as more positive and less conflictual than adolescents (Montemayor, 1986; Smetana, 1989; Olson, Russell & Sprenkle 1983; Moos, 1974). Parents who experienced a stormy adolescence themselves may reflect that experience in their relationship with their adolescent children. Scheer (1995) discovered that parents who experienced greater storm and stress in their teen years had more conflict in their relationships with their adolescent children and were less satisfied with their families. In a study of discrepancies between adolescents' and parents' perception of family functioning, Ohannessian (1995), found that 6th and 7th grade boys and girls perceived lower levels of family cohesion than their parents perceived. They also perceived lower levels of family adjustment than did both parents. Another study, which compared preadolescent children with behavior disorders with children without behavior disorders, found that parents who accurately perceived their children's perceptions tended to have children with fewer behavior disorders. These parents also tended to expect their children to have more positive self-concepts (Schor, Stidley & Malspeis, 1995). Adolescents' perceptions of parent-child relationships may be more accurate since they seem less susceptible to social desirability effects (Niemi, 1974).

Summary

Positive parent-teen interaction is positively related to adolescent school attitudes and achievement, adolescent identity, family cohesion and adaptability, adolescent self-esteem, disclosure to parents, adolescent prosocial behavior, adolescent psychological development and parental support. Gender of parent, gender of adolescent and age of adolescent also are related to positive parent-teen interaction. Perceptions of parents and adolescents differ. Parents are likely to perceive family relationships as more positive than adolescent family members. Responses of parents are likely to reflect a social desirability factor.

CHAPTER 3 METHODS

This exploratory study of the influence of participation in a Parent-Teen-Event (PTE) by parents and adolescents on parent-teen interaction is quasi-experimental in nature. Quasi-experiments are "distinguished from true experiments primarily by the lack of random assignment of subjects to an experimental and a control group" (Babbie, 1989, p333). Exploratory studies are done to "satisfy the researcher's curiosity and desire for better understanding" and "whenever the researcher is breaking new ground"(Babbie, 1989, p80-81). Parent-Teen-Events have never been studied for their effectiveness in positively influencing parent-teen interaction. In that sense this study is exploratory. Because there is no random assignment of subjects to experimental and control groups this study is quasi-experimental in nature.

This study of Parent-Teen Events was conducted in a partially controlled environment, a seminar group setting. An assessment was given to each participant at the beginning of the one-day seminar at the seminar site. The posttest was completed at home three months after the seminar. Although this time span was chosen mainly because of time limitations of this research, a three-month interval was considered sufficient to observe changes in parent-teen interaction.

A control group was used with pretests and posttests given three months apart. This group, chosen from a convenience sample, did not participate in the seminar. A convenience sample differs from a random sample in that participants are not chosen randomly but rather because of their availability to the researcher. The control group for

this study was comparable to the experimental seminar group in the sense that the experimental group was composed of families that participated in a PTE, and the control group was composed of families scheduled to participate in a PTE. Some control group families attended a PTE later, but some scheduled events did not occur due to cancellation by the churches or conflicts with other church scheduled events.

The unit of analysis was adolescents and their parents. Individual self-reports of parents and adolescents were treated as independently valid measures of family properties. Participants in Parent Teen Events composed of 15 to 30 families each comprised the experimental group.

Purpose

The major purpose of this research was to assess the influence of a Parent-Teen Event (PTE) on positive parent-teen interaction, family cohesion and family adaptability, as measured by the instruments and statistics chosen by the researcher. The following research objectives and questions further clarify and expand the purposes of this study:

Research Objectives

1. To assess the influence of a PTE on positive parent-teen interaction.
2. To assess the influence of a PTE on family cohesion.
3. To assess the influence of a PTE on family adaptability.
4. To assess differences in the level of positive parent-teen interaction, family cohesion and family adaptability among different age adolescents.
5. To assess differences in the level of positive parent-teen interaction, family cohesion and family adaptability due to gender.

6. To assess differences in the level of positive parent-teen interaction, family cohesion and family adaptability due to other family characteristics in the conceptual model (Figure 3).

Research Questions

1. Does participation in a PTE affect parent-teen interaction, and if so, how?
2. Does the amount of positive parent-teen interaction differ with the gender of the parent or adolescent, and if so, how?
3. Does the level of positive parent-teen interaction vary with the age of the adolescent, and if so, how?
4. Does participation in a PTE affect family cohesion, and if so, how?
5. Does the amount of family cohesion differ with the gender of the parent or adolescent, and if so, how?
6. Does the level of family cohesion vary with the age of the adolescent, and if so, how?
7. Does participation in a PTE affect family adaptability, and if so, how?
8. Does the amount of family adaptability differ with the gender of the parent or adolescent, and if so, how?
9. Does the level of family adaptability vary with the age of the adolescent, and if so, how?
10. Are any of the three major dependent variables affected by other family characteristics in the conceptual model, and if so, how (Figure 3)?

Research Hypotheses

In order to accomplish these objectives and answer the research questions the following null and alternative hypotheses were proposed:

H_{o1} There is no significant difference between the levels of positive parent-teen interaction for PTE participants and non-participants.

H_{a1} There is a significantly higher level of positive parent-teen interaction for PTE participants than for non-participants.

H_{o2} There is no significant difference between the levels of positive parent-teen interaction for fathers and mothers.

H_{a2} There is a significantly higher level of positive parent-teen interaction for mothers than for fathers.

H_{o3} There is no significant difference between the levels of positive parent-teen interaction for adolescent boys and girls.

H_{a3} There is a significantly higher level of positive parent-teen interaction for adolescent girls than for boys.

H_{o4} There is no significant difference between the levels of positive parent-teen interaction for various age adolescents.

H_{a4} There is a significantly higher level of positive parent-teen interaction in younger adolescents than for older adolescents.

H_{o5} There is no significant difference between the levels of family cohesion for PTE participants and non-participants.

H_{a5} There is a significantly higher level of family cohesion for PTE participants than for non-participants.

H_{o6} There is no significant difference between the levels of family cohesion for fathers and mothers.

H_{a6} There is a significantly higher level of family cohesion for mothers than for fathers.

H_{o7} There is no significant difference between the levels of family cohesion for adolescent boys and girls.

H_{a7} There is a significantly higher level of family cohesion for adolescent girls than for adolescent boys.

H_{o8} There is no significant difference between the levels of family cohesion for various age adolescents.

H_{a8} There is a significantly higher level of family cohesion for younger adolescents than for older adolescents.

H_{o9} There is no significant difference between the levels of family adaptability for PTE participants and non-participants.

H_{a9} There is a significantly higher level of family adaptability for PTE participants than for non-participants.

H_{o10} There is no significant difference between the levels of family adaptability for fathers and mothers.

H_{a10} There is a significantly higher level of family adaptability for mothers than for fathers.

H_{o11} There is no significant difference between the levels of family adaptability for adolescent boys and girls.

H_{a11} There is a significantly higher level of family adaptability for adolescent girls than for adolescent boys.

H_{o12} There is no significant difference between the levels of family adaptability for various age adolescents.

H_{a12} There is a significantly higher level of family adaptability for older adolescents than for younger adolescents.

H_{o13} There is no significant difference for any of the three major variables due to other family characteristics in the conceptual model (figure 3).

H_{a13} There is a significantly higher level of family adaptability for families with higher SES than for families with lower SES (as measured by education, occupation and income).

The .05 level of significance was required to reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative hypotheses.

Ecological Framework

This study is approached from an ecological perspective, which is mainly based on the work of Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1986) and Bubolz and Sontag (1990). These family theorists proposed that families or individuals cannot be studied appropriately apart from a consideration of the environment in which they live, and the various interactions which occur within that environment. This environment is called the ecosystem. "Environments are not simply objective external conditions in which families exist. They are subjectively experienced, and the family and its members perceive, interpret, and create meaning on the

basis of their needs, values, and goals (Bubolz & Sontag, 1990, p20). Several assumptions are made in regard to the basic premises of an ecosystem.

1. As human groups, families are part of the total life system, interdependent with other forms of life and the nonliving environment.
2. Families are semi-open, goal directed, dynamic, adaptive systems. They can respond, change, develop, and can act on and modify their environment.
3. All parts of the environment are interrelated and influence each other.
4. Families interact with multiple environments.
5. Environments do not determine human behavior but pose limitations and constraints as well as possibilities and opportunities for families.
6. Families have varying degrees of control and freedom with respect to environmental interactions (Bubolz & Sontag, 1990, pp.16-17)

Bubolz and Sontag (1990) proposed a model (Figure 1) which conceptualizes three interrelated environments: (1) the natural physical-biological environment, (2) the human-built environment, and (3) the social-cultural environment. They define and describe these environments as follows:

> The natural physical-biological environment includes physical and biological components...as they exist unaltered in nature. The human built environment includes alterations and transformations made by humans of the natural physical-biological environment...The social-cultural environment includes the presence of other human beings... abstract cultural constructions (e.g., language, laws, norms, and cultural values)...and social and economic institutions (e.g., the social-regulatory system, agricultural-industrial system, and market economy)...

> The environment can be conceptualized in terms of its proximity...to the family physically, psychologically, and socially...People develop emotional attachments to their environment...*and* may attach special meanings to various components, and meanings may differ within families (Bubolz & Sontag, 1990, p28-29).

Individuals and families tend to personalize and take possession of their near environment, and complete and change it to be consistent with their own values and goals. This contributes to their personal and family identity within the community. The perception of an adequate environment gives families and individuals choices, which in turn bring satisfaction and fulfillment (Bubolz & Sontag, 1990).

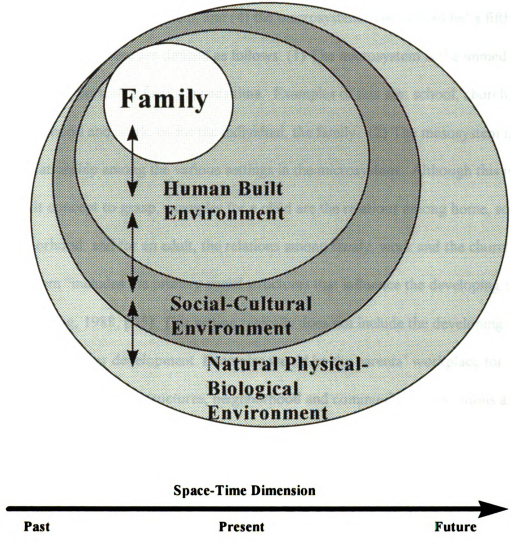


Figure 1 - A Family Ecosystem

Adapted from Bubolz and Sontag, 1990

Bronfenbrenner proposed a somewhat different model (Figure 2) which describes the ecological environment as composed of four levels: (1) the microsystem, (2) the mesosystem, (3) the exosystem, and (4) the macrosystem. He later added a fifth level, the chronosystem. These are defined as follows: (1) The microsystem is the immediate setting in which the person or family spends time. Examples of this are: school, church, neighborhood and work, or for the individual, the family. (2) The mesosystem is the interrelationship among the various settings in the microsystem. Although this is a more difficult concept to grasp, examples for a child are the relations among home, school and neighborhood, and for an adult, the relations among family, work and the church. (3) The exosystem "includes the primary social structures that influence the developing person" (Schiamberg, 1988, p55). This setting typically does not include the developing person, but affects his/her development. Examples would be the parents' workplace for a child, political/governmental structures, neighborhood and community organizations and informal communication networks. (4) The macrosystem is defined as "the broad ideological values, norms, and institutional patterns of a particular culture which make up the blueprints for that culture's ecology of human development" (Bubolz & Sontag, 1990, p11). Examples of this are: the value that a society places on a child or family, the value society places on education, and the expectations of a particular culture of the family member at various ages or stages of development. (5) The chronosystem examines a person's or family's continuity and change over time in the environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

Although Bronfenbrenner's model is similar in some respects to that of Bubolz and Sontag, Bronfenbrenner does not focus on the interdependence of natural and built environments with social and psychological environments (Bubolz & Sontag, 1990).

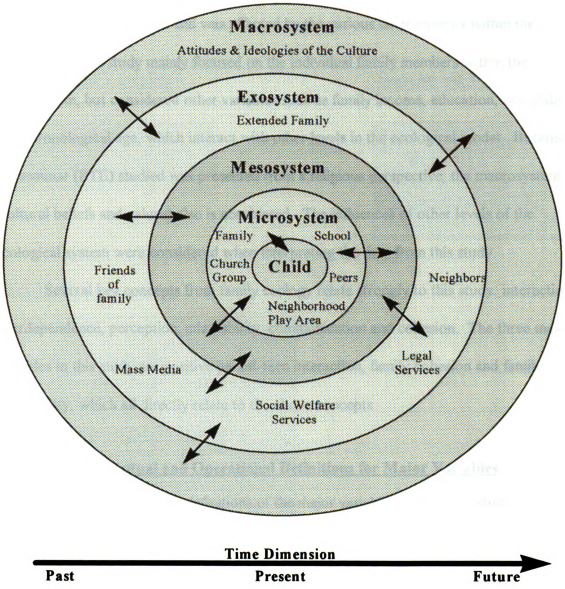


Figure 2 - Bronfenbrenner's Model of the Ecology of Human Development

(Adapted)

Child & Adolescent Development, Lawrence B. Schiamberg. Macmillan, 1988

This present study assessed family members interacting together, adapting to each other and building cohesive relationships. All of this occurred within multiple environments, and affected and was affected by the various environments within the ecosystem. This study mainly focused on the individual family members within the microsystem, but considered other variables such as family income, education, occupation and chronological age, which interact with other levels in the ecological model. Because the seminar (PTE) studied was presented from a religious perspective, the macrosystem (cultural beliefs and values) also is considered. The influences of other levels of the ecological system were considered when interpreting the data from this study.

Several key concepts from family ecology relate strongly to this study: interaction, interdependence, perception, adaptability, communication and cohesion. The three major variables in this study are positive parent-teen interaction, family cohesion and family adaptability, which all directly relate to the above concepts.

Conceptual and Operational Definitions for Major Variables

This section provides definitions of the major variables used in this study. Operational definitions follow conceptual definitions. The following conceptual model (Figure 3) identifies the independent variable, the dependent variables and other participant characteristics, which may affect the dependent variables. Definitions of variables and operational definitions follow.

Conceptual Model

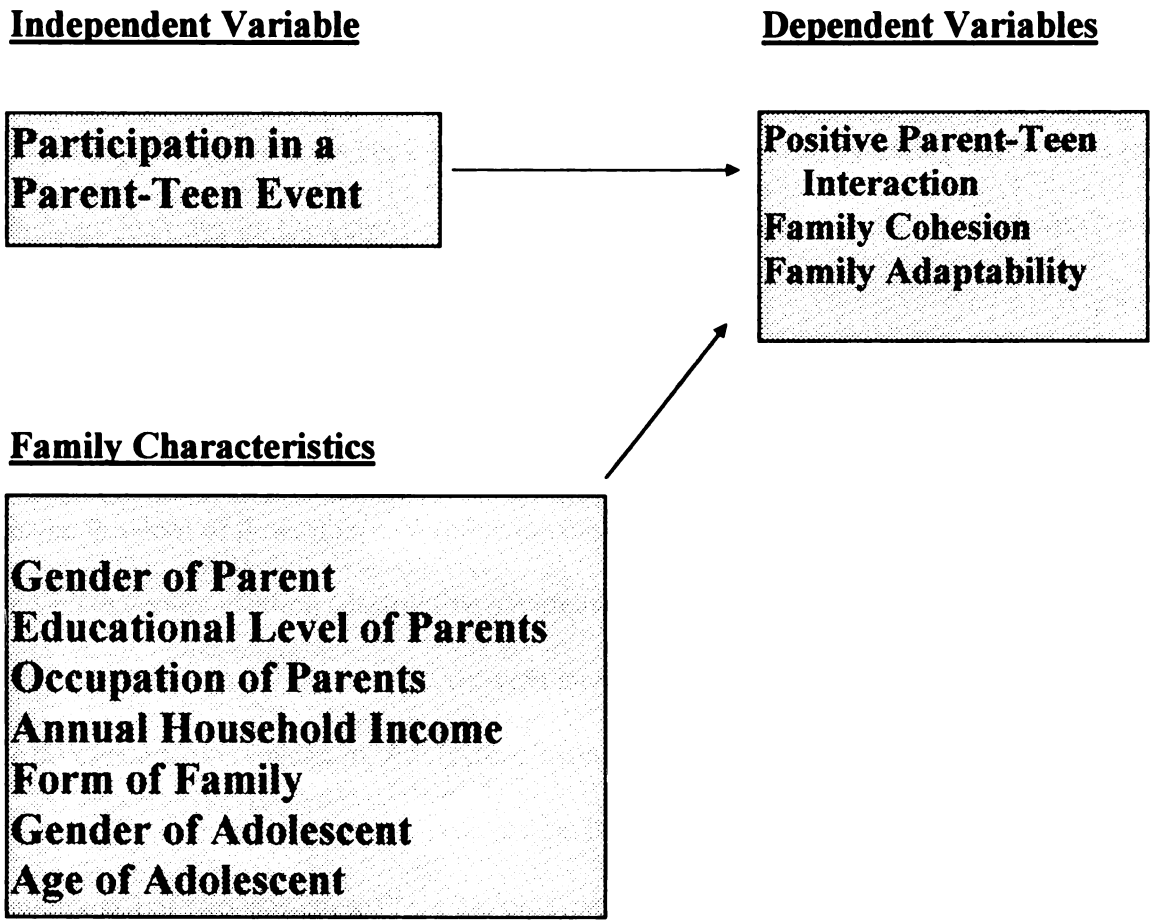


Figure 3 - Conceptual Model

Participation in a Parent-Teen Event (PTE) is the independent variable. The level of positive parent-teen interaction is the major dependent variable. Two other important dependent variables are family cohesion and family adaptability. Several participant characteristics also are important and are listed and defined.

A **family** is defined as at least one parent and at least one adolescent aged 12-18 living together in the same household. This was operationalized by asking adolescents to indicate their age on the questionnaire and also to indicate whether they resided with both parents, one parent, or live elsewhere.

Positive parent-teen interaction is conceptually defined as communication between parents and adolescents that can be described as: (1) open communication, which is the freedom of flow of factual and emotional information and (2) the absence of problem communication (destructive communication patterns and avoidance tactics).

Operationally, positive parent-teen interaction was measured by the Parent-Adolescent Communication: Adolescent Form and by the Parent-Adolescent Communication: Parent Form, developed by Barnes and Olson (1982). This instrument is composed of two subscales: Open Family Communication and Problems in Family Communication. Positive communication scores range from 20 to 100.

Family cohesion is conceptually defined as the emotional bonding that family members have toward one another, ranging from disengaged (low) to very connected (high). The following eight concepts are related to family cohesion: emotional bonding, family boundaries, coalitions, time, space, friends, decision-making, interests and recreation. Operationally, family cohesion was measured by FACES II and is reported on

four levels, disengaged, separated, connected, and very connected. Family cohesion scores range from 15 (disengaged) to 80 (very connected).

Family adaptability is conceptually defined as the ability of a family system to change its structure, its relationships and its rules in response to various stressors. The following six concepts are related to family adaptability: assertiveness, leadership, discipline, negotiation, roles and rules.

Operationally, family adaptability was measured by FACES II and is reported on four levels: rigid, structured, flexible and very flexible. Family adaptability scores range from 15 (rigid) to 70 (very flexible).

Family participation in a PTE is conceptually defined as at least one parent and at least one adolescent aged 12-18 who reside together, and attended all four sessions of a PTE. A Parent-Teen Event is approximately six hours in length and consists of four one and one-half hour sessions in which parents and teens are guided through discussion and exercises together on the following subjects: Family Appreciation, Family Communication, Family Conflict Resolution and Family Time Together. These topics have been identified as family strengths by Stinnett and DeFrain (1985), and are related to the major dependent variable, positive parent-teen interaction.

Operationally, participation in a PTE was measured by asking parents and adolescents to indicate on the questionnaire if they participated in all four sessions of the PTE. Experimental and control groups were coded as follows:

Parent experimental group = PE

Adolescent experimental group = AE

Parent control group = PC

Adolescent group = AC

Conceptual and Operational Definitions for Participant Characteristics

Data concerning the following participant characteristics were gathered on the demographic portion of the questionnaire. Conceptual definitions are given when necessary with operational definitions following.

Parent Characteristics

Gender of parent was measured by asking parents to indicate whether they are male or female. These were coded 1 and 2 respectively.

Educational level of parent was measured by asking respondents to indicate the highest level of education completed in one of six categories ranging from less than high school to graduate degree. These six categories were coded 1-6 respectively.

Occupation was measured by asking respondents to indicate which type of occupation best describes their work from a list of seven categories. These categories are taken from Olson's instrument PREPARE (Olson, Fournier & Druckman, 1988). Category 1 = Professionals, doctors, lawyers, executives; category 2 = Other professionals, managers, teachers, nurses; category 3 = Skilled and building trades, farmer; category 4 = Sales, technicians, clerical; category 5 = Laborer, factory worker, waitress, category 6 = General service employees; and category 7 = Homemaker.

Annual household income as measured by asking parents to indicate numerically their annual household income (before taxes). Actual numbers were recorded.

Form of family was measured by asking participants to indicate the best description of their family from five choices: (1) two-parent biological family, (2) stepfamily, (3) blended family, (4) single parent family, or (5) other. These were coded 1-5. These five categories were later collapsed into two categories and coded: 1=two-parent biological family, 2=other.

The demographic section of the parent's questionnaire (Appendix C) measured parents' gender, age, education, occupation, income and marital status.

Adolescent Characteristics

Gender of adolescent was measured by asking adolescents to indicate whether they are male or female. These were coded 1 and 2 respectively.

Age of adolescent was measured by asking respondents to indicate their actual age. Actual age was recorded.

Form of family was measured by asking respondents to indicate whether they lived with: (1) both biological parents, (2) with one parent, (3) with parent and step-parent, (4) other. These were coded 1-4. These categories were later collapsed into two categories, (1) both biological parents, and (2) other. This was done because of the limited size of cell groups.

Only the gender, age and form of family were requested on the adolescent's questionnaire. These were reported on the adolescent demographic portion of the questionnaire (Appendix D).

Instruments

Two standardized instruments were used for this study: Inventory of Parent-Adolescent Communication and FACES II (Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales). Following are descriptions of these two instruments adapted from Touliatos, Perlmutter, and Straus (1990) and Olson and Tiesel (1991).

Inventory of Parent-adolescent Communication

This instrument was selected for its ability to measure the two major elements of positive parent-teen interaction, open communication and problems in family communication. Permission to use this instrument for research was granted by Dr. David Olson (Appendix E).

Developers: Barnes, H. & Olson, D.H., 1982

Variables measured: Amount of openness, problems or barriers to family communication, and selectivity of family members in their discussions with other family members.

Sample for Barnes and Olson study: n=1841

Type of instrument: Self-report questionnaire

Description: This instrument is a 20-item Likert-type scale designed to measure both positive and negative aspects of communication between teenagers and their parents as well as content and process variables of communication. This scale can be used for both parents and teenagers and was derived from an initial pool of 35 items. Two subscales are included. The first, Open Family Communication, is designed to measure positive aspects of communication between parents and their adolescent children. "The focus is on the freedom of free flowing exchange of information, both factual and

emotional as well as on the sense of lack of constraint and degree of understanding and satisfaction experienced in their interactions. The second subscale, Problems in Family Communication, focuses on the negative aspects of communication: hesitancy to share, negative styles of interaction, and selectivity and caution in what is shared" (Olson et al., 1985, p56). All items on both subscales utilize a 5-point Likert Scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Following reversal of scores in the problems subscale, items within subscales were summed to arrive at composite scores.

Items and factor loadings: See Appendix F

Construct validity: Factor analysis for combined parent and adolescent data ranges from .48 to .71 for factor I (Open Family Communication), and from .26 to .60 for factor II (Problems in Family Communication).

Reliability: Cronbach's alpha = .88 for instrument, .87 for Open Communication scale, and .78 for Problems in Communication scale. Test/Retest = .60 for instrument, .78 for Open Communication scale, and .77 for Problems in Communication scale. The interval between the first and second administration of the test was four to five weeks.

Scoring: The total score is a summed score but it is necessary to distinguish items from the two subscales. Problems in Family Communication score responses were reversed in point value, changing every 5 to a 1, 1 to a 5, 4 to a 2 and 2 to a 4. Items 2, 4, 5, 10, 11, 12, 15, 18, 19, 20 were then summed and added to the responses on the first subscale (items 1, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 16, 17) Open Family Communication for a summed total. Descriptive statistics for total scale scores are as follows (Table 1).

Table 1 - Communication: Test sample

	Fathers	Mothers	Adolescents regarding their mothers:	Adolescents regarding their fathers
Mean	72.55	75.47	66.56	63.74
S.D.	10.74	11.12	12.10	12.02

FACES II (Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales)

This instrument was selected for its ability to measure the two key dependent variables, family cohesion and family adaptability. Family cohesion and family adaptability were measured separately, then combined to produce the family type.

Developers: Olson, D.H., Portner, J., & Lavee, Y. (1985), Olson, D.H. & Tiesel, J. (1991). Permission to use this instrument for research was granted by Dr. David Olson (Appendix E).

Variables measured: Family cohesion and adaptability

Type of instrument: Self-rating questionnaire

Description: This instrument classifies families into 4 general family types (Balanced, Moderately Balanced, Mid-Range and Extreme) combining adaptability and cohesion dimensions. This 30-item instrument which was titled "Family Interaction Inventory" in the survey was administered to individuals within families. Each item asked the frequency of a specific behavior using a 5-point Likert response format with responses ranging from almost never to almost always.

Scoring: Linear scoring is recommended and used for FACES II. Cohesion is scored by summing the negative items (3,9,15,19,25, & 29), then subtracting from the constant of 36. This subtotal is then added to the sum of items 1, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 21, 23,

27, & 30. This results in a total cohesion score, which ranges from 16-80. Adaptability is scored by summing the negative items (24 & 28), then subtracting from the constant of 12. This subtotal is then added to the sum of items 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22 & 26. This results in a total adaptability score, which ranges from 15-70.

Sample: Adults (N=2,453), Families with adolescents (N=1,315), Adolescents (N=412), Young couples (N=242).

Items: See Appendix G

Validity: Concurrent validity when compared with Dallas Self-Report Family Inventory which measures constructs similar to cohesion and adaptability is .93 for cohesion and .79 for adaptability (Hampson, Hulgus, & Beavers, 1991).

Reliability: Cronbach's alpha = .87 for cohesion, .78 for adaptability, and .90 for the entire instrument. Test/retest reliability for this instrument before revision from 50 items to 30 items over a 4-week interval: cohesion = .83, adaptability = .80. Test/retest values were not available for the revised instrument.

Research Sample

This quasi-experimental study was conducted in major metropolitan areas with populations of 100,000 to 600,000. Major metropolitan areas were chosen because of the number of churches available needed to enroll a minimum number of participants. Families paid a fee of $55.00 for attending the seminar and participated in a PTE on a voluntary basis. Most groups to which the seminar was presented were white middle and upper-middle class Protestant church groups, with families from several churches combining for a PTE. This may limit generalizability of the study to similar populations.

The sampling frame consisted of PTE participants in 1993-1994 seminars conducted in the continental USA and Canada. The study population consisted of all PTE participants who agreed to be a part of the experimental group. One hundred sixty-one (161) parents and one hundred twenty-one (121) adolescents participated in the study at time one. Families who participated were given a free cassette tape series or a book, the value of which was about $10.

Participants for the control group were selected from various church groups that were scheduled to participate in future PTEs. Pastors from these churches were approached personally, shown the research questionnaires and asked to encourage their families with adolescent children to participate in the seminar and be a part of the research. Participants in the control group also were given a free cassette tape series or book in appreciation for their participation in the research project. A letter (Appendix H) was sent to each family whose name was given to the researcher by the pastor requesting their participation in the seminar and research project.

Data collection

The method of data collection was a self-report questionnaire which was given to parents and adolescents in the experimental group. The questionnaire given to parents included demographic data, FACES II and the Inventory of Parent-Adolescent Communication: Parent Form. The adolescent form included limited demographic data (gender, age, and form of family), FACES II, and the Inventory of Parent-Adolescent Communication: Adolescent Form. Two sets of questionnaires were given to participants: The first set was handed out to PTE participants at the seminar location before any

seminar content was presented. These were completed and collected by the seminar leader at the seminar location. The second set was mailed three months after the completion of the seminar with a request to complete and return immediately in the enclosed self-addressed envelope. A follow-up reminder letter was sent to participants one week after the second questionnaire was due to be returned.

The control group received the same questionnaires as the experimental group. One hundred families were contacted and asked to participate in the project. Forty-one (41) parents and thirty-six (36) adolescents participated in the control group at time one. This amounted to a response rate of 21% (21 families). Two sets of questionnaires were mailed to each family agreeing to participate in the study. The first copy was mailed with a cover letter (Appendix I). The second set of questionnaires was sent three months later. These were completed in a natural setting, the home environment. Two follow-up letters were mailed requesting completion and returning of the questionnaires. The first letter was sent one week after the first forms were due to be returned, and the second letter was sent one week after the second set of forms was due to be returned.

Research was approved prior to data collection by UCRIHS of Michigan State University (Appendix J).

Analysis of data

In order to meet the objectives of this study the following statistical analyses were conducted:

Descriptive statistics were used to describe both the experimental and the control groups demographically. These groups were described at T1, before the seminar.

ANOVA was used to measure differences between experimental and control groups at T1 and the influence of other variables. The .05 level of significance was required to reject the null hypotheses.

ANCOVA was used to test the research hypotheses. This statistical test was chosen for its ability to measure continuous and discrete variables simultaneously. *ANCOVA* also allows the measurement of interaction effects of other variables. All hypotheses were tested by comparing the dependent variable (posttest scores of experimental and control groups) by group and gender with the covariant (pretest scores of experimental and control groups). The .05 level of significance was required to reject the null hypotheses.

Pearson correlation coefficients were used to measure the relationship between major variables and family characteristics. Correlation coefficients were also calculated to measure the relationships between major variables at T1 and T2.

Limitations of the study

There are several limitations to this study. The first and most serious limitation is the nonprobability sample, which limits generalizability. This type of study is utilized for

certain studies based on the nature of the research aims (Babbie, 1989, p204). The aim of this research was to assess the influence of a Parent-Teen Event on participating families.

Another major limitation to this study is the limited number of responses from participants in the PTE. Although 161 parents and 121 adolescents responded at Time 1, only 49 parents and 38 adolescents responded at Time 2 (after participating in the PTE), which limits generalizability. Sample size was decreased even further in order to insure appropriate comparison of time one respondents and time two respondents. The final numbers used for this study were 44 parents and 32 adolescents who responded at both time one and time two. This amounts to a response rate of about 25%. However, when T1 participants in the experimental group who also participated at T2 were compared (by *T-Tests*) with T1 participants who dropped out at T2, only one significant difference, parents' age, was found. Non-participants were one and one-half years older. Parents' scores were not significantly different for any of the three major variables: communication, cohesion and adaptability. Adolescents' scores also were similar for each of the three major variables. Control group participants' and non-participants' scores also were not significantly different, except for communication of parents with daughters. Non-participants' scores were significantly lower ($p = .038$) than participants' scores (Appendix K). The data support the conclusion that participants and non-participants were very similar (Appendix K). This study was limited to primarily white Protestant church families, middle to upper-middle and upper class population. The religious element of the seminar, which reflects a Christian biblical perspective, also may limit generalizability.

Another limitation relates to the three-month span of time used for this longitudinal study. This was necessary due to limited time available for doctoral studies. A follow-up study at six months or one year might reveal more lasting effects of participation in the seminar. The positive element with this three-month time span is limited maturational effects.

Assumptions

It was assumed that subject material, teaching methods and timing were consistent in all seminars. The same two instructors, one of whom was the researcher, team-taught every seminar to ensure consistency. A seminar notebook was used with all participants, which protected consistency of material presented.

A second assumption relates to the content of the Parent-Teen Encounters. It was assumed that the subjects presented (Family appreciation, family communication, family conflict resolution, and family time together) relate to the objectives of this study. The literature review supports this assumption.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Introduction

The primary goal of this research was to measure the influence of a Parent-Teen-Event (PTE) on positive parent-teen interaction. Two other major research objectives were to assess the influence of a PTE on family cohesion and family adaptability. Several other independent variables (family characteristics) affect these three dependent variables (Figure 3).

Frequencies and descriptive statistics will be presented first to describe the sample. Tables and figures will be used throughout to explain and illustrate the findings. The three major dependent variables will then be presented with other independent variables (family characteristics) discussed. Finally, the results will be organized and discussed as they relate to the research questions. The proposed null hypotheses will then be accepted or rejected. A summary and implications of the research will follow in Chapter 5.

Description of population

One hundred sixty-one parents participated in the experimental group, time one (T1), 49 at time two (T2). One hundred twenty-one adolescents participated in the experimental group, T1, 38 at T2. One hundred percent of parents (161) and adolescents (121) who were asked to participate at T1 responded positively and completed the questionnaires. However the response rate at T2 for parents was only 27.3%, and for

adolescents, 26.4%. This low response rate occurred in spite of two follow-up letters. Statistical analysis incorporated only scores from participants who responded at both T1 and T2 (44 parents and 32 adolescents). Time one occurred at the seminar before any presentations were made. Time two occurred approximately three months after the seminar was presented. Questionnaires at T2 were completed at home.

Control group studies were conducted during the same time period (1993-94). One hundred families with adolescents were asked to participate in the control group. Forty-one parents (approximately 20-25% response) participated at T1, 25 at T2. Thirty-six adolescents participated at T1, 18 at T2. Statistical analysis incorporated only scores from participants who responded at both T1 and T2 (21 parents and 16 adolescents). The response rate at T2 for parents was 51%, for adolescents, 50%. Control group participants completed the questionnaires at home at T1 and T2, three months apart.

Fourteen surveys were dropped for the following reasons: (1) Four were incomplete. (2) Five adolescent participants were younger than age 12. (3) Five people did not attend all seminar sessions. Missing data were incorporated as follows: (1) Participants failed to respond 48 times on the Family Interaction Inventory (FACES II). These were assigned a number 3 on a five-point scale ("sometimes", the mid-point on a scale ranging from "almost never" to "almost always"). The Likert scale for the instrument used did not offer a "no opinion" response so the mid-point was used. This amounted to .3% of approximately 15,000 responses on this inventory. (2) Participants failed to respond 79 times on the Parent Adolescent Communication form. These were assigned a number 3 on a five-point scale ("neither agree nor disagree", the mid-point on a

scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"). This amounted to .4% of approximately 20,000 responses on this inventory.

The following labels are used throughout this study to represent experimental and control groups:

PE = Parent experimental group

PC = Parent control group

AE = Adolescent experimental group

AC = Adolescent control group

The mean age of parents in the experimental group was 41.43 and ranged from 30 to 54, compared to 41.28 with a range of 33-53 for the control group parents. Sixty-four percent of parents in the experimental group were females, 36%, male, compared to 52.9% females and 47.1% males in the control group (Table 2). Adolescents' ages for both experimental and control groups ranged from 12 to 18 years. Mean age for the adolescent control group was about 6 months older than for the experimental group (Table 2).

Almost 90% of parents participating in the experimental group were married. All control group parents were married. Seventy-seven percent of participants in the experimental group came from two-parent biological families, compared to 100% in the control group. Others in the experimental group were stepfamilies (9.1%) and blended families (13.6%). The number of children under age eighteen residing at home ranged from one to five with a mean of 2.11 for the experimental group and 2.52 for the control group (Table 3).

Parents' education ranged from less than high school to graduate degrees. The majority (91%) of parents' education in the experimental group ranged from "some college" to "graduate degree". Over 50% had at least a bachelor's degree. Parents' education in the control group ranged from "high school" to "graduate degree". Eighty-five percent of these parents had less than a bachelor's degree (Table 4).

Household income ranged from $10,000 to $350,000 with a mean income of $72,190. This mean is skewed positively because of the higher income of a few families. When three outliers of $150,000 or more were dropped, the mean income was $56,500. Income of the control group was slightly less at $50,170 (Table 4).

Over 50% of adult participants in the experimental group were professionals, compared to about 25% of control group participants. Others worked in skilled trades and farming, sales, technical and clerical, laborers, factory workers and waitress, and general service. Almost 25% in the control group were homemakers compared to 17% in the experimental group (Table 5).

When occupation, education and income were considered, the data indicated the population studied was mainly middle to upper middle class. Although some participants came from lower and lower middle class, the majority had higher S.E.S. Control group participants appeared to have significantly lower S.E.S. than experimental group participants. However, when compared with *T-tests,* only education was significantly different in the two groups ($p = .003$). Neither occupation ($p = .107$) nor income ($p = .164$) differences were significant.

Table 2 - Gender & Age

Group	n	% of males	% of females	Mean age	Age range
PE	44	36.4	63.6	41.43	30-54
PC	21	47.1	52.9	41.28	33-53
AE	32	37.5	62.5	14.06	12-18
AC	16	43.7	56.3	14.5	12-18

N = 113

Table 3 - Marital & Family Information

Group	n	Marital Status	Family Form	# of children at home
PE	44	88.6% Married	77.3% Two-parent biol.	2.11
PC	21	100% Married	100% Two-parent biol.	2.52

N = 65

Table 4 - Income & Education

Group	n	Mean income	Range of income	Mean Education	Median Education
PE	44	*56.50	*10-100	3.85	4.0
PC	21	50.17	25-100	2.80	3.0

N = 65

*Without three extreme values of 150, 250, and 350 thousand (Median = 56).

With outliers included, Mean = 72.19, Median = 57

Table 5 - Occupation

Variable	Group	n	Percent
Professionals, doctors, lawyers, executives	PE	8	19.5
	PC	2	9.5
Other professionals, managers, teachers, nurses	PE	14	34.1
	PC	3	14.3
Skilled and building trades, farmer	PE	1	2.4
	PC	3	14.3
Sales, technicians, clerical	PE	7	17.1
	PC	3	14.3
Laborer, factory worker, waitress	PE	1	2.4
	PC	3	14.3
General service employees	PE	3	7.3
	PC	2	9.5
Homemaker	PE	7	17.1
	PC	5	23.8

N = 62

Dependent variable #1, Positive parent-teen interaction

Positive parent-teen interaction was the major dependent variable studied. This is defined as open communication (freedom of flow of factual and emotional information), and the absence of problem communication (destructive communication patterns and avoidance tactics). The Parent-Adolescent Communication instrument developed by Barnes and Olson (1982) measured this. Positive communication scores on this instrument range from 20 to 100 with higher scores representing more positive communication. Mean scores for the original sample studied by Barnes and Olson (N=1841) were: fathers re: adolescents, 72.55, mothers re: adolescents, 75.47, adolescents re: mothers, 66.56, adolescents re: fathers, 63.74.

Comparison of parents' experimental and control groups and norms

ANOVA was used to compare experimental and control groups at T1 for differences in communication scores and differences due to gender. Interaction effects also were examined. Both fathers and mothers in the experimental group scored lower than those in the original test sample (Table 6). Fathers in the control group scored slightly lower and mothers scored higher than those in the original test sample (Table 6). The control group of parents appeared to be healthier in family communication than the average group of parents, and the experimental group more needy in family communication than average (Table 6). This comparison with the original test sample was used assuming the scores for the original test sample represented the general population. The researchers, Barnes and Olson, used random sampling in the development of the instrument used for this present study.

Table 6 - Communication: Parents - Test sample & study sample

	Fathers norm, test sample	**Fathers exper. group**	**Fathers control group**	**Mothers norm, test sample**	**Mothers exper. group**	**Mothers control group**
Mean	72.55	64.44	70.80	75.47	69.87	79.57
S.D.	10.74	11.74	9.01	11.12	9.48	7.74

The control group of parents scored significantly higher on positive parent-teen interaction than the experimental group (p = .000, Table 7). Differences due to gender also were significant (p = .022, Table 7). Mothers scored higher than fathers for both experimental and control groups. However, there was no significant interaction effect between group and gender (Table 7).

Table 7 - Communication: Parents (E & C, T1)

*** ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	2967.050	2	1483.525	14.311	.000
Group	2497.700	1	2497.700	24.094	.000
Gender of parents	571.814	1	571.814	5.516	.022
2-Way Interactions	11.805	1	11.805	.114	.737
Group/Gender	11.805	1	11.805	.114	.737
Explained	3022.322	3	1007.441	9.718	.000
Residual	7463.928	72	103.666		
Total	10486.250	75	139.817		

Parents' results

Parents demonstrated no significant increase in positive communication with their adolescent children after participating in the PTE. Communication at T1 was highly correlated with communication at T2 ($r = .742$, $p = .000$). Gender of parent did not significantly contribute to differences in scores, and there was no significant interaction effect between gender of parent and group (Table 8). Mothers' communication with sons and daughters did increase slightly as did fathers' communication with sons (Figure 4). Fathers' communication with daughters decreased slightly (Figure 4). However, none of these changes reached significance.

Table 8 - Communication: Parents

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	4292.625	1	4292.625	78.830	.000
Communication pretest scores	4292.625	1	4292.625	78.830	.000
Main Effects	115.035	2	57.518	1.056	.353
Group	40.589	1	40.589	.745	.391
Gender of parents	54.878	1	54.878	1.008	.319
2-Way Interactions	42.451	1	42.451	.780	.380
Group/Gender	42.451	1	42.451	.780	.380
Explained	5847.153	4	1461.788	26.844	.000
Residual	3866.268	71	54.454		
Total	9713.421	75	129.512		

Although parents' communication with sons increased (p = .066) the increase did not reach the significance level of .05. There was no significant gender effect and no interaction effect between gender and group (Table 9).

Table 9 - Communication: Parents with sons

** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	1737.385	1	1737.385	24.460	.000
Communication pretest scores	1737.385	1	1737.385	24.460	.000
Main Effects	260.663	2	130.332	1.835	.177
Group	257.222	1	257.222	3.621	.066
Gender of parents	.030	1	.030	.000	.984
2-Way Interactions	75.658	1	75.658	1.065	.310
Group/Gender	75.658	1	75.658	1.065	.310
Explained	2079.678	4	519.919	7.320	.000
Residual	2201.961	31	71.031		
Total	4281.639	35	122.333		

Parents' communication scores with daughters did not significantly increase, but gender effect approached significance (p = .056). Mothers' scores were higher (M = 69.71) than fathers' (M = 65.13). Communication at T1 was highly correlated with communication at T2 (r = .825, p = .000). There was no significant interaction effect between gender and group. (Table 10).

Table 10 - Parents with daughters

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	2018.014	1	2018.014	56.913	.000
Communication pretest scores	2018.014	1	2018.014	56.913	.000
Main Effects	162.938	2	81.469	2.298	.115
Group	55.053	1	55.053	1.553	.221
Gender of parents	138.685	1	138.685	3.911	.056
2-Way Interactions	1.358	1	1.358	.038	.846
Group/Gender	1.358	1	1.358	.038	.846
Explained	4123.760	4	1030.940	29.075	.000
Residual	1241.015	35	35.458		
Total	5364.775	39	137.558		

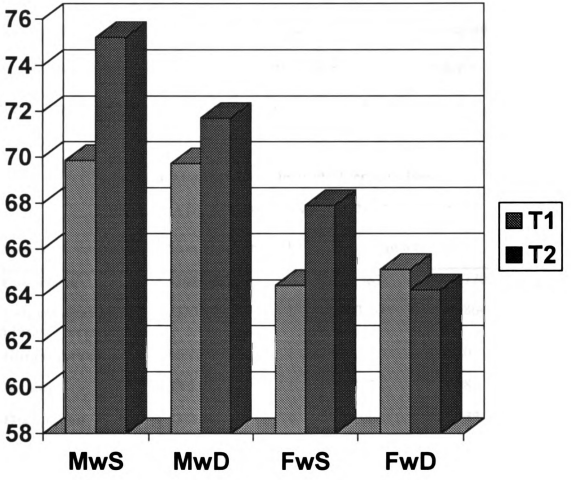


Figure 4 - Parents' communication scores

Communication scores varied with the number of children in the family. This difference approached significance (p = .068). Families with only one child scored higher on communication than families with two or more children (Table 11). Number of children in the family was negatively correlated with communication of parents with children at T2 (r = -.399, p = .053, Table 31). Hours worked also was negatively correlated with communication of parents with children at T2 (r = -.536, p = .018). The fewer hours worked, the higher the communication.

Table 11 - Parents: Effects of other variables

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	4202.541	7	600.363	10.770	.000
Communication pretest scores	2333.709	1	2333.709	41.864	.000
Hours worked	40.156	1	40.156	.720	.400
Income	38.332	1	38.332	.688	.411
Occupation	63.106	1	63.106	1.132	.293
Education	111.419	1	111.419	1.999	.164
# of Children	194.610	1	194.610	3.491	.068
Main Effects	23.278	1	23.278	.418	.521
Group	23.278	1	23.278	.418	.521
Explained	4758.142	8	594.768	10.669	.000
Residual	2564.294	46	55.746		
Total	7322.436	54	135.601		

Comparison of adolescents' experimental and control groups and norms

Adolescents scored slightly lower at T1 than the norms for adolescent communication with mothers and fathers. Both males and females in the control group scored higher than the norms in the original test sample (Table 12).

Table 12 - Adolescents: Communication - norms & study sample

	Adol. re mothers, norms	Adol. re mothers, exper.	Adol. re mothers, control	Adol. re fathers, norms	Adol. re fathers, exper.	Adol. re fathers, control
Mean	66.56	65.16	73.94	63.74	61.37	69.31
S.D.	12.10	13.00	14.61	12.02	15.58	15.33

Control group scores of adolescents were significantly higher than experimental group scores at T1 (p = .030, Table 13). Gender affected communication scores (p = .031). In addition, an interaction effect between group and gender was observed (p = .053). Females scored higher than males in the control group. Differences for males' scores between the experimental group and the control group were negligible. Although male/female differences in scores for the experimental group did not reach significance (p = .127), females scored higher than males (Mean difference = 6.45).

Table 13 - Adolescents' communication (E & C, T1)

*** ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	1929.980	2	964.990	4.735	.011
Group	996.351	1	996.351	4.889	.030
Gender	985.790	1	985.790	4.837	.031
2-Way Interactions	781.371	1	781.371	3.834	.053
Group/Gender	781.371	1	781.371	3.834	.053
Explained	2661.881	3	887.294	4.354	.007
Residual	17730.404	87	203.798		
Total	20392.286	90	226.581		

Adolescents' results

Although adolescents' communication with parents increased at T2, this increase did not approach significance (p = .207). Communication at T1 was highly correlated with communication at T2 (r = .734, p = .000). When group and gender were examined for interaction effect, a significant effect was observed (p = .016, Table14). Male adolescents' communication with their parents was significantly higher than female adolescents' communication with their parents in the experimental group (Figure 5), but not in the control group. Most of this difference was attributed to the difference between male and female adolescents' communication scores with their fathers. Female adolescents scored significantly lower than male adolescents (Figure 5, Table 16, p = .034).

Table 14 - Communication: Adolescents with parents

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	1262.621	1	1262.621	5.825	.018
Communication pretest scores	1262.621	1	1262.621	5.825	.018
Main Effects	350.069	2	175.035	.808	.449
Group	349.728	1	349.728	1.613	.207
Gender of adol.	.014	1	.014	.000	.994
2-Way Interactions	1317.200	1	1317.200	6.077	.016
Group/Gender	1317.200	1	1317.200	6.077	.016
Explained	3255.220	4	813.805	3.754	.007
Residual	18424.380	85	216.757		
Total	21679.600	89	243.591		

There was no significant increase in adolescent communication with their mothers at T2. Communication at T1 was moderately correlated with communication at T2 (r = .688, p = .000). Although males' scores increased more than females' scores, there was no significant interaction effect between group and gender (p = .101, Table 15).

Table 15 - Communication: Adolescents with mothers

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of square	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	453.718	1	453.718	2.087	.156
Communication pretest scores	453.718	1	453.718	2.087	.156
Main Effects	304.090	2	152.045	.699	.503
Group	162.905	1	162.905	.749	.392
Gender	146.711	1	146.711	.675	.416
2-Way Interactions	611.188	1	611.188	2.811	.101
Group/Gender	611.188	1	611.188	2.811	.101
Explained	1336.549	4	334.137	1.537	.209
Residual	9131.281	42	217.411		
Total	10467.830	46	227.562		

There was no significant increase in communication of adolescents with their fathers. Communication at T1 was moderately correlated with communication at T2 (r = .659, p = .000). When gender effect was examined, male adolescents scored significantly higher than female adolescents (p = .034, Table 16). There was no significant interaction effect between group and gender.

Table 16 - Communication: Adolescents with fathers

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	**Sum of squares**	**DF**	**Mean square**	**F**	**Sig of F**
	Squares	DF	Square	F	of F
Covariates	4775.685	1	4775.685	41.182	.000
Communication pretest scores	4775.685	1	4775.685	41.182	.000
Main Effects	561.343	2	280.671	2.420	.102
Group	2.006	1	2.006	.017	.896
Gender	560.381	1	560.381	4.832	.034
2-Way Interactions	211.554	1	211.554	1.824	.185
Group/Gender	211.554	1	211.554	1.824	.185
Explained	6283.691	4	1570.923	13.546	.000
Residual	4406.728	38	115.967		
Total	10690.419	42	254.534		

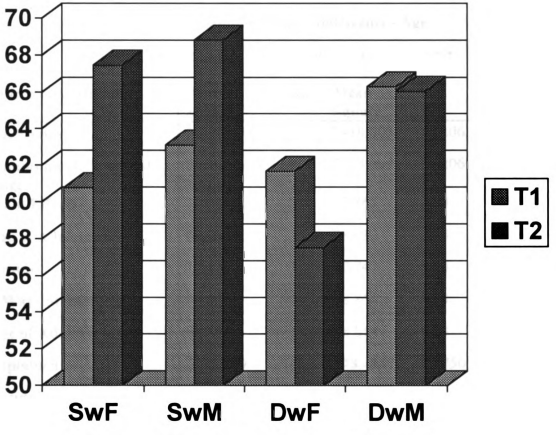


Figure 5 - Adolescents' communication scores

Communication scores of adolescents with their parents were not significantly affected by age of adolescent. Age of adolescent was collapsed due to small cell size. Ages 12-14 were coded "1", 15-18 were coded "2" (Table 17). The correlation between age (collapsed) and communication was negligible (r = .114 at T1, r = .043 at T2).

Table 17 - Communication: Adolescents - Age

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	5418.005	1	5418.005	50.206	.000
Communication pretest scores	5418.005	1	5418.005	50.206	.000
Main Effects	105.731	2	52.865	.490	.616
Age of Adolescent	88.933	1	88.933	.824	.369
Group	17.747	1	17.747	.164	.687
2-Way Interactions	88.864	1	88.864	.823	.369
Age of Adol./Group	88.864	1	88.864	.823	.369
Explained	5935.389	4	1483.847	13.750	.000
Residual	4532.441	42	107.915		
Total	10467.830	46	227.562		

Discussion of research questions and acceptance or rejection of null hypotheses related to positive parent-teen interaction

RQ #1: Does participation in a PTE affect parent-teen interaction?

Based on the above data, null hypothesis H_{o1} was accepted. There is no significant difference between the levels of positive parent-teen interaction at T1 (before participation) and T2 (after participation) in both parents and adolescents. Parents' communication with sons approached significance ($p = .066$).

RQ #2: Does the level of positive parent-teen interaction differ with gender of parent or adolescent, and if so, how? Although parents' communication with sons increased at T2 , the increase was not significant. Differences between mothers' and fathers' communication with their adolescent children approached significance ($p = .056$). Mothers scored higher than fathers, especially with their daughters. Based on the above data, null hypothesis H_{o2} was accepted. There is no significant difference in positive parent-teen interaction due to gender of parent.

Adolescent girls scored significantly lower than adolescent boys in communication with their fathers ($p = .034$), but not with their mothers ($p = .101$). There is a significant difference in positive parent-teen interaction due to gender of adolescent. Based on the above data null hypothesis H_{o3} was rejected.

RQ #3: Does the level of positive parent-teen interaction vary with the age of the adolescent, and if so, how? Although interaction effects of group and age of adolescent approached significance ($p = .078$), indicating that age of adolescent does affect positive parent-teen interaction in some way, the difference due to age did not reach

the .05 level of significance. Therefore, null hypothesis H_{o4} was accepted. There is no significant difference in scores of parent-teen interaction due to age of adolescent.

Dependent variable #2, family cohesion

Family cohesion was the second major dependent variable studied. Family cohesion is defined as the emotional bonding that family members have towards one another. FACES II was used to measure family cohesion. Cohesion scores with this instrument range from 16 to 80, with higher scores representing greater family cohesion. Family cohesion ranges from "disengaged" to "enmeshed". Cohesion scores fall into one of four categories on a continuum: disengaged (low cohesion), separated (low to moderate cohesion), connected (moderate to high cohesion) and enmeshed (high cohesion). All groups scored within the "connected" range. Scores in this category describe families with moderate to high closeness, some loyalty and interdependence.

Comparison of parents' experimental and control groups

ANCOVA was used to compare experimental groups at T1 and T2. *ANOVA* was used to compare experimental and control groups at T1. The control group of parents scored significantly higher on cohesion than the experimental group ($p = .004$, Table 18). Although females scored higher than males for both groups, the differences were not significant. There was no significant interaction effect between group and gender.

Table 18 - Cohesion: Parents (E & C, T1)

** ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	889.770	2	444.885	5.549	.006
Group	737.952	1	737.952	9.204	.004
Gender	194.908	1	194.908	2.431	.124
2-Way Interactions	.228	1	.228	.003	.958
Group/Gender	.228	1	.228	.003	.958
Explained	889.817	3	296.606	3.699	.016
Residual	4890.736	61	80.176		
Total	5780.554	64	90.321		

Parents' results

Parents who participated in the PTE did not indicate a significant increase in family cohesion at T2 (p = .180). Cohesion at T1 was highly correlated with cohesion at T2 (r = .787, p = .000). However, gender differences were significant (p = .005), with mothers scoring higher than fathers (Figure 6). Also an interaction effect between group and gender was observed (p = .030, Table 19). Mothers in the control group at T2 scored significantly higher than fathers in that group.

Table 19 - Cohesion: Parents

* * * ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE * * *

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	2297.690	1	2297.690	102.482	.000
Cohesion pretest scores	2297.690	1	2297.690	102.482	.000
Main Effects	256.408	2	128.204	5.718	.005
Group	41.341	1	41.341	1.844	.180
Gender of parents	188.547	1	188.547	8.410	.005
2-Way Interactions	111.460	1	111.460	4.971	.030
Group/Gender	111.460	1	111.460	4.971	.030
Explained	2985.765	4	746.441	33.293	.000
Residual	1345.219	60	22.420		
Total	4330.985	64	67.672		

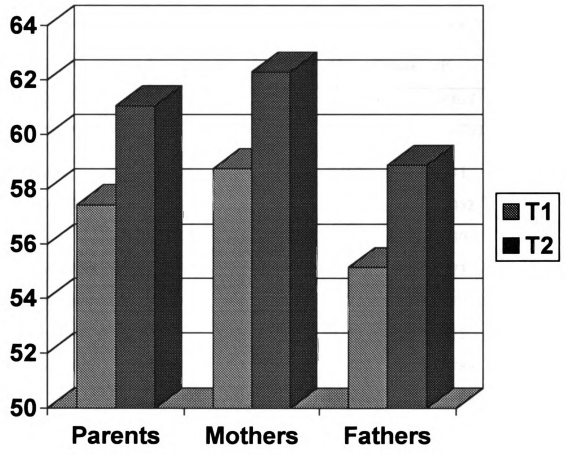


Figure 6 - Parents' cohesion scores

When examined for effects of family characteristics upon levels of cohesion, only effects of hours worked approached significance (p = .071, Table 20). The fewer hours worked, the higher the cohesion. Hours worked was negatively correlated with cohesion at T2 (r = -.246, p = .154).

Table 20 - Cohesion: Parents - effects of family characteristics

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	1669.843	7	238.549	8.637	.000
Cohesion pretest scores	1015.281	1	1015.281	36.762	.000
Education	8.592	1	8.592	.311	.580
Hours worked	95.342	1	95.342	3.452	.071
Income	.824	1	.824	.030	.864
Marital status	21.341	1	21.341	.773	.385
Occupation	.517	1	.517	.019	.892
Family form	.325	1	.325	.012	.914
Main Effects	49.402	1	49.402	1.789	.189
Group	49.402	1	49.402	1.789	.189
Explained	1685.787	8	210.723	7.630	.000
Residual	1021.865	37	27.618		
Total	2707.652	45	60.170		

Comparison of adolescents' experimental and control groups

The cohesion scores for the control group and experimental group of adolescents were not significantly different (p = .425, Table 21). Also, no interaction effect between group and gender was observed.

Table 21 - Cohesion: Adolescents (E & C, T1)

*** ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	259.414	2	129.707	.901	.413
Group	93.148	1	93.148	.647	.425
Gender of adol.	167.285	1	167.285	1.162	.287
2-Way Interactions	114.154	1	114.154	.793	.378
Group/Gender	114.154	1	114.154	.793	.378
Explained	337.843	3	112.614	.782	.510
Residual	6332.470	44	143.920		
Total	6670.313	47	141.922		

Adolescents' results

Adolescents who participated in the PTE indicated no significant increase in cohesion after attendance ($p = .262$, Table 22). Cohesion at T1 was moderately correlated with cohesion at T2 ($r = .474$, $p = .006$). No significant gender differences were observed, and there was no significant interaction effect between group and gender. Adolescent males' scores increased while females' scores decreased (Figure 7).

Table 22 - Cohesion: Adolescents

* * * ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE * * *

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	2786.752	1	2786.752	25.356	.000
Cohesion pretest scores	2786.752	1	2786.752	25.356	.000
Main Effects	223.096	2	111.548	1.015	.371
Group	141.724	1	141.724	1.290	.262
Gender of adol.	86.415	1	86.415	.786	.380
2-Way Interactions	62.588	1	62.588	.569	.455
Group/Gender	62.588	1	62.588	.569	.455
Explained	3055.337	4	763.834	6.950	.000
Residual	4725.913	43	109.905		
Total	7781.250	47	165.559		

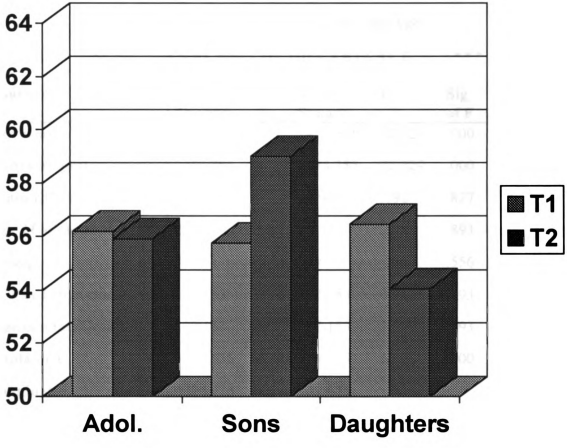


Figure 7 - Adolescents' cohesion scores

Adolescent scores for family cohesion did not vary significantly with age of adolescent ($p = .893$, Table 23). Due to small cell size, age was collapsed into two categories and coded "1" for ages 12-14, "2" for ages 15-18. No significant interaction effect between group and age was observed.

Table 23 - Cohesion: Adolescents - by Age

* * * ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE * * *

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	2453.385	1	2453.385	22.329	.000
Cohesion pretest scores	2453.385	1	2453.385	22.329	.000
Main Effects	41.950	2	20.975	.191	.827
Age of adolescent	2.013	1	2.013	.018	.893
Group	38.671	1	38.671	.352	.556
2-Way Interactions	192.153	1	192.153	1.749	.193
Age of adol./Group	192.153	1	192.153	1.749	.193
Explained	3056.635	4	764.159	6.955	.000
Residual	4724.615	43	109.875		
Total	7781.250	47	165.559		

Discussion of research questions and acceptance or rejection of null hypotheses related to family cohesion

RQ #4: Does participation in a PTE affect family cohesion, and if so, how?

Parents and adolescents who participated in the PTE increased in levels of family cohesion, but neither increase was statistically significant (Parents: $p = .180$; Adolescents: $p = .262$). Therefore, null hypothesis H_{o5} was accepted. There is no significant difference in family cohesion due to participation in a PTE.

RQ #5: Does the level of family cohesion differ with the gender of the parent or adolescent, and if so, how? Gender of parent was one of the main sources of variation in family cohesion ($p = .005$). There was a significant interaction effect between group and gender of parent ($p = .030$). Mothers scored significantly higher than fathers, but only in the control group, not in the experimental group. Therefore, null hypothesis H_{o6} was rejected. There is a significant difference in family cohesion due to gender of parent.

There were no significant differences in levels of family cohesion due to gender of adolescent ($p = .380$). Therefore, null hypothesis H_{o7} was accepted.

RQ # 6: Does the level of family cohesion vary with the age of the adolescent? Family cohesion scores for adolescents did not vary significantly with age. Therefore, null hypothesis H_{o8} was accepted. There is no significant difference in family cohesion due to age of adolescent.

Dependent variable #3, family adaptability

Family adaptability was the third major variable studied. Family adaptability is defined as the ability of a family system to change its structure, its relationships and its rules in response to various stressors. Family adaptability was measured by FACES II, with scores ranging from 15 to 70. Higher scores indicate more adaptability.

Comparison of parents' experimental and control groups

ANCOVA was used to compare experimental groups at T1 and T2, and *ANOVA* was used to compare experimental and control groups at T1. Family adaptability scores

for parents in the control group and experimental group were similar. They did not differ significantly nor was there an interaction effect between group and gender (Table 24)

Table 24 - Adaptability: Parents (E & C, T1)

*** ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	95.821	2	47.911	.895	.414
Group	73.202	1	73.202	1.367	.247
Gender of parents	17.837	1	17.837	.333	.566
2-Way Interactions	2.962	1	2.962	.055	.815
Group/Gender	2.962	1	2.962	.055	.815
Explained	117.378	3	39.126	.731	.538
Residual	3265.484	61	53.533		
Total	3382.862	64	52.857		

Parents' results

Parents who attended a PTE did not demonstrate a significant increase in family adaptability at T2 (p = .839, Table 25). The correlation between adaptability at T1 and T2 was moderate (r = .519, p = .000). There were no significant differences due to gender, and no interaction effect between group and gender was observed. However, both fathers and mothers scores increased slightly from T1 to T2 (Figure 8).

Table 25 - Adaptability: Parents

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	371.257	1	371.257	26.607	.000
Adaptability pretest scores	371.257	1	371.257	26.607	.000
Main Effects	17.606	2	8.803	.631	.536
Group	.582	1	.582	.042	.839
Gender of parents	16.575	1	16.575	1.188	.280
2-Way Interactions	.399	1	.399	.029	.866
Group/Gender	.399	1	.399	.029	.866
Explained	423.795	4	105.949	7.593	.000
Residual	837.189	60	13.953		
Total	1260.985	64	19.703		

No other family characteristic significantly affected family adaptability scores (Table 26). Number of hours worked approached significance, but small cell size prevented inclusion in table.

Table 26 - Adaptability: Parents - effects of family characteristics

* * * ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE * * *

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	221.837	7	31.691	1.677	.145
Education	1.671	1	1.671	.088	.768
Income	.020	1	.020	.001	.974
Marital status	43.406	1	43.406	2.298	.138
Occupation	9.572	1	9.572	.507	.481
Family form	.555	1	.555	.029	.865
Adaptability pretest scores	26.842	1	26.842	1.421	.241
Main Effects	17.394	1	17.394	.921	.344
Group	17.394	1	17.394	.921	.344
Explained	236.238	8	29.530	1.563	.170
Residual	699.002	37	18.892		
Total	935.239	45	20.783		

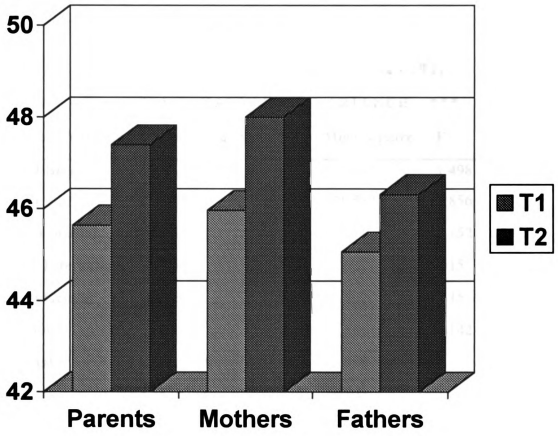


Figure 8 - Parents' adaptability scores

Comparison of adolescents' experimental and control groups results

Although the adolescent control group scored higher than the experimental group on family adaptability, the difference did not approach significance (p = .180, Table 27). There was no significant gender effect, nor was there an interaction effect between group and gender.

Table 27 - Adaptability: Adolescents (E & C, T1)

*** ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	212.893	2	106.447	1.498	.235
Group	131.850	1	131.850	1.856	.180
Gender of adol.	81.891	1	81.891	1.152	.289
2-Way Interactions	36.602	1	36.602	.515	.477
Group/Gender	36.602	1	36.602	.515	.477
Explained	243.454	3	81.151	1.142	.343
Residual	3126.546	44	71.058		
Total	3370.000	47	71.702		

Adolescents' results

Adolescents who attended a PTE demonstrated no significant increase in family adaptability at T2 (p = .330). However, sons' scores increased slightly from T1 to T2, while scores of daughters stayed the same (Figure 9). Group and gender interaction was not significant (p = .169, Table 28). Adaptability at T1 was moderately correlated with adaptability at T2 (r = .563, p = .001).

Table 28 - Adaptability: Adolescents

*** ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ***

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	1449.114	1	1449.114	27.026	.000
Adaptability pretest scores	1449.114	1	1449.114	27.026	.000
Main Effects	59.916	2	29.958	.559	.576
Group	52.025	1	52.025	.970	.330
Gender of adol.	6.486	1	6.486	.121	.730
2-Way Interactions	104.853	1	104.853	1.956	.169
Group/Gender	104.853	1	104.853	1.956	.169
Explained	1684.044	4	421.011	7.852	.000
Residual	2305.622	43	53.619		
Total	3989.667	47	84.887		

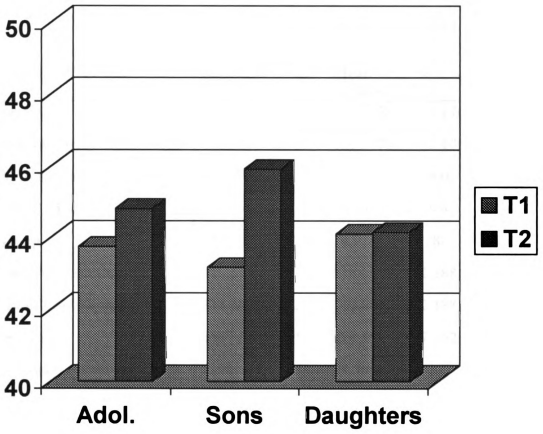


Figure 9 - Adolescents' adaptability scores

When adolescent adaptability scores were examined for effects by age, no significant differences were observed. Due to small cell size, age was collapsed into two categories and coded "1" for ages 12-14 and "2" for ages 18. There was no significant interaction effect observed between group and age (Table 29).

Table 29 - Adaptability: Adolescents by Age

* * * ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE * * *

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Covariates	1661.778	1	1661.778	31.176	.000
Adaptability pretest scores	1661.778	1	1661.778	31.176	.000
Main Effects	17.057	2	8.529	.160	.853
Age of adol.	2.355	1	2.355	.044	.835
Group	14.911	1	14.911	.280	.600
2-Way Interactions	116.649	1	116.649	2.188	.146
Age of adol./Group	116.649	1	116.649	2.188	.146
Explained	1697.612	4	424.403	7.962	.000
Residual	2292.055	43	53.304		
Total	3989.667	47	84.887		

Discussion of research questions and acceptance or rejection of null hypotheses related to family adaptability

RQ #7: Does participation in a PTE affect family adaptability, and if so, how? Neither parents' nor adolescents' scores increased significantly after attending a PTE. Therefore, null hypothesis H_{o9} was accepted. Participation in a PTE does not significantly affect family adaptability.

RQ #8: Does the level of family adaptability differ with the gender of the parent or adolescent, and if so, how? Fathers' and mothers' scores for family adaptability did not differ significantly ($p = .232$). Therefore, null hypothesis H_{o10} was accepted. There is no significant difference between the levels of family adaptability in fathers and mothers.

Interaction effects between group and gender of adolescent did not reach significance ($p = .169$). Therefore, null hypothesis H_{o11} was accepted. There is no significant difference between the levels of family adaptability in adolescent boys and girls.

RQ #9: Does the level of family adaptability vary with the age of the adolescent, and if so, how? No significant differences due to age of adolescent were observed. Therefore, null hypothesis H_{o12} was accepted. There is no significant difference between the levels of family adaptability in various age adolescents.

RQ #10: Are any of the three major dependent variables significantly affected by other family characteristics in the conceptual model, and if so, how? No other family characteristics significantly affected any of the three major dependent variables. Number of children in a family affected communication, but differences were not significant. Also, hours worked affected family cohesion but differences were not significant. Therefore null hypothesis H_{o13} was accepted. There are no significant differences in any of the three major variables due to other family characteristics in the conceptual model.

Correlation Coefficients

Correlation measures "the strength of the relationship between the values of two variables" (Rountree, 1981, p156). The following ranges are suggested by Rountree (1981, p170): 0.0 to 0.2 = very weak, negligible; 0.2 to 0.4 = weak, low; 0.4 to 0.7 = moderate; 0.7 to 0.9 = strong, high, marked; 0.9 to 1.0 = very strong, very high. These ranges are used for establishing correlation coefficients for all continuous variables in this study. Strong and moderate correlations are **bolded** in the table.

Analysis of adolescents' data established the following moderate or strong correlations: Communication of adolescents with parents at T1 was highly correlated with communication at T2 ($r = .734$, $p = .000$); adaptability of adolescents was moderately correlated with communication at T1 ($r = .524$, $p = .002$) and at T2 ($r = .571$, $p = .001$); and was moderately correlated with adaptability at T2 ($r = .563$, $p = .001$); cohesion as reported by adolescents at T1 was moderately correlated with communication at T1 ($r = .567$, $p = .001$); and also was moderately correlated with adaptability at T1 ($r = .634$, $p = .000$); cohesion as reported by adolescents at T2 was moderately correlated with communication at T2 ($r = .663$, $p = .000$), was strongly correlated with adaptability at T2 ($r = .782$, $p = .000$), and was moderately correlated with cohesion at T1 ($r = .473$, $p = .006$). All other correlations for adolescent variables were weak or negligible (Table 30).

Table 30 - Pearson correlation coefficients, adolescent data

	Age of adol.	Comm adol. T1	Comm adol. T2	Adapt, adol. T1	Adapt, adol. T2	Cohesion adol. T1	Cohesion adol. T2
Age of adolescent	1.0000	.1143	-.0429	.2082	-.0065	-.2956	-.3358
	(96)	(47)	(47)	(32)	(32)	(32)	(32)
	p= .	p= .444	p= .774	p= .253	p= .972	p= .101	p=.060
Comm. adol. w parents at T1 E	.1143	1.0000	.7339	.5238	.3466	.5666	.2976
	(47)	(47)	(47)	(31)	(31)	(31)	(31)
	p= .444	p= .	p= .000	p= .002	p= .056	p= .001	p=.104
Comm. adol. w parents at T2 E	-.0429	**.7339**	1.0000	.3416	.5712	.3301	.6630
	(47)	(47)	(47)	(31)	(31)	(31)	(31)
	p= .774	p= .000	p= .	p= .060	p= .001	p= .070	p=.000
Adaptability/ adol., T1 E	.2082	**.5238**	.3416	1.0000	.5631	.6342	.3454
	(32)	(31)	(31)	(32)	(32)	(32)	(32)
	p= .253	p= .002	p= .060	p= .	p= .001	p= .000	p=.053
Adaptability/ adol. T2 E	-.0065	.3466	**.5712**	**.5631**	1.0000	.4028	.7824
	(32)	(31)	(31)	(32)	(32)	(32)	(32)
	p= .972	p= .056	p= .001	p= .001	p= .	p= .022	p=.000
Cohesion/ adol., T1 E	-.2956	**.5666**	.3301	**.6342**	**.4028**	1.0000	.4739
	(32)	(31)	(31)	(32)	(32)	(32)	(32)
	p= .101	p= .001	p= .070	p= .000	p= .022	p= .	p=.006
Cohesion/ adol., T2 E	-.3358	.2976	**.6630**	.3454	**.7824**	**.4739**	1.000
	(32)	(31)	(31)	(32)	(32)	(32)	(32)
	p= .060	p= .104	p= .000	p= .053	p= .000	p= .006	p=.

Analysis of parents' data established the following moderate or high correlation coefficients: Communication of parents with sons and daughters at T1 was highly correlated with communication at T2 ($r = .742$, $p = .000$); cohesion as reported by parents at T1 was highly correlated with cohesion at T2 ($r = .787$, $p = .000$); and adaptability at T1 was moderately correlated with adaptability at T2 ($r = .519$, $p = .000$). Adaptability at T1 also was moderately correlated with cohesion at T1 ($r = .531$, $p = .000$) and at T2 ($r = .414$, $p = .005$), and adaptability as reported by parents at T2 was moderately correlated with cohesion at T2 ($r = .490$, $p = .001$). Hours worked was negatively correlated with communication at T2 ($r = -.536$, $p = .018$). All other correlations for parents' variables were weak or negligible (Table 31).

Table 31 - Pearson correlation coefficients, parents' data

	Comm. parents w sons & dau. T1 E	Comm. parents w sons & dau. T2 E	Cohesion parents T1 E	Cohesion parents T2 E	Adaptability of parents T1 E	Adaptability of parents T2 E
Comm. parents w sons & dau. T1 E	1.0000	.7417	.2445	.2511	.3316	.0748
	(24)	(24)	(24)	(24)	(24)	(24)
	p= .	p= .000	p= .250	p= .237	p= .113	p= .728
Comm. parents w sons & dau. T2 E	**.7417**	1.0000	.2025	.3064	.2832	.2912
	(24)	(24)	(24)	(24)	(24)	(24)
	p= .000	p= .	p= .343	p= .145	p= .180	p= .167
Cohesion/parents T1 E	.2445	.2025	1.0000	.7874	.5309	.2804
	(24)	(24)	(44)	(44)	(44)	(44)
	p= .250	p= .343	p= .	p= .000	p= .000	p= .065
Cohesion/parents T2 E	.2511	.3064	**.7874**	1.0000	.4137	.4901
	(24)	(24)	(44)	(44)	(44)	(44)
	p= .237	p= .145	p= .000	p= .	p= .005	p= .001
Adaptability/ parents T1 E	.3316	.2832	**.5309**	**.4137**	1.0000	.5189
	(24)	(24)	(44)	(44)	(44)	(44)
	p= .113	p= .180	p= .000	p= .005	p= .	p= .000
Adaptability/ parents T2 E	.0748	.2912	.2804	**.4901**	**.5189**	1.0000
	(24)	(24)	(44)	(44)	(44)	(44)
	p= .728	p= .167	p= .065	p= .001	p= .000	p= .
# of children	-.1461	-.3991	-.1156	-.2548	.0335	.0061
	(24)	(24)	(44)	(44)	(44)	(44)
	p= .496	p= .053	p= .455	p= .095	p= .829	p= .969
Age of parent	-.2356	-.3319	-.0643	-.0423	-.1924	-.3825
	(24)	(24)	(44)	(44)	(44)	(44)
	p= .268	p= .113	p= .679	p= .785	p= .211	p= .010
Education	.0793	-.3743	.1714	.1355	.0175	-.0796
	(24)	(24)	(44)	(44)	(44)	(44)
	p= .713	p= .072	p= .266	p= .380	p= .910	p= .607
Hours worked	-.2580	**-.5363**	-.1665	-.2463	.0254	-.2927
	(19)	(19)	(35)	(35)	(35)	(35)
	p= .286	p= .018	p= .339	p= .154	p= .885	p= .088
Income	.1223	-.2517	.0795	.0205	.1402	-.1485
	(21)	(21)	(37)	(37)	(37)	(37)
	p= .597	p= .271	p= .640	p= .904	p= .408	p= .380

Summary

The data indicated that overall, participation in a PTE did not significantly affect any of the major variables studied: positive parent-teen interaction, family cohesion or family adaptability, as measured by this researcher using the .05 level of significance and the instruments chosen for this study. However, there is a trend toward higher scores for participants at T2. Most posttest scores for major variables were higher than pretest scores (Table 32). All communication posttest scores were higher than pretest scores except those related to daughters. Daughters with moms, daughters with dads, and dads with daughters all had lower posttest than pretest scores. Posttest scores for cohesion as reported by parents were higher than pretest scores, while scores for adolescents were slightly lower at T2. The exception was sons' scores, which increased. Adaptability scores increased slightly for both parents and adolescents at T2.

Table 32 - Scores for major variables, T1 E & T2 E

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	Min.	Max.	n
Communication of parents with sons & daughters T1 E	68.04	11.13	46.00	85.00	24
Communication of parents with sons & daughters T2 E	70.82	11.11	39.00	85.00	24
Communication of dads with sons and daughters T1 E	64.76	10.23			17
Communication of dads with sons and daughters T2 E	66.06	11.64			17
Communication of moms with sons and daughters T1E	69.78	10.23			32
Communication of moms with sons and daughters T2 E	73.34	10.10			32
Communication of parents with sons T1 E	67.83	10.48	46.00	85.00	24
Communication of parents with sons T2 E	72.46	11.73	39.00	85.00	24
Communication of dads with sons T1 E	64.44	11.74			9
Communication of dads with sons T2 E	67.89	14.16			9
Communication of moms with sons T1 E	69.86	9.48			15
Communication of moms with sons T2 E	75.20	9.47			15
Communication of parents with daughters T1 E	68.24	11.93	45.00	89.00	25
Communication of parents with daughters T2 E	69.24	10.47	52.00	88.00	25
Communication of dads with daughters T1 E	65.13	9.01			8
Communication of dads with daughters T2 E	64.24	8.47			8
Communication of moms with daughters T1 E	69.71	13.07			17
Communication of moms with daughters T2 E	71.71	10.63			17

Table 32 (cont')

Communication of adolescents with moms & dads T1 E	63.40	14.26	41.00	89.00	31
Communication of adolescents with moms & dads T2 E	64.15	16.71	35.00	95.00	31
Communication of sons with moms & dads T1 E	62.05	17.37			20
Communication of sons with moms & dads T2 E	68.14	17.34			22
Communication of daughters with moms & dads T1 E	64.11	12.52			38
Communication of daughters with moms & dads T2 E	61.90	16.14			39
Communication of adolescents with moms T1 E	65.16	13.00	41.00	89.00	31
Communication of adolescents with moms T2 E	67.03	15.80	35.00	95.00	31
Communication of sons with moms T1 E	63.09	14.67			11
Communication of sons with moms T2 E	68.81	14.65			11
Communication of daughters with moms T1 E	66.30	12.23			20
Communication of daughters with moms T2 E	66.05	16.69			20
Communication of adolescents with dads T1 E	61.37	15.58	31.00	91.00	27
Communication of adolescents with dads T2 E	61.17	17.36	31.00	93.00	30
Communication of sons with dads T1 E	60.78	21.07			9
Communication of sons with dads T2 E	67.45	20.39			11
Communication of daughters with dads T1 E	61.67	12.73			18
Communication of daughters with dads T2 E	57.53	14.71			19

Table 32 (cont')

Cohesion/parents T1 E	57.43	9.48	40.00	75.00	44
Cohesion/parents T2 E	61.05	8.49	42.00	74.00	44
Cohesion/fathers T1 E	55.13	7.71			16
Cohesion/fathers T2 E	58.87	8.88			16
Cohesion/mothers T1 E	58.75	10.24			28
Cohesion/mothers T2 E	62.29	8.16			28
Cohesion/adolescents T1 E	56.19	10.87	25.00	76.00	32
Cohesion/adolescents T2 E	55.91	12.93	21.00	74.00	32
Cohesion/sons T1 E	55.75	14.38			12
Cohesion/sons T2 E	59.00	14.41			12
Cohesion/daughters T1 E	56.45	8.54			20
Cohesion/daughters T2 E	54.05	11.96			20
Adaptability/ parents T1 E	45.64	5.28	31.00	56.00	44
Adaptability/ parents T2 E	47.39	4.54	37.00	59.00	44
Adaptability/ fathers T1 E	45.06	4.30			16
Adaptability/ fathers T2 E	46.31	4.54			16
Adaptability/ mothers T1 E	45.96	5.82			28
Adaptability/ mothers T2 E	48.00	4.97			28
Adaptability/adolescents T1 E	43.75	8.91	21.00	64.00	32
Adaptability/adolescents T2 E	44.81	9.71	18.00	60.00	32
Adaptability/sons T1 E	43.17	10.77			12
Adaptability/sons T2 E	45.92	10.88			12
Adaptability/daughters T1 E	44.10	7.88			20
Adaptability/daughters T2 E	44.15	9.17			20

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION & CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The major purpose of this research was to measure the influence of participation in a Parent-Teen Event (PTE) on positive parent-teen interaction. Two other important objectives were to measure the influence of participation in a PTE on family cohesion and family adaptability (Figure 10, below).

Conceptual model

Other family characteristics such as age, gender, form of family, education, occupation and income (Figure 10) were discussed as they affected the three major dependent variables. Only one of the family characteristics significantly affected any of the three dependent variables. Gender of parents and adolescents significantly affected positive parent-teen interaction. Mothers and sons scored higher than fathers and daughters on positive parent-teen interaction.

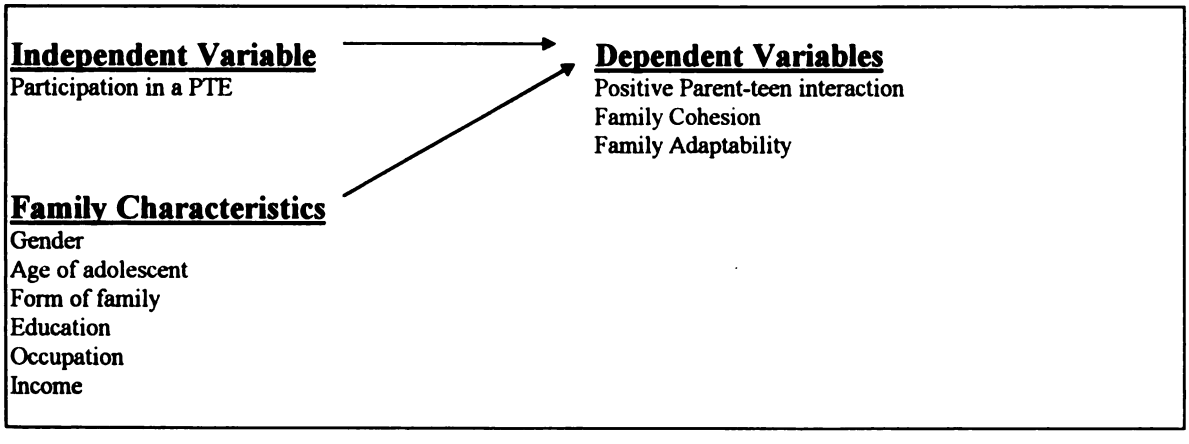


Figure 10 - Conceptual Model

Ecological perspective.

This study assessed family members interacting in their multiple environments (Figure 11). Although the study focused mainly on parent-teen interaction within the family (the microsystem), the effects of other parts of the ecosystem were considered when interpreting and applying the data. For example, income, occupation, education and chronological age were all considered. There also was a religious element to the seminar. The seminar was presented from a Protestant theological perspective using the Bible as a reference point to support the family strengths presented to parents and adolescents. Therefore, the macrosystem must be considered when interpreting and applying the results to other populations. Powerful forces in the macrosystem and exosystem affect the families of parents and adolescents.

Although the effects of the exosystem were not examined, extended family, neighbors and friends of the family may affect the interaction between parents and their adolescent children. Mass media and other social and legal services also affect families and their relationships. These important variables should be considered and examined in future studies regarding parent-teen interaction.

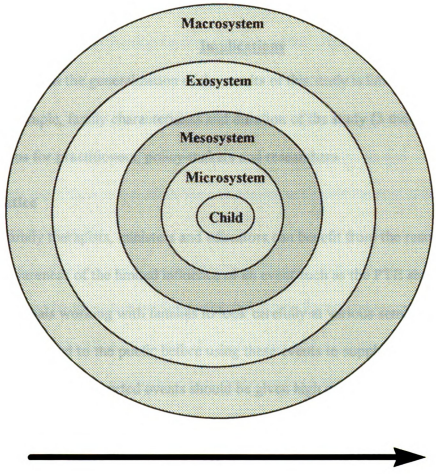


Figure 11 - Bronfenbrenner's Model of the Ecology of Human Development

Adapted from Child & Adolescent Development, Lawrence B. Schiamberg, Macmillan, 1988

Implications

Although the generalization of the results of this study is limited by several factors including sample, family characteristics and duration of the study (3 months), there are implications for practitioners, policy-makers and researchers.

For Practice

Family therapists, ministers and educators can benefit from the results of this study. Awareness of the limited influence of an event such as the PTE should encourage all professionals working with families to look carefully at various seminars and workshops offered to the public before using these events to supplement their services to families. Research supported events should be given high priority over events such as the PTE which has limited support from research to date. However, anecdotal evidence of the influence of a PTE is very positive. Years after participating in the event parents were still talking about positive effects in their parent-teen relationships. Perhaps a different methodology, using other instruments and approaches, would yield more information. Parents and adolescents could be interviewed to confirm anecdotal evidence offered at the end of the seminar. When parents and adolescents were asked to complete an evaluation of the seminar by answering two questions about the seminar, most adolescents and parents responded very positively. Participants were asked, "What did you like most about the seminar?" and "What did you like least about the seminar?"

A seminar like this is needed, since there is little offered to parents and teens today which builds family strengths. Perhaps, with some revision, the Parent-Teen-Event could be presented with more positive results. Communication and conflict resolution sessions

could be changed to give participants more skills in those areas. More cohesion building activities could be used to bring families closer together. Activities could be structured to encourage family adaptability. Two male presenters were used in this study, and perhaps a female presenter on the team would affect adolescent girls more positively. The seminar could be presented over several weeks, rather than in a one-day format. This would give participants more time to assimilate the information and make the application to the parent-teen relationship.

Family therapists need to consider the differences in positive parent-teen interaction and family cohesion due to different family forms, gender, age of adolescents, occupation and education of parents. Consideration of the influence of these variables will lead to a greater understanding of clients' presenting and underlying problems, and will aid in diagnosis and formation of treatment plans.

Earlier research found that identity formation is strongly affected by parent-adolescent relationships and positive parent-teen interaction (Kamptner, 1984; Adams & Fitch, 1982; Campbell, Adams & Dobson, 1984; Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Hauser, Powers, Hoam & Bowlds, 1987; Grotevant & Cooper, 1985). Participation in a PTE or similar event which brings parents and adolescents together enables family members to build positive family relationships, which in turn may positively affect identity formation.

Family ministers need to be aware of the limited results of some seminars and workshops offered to families. They need to be careful to sponsor research supported events whenever possible. Current seminars such as PTE need to be strengthened to reflect findings from this research. Similar seminars could be developed in local churches and synagogues using various community professionals and religious leaders for

presenters. Content for the seminar could be adapted from Stinnett and DeFrain's Family Strengths Model, which is non-sectarian in nature. Religious content could be included which supports the theology of the group of local churches, parishes or synagogues.

Most of Stinnett and DeFrain's research is consistent with and supported by Scripture. For example, parents are instructed to "Train a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not turn from it" (Proverbs 22:6, NIV Bible, Zondervan, 1978). Fathers are further instructed, "Do not exasperate your children; instead, bring them up in the training and instruction of the Lord" (Ephesians 6:4, NIV Bible, Zondervan, 1978). In each of these references the biblical writer encourages parents to examine the particular needs of their children as they relate to training. The writer of Proverbs alludes to the unique way in which each child should go. The writer of Ephesians tells fathers to be careful not to "exasperate" their children. The implication in both cases is for parents to know their children well, their strengths and their weaknesses, their abilities and their inabilities, their likes and their dislikes, then to train them accordingly. Stinnett and DeFrain (1985) found "family commitment" to be a major strength. This family strength is defined as helping family members become all they can be. The implication is to know your children well and help them develop in the particular way that would make best use of their qualities and abilities so they may become "all they can be." To do any less may frustrate the children.

The writer of the Proverbs reminds us, "A gentle answer turns away wrath, but a harsh word stirs up anger" (Proverbs 15:1, NIV Bible, Zondervan, 1978). James, the brother of Jesus, tells us, "Everyone should be quick to listen, slow to speak and slow to become angry, for man's anger does not bring about the righteous life that God desires"

(James 1:19-20, NIV Bible, Zondervan, 1978). One of the family strengths discovered by Stinnett and DeFrain (1985) is family communication. The two references above directly relate to positive communication, both speaking and listening.

The fathers of ancient Israel were reminded to "Love the Lord your God with all your heart and with all your soul and with all your strength. These commandments that I give you today are to be upon your hearts. Impress them on your children. Talk about them when you sit at home and when you walk along the road, when you lie down and when you get up" Deuteronomy 6:4-7, NIV Bible, Zondervan, 1978). Spiritual wellness is one of the six major family strengths listed by Stinnett and DeFrain (1985). Spiritual wellness can best be defined as a proper relationship (a wellness) with God. Moses, the writer of Deuteronomy, tells parents, especially fathers, that it is their responsibility to instill biblical truth in their children about loving God. This is to be done, not in a professional school setting, but in the daily life of a family, as family members interact together in the microsystem.

The apostle Paul, in his letter to the Ephesians, wrote "Do not let any unwholesome talk come out of your mouths, but only what is helpful for building others up according to their needs, that it may benefit those who listen (Ephesians 4:29, NIV Bible, Zondervan, 1978). This biblical truth supports the family strengths of communication and appreciation discovered by Stinnett and DeFrain (1985) in their research. Paul writes about positive communication and building others up. Many of his epistles begin with appreciation and thanksgiving expressed for the recipients of the letter (Philippians 1:3; Colossians 1:3; I Thessalonians 1:2; II Thessalonians 1:3, NIV Bible,

Zondervan, 1978). Much more scripture could be cited which directly supports the research of Stinnett and DeFrain on family strengths.

Family educators in colleges and communities need to be aware of the limited potential of some events, such as the PTE, to positively influence parent-teen relationships. However, events such as the PTE could be refined, presented and studied for effectiveness. Although the participants in this study were not chosen from a clinical population, it may be possible for this type of seminar to be presented to clinical populations with different and more positive results. The development of family strengths would enable families to cope with problems such as substance abuse, family violence, teenage pregnancy and criminal activities of youth. If effective programs were being presented periodically, courts, churches and family therapists could refer families to these seminars as part of the treatment program.

Schools could sponsor events such as the PTE for students and their parents. Earlier research indicates that positive school attitudes and higher academic achievement are correlated with positive parent-teen interaction and quality family relationships (Steinberg, Elmen & Mounts, 1989; Cotterell, 1992; Masselam, Marcus & Stunkard, 1989 and Clark, 1983). An improved PTE may do a better job of addressing these issues. Educators need to implement this type of family education to build these family qualities, which indirectly affect the problems noted above.

For Policy

Although the results from this research may not directly affect policy-makers, leading to new legislation, policy-makers need to be aware of the significance of strong families. Previous research cited in chapter 2 documents the effects of strong families on

school attitudes and achievement, sexual risk-taking behaviors, prosocial behavior and psychological development. Policy-makers need to consider the effects of future and impending legislation on families. They need to be constantly asking the question, "How will this legislation affect families?"

For Research

The data from this research support many previous studies and indicate a need for additional research related to parent-teen relationships.

Data from this present study support earlier research which found that parents report higher levels of communication with adolescents than do adolescents with parents (Barnes & Olson, 1985; Keith, 1985; Montemayor, 1986; Smetana, 1989; Olson, Russell & Sprenkle, 1983; Moos, 1974). The findings on fathers and daughters parent-teen interaction is consistent with earlier studies by Bezilla, 1988; Barnes & Olson, 1985; and Steinberg, 1987, which found higher levels of positive communication of adolescents with mothers than with their fathers. One of the reasons for this may be the tendency of parents to emphasize more intimacy and closeness with daughters and more autonomy with sons (Block, 1983; Feldman, 1982; Huston, 1983; Leaper, 1989).

Adolescents indicated a high level of family cohesion and feeling "connected" with their parents (M =56.185). This places them in the "connected" category of Olson's Circumplex Model of Family Systems. This is consistent with earlier research which found that between two-thirds and three-quarters of adolescents feel close to their parents (Bachman, Johnston & O'Malley, 1987; Steinberg, Elmen & Mounts, 1989).

Adolescents from two-parent biological families reported higher levels of family cohesion than did adolescents from other forms of family (Mean Difference = 8.29, p

=.081). Although this finding did not reach statistical significance, a larger sample may have enabled this finding to reach significance. The cell size for "other forms of family" was nine. This finding is consistent with studies of Barber and Lyons (1994).

There are several questions that arise from this study that need further investigation: (1) Why did daughters score significantly lower than sons on communication with their fathers? (2) is there something about this type of seminar that affects adolescent boys more positively than adolescent girls? (3) would a female presenter on the team relate better to adolescent girls? (4) how would the results differ with larger numbers? (5) how would the results differ with a different racial/ethnic sample? (6) how would these results differ in a group with lower S.E.S.? (7) how would these results differ in a less religious sample? (8) should this seminar be more skill oriented, especially the sessions on communication and conflict resolution?

Limitations

There are two serious limitations which may affect the strength and generalizability of the findings from this study. Both of these are related to sampling. The most important limitations are (1) the white, Protestant, middle to upper-middle class sample; (2) the sample size, which at times limited power to detect statistical significance.

The sample for this study did not adequately represent minority groups or lower socio-economic groups. Non-traditional families such as single parent, step and blended families attended the PTE, but were not well represented. Future studies should include more non-traditional families, various racial/ethnic groups and more participants from lower socio-economic classes.

The sample size was generally adequate for statistical purposes, but at times cell size limited detection of significance, especially when the groups were broken down by family characteristics. Larger studies should be attempted on events such as a PTE. Results could vary greatly with a larger sample, and a larger sample might provide more information on the effects of various family characteristics.

Conclusions

This research provides limited support for the seminar called the Parent-Teen Event presented by Face to Face Ministries. Most increases in positive parent-teen interaction and family cohesion did not reach statistical significance. Family adaptability was not significantly affected by this seminar. The seminar seemed to benefit parent-son relationships more than parent-daughter relationships. The father-daughter relationship was least positively affected by the PTE. However, there was a trend toward higher scores for participants at T2 for most variables.

This researcher used .05 as the level of significance for acceptance or rejection of the null-hypotheses. In the light of the exploratory nature of this study, a level of significance of .10 may be more reasonable in detecting statistical significance.

Developers of the seminar need to address some of the questions noted above, especially the question about the lower scores for the father-daughter relationship. Additional research would be helpful to support the conclusions of this study and to give direction for further development and continual improvement of the Parent-Teen Event.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

A description of a Parent-Teen Event

A Face to Face Parent-Teen Event is an eight-hour one-day seminar designed to bring parents and teens together to build four family strengths: time together, communication, conflict resolution and appreciation. Four sessions are presented by Jerry and Jack Schreur, a father and son team. These sessions are approximately one and one-half hours each with short breaks between the first and second sessions, then a break for lunch, followed by the last two sessions, with another short break between the third and fourth sessions. Typically the day begins at 8:30 A.M. and ends at about 4:30 P.M.

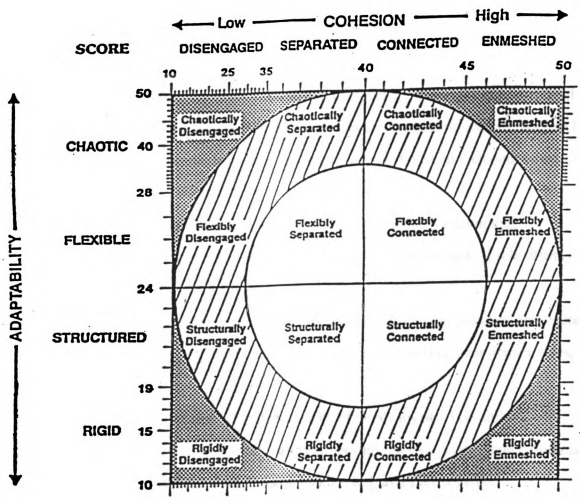
Experienced presenters use humor, stories, scripture and research findings to encourage family members to build strong family relationships. Various teaching methods are employed such as: lecture, storytelling, video clips, small group discussion, brainstorming and paper exercises. Participants are actively involved in a very positive learning experience, with family members interacting together and with other families. Sessions move along quickly with little opportunity for boredom or inactivity.

Most of the Parent-Teen Events (PTE) are conducted in church facilities, with lunch served on the premises. Usually two or more churches combine for a PTE. Most events are rather small, with 10 to 30 families attending. Families are charged $55 per family. This fee covers speaker fees, a notebook for each family and lunch, which is usually provided by the host church. Both parents are encouraged to attend with their teen(s), and single parents are welcome. Parents are discouraged from attending without at least one of their teenagers attending with them.

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Circumplex Model of Marital & Family Systems



Olson, D.H., Fournier, D.G. & Druckman, J.M. (1988), Prepare Enrich Counselor's Manual, p. 105

APPENDIX B

Circumplex Model – Balanced and Extreme Types

Balanced Systems: *Separated to connected on cohesion.* There is a good balance between too close and too separate. There is a balance of time together with time apart with some involvement between members. There is some independent decision making and some joint decisions. There is a balance between energy focused inside and outside the family. Loyalty of the family is expected but not demanded. *Structured to flexible on adaptability*. Leadership is sometimes shared and democratic. The roles and household responsibilities are stable but may be shared. The rules are predictable and fair, but can be flexible when needed. The children's feelings are sometimes taken into account when making decisions.

Chaotic: Erratic leadership, unsuccessful parental control, ineffective discipline, inconsistent consequences, impulsive decisions, endless negotiation, lack of role clarity, role reversals and frequent rule changes.

Rigid: Authoritarian leadership, highly controlling parents, strict consequences and limited negotiations with parents. Strictly defined roles, generally traditional male-female roles, and unchanging rules.

Disengaged: Extreme emotional separateness, lack of family loyalty, very little involvement with each other, very little sharing of feelings, lack of parent-child closeness; separateness preferred, independent decision making and little time together.

Enmeshed: Extreme emotional closeness, loyalty to family demanded, very dependent of one another, little private space permitted, lack of generational boundaries, energy mainly focused inside the family, few individual friends permitted, very reactive emotionally, decisions are subject to the wishes of the whole group.

Adapted from Olson, D.H., Fournier, D.G. & Druckman, J.M. (1988), Prepare Enrich Counselor's Manual, p. 107

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

Family information: Parents form

Please check (√) the appropriate items or fill in the appropriate information that best describes you and your family.

1. Marital status?
   ___(1) Married
   ___(2) Single
   ___(3) Divorced/Separated

2. Gender?
   ___(1) Male
   ___(2) Female

3. Age?
   ___Years

4. On average, about how many hours do you work per week for pay?
   ___Hours

5. What is your occupation? Check the number that best describes your work.
   ___(1) Professionals, Doctors, Lawyers, Executives
   ___(2) Other Professionals, Managers, Teachers, Nurses
   ___(3) Skilled and Building Trades, Farmer
   ___(4) Sales, Technicians, Clerical
   ___(5) Laborer, Factory Worker, Waitress
   ___(6) General Service Employees
   ___(7) Homemaker

6. What is your annual household income (before taxes)?
   _____

7. How many children (ages 18 and under) presently reside in your household a majority of the time?
   ___Children

APPENDIX C

8. Please check the highest level of education you have completed
___(1) Less than high school
___(2) High school
___(3) Some college
___(4) Bachelor's degree
___(5) Some graduate work
___(6) Graduate degree

9. Please check the best description of your family
___(1) Two-parent biological family
___(2) Stepfamily ie. remarried with stepchildren living with you
___(3) Blended family ie., remarried with children from both previous marriages living together and/or with children from present marriage
___(4) Single parent family
___(5) Other

10. Did you attend all four sessions of the Parent-Teen Encounter?
___Yes
___No

11. How many of your teenage children attended the PTE?
___Teenagers

12. Did your children attend all four sessions of the PTE?
___Yes
___No

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

Family information: Teenager's form

Please check (√) the appropriate items or fill in the appropriate information that best describes you and your family.

1. Age
   ___Years

2. Gender
   ___(1) Male
   ___(2) Female

3. Where do you live the majority of the time?
   ___(1) With both biological parents
   ___(2) With one parent
   ___(3) With parent and step-parent
   ___(4) Other

4. Did you attend all four sessions of the Parent-Teen Encounter?
   ___(1) Yes
   ___(2) No

5. Did both biological parents attend the entire seminar?
   ___(1) Yes
   ___(2) No

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Twin Cities Campus

Family Social Science
College of Human Ecology

290 McNeal Hall
1985 Buford Avenue
St. Paul, MN 55108
612-625-7250
Fax: 612-625-4227

PERMISSION TO USE FAMILY INVENTORIES

I am pleased to give you permission to use the instruments included in **Family Inventories**. You have my permission to duplicate these materials for your clinical work, teaching, or research project. You can either duplicate the materials directly from the manual or have them retyped for use in a new format. If they are retyped, acknowledgements should be given regarding the name of the instrument, developers' names, and the University of Minnesota.

If you are planning to use FILE, A-FILE, and **F-COPES**, you need to obtain separate permission from **Dr. Hamilton McCubbin**. His address is 1300 Linden Drive, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706.

Separate permission is also required to use the **ENRICH** inventory in either clinical work or research. This is because the inventory is computer scored and is distributed through the PREPARE/ENRICH office. Contact Dr. David Olson at PREPARE/ENRICH, P.O. Box 190, Minneapolis, MN 55458.

In exchange for providing this permission, we would appreciate a copy of any papers, thesis, or reports that you complete using these inventories. This will help us in staying abreast of the most recent development and research with these scales. Thank you for your cooperation.

In closing, I hope you find the **Family Inventories** of value in your work with couples and families. I would appreciate feedback regarding how these instruments are used and how well they are working for you.

Sincerely

David H. Olson, Ph.D.
Professor

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F

Parent-Adolescent Communication: Adolescent Form*
Items

Howard L. Barnes & David H. Olson, 1982

Mother	Father	
1.	21.	I can discuss my beliefs with my mother/father without feeling restrained or embarrassed.
2.	22.	Sometimes I have trouble believing everything my mother/father tells me.
3.	23.	My mother/father is always a good listener.
4.	24.	I am sometimes afraid to ask my mother/father for what I want.
5.	25.	My mother/father has a tendency to say things to me that would be better left unsaid.
6.	26.	My mother/father can tell how I'm feeling without asking.
7.	27.	I am very satisfied with how my mother/father and I talk together.
8.	28.	If I were in trouble, I could tell my mother/father.
9.	29.	I openly show affection to my mother/father.
10.	30.	When we are having a problem, I often give my mother/father the silent treatment.
11.	31.	I am careful about what I say to my mother/father.
12.	32.	When talking to my mother/father, I have a tendency to say things that would be better left unsaid.
13.	33.	When I ask questions, I get honest answers from my mother/father.
14.	34.	My mother/father tries to understand my point of view.

APPENDIX F

15.	35.	There are topics I avoid discussing with my mother/father.
16.	36.	I find it easy to discuss problems with my mother/father.
17.	37.	It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to my mother/father.
18.	38.	My mother/father nags/bothers me.
19.	39.	My mother/father insults me when s/he is angry with me.
20.	40.	I don't think I can tell my mother/father how I really feel about some things.

* Parent form includes the items written from a parental perspective. Example: "My son/daughter"

APPENDIX F

Factor loadings of the Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale
Howard Barnes & David Olson
Family Inventories, p 55

Open Family Communication (Factor I)

16. I find it easy to discuss problems with my mother/father, or child	.70
7. I am very satisfied with how my mother/father, or child and I talk together.	.71
3. My mother/father, or child is always a good listener.	.59
1. I can discuss my beliefs with my mother/father, or child without feeling restrained or embarrassed.	.53
14. My mother/father, or child tries to understand my point of view.	.66
17. It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to my mother/father, or child	.66
8. If I were in trouble, I could tell my mother/father, or child.	.59
6. My mother/father, or child can tell how I'm feeling without asking.	.48
9. I openly show affection to my mother/father, or child.	.55
13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from my mother/father, or child.	.55

Problems in Family Communication (Factor II)

19. My mother/father, or child insults me when they are angry with me.	.47
5. My mother/father, or child has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.	.60
18. My mother/father, or child nags me.	.55
2. Sometimes I have trouble believing everything my mother/father, or child tells me.	.29
12. When talking with my mother/father, or child, I have a tendency to say things that would be better left unsaid.	.58

APPENDIX F

10. When we are having a problem, I often give my mother/father, or child the silent treatment.	.56
15. There are topics I avoid discussing with my mother/father, or child.	.45
20. I don't think I can tell my mother/father, or child how I really feel about some things.	.57
11. I am careful about what I say to my mother/father, or child.	.26
4. I am sometimes afraid to ask my mother/father, or child for what I want.	.49

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G

FACES II Items

D.H. Olson, J. Portner, & Richard Bell, 1982

1. Family members are supportive of each other during difficult times.
2. In our family, it is easy for everyone to express his/her opinion.
3. It is easier to discuss problems with people outside the family than with other family members.
4. Each family members has input in major family decisions.
5. Our family gathers together in the same room.
6. Children have a say in their discipline.
7. Our family does things together..
8. Family members discuss problems and feel good about the solutions.
9. In our family everyone goes his/her own way.
10. We shift household responsibilities from person to person.
11. Family members know each other's close friends.
12. It is hard to know what the rules are in our family.
13. Family members consult other family members on their decisions.
14. Family members say what they want.
15. We have difficulty thinking of things to do as a family.
16. In solving problems, the children's suggestions are followed.
17. Family members feel very close to each other.
18. Discipline is fair in our family.

APPENDIX G

19. Family members feel closer to people outside the family than to other family members.

20. Our family tries new ways of dealing with problems.

21. Family members go along with what the family decides to do.

22. In our family, everyone shares responsibilities.

23. Family members like to spend their free time with each other.

24. It is difficult to get a rule changed in our family.

25. Family members avoid each other at home.

26. When problems arise, we compromise.

27. We approve of each other's friends.

28. Family members are afraid to say what is on their minds.

29. Family members pair up rather than do things as a total family.

30. Family members share interests and hobbies with each other.

APPENDIX H

APPENDIX H

Letter requesting participation

Mr. and Mrs. Joe Smith
201 W. Fulton Apt 912
Grand Rapids, MI 49503

Dear Mr. and Mrs. Smith:

I am the Minister of Family Life in a large church in Grand Rapids, Michigan, cofounder of Face to Face Ministries, and also a graduate student at Michigan State University, involved in the study of families and their strengths. I am currently researching positive family interaction with parents and teenagers.

Your pastor has suggested that you might want to help me by participating in this study. This study measures family interaction over time so it will be necessary to complete a questionnaire at two (2) separate times, the first time will be in_____of this year. The second time will be approximately 3 months later. Both parents (if possible) and all adolescent children between the ages of 12 and 18 are asked to complete the questionnaires. All answers are confidential.

This research will be extremely helpful for churches and organizations who are attempting to meet the changing needs of families in the nineties. If you and your family would like to be a part of this research and help me in this important project please complete and mail the enclosed card as soon as possible.

Later this year we will be conducting a Parent-Teen-Event for your church. Your pastor has more information. In appreciation for your help in this project I will send your family a cassette tape series entitled Family Fears. If you have any questions please call me at _____ (home) or _____(church).

Sincerely,

Rev. Jerry Schreur
Doctoral Candidate
Dept. of Family & Child Ecology-MSU

Face to Face Ministries
P.O. Box 6672
Grand Rapids, MI 49516

APPENDIX H

Return Card

Dear Rev.Schreur:

We would like to participate in your study of parent-teen interaction. We understand that all answers are confidential. Please send us the questionnaires to complete.

Name(s)_____
(Please give both names if two-parent family)

Address_____

City_____

State_____Zip_____

Teens' Names and Ages: (12-18)

Name_____Age_____

Name_____Age_____

Name_____Age_____

Please mail this card in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope.

I will mail you the first set of questionnaires on or about_____

APPENDIX I

APPENDIX I

Cover letter for questionnaire

Mr. and Mrs.Joe Smith
201 W. Fulton Apt 912
Grand Rapids, MI 49503

Dear Mr. and Mrs. Smith:

Thank you for agreeing to be a part of our study on positive parent-teen interaction. Enclosed are questionnaires for you and your teenagers to complete and return. Forms are appropriately labeled "Parent" and "Adolescent" and are self-explanatory.

Please do not consult with each other while completing the forms. Allow each family member privacy and confidentiality while completing and mailing these forms.

Please complete these forms as soon as possible and mail them to me in the enclosed self-addressed envelopes. In approximately 3 months I will send you another set of identical forms to complete.

Thanks so much for your help in this project!

Sincerely,

Rev. Jerry Schreur
Doctoral Candidate
Dept. of Family & Child Ecology-MSU

Face to Face Ministries
P.O. Box 6672
Grand Rapids, MI 49516

APPENDIX J

APPENDIX J

MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY

July 13, 1993

TO: Jerry Schreur
201 W. Fulton, Apt. 1011
Grand Rapids, MI 49503

RE: **IRB #:** 93-250
TITLE: THE INFLUENCE OF A PARENT-TEEN ENCOUNTER ON PARENT-TEEN INTERACTION
CATEGORY: Full Review
REVISION REQUESTED: N/A
APPROVAL DATE: July 12, 1993

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects' (UCRIHS) review of this project is complete. I am pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and methods to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Therefore, the UCRIHS approved this project including any revision listed above.

UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year, beginning with the approval date shown above. Investigators planning to continue a project beyond one year must seek updated certification. Request for renewed approval must be accompanied by all four of the following mandatory assurances.

1. The human subjects protocol is the same as in previous studies.
2. There have been no ill effects suffered by the subjects due to their participation in the study.
3. There have been no complaints by the subjects or their representatives related to their participation in the study.
4. There has not been a change in the research environment nor new information which would indicate greater risk to human subjects than that assumed when the protocol was initially reviewed and approved.

There is a maximum of four such expedited renewals possible. Investigators wishing to continue a project beyond that time need to submit it again for complete review.

UCRIHS must review any changes in procedures involving human subjects, prior to initiation of the change. Investigators must notify UCRIHS promptly of any problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects during the course of the work.

If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to contact us at (517) 355-2180 or FAX (517) 336-1171.

Sincerely,

David E. Wright, Ph.D.
UCRIHS Chair

DEW:pjm

cc: Dr. Barbara Ames ✓

OFFICE OF
RESEARCH
AND
GRADUATE
STUDIES
University Committee on
Research Involving
Human Subjects
(UCRIHS)
Michigan State University
225 Administration Building
East Lansing, Michigan
48824-1046
517/355-2180
FAX: 517/336-1171

APPENDIX K

APPENDIX K

T1 participants and non-participants scores

E = experimental group
C = control group
P = participants at T1 & T2
NP = non-participants (participants at T1 but not at T2)

Group	n	Variable	Mean Score	S.D.
Adol E P	31	Age	14.13	1.67
Adol E NP	90	Age	14.11	1.58
t-test sig. dif			p = .957	
Adol E P	31	Comm w mom	65.94	13.68
Adol E NP	84	Comm w mom	63.26	12.00
t-tests sig. dif.			p = .310	
Adol E P	27	Comm w dad	61.37	15.58
Adol E NP	79	Comm w dad	63.90	12.75
t-test sig. dif.			p = .403	
Adol E P	31	Adaptability	43.67	9.05
Adol E NP	90	Adaptability	41.13	7.92
t-test sig. dif.			p = .140	
Adol E P	31	Cohesion	56.29	
Adol E NP	90	Cohesion	52.97	
t-test sig. dif.			P = .139	

Group	n	Variable	Mean Score	S.D.
Adol C P	16	Age	14.50	1.90
Adol C NP	20	Age	14.85	1.76
t-test sig. dif.			P = .570	
Adol C P	16	Comm w mom	73.94	14.61
Adol C NP	20	Comm w mom	69.15	13.37
t-test sig. dif.			P = .313	
Adol C P	15	Comm w dad	69.80	15.74
Adol C NP	20	Comm w dad	67.30	11.61
t-test sig. dif.			P = .592	
Adol C P	16	Adaptability	47.50	7.11
Adol C NP	20	Adaptability	43.80	1.54
t-test sig. dif.			P = .124	
Adol C P	16	Cohesion	59.56	13.87
Adol C NP	20	Cohesion	58.00	9.81
t-test sig. dif.			P = .695	

APPENDIX K

Group	n	Variable	Mean Score	S.D.
Parents E P	24	Comm w sons	67.83	10.48
Parents E NP	74	Comm w sons	66.72	13.73
t-test sig. dif.			P = .716	
Parents E P	25	Comm w dau.	68.24	11.93
Parents E NP	65	Comm w dau.	64.62	13.01
t-test sig. dif.			P = .229	
Parents E P	44	Adaptability	46.55	8.06
Parents E NP	116	Adaptability	44.69	6.51
t-test sig. dif.			P = .134	
Parents E P	44	Cohesion	57.43	9.48
Parents E NP	117	Cohesion	56.55	9.97
t-test sig. dif.			P = .612	
Parents E P	35	Hours worked	37.77	17.00
Parents E NP	91	Hours worked	39.25	14.05
t-test sig. dif.			P = .618	
Parents E P	37	Income	72.19	64.35
Parents E NP	97	Income	57.88	38.52
t-test sig. dif.			P = .117	
Parents E P	44	Education	3.82	1.28
Parents E NP	117	Education	3.85	1.38
t-test sig. dif.			P = .879	
Parents E P	44	Age	41.43	5.24
Parents E NP	114	Age	42.97	3.88
t-test sig. dif.			P = .045	
Parents E P	44	# of children	2.11	.895
Parents E NP	117	# of children	2.29	1.08
t-test sig. dif.			P = .335	

APPENDIX K

Group	n	Variable	Mean Score	S.D.
Parents C P	12	Comm w sons	75.92	9.09
Parents C NP	16	Comm w sons	75.19	17.63
t-test sig. dif.			p = .897	
Parents C P	15	Comm w dau.	83.07	7.80
Parents C NP	14	Comm w dau.	75.57	10.54
t-test sig. dif.			p = .038	
Parents C P	21	Adaptability	49.05	5.01
Parents C NP	20	Adaptability	46.85	6.42
t-test sig. dif.			p = .228	
Parents C P	21	Cohesion	64.33	7.88
Parents C NP	20	Cohesion	63.05	7.97
t-test sig. dif.			p = .607	
Parents C P	18	Hours worked	34.89	15.28
Parents C NP	18	Hours worked	38.05	14.93
t-test sig. dif.			p = .534	
Parents C P	18	Income	50.16	20.24
Parents C NP	13	Income	42.38	8.41
t-test sig. dif.			p = .203	
Parents C P	20	Education	2.80	1.00
Parents C NP	20	Education	2.80	.894
t-test sig. dif.			p = 1.00	
Parents C P	21	Age	41.29	5.49
Parents C NP	20	Age	41.05	5.61
t-test sig. dif.			p = .893	
Parents C P	21	# of children	2.52	1.17
Parents C NP	20	# of children	2.70	.979
t-test sig.dif.			p = .604	

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