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YOUNG WOMEN'S PHENOMENOLOGICAL SENSE OF FATHER AND PARENTAL MARITAL RELATIONSHIP AND THEIR RELATION TO PATERNAL LOSS

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Susan J. Darlington

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YOUNG WOMEN'S PHENOMENOLOGICAL SENSE OF FATHER AND PARENTAL MARITAL RELATIONSHIP AND THEIR RELATION TO PATERNAL LOSS

By

Susan J. Darlington

A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

YOUNG WOMEN'S PHENOMENOLOGICAL SENSE OF FATHER AND PARENTAL MARITAL RELATIONSHIP AND THEIR RELATION TO PATERNAL LOSS

By

Susan J. Darlington

Studies on the effects of father absence on children often fail to consider the type of father lost. Additionally, few have addressed the importance of the father-daughter relationship. When perceptions of father have been examined, subjects with absent fathers have been excluded.

The purpose of this study was, first, to measure women's perception of father on a number of factors to determine how this sense differs with father loss, cause and time of loss, perception of the parental marital relationships, and presence of an older brother; second, to develop scales to aid in examining these factors. These scales included the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS), Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS), Recall of Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS), Perception of Parental Death Scale (PPDS), and the previously-developed Schaffer Childrens' Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI).

Questionnaire reliabilities and scales' relationships were computed on responses of 181 women drawn from four universities.

Differences between groups were determined by 20 widows' daughters, 28 divorcees' daughters, and a random selection of 25 daughters from intact homes.

Multivariate analyses of variance were performed. There were no significant differences between women from divorcees', widows' and two-parents' homes on any of the measures except for responses to the PPMRS. While women from intact and widows' homes responded similarly, women from divorced homes scored significantly higher, reporting much more dissimiliarity between their view of an ideal marriage and their parents'. Supplementary analyses of women whose fathers died and those whose fathers divorced found significant differences on Factor II (Lax versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI. Women from divorcees' homes indicated significantly more lax control than women from widowed homes. Trends in univariates showed divorced fathers were perceived as more extreme autonomy granting and less child-centered than intact and widows' husbands. Intact home fathers were reported as more likely to use withdrawal of relations as a means of control than either of the loss groups. These results suggest that widows' daughters have perceptions of their fathers as being more protectively involved than the divorcees' perceptions of their living fathers.

A correlational matrix, run to determine relationships between sclaes, revealed three good, one moderate, and two fair significant correlations between Schaffer's scale's Factor I and the Discrepancy form of the PFS. Also, there were one good, three moderate, and three weak significant correlations between Schaffer's Factor I

scales and the Real form of the PFS. There were no other significant correlations between Schaffer's Factors I, II, and III, PFS, PPMRS, RPDS, and PPDS.

. . . I sit in the dark studio and talk to the child: "You can see by what is happening in the world that there is no father taking care of us. We are all orphans. You will be a child without a father as I was a child without a father . . ."

But inside this woman there is still a child; there is still a ghost of a little girl forever wailing inside, wailing the loss of a father. Will you go about, as I did, knocking on windows, watching every caress and protective love given to other children. For as soon as you will be born, as just as soon as I was born, man the husband, lover, friend, will leave as my father did.

It would be better to die than to be abandoned, for you would spend your life hunting the world for this lost father, this fragment of your body and soul, this lost fragment of your very self [speaking to her yet unborn child] (Nin, Vol. 1, 1966, pp. 339-340).

Gersh and Kathy

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF TABLES ix

LIST OF FIGURES xii

LIST OF APPENDICES xiii

Chapter

I. INTRODUCTION 1

Need for the Study 2
Purpose of the Study 3
Theory 4
Father-Family Effect 4
Older Brother Effect 8
Time of Loss Effect 8
Summary of Theory 9
Hypotheses 10
Causal-Comparative Hypotheses 10
Father-Family Effect 10
Older Brother Effect 11
Time of Loss Effect 11
Correlational Hypotheses Relationship Between Scales 11
Overview 12
Chapter II 13
Chapter III 13
Chapter IV 13
Chapter V 13

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE 14

Father-Daughter Relationships: Theory 14
Summary of Father-Daughter Relationship Theory . . 18
Father-Daughter Relationships: Research 19
Summary of Father Daughter Relationship Research . 26
Loss of Father--Impact on Daughter 28
Loss of Father by Divorce 30
Loss of Father by Death 32
Summary of Loss of Father--Impact on Daughter . . 35

Page

Father Absence and Sibling Composition 37
Summary of Father Absence and Sibling Composition . 38
Time of Father Loss 38
Summary of Time of Father Loss 42
Marital Relationship and Intactness of the Home . . 44
Summary of Marital Relationship and Intactness of the Home 47
Summary 48
Discussion 50

III. DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY 53

Hypotheses 53
Data Analysis 58
Design Hypotheses 1 through 13 60
Design Hypotheses 10 through 18 62
Population and Selection and Description of the Sample 63
Population 63
Selection of Sample 64
Sample Description 66
Instrumentation 72
Overview of Retrospective Parenting Scales . . . 73
Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) 80
Reliability of the CRPBI from Sample Data 91
Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS) 92
Phenomenological Parent Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS) 107
Perception of Parental Death Scale (PPDS) 109
Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS) 110
Summary 112

IV. ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS 114

Causal-Comparative Hypotheses 114
Father-Family Effect (Tested by Multivariate Analysis) 114
Father-Family Effect (Tested by Analysis of Variance) 115
Older Brother Effect (Tested by Multivariate Analysis) 117
Older Brother Effect (Analysis of Variance) . . . 118
Time of Loss Effect (Tested by Multivariate Analysis of Variance) 118
Time of Loss Effect (Tested by Analysis of Variance) 119
Summary of Causal-Comparative Hypotheses' Tests . . 120

Page

Correlational Hypotheses 120
Hypotheses 13 through 15--Relationship Between the CRPBI, PPMRS, and PFS 122
Hypotheses 16 through 18--Relationship Between the CRPBI, PFS, PPMRS, and the Perception of Parental Death Scale (PPDS) 127
Hypotheses 19 through 21--Relationship Between the CRPBI, PFS, PPMRS, and the Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS) 128
Summary of Correlational Hypothesis Testing 130
Summary of Hypothesis Testing 130
Supplementary Analyses 132
Multivariate Analysis of Differences Between Two Loss Groups 132
Multivariate Analysis of Differences Between Two Groups, Loss and No Loss 136
Univariate Analyses of Multivariates Used for Testing Hypotheses 136
Univariate of Interest in Examining Differences in Time of Loss 141
Supplementary Analysis: Summary 141
Summary 144

V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND IMPLICATIONS 147

Summary 147
The Problem 147
Design and Method 147
Results 148
Limitations 151
Subjects 151
Design and Methodology 151
Measures 155
Discussion of the Results 157
Group Differences 157
Scale Relationships 160
Implications for Future Research 160

LIST OF REFERENCES 165

APPENDICES 176

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
3.1	Causal-Comparative Design	60
3.2	Cell Sizes in Correlational Design	63
3.3	Father's Occupational Level and Intactness of the Family	67
3.4	Mother's Occupational Level and Intactness of the Family	68
3.5	Father's Completed Educational Level and Intactness of Family	70
3.6	Mother's Completed Educational Level and Intactness of Family	71
3.7	Classification of Children's Reports of Parental Behavior in Terms of Factor Dimensions	75
3.8	Concepts and Sample Items of the Revised Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory	82
3.9	Orthogonally Rotated Composite Factor Matrix for Young Woman's Reports of Paternal Behavior	89
3.10	Internal-Consistency Reliabilities for the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory Scales . . .	93
3.11	Concepts and Sample Items for the Phenomenal Fathering Scale	98
3.12	Hoyt Reliability Coefficients for the Revised Real and Ideal Tests of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale	99
3.13	Real Factors Determined by an Eigen Value of 1.00 .	101
3.14	Ideal Factors Determined by an Eigen Value of 1.00 .	102
3.15	Real Factors Determined by a Varimax Rotation Setting of Twelve	103

Table		Page
3.16	Ideal Factors Determined by a Varimax Rotation Setting of Fourteen	104
3.17	Hoyt Reliability Coefficients for the Real, Ideal, and Discrepancy Forms of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale	107
3.18	Hoyt Reliability Coefficients for the Real, Ideal, and Discrepancy Forms of the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale	109
3.19	Divorce Factors Determined by an Eigen Value of 1.00	112
4.1	Mean and Standard Devision on the PPMRS of Three Groups	116
4.2	Factor Analysis of Group Differences' Results	121
4.3	Significant Relationships Between Each of the Scales of Schaffer's Factor I and the Real Form of the PFS	124
4.4	Significant Relationships Between Each of the Scales of Schaffer's Factor I and the Discrepancy Form PFS	124
4.5	Relationships Between Schaffer's Factor II and the Discrepancy Form PFS	126
4.6	Relationships Between Schaffer's Factor III and the Discrepancy Form PFS	127
4.7	Results of Correlational Examination of Scale Relationships	131
4.8	Univariate Analysis of Factor III Multivariate Test of Differences Between Two Groups	134
4.9	Differences Between Women from Widowed and Divorcee Homes on Rating of Paternal Extreme Autonomy	134
4.10	Differences Between Women from Widowed and Divorcee's Homes on Rating of Paternal Nonenforcement	135
4.11	Differences Between Women from Widowed and Divorcee's Homes on Rating of Paternal Control	135
4.12	Univariate Tests for Family-Father Effect Differences Between Three Groups on the CRPBI Factor II	137

Table		Page
4.13	Univariate Test for Family-Father Effect Differences Between Three Groups on the CRPBI Factor III . . .	138
4.14	Differences Between Three Groups' Means on Schaffer's Scale 3 (Possessiveness)	139
4.15	Differences Between Three Groups' Means on Schaffer's CRPBI Factor III Scale 18 (Extreme Autonomy) . . .	139
4.16	Differences Between Three Groups' Means on Schaffer's Scale 12 (Nonenforcement)	140
4.17	Univariate Tests for Time of Loss Effect Difference Between Two Groups on the Discrepancy Score of the PFS and CRPBI Factor I	142
4.18	Differences Between Women with Early and Late Paternal Loss on the Discrepancy Score of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale	142

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
3.1	Number of Mutual Items (Total Items) Between Factors--Comparison of Real and Ideal Reduced Factor Analyses	106

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix		Page
A.	Test Pack Materials	177
B.	Internal-Consistency Reliabilities and Orthogonally Rotated Factor Matrices for the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory Scales	206
C.	Scoring and Scale Factor Placement for Schaffer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory .	210
D.	Twelve Factors from Second Factor Analysis of the Real Form of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale . . .	224
E.	Four Factors from Factor Analysis of the Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS)	228
F.	Correlational Matrix	230
G.	Written Subjects' Comments	234

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

An increasing rate of divorce in this country has given rise to a growing concern about the effects of father absence on child development. In 1970, the United States census reported that 3.5 million families with young children are headed by a single parent and more than 85% of these single parents are women (U.S. Census, 1970, p. 402). Or in other words, at least 10% of the nation's children live in fatherless homes. Additionally, "three times that many (children) are fatherless for a significant part of childhood" (Biller & Meredith, 1975). And this figure does not include those children in two parent homes where the father is psychologically and/or physically unavailable (Lamb, 1978).

Numerous studies have been done with conflicting results about the possible adverse effects of paternal absence on the developing child (Despert, 1962). Negative generalizations abound regarding the problems, behavior, and psychological well-being of children reared solely by their mothers. The negative generalizations frequently are based on contradictory evidence in research that is replete with methodological flaws (Herzog & Sudia, 1968).

One large problem in the research is the failure to consider the type of father lost. It is quite possible that the departure of some fathers is a relief. The contribution of father often is determined circuitously by comparing children with fathers in the home to children without fathers in the home (Pederson, 1976; Herzog & Sudia, 1968). Such a comparison produces no direct information about what fathering is, how fathering varies, and the effects of fathering variations. In other words, what is it that is missing in a father-absent home which causes differences between children from two-parent and one-parent families? Finally, a comparison of children from father-present and father-absent homes may be demonstrating the effects of other losses besides father loss. For instance, the quality and quantity of mothering may decrease because of greater financial difficulty and responsibility along with deprivation of emotional support suffered from husband loss. These issues will be discussed more fully in Chapter II.

Need for the Study

Until recently, the role of the father in child development has been overlooked and virtually ignored in the research. The increase in divorce, and the father's subsequent absence from the home, however, has increased the interest in examining his influence or lack of influence. While there are theories and numerous studies examining the effects of father presence and absence on males, very little research has addressed the importance of the father-daughter relationship in the psychological development of women (Biller, 1976;

Lamb, 1974). Some studies do suggest that the father has a significant impact on his daughter, even in absentia (Hetherington, 1972; Fish & Biller, 1972).

This study will attempt to examine the meaning "father" has for women as they are growing up. It will look at how young women report their fathers' behaviors and attitudes toward them as they were growing up as it relates to a number of factors related to fathers' presence or absence in the home. The use of women's perceptions instead of direct observations follows the frequently expressed theory that a person's perception or phenomenological sense of a situation has more influence on the person's behavior and/or emotions than its objective reality (Land, Papenfuhs & Walters, 1976; Fish & Biller, 1972).

Purpose of the Study

There are two main purposes of this study:

1. To examine and compare daughters reported phenomenological sense of father with a number of factors to determine how this sense differs with father loss, cause of loss, time of loss, perception of the parental marital relationship, and presence of an older brother.

2. To develop scales to aid in examining these factors. Responses on Schaffer's paternal section of his Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) will be compared and correlated with responses on the Darlington Phenominological Parental

Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS) and the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS). Additionally, women with experience of paternal loss will respond to scales developed to measure their type of loss, i.e., a parental death scale or a parental divorce scale. The relationship between all five scales will be analyzed.

Theory

Father-Family Effect

It is not surprising that no theory about daughters' perceptions of father exists, since there is no comprehensive approach examining the father-daughter relationship. Freud, Parsons, and some social learning theorists have made some limited speculations about the father's role in assisting the daughter's sex role identity formation (Lamb, 1974; Lynn, 1974; Biller, 1971, 1976). But currently, not enough is known to predict how a daughter's perception of her father varies according to his presence, absence, age at loss and reason for loss.

There are some studies that have begun to examine variations in daughters' perception of father and they present results and explanatory hunches which might be relevant. A significant investigation conducted by Mavis Hetherington (1972, 1973) found very different modes of interpersonal heterosexual styles between three groups of females. The groups were comprised of females from intact, widows', and divorcees' homes. While the study will be described in more detail in the following chapter, her findings are especially

germane to this study and therefore are the foundation upon which hypotheses on father-family effect are based.

Hetherington's research showed that females whose fathers had died were very distant toward males, possibly as a reaction to an overly idealized, fantasized conception of their fathers. A number of case studies done during World War II support Hetherington's conclusion about an overly idealized paternal image. In those studies (Machtlinger, 1976, citing Burlingham & Freud, 1944), children refused to accept the death of their fathers and continued to talk as though their fathers were still alive. In fact, they often described their fathers as more giving and available than they had been while alive. Peter Neubauer (1960) emphasizes that in almost all of the cases of parental loss he examined, fantasies existed about the missing parent that play a part in the developmental process. Finally, Bach (1946) found that children whose fathers were absent portrayed fathers as nurturant and less punitive during doll play than did children whose fathers were in the home.

In contrast to the daughters whose father had died, Hetherington found that females coming from divorced homes actively and seductively sought out male attention. As a possible explanation for the seductiveness, she suggests females in this group may be reacting to their mothers' acknowledged insecurity, anxiety, and lower self-esteem by assuming the only way to be happy is to have a man. These same mothers also expressed negative feelings toward

their ex-spouses. Hetherington suggests that a negative perception may cause anxiety in the daughters around other males.

As an alternative explanation for the seductive behaviors of these females, the writer hypothesizes that this anxiety may be channeled into a seductive, pursuer style in an attempt to compensate for the mother's failure to maintain the married relationship. The writer suggests an additional explanation could be the presence of a reaction formation against feelings of anger toward the father that is generalized toward all males. The presence of such feelings could threaten the female with fear of more abandonment should they be expressed, thus, opposite, exaggerated feelings are exhibited.

The father-present daughters in Hetherington's study appeared to respond to males by being neither overly distant nor overly seductive, but tended to appear relaxed and "appropriate" in their behavior.

Michael Lewis and Marsha Weinraub (1976), discussing the indirect aspects of father-child relationships, present a concept about certain relationships within the child's social network that may also account for Hetherington's results. The concept is called transitive which implies that if the mother has a relationship with a person, the child does also, even if the child has no direct contact with that person. As an example, the researchers point out the deep feelings of affection children often express toward grandparents whom they have rarely seen. In the case of the father-child relationship, they suggest that the mother can facilitate a

relationship with father even if the father has no direct contact with the child. A transitivity explanation would go as follows: a loves b (I love my mother), b loves c (my mother loves my father), therefore a loves c (I love my father). According to their theory, this also follows for the intensity of the feelings transferred, i.e. how strongly, positive or negative, the child feels for the father. Congruent with this theory is Adler's (Baxter, Horton & Wiler, 1964) belief that it is the mother who sets the stage for the relationship of the father with the child. The mother's attitude toward her husband greatly affects how she presents him to their child.

The writer suggests that one can conclude from the above theories that a marital relationship which is perceived by the child as congenial would set the stage for a different sense of father than a marital relationship full of strife or indifference. Also, a mother expressing many angry or disappointed feelings toward her ex-husband could transmit a different sort of perception about father than a widow for whom the marital relationship was good (Green, 1976; Biller, 1971, 1976).

It is probable, the author hypothesizes, that women whose fathers have died during childhood have idealized pictures of their fathers (Tessman, 1978), while their peers who have experienced a divorce might have negative images of their fathers. This would seem to be related to their perceptions of his relationship with their mother. Based on Hetherington's research, the writer suggests that women from intact homes may have more realistic, less extreme

perceptions of father. Further research and theory will be presented in the following chapter.

Older Brother Effect

While there are no theories and almost nonexistent research dealing with the effect of an older brother on child development, the writer hypothesizes that the presence of an older brother as a male role model could modify extreme perceptions of males and hence reports of father. Limited studies cited in Chapter II show that the presence of an older brother modifies father absence effects on aggression for little boys.

Time of Loss Effect

Childhood perceptions of loss and their relationship to adult perception is rarely examined, but there are some limited theories surrounding how time of loss may affect the image of the lost parent. These theories may be relevant to this study's inquiry into the later memory of father and parental marital relationship experienced by women with parental loss.

According to Piaget's theories on cognitive development, a child before the age of eleven or twelve would have a very limited ability to realistically analyze experiences with the lost person and the experience of loss itself (Inhelder & Piaget, 1968; Tessman, 1978).

A psychoanalytic view of the impact of time of loss of parent would examine the psychosexual stage of development of the child at the time of loss. In the case of a daughter losing a father,

there would be a special concern over a loss during the Oedipal stage. Such a viewpoint would predict that a loss of father during that time would leave the daughter with unresolved Oedipal feelings toward the father, and consequently an idealized memory of him. Such an interpretation of the reaction to father loss would also predict heterosexual interpersonal difficulties later in development.

In agreement with the prediction of long term effects from time of loss were Tessman's findings (1978). She found that the younger the child at the time of loss, the more likely that individual would later have images of the lost parent that were highly powerful in ability to gratify or deprive.

Summary of Theory

The preceding section examined theory concerning hypotheses described in the next section. Specifically, they cover father-family effect, how type of family (widow's, divorcee's, or intact homes) affects perception of father and parents' marital relationship; older brother effect, whether the absence or presence of an older brother affects the perception of father and parents' marital relationship; and time of loss effect, whether age at time of loss affects perception of father and parents' marital relationship. Some limited theory and research in these areas suggest that all three factors may mediate perception of father. The section on father-family effect suggests that perception of father is influenced by the quality of the marital relationship.

Hypotheses

This study will compare young women's sense of their father, and parents' marital relationship across a number of variables. Very little research or theory has been done in the area of perception of father, parental marital relationship and parental loss. Additionally, the scales devised to measure this sense are new and lacking in tested reliability and validity. These two factors, the newness of the scales being used and the lack of available research in this area, lead to the forumulation of null hypotheses, i.e. the prediction of no differences due to lack of objective data or theory to predict the differences and direction of differences. Hypotheses are presented in groupings of area of interest and correspond to the preceding theory section.

Causal-Comparative Hypotheses

Father-Family Effect

Hypothesis 1: There will be no differences in the perception of father acceptance versus rejection among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no differences in the perception of father psychological control versus psychological autonomy among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes.

Hypothesis 3: There will be no differences in the perception of father lax versus firm control among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes.

Hypothesis 4: There will be no differences in the perception of parental marital relationship among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes.

Older Brother Effect

Hypothesis 5: There will be no differences in the perception of father acceptance versus rejection among women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother.

Hypothesis 6: There will be no differences in the perception of father psychological control versus psychological autonomy among women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother.

Hypothesis 7: There will be no differences in the perception of father lax versus firm control among women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother.

Hypothesis 8: There will be no differences in the perception of parental marital relationship among women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother.

Time of Loss Effect

Hypothesis 9: There will be differences in the perception of father acceptance versus rejection among women who have lost their father early (between the ages of 4 and 7) or late (between the ages of 8 and 12).

Hypothesis 10: There will be differences in the perception of father psychological control versus psychological autonomy among women who have lost their father early or late.

Hypothesis 11: There will be no differences in the perception of father lax versus firm control among women who have lost their father early or late.

Hypothesis 12: There will be no difference in the perception of parental marital relationship among women who have lost their father early or late.

Correlational Hypotheses: Relationships Between Scales

Hypothesis 13: There will be no relationship between phenomenological sense of father, paternal acceptance versus rejection and parental marital relationship for college-age women.

Hypothesis 14: There will be relationship between phenomenological sense of father, paternal psychological autonomy versus psychological control and parental marital relationship for college-age women.

Hypothesis 15: There will be no relationship between phenomenological sense of father, paternal firm versus lax control and parental marital relationship for college women.

Hypothesis 16: There will be no relationship between perception of parental death, and the phenomonological sense of father, paternal acceptance versus rejection, and parental marital relationship for college women.

Hypothesis 17: There will be no relationship between perception of parental death, and the phenomenological sense of father, paternal granting of psycholgoical autonomy versus psychological control, and parental marital relationship for college women.

Hypothesis 18: There will be no relationship between perception of parental death, and the phenomonological sense of father, parental firm versus lax control, and parental marital relationship for college women.

Hypothesis 19: There will be no relationship between recall of parental divorce, and the phenomonological sense of father, parental acceptance versus rejection, and parental marital relationship for college women.

Hypothesis 20: There will be no relationship between recall of parental divorce, and the phenomenological sense of father, parental granting of psychological control, and parental marital realtionship for college women.

Hypothesis 21: There will be no relationship between recall of parental divorce and the phenomenological sense of father, parental firm versus lax control. and parental marital relationship for college women.

Overview

An overview of the study concerning young women's perceptions of their fathers and their parents' marital relationship as they were

growing up and those perceptions relation to the women's experience and perceptions of paternal loss, type of loss, time of loss, presence of an older brother, and other demographic information is as follows:

Chapter II

Presented in this chapter will be pertinent literature concerning the father-daughter relationship, loss of father, parental marital relationship, and influence of older siblings. Special attention will be given to studies examining the perception of young women that used scales similar to the ones used in this investigation and to studies exploring theories about the role the father plays in female development.

Chapter III

The research design, methodology, population, and instrumentation of data collection are discussed.

Chapter IV

The data are analyzed in this chapter.

Chapter V

A summary of the study findings, conclusions, and recommendations for further research are presented in the final chapter.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Literature relevant to the investigation will be presented in this chapter. Areas that will be reviewed are the father-daughter relationship, the impact of the loss of father on daughter by divorce and death, the absence of father in relationship to sibling composition, the effects of the time of father loss, and the impact of marital relationship on the developing child. A major criticism of the literature on the role of the father in female development is the lack of theory with which to connect research results (Johnson, 1963). Therefore, the review of the father-daughter literature will include pertinent theory and research.

Father-Daughter Relationships: Theory

The paucity of theory on fathering, particularly in relation to daughters, is reflected in the relative dearth of research in this area. Bronfenbrenner (1960) notes that although elaborate theoretical explanations of assumed phenomena have been made, in reality,

> . . .very little is known about the extent of variation in the behavior of fathers and mothers toward sons and daughters, and even less about the possible effects of such differential treatment (p. 39).

Johnson (1963) has a different view which is appealing; that is, although

> . . ."very little is known" about parental behavior and identification process, (it is) because there is no adequate theoretical explanation to which existing findings can be assimilated and thereby become "known" (p. 319).

Currently there are a number of studies being done that suggest the importance of this parent-child relationship for females. This interest may lead to formulation of more complete theories. Whether the problem lies in the lack of conceptual base or in the absence of research itself, the fact remains that shortcomings do exist in the literature in this area.

Freud emphasizes the role the father plays in the identification of the young girl with her mother during the Oedipal phase of her development. In resolving her futile strivings for an erotic attachment with her father, the daughter begins to give up her competitive feelings toward her mother, and instead, begins to emulate the woman who has her father's love and attention (Biller, 1971, 1976; Lynn, 1974). While stressing the importance of the father as a primary love object during the Oedipal phase, Freud altered his description of this phase for females several times. Finally in 1926 he stated:

> We know less about the sexual life of little girls than of boys. But we need not feel ashamed of this distinction; after all the sexual life of adult women is a "dark continent" for psychology (Freud, 1961, originally published 1926).

Deutsch (1944) suggests more specifically that when the little girl behaves passively, helplessly and/or seductively, the father shows

her tenderness and affection. However, when she behaves agressively and/or in a "masculine" fashion, he discourages her.

Johnson (1963) likewise contends that the father rewards "attractive and good" behavior in his daughter. She suggests that he is less demanding of his daughter than his son. Biller (1971, 1976) concurs that is the father who encourages the sex differences between boys and girls. He states that the father encourages his daughter's femininity by praising and attending to her when she engages in coy and girlish behavior. However, Biller (1975), in his book Father Power, warns fathers that too much praise for this kind of behavior may be harmful. He suggests that over-encouragement of demure, passive behavior limits the possibilities a female has for growth as a whole human being. Further discussion of this stance will be in the following section on research on the father-daughter relationship.

Leonard (1965) discusses the importance of the father in a sex role development from a psychoanalytic viewpoint. She cites case studies which point out different kinds of significant pathological fathering modes which contribute to various problems of adolescent females. Initially, she defines fathering as:

> . . .the sum of nurturing, protection, affection, guidance and approval given by the father to his child: it is his availability to give love and to be loved (to be used as love object): to be admired, emulated and obeyed (to be used as a model for identification and superego formation) (p. 326).

Lonard maintains it is the mature man:

> . . .who has found an unneurotic solution to his own oedipal conflict and has achieved a satisfying marriage relationship (who is) able to offer his daughter desexualized affection at the critical stages in her development (p. 33).

She discusses defenses the father may use if he has not attained the necessary intrapsychic resolutions, and the impact of such defense strategies on the adolescent female. Fathers with poorly defined incestuous feelings for their daughters may produce extreme defense reactions on the female's part. Leonard hypothesizes two results of an incestuous father attitude. One result is promiscuity, which is a means to replace her father with a safer target for her unconscious oedipal wishes. The second result is the daughter's regression to pre-oedipal hostility.

Reactions to a nonparticipating or absent father have two possible outcomes, according to Leonard, both of which have pathological components. The female may build an idealized father image whom she futilely seeks to find in a love object, or she may seek love but be unable to return it.

Leonard stresses the importance of an affectionate relationship between father and daughter in order for the daughter to be able to have loving relationships with boys of her own age later. A father who rejects or ignores his daughter may contribute to her remaining in a masculine identified phase of development. Thereby, Leonard speculates, the daughter tries to please both parents by being like the man her mother loves and being the boy her father wanted or was.

Less specifically, there are ideas (as opposed to theories) about the role of the father beyond sex role learning that focus on the impact of fathering on the developing boy. In striking contrast to most of these ideas, Erik Erikson (1962) stresses not the goodness or badness of parenting ability but the father's encouragement and guidance of autonomy.

> Fathers, if they know how to hold and guide a child, function somewhat like guardians of the child's autonomous existence. . . .For there is some which only a father can do, which is, I think, to balance the threatening and forbidding aspects of his appearance and impression with the guardianship of the guiding voice. Next to the recognition bestowed by the gracious face, the affirmation of the guiding voice is a prime element of Man's sense of identity. Here the question is not so much whether in the judgment of others the father is a good model or a bad one, but whether or not he is tangible and affirmative. . .Intangibly good fathers are the worst (p. 124).

Until recently, the importance of a father to model risk taking activity has been primarily emphasized for boys, but recent investigation suggests the importance of such a model for girls (Walstedt, 1977). No theory as of yet has followed these results. Walstedt's investigation will be discussed in the following section.

Summary of Father-Daughter Relationship Theory

Psychodynamic ideas were reviewed. Freud, after numerous formulations about little girls' sexual development indicated near the end of his life that generally little was known about females' sexuality. Deutsch suggests that the father encourages passive, coy behavior and discourages aggressive or "masculine" behavior. Biller concurs

that it is the father who encourages sex role behavior, but warns this encouragement can be damaging to the growth of the female as a whole being. More specifically, Leonard theorizes about the kind of maturity the father needs to possess in order to give his daughter the much needed ability to give and receive love, and to be used as a model for superego formation. She hypothesizes various pathological outcomes from different inadequate fathering styles. Erikson's theory is in contrast to the sex role emphasis in examining fathers and daughters. In speaking of fathering of sons, he stresses the importance of a tangible, affirming father who encourages and guides autonomy.

Father-Daughter Relationships: Research

Research on the impact of fathering on daughters indicates that the father's behavior toward his daughter, as well as his absence, is an important aspect in her mental health, social adjustment, sex typing, relationship with the opposite sex, cognitive functioning, mathematical ability, creativity, popularity in elementary school, ability to be regularly orgasmic, and in her development of achievement potential (e.g., Biller, 1976; Goodenough, 1937; Heilbrun, Harrel & Gillard, 1967; Hetherington, 1972; Helson, 1971; Lidz, Parker & Cornelison, 1956; Nelson, Macoby & Rau, 1960; Milton, 1957; Schaffer, 1965; Tausch, 1952; Walstedt, 1977; Fasher quoted from a letter to Lynn, 1974; Worrell & Worrell, 1971).

Several studies related to females' perceptions of their fathers used questionnaires which were similar to ones used in the

present study. Many used variations on the Schaffer (1965) scale which is included in this investigation.

Stressing the importance of such an exmaination of perceptions of parents are the findings of Serot and Teevan (1961). While not dealing specifically with the father-daughter relationship, they found a child's phenomenological sense of his/her parents, as measured by Schaffer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), to be related to the child's adjustment as measured by the California Test of Personality. The subjects were fourth grade students, mostly lower-middle and upper-lower class. There was very little agreement between how the child perceived his/her parents' relationship with him/her and how the parents saw their relationship. The researchers concluded:

> It seems that an important developmental step has been underemphasized in theory and almost absent from research. Previous experiments have tried to relate parental attitudes or the quality of the parent-child relationship (as measured by questionnaires or interviews) directly to the nature of child development. They have not discovered definite one-to-one relations, for they failed to take into account the fact that the child reacts to his perceptions of the situation and not to the situation directly (underlined by the writer for emphasis, p. 337).

Data did not differentiate between boys and girls or between mothers and fathers. Also, no information was given on the subjects' race.

Focusing only on women's perceptions of their fathers, Fish and Biller (1973) compared college women from intact homes who scored their perceptions of father toward the accepting end of the polar dimension "acceptance-rejection" on Schaffer's retrospective parenting

scale (1965a, 1965b) to those women who scored their fathers toward the rejecting end. A comparison of adjustment was made based on Gough and Heibrun's (1965) Adjective Check List. Fish and Biller used those items which have been found to discriminate personal adjustment. The adjustment score is computed by subtracting those scores of items found to be correlated to positive adjustment from the scores of those found to be correlated to negative adjustment. The childhood perceptions of their fathers' interactions recalled by these young women were highly related to how they saw themselves and to their personal adjustment. Fish and Biller conclude nurturance seems to have facilitated personal adjustment, while women who experienced their father as rejecting had difficulty in personal adjustment.

Seigelman (1965) used the paternal scale of a retrospective instrument on parenting, developed with Anne Roe, to examine young women from intact homes. He compared their scores to results on the Cattell 16 PF. Extroverted females on the Cattell reported loving fathers, whereas introverted females reported rejecting fathers.

Comparing the responses of institutionalized depressive patients on an individual item factor analysis of the Schaffer's Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), Raskin, et al. (1971) found that depressive patients rated both parents more negatively than did normal subjects. The difference was significant on the first factor of acceptance vs. rejection. Adult depressives perceived more emotional deprivation, i.e., less positive involvement and

affection during their adolescence. Separate results were not presented for male and female subjects.

The following studies lend support to Biller's notion that the overly nurturant father may also have a negative impact on his daughter's emotional growth. The report of such a father tends to be made by a more cautious, unassertive woman.

Using a modification of Schaffer's scale, the Behavior Form (Worell & Worell, 1971), Walstedt (1977) examined the relationship between remembered experience with father and scores on the Altruistic Other Orientation Scale (AOO). Her subjects were mature women who had been raised in intact homes. The AOO is based on the construct of the same name that is used to label the attitude of self-sacrifice often taken by women in male-female relationships. Strong positive relationships between fathering practices, adoption of the AOO, educational level, income, and the ability to be self-supporting were found for women whose fathers were central in their development. The group of women who most frequently endorsed AOO additionally reported that their fathers stressed caution and safety, expected them to be diplomatic, little ladies, good listeners, discouraged them from being spunky and assertive and did not help them develop study habits. These women were the least educated and the least able to be self-supporting.

Worell and Worell (1971) found perception of father related to personality characteristics and to reactions to the women's liberation movement. Women who supported the movement were found to be "normal"

but with a strong sense of independence. Women who opposed the movement were more frequently found to have fathers who were excessively affectionate and nurturant. They were self-protected, fearful of danger, deliberate, unvarying and resistant to change. Compared to women who supported the movement, the latter group was less logical in approaching problems and less curious, exploring, and analytical.

Stabler and Goodrich (1966) studied college women's responses to the possiblity of a natural environmental danger over an extended period of time. When compared to the low anxiety female, high anxiety females had higher scores on the Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire subscales measuring father love, protectiveness, and casualness; and lower scores on scales measuring demandingness, rejection, neglect, and symbolic punishment. High anxiety females also reported a greater need for dependency and affiliation, and were more timid than their low anxiety peers. The researchers emphasize:

> Although individual subscales did not differ reliably, the consistency of the pattern clearly indicates that the father-child relationship was the differentiating factor in the background of low and high anxious females (p. 316).

Bronfenbrenner (in Petrollo & Bass, ed., 1961), compared responses of tenth grade students to a behavioral checklist for both of their parents. He examined differences on the checklist for students rated as high, medium, and low on responsibility and on leadership by their teachers. The educational level of fathers was used as an indication of socioeconomic class. In his investigation,

the mother was seen to exceed the father in all areas of the checklist. Her prominence, while most marked in traditional maternal spheres such as nurturance, affection, protection, and presence, also exceeded, to a lesser extent, the father in negatively toned relationships. She was seen as a more important source of power, discipline, rejection, and demands for achievement.

When punishing, Bronfenbrenner found that each parent tended to be more active, firm, and demanding with a child of the same sex, and more lenient and indulgent with the child of the opposite sex. With respect ot protectiveness and affection, there was a shift in preference for the opposite sex. However, the tendency on the part of fathers to be warm and solicitous with daughters was much more pronounced than it was for mothers with their sons. This tendency of paternal overprotectiveness and affection adversely affected the development of responsibility and leadership in females in the Bronfenbrenner study.

When contrasting different parental styles with the sex of the child and its relation to responsibility, Bronfenbrenner found different modes of parenting to have different impact.

> For sons, high levels of responsibility are associated with greater presence, nurturance, affection, and companionship, especially from the mother. . .and--even more markedly--with increased discipline and authority from the father. . . . In contrast, for girls, virtually all these parental variables are negatively related to level of responsibility--this reverse effect being most marked for intercession, protectiveness, and power (p. 254).

Bronfenbrenner emphasizes that there were differential optimal levels of emotional support related to the development of responsibility.

In examining parental antecedents of leadership, Bronfenbrenner found that parental behaviors which facilitated the development of leadership in boys, impeded the development of leadership in girls. The primary factors here were not authority but affiliative companionship, nurturance, principled discipline, affection, and affective reward. He stresses that the companionship and affection which seems to impede the development of leadership in girls is much more intense than the level of affection that seems to aid the development of leadership in boys.

In a study conducted by Dropplemen and Schaefer (1963), girls reported receiving more love and affection from both their parents, while boys reported receiving more punishment and hostile treatment. Their sample was comprised of white seven grade Catholic school children from intact homes. Girls and boys reported mothers as more lvoing, nurturant, and affectionate than fathers. On a cluster of traits that involved a negative emotional type of behavior, i.e., daughters saw mother as higher than father. On a less involved negative cluster of behavior, i.e., rejection, neglect, and ignoring, females saw their fathers as clearly higher than mother. In addition, children perceived the parent of the opposite sex as more autonomy-granting than the parent of the same sex.

Examining younger children's differential perceptions of their parents, Kagen (1955) used a four-question survey with students in grades one through three. He found that as females got older, they saw their mothers as less gratifying of their needs and their fathers as more so.

Tausch (1952), in an intensive study of 85 fathers, paints a similiar picture of fathers' differential treatment of their sons and daughters. The fathers had a total of 160 children equally divided between boys and girls. Fathers reported frequencies and types of motor activities with their daughters and sons until age five. Tausch found a noticeable decline in reports of motor activities with females after age five. During the interviews, fathers reported participating in the routine daily care and safety of girls more than of boys. Tausch suggests that these differences may point to the father's possible concept of his daughter as fragile, dainty, and in need of constant supervision. Her quotes of fathers about their daughters confirms this notion.

Summary of Father-Daughter Relationship Research

Research on father-daughter relationships has found that a father's behavior towards his daughter is an important aspect in her mental health, sexuality, cognitive functioning, popularity in elementary school, etc. Of particular importance to this study, and hence emphasized in the preceding review was the relationship between report of father and aspects of the daughter's psychosexual development. Serot and Teevan (1961) found children's reports of both parents on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) to be related to the child's adjustment as measured by the California Test of Personality. Parent's self-report on the CRPBI was not related to the children's adjustment.

Fish and Biller (1973) found college women who scored their father toward the rejecting end of Factor I (acceptance versus rejection) of the CRPBI to have more difficulty in personal adjustment than women who scored their fathers as more accepting. Siegelman (1965) found extroverted females reported loving fathers, whereas introverted females reported rejecting fathers. Raskin, et al. (1971) found depressive patients rated both parents on the CRPBI as more rejecting than a group of normal subjects.

In addition to relating rejecting fathers to negative adjustment, a number of reviewed studies demonstrate problems in adjustment for daughters with overly nurturant fathers. Walstedt (1977) found mature women who rated their fathers as stressing caution and safety, behaving like a little lady, diplomacy, good listening, and as discouraging spunkiness and assertiveness were most likely to have lower educational levels, income, and ability to be self-supporting than women with fathers who did not stress such a traditional role. Worell and Worell (1971) found perception of an excessively affectionate father to be related to fear of danger, deliberate, unvarying resistance to change, opposition to women's liberation, and less logical, curious, and exploring approaches to problems. In the face of potential natural disaster, Stabler and Goodrich (1966) found the most differentiating factor for high anxiety females was higher score on parenting scales measuring father love, protectiveness, and casualness; and lower scores on paternal demandingness, rejection, neglect, and symbolic punishment. Bronfenbrenner (1961) found

protectiveness and affection from the opposite sexed parent (in a much smaller amount for girls than for boys) to adversely affect responsibility and leadership in the elementary school classroom. Tausch found that fathers in 1952 reported a decline in engagement in motor activities with their daughters by the age of five, and an increase in participation in routine daily care and safety more than with boys. It would appear that paternal rejection and over affection and nurturance both contribute to problems in women's psychosexual and social development.

Loss of Father--Impact on Daughter

Traditionally studies of children from father-absent homes in comparison to children from father-present homes have used their results to point out the impact of father loss. Clearly, there are other significant factors affecting the father-absent household besides paternal absence (Pederson, 1975; Herzog & Sudia, 1968; Brandwein, et al., 1974). Therefore, the researcher would like to review some of the literature related to this issue before examining the literature related to father loss from divorce and death.

Herzog and Sudia (1968) surveyed over 400 studies of father-absent children. From these studies they selected a "core group" which dealt directly with effects on children who are growing up in fatherless homes. This "core group" included 59 studies, which they sorted into those upholding and those opposing the "classic" view. "Classic" view studies were those which reported adverse traits and behaviors associated with the absence of father. Of the core group,

29 studies support the "classic" view, 17 challenge it, and 13 report mixed results. Seven of the 29 studies reporting adverse effects were judged to have reasonably sound methodology, as were seven of the 17 challenging the "classic" view. Herzog and Sudia note that some studies overlook certain factors which are important to consider. For example, studies relating juvenile delinquency to broken homes fail to take into account the evidence that apprehension and treatment of juveniles is influenced by the fact that they come from broken homes. Also, father absence nay be more or less stigmatized for different groups, thereby having a different impact and meaning for the family. Another missing element is the recognition of the different kinds of one-parent and two-parent families. Few studies have compared the harmonious, well-organized, one-parent home with the conflict-ridden, two-parent home. Herzog and Sudia are also struck by the lack of attention paid to daughters and the overuse of masculinity-femininity measures. They suggest that it may be more relevant to examine the child's humanness and adequacy as a child, particularly in view of the current concern over distinctions between maleness and femaleness.

Generalizations made from heavily confounded research measures with instruments of dubious validity may not only be a waste of resources, but may prove to be misleading, if not destructive (Rosenfeld, 1973; Brandwein, et al., 1974). Herzog and Suida point out that in the studies they examined, results were often stated with strongly qualified suspicion of confounding factors. However, when

these studies were cited by others, the investigators' qualifications were ignored.

Keeping in mind some of the facts about the single-parent family that might bias and confound research on father loss, the literature on the impact of father absence, especially on the daughter, will be discussed. An attempt will be made to keep separate the findings on divorce and death, although this is often not the case in research on father absence. Hetherington's research cited previously provides the rationale for examining divorce and death separately. Studies on divorce will be examined first.

Loss of Father by Divorce

Studies are extremely rare on the impact on the developing female of loss of father because of divorce. How such a loss affects the daughters' perceptions of their fathers occasionally has been speculated about but never researched. Therefore, most of the literature presented here involves both sexes but is broadly relevant to this study.

Antony (1974) reviewed the literature to assess the possible risks of divorce. He suggests that the child could become acutely psychiatrically disturbed, develop traumatic neurosis, or be chronically maladjusted if parents are divorced. The child may develop a psychiatric disorder later in adulthood. Antony suggests that the quality of the marriage before the divorce, as opposed to the divorce itself, has a close relationship to the quality of

disturbance engendered in the child. His ideas on this will be presented later in the parental marital section.

In those children who show more than situational reaction to the divorce, Antony speaks of symptoms such as persistence of silence, panic, guilt, hostility, somatic symptoms, depression, accident proneness, and school problems. Children with adjustment difficulties often exaggerate their part in causing the divorce and wish for a reunion. He states post-divorce bickering over money may lead children to assume it was the cost of their upkeep that caused their father to leave. Antony describes an overall symptom pattern following divorce called neurosis of abandonment. In this neurosis, the child alternates between depression and aggressiveness--grieving the loss of the family unit and feeling small, weak, and intensely vulnerable. He stresses that the quality of parenting following the divorce is important in the resolution of the child's fears.

Wallerstein and Kelly (1976a, 1976b) also stress the importance of the cooperative postdivorce parental relationship in facilitating a healthy adjustment for the child. In agreement with Hetherington (1974), they found that readjustment to divorce took one to two years. Antony, as well as Wallerstein and Kelly, found different coping and defense strategies among different ages of children and suggest that age at loss of father is an important element to consider when examining the person who has experienced father loss.

Loss of Father by Death

Literature on the impact of loss of father through death is scant, especially if one is interested in impact on females. Typically, such studies focus on institutionalized adults and comparisons are made across diagnoses or with a control group of non-institutionalized people for incidence of death during childhood. Very little beyond the incidence is studied, so that information about the meaning the death has for the people involved is unknown. Additionally, the focus is typically on loss of mother. An exception to this type of study was an examination of the early marital relationships established by couples in which one partner had a history of parental death (Jacobson & Ryder, 1969). Of relevance here is a marriage syndrome described by the researchers in which the wife's parent (half the women in the group had lost their mothers, half had lost their fathers) died when she was in mid-adolescence. The wife in these cases had marked inability to enjoy sexual relations in an otherwise close marriage. The other syndrome of interest to this study is one in which either husband or wife have experienced loss. The syndrome is characterized by early loss and chronic conflict. The median age of loss for this group was seven and proportion of loss of father or mother was equal. Rage and ambivalence were prevalent with intermittent sexual relations that were for the most part avoided. Anger was often prolonged for weeks with these couples. Although a different and cogent approach to studying the impact of childhood parental death on the adult, generalizations cannot be realistically made because of

a very small sample size. A breakdown of this data along sex of parent and marriage partner would be enlightening. However, it would add little reliable knowledge in this case due to the small number of couples in each group. An outstanding exception is a study done by Hetherington on women from two-parent homes, homes broken by divorce, and homes broken by death. All of the daughters were first born and a large proportion were an only child. Those with siblings had sisters. The sample ranged in age from 13 to 17 and were from lower and lower middle class homes. No attempt was made to control for age at loss for the death or divorce groups. No differences between groups were found in the mean age, education, and occupation of the fathers or mothers, age and education of the subjects, maternal employment, religious affiliation, or number of siblings.

The most striking differences between the daughters was their interpersonal behaviors with males. In an interview with a male asking broad, superficial questions about school, television, etc., there were very different styles of relating between groups as opposed to no differences in a similiar situation with a female interviewer. The interviewer was seated behind a desk. There were three chairs in which the subject could choose to sit. One was directly across from the interviewer, one directly next to the interviewer's right side, and one was across from him and toward the far corner of his desk.

Of the females from homes in which the father had left due to divorce, 85% sat in the position next to the interviewer. Behaviors

typical of this group were lots of smiling, eye contact, talking, and open body position (arm or arms around the back of the chair, in back of the head, etc.). In the group of women whose fathers had died, the women chose the chair farthest away from the interviewer, toward the corner across from him 85% of the time. In contrast to the group first described, this group made very little eye contact, rarely smiled, answered questions in short sentences, and maintained closed body positions with their arms often folded in front of them, legs close together or crossed. Of the women from the intact home group, 85% chose the chair opposite the interviewer and used a variety of behaviors common to the other two groups in moderate frequency. These differences were paralleled in behavior at a dance in which all three groups of girls were asked to dance equally often but where the divorcees' daughters spent a greater amount of time in closer proximity to the area where the boys stood, while the widows' daughters kept their distance and spent long amounts of time in the lavatory.

Hetherington found that the daughters whose parents were divorced reported more heterosexual activity than any other group. They began dating earlier, and more frequently, and were more likely to have had sexual intercourse. Mothers of this group often mentioned problems of control and worries over their daughters' promiscuity. The females whose fathers had died reported late starts in dating and seemed sexually inhibited. Widows often commented on the infrequency of their daughters' dates and inhibition around males in contrast to their ease around other females.

Scores on the Manifest Anxiety scale showed fatherless females to be more anxious than those with fathers. Females from divorced families showed lower self-esteem than the other females. On the mother interview measure, divorced mothers appeared to have negative attitudes toward the ex-spouse and to life in general, and tended to be more anxious than other groups of mothers. Although they expressed concern about their adequacy as mothers, they reported the same positive relations and patterns for discipline and affection as the other mothers.

Hetherington suggests that the impact of loss of father for women emerges in adolescence and centers around the ability to interact appropriately with males. The differences in style between the two father-loss groups of females, she suggests, possibly can be explained as a reaction to the type of loss and handling of anxiety around that loss. Where there has been a divorce, the daughters may react to their mothers' unhappiness by assuming the only way to be happy is to have a man. Hence, a seductive pursuant attitude toward males is adopted. Where there has been the death of a father, according to Hetherington, the daughter may have a very idealized image of her father and, consequently, regard other males with apprehension and intimidation.

Summary of Loss of Father--
Impact on Daughter

Researchers in the area of father loss, in examining and comparing the child from a single parent family and the child from a

two parent family often erroneously ascribe differences between the children to father absence per se. Herzog and Sudia (1968), Pederson (1975), and Brandwein, et al. (1974) point out the confounding variables in father absence studies besides the direct impact of father loss, such as differences in time of loss and reason for loss (desertion, death, separation, etc.). There are indirect variables such as loss of economic support, spouse emotional support, social stigma in a couple-oriented society, loss of higher standard of living, and change in place of residence that may account for differences between groups and have little to do with the actual occurence of father loss. Herzog and Sudia also point out the lack of attention paid to daughters and an overuse of measures of masculinity and femininity.

Antony (1974), in a reivew of the literature, suggests that the quality of the marriage before the divorce may have a closer relationship to the child's quality of disturbance than the divorce. He also stresses the importance of the post-divorce relationship between the parents and the quality of parenting in the resolution of the child's fears. Wallenstein and Kelly (1976a, 1976b), in agreement with Antony and Hetherington, found that a cooperative relationship following divorce facilitated a healthy adjustment for the child. Additionally, the age of loss was found in all of the studies to be important in examining different reactions to father loss.

Jacobson and Rider (1969) found that childhood parent death was related to certain patterns of marital difficulties. Marriages

with spouses who had experienced early parental death had the most marital discord and lack of sexual contact. Hetherington (1972, 1973) found that women from two parent families, single mother homes due to death, and single mother homes due to divorce demonstrated dramatically different modes of interpersonal behavior in an interview with a male. The adolescents of divorcees were actively seductive, whereas the adolescents of widows were withdrawn and uncomfortable. Girls from intact homes behaved in a manner between these two extremes. The divorcees' group also reported greater amounts of heterosexual activity. Hetherington's study begins to delimit the study of father loss according to cause, to control for a number of confounding variables, and to focus primarily on females.

Father Absence and Sibling Composition

Santrock (1970) used doll play and maternal interviews to assess dependency, aggression, and masculinity of each preschool male and female. He found father-absent (FA) females with only other male siblings to be more aggressive than those FA females with only older female siblings.

Wohlford, Santrock, Berger and Liberman (1971), using father-absent, "impoverished," Black preschoolers as subjects, found that children with older male siblings were more aggressive on the maternal interview, aggression scale. They also were less intensely and less frequently dependent on two dependency measures than those children without older brothers.

Sutton-Smith, Rosenberg, and Landy (1968) found the depressive effect of father absence on the college entrance scores on the ACT to be only slightly modified for females by sibling composition. Women with a younger brother had more depressed scores than women without a younger brother. Only females were more affected (depressed scores) than only males.

Summary of Father Absence and Sibling Composition

Studies were cited that lend support to the possibility that the presence of an older brother may change the perception of father. In the case of father loss, having an older brother may modify a tendency to overly idealize or devalue the father. The writer would like to emphasize the small number of studies conducted on sibling composition and its relationship to any factors. The studies were cited to suggest that sibling composition may be an important factor to explore for purposes of this study.

Time of Father Loss

Although examination of differential impact of time of loss has been heavily endorsed in the literature (Jacobson & Rider, 1969; Pederson, 1975; Brandwein, et al., 1974; Herzog & Sudia, 1968; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976a, 1976b), very little actual research has taken time of loss into account.

Hetherington, at the Wheelock College Symposium on Children and Divorce (1978), summarized findings from her research on families observed at home, in school, in interview, and in play during the

first two years of divorce. The most dramatic, general, and longlasting effect of paternal loss occurred for little boys experiencing paternal loss before the age of five. It would appear, according to Hetherington, that five for boys is a "magic cutoff point." Any setbacks in mathematical cognitive reasoning after age five are regained in a two year period. Little boys with paternal loss under the age of five do not regain such setbacks. Hetherington found no such differences between age of loss and girls but cautioned that such effects may not show up until the girl is in adolescence.

Wallerstein and Kelly (1976a, 1976b) found very different reactions to loss immediately following separation and one and two years after separation, depending on the child's age. No sex differences were noted. The population sampled was from a white upper middle class area of California. In the preschool group, they report the children's reactions after the age of one included: regression, fretfulness, cognitive bewilderment, and neediness. The most enduring symptom was pervasive neediness (1975). The single most distinguishable feeling was anger for the later latency group (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976). This was variously displayed as temper tantrums, scolding, dictatorial attitudes, and diffuse demandingness. A year later even for children whose difficulties had mostly subsided, the anger and hostility engendered at the time of separation lingered on longer and more tenaciously than other affective responses. At one year follwoing separation, 44% of the preschool group, 38% of the early latency group, and 50% of the later latency group either displayed

a consolidation of the troubled behaviors observed in the earlier interview or were judged to be in worsened or deteriorated psychological condition (Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975, 1976).

Effects of time of loss can be examined from the point of view of ability to grieve, ability to resolve feelings of loss, and cognitive ability to understand the loss. These areas appear to be related. A number of theoretical positions deal with these issues as does a study by Nagy (1948) which delimits developmental differences in ability to understand death. There is no general theory which comprehensively examines the impact that time of loss might have on an individual's later development or on the phenomenological image of a lost parent.

Piaget describes a process beginning at approximately age 11 or 12 and ending at about age 14 or 15 in which the adolescent is capable of thought that is detached from concrete objects themselves and can function on verbal and symbolic levels without support. In other words, the adolescent is capable of building or understanding concepts or theories. S/he is capable of projects for the future, of non-present interests, etc. Inhelder and Piaget's (1958) view of the most important general property of the formal-operational thought capability of the adolescent concerns the real versus the possible. Children experiencing loss under the age of 12 are unable at the time of loss to strive for a sense of the "real" versus the "possible" in fostering useful reality testing about the parting parents.

Freudian theory would suggest that paternal loss before resolution of Oedipal strivings (ages 4-7), could lead to a continuation of an idealized, striven-for image by the daughter (Biller, 1976). Tessman (1978) found in her work with children of parting parents that when the child was quite young at the time of loss or phsyically immature, the images of the parent were imbued with "highly exaggerated potential power to gratify or to deprive, reflected in the ego ideal" (p. 87). She found the child later in the pubescence to be particularly vulnerable to idealization of an absent parent. At an age where there is a graudal detachment and devaluation of the parent to achieve autonomy and redirect intensely sexual needs to love objects, the child with parental loss does not begin gradual inner detachment. Rather, Tessman reports, this detachment is so threatening that it is defended against with a split in the ego ideal. "The child continues to idealize the absent parent, either consciously or unconsciously, while devaluing self." Laufer (1966) concurs that the death of a parent during adolescence can interfere with normal development:

> The detachment from the oedipal object is a normal developmental task in adolescence, which may be greatly complicated by the actual loss of the object. The oedipal ambivalence to the object which is normally re-experienced in adolescence may be kept under repression by the idealization of the loss object (p. 34).

In addition to the preceding theory that loss at different times will have different impact on development, Nagy (1948) found that perception of death changed as children matured. In the first stage, children from the age of 3 to 6 saw death as a departure or as

sleep. Death was denied as a final or regular process. After the age of 6, these kinds of explanations for death disappear from the consciousness, although they can be seen in common usage in such terms as the "dear departed" or the "sleep of death." Children age 5 or 6 most often held an animalistic conception of death. For example, death was personified as a "death man," as happening to someone to whom some agency (death) selects to carry off, as opposed to a process that happens to everyone. Tessman (1978), in discussing the process of grief, states:

> Judging from the clinical material of children and adults still yearning for a lost, wanted person or for the affective interaction associated with that person, there is often a regression to early modes of thinking and problem-solving associated with the quest (p. 94).

Summary of Time of Father Loss

Some research on the impact of paternal loss through divorce has shown that there are different outcomes as the result of time of loss. These findings confirm the recommendations that time of loss be considered in examining the impact of father loss (Herzog & Sudia, 1968; Pederson, 1975; Brandwein, et al., 1974). Wallerstein and Kelly (1976a, 1976b; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1975) found differences in initial reaction to parental separation and enduring affect to differ for preschool and latency children. Hetherington (1978) reported the lasting effects of paternal loss on preschool boys' cognitive functioning.

Psychoanalytic theory predicts the lack of resolution of Oedipal strivings with a loss during the Oedipal conflict and the

resultant idealized opposite sex parent image (Biller, 1976). Tessman (1978) found that individuals with parental loss as very young or pubescent children held images of the parent with highly exaggerated abilities to gratify or deprive. Laufer (1966) concurs with Tessman's assessment of the damage of parental loss during adolescence when the individual should be gradually more realistic in assessing the parent and breaking away to become more autonomous. Loss at this time causes great difficulty in breaking away from a continued overly idealized image of the lost parent.

Piaget's delimitation of different levels of cognitive development suggests that before the age of 12 to 14 the child' ability to reason abstractly is limited and affects his/her ability to draw realistic conclusions about the persons and circumstances surrounding parental loss. Nagy (1948) also delimited different abilities to assess loss and found that children between the ages of 3 and 6 characterize death as departure or sleep in order to deny its permanence. Between 6 and 9, children describe death animalistically, as something outside the self that makes a decision and comes. Again, they are unable to conceptualize that death is an inevitable part of the processing of living for everyone.

Although there is no one overall unifying theory about how different developmental stages interact with loss, it would appear that there are developmental differences in reaction to loss, and also that these differences could affect later reports of the lost person as well as affecting psychosocial development.

Marital Relationship and Intactness of the Home

It is of interest to this investigation to understand how the parents' marital relationship affects the daughter's relationship with her father. In support of such an inquiry, Benson (1968) states:

> The expressive relationship that parents have with their children is always conditioned by the nature of the association with one another (p. 68).

But, he adds, that perhaps

> . . .children who get on well with their parents cannot help but think their parents live in harmony with each other (p. 117).

Few studies specifially explore the daughters' perceptions of their fathers' relationship to them and their parents' marital relationship. Therefore, along with those few studies, more general theories and research on the impact of the marital relationship on the psychological development of the child will be reviewed.

Particularly relevant here are the findings of Wallin and Vollemer (1953), who used data from three sources. Included in the analysis were data from the Burgess and Wallin studies of white volunteer engaged couples (1,000) and married couples (600), Vollemer's study of 335 Black and 624 white college students, and 162 college students enrolled in a criminology course. Two to five questions were used inquiring into parent-child and parental-marital relationships. Their most relevant finding in this investigation was a pattern for males and females that was

> . . .clear and consistent: "very strong attachment" to father is far more likely to be reported when parents' marriage is rated "very happy" than when it is rated

> "unhappy." "Mild attachment" on the other hand tends to be characteristic of persons who rate their parents' marriage as "unhappy" (p. 427).

Wallin and Vollemer suggest several possible reasons for their results, such as marital happiness of husbands and wives is correlated with their attitude toward children, regardless of whether they have them. Or, unhappily married couples are more likely than happily married couples to express negative attitudes toward children, as well as exhibit such an attitude toward their own children.

Another possible explanation suggested by Wallin and Vollemar is that an unhappily married mother may use the greater attachment and accessibility that her children have to her to convey herself as the aggrieved party in an unhappy marriage. She, thereby, alienates her children from their father.

In a similiar vein, Baxter, Horton, and Wiley (1964) tested hypotheses based on Adlerian theory that it is the mother who shifts the child's interest to the father. If mother is disinterested in father, then no father identification takes place. They used three items to assess parental relationship as it relates to sibling composition and perceived similiarity between self and father on ten attributes. Although not statistically significant, there was a tendency for greater father identification when there was less reported marital conflict. No relationship for females was found between sibling composition, report of parental marital relationship, and father identification.

Including subjects from single parent homes, Landis (1962) used a questionnaire with one question rating the happiness of parents' marital relationship, four questions on closeness to parents, six on dating relationships, and two on sexual attitudes. He compared 3,000 college students from divorced homes, unhappy intact homes, and happy intact homes. Women from divorced marriages reported closer relationships with their mothers and more distant relationships with their fathers before the age of 15 and also at the time of the study (in college) than those from unhappy and happy unbroken homes. No significant differences were found between groups on dating practices or on five items designed to measure self concept.

Comparing adolescents in three high schools, Nye (1957) contrasted those from unhappy intact homes with those from broken homes. One-sixth of the intact homes were included in the unhappy category. The unhappy category was determined by anonymous questionnaires using two criteria. One criterion was whether the family fell into the worst adjusted tercile based on a parental interaction score from the questionnaire computed from the amount of parental arguing, lack of mutual activities, etc., and an overall happiness evaluation of parents' marriage made by the student. As a group, adolescents from broken homes showed less psychosomatic illness, less delinquent behavior, and better adjustment to parents than those from intact, unhappy homes. No significant difference was found for school adjustment, church, or delinquent companions.

In considering the quality of the marital relationship as it affects the child, Antony (1974) in his review of children and divorce describes four potentially harmful parental relationships which may be part of predivorce stress or of continuing impact in an intact home. One type of marriage he describes is the one in which the marital relationship has become devitalized. This is a family in which there is nothing to complain about, but nothing to enjoy. The prevailing mood is one of boredom and tedium. He suggests that the child of such a relationship is affectionless, knowing little of warm and compelling relationships. Other types of marriages include skewed marriages which lead to dominant or dependent children; neurotic marriages leading to the child with unconsciously transferred feelings, where the child can do little to change the way in which s/he is treated; and obsessional relationships where the children are participant observers to petty squabbles and often used as spies, informers, and allies.

Summary of Marital Relationship and Intactness of the Home

Perception of father and parents' marital relationship has been theorized to be important and connected. Besides social network, Adlerian and family therapy theory cited in Chapter I, Benson suggests that the expressive relationship between parents colors their relationship with their child. However, he does caution that if a child gets along with his parents it would be hard for that child to imagine his parents do not. Using a broad survey, a number

of researchers have examined the relation between reports of parental marital happiness and child-parent closeness. Wallin and Vollemer found that a report of a "very strong attachment" to father was more likely to be reported if parent's marriage was rated as "very happy" than if it was rated "unhappy." "Mild attachment" was related to reports of parent's marriage as being unhappy. Wallin and Vollemer suggest that since research shows that marital happiness is correlated to attitude towards children, in an unhappy marriage this would affect feelings toward their own children. Baxter, Horton, and Wiley (1964) found no relationship between father identification and report of marital conflict. Landis (1962) found women from divorced homes reported closer relationships with their mothers and more distant relationships with their fathers than women from unhappy and broken homes. Nye (1957) found adolescents from broken homes to show less psychosomatic illness, less delinquent behavior, and better adjustment to parents than adolescents from unbroken, unhappy homes. There is some evidence that parents' marital relationship is related to parent-child relationship and general adjustment.

Summary

Until recently, researchers in the field of child development have largely ignored the role the father plays with his maturing child, particularly in the area of father-daughter relationships. Studies cited in the review indicate that a perception of father as punitive and rejecting is related to poor adjustment in college

women (Fish & Biller, 1973) depression in hospitalized women (Raskin, et al., 1971), and introversion in college women (Siegelman, 1965).

A father who is overly warm and protective fosters the development of a little girl who does not demonstrate leadership and responsibility qualities in the classroom (Bronfenbrenner, in Petrullo & Bass, 1961), young women who become extremely anxious in the face of a potential natural disaster (Stabler & Goodrich, 1966), and who are less able to support themselves as they become mature women (Walstedt, 1977). Additionally, there is a relationship between an overly affectionate, nurturant fathering stance and women who do not support the women's liberation movement. These women also are more cautious and inflexible and less curious, exploring and analytical in problem-solving situations than their counterparts supporting the movement (Worell & Worell, 1971).

It is theorized (Adler, in Baxter, Horton & Wiley, 1964; Lewis & Weinraub, 1976; Benson, 1968) that the marital relationship influences the child's perception of the father. Wallin and Vollmer (1953) found that subjects who reported their parents' marital relationship was happy also reported a much closer relationship to their fathers in contrast to those who reported a less happy paternal marital relationship. Social systems theory addresses this property of the child's social network as transitive, i.e., the mother transmits the type and quality of feelings she has for the father to the child (Lewis & Weinraub, 1976). Antony (1974) described three types of marriages he theorizes produce harmful effects in children.

It is possible, therefore, that when paternal loss occurs, how the mother feels toward the father affects what she transmits about him to her child. Hetherington (1972, 1973) found divorced mothers to be quite bitter toward their ex-spouses. However, she did not investigate how the young girls she studied perceived their fathers.

Additionally, the few studies on sibling composition were reviewed. These studies indicate, given the limitations on generalization already mentioned, that an older brother modifies the impact of father absence. Age of loss was also reviewed. There would appear to be some age differences in initial reactions to parental separation as well as enduring affective stances. Theories around the formation of an overly idealized parental figure due to loss were presented along with evidence for developmental differences in understanding loss of parent.

Discussion

Because of the general lack of research and theoretical interest in a number of the areas involved in this study, a brief discussion of some of the shortcomings and strengths in the literature may serve to assist the reader in assimilating the second chapter. The most striking shortcoming of father-daughter relationship theory is its vagueness and lack of comprehensiveness. For example, how does the father aid and encourage his little girl in resolving her Oedipal conflict? Also of concern is that while there is some social learning theory along similiar lines to Freudian theory cited,

i.e. speculation about the importance of the father in "feminine" identification, such approaches do not go beyond sex role development to other areas in the daughter's personality. There is some indication that an overemphasis by the father on his daughter's traditionally feminine attributes can be destructive.

Review of the small body of research on father-daughter relationship finds studies with an overemphasis on measuring "femininity" or traditional appropriate sex role behavior and an exclusion of father-absent-home females.

There are a number of studies linking father absence with numerous variables as mentioned in the section on fathering. (Remember that father-absent subjects are heavily drawn on in studies purporting to measure fathering (Pederson, 1975).) In particular a large amount of literature has linked father absence to scholastic performance, sex-role identification, and aggression and delinquency problems in boys (Biller, 1971, 1975, 1976; Lamb, 1976).

Studies which have included girls are rare. Those studies including girls often do not separate the results for males and females. When this separation is done, the results have shown no significant differences little girls with fathers in the home and those without. The outstanding exception is the Hetherington study (1975, 1976) on adolescents cited in this chapter. Hetherington's study was the only investigation which begins to delimit the study of father loss according to cause, to control for a number of confounding variables, and to focus primarily on females. For purposes of the

present study, it would have also been instructive to know the type of father the daughters had, the possible impact of male siblings (remember none of the females in her study had brothers), and the parental marital relationship.

In studies cited to examine the possible impact of older male siblings on perception of father, the predominant use of Black children and tests for aggression limits the generalizability of their findings to other types of subjects and personality characteristics. This area also suffers from a great paucity of theory and research.

Beyond the lack of research and the connection between parents' marriage and parent-child relationship, caution in interpreting the results of such research should be exercised. These studies are particularly flawed because of instrumentation. Their use of a very small number of items to measure unhappiness or happiness of the parental marital relationship adversely affects the reliability of the instruments. Also, the use of totally transparent items increases the likelihood of answers being biased towards social acceptability. Furthermore, it is hard to know what the subject meant by an evaluation of his parent's marriage as happy or unhappy, and finally, a very limited number of potential responses (very often yes-no or a three-response answer including "do not know" or "maybe") contributes to the researcher's difficulty in measuring differences between groups.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this investigation is to compare young women's reports of their phenomenological sense of their fathers on a number of dimensions, and to see how this sense is affected by the loss of the father, manner of loss, the women's age at time of loss, presence of an older brother, and perception of the parental marital relationship. In order to test the hypotheses related to this purpose, the following design and procedures were formulated.

Hypotheses

Null hypothesis 1: No differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form and the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form and the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS).

Null hypothesis 2: No differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI paternal form.

Null hypothesis 3: No differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the paternal form.

Null hypothesis 4: No differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on the perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMPS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on the perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMPS).

Null hypothesis 5: No differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form and the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form and the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS).

Null hypothesis 6: No differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI paternal form.

Null hypothesis 7: No differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI parental form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI parental form.

Null hypothesis 8: No differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Null hypothesis 9: No differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) on the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form and the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form and the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS).

Null hypothesis 10: No differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy), of the CRPBI paternal form.

Null hypothesis 11: No differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor II (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), paternal form.

Null hypothesis 12: No differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Null hypothesis 13: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, and PPMRS for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, and PPMRS for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 14: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS), and Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS) for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS), and Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS) for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 15: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, and the PPMRS, for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, and the PPMRS, for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 16: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Perception of Parental Death Scale, for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Perception of Parental Death Scale, for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 17: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS) Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS), and Perception of Parental Death Scale, for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS) Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS), and Perception of Parental Death Scale, for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 18: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, and Perception of Parental Death Scale for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, and Perception of Parental Death Scale for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 19: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS), Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS), and Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS) for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS), Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS), and Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS) for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 20: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psycholoigcal Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS), for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS), for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 21: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale IPFS), Perception of Parental Marital Relationships (PPMRS), and Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS) for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS), Perception of Parental Marital Relationship (PPMRS), and Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS) for college-age women.

Data Analysis

In order to test the hypotheses through the use of two different procedures, the data was analyzed as follows:

1. The hypotheses addressing relationships between groups were tested using women randomly selected from the intact group, and all subjects in the death and divorce groups. Twenty-five women from the intact group were used along with twenty women from widowed homes and 28 from the divorcees' group. Hypotheses 1 through 3 were tested by one-way analyses of variance for intactness (Intact, Widowed, or Divorced Home). Hypothesis 4 was tested by univariate analysis. Hypotheses 5 through 12 for older brother and time of loss effect were tested by two one-way multivariate analyses of variance, hypotheses 5 through 8 for older brother effect, and hypotheses 9 through 12 for cause of paternal loss effect. An alpha level of .05 or less would be considered significant in determining group differences for hypotheses one through twelve. Because of the large

number of tests and the additive nature of alphas, concerns for statistical rigor would suggest a more conservative alpha level of .004 (.05 divided by 12). An argument for such a stance would emphasize the increased potential for finding significance by chance due to the large number of tests. However, given that the purpose of this study is primarily exploratory and therefore, protective against the possibility of judging no differences against groups when there are (Type II error). In other words, a choice was made between placing a limitation on meaningfulness versus statistical rigor. Because of the exploratory nature of this study, and the lack of important decisions dependent on the results, meaningfulness was chosen as more important. Therefore, mislabeling differences as no differences was avoided and a significance level of .05 was chosen.

In the event that Multivariate Analysis of Variance would result in significance at the .05 alpha level, a univariate analysis of variance for each subscale of the factor was conducted to determine on which subscale the groups' differences occurred. Significance for the univariates was determined by dividing the .05 alpha level by the number of univariates composing the factor. Thus, for hypotheses examining the differences on Factor I (Hypothesis 1, 5, and 19) and the PFS, an alpha level of .0051 or less would be significant. For Factor II (Hypothesis 2, 6, and 10), .0083 or less, and for Factor III (Hypothesis 3, 7, and 11), .01 or less would be significant.

2. The hypotheses addressing relationships between scales were tested using data from 181 subjects, who had completed at least

95% of the scales. A Pearson correlation matrix was completed. Correlations of .8 to 1.0 were considered strong.

Design Hypotheses 1 through 13

Three causal-comparative designs, each with one independent and twenty dependent variables were used. The twenty dependent variables used were the 18 scales of the CRPBI, the Discrepancy form of the PPMRS, and the Discrepancy form of the PFS. The independent variables were types of family (intact, widows', and divorcee's homes), presence of an older brother, and time of loss. Cell sizes are shown in Table 3.20.

TABLE 3.1.--Causal-Comparative Design

Cell (Size)	Dependent Variables				
	CRPBI Factor			PFS Discrepancy	PPMRS Discrepancy
	I	II	III		
Loss (48)					
Death (20)					
Divorce (28)					
Early (18)					
Late (25)					
No Loss (25)					
Older Brother (27)					
No Older Brother (46)					

CRPBI, Factor I--Acceptance versus Rejection, Schaffer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory

CRPBI, Factor II--Psychological Control versus Autonomy, Schaffer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory

CRPBI, Factor III--Firm Control versus Lax Control, Schaffer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory

PFS, Discrepancy--Discrepancy Score of the Darlington Phenomenological Fathering Scale

PPMRS, Discrepancy--Discrepancy Score of the Darlington Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale

Early loss was defined as paternal loss between the ages of 4 and 7, late loss included women with paternal loss between the ages of 8 and 12. The groups were divided according to psychoanalytic psychosexual developmental stages. Women in the early group were considered to have been in the process of Oedipal strivings and resolution when the paternal loss took place. How such a loss at this stage would effect perception of father is discussed in Chapter II's section on time of loss. The late group was considered to have been in the latency stage of development when their paternal loss took place. There is a possibility according to Tessman's theory (1978) cited in Chapter II, that during the ages of 10 to 12 idealization due to loss may occur. Tessman states that in preparation for puberty there is a need to de-idealize a parent in order to become more autonomous. With paternal loss this process stops and leads to exaggerated idealized images. While this may be so, the literature on adolescence typically delimits the end of latency at approximately the age of 12, therefore the cutoff of age 12 was chosen.

Upon examination the reader will note that the number of the Early and Late loss subjects is not equal to the total number in the

Loss group. Included in the Loss group are subjects who had paternal loss before age 4 (2 through divorce and 1 through death at age 3 years) and 4 after the age of 12 (1 through death at age 13 3, 1 each at ages 14, 15, and 16 by divorce). A decision was made to include these subjects in the family type analyses (intact, widows' and divorcees' homes) to increase the tests' power (or ability to detect differences). However, a cautionary note should be added that such a decision may have voided differences between the two loss groups by giving the divorce group a sample that had loss much later and consequently a loss that was more recent and depending on interpretation more or less likely to affect the results than early loss. That is, some may argue these women had less time to resolve grief while others may argue they had more emotional and cognitive development at time of loss than would be conducive to understanding and resolution.

Design Hypotheses 10 through 18

A correlational design with 18 Schaffer CRPBI subscales, three PFS scales, three PPMRS scales, three RPDS factors and the whole RPDS scale, and two PPDS forms were used to examine the relationships between scales (26 by 26 correlation matrix). The cell sizes are shown in Table 3.22. One hundred of these subjects had an older brother, 81 did not.

TABLE 3.2.--Cell Size in Correlational Design

Scales and Subscales	Cell Size	(N =181)
Schaffer Subscales	181	
PPMRS Scale	181	
PFS Scale	181	
RPD Factors and Scale		
PPDS		

Population and Selection and Description of the Sample

Population

The population studied consisted of Caucasian women between the ages of 18 and 22, who were enrolled in a college or university. All subjects were required to have had a father in the home until they were at least 4 years old. Women with paternal loss under the age of four were eliminated because it was assumed with the limited language development and therefore memory, that the subject with an earlier loss would not have enough sense of her father, her parent's marriage, or the loss to fill out the questionnaires.

In addition, no subjects were inclued who had undergone psychotherapy. The rationale for exclusion of women with psychotherapy experience was the perception of the writer and other clinicians that very often there is a progressive shift in feelings and perceptions of parents during and after therapy. Often clients who characterize parents as ideal begin to examine that notion and may go

through a period of time being quite critical. Tessman (1978) reports that during the process of childhood loss resolution, the client lets go of overidealized images of the lost parent and integrates the image of the parent to be both bad and good.

Selection of Sample

Subjects who participated in this study consisted of 203 Caucasian women between the ages of 18 and 22 from four colleges and universities: Illinois State University; Michigan State University; Central Michigan University; and State University of New York, College at Brockport.

The Illinois State University volunteer group consisted of 20 student advisors (paraprofessionals trained by the Counseling Center), and 20 students from a course on helping relations and a course on the psychology of women. Illinois State University students who took the questionnaire for credit included 68 Introduction to Psychology students. In addition, 45 students from a course in Special Education and a course in Statistics were required to complete the scales. Illinois students were surveyed during the period May to August, 1977.

Six Michigan State University subjects were solicited from a Psychology of Women course in July, 1977, and received points toward their final grade for their cooperation. Additionally, 30 women were solicited for the Loss groups by advertisements placed in the Michigan State News in September, 1977. Women in this group were paid $4 to complete the scales.

Ten volunteers from Central Michigan University were recruited from a course on Human Sexuality and a course on Marriage and Family. These scales were completed in September, 1977.

Four Counseling Center work-study students at the State University of New York, College at Brockport, completed the questionnaire in November, 1977, as part of their work assignment.

Students were requested to take the questionniare only if they had had no intensive psychotherapy experience and had had their father in the home until they were at least 4 years old. Enclosed in each packet of questionnaires was a letter emphasizing the type of subject required. The letter also clearly indicated that there were no "correct" answers (see Appendix A).

Those subjects with more than 5% data missing on any of the scales were dropped from the study, leaving a total of 181 subjects. These women were drawn on to establish the reliability of the five scales and to test those hypotheses dealing with the relationships among them.

A different sample was drawn from the 181 women to test hypotheses about differences between women from intact, widows', and divorcees' homes. Twenty-five women were randomly selected from the 133 women who came from intact homes while all 20 widows' daughters and 28 divorcees' daughters were included for a total of 73 subjects for testing differences between groups. Examination of the amount of missing data on scales and subscales showed an even distribution with no particular scale containing more missing data than others.

Sample Description

Hypothesis testing around the instrumentation (Hypotheses 13 - 21) and reliabilities used all 181 subjects. These subjects consisted of 133 (73.5%) women raised in intact homes, 20 (11%) raised in widowed homes, and 28 (15.5%) raised in divorcee's homes.

There is some difference between these subjects and subjects used previously in the development of Schaffer's CRPBI. None of Schaffer's subjects used for determining norms were from single parent homes. The section on Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) discusses previous studies and norms on the CRPBI more fully and compares reliabilities and factor analyses on his research with this study's.

One hundred (55.2%) of these subjects did not have an older brother, versus 81 (44.8%) who did. Two measures were taken for socio-economic level of both parents. Some differences between groups for both parents, on occupational and educational level, can be noted in Tables 3.1 through 3.4. As shown in Table 3.1 the highest percent of divorced fathers (50%) and deceased fathers (35%) fell into the professional, independent managerial category, while the highest percentage of intact-home fathers fell into the semi-professional, small business, etc., category. The next highest category for the intact group was professional (28%), while for the paternal death group the semi-professional category (25%) was next. In contrast, the divorce group's next highest categroy was at the skilled worker, foreman level (25%). The divorce group had the smallest percentages falling in the semi-skilled and skilled levels.

TABLE 3.3.--Father's Occupational Level and Intactness of the Family

Occupational Level	Intactness of Family		
	No Loss	Paternal Loss Death	Paternal Loss Divorce
Professional, independent, managerial	28% n=38	35% n=7	50% n=14
Semi-professional, small business, semi-independent managerial, proprietor, official, manager	36% n=49	25% n=5	14.3% n=4
Skilled worker and foreman	18% n=24	15% n=3	25% n=7
Semi-skilled	9.8% n=13	5% n=1	3.6% n=1
Unskilled	.8% n=1	10% n=2	7.1% n=2
Other	5.3% n=7	10% n=2	0% n=0
	N=133 73%	N=20 11%	N=28 15.5%
Total N=188 100%			

Mothers' occupational level across groups in contained in Table 3.2. Differences between the intact-home mothers and the paternal loss mothers can be noted. The highest proportion of the No-Loss mothers falls at the Other (24.8%) and Semi-Skilled (20%) levels. In the process of testing, it became apparent that young women whose mothers were homemakers placed them at Other and

TABLE 3.4.--Mother's Occupational Level and Intactness of the Family

Occupational Level	Intactness of Family		
	No loss	Paternal Loss Death	Paternal Loss Divorce
Professional, independent managerial	15% n=20	25% n=5	21.4% n=6
Semi-independent professional, small business, semi-managerial: proprietor, official, manager	12% n=16	20% n=4	28.6% n=8
Skilled worker and foreman	17.3% n=23	15% n=3	21.4% n=6
Semi-skilled	23.3% n=31	10% n=2	10.7% n=2
Unskilled	5.3% n=7	10% n=2	7.1% n=2
Other	24.8% n=33	20% n=4	7.1% n=2

Semi-Skilled levels. It would appear that No-loss mothers work at lower level jobs, possibly part-time or temporary, than their Loss counterparts. Widowed women, if not working at higher level, professional jobs, stay home in a similar proportion (20%) to their no-loss counterparts. By contrast, the divorce group were very rarely found in the Other category (7.1%). The divorced group's highest proportion of women were in the semi-professional and semi-independent managerial level (28.6%), followed by professional

(21.4%) and skilled worker (21.4%). Widowed women's highest percentage falls into the Professional category (25%), followed equally by Semi-professional, Semi-independent managerial (20%) and the previously discussed Other (20%).

Father's completed level of education is presented in Table 3.3. The proportion of deceased fathers in the Under Twelfth Grade (20%) and having completed One year of Graduate Work (20%) categories is the same. The highest percentage of divorced fathers completed four years of college (28%), with the next highest percentage completing high school (21.4%). The highest proportion of the intact home fathers completed high school (32.3%) with the next highest proportion completing four years of college (18%). Generally speaking, the divorced fathers have the most formal education of the three comparison groups, the intact-home fathers, the least.

Finally, an examination of the mother's completed education level, presented in Table 3.4, shows that a large proportion of no-loss mothers fall into the Completed High School category (42.1%), with the next largest group (18%) having completed four years of college. Very few went beyond four years of college. Similarly, the highest proportion of widowed (25%) and divorced (29%) mothers finished high school. However, they differ in completion of college and graduate work. While the next highest proportion of divorced women finished college (14.3%), an equally high percentage completed a Master's degree. The highest proportion of widows after those completing high school, completed only two years of college or trade school, and yet they have a higher proportion then the intact group of mothers who did some graduate work.

TABLE 3.5.--Father's Completed Educational Level and Intactness of Family

Completed Eduation	Intactness of Family		
	No Loss	Paternal Loss Death	Paternal Loss Divorce
Under Sixth Grade	.8% n=1	0% n=0	0% n=0
Under Ninth Grade	5.3% n=7	5% n=1	0% n=0
Under Twelfth Grade	4.5% n=6	20% n=4	14.3% n=4
Completed High School	32.3% n=43	15% n=3	21.4% n=6
One Year College or Trade School	7.5% n=10	0% n=0	3.6% n=1
Two Years College or Trade School	15% n=20	10% n=2	3.6% n=1
Three Years College	1.5% n=2	0% n=0	7.1% n=2
Four Years College	18% n=24	10% n=2	28% n=8
One Year Graduate Work	.8% n=1	20% n=4	0% n=0
Two Years Graduate Work	5.3% n=7	5% n=1	3.6% n=1
M.A. Degree	4.5% n=6	5% n=1	14.3% n=4
Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D.	3.0% n=4	10% n=2	3.6% n=1

TABLE 3.6.--Mother's Completed Educational Level and Intactness of Family

Completed Education	Intactness of Family		
	No Loss	Paternal Loss Death	Paternal Loss Divorce
Under Sixth Grade	2.3% n=3	0% n=0	0% n=0
Under Ninth Grade	2.3% n=3	0% n=0	0% n=0
Under Twelfth Grade	5.3% n=7	10% n=2	7.1% n=2
Completed High School	42.1% n=56	25% n=5	39% n=11
One Year College or Trade School	9.8% n=13	5% n=1	7.1% n=2
Two Years College or Trade School	12% n=16	25% n=5	14.3% n=4
Three Years College	2.3% n=3	0% n=0	3.6% n=1
Four Years College	18.8% n=25	15% n=3	7.1% n=2
One Year Graduate School	1.5% n=2	10% n=2	0% n=2
Two Years Graduate School	0% n=0	5% n=1	0% n=0
Master's Degree	3.8% n=5	5% n=1	14.3% n=4
Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D.	0	0	0

There does seem to be some indication of basic social and economic differences between the groups. Based on fathers' and mothers' education and occupation, it would appear that the loss group, particularly the divorce group, may be more upper-middle class than the intact group. Various explanations for this may be entertained. It may be harder for a single-mother family to send a child to college, given the disparity between men's and women's salaries (Bane, 1976). Therefore lower economic class single parent subjects may have been elminated simply because college was not financially possible for them. Perhaps with somewhat higher occupational and educational levels, awareness of the alternatives to a less than satisfactory marriage increase and lead to divorce (Tessman, 1978). For whatever reasons, the reader may want to be aware of the possibility of slight class differences influencing the perceptions these three groups of women have of their parents, and that there are class differences in parenting practices of mothers and fathers (Tessman, 1978). It was thought that such differences would have been controlled for by the selection of college women from state universities. Matched subjects or a more careful control of subjects during selection may have given additional control against possible socioeconomic class differences.

Instrumentation

This section will include a general overview of the use and development of retrospective paper and pencil scales dealing with

parental behavior and attitudes. Following such an overview will be a description of each instrument.

Overview of Retrospective Parenting Scales

In the light of current factor-analytic findings, Goldin (1969) thoroughly reviewed children's reports of parental behaviors and attitudes conducted from 1931 to 1965. To make a clear presentation of his findings, he compared two recent factor-analytic instruments, Schaffer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) [Schaffer, 1965a, 1975b with Seigelman's Parent-Child Relations Questionnaire (PCR) (Roe & Seigelman: Seigelman, 1965)]. While concluding that the differences between the orthogonal factors of the two scales were "more apparent than real," Goldin found that Seigelman's factors better explained the results of the reviewed studies.

Goldin found Schaffer's factor of Acceptance versus Rejection (A-R) to be almost identical to Seigelman's factor of Love (L). Schaffer's factor A-R referred to praise, affection, sharing, support, positive evaluation and egalitarian treatment at one pole of a continuum, and detached, hostile treatment at the other pole. Seigelman's L factor indicates support, affection, praise, and participation.

A close similarity also existed between Seigelman's Demanding (D) and Schaffer's factor: Psychological Control (PC) versus Psychological Autonomy (PA). Schaffer's PC-PA referred to behaviors that tend to facilitate or damage a child's individuation from his/her

parents. Seigelman's D denoted parental behaviors that were intrusive, demanding, controlling, and protective. Goldin points out one difference: the D also refers to strictness.

Schaffer's factors of Firm Control (FC) versus (LC) do differ with Seigelman's factor Punishment (P). P refers to arbitrary use of physical and nonphysical punishment, whereas FC-LC refers to setting and enforcing rules. Goldin's review of studies of perceptions of parental behavior with a comparison of reviewed factors to Seigelman and Schaffer's factors is in Table 3.5. The similarity between the various factors and to Seigelman and Schaffer is striking, given the theoretical rather than statistical basis for the earlier studies.

Goldin proceeded to test a number of hypotheses about retrospective parenting scales, using the reviewed studies as data. He then made recommendations for further research which are relevant to this study. His hypotheses, conclusions, and suggestions will, therefore, be reviewed.

Hypothesis 1: Children perceive both parents favorably but perceive mothers as more loving and fathers as more punishing. This hypothesis is supported by ten studies reviewed by Goldin (1969).

Hypothesis 2: Girls perceive their parents as less controlling, punishing, and demanding and as more accepting and loving than boys. This hypothesis is supported by twenty-one studies and disputed by two discussed by Goldin.

Hypothesis 3: The amount of control and punishment demonstrated by the father in comparison to the mother is differentially

TABLE 3.7.--Classification of Children's Reports of Parental Behavior in Terms of Factor Dimensions

Author	Factor Dimensions				Other
	I. Loving, Acceptance-Rejection	II. Demanding, Psychological Autonomy-Control	III. Punishment	I - II	
Alexander (1952)		Apperceptive projective test--authority	Same--hostility		
Anderson (1940) Study 1		Questionnaire--supervision	Same--discipline		
Study 2	Questionnaire--affection (.92)[a]	Same--dominance (.87)			
Audry (1957)	Interview and questionnaire--affectional relationships, Acceptance-Rejection				
Ausubel et al. (1954)	Rating scale--Acceptance-Rejection (.68)			Same--extrinsic-intrinsic evaluation (.81)	
Bach (1946)	Categories of doll-play father fantasies (interrater r=.89)--participation, affection	Same--authority		Same--aggression, hostility	
Bene & Anthony (1957)	Projective apperceptive test--positive incoming	Same--indulgence	Same--negative incoming	Same--protectiveness	
Block (1937)		Questionnaire--strictness and criticism regarding social and habit routines	Same--nagging		
Brown et al. (1947)	Questionnaire--democratic home atmosphere (.45)				
Cass (1952)		Rating scale--regulations and restrictions and unnecessary help (.85)			
Cooper (1960)				Parent Evaluation Scale--good and bad traits (.77-.99)	
Cooper & Blair (1959)				Parent Evaluation Scale--parent preference	
Cox (1962) Study 1	Ratings of TAT protocols--attachment (.96) rejection (.92)				
Study 2	Same--(interrater = 97%)				
Cox & Leaper (1961)					
Study 1	a. Multiple-choice and open-end questions--love b. Questionnaire--family cohesion (.78)	a. Same--restrictions			
Study 2	Love Scale, Family Cohession Scale	Social Restriction and Household Responsibility Scales			
Study 3	Love Scale (.80), Family Cohesion Scale (.60)	Social restrictions (.71), Household responsibility (.78)			

TABLE 3.7.--Continued

Author	Factor Dimensions				Other
	I. Loving, Acceptance-Rejection	II. Demanding, Psychological Autonomy-Control	III. Punishment	I- II	
Cummings (1952					Projective test--emotional expression and causes
Despert & Potter (1936)		Projective stories--indulgence	Same--punishment	Same--overprotection	
Dorkey & Amen (1947)		Figure completion--unhappy or happy (.22)			
Droppleman & Schaefer (1963) Study 1	Parent Behavior Inventory--love, affection, hurt, ignoring, neglect (median r = .76)	Same--extreme autonomy, nagging		Same--irritability	Same--covert, indirect control, overt, direct control (intersect of II, III)
Study 2	Same--(median r = .84)	Same--		Same--	Same--
DuValle (1937)	Social Distance Index--democratic practices				
Elias (1952)	Questionnaire--homelessness (.97)				
Emmerich (1959)		Paired comparison--power		Same--facilitating intervening behaviors	
Emmerich (1961)		Paired comparison--power, attitudinal direction			
Finch (1955)	Pictorial interview, doll play, question--affection	Same--authority			Same--social-sex roles
Gardner (1947)	Questions--love	Same--authority	Same--punishment		
Harris & Tseng (1957)	Sentence completion--positive, negative, neutral attitudes (.89-.96 interrater)				
Havighurst & Taba (1949)	Rating scale--democratic, affectional family relations (.87)				
Hawkes et al. (1957a)		Control scale--health & typicality of guides & restrictions (.85)			
Hawkes et al. (1957b)	Sentence completion & rating scales--democratic family relations				
Hayward (1935)	Family Inventory Questionnaire--family incompatibility (.82)		Same--attitude adjustment		
Henry (1957			Questions--disciplinarian		
Hess & Torney (1962)		Question--"boss"			
Jackson (1950	Projective test--exclusion from intimacy	Same--dependency on mother	Same--fear of aggression		

TABLE 3.7.--Continued

Author	Factor Dimensions				Other
	I. Loving, Acceptance-Rejection	II. Demanding, Psychological Autonomy-Control	III. Punishment	I - II	
Johnson (1952	Sentence completion--feelings and attitudes to family (interrater = 66% +)				
Kagan (1956)	Comparison of mother and father--friendliness	Same--dominance	Same--threat, punitiveness		
Kagan (1958)		(1) Questions comparing mother and father--dominant authority	(1) Same--punishing agent		
		(2) Projective test--dependency	(2) Same--punishment		
Kagan et al. (1961)		Rating scale--symbolic conception of strength	Same--symbolic conception of punitiveness	Same--symbolic conception of nurturance	Same--symbolic conception of hardness, etc.
Kagan & Lemkin (1960)			(1) Questions--punitiveness, source of fear	(1) Same--nurturance	(1) Same--competence
				(2) Picture completion--nurturance	
Kell & Aldous (1960)		Interview--overcircumscribing child's freedom (92%)			
Kohn & Carroll (1960)	Questions comparing mother and father--praise	Same--strictness			
Lyle & Levitt (1955)			Sentence completion--punitive discipline		
Medinnus (1965a)	Parent-Child Relationship Scale--(see Roe & Seigelman, 1963)	Same	Same	Same	
Meltzer (1943)	Projective free associations--feeling tone, acceptance	Same--discipline			Same--social sex role
Morgan & Gaier (1956)			Projective--maternal aggression in punishment situation		
Morgan & Gaier (1957)					Projective--mother's defensive reaction
Morrow & Wilson (1961)	(1) Family Morale Scale--democratic atmosphere (.97)				
	(2) Open-ended questions--democratic atmosphere				
Mussen & Distler (1959)	Doll play, story completions--help, comfort, reassurance	Same--demanding	Same--spanking		

TABLE 3.7.--Continued

Author	Factor Dimensions				Other
	I. Loving, Accpetance-Rejection	II. Demanding, Psychological Autonomy-Control	III. Punishment	I - II	
Roe & Seigelman (1963)	(1) Parent-Child Relationship Rating Scale (.69 - .90)--loving, rejecting	(1) Same--casual-demanding	(1) Same--symbolic-love reward, direct-object reward, symbolic-love punishment, direct-object punishment	(1) Same--protecting neglecting	
	(2) Factor scales--Loving-Rejecting	(2) Factor scale--Casual-Demanding			
Rogers (1931)	Questionnaire and Q technique--family maladjustment (.79)				
Rosen (1964)	Rating scale--support, acceptance				Same--competence, security
Schaefer (1965a)	Parent Behavior Inventory--love love (.84), hostility (.78)	Same--autonomy (.69); control (.66) control (.66)			
Schaefer (1965b)	Factor scale--Acceptance-Rejection	Same--Autonomy-Control			Same--Firm Control-Lax Control (Intersect II-III)
Serot & Teevan (1957)	Child-Parent Relationship Scale--(see Swanson, 1950)				
Shapiro (1957			(1) Ratings of projective themes--expectation of punishment		(1) Ratings of projective themes--ability
		(2) Questionnaire--strength and outcomes of situations (85% interrater r)			
Seigelman (1965)	Factor scale--Loving (.73 - .91)	Same--Demanding (.70 - .81)	Same--Punishment (.78 - .85)		
Stott (1940					Open-end questions--criticism of parental personal habits and behavior
Stott (1941)	Family Life Rating Scale (.91)--congenial family relationships				
Swanson (1950)	Child-Parent Relations Scale (.89)--attitude of parents to child				
Temple & Amen (1944)	Picture completion--happy-sad				
Williams (1958)	Rating--love (interrater r = 94%)	Same--authority			
Zucker (1943)	Projective story completion--attachment	Same--influence and effectiveness of moralization			

perceived during development. Age and sex of the perceiver has a complex and often inconsistent influence on the perception of parental acceptance and therefore needs further investigation. The contradictory results of six studies were cited to confirm this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4: Parents from lower socio-economic levels are perceived as less accepting and possibly more controlling. Goldin cites nine studies supporting and two opposing this hypothesis. This may have relevance to the previous discussion in the section on sample description.

Hypothesis 5: Maladjusted normals, mental health center patients, and delinquents perceive their mothers as more loving and their fathers as more rejecting than other groups. Mental health patients and maladjusted normals see their parents as excessively demanding while delinquents perceive their parents as low on control. Punitiveness does not differentiate these groups. Goldin cites forty-eight studies to support the above multi-faceted hypothesis and one in disagreement. In summary, he emphasizes that perception of parents is related to some behaviors.

Finally, Goldin (1969) suggests the following additional area of research in the area of parental behavior scales. The reader is asked to consider these as she/he examines the scales and design of this study.

1. The relationship between perception of parental behavior and age of the child needs further exploration.

2. The interaction of sex by age on reports of parental behavior is confusing and requires further investigation.

3. Further study of the relation between report of parental behavior and child behavior is needed, particularly in concrete, specific, operational behavioral terms.

4. Parental characteristics and behaviors such as education, age, intelligence, and child rearing practices should be related to childrens' reports of parental behavior.

5. The conditions which elicit the various parental behavior measures should be compared. Goldin suggests that maladjusted normals, clinic children, and delinquents may differ in the kinds of situations that lead to what they experience as rejection.

While some of the suggestions are directly meaningful for this study, they also have relevance to suggestions for future research in Chapter V.

A discussion of each scale used in this study follows. Appendix A contains a copy of each scale used and the instructions included in the test packet.

Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI)

Schaffer's scale (1965a, 1965b) is a paper and pencil test consisting of seventy-two items. These items are statements about parental behavior that are responded to for the mother and again for the father. For this study's purposes only the paternal section was used. Examples of behavioral statements are "Doesn't show that he loves me," "Enjoys talking things over with me," and "Can't say no to anything I want." The testee responds to each statement with either

"Like," "Somewhat Like," or "Not Like." The responses are scored 3, 2, and 1 respectively, and summed to yield scores on individual scales within the test. Test time for the paternal half of the CRPBI averaged thirty minutes.

The form of the CRPBI used consists of 18 scales, six that are based on sixteen items and twelve that are based on eight items. Schaffer's scales were devised to represent concepts such as child-centeredness, acceptance of individuation, and ignoring. Examples of items developed from each concept (revised edition) are in Table 3.6. Appendix C contains the complete scoring and items for each scale. These scales originated from twenty-six concepts he initially hypothesized to cover all aspects of parental behavior. From those twent- six concepts he developed twenty items for each concept. Three psychologists then rated each item for its difference from items devised to measure other concepts, its relevance to the concept, and its abil- to measure a specific behavior. Ten items for each concept were selected from the ratings. This inventory was then administered to eighty females and eighty-five males, all white seventh grade students and eighty-one institutionalized delinquent boys both black and white (Schaffer, 1965a). All subjects were from unbroken homes. Three replicated factors, Acceptance versus Rejection, Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control, and Firm Control versus Lax Control, were identified for four correlational matrices. Internal consistency reliabilities were computed with the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 for each of the 26 scales. The median reliabilities of items chosen to

TABLE 3.8.--Concepts and Sample Items of the Revised Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory

Concepts	Sample Items from Scales
1. Acceptance	Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with him. Cheers me up when I feel sad. Isn't interested in changing me, but likes me as I am.
2. Childcentered-ness	Is always thinking of things that will please me. Makes me feel like the most important person in his life. Makes his whole life center about his children.
3. Possessiveness	Seems to regret that I am growing up and am spending more time away from home. Usually makes me the center of his attention at home. Wishes I would stay at home where he could take care of me.
4. Rejection	Isn't very patient with me. Forgets to help me when I need it. Gets cross and angry about little things I do.
5. Control	Believes that all my bad behavior should be punished in some way. Insists I must do exactly as I'm told. I have certain jobs to do and am not allowed to do anything else until they are done.
6. Enforcement	Is very strict with me. Gives hard punishment. Sees to it that I obey when he tells me something.
7. Positive Involvement	Tells me I'm good looking. Likes to talk about what he has read with me. Encourages me to read.
8. Intrusiveness	Is always checking on what I've been doing at school or at play. Keeps a careful check on me to make sure I have the right kind of friends. Asks other people what I do away from home.
9. Control through Guilt	Feels hurt when I don't follow advice. Feels hurt by the things I do. When I don't do the things he wants, says I'm not grateful for all he has done for me.

TABLE 3.8.--Continued

Concepts	Sample Items from Scales
10. Hostile Control	Is always telling me how I should behave. Doesn't forget very quickly the things I do wrong. Gets cross and nervous when I'm noisy around the house.
11. Inconsistent Discipline	Soon forgets a rule he had made. Depends upon his mood whether a rule is enforced or not. Insists I follow a rule one day and then forgets about it the next.
12. Nonenforcement	Usually doesn't find out about my misbehavior. Doesn't pay much attention to my misbehavior. Seldom insists that I do anything.
13. Acceptance of Individuation	Enjoys it when I bring friends home. Allows me to tell him if I think my ideas are better than his. Is easy to talk to.
14. Lax Discipline	Is easy with me. Can't say no to anything I want. Does not insist I obey if I complain or protest.
15. Instilling Persistent Anxiety	If I break a promise, doesn't trust me again for a long time. Says some day I'll be punished for my bad behavior. Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.
16. Hostile Detachment	Doesn't talk to me much. Almost never brings me a surprise or present. Doesn't share many activities with me.
17. Withdrawal of Relations	Will not talk to me when I displease him. Is less friendly with me if I don't see things his way. If I've hurt his feelings, stops talking to me until I please him again.
18. Extreme Autonomy	Allows me to go out as often as I please. Doesn't tell me what time to be home when I go out. Lets me dress in any way I please.

Source: Appendix B

sample molar dimensions were: Love, .84; Hostility, .78; Autonomy, .69; and Control, .66. Appendix B contains the internal-consistency reliabilities for the CRPBI for that sample.

Schaffer concluded that although the two groups of boys were not matched on a number of factors, differences were found between the groups' reports on parental behavior. Using the Mann-Whitney test, of 52 differences, 26 were significant beyond the .05 level and 11 beyond the .01 level. Using a more rigorous test of significance for such a large number of dependent variables in which the level of significance is divided by the number of dependent variables might put Schaffer's findings of differences between groups in a questionable light. The more rigorous test would require an alpha level of .00092 instead of .05 to assume true differences between groups.

In the Journal of Consulting Psychology (1965b) Schaffer presents more information about the inventory and presents additional data about two samples of Army personnel. One group consisted of 154 Army hospital personnel with a median age of 23.5 and a median educational level of 12.4. The second group of 108 consisted of 100 patients and 8 personnel with a median age of 29.9 and a median education of 11.3 years. A factor analysis using the principal components method was done. Three orthogonal factors extracted significant amounts of variance. These factors extracted an average of 66% of the total variance, which is estimated at approximately 90% of the reliability variance.

Coefficients of congruence for Factor I ranged from .97 to .99; for Factor II, from .95 to .99; and for Factor III, from .73 to .95 for the independent sample of children and adults for mother and father taken separately (see Appendix B). Coefficients of congruence between different factors for Factor I and II ranged from .12 to -.17, for Factors I and II from .07 to .20 and for Factors II and III the range was from -.14 to .31. Table 3.8 presents a more detailed explanation of the orthogonally rotated factor matrices. These coefficients suggest very similar factor structures for the independent samples analyzed.

Scales designed to measure qualities of the Love versus Hate dimension loaded high on Factor I. The positive pole of this dimension is best defined by Sharing, Expression of Affection, Positive Evaluation, and absence of Negative Treatment; the negative pole, by Neglect, Rejection, and Ignoring. Schaffer chose to label this dimension Acceptance versus Rejection because the heaviest negative loadings were for scales that indicated a more detached type of hostile reaction.

The second major factor is most clearly defined by the scales Control through Guilt, Intrusiveness, and Parental Direction. Significant loadings were found for Possessiveness and Protection that also had loadings on Acceptance; for Nagging and Negative Evaluation, which also have loadings on Rejection; and for Strictness and Punishment that also have loadings on the third factor of Firm Control versus Lax Control. Schaffer suggested the label of Psychological Autonomy

versus Psychological Control for this factor because the defining scales describe covert, psychological methods of keeping the child from developing as an individual apart from the parent.

Factor III is best defined by Lax Discipline and Extreme Autonomy at one end of the pole and Punishment and Strictness at the other. Schaffer suggests the label Firm Control versus Lax Control to indicate that this dimension is concerned with the degree to which the parent makes rules and regulations, sets limits, and enforces those rules and limits.

Renson, Schaffer, and Levy (1968) administered a French translation of the revised CRPBI to 182 students from four public high schools in Leige, Belgium. Factor analysis revealed five principal components. Only three of which had mean eigen values greater than one and were orthogonally rotated by the varimax method. A relatively high congruence in the factors calculated for the girls and the boys was used to justify the calculation of a single correlation matrix of boys' and girls' reports of maternal and paternal behavior. The first factor was very similar to the Acceptance versus Rejection that Schaffer reported for American subjects and, therefore, the name was kept for this factor. Factor II was very similar to the American factor of Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy and was likewise similarly named. Schaffer's factor Lax Control versus Firm Control was similar to the Belgium Factor III and, therefore, the same name was used. The authors concluded that in both countries, only three dimensions accounted for a major amount of the common variance of the parent behavior scale.

Using a sample similar to the one in this study, college students, Cross (1969) did a factor analysis on the revised CRPBI. His sample consisted of 119 females and 99 males, mostly freshmen and sophomores from the University of Connecticut. Four factor analyses were done, on reports by females and males of father and mother separately. Again, similar structures produced the same three factors corresponding to Schaffer's dimensions of Acceptance versus rejection, Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control, and Firm Control versus Lax Control.

In support of the preceding results, Burger and Armentrout did a factor analysis of the CRBPI. They used 64 male and 83 female fifth graders and 54 male and 59 female sixth graders in a middle-class suburb of Minneapolis. Although they changed the answering format to Yes-No from Like, Somewhat Like, and Not Like, they obtained a replication of the factorial structure of the inventory found by Cross (1969) and Benson, Schaffer, and Levy (1968).

Finally, studies cited previously, Chapter II, show the results of this scale to be related to other factors, Fish and Biller (1973) found perception of father to be related to personal adjustment, Jenning (1977) found it related to the Altruistic Other Orientation Scale and women's ability to be self-supporting, and Schaffer (1965a) found that it differentiated black and white delinquent children from a white high school group. Also demonstrating the scale's concurrent validity, Raskin, Boothe, Reatig, Schulterbrandt and Odle (1971) compared hospitalized depressed patients to

normal persons and found significant differences in how the groups reported their perceptions of their parents. The depressed group reported their parents' behavior as being much more negative than the normal group did. Another factor analysis replicated this one.

Table 3.9 presents the results of the factor analysis of the CRPBI for those 181 young women participating in this study. Subjects with more than 5% missing data on any scale were eliminated from analysis and hypothesis testing connected to the measures. The subjects are listed in order of their highest loadings for the factor in which they are included.

The first factor had high positive loadings on Acceptance, Positive Involvement, Acceptance of Individuation, and Child-centeredness, and high negative loadings on Hostile Detachment and Rejection. This factor is similar to the factor of Acceptance versus Rejection which Schaffer (1965b) and Renson (1968) report for American adult and young males and females and for Belgian young males and females. (See previously cited literature in Chapter II. For the purpose of illumination the results from this study's factor analysis of the CRPBI will be contrasted with Renson's.) The name was, therefore, kept for this population of young adult women.

The second factor had its highest positive loadings on Control through Instilling Persistent Anxiety, Hostile Control (Control through Guilt, Possessiveness and Intrusiveness). A factor that resembles this one, also used by Renson, Schaffer labelled Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy.

TABLE 3.9.--Orthogonally Rotated Composite Factor Matrix for Young Woman's Reports of Paternal Behavior

	I	II	III
Factor I			
Acceptance	.94	.05	.08
Hostile detachment	-.88	.16	.15
Positive involvement	.86	.05	-.04
Rejection	-.88	.35	.00
Acceptance of individuation	.81	-.13	.23
Child-centeredness	.81	.35	.02
Factor II			
Control through instilling persistent anxiety	-.38	.75	-.05
Hostile control	-.43	.10	-.23
Control through guilt	-.45	.67	.07
Possessiveness	.31	.65	-.07
Intrusiveness	.12	.62	-.27
Inconsistent discipline	-.41	.44	.37
Factor III			
Lax Discipline	.07	.11	.85
Nonenforcement	-.27	.01	.82
Extreme autonomy	.05	-.22	.72
Control	.01	.53	-.60
Enforcement	-.10	.47	-.59
Control through withdrawal of relationship	.57	.47	.81

TABLE 3.9.--Continued

	I	II	III
Orthogonally Rotated Composite Factor Matrix for Boys' and Girls' Reports of Maternal and Paternal Behavior (Renson, 1968, p. 1231)			
Factor I			
Acceptance	.91	.22	-.15
Positive involvement	.89	-.07	.16
Child-centeredness	.85	-.17	-.11
Acceptance of individuation	.81	.22	-.15
Hostile detachment	-.74	-.42	-.28
Possessiveness	.54	-.52	-.05
Factor II			
Hostile control	.06	-.86	.15
Control through guilt	.06	-.83	-.07
Control through instilling persistent anxiety	.12	-.76	.09
Enforcement	.34	-.67	.16
Intrusiveness	-.20	.68	.39
Rejection	-.56	.64	-.26
Control through withdrawal of relationship	.38	-.63	-.16
Control	.14	-.60	-.51
Inconsistent discipline	-.20	-.50	-.48
Factor III			
Nonenforcement	-.21	-.07	-.72
Lax discipline	.45	.07	-.63
Extreme autonomy	.05	.22	-.61

The third factor had high positive loadings in Lax Discipline, Nonenforcement, and Autonomy, and high negative loadings on Control and Enforcement. The corresponding factor labelled by Schaffer and affirmed by Renson is Lax Control versus Firm Control.

Some dissimilarities between Renson's factor analysis and the one used in this study can be noted (see Table 3.9). Schaffer's factor matrix was not included in his articles; however, his second authorship of the Renson study would suggest agreement with Renson's statements that her factors are very similar to Schaffer's. Of interest is the placement of Rejection with high loadings only in Factor I in this study, in comparison to Renson's analysis placing Rejection in Factor II with an almost equally high loading in Factor I.

Additionally, Possessiveness, while loaded heavily in Factor I in Renson's study is loaded in Factor II of this study. The higher loading of Rejection and placement of Possessiveness in Factor II suggests that for this study, Factor I may be closer to expressing the dimension of Acceptance versus Rejection than Renson's Factor I. Similarly, the label Psychological Control for Factor II seems more fitting in this study with the inclusion of Possessiveness and the exclusion of Rejection than in the case of the Renson study.

Reliability of the CRPBI from Sample Data

Reliabilities for each of the parenting characteristics delineated by Schaffer were computed across the 181 subjects

described previously, using Hoyt's (1967) analysis of variance procedure. The results for Schaffer's subtests are presented in Table 3.10. Acceptance was overall the most reliable subtest with a Hoyt coefficient of reliability of .93. The subtests comprising Factor I are among the most reliable, ranging from .93 to .84. Factor II's subtests are among the least reliable, ranging from .85 for Hostile Control to the lowest reliability of all the subtests, Possessiveness at .63. Factor III reliabilities ranged from .80 for Nonenforcement, Extreme Autonomy, and Lax Discipline to .72 for Control and Enforcement.

Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS)

The Darlington scale on fathering, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS) is a paper and pencil, 142-item test. A copy of the scale in Appendix A labelled as Experiences With and Attitudes Toward Fathers. It consists of 71 statements about father, his behavior, and the respondent's feelings about his behavior. Each statement is responded to twice: first, according to how the respondent saw her father during childhood in the situation described; second, how she would have liked that situation to have been different during childhood. Responses are on a six-point scale ranging from Always (6) to Never (1). A discrepancy score is then calculated for each of the statements and for the scale. Test time for a pilot group of young women was between 30 and 60 minutes; the median was 45 minutes.

Because of the inconclusive theory and research on the role of the father in raising his daughters and subsequent questions about what his loss might mean, items were developed by interviewing

TABLE 3.10.--Internal-Consistency Reliabilities for the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory Scales (Sample Subjects)

Scale	
Factor I	
Acceptance	.93
Acceptance of Individuation	.91
Hostile Detachment	.90
Rejection	.88
Positive Involvement	.88
Child-Centeredness	.85
Factor II	
Hostile Control	.85
Control Through Guilt	.80
Control Through Instilling Persistent Anxiety	.79
Inconsistent discipline	.77
Intrusiveness	.76
Possessiveness	.63
Factor III	
Nonenforcement	.80
Extreme Autonomy	.80
Lax Discipline	.80
Control	.72
Enforcement	.72
Control Through Withdrawal of the Relationship	.84

interviewing females. This method of test construction was an attempt to establish content validity, according to Lennon's interpretation of the APA Committee on Tests and Standards' useage of the term (Lennon, Mehrens, ed., 1976). Lennons' interpretation is as follows:

> . . .the extent to which a subject's responses to the items of a test may be considered to be a representative sample of his responses to a real or hypothetical universe of situations which together constitute the area of concern to the person interpreting the test (p. 46).

The writer reasoned, that given broadly asked questions, the order and predominance of certain material in the answers, over a number of respondants, would produce items that would be a representative sample of the universe of reports of perception of father behaviors. Additionally, it was decided that because the tests being developed would go through a number of revisions, and that initially the goal of a large pool of items, on which statistical analyses could be performed would assist examination of validity and reliability (Wesman; ed. Mehrens, 1976) from an empirical-quantitative approach. Specifically in examining the validity of a new scale measuring perception of paternal behavior, demonstrating concurrent validity with the paternal form of the Schaffer Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory and in ability to differentiate groups was considered worthwhile.

Females interviewed ranged in age from women in the 50s to 4 year old girls, and came from a variety of familial backgrounds. They were asked to talk about their father, about what they liked, what they did not like, and what they wished he would have done.

The questions were asked in a casual, inquisitive fashion. Notes from the interview were written down after the interview. Although quite unstructured, the interview always started with an explanation that little is known about fathers and daughters and that the interviewer was interested in learning about fathers and daughters. Because so little was known, they were the expert, that how father was to them is important and of interest. The first question was, "Tell me about your father?" (For older subjects the questions were qualified with, "when you were a child.") Secondly, the interviewee was asked, "What did/do you like about him?" Then the women were asked what they did not like. Finally, the interview closed with "What things do you wish he would have done--more or less of, or differently?"

Attention was paid to areas of parenting that were not mentioned, after the interviewee was finished in answering. Often inquiries were made into the unmentioned areas. An inquiry for subjects with responses filled with descriptions of unavailability, might be, "I'm struck by how important his not being around to you was, but how about when he was around, what sorts of things about your relationship do you remember?" Subjects that spoke at length about how their father included them in decision-making were questioned about other areas--"How about limit setting; how about affection; how did you know he loved you?" There are many biases built into such a method of interviewing and item construction. First, the author was the interviewer. Limitations due to the interviewer's educational

and personal history, the input of only one interviewer's ideas on areas of interest, and nonverbal cues during interviewing may have biased the kind of information gathered for item construction. Second, no attempt was made to formalize the interview, so that it is conceivable that some interviews dwelled more heavily on certain areas than other interviews. Finally, the method for selecting females to interview was done casually. Many of the females were friends and acquaintances of the interviewer--possibly inhibiting or increasing candor. The limiting input of need for social desirability is continually of concern in constructing measures and this method of item construction very possibly has such contamination. This sample was composed of white females from college educated backgrounds, parents who had some college, or women who had some college education themselves. Therefore the universe of reports of perceptions of fathers may not include those reports of women from different backgrounds. The danger in such a method of test construction is the possible lack of thorough sampling of the universe of reports of perceptions of father and the subsequent loss of items that might delimit differences between groups.

Areas of importance to those females interviewed, represented in items on the PFS, in order of frequency and intensity of discussion are: discipline, communication, availability, affection/nurturance, encouragement, inclusion in decision making, general acceptance, protection, and identification with father. These labels were devised and applied by the researcher in consultation with Robert

Wilson, at the time statistical consultant in the Michigan State University's Office of Educational Research. Again the writer acknowledges the biases and limitations of such subjective judgments--see previous discussion in this section. Examples of items comprising each subset are in the following Table 3.11.

Reliability analysis of the originally-proposed PFS subscales.--A Homogeneity Reliability was performed for the items within each of the proposed areas of fathering. A coefficient of reliability computed by Hoyt's (1941) analysis of variance method gives the percentage of obtained variance in the distribution of scores for the items within an area that may be regarded as true variance (not due to error) or variance that is not the result of item unreliability. Such homogeneity reliabilities are considered to be coefficients of equivalence, indicating how closely the items in an area vary together or measure the same thing.

Analysis was done on subject responses in which there was no missing data. A negative homogeneity coefficient was labeled indeterminate; a coefficient of 0 - .40 was considered extremely poor; .40 - .60 was poor; .60 - .80 fair to good; and .80 - 1.00 was good to excellent. High reliability coefficients reflect greater similarity between items in an area. Within an area, items estimated to have a homogeneity coefficient of .40 or less were considered to be lacking in homogeneity. Items within the eight areas for real or actual Phenomenological Fathering Scale received reliability coefficients greater than .40 when a less homogeneous item was deleted; the area Availabilty received a coefficient less than .40 even with

TABLE 3.11.--Concepts and Sample Items for the Phenomenal Fathering Scale (PFS)

Discipline	I was afraid of him. He did most of the punishing. It was hard to know at times what he would be angered by and punish.
Communication	He shared humorous stories about his childhood with me. He really listened to me.
Availability	He was out of town. Even when he was around, he was too preoccupied to spend much time with me.
Affection/Nurturance	He gave me piggyback rides, tickled me, teased me, etc. He was warm and snuggly.
Encouragement	He took an active interest in my schooling. He believed I could do anything I put my mind to.
Inclusion in decision making	He included me in discussions about vacation plans. When he went shopping, he took me along and got my opinion.
General Acceptance	When I was discouraged or failing in school or an activity, he became angry and critical. He enjoyed having me around.
Protection	It didn't matter to him where I went or at what time I came in at night. He always picked me up on time.
Identification with Father	I was closer to him than my mother. I was proud of him. I respected him as a person.

an item deletion (.08 to .24). Six of the areas for ideal or wished-for Phenomenological Fathering Scale received reliability coefficients greater than .40 when a less homogeneous item was deleted; three areas had coefficients less than .40 even with an item deletion (Discipline, .39; Availability, .12; and General Acceptance, .25). Items within the Protection (.72), Discipline (.77), and Father Identification (.74) on the Real test received the highest homogeneity coefficients and were considered to have a greater degree of homogeneity than items for other areas on both Real and Ideal tests.

Although the homogeneity coefficients for areas within the Real test were higher than homogeneity coefficients for the Ideal test, coefficients for both tests indicated that the items within each area on both tests were generally not measuring unidimensional, unrelated constructs. The Hoyt Homogeneity Reliability Coefficients for both tests are reported in Table 3.12.

TABLE 3.12.--Hoyt Reliability Coefficients for the Revised Real and Ideal Tests of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale

Area	# Items	Real	(N)	Ideal	(N)
Discipline	10	.77	(190)	.39	(189)
Communication	9	.65	(191)	.57	(188)
Availability	7	.24	(191)	.12	(191)
Affection/Nurturance	7	.68	(189)	.65	(185)
Encouragement	7	.68	(191)	.52	(188)
Decision Making	4	.68	(195)	.48	(194)
General Acceptance	4	.55	(195)	.25	(190)
Protection	6	.72	(180)	.44	(184)
Father Identification	2	.74	(199)	.42	(197)

Because the homogeneity coefficients for areas within the Real and Ideal form of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale were low, a factor analysis was done to determine if there were other possible groups of items with higher reliabilities that would provide meaningful factors to this study.

Factor analysis of the PFS.--A factor analysis was performed to explore and detect the patterning of relationships between items within both forms, Real and Ideal, of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale. A two-part process for each form was performed. First, a principle components factor analysis with no assumptions about the expected structure was performed. Secondly, a varimax rotation setting the number of factors to 12 for the Real form and 14 for the Ideal form. Factors were then compared for match between the Ideal and Real forms.

In the first attempt, the number of factors rotated to varimax criteria was determined by the eigen value threshhold set at 1.00. Seventeen factors emerged for the Real form and 22 emerged for the Ideal form. Eigen values and percentage of variance for both forms are presented in Tables 3.13 and 3.14.

Both forms produced a large number of factors which accounted for approximately 70% of the variance when analyzed with no assumptions about the expected structure. Each had only one factor capable of explaining over 10% of the total variance criterion used for determining the importance of a factor. Because of the small percentage of variance accounted for by the factors, a second analysis was done, setting the number of factors at 12 for the Real form and 14 for the Ideal form. Tables 3.15 and 3.16 present the results of

TABLE 3.13.--Real Factors Determined by an Eigen Value of 1.00

Factor	Eigen-Value	Percent of Variation	Cumulative Percent
1	19.61	27.6	27.6
2	5.74	8.1	35.7
3	2.68	3.8	39.5
4	2.56	3.6	43.1
5	2.40	3.4	46.5
6	1.97	2.8	49.2
7	1.81	2.5	51.8
8	1.65	2.3	54.1
9	1.59	2.2	56.3
10	1.44	2.0	58.4
11	1.39	2.0	60.3
12	1.30	1.8	62.2
13	1.20	1.7	63.9
14	1.15	1.6	65.5
15	1.10	1.6	67.5
16	1.06	1.5	68.5
17	1.02	1.4	70.0

TABLE 3.14.--Ideal Factors Determined by an Eigen Value of 1.00

Factor	Eigen-Value	Percent of Variation	Cumulative Percent
1	12.80	18.0	18.0
2	4.30	5.1	24.1
3	3.08	4.3	28.4
4	2.58	3.6	32.1
5	2.44	3.4	35.1
6	2.27	3.2	38.7
7	2.06	2.9	41.6
8	1.93	2.7	44.3
9	1.70	2.4	46.7
10	1.70	2.4	49.1
11	1.59	2.2	51.3
12	1.54	2.2	53.5
13	1.51	2.1	55.6
14	1.46	2.1	57.7
15	1.35	1.9	59.6
16	1.25	1.8	61.3
17	1.24	1.7	63.1
18	1.20	1.7	64.8
19	1.16	1.6	66.4
20	1.12	1.6	68.0
21	1.06	1.5	69.5
22	1.03	1.5	70.9

TABLE 3.15.--Real Factors Determined by a Varimax Rotation Setting of Twelve

Factor	Eigen-Value	Percent of Variation	Cumulative Percent
1	19.20	49.7	49.7
2	5.28	13.7	63.4
3	2.23	5.8	69.1
4	2.09	5.4	74.6
5	1.95	5.1	79.6
6	1.49	3.9	83.5
7	1.38	3.6	87.0
8	1.18	3.1	90.1
9	1.13	2.9	93.0
10	.97	2.5	95.5
11	.91	2.4	97.9
12	.82	2.1	100.0

TABLE 3.16.--Ideal Factors Determined by a Varimax Rotation Setting of Fourteen

Factor	Eigen-Value	Percent of Variation	Cumulative Percent
1	8.29	19.3	19.3
2	3.11	7.2	26.5
3	2.43	5.6	32.1
4	1.92	4.5	36.6
5	1.78	4.1	40.8
6	1.60	3.7	44.5
7	1.45	3.4	47.0
8	1.35	3.1	51.0
9	1.24	2.9	53.9
10	1.19	2.8	56.7
11	1.16	2.7	59.3
12	1.10	2.5	61.9
13	1.07	2.5	64.4
14	1.02	2.4	66.7

this analysis. Appendix D contains item content for the more homogeneous Real Form (see Table 3.12).

Again, each analysis produced only one factor capable of explaining more than 10% of the variance. Comparison of the items in Real factors and Ideal factors showed little relationship between the two forms (see Figure 3.1). The factors sharing the largest number of items in common was Real factor 3 and Ideal factor 1. Items shared by these factors could be labeled Positive Interest, including items such as:

39. He encouraged me to try new things.

63. I talked with him about my interests.

59. He talked things over with me when I got in trouble.

28. He was warm and snuggly.

15. When I was sad or afraid he was a good person to go to.

While there appeared to be adequate similarity between the items shared by Real 3 and Ideal 1, other items showed little consistent relationship between Real and Ideal factors. Therefore, it was concluded that the two forms were measuring different factors from each other.

Reliability analysis of each form of the PFS.--Based on the discrepancies between the factors of each form and the small amount of variance explained by each factor a homogeneity (reliability) analysis was computed for the Real form, Ideal form, and Discrepancy score. An identical analysis was conducted as that described on page 78 with this exception: instead of producing a coefficient of

REAL FORM

Factors	IDEAL FORM I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII	XIII	XIV	
1	1		2	1			1		1		2				(8)
2		2			1			1							(4)
3	9					1						2		2	(14)
4			1							1		1			(3)
5								2		1					(3)
6				3			1		1						(5)
7										2					(2)
8									1						(1)
9						1									(1)
10													1		(1)
11		1													(1)
	(10)	(3)	(3)	(4)	(1)	(2)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(4)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	

FIGURE 3.1.--Number of Mutual Items (Total Items) Between Factors--Comparison of Real and Ideal Reduced Factor Analyses

equivalence for proposed subscales, the coefficient was for each form. The same criteria for evaluation were used. Reliabilities for all three forms were good to excellent. The reliability for the Discrepancy score was the highest at .97. Ideal form reliability was the lowest, still within an evaluation of "good" at .82, while the Real form's reliability was .88 (Table 3.17). The size of the reliabilities suggested that variance found between subjects on these forms might be regarded as true variance. Therefore, it was determined that hypothesis testing around differences between groups (see Chapter IV) should be done with entire forms rather than with less reliable subtests.

TABLE 3.17.--Hoyt Reliability Coefficients for the Real, Ideal, and Discrepancy Forms of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale

Form	# Items	Reliability (n=159)
Real	71	.88
Ideal	71	.82
Discrepancy	71	.97

Phenomenological Parent Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS)

The marital relationship scale is a 40-item paper and pencil test. It contains 20 statements about the parents' behavior within the marital relationship. Each of these statements is responded to twice. The first response is the subject's perception of her

parents' behavior toward one another. The second response is how she would have liked her parents to have behaved. Responses are on a six-point scale ranging from Always (6) to Never (1). A discrepancy score is calculated for each item and for the total scale. Average test time was ten minutes (Scale in Appendix A, labelled as Experiences With and Attitudes Towards Both Parents).

Very little has been investigated beyond questions of happiness versus unhappiness of the parental marriage and its effect on fathering. What specifically a happy or unhappy marriage is, is rarely defined when the respondent is questioned about his/her parents' marital happiness. In this study, beyond being asked to evaluate her parents' happiness, the respondent was asked if her father and mother fought a lot or had similar interests and beliefs. These areas are covered by very few items in most tests (see Chapter II, Parental Marital Relationship, for a more thorough discussion of the problems in this type of research). As a result of the lack of specifics in the existing scales, concerning what constitutes a good marital relationship in the eyes of the child, a decision was made to use a discrepancy score for the basis of the evaluation rather than theory and/or research.

Items were devised by questioning the same group of women that were interviewed about their fathers and influenced by the literature on family and marital therapy (Satir, 1967; Haley & Hoffman, 1967). There was a similiar rationale and emphasis on content validity for this process of item generation as for the PFS. Consequently there are similar flaws. See the previous section on the PFS.

Reliability Analysis of the PPMRS.--A Homogeneity Reliability was performed for the items within the Ideal, Real, and Discrepancy of the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS). The highest reliability, .95, was for the Discrepancy scores . The Ideal Score's reliability followed the PFS's Ideal form in being the lowest at .61. In the fair to good range, the Real Score's reliability was .77 (see Table 3.18). Although the reliabilities were not as good as the PFS's, the reliabilities were high enough to suggest that a fair portion of the variance was due to true variance, and that the items in each score vary together. Thus, additional factor analytic work was ruled out. Table 3.18 contains reliability coefficients for the Discrepancy, Real, and Ideal Forms of the PPMRS. The Discrepancy Form items had good reliability.

TABLE 3.18.--Hoyt Reliability Coefficients for the Real, Ideal, and Discrepancy Forms of the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale

Form	# Items	Reliability (n=146)
Real	20	.77
Ideal	20	.61
Discrepancy	20	.95

Perception of Parental Death Scale (PPDS)

There are ten items in this pencil and paper test. The items consist of statements about the child's perception of incidents and relationships before and after the parents' death. As in the

previous tests, there is a six-point scale for responding, ranging from Always to Never. This scale's average time was five minutes. Items were devised to measure idealization and "presence" of the dead father during childhood and relationship with the surviving parent. These are factors that Hetherington (1971) and Leonard (1966) hypothesize as having a large influence on girls whose fathers have died, particularly in how they view men. Two items (62, 66) are taken from a scale devised by Virginia Wulf (1976). (Scale in Appendix A labelled as Experience with Death.) Beyond construct validity, originally this scale was planned for comparison with other scales in the study and hence to have concurrent validity. However, because of a small number of subjects with paternal death this idea had to be abandoned. Therefore issues around validity are still in question.

Reliability Analysis of the PPDS.--A Homogeneity Reliability was performed for the items of the Perception of Parental Death Scale. Reliability for the Death Scale was .50. After deleting two items, reliability was .76. An N of 22 was used to determine reliability. All 22 came from the original 181 described previously under subject selection.

Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS)

Average time for taking this scale is eight minutes. The RPDS is a 31-item paper and pencil test. Thirty-three subjects responded to statements asking about parental behavior before, during, and after the divorce and childhoos experiences with their

parents. The subjects responded to each item once, on a six-point scale from Never to Always. Ideas for the items were taken from the research on divorce mentioned in the literature review in Chapter II. Those factors in the literature which were shown to be indicative of further adjustment problems for the child were particularly emphasized in the development of the items. Special attention was given to a Philadelphia study by Tuckman (1966), which showed a higher incidence of mental health referrals for children whose parents continued to battle over custody, visitation, and support. (A copy of the RPDS labelled Experience with Divorce is in Appendix A.)

Reliability analysis and factor analysis of the RPDS.--A Homogeneity Reliability was performed for the items of the Recall of Parental Divorce Scale. Reliability for the Divorce scale, with one item deleted, was .64. A factor analysis was also performed to explore and detect the patterning of relationships between items within the scale. The number of factors rotated to varimax criteria was determined by the eigen value threshold set at 1.00. Three of the variability factors emerged that accounted for at least 10% of the variance. Reliabilities of items that made up the first factor, -.05, were indeterminate. Eigen values and percentages of variance for all factors are presented in Table 3.19. With one item deleted for Factor I, the reliability was .24 and poor. The second factor with one item deleted was .64 and the third factor with one item

deleted was .59. Because of the small percent of variability accounted for by the three factors, and the fair reliability, especially of the first factor, further use of these factors was abandoned and the scale was used as a whole. Questions composing these factors are in Appendix E.

TABLE 3.19.--Divorce Factors Determined by an Eigen Value of 1.00 (n=33)

Factor	Eigen Value	Percent of Variance	Cumulative Percent	Number of Items	Reliability
1	5.36	16.7	16.7	5	.24
2	4.75	14.9	31.6	3	.64
3	3.66	11.4	43.0	3	.59

Summary

Two hundred and three undergraduate women from four colleges and universities completed scales on their memories of their relationship with their father; perception of their parents' marital relationship; and, when applicable, memories associated with the loss of their father, either by divorce or by death. Data from subjects completing a minimum of 95% of the items were retained to test hypotheses about how women report their fathers, given different home situations. Home situations of interest in the hypotheses were those in which there had been no paternal loss, loss due to death,

and loss due to divorce. In the widows' and divorcees' homes, time of loss was of interest. Finally, the effect of the presence of an older brother on report of father was examined. One-way ANCOVAS were proposed for the analysis of the differences and/or similarities between the womens' reports of their father and their parents' marital relationship.

Hypotheses were offered about the possible relationships among the various tests. The development and rationale for retrospective parenting scales was reviewed. Tests used in this study were described. A correlational matrix was proposed for the analysis of the relationship between the scales.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

This chapter presents an analysis of the research data. Each hypothesis is restated and the relevant research data and result are discussed. The hypotheses are grouped by design; those hypotheses associated with the analysis of differences in women's perception of parental relationships will be presented first, followed by the hypotheses dealing with the relationship between instruments. Lastly, supplementary analyses of data related to the problem are given.

Causal-Comparative Hypotheses

Father-Family Effect (Tested by Multivariate Analysis)

Null hypothesis 1: No differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) -paternal form and the Phenomenological Scale (PFS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the Children's Reprots of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) -paternal form and the Phenomenological Scale (PFS).

Null hypothesis 2: No differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Null hypothesis 3: No differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Hypothesis 1. The overall multivariate test of the hypothesis of no differences between the three groups on Factor I indicated no significant differences ($F = 2.10$, $p \leq .219$). Null not rejected, alternative not supported.

Hypothesis 2. The overall multivariate test of the hypothesis of no differences between the three groups on Factor II indicated no significant differences ($F = 1.69$, $p \leq .07$). Null not rejected, alternative not supported.

Hypothesis 3. The overall multivariate test of the hypothesis of no differences between the three groups on Factor III indicated no significant differences ($F = 1.67$, $p \leq .09$). Null not rejected, alternative not supported.

Father-Family Effect (Tested by Analysis of Variance)

Null hypothesis 4: No differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found among women who have been raised in intact, widowed, and divorcees' homes on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Hypothesis 4. The father-family effect (tested by Analysis of Variance) test of the hypothesis of no differences between the three groups on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale indicated there was a significant difference ($F = 8.04$, $p \leq .0072$). Null was rejected. Alternative was accepted.

Further analysis of this difference between groups shows a mean similarity between the intact and death group in report of parental marital relationship, and a dissimilarity to the divorce group mean. See Table 4.1. Scores were derived by subtracting the Real rating per question (rating of one to six possible points) from the Ideal (also a rating from one to six possible points). Question discrepancy scores were added for a total scale discrepancy score. Therefore, the higher the mean for a group, the higher the dissatisfaction with how mother and father related during marriage.

TABLE 4.1.--Mean and Standard Deviation on the PPMRS of Three Groups

Family	Mean	Standard Deviation	(N)
Intact	12.46	9.46	25
Widowed-Home	13.38	15.39	20
Divorce	25.55	14.26	28

The differences between the women in means from intact homes, widows', and divorcees' homes is striking with the divorcee home group reporting on the average twice as much dissatisfaction with the way their parents related.

Older Brother Effect (Tested by Multivariate Analysis)

Null hypothesis 5: No differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the Childrens' Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) -paternal form and the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the Childrens' Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI)-paternal form and the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS).

Null hypothesis 6: No differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Null hypothesis 7: No differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Hypothesis 5. The overall multivariate test of the hypothesis of no differences on Factor I between two groups of women was not rejected ($F = .81$, $p \leq .61$), alternative not supported.

Hypothesis 6. The overall multivariate test of the hypothesis of no differences between the two groups of women on Factor II was not rejected ($F = .30$, $p \leq .93$), alternative not supported.

Hypothesis 7. The overall multivariate test of the hypothesis of differences between the two groups of women on Factor III indicated no differences ($F = 1.211$, $p \leq .31$), alternative not supported.

Older Brother Effect (Analysis of Variance)

Null hypothesis 8: No differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on the Perception of Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have been raised in homes with or without an older brother on the Perception of Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Hypothesis 8. The overall univariate test of the hypothesis of no differences between the groups of women on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale was not rejected ($F = .83$, $p \leq .36$), alternative not supported.

Time of Loss Effect (Tested by Multivariate Analyses of Variance)

Null hypothesis 9: No differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the CRPBI-paternal form and the PFS.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the CRPBI-paternal form and the PFS.

Null hypothesis 10: No differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Null hypothesis 11: No differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI-paternal form.

Hypothesis 9. The overall multivariate test of the hypothesis of no differences between two groups of women on Factor I was not rejected ($F = .74$, $p \leq .56$).

Hypothesis 10. The overall multivariate test of the hypothesis of differences between two groups ofwomen on Factor II indicated no differences ($F - 1.87$, $p \leq .11$).

Hypothesis 11. The overall multivariate test of the hypothesis of differences between two groups of women on Factor III indicated no differences ($F - .76$, $p \leq .58$).

Time of Loss Effect (Tested by Analysis of Variance)

Null hypothesis 12: No differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Alternative hypothesis: Differences will be found between women who have lost their father early or late on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS).

Hypothesis 12. The overall univariate test of the hypothesis of no differences between two groups of women on the Perception of Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS) was not rejected ($F = .79$, $p \leq .38$).

Summary of Causal-Comparative Hypotheses' Tests

A summary of detected group differences is presented in Table 4.2. Hypothesis four was rejected. Differences between groups were found on a measure of satisfaction with parents' marital relationships. Women from divorcees' homes reported almost twice as much discrepancy between their ideal marriage and the way their parents behaved toward each other. Trends in the hypotheses testing results for nonsignificant differences will be presented in the section Univariate Analyses of Multivariates Used in Testing Hypotheses later in this chapter.

Correlational Hypotheses

A Pearson's correlation was done between the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior, subscales one through eighteen; the Phenomenological Fathering Scale, Ideal, Real, and Discrepancy form; the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale, Discrepancy scale; the Recall of Parental Divorce Scale, Factors I through III; and the Perception of Parental Death Scale, eight and ten item forms. One hundred and eighty-one subjects' data described previously in this chapter were used.

A correlation represents the degree to which two variables vary together. A positive correlation indicates that as one variable increases, the other does likewise. A negative correlation indicates that as one variable's value increases, the other's decreases. The square of the correlation represents the true variance or the percent of variance that is accounted for by the relationship

TABLE 4.2.--Analysis of Co-Variance of Group Differences' Results

Hypothesis	F	p	Null Rejected
1	2.10	2.19	No
2	1.69	.07	No
3	1.67	.09	No
4	8.04	.0072	Yes
5	.81	.61	No
6	.30	.93	No
7	1.21	.31	No
8	.83	.36	No
9	.74	.56	No
10	1.87	.11	No
11	.76	.58	No
12	.79	.38	No

between the two factors. Thus, while a correlation of .6 may be considered significant, the relationship between the factors accounts for only 36% of the variance between them.

Thus, a correlation of 0 indicates that no relationship between the factors exists, a correlation of 0 to + or - .39 was labeled extremely poor; .4 to .59 + or - was considered weak or poor; .6 to .79 + or - was considered fair to good; and .8 to 1.0 + or - was considered good to excellent or strong.

The correlation matrix is in Appendix F. Item composition, title and factor placement of each of Schaffer's scales one through eighteen follows in Appendix C.

Hypotheses 13 through 15--Relationship Between the CRPBI, PPMRS, and PFS

Null hypothesis 13: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI)-paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS), and Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scales (PPMRS) for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI)-paternal form, Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS), and Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scales (PPMRS) for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 14: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the CRPBI-paternal form, PFS, and PPMRS for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the CRPBI-paternal form, PFS, and PPMRS for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 15: No relationships will be found between each of the scales Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI-paternal form, PFS, and the PPMRS.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI-paternal form, PFS, and the PPMRS.

Hypothesis 13. The results reported are by scales comprising Schaffer's Factor I. As reported in Table 4.3 the relationships between each of six variables of Factor I and the Real form of the PFS and Factor I are significant ($P \leq .001$) but fair to good. The alpha for significance was set at .008 or less by dividing .05 by 6 (the number of variables in the relevant factor, 6 in the case of Factor I). See previous discussion in Chapter III on the additive nature of alpha levels in the case of multiple tests. Acceptance, Positive Involvement, Acceptance of Individuation, and Hostile Detachment were more strongly correlated to the Real form of the PFS than were other Schaffer scales. These correlations were negative and moderate.

As reported in Table 4.4 the relationship between scales of Factor I and the Discrepancy form of the PFS are significant ($P \leq .001$) and fair to good. Schaffer's scales, Acceptance, Positive Involvement, Acceptance of Individuation, and Hostile Detachment were most strongly correlated to the Discrepancy form of the PFS. These correlations were good and positive, except for Acceptance which was moderate.

The relationship between scales of Factor I and the Ideal form of the PFS is very poor and not significant. See Appendix E.

TABLE 4.3.--Significant Relationships Between Each of the Scales of Schaffer's Factor I and the Real Form of the PFS

Schaffer's Scale	Correlation	Relationship
Schaffer 1 (Acceptance)	-.77*	Good
Schaffer 2 (Child Centeredness)	-.59*	Weak
Schaffer 4 (Rejection)	.52*	Weak
Schaffer 7 (Positive Involvement)	-.68*	Moderate
Schaffer 3 (Acceptance of Individuation)	-.66*	Moderate
Schaffer 16 (Hostile Detachment)	-.67*	Moderate

*Significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 4.4.--Significant Relationships Between each of the Scales of Schaffer's Factor I and the Discrepancy Form PFS

Schaffer's Scale	Correlation	Relationship
Schaffer 1 (Acceptance)	.77*	Moderate
Schaffer 2 (Child Centeredness)	.60*	Fair
Schaffer 4 (Rejection)	-.67*	Fair
Schaffer 7 (Positive Involvement)	.81*	Good
Schaffer 3 (Acceptance of Individuation)	.83*	Good
Schaffer 16 (Hostile Detachment)	-.69*	Good

*Significant at the .001 level.

In summary, the Real and Discrepancy forms of the PFS are related to the scales of Factor I of the CRPBI. The Discrepancy form of the PFS was most strongly and positively related, particularly to Positive Involvement and Acceptance of Individuation. The null is rejected for the relationship between the Real and Discrepancy forms of the PFS and the scales of CRPBI Factor I, and the alternative accepted.

Hypothesis 14. In Table 4.5 results are reported by scales comprising Scaffer's Factor II. Significance was determined by an alpha level of .01 or less (5 scales divided into .05). Four of the scales composing Factor II are significantly related to the Discrepancy form of the PFS. Control through Guilt is strongly negatively correlated to the PFS. The correlation between the scale measuring possessiveness and the Discrepancy form of the PFS is very weak. All other correlations between the scales comprising the CRPBI Factor II and the Discrepancy form of the PFS, the Ideal and Real form of the PFS and the PPMRS are insignificant and very poor to poor. No relationship exists between the whole Factor II and the PFS and the PPMRS. There is a negative relationship between Factor II's Control through Guilt, Control through Instilling Persistent Anxiety, Hostile Control, and the Discrepancy PFS. The null is rejected for parts of the relationship between the Discrepancy form of the PFS and Factor II. Relationships between the Ideal and Real PFS were insignificant and poor to very poor. The null is partially rejected, alternative partially accepted.

TABLE 4.5.--Relationships Between Schaffer's Factor II and the Discrepancy Form PFS

Schaffer's Scale	Correlation	Relationship
Schaffer 10 (Hostile Control	-.69*	moderate
Schaffer 9 (Control through Guilt)	-.83*	good
Schaffer 15 (Control through instilling persistent anxiety)	-.72*	moderate
Schaffer 11 (Inconsistent Discipline)	-.42**	weak
Schaffer 3 (Possessiveness)	.12	very weak

*Significant at the .001 level

**Significant at the .01 level

Hypothesis 15. In Table 4.6 the results are reported by scales comprising Schaffer's Factor III. An alpha level of .008 or less was considered significant (.05 divided by 6). There is a fair to weak significant relationship between two of the scales comprising Factor III and the Discrepancy form of the PFS. No relation between all of the scales and factor III exists; however, a weak relationship exists for some of the scales comprising Factor III. The null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 4.6.--Relationships between Schaffer's Factor III and the Discrepancy Form PFS

Schaffer's Scale	Correlation	Relationship
Schaffer 6 (Enforcement)	-.51**	weak
Schaffer 17 (Withdrawal of Relations)	-.62*	fair
Schaffer 18 (Extreme Autonomy)	-.59	fair
Schaffer 5 (Control)	-.42	weak
Schaffer 12 (Nonenforcement)	.25	very weak
Schaffer 14 (Lax Discipline)	.19	very weak

*Significant at the .001 level.

**Significant at the .01 level.

Hypotheses 16 through 18--Relationship Between the CRPBI, PFS, PPMRS, and the Perception of Parental Death Scale (PPDS)

Null hypothesis 16: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Perception of Parental Death Scale for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) of the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Perception of Parental Death Scale for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 17: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Perception of Parental Death Scale for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 18: No relationship will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Perception of Parental Death Scale PPDS) for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Perception of Parental Death Scale PPDS) for college-age women.

Hypothesis 16. The correlations between all the scales that make up Schaffer's Factor I, the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (CPFS), Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS) and the Perception of Parental Death Scale, eight and ten item versions, were extremely poor to poor and not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis 17. The correlation between all the scales that make up Schaffer's Factor II, the PFS, PPMRS, and the Perception of Parental Death Scale (PPDS) both the eight and ten item versions were extremely poor to poor and not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected, alternative not accepted.

Hypothesis 18. The correlation between all the scales that make up Schaffer's Factor III, the PFS, PPMRS, and the PPDS both eight and ten item versions were extremely poor to poor and not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected, the alternative not accepted.

Hypothesis 19 through 21--Relationship Between the CRPBI, PFS, PPMRS, and the Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS)

Null hypothesis 19: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior,

(CRPBI), paternal form, the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS), and the Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS) for college women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) on the Children's Reports of Parental Behavior, (CRPBI), paternal form, the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS), and the Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS) for college women.

Null hypothesis 20: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS), for college-age women.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS), for college-age women.

Null hypothesis 21: No relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and RPDS.

Alternative hypothesis: Relationships will be found between each of the scales of Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) on the CRPBI paternal form, PFS, PPMRS, and RPDS.

Hypothesis 19. The correlation between all the scales that compose Schaffer's Factor I, the PFS, PPMRS, and scales of the Recalled Parental Divorce Scale were extremely poor to poor and not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected, alternative not accepted.

Hypothesis 20. The correlation between all the scales that compose Schaffer's Factor II, the PFS, PPMRS, and scale of the RPDS were extremely poor to poor and not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected, alternative not accepted.

Hypothesis 21. The correlation between all the scales that compose Schaffer's Factor III, the PFS, PPMRS, and the scales of the RPDS were extremely poor to poor and not significant. The null hypothesis is not rejected, alternative not accepted.

Summary of Correlational Hypothesis Testing

A summary of scale relationships is presented in Table 4.7. There were no relationships between the death, divorce, or parental marital relationship scales. There was no relationship between the Ideal form of the PFS and any other scales. There were relationships between the Real form of the PFS and CRPBI-Factor II but to no other scales used in the study. The Discrepancy form of the PFS correlated to Factor I well and partially to Factors II and III of the CRPBI

Summary of Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis tests supported eighteen null hypotheses, failed to support one null hypothesis and partially failed to support three null hypotheses. Analysis of variance techniques were used to test differences between groups stated in null hypotheses one through twelve. One hypothesis, stating no difference between women from intact, widowed, and divorced homes on Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale was rejected. Women from divorced homes expressed much greater dissatisfaction with their parents' marital relationships.

A Pearson Correlational matrix was used to test the remaining null hypothesis, thirteen through twenty-one. These hypotheses

TABLE 4. 7.--Results of Correlational Examination of Scale Relationships

Hypothesis	Scales in Hypotheses	Correlation	Significant	Null Hypothesis
Ho 13	PPMRS to Factor I and PFS	Poor-Very Poor	No	
	Factor I to Real and Discrepancy PFS	Fair-Good	Yes	Partially
	Factor I to Ideal Form PFS	Poor-Very Poor	No	Rejected
Ho 14	PPMRS to Factor II and PFS	Poor-Very Poor	No	
	Factor II to Real and Discrepancy PFS	Fair to good	For some scales Yes	Partially Rejected
	Factor II to Real and Ideal Form PFS	Poor-Very Poor	No	
Ho 15	PPMRS to Factor III and PFS	Poor-Very Poor	No	
	Factor III to Discrepancy PFS	Weak-Fair	For some scales Yes	No
	Factor III to Real and Ideal PFS	Poor-Very Poor	No	
Ho 16	All in Hypothesis	Poor-Very Poor	No	No
Ho 17	All in Hypothesis	Poor-Very Poor	No	No
Ho 18	All in Hypothesis	Poor-Very Poor	No	No
Ho 19	All in Hypothesis	Poor-Very Poor	No	No
Ho 20	All in Hypothesis	Poor-Very Poor	No	No
Ho 21	All in Hypothesis	Poor-Very Poor	No	No

examined the relationships between the instruments. A null hypothesis stating no relationship between the scales comprising Factor I of the CRPBI, the PFS, and the PPMRS, found three good, one moderate, and two fair significant correlations between Schaffer's scales and the Discrepancy form of the PFS. Also, there were one good, three moderate, and three weak significant correlations between Schaffer's Factor I scales and the Real form of the PFS. The aspects of that hypothesis that involved the relationship between the Real and Discrepancy forms of the PFS to the Schaffer were rejected. No other aspects of the expected no relationships were rejected.

Additionally, two scales in Schaffer's Factor II correlated good to moderate with the Discrepancy form of the PFS. All other aspects of the hypothesis were not rejected.

Supplementary Analyses

The following analyses were done to further clarify data. These analyses were not part of the stated hypotheses tests but were relevant to the area of interest addressed in this study.

Multivariate Analysis of Differences Between Two Loss Groups

A multivariate analysis was done to determine if there were any differences between the ways in which the women from widowed homes and the women from divorcees' homes responded to Schaffer's scales, the Phenomenological Fathering Scale and the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale. The multivariate on all twenty factors indicated significant differences between the two groups when

all factors were considered together ($F = 2.08$, $p \leq .038$). With a more rigorous level of significance (.05 divided by 20, i.e., .0025), no univariates were significant. Given the significance of the multivariate done on all the scales, further analyses of variance were done to determine where differences might be across Schaffer's factors, the Phenomenological Fathering Scale, and the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale.

Factor I multivariate analysis results were not significant, no differences ($F - 1.83$, $p \leq .09$) between groups. Factor II multivariate analysis also indicated no differences, paralleling previous multivariates done to test hypotheses dealing with differences between three groups ($F = 1.88$, $p \leq .11$). Both do, however, suggest trends.

In contrast to similarity in outcome of the two group multivariates to the three group multivariates in finding no differences on Factor I and II, the multivariates comparing the two groups on report of Lax Control versus Firm Control, Factor III, a significant difference ($F = 3.34$, $p \leq .01$) was found.

Outcome of the univariate analysis of the scales composing Factor III are in Table 4.8.

Rigorous standards require that the level of significance be .01 (.05 divided by the number of univariates, 5). The women significantly differ on the scale measuring Extreme Autonomy. Responses to items on the Schaffer were scored 0 for like, 1 for somewhat like, and 2 for not like, thus the higher the score the least like, and

TABLE 4.8.--Univariate Analysis of Factor III Multivariate Test of Differences Between Two Groups

Variate	F	Significance of F ($p < .01$)
Schaffer 5 (Control)	4.53	.039
Schaffer 6 (Enforcement)	3.20	.080
Schaffer 12 (Nonenforcement)	6.35	.015
Schaffer 14 (Lax Discipline)	.82	.37
Schaffer 18 (Extreme Autonomy)	10.03	.003

the lower the score, the more like the particular factor is seen to be relevant to father. As seen in Table 4.9, the death group women reported significantly fewer paternal behaviors giving them Extreme Autonomy than the divorce group women.

TABLE 4.9.--Differences Between Women from Widowed and Divorcee Homes on Rating of Paternal Extreme Autonomy (Number of scale items is 8)

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	(N)
Death	11.85	4.00	20
Divorce	7.75	4.70	28

Scales not meeting the more rigorous standards of significance but of interest in pointing to trends are scales 12 ($p \leq .015$) and

5 ($p \leq .04$). As seen in Table 4.10, women from divorcee's homes report more, though not significant, paternal nonenforcement than those from widowed homes.

TABLE 4.10.--Differences Between Women from Widowed and Divorcee's Homes on Rating of Paternal Nonenforcement (Number of scale items is eight)

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	(N)
Death	12.9	3.39	20
Divorce	10.5	3.16	28

Women from widowed homes scored higher though not significantly on paternal control than those women from divorcee's homes. See Table 4.11.

TABLE 4.11.--Differences Between Women from Widowed and Divorcee's Homes on Rating of Paternal Control (Number of scale items is 8)

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	(N)
Death	8.8	2.67	20
Divorce	10.93	3.85	28

Finally, as in the results of the hypothesis testing, the two groups of women differed significantly from one another on the PPMRS ($F = 7.17$, $p \leq .007$). Referral to hypothesis 4 will explain the differences further.

Multivariate Analysis of Differences Between Two Groups, Loss and No Loss

A multivariate analysis was done to determine if there were any differences between the ways in which the women from fatherless homes (wodows' and divorcees' daughters combined) and the women from father present homes responded to Schaffer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior, the Phenomenological Fathering Scale, and the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale. The multivariate on all twenty factors indicated significant differences between the two groups when all factors were considered together ($F = 1.92$, $p < .03$). Again, with a more rigorous test, the significance level was .0025, and no univariates were significant. Further analysis of Schaffer's three factors, the Phenomenological Fathering Scale and the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale were done.

Schaffer's Factor I multivariate analysis results were not significant; no differences between groups ($F - 2.03$, $p \leq .16$). Factor II multivariate analysis also indicated no differences ($F - 1.33$, $p \leq .26$). Finally, Factor III also was insignificant, no differences ($F - .63$, $p \leq .67$). Differences between the two groups on the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale were significant ($F - 5.41$, $p \leq .02$). For further examination, refer to hypothesis 4 results, cited previously.

Univariate Analyses of Multivariates Used for Testing Hypotheses

Although only one null hypothesis examining differences between groups was not rejected, trends within the univariate of

analyses are of interest. In particular, scales comprising Schaffer's Factor II (Psychological Control versus Autonomy) and Factor III (Lax versus Firm Control) are suggestive of trends in differences in perception of father between women from divorcee's homes, widowed, and intact homes. The univariates for both factors, used to test hypotheses 2 and 3 are presented in Tables 4.12 and 4.13.

TABLE 4.12.--Univariate Tests for Family-Father Effect Differences Between Three Groups on the CRPBI Factor II

Variate	F	Significance of F
Scale 3 (Possessiveness)	3.45	.037
Scale 8 (Intrusiveness)	2.80	.067
Scale 9 (Control through Guilt)	.33	.721
Scale 10 (Hostile Control)	.96	.386
Scale 11 (Inconsistent Discipline)	.92	.404
Scale 15 (Instilling Persistent Anxiety)	.36	.696

TABLE 4.13.--Univariate Test for Family-Father Effect Differences Between Three Groups on the CRPBI Factor III

Variate	F	Significance of F
Scale 5 (Control)	2.82	.067
Scale 6 (Enforcement)	1.71	.189
Scale 12 (Nonenforcement)	2.93	.059
Scale 14 (Lax Discipline)	.49	.612
Scale 18 (Extreme Autonomy)	5.32	.007

The following three are of special interest--18 because of its significance under rigorous standards and 3 and 12 giving their significance under less rigorous criteria.

Schaffer 3 (Possessiveness).--There is a trend for women whose fathers left because of divorce to rate their fathers as less possessive than the similarly responding intact and death group ($F = 3.45$, $p \leq .037$). See Table 4.14. The biggest difference again was between the widows' and divorcees' daughters.

Schaffer 18 (Extreme Autonomy).--There is a trend for women who have lost their fathers by death to report that their fathers were less granting and encouraging of autonomy than the intact and divorce group ($F = 5.33$, $p \leq .007$). See Table 4.15. While the intact group and the divorce group have more similar means and distributions than the death and divorce groups, the divorce group is

TABLE 4.14.--Differences Between Three Groups' Means on Schaffer's Scale 3 (Possessiveness)

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	(N)
Intact	9.84	3.42	25
Death	9.20	2.31	20
Divorce	11.39	3.07	28
Whole Sample	10.26	3.12	73

TABLE 4.15.--Differences Between Three Groups' Means on Schaffer's CRPBI Factor III Scale 18 (Extreme Autonomy)

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	(N)
Intact	9.28	4.06	25
Death	11.85	4.00	20
Divorce	7.75	4.70	28
Whole Sample	9.40	4.55	73

significantly more likely to agree that father allowed them autonomy compared to the whole sample.

Schaffer 12 (Nonenforcement).--There is a trend for the divorce group to indicate that their fathers were more nonenforcing than women from widowed and intact homes ($F = 2.94$, $p \leq .059$). See Table 4.16. Again, the biggest difference was between the widows' and divorcees' daughters.

TABLE 4.16. Differences Between Three Groups' Means on Schaffer's Scale 12 (Nonenforcement)

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	95% Confidence Interval	N
Intact	11.24	3.69	9.72 - 12.76	25
Death	12.90	3.39	11.32 - 14.48	20
Divorce	10.50	3.16	9.27 - 11.72	28
Whole Sample	11.41	3.5	10.60 - 12.23	73

Schaffer 5 (Control, $F = 2.82$, $p < .07$), Schaffer 2 (Child - Centeredness, $F = 2.76$, $p < .07$), Schaffer 17 (Withdrawal of Relations, $F = 2.45$, $p < .09$).--There is a trend found in examination of the means for scales for divorcees' daughters to report their fathers less controlling than intact and widowed home women. See Tables 4.12 and 4.13. Widowed home women indicated a slightly more controlling father than intact home women.

Fathers with a high degree of child centeredness were indicated most by women whose fathers had died, the least by those women who had lost their father by divorce when comparison of the means was made. Intact home women tended to fall in between these scores with more overlap with the divorce groups.

Comparisons of the means found Withdrawal of Relations as a form of control was rated as more likely to be used by fathers of women from intact homes, and not as likely from women from widowed or divorcee's homes.

Univariate of Interest in Examining Difference in Time of Loss

Although the multivariates examining time of loss were not significant, one univariate, given the rigorous test of significance, suggests a trend of interest. See Tables 4.17. The Discrepancy Score of the Phenomenological Father Scale suggests some differences, though not significant ($F - 3.91$, $p \leq .055$) with women who had experienced an early loss reporting more satisfaction with their fathers. See Table 4.18.

No univariates connected with hypotheses about the impact of the absence or presence of an older brother suggested any difference.

Supplementary Analysis: Summary

The multivariate analysis of differences between two groups of women differing on cause of paternal loss paralleled with one

TABLE 4.17.--Univariate Tests for Time of Loss Effect Difference Between Two Groups on the Discrepancy Score of the PFS and CRPBI Factor I

Variate	F	Significance of F
Scale 1	.58	.451
Scale 2	.002	.966
Scale 4	.59	.446
Scale 7	.51	.478
Scale 13	1.57	.220
Scale 16	.06	.810
Scale 17	2.13	.15
Discrepancy PFS	3.19	.055

TABLE 4.18.--Differences Between Women with Early and Late Paternal Loss on the Discrepancy Score of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	(N)
Late (Loss between 7 and 11)	71.98	47.76	22
Early (Loss between 4 and 7)	45.22	35.15	18

exception the findings of multivariates analysis of the three groups discussed previously in hypothesis testing. Although multivariate hypothesis testing results examining differences on Factor III, Lax versus Firm Control, were not sufficient when done on three groups, with the intact group eliminated, differences were significant. In particular, univariate analysis showed the scale Extreme Autonomy to be highly significant in pointing up differences between the widowed and divorcee's home daughters. Divorcee's daughters reported their fathers granting extreme autonomy significantly more than their widows' daughters' counterparts. Additionally, trends, though not significant due to rigorous standards for determining significance, suggest daughters from divorcee's homes report their fathers more nonenforcing, and less controlling, possessive, and enforcing than daughters from widowed homes.

Multivariate tests performed for hypothesis testing that were not significant provided univariates that suggested trends. In particular, women whose fathers had died indicated that their fathers were less encouraging of extreme autonomy. While the intact and divorcee's home daughters were similar in portraying father as more extreme autonomy granting, the divorcees' daughters' fathers were reported as more so. Women with paternal loss again demonstrate the most difference when reporting paternal nonenforcement. Divorcee's home women tend to indicate father was more nonenforcing than the widow's daughters, while intact home daughters portray father in the middle. Paternal control and child centeredness were similarly

divided, with intact women reporting their father's behavior in between the reports of the women with paternal loss. Women from widowed homes perceive their fathers as more child centered and controlling than women from divorcee's homes. In contrast, the trend in withdrawal of relations is that women with paternal loss report much less of this tactic than intact home women. The Discrepancy Score of the Phenomenological Fathering Score suggests a trend for women with an early loss to score much lower, i.e., that their fathers were closer to their ideal father concept, than those with a later paternal loss.

Summary

Multivariate tests were performed to test differences between women. Independent factors hypothesized about and tested were intactness (three groups of women), those from father present, widowed, and divorcee's homes; presence of an older brother (two groups), those with an older brother and those without; and time of loss (two groups), those whose fathers were lost early (ages 4 through 7) and late (ages 7 through 11). Group differences were tested on the following dependent variables: Schaffer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), paternal form, each of the eighteen scales comprising three factors derived from a factor analysis: the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS), Discrepancy Score; the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale; discrepancy Score, Perception of Parental Death Scale (PPDS); and Recall of Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS).

Each comparison was tested by multivariate test at the .05 alpha level. Alpha level for the univariates was determined by the number of scales making up the factor of interest. There were no significant differences between the groups on the dependent variables except in how women from intact, divorcee's and widowed homes responded to the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale. While women from intact and widowed homes responded similarly, women from divorced homes scored dramatically higher, reporting much more dissimilarity between their view of an ideal marriage and their parents

A Pearson Correlational matrix was used to examine the relationship of the dependent variables. One hypothesis stating no relationship between Factor I of Schaffer's CRPBI and the PFS, and the PPMRS was partially rejected. All six of the scales composing Factor I were significantly correlated to the iscrepancy form of the PFS, three were good, one moderate, and two fair. Real form correlations with Factor I paralleled though less strongly.

Supplementary analysis of differences between women whose fathers died and those whose fathers divorced found significant differences on the PPMRS and Factor III (Lax versus Firm Control). Women from divorcee's homes indicated more lax paternal control while women from widowed homes indicated more firm control. Trends in the univariate analysis agreed that the divorced fathers were more autonomy granting and less child centered than the fathers of intact and widowed homes. In their report of paternal use of withdrawal of relations as a method of control, there was a trend for the loss group to similarly indicate less paternal use of such a

method than girls from intact homes. This is the one incidence in the study where the loss groups appeared more similar to each other in contrast to the intact home group.

The hypothesis testing supported seventeen null hypotheses and failed to support one. Two hypotheses were partially supported.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The Problem

An increasing rate of divorce in this country has given rise to a growing concern about the effects of father absence on child development. Numerous studies have been done with conflicting results about the possible adverse effects of paternal absence on the developing child. A large problem in the literature is the failure to consider the type of father lost. Often there is a confounding effect of the single mother with father absence. Additionally, little research has addressed the importance of the father-daughter relationship. A few recent studies examining the father-daughter relationship suggest that the father has a significant impact on his daughter even in absentia. No research on retrospective reports of father has been published comparing and contrasting women from intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes. Finally, little has been done to extensively examine childrens' reports of parental marital relationship and its relationship to recall of fathering practice.

Design and Method

The purpose of this investigation was to compare young women's reports of their fathers on a number of dimensions, and to

see how this sense of their father is affected by the loss of father, manner of loss, the woman's age at time of loss, presence of an older brother, and perception of the parental marital relationship.

Dependent variables used in this study were created to assess differences in sense of father, parents' marital relationship, relationship with the dead parent and events occurring around the divorce. Additionally, the dependent variables were measured by the eighteen scales of Schaffer's Childrens' Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI). A factor analysis on the Schaffer scales was done. Three factors with eigen values greater than one emerged and were similar to previous analyses. These factors were very similar to Schaffer's and, therefore, given labels Schaffer had already devised. Hoyt reliability coefficients for the measures used and created were: Schaffer's Children's Reports of Parents Behavior Inventory (CRPBI), scales comprising Factor I ranging from .93 to .84, Factor II .85 to .84, and Factor III .80 to .72; Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS); Real Form .88, Ideal Form .82 and Discrepancy Form .97; Perception of Parental Marital Relationship Scale (PPMRS), Real Form .77, Ideal Form .61, and Discrepancy Form .95; Perception of Parental Death Scale, eight-item version .76; Recalled Parental Divorce Scale .64, Factor I .59, Factor II .45, and Factor III .43.

Results

Analyses of variance, multiple univariates, with comparisons between women on a number of independent factors, and a Pearson Correlational Matrix, with examination of the relationship among

the dependent variables were the statistical models used to analyze the data and test the hypotheses. Supplementary analyses were performed to explore multivariate effects and other possible group differences.

The analyses of variance supported eleven out of twelve null hypotheses. No differences were found between women on all but one independent (intactness of home) and one dependent variable (PPMRS). Women from intact, widowed, and divorcee's homes report different perceptions of their parent's marital relationship, the most significant difference being that widowed home females see their parent's relationship as much closer to an ideal relationship than do women from divorcee's homes.

The Correlational Matrix supported six of the null hypotheses (13 through 21). That is, no relationship was found between tests, except for two. There were weak to good significant correlations between the scales of Schaffers' Factor I and the Real and Discrepancy Forms of the Phenomenological Fathering scale. Also, there were weak to good significant relations between some of the scales comprising Factor II and the Discrepancy Form of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale.

Further, supplementary multivariate analyses demonstrated no differences between women whose fathers had died and those whose fathers had divorced on Schaffer's Factors I and Factor II. However, there was a significant difference in the report of father on Factor III (Lax versus Firm Discipline). On the scale measuring Extreme

Autonomy, divorcees' daughters perceived their fathers as granting them more than widows' daughters. Trends, though not significant, suggested by univariate analyses of this multivariate suggest divorcees' daughters report father as being more lax in his control than do widows' daughters. Differences similar to those found previously occurred around perception of parental marital relationship.

Another supplementary multivariate was done to compare loss with no loss women. No significant differences were found between the women except similar differences found previously around the issue of perception of parental relationship.

Finally, trends suggested in univariates, though not significant, were reported. There seemed to be a general trend for women from divorcee's homes to see their fathers as more separate from them and less controlling especially in contrast to the reports of women from widowed homes. Women from intact homes saw their father as almost as involved as women from widowed homes. Women from intact homes usually scored either in between the extremes represented by the loss groups' paternal evaluation or closer to the widowed home women, except on the scale measuring autonomy. In that instance they were close to divorcees' daughters.

No differences were found between early and late paternal loss groups, although there was a trend for early loss women to report a more idealized perception of their father than late loss women.

Limitations

Three major areas of limitation were considered relevant to understanding this research. These limitations concern the characteristics of the subjects, design, and the nature of the measures.

Subjects

Since it was not possible to gather a large enough loss group by collecting data from the general college population samples, 75% of the women comprising the loss group were found by the Michigan State University newspaper's classified advertisement section. These were the only women to be paid or solicited in this fashion. Also, these women were primarily from Michigan State University in contrast to the other no loss group of women coming primarily from Illinois State University. These factors suggest possible subject differences other than simple father loss and the effects of loss. It may well be that paid Michigan State subjects gathered from a newspaper and volunteer, or college credit subjects from Illinois State University, Central Michigan University and Suny College at Brockport would respond differently to a lengthy, somewhat repetitive questionnaire regardless of loss.

Secondly, the selection of women from the four universities and the means by which they were recruited was not random and cannot be generalized to women in the four universities, or university women or women in the general population. A cautionary note must also be added that all the women were Caucasion, had not had intensive psychotherapy, were 18 to 22 and had had a father in the home until age 4.

By applying the Cornfield-Tukey (1956) bridge arguments concerning the similarity of the study sample and general population, the reader may generalize these findings to other populations with similar characteristics.

Thirdly, differences between the three groups in perception of parents' marriages may be partially due to the differences in socio-economic levels indicated in Chapter III. Given the higher education level of the divorced mothers, there could be an increase in sophistication contributing to the de-idealization of parental marital relationship. There is evidence (Hess & Torney, 1962; Kohn & Caroll, 1960) in the literature that as socio-economic level lowers, parental sex role expectations become more stereotyped and rigid. Additionally, discipline practices change from talk and withdrawal of love to physical punishment. However, socio-economic differences are not that great; all subjects in the sample were in college.

Lastly, the small number of loss subjects may have contributed to imprecision and a decrease in the power of the analysis of variance to show significant differences. This possibility is particularly likely given the trends, especially among the univariates. Also, the more rigorous standards of significance given the large number of univariates in conjunction with the small number in each group suggests insufficient power. Discussion of the effects of too small a sample size will be addressed further in the next section.

Design and Methodology

Some limitations are inherent in correlational research and causal-comparative research. While the correlational approach to the

instruments permitted the measurement of several variables and their interrelationships simultaneously and got at the degrees of the relationship between the scales, there were several limitations. The most important limitation was the inability to prove causation; that although as one measure changes, another changes, it is impossible to assess if or how the factors measured have caused one of the other. Also, even in the strongest correlations, there was some variance unexplained by the relationship between variables.

The limitations surrounding the use of causal-comparative research include the same inability to study cause and effect relations directly and the importance, therefore, of caution in interpreting causation. Limitations connected to this type of research are the following (Issac & Michael, 1971):

> (1) Within the limits of selection, facts must be taken where they are found, there are no opportunities to arrange conditions or manipulate variables that influenced facts in the first place.

The occurrence of death and divorce in these women's lives was not random; initial factors leading to these occurrences could not be controlled; other explanations can account for the results obtained.

> (2) There is difficulty in being certain that the relevant factor is actually being included among factors included in the study.

Thus, information about the availability and closeness of other male figures in the different loss groups' homes, the amount of change in standard of living with the paternal loss, change in maternal role following the loss and other factors not included also could account for group differences.

(3) Complication in understanding results due to no single factor being causative in the outcome but rather some combination and interaction of factors that go together under certain conditions.

In other words, a number of factors may account for the differences between the women, such as parental educational and occupational level, presence of an older brother, time of loss, and those possibilities not accounted for in this design and suggested in Number 2. All could possibly interact differently under varying conditions.

(4) A phenomenon may result from one cause in one condition, and another cause in another condition.

Women with paternal loss where their mother was happy in her occupation, and the family income did not drop suddenly, may have very different paternal perceptions than similar women with mothers who have been forced to return to work at a job they disliked, etc.

(5) When a relationship between two variables is discovered determining cause and effect is difficult.

In contrasting the differences in perception of paternal behavior, it is difficult to know in the case of the divorcees' daughters whether the perception of father as more distant, and more irregular in his discipline was caused by the divorce situation, the lessening of exposure to him or a part of his interpersonal style responsible for the parental divorce. The untangling of the cause and effect knot is more complicated when examining the differences in mother and father economic and educational level across groups and how these differences may have caused or been the effect of differences in reporting father behavior and parental marital relationship.

> (6) Classifying subjects into mutually exclusive groups [like Intact, Death, and Divorce] is fraught with problems since such a classification may be variable and transitory. Such investigations may not yield useful findings about other groups [like earlier loss, step parent homes, etc.].

In an attempt to avoid confounding variables, the researcher decided to look at differences between mutually exclusive groups. Cases of remarriage, divorce, and subsequent death of father, older and younger age of loss women are not included, and could be examined in future modified studies.

> (7) Comparative studies in natural situations do not permit the random selection of subjects to different situations, making it difficult to have groups who are similar in all respects except their exposure to one variable.

This is a flaw examined previously, that more than the simple factor of father presence, death, or divorce accounts for differences, but that previous situations leading to loss and preceding loss which cannot be controlled might account for differences.

Measures

The dependent variables in this investigation also had specific limitations. The scales were designed to measure perception of parental behaviors in retrospect. Differences in the way the groups responded may not necessarily reflect the way parents actually behaved. In fact, research has shown that when parents and children take retrospective parenting scales, they differ widely in what they report (see Chapter II).

Additionally, the scales may not reflect differences in memory or perception, but different ideas in what an ideal father is or personality differences in needs to be evaluation as socially

acceptable, i.e., having a good father. Therefore, there are validity issues. These issues are modified by the fact that researchers cited previously have found group differences in responding to retrospective parenting scales, especially Schaffer, suggesting some concurrent validity in those instances. Additionally, Wiess, Wallerstein, and Hetherington's (1978 Symposium on Children of Divorce) research on the relationship of the visiting father based on interviews and observation of children and their noncustodial parent suggests that such a parent assumes a much less involved role. This research reflects the results of this study, suggesting that the scales may be measuring at least partially what they say they are measuring.

The lack of shared items between the Ideal form and Real forms factors that were evolved from factor analyses suggests that the Ideal form may have been measuring a construct very different from the other forms of the PFS and the CRPBI.

Issues involving reliability are relevant to some of the scales. While the reliability of the Discrepancy form of the PFS was good and the scale demonstrated an ability to discriminate differences, the other forms, particularly the Ideal form of the PFS may have been unable to discriminate because of their poorer reliability.

The limitations of this study include possible threats to validity and reliability as well as possible problems connected to subjects and design. These limitations have resulted in lowered power

and precision, causing some of the multivariates' and univariates' inability to reach statistical significance.

Discussion of the Results

Group Differences

The results indicated that there were differences between the three groups on the PPMRS. While women from intact and widowed homes tended to respond similarly, women from divorcees' homes had much higher discrepancy scores between how they saw their parents relating and what they felt was an ideal way for parents to relate. Although the intact and widowed homes' daughters responded similarly, there was a tendency for widows' daughters to report their parents' relationship as being closest to their ideal, to have the lowest discrepancy score.

These results are in contrast to a study by Landis (1960) who found a majority of high school students of divorced parents indicated that they thought their parents had been happily married, and wished for a reconciliation. Interestingly, there were no differences detected between the three groups on the PFS, suggesting that while the groups differed in approving perception of parental marital relationship, it did not follow that these differences were reflected in approving perception of father. This runs contrary to the notion presented in the literature cited in Chapter II, that a satisfactory or unsatisfactory marital relationship would be paralleled in the quality of the parenting relationship.

The lack of parallel between attitude toward parents' marriage and father in the results lends credence to results presented by Marvis Hetherington and Judith Wallerstein at the Wheelock College 1978 Symposium on Children of Divorce. Both researchers found that the custodial parent-child relationship over time after divorce did not often reflect the relationship preceding. Thus, the researchers found instances where pre-divorce high quality father-child relationships were replaced by poor and often non-existent post-divorce relationships, and vice versa. Also relevant, they found that often the parenting relationship had nothing to do with the spouse relationship. Frequently, they found situations where the parents related in very negative, destructive ways with each other, but in close encouraging, loving ways with their children.

The results indicated that no differences were detected between a number of groups on the PPMRS, PFS, and CRPBI. Thus, the results supported the hypotheses of no differences between older brother/no older brother, and no differences between early loss/no loss groups. An additional comparison with closeness and importance of older brother may have produced an effect.

However, hypothesis testing concerning differences between groups did suggest a trend, although not significant, for differences between groups on Schaffer's Factor II (Psychological Control versus Psychological Autonomy) and Factor III (Firm versus Lax Control) of the CRPBI. In particular, each factor had a univariate that pointed toward a difference, and in the case of a univariate of Factor III, a significant difference. There was a trend for

divorcees to report their fathers as less possessive than intact homes' and widows' daughters (a scale of Factor III). Also, there was a significantly higher report of Extreme Autonomy granting behavior attributed to father by divorcees' daughters than by widows' daughters. These results suggest that widows' daughters may have a memory that their fathers were more protective and involved than the way the divorcees' daughters perceived their living, separate fathers. The former's report may in fact be a wish for the return for the permanently lost father, in an exaggerated, idealized form (Tessman, 1978), and is reminiscent of Wallerstein's (1978) findings of an image of the lost parent as being very involved in contrast to an opposite reality. These results are also similar to case studies of children whose fathers had died during World War II, cited in Chapter II, in which children described their fathers as more giving and available then they had been while alive. More simply, the less autonomy granting and more possessiveness reported by widows' daughters may reflect age appropriate fathering at the time of his death. In contrast, those women whose fathers remained alive may have continued to be increasingly autonomy granting and less possessive as his daughter matured. Either explanation might plausibly explain the trend for early loss women to report a more ideal father than later loss women.

Finally, supplementary analysis between the widows' and divorcees' daughters groups shows a significant difference on Factor III (Lax Control versus Firm Control) of the CRPBI. Women with divorced fathers reported him as significantly more granting

of extreme autonomy than did daughters with deceased fathers. There also was a nonsignificant trend for widows' daughters to report their fathers as more enforcing and controlling. Again, it would appear that young women with deceased fathers may report him as more involved, perhaps intrusively so, in contrast to the women with divorced fathers who may appear almost neglectfully uninvolved in limit setting and protectiveness. This latter perception could in part be the outcome of the limited contact and noncustodial aspect of the divorced father's relationship with his daughter (Hetherington, 1978).

Scale Relationships

The results indicated that there were limited significant relationships between some of the scales. No significant relationships existed between the CRPBI, and Ideal factor of the PFS, PPMRS, RPDS, and the PPDS. Neither was there a relationship between the Discrepancy and Real forms of the PFS, PPMRS, RPDS, and the PPDS. There were, however, limited relationships between the Discrepancy and Real forms of the PFS and the scales of the CRPBI. The Discrepancy form of the PFS correlated to scales of Factor I (Acceptance versus Rejection) well and partially fair to good to factors of Factors II (Psychological Autonomy versus Psychological Control) and III (Firm versus Lax Control) of the CRPBI.

Implications for Future Research

A number of implications can be drawn from this research. First, it is clear that young women who have experienced paternal

loss by death have a different image of their father and parents' marriage than do the daughters of divorced fathers. A number of changes in the methods and design could add to future studies' ability to detect differences. One factor to be considered is an increase in the number of subjects. Although subjects with paternal loss were difficult to locate, particularly those with deceased fathers, a larger number of subjects for each group, motivated in a more similar manner to reduce alternative explanations for differences, would add power necessary to detect differences. Additionally, a decrease in the number of dependent variables, selected according to those scales that suggested trends, would increase the ability of the tests to detect differences. The elimination of those scales that could not significantly demonstrate differences would lower the standards for determining the significance of a univariate to a less severely rigorous standard. It would appear that the PFS is not in its present form capable of discriminating differences, except for time of loss effects, and is correlated enough with parts of the CRPBI that it would be inefficient to use.

The above suggestions are relevant to the investigation of differences due to time of loss. An increase in the number of subjects would also allow an investigation of the effect of time across the effect of cause of loss. It may be possible that young women whose fathers have died while they were very young differ from those daughters with late loss in their reports of paternal behavior and parents' marriage, and that one group of these women may be more similar to a late or early divorce group, etc.

It is also possible that the use of a factor anlaysis of the discrepancy form of the PFS would have produced factors that paralleled those produced by the factor analysis of the Real form, in contrast to the lack of parallel between the Ideal and Real forms. Use of scales produced by such a factor analysis might have given the PFS the ability to detect differences, and possibly have added some dimensions to the spectrum of parental behaviors measured by the CRPBI.

Additionally, continued analysis of the Recalled Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS), forcing the number of factors into a smaller number, might produce a scale that would produce reliable and valid results. Differences in responding among women could be compared with their responses to the CRPBI and the PPMRS. Effects of time of loss could also be examined with a refined version of the scale.

Finally, a more detailed analysis of differences between groups on individual items could provide interesting results, using selected items that are especially sensitive, and could aid in picking up group differences.

Such instrument and method refinements could add to the investigation of how the phenomenological sense of father and parents' marital relationship translate to behavior. Are there women within each group that respond very differently than their peers to situations, and if so, what is their report of their fathers and parents' marital relationship? In other words, in the striking results of Mavis Hetherington's study cited in Chapter II, there were 15% of each group who did not fit the pattern of relating to the male

interviewer. How were these women different in perception of their fathers and parents' marital relationship?

Finally, some suggestions for future research come from the desire of the women who experienced paternal loss to communicate before or after taking the questionnaire. A large proportion of women answering the advertismeent were emotional, expressing continued sadness at the loss of their father, eagerness in knowing if the researcher had gotten any other responses, whether there were others who had experienced loss and had these others talked with me and if so, what these other women had shared, etc. Women who were not eligible because the time of loss was either too early or too late, but especially those with early loss, were interested in taking the scale anyway, without pay. There were a number of women whose fathers had died at very early ages who adamantly communicated that although their father had died when they were 2, they vividly remembered him. Clearly, there seemed to be some needs to try to resolve their losses. The possibility of more in-depth interviews of such women or the formation of a group of women with similar losses could be enlightening for potential areas of research and of possible psychological benefit to such women. Additionally, a number of women who called and were not used had experience first of a parental divorce and then, in a period of a few years, a paternal death. It was assumed that not enough of these women could be gathered, but at the end of data collection, it was evident that enough had responded that a separate group could have been formed.

Some of the comments that were written to the researcher are in Appendix F and demonstrate both the need to communicate and protect paternal image.

The area of study concerned with the later impact of childhood paternal loss on women's feelings and memories would appear to be important and fertile ground for continued investigation. Questions arise from this study about how such perceptions of father might change as these women mature. More relevant practically are issues about how these perceptions affect daily living and how this information might be of use when working with children and families of parting parents.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TEST PACKET MATERIALS

Dear Woman,

I would like to stress a few points before you begin filling out the questionnaire. I would like to emphasize the importance of these points in insuring that after your time and effort your responses are not thrown out because they are unusable.

- The questionnaire is in two parts. Each part has separate answer sheets tucked in it. Do not use the wrong sheet for the wrong part. You will not use all of the answer sheets fully.

- BE SURE AND ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS. Each question on "Experiences With and Attitudes Toward Fathers" requires two responses about your father and your parents' marital relationship. One response will be as you saw them as a child and a second response concerns how you would have liked them to have been.

- The "Experiences With and Attitudes Toward Fathers" has questions concerning your family backgroud. Your answers go into the blocks designated for your last and first name on the sheet.

- When you are finished please send it back immediately. If you decide not to fill it out, send it back quickly so that someone else may use it.

- You must be between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two.

- Your father must have been in the home until you were at least four years old. After four if there was a paternal loss, your response will be as useful as those of women who did not lose their father.

- If you have had long term psychotherapy please do not take this questionnaire.

- If you have comments write them at the top of the answer sheet.

Finally I would like to say that so little is known about the father-daughter relationship that there are no right or good answers. Therefore, please be as honest as you can be when filling this out. Thank you very much!

Susan Darlington
655-2060

EXPERIENCES WITH AND ATTITUDES TOWARD FATHERS

Before beginning this scale, please give us the following information about yourself. First please fill in your social security number, your birthdate and sex on your first answer sheet.

In the boxes on the answer sheet that are provided for filling in your name, please fill it out according to the following questions.

First column of "your last name" (pink).

Race:

(A) Caucasian
(B) Afro-American
(C) American Indian
(D) Oriental
(E) Spanish surname
(F) Other

Second column (white).

Father's completed level of education:

(A) Under sixth grade
(B) Under ninth grade
(C) Under twelfth grade
(D) Completed high school
(E) 1 year college or trade school
(F) 2 years college or trade school
(G) 3 years college
(H) 4 years college
(I) 1 year graduate work
(J) 2 years graduate work
(K) Master's degree, plus
(L) Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D.

Third column (pink).

Mother's completed level of education:

(A) Under sixth grade
(B) Under ninth grade
(C) Under twelfth grade
(D) Completed high school
(E) 1 year college or trade school
(F) 2 years college or trade school
(G) 3 years college
(H) 4 years college
(I) 1 year graduate work
(J) 2 years graduate work
(K) Master's degree, plus
(L) Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D.

Fourth column (white).

Father's occupation:

(A) Professional and independent managerial
(B) Semi-professional, small business and semi-independent managerial: proprietor, manager, official
(C) Skilled worker and foreman
(D) Semi-skilled
(E) Unskilled
(F) Other

Fifth column (pink).

Mother's occupation:

(A) Professional and independent managerial
(B) Semi-professional, small business and semi-independent managerial: proprietor, manager, official
(C) Skilled worker and forewoman or superviser
(D) Semi-skilled
(E) Unskilled
(F) Other

Sixth column (white).

How many older brothers?

(A) Zero
(B) 1
(C) 2
(D) 3
(E) 4
(F) 5 or over

Seventh column (pink).

How many older sisters?

(A) Zero
(B) 1
(C) 2
(D) 3
(E) 4
(F) 5 or over

Eighth column (white).

The oldest child in my family was:

(A) Myself (B) Male (C) Female

Ninth column (pink).

If you had an older brother, how much older was he?

(A) 1 year
(B) 2 years
(C) 3 years
(D) 4 years
(E) 5 years
(F) 6 to 10
(G) over 10

Please fill in the boxes labeled "your first name" in response to these final questions.

First column (white).

Were you raised by both parents through your entire childhood and adolescence?

(A) Yes
(B) No

Second column (pink).

Was there:

(A) Parents living together the entire time, through adolescence
(B) Death of father
(C) Death of mother
(D) Desertion by mother
(E) Desertion by father
(F) Separation
(G) Divorce
(H) Father in hospital
(I) Mother in hospital
(J) Other (please note at top of your answer sheet)

Third column (white).

If there was a separation, divorce or loss, how old were you?

(A) Under one year
(B) 1-year old
(C) 2
(D) 3
(E) 4
(F) 5
(G) 6
(H) 7
(I) 8
(J) 9
(K) 10
(L) 11
(M) 12
(N) 13
(O) 14
(P) 15
(Q) 16
(R) 17
(S) 18
(T) 19
(U) 20
(V) 21
(W) 22
(X) Over 22

Fourth column (pink).

If death, divorce, or separation, did: (more than one blank may apply)

(A) Dad raise you or get custody
(B) Mom raise you or get custody
(C) Grandparents raise you
(D) A grandmother raise you
(E) A grandfather raise you
(F) Other relative raise you
(G) A parent and a relative raise you
(H) Dad remarry
(I) Mom remarry
(J) Other

CONTINUE ON YOUR FIRST ANSWER SHEET WITH THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONNAIRE.

EXPERIENCES WITH AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS FATHERS

Part A

Please mark your social security number on each answer sheet.

This part of the questionnaire concerns childhood experiences with your father. Please fill in your answers on the corresponding answer sheets.

For each statement first fill in the appropriate following number that most clearly reflects your feelings about your father as you experienced him during your childhood. Second, respond to the statement by filling in the number that reflects how you would have liked him to have been.

6 always
5 usually
4 often
3 occasionally
2 rarely
1 never

For example, on statement 1-2, your father may have never taken you shopping. So, for question 1 you would fill in number 1 on your answer sheet. However, you may have wanted to go often. So you would fill in number 4 on your answer sheet for question 2.

1-2 When he went shopping, he took me along and got my opinion.

3-4 He was proud of me.

5-6 He was strict with me and set many limits.

7-8 He was out of town.

9-10 He was not affectionately demonstrative.

11-12 I was afraid of him.

13-14 He shared humorous stories about his childhood with me.

15-16 I was proud of him.

17-18 He spanked me.

19-20 He let me make decisions that influenced the family.

21-22 When I was discouraged or failing in school or an activity, he became angry and critical.

23-24 He took an interest in my friends.

25-26 He liked to take us places.

27-28 I felt like he did not love me.

29-30 When I was sad or afraid he was a good person to go to.

31-32 When I was out in public with him I felt embarrassed.

33-34 He was basically happy.

35-36 I told him I loved him.

37-38 I felt uncomfortable with him.

39-40 It was hard to know what would make him angry at times, what I would be punished for.

41-42 He included me in discussions about vacation plans.

43-44 He took an active interest in my schooling.

45-46 He always picked me up on time.

47-48 When a problem arose, he asked for my opinion.

49-50 No matter how busy he was he could make time for me.

51-52 He disliked crying.

53-54 He was active in my upbringing.

55-56 He was warm and snuggly.

57-58 He felt there was a logical reasonable way of living, and let me know if I was not behaving in that way.

59-60 He really listened to me.

61-62 I respected him as a person.

63-64 He shared sad stories about his childhood.

65-66 It was hard to know what he was feeling.

67-68 I was closer to him than my mother.

69-70 He tried to interest me in his interests.

71-72 He told me he loved me.

73-74 I felt like he was not around enough.

75-76 It was important to him to know with whom I was playing.

77-78 He encouraged me to try new things.

79-80 He was disappointed in me.

Please continue on another answer sheet. Please don't forget your social security number.

1-2 He was protective of me.

3-4 He took in my opinions on major purchases that affected me.

5-6 He believed I could do anything I put my mind to.

7-8 It didn't matter to him where I went or at what time I came in at night.

9-10 He had so much work to do there was little time for me.

11-12 He gave me piggyback rides, tickled me, teased me, etc.

13-14 He shared things that happened during the day with us.

15-16 He made important decisions himself even when they had important effects on me.

17-18 He was responsive to and supportive of my interests.

19-20 He wanted to know where I was going to play.

21-22 He was on my side when I got in trouble.

23-24 Even when he was around he was too preoccupied to spend much time with me.

25-26 He brought me treats and surprises he knew I would like.

27-28 He included me in adult conversation.

29-30 He did most of the punishing.

31-32 He enjoyed having me around.

33-34 When he was present, if I was hurt he was concerned and made sure I was all right.

35-36 If I had a problem, he would solve it for me.

37-38 He talked things over with me when I got in trouble.

39-40 He was busy with outside activities.

41-42 He was so talkative it was hard to get a word in edgewise.

43-44 He was critical of my table manners and eating habits.

45-46 I talked with him about my interests.

47-48 He was grouchy.

49-50 Mostly he complained about our behavior rather than punish us.

51-52 I talked problems over with him.

53-54 He yelled at me.

55-56 It was hard to know at times what he would be angered by and punish.

57-58 He did not understand me.

59-60 He wanted me to do things better than other kids.

61-62 Some things I could not tell him.

Please indicate the basis on which you filled this out:

63 based on experiences I remember 1 2 3 4 5 6 based on conveyed memories of others who knew him

PLEASE CONTINUE TO FILL THIS ANSWER SHEET OUT WITH THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONNAIRE.

EXPERIENCES WITH AND ATTITUDES WITH BOTH PARENTS

Part B

This part of the questionnaire concerns childhood experiences with your parents. Your answers may be based solely on what your surviving or custodial parent (relatives, etc.) has conveyed to you, or your own memory or a mixture. Please indicate that below before beginning. There are special additional questions to be filled out by you if there was a divorce or death.

Please indicate on what basis you are filling this section out in column one of the box for I.D. number on your answer sheet.

experience					conveyed memories
1	2	3	4	5	6

First respond to these statements with the number which most closely reflects your feelings about this statement based on the following:

6 always
5 usually
4 often
3 occasionally
2 rarely
1 never

Second respond again filling in the number that reflects how you would have liked him to have been.

65-66 My parents were very close.

67-68 My parents fought.

69-70 If there was a family problem, both could agree on a solution.

71-72 My parents were very happy together.

73-74 My parents depended on each other.

75-76 My parents disagreed.

77-78 My parents expressed physical affection.

79-80 My parents went out together alone.

Begin new answer sheet. Please fill in your social security number.

1-2 My parents went out with groups of friends.

3-4 My parents were concerned with how the other's day went.

5-6 My parents shared common interests.

7-8 My parents had similar political beliefs.

9-10 My parents had similar religious beliefs.

11-12 My parents fought over everyday incidents.

13-14 When they fought, my parents spoke quietly.

15-16 When my parents fought, one would leave the house.

17-18 My mother was very close to her family.

19-20 My father was very close to his family.

21-22 My parents fought in front of us.

23-24 My parents enjoyed each other.

PLEASE CONTINUE TO FILL THIS ANSWER SHEET OUT WITH THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONNAIRE.

EXPERIENCE WITH DIVORCE

Skip if not applicable in your case and go to the next section. Please continue on the answer sheet you have been using.

Respond to these statements with the number which most closely reflects your feelings about this statement using the previous numerical scale.

25 I had a clear understanding of why my parents divorced.

26 One of my parents was clearly to blame for the divorce.

27 My parents have gone to court after the divorce to readjust child support.

28 My parents have gone to court after the divorce to change visitation rights.

29 My non-custodial parent was denied visitation rights.

30 My non-custodial parent never made child support payments.

31 There was a court fight over custody.

32 After the divorce, my parents disagreed about how I should be raised.

33 I wished my parents would remarry.

34 I felt responsible for the divorce.

35 I wish I could have seen my non-custodial parent more often.

36 I wished I could have lived with my other parent.

37 When they divorced, I believed it was the best for all concerned.

38 When they divorced, I was happy.

39 When my parents divorced, I was worried about my future.

40 My parents talked after the divorce.

41 My parents argued after the divorce.

42 My parents made plans for me together after the divorce.

43 My parents were friends after the divorce.

44 I was happier after the divorce.

45 My mother was happier after the divorce.

46 My father was happier after the divorce.

47 One parent told me untrue things about the other.

48 One parent gave me messages to give to the other.

49 One parent asked me for information about the other.

50 My custodial parent cooperated with visitation and encouraged the visits.

51 My relationship with Dad before the divorce was close.

52 My relationship with Mom before the divorce was close.

53 My relationship with Dad after the divorce was close.

54 My relationship with Mom after the divorce was close.

55 My non-custodial parent paid child support regularly, his checks were on time.

56 The child support was adequate in providing us with an accustomed standard of living.

PLEASE CONTINUE TO FILL THIS ANSWER SHEET OUT WITH THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONNAIRE.

EXPERIENCE WITH DEATH

Skip if not relevant and go to the next section. Continue to answer on the answer sheet you have been using.

Please be sure to start with number 57 on your answer sheet, fill in with the corresponding number previously used.

57 I was close with the surviving parent before the death.

58 I was close with the surviving parent after the death.

59 My surviving parent speaks only highly of my dead parent.

60 My surviving parent sees characteristics of my dead parent in me.

61 My surviving parent talks of my dead parent's childhood.

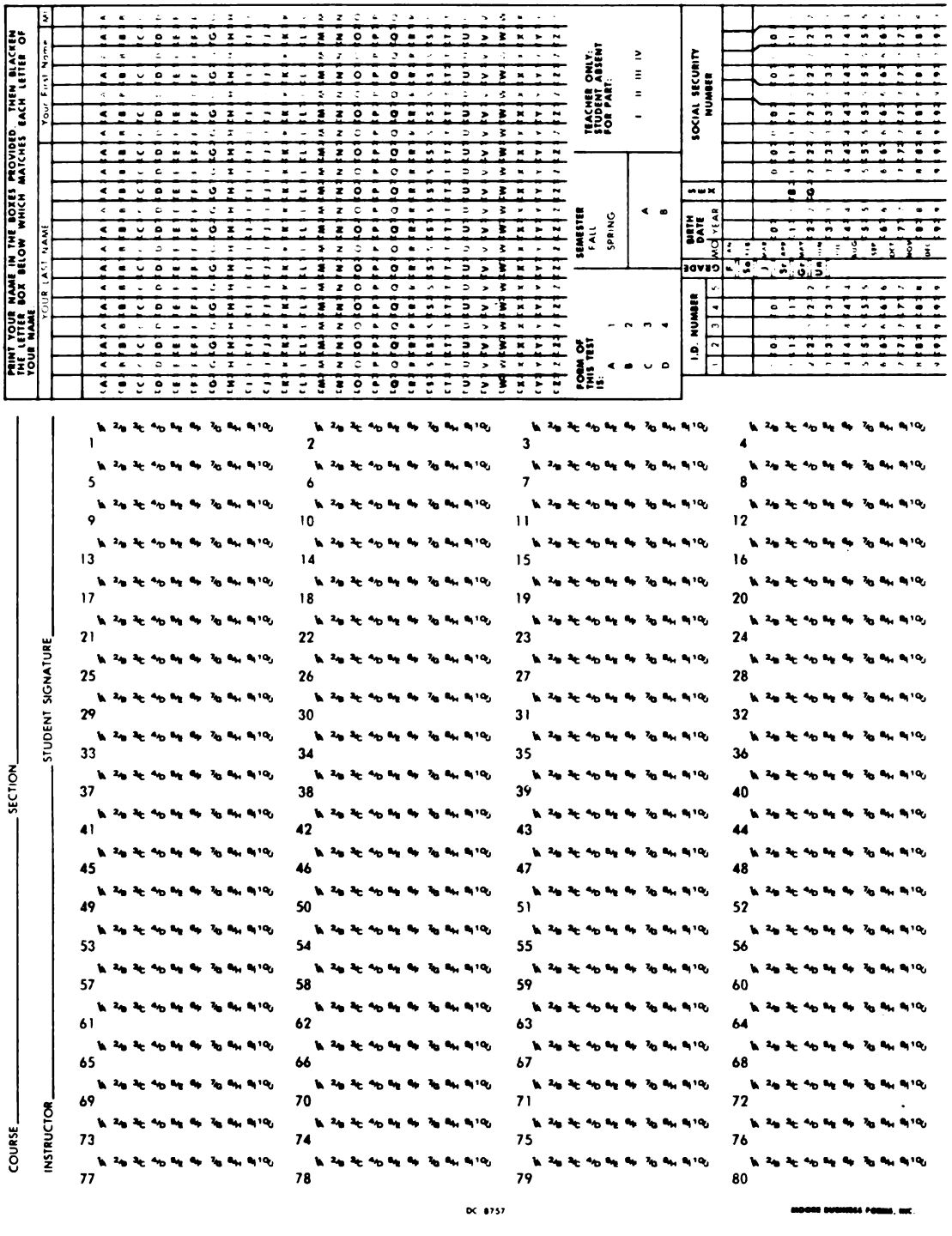
62 We visit my dead parent's grave.

63 Friends and relatives compare me to my dead parent.

64 My surviving parent never mentions my dead parent.

65 I was close to my dead parent.

66 My surviving parent's reactions to the death scared me a great deal.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PRINT YOUR NAME IN THE BOXES PROVIDED. THEN BLACKEN THE LETTER BOX BELOW WHICH MATCHES EACH LETTER OF YOUR NAME
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TEACHER ONLY: STUDENT ABSENT FOR PART:
I II III IV
FORM OF THIS TEST IS:
A 1
B 2
C 3
D 4
I.D. NUMBER
SEX
BIRTH DATE
MO. DAY YEAR
SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER
COURSE
SECTION
INSTRUCTOR
STUDENT SIGNATURE
DC 8757

PARENT BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

Instructions

We are interested in learning more about the different experiences people have had in their families. We are, therefore, asking a number of people to report their experiences during childhood. If you are under sixteen and have lived at home up to this time, answer the questions as they describe what happens there. If you left home before the age of sixteen, answer as you would have before you left home. If you are over sixteen and have always lived at home up to that time, answer as you would have around the age of sixteen. If you did not grow up with your real father, answer the way you believe he would have behaved. Read each item on the following pages and fill in the number on the answer sheet that most closely describes the way your father behaves toward you. BE SURE TO MARK EACH ITEM and to put your social security number on all the answer sheets.

If you think the item is LIKE your father, darken 1.

If you think the item is SOMEWHAT LIKE your father, darken 2.

If you think the item is NOT LIKE your father, darken 3.

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
1.	Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with him.	1	2	3
2.	Likes to talk to me and be with me much of the time.	1	2	3
3.	Isn't very patient with me.	1	2	3
4.	Sees to it that I know exactly what I may or may not do.	1	2	3
5.	Says I'm very good natured.	1	2	3
6.	Wants to know exactly where I am and what I am doing.	1	2	3
7.	Decides what friends I can go around with.	1	2	3
8.	Soon forgets a rule he has made.	1	2	3
9.	Doesn't mind if I kid him about things.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
10.	Is easy with me.	1	2	3
11.	Doesn't talk with me very much.	1	2	3
12.	Will not talk to me when I displease him.	1	2	3
13.	Seems to see my good points more than my faults.	1	2	3
14.	Doesn't let me go places because something might happen to me.	1	2	3
15.	Thinks my ideas are silly.	1	2	3
16.	Is very strict with me.	1	2	3
17.	Tells me I'm good looking.	1	2	3
18.	Feels hurt when I don't follow advice.	1	2	3
19.	Is always telling me how I should behave.	1	2	3
20.	Usually doesn't find out about my misbehavior.	1	2	3
21.	Enjoys it when I bring friends to my home.	1	2	3
22.	Worries about how I will turn out, because he takes anything bad I do seriously.	1	2	3
23.	Spends very little time with me.	1	2	3
24.	Allows me to go out as often as I please.	1	2	3
25.	Almost always speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice.	1	2	3
26.	Is always thinking of things that will please me.	1	2	3
27.	Says I'm a big problem.	1	2	3
28.	Believes in having a lot of rules and sticking to them.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
29.	Tells me how much he loves me.	1	2	3
30.	Is always checking on what I've been doing at school or at play.	1	2	3
31.	Keeps reminding me about things I am not allowed to do.	1	2	3
32.	Punishes me for doing something one day, but ignores it the next.	1	2	3
33.	Allows me to tell him if I think my ideas are better than his.	1	2	3
34.	Let's me off easy when I do something wrong.	1	2	3
35.	Almost never brings me a surprise or present.	1	2	3
36.	Sometimes when he disapproves, doesn't say anything but is cold and distant for a while.	1	2	3
37.	Understands my problems and my worries.	1	2	3
38.	Seems to regret that I am growing up and am spending more time away from home.	1	2	3
39.	Forgets to help me when I need it.	1	2	3
40.	Sticks to a rule instead of allowing a lot of exceptions.	1	2	3
41.	Likes to talk about what he has read with me.	1	2	3
42.	Thinks I'm not grateful when I don't obey.	1	2	3
43.	Tells me exactly how to do my work.	1	2	3
44.	Doesn't pay much attention to my misbehavior.	1	2	3
45.	Likes me to choose my own way to do things.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
46.	If I break a promise, doesn't trust me again for a long time.	1	2	3
47.	Doesn't seem to think of me very often.	1	2	3
48.	Doesn't tell me what time to be home when I go out.	1	2	3
49.	Enjoys talking things over with me.	1	2	3
50.	Gives me a lot of care and attention.	1	2	3
51.	Sometimes wishes he didn't have any children.	1	2	3
52.	Believes that all my bad behavior should be punished in some way.	1	2	3
53.	Hugs and kisses me often.	1	2	3
54.	Asks me to tell everything that happens when I'm away from home.	1	2	3
55.	Doesn't forget very quickly the things I do wrong.	1	2	3
56.	Sometimes allows me to do things that he says are wrong.	1	2	3
57.	Wants me to tell him about it if I don't like the way he treats me.	1	2	3
58.	Can't say no to anything I want.	1	2	3
59.	Thinks I am just someone to "put up with."	1	2	3
60.	Speaks to me in a cold, matter-of-fact voice when I offend him.	1	2	3
61.	Enjoys going on drives, trips or visits with me.	1	2	3
62.	Worries about me when I'm away.	1	2	3
63.	Forgets to get me things I need.	1	2	3
64.	Gives hard punishments.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
65.	Believes in showing his love for me.	1	2	3
66.	Feels hurt by the things I do.	1	2	3
67.	Tells me how to spend my free time.	1	2	3
68.	Doesn't insist that I do my homework.	1	2	3
69.	Let's me help to decide how to do things we're working on.	1	2	3
70.	Says some day I'll be punished for my bad behavior.	1	2	3
71.	Doesn't seem to enjoy doing things with me.	1	2	3
72.	Gives me as much freedom as I want.	1	2	3
73.	Smiles at me very often.	1	2	3
74.	Often gives up something to get something for me.	1	2	3
75.	Is always getting after me.	1	2	3
76.	Sees to it that I'm on time coming home from school or for meals.	1	2	3
77.	Tries to treat me as an equal.	1	2	3
78.	Keeps a careful check on me to make sure I have the right kind of friends.	1	2	3
79.	Keeps after me about finishing my work.	1	2	3
80.	Depends upon his mood whether a rule is enforced or not.	1	2	3
81.	Makes me feel free when I'm with him.	1	2	3
82.	Excuses my bad conduct.	1	2	3
83.	Doesn't show that he loves me.	1	2	3
84.	Is less friendly with me if I don't see things his way.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
85.	Is able to make me feel better when I am upset.	1	2	3
86.	Becomes very involved in my life.	1	2	3
87.	Almost always complains about what I do.	1	2	3
88.	Punishes me when I don't obey.	1	2	3
89.	Always listens to my ideas and opinions.	1	2	3
90.	Tells me how much he has suffered for me.	1	2	3
91.	Would like to be able to tell me what to do all the time.	1	2	3
92.	Doesn't check up to see whether I have done what he told me.	1	2	3
93.	Asks me what I think about how we should do things.	1	2	3
94.	Thinks and talks about my misbehavior long after it's over.	1	2	3
95.	Doesn't share many activities with me.	1	2	3
96.	Let's me go any place I please without asking.	1	2	3
97.	Enjoys doing things with me.	1	2	3
98.	Makes me feel like the most important person in his life.	1	2	3
99.	Gets cross and angry about little things I do.	1	2	3
100.	Believes in punishing me to correct and improve my manners.	1	2	3
101.	Often has long talks with me about the causes and reasons for things.	1	2	3
102.	Wants to know with whom I've been when I've been out.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
103.	Is unhappy that I'm not better in school than I am.	1	2	3
104.	Only keeps rules when it suits him.	1	2	3
105.	Really wants me to tell him just how I feel about things.	1	2	3
106.	Let's me stay up late if I keep asking.	1	2	3
107.	Almost never goes on Sunday drives or picnics with me.	1	2	3
108.	Will avoid looking at me when I've disappointed him.	1	2	3
109.	Enjoys working with me in the house or yard.	1	2	3
110.	Usually makes me the center of his attention at home.	1	2	3
111.	Often blows his top when I bother him.	1	2	3
112.	Almost always punishes me in some way when I am bad.	1	2	3
113.	Often praises me.	1	2	3
114.	Says if I loved him, I'd do what he wants me to do.	1	2	3
115.	Gets cross and nervous when I'm noisy around the house.	1	2	3
116.	Seldom insists that I do anything.	1	2	3
117.	Tries to understand how I see things.	1	2	3
118.	Says that some day I'll be sorry that I wasn't better.	1	2	3
119.	Complains that I get on his nerves.	1	2	3
120.	Let's me dress in any way I please.	1	2	3

	LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
CONTINUE ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET USING THE SECTION MARKED "MATCHING EXERCISE"			
1. Comforts me when I'm afraid.	1	2	3
2. Enjoys staying at home with me more than going out with friends.	1	2	3
3. Doesn't work with me.	1	2	3
4. Insists that I must do exactly as I'm told.	1	2	3
5. Encourages me to read.	1	2	3
6. Asks other people what I do away from home.	1	2	3
7. Loses his temper with me when I don't help around the house.	1	2	3
8. Frequently changes the rules I am supposed to follow.	1	2	3
9. Allows me to have friends at my home often.	1	2	3
10. Does not insist I obey if I complain or protest.	1	2	3
11. Hardly notices when I am good at home or at school.	1	2	3
12. If I take someone else's side in an argument, is cold and distant to me.	1	2	3
13. Cheers me up when I am sad.	1	2	3
14. Does not approve of my spending a lot of time away from home.	1	2	3
15. Doesn't get me things unless I ask over and over again.	1	2	3
16. Sees to it that I obey when he tells me something.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
17.	Tells me where to find out more about things I want to know.	1	2	3
18.	Tells me of all the things he has done for me.	1	2	3
19.	Wants to control whatever I do.	1	2	3
20.	Does not bother to enforce rules.	1	2	3

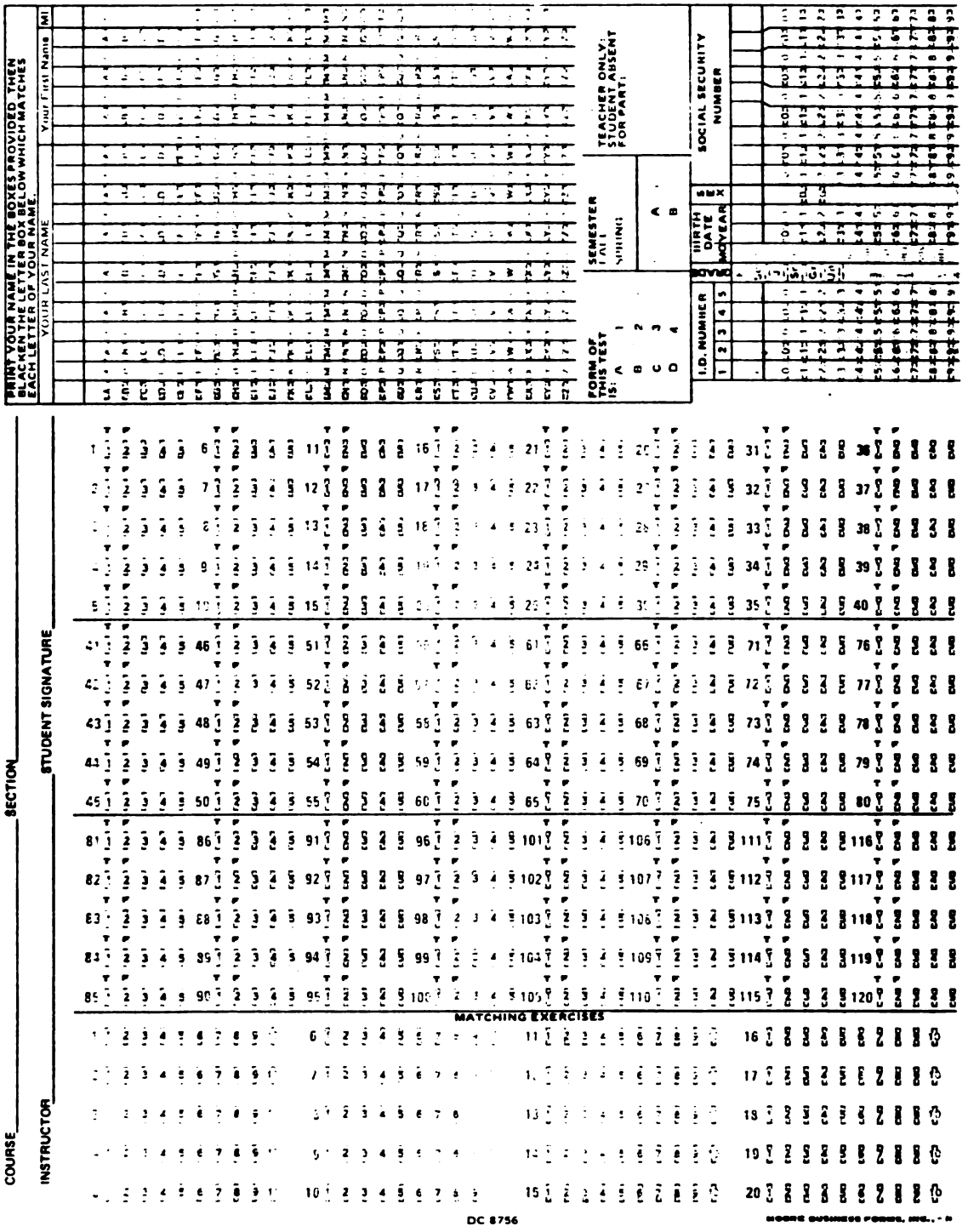
BEGIN YOUR SECOND ANSWER SHEET. MAKE SURE YOUR SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER IS MARKED IN.

1.	Makes me feel at ease when I'm with him.	1	2	3
2.	Thinks that any misbehavior is very serious and will have future consequences.	1	2	3
3.	Is always finding fault with me.	1	2	3
4.	Allows me to spend my money in any way I like.	1	2	3
5.	Often speaks of the good things I do.	1	2	3
6.	Makes his whole life center about his children.	1	2	3
7.	Doesn't seem to know what I need or want.	1	2	3
8.	Sees to it that I keep my clothes neat, clean, and in order.	1	2	3
9.	Is happy to see me when I come from school or play.	1	2	3
10.	Questions me in detail about what my friends and I discuss.	1	2	3
11.	Doesn't give me any peace until I do what he says.	1	2	3
12.	Insists I follow a rule one day and then forgets about it the next.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
13.	Gives me the choice of what to do whenever possible.	1	2	3
14.	I can talk him out of an order, if I complain.	1	2	3
15.	Often makes fun of me.	1	2	3
16.	If I've hurt his feelings, stops talking to me until I please him again.	1	2	3
17.	Has a good time at home with me.	1	2	3
18.	Worries that I can't take care of myself unless he is around.	1	2	3
19.	Acts as though I'm in the way.	1	2	3
20.	If I do the least little thing that I shouldn't, he punishes me.	1	2	3
21.	Hugged and kissed me good night when I was small.	1	2	3
22.	Says if I really cared for him, I would not do things that cause him to worry.	1	2	3
23.	Is always trying to change me.	1	2	3
24.	Let's me get away without doing work I had been given to do.	1	2	3
25.	Is easy to talk to.	1	2	3
26.	Says that sooner or later we always pay for bad behavior.	1	2	3
27.	Wishes I were a different kind of person.	1	2	3
28.	Let's me go out any evening I want.	1	2	3
29.	Seems proud of the things I do.	1	2	3
30.	Spends almost all of his free time with his children.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
31.	Tells me to quit "hanging around the house" and go somewhere.	1	2	3
32.	I have certain jobs to do and am not allowed to do anything else until they are done.	1	2	3
33.	Is very interested in what I am learning at school.	1	2	3
34.	Almost always wants to know who phoned me or wrote to me and what they said.	1	2	3
35.	Doesn't like the way I act at home.	1	2	3
36.	Changes his mind to make things easier for himself.	1	2	3
37.	Let's me do things that other children my age do.	1	2	3
38.	Can be talked into things easily.	1	2	3
39.	Often seems glad to get away from me for a while.	1	2	3
40.	When I upset him, won't have anything to do with me until I find a way to make up.	1	2	3
41.	Isn't interested in changing me, but likes me as I am.	1	2	3
42.	Wishes I would stay at home where he could take care of me.	1	2	3
43.	Makes me feel I'm not loved.	1	2	3
44.	Has more rules than I can remember, so is often punishing me.	1	2	3
45.	Says I make him happy.	1	2	3
46.	When I don't do as he wants, says I'm not grateful for all he has done for me.	1	2	3
47.	Doesn't let me decide things for myself.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
48.	Let's me get away with a lot of things.	1	2	3
49.	Tries to be a friend rather than a boss.	1	2	3
50.	Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.	1	2	3
51.	Is never interested in meeting or talking with my friends.	1	2	3
52.	Let's me do anything I like to do.	1	2	3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FORM OF THIS TEST IS:
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C 3
D 4
I.D. NUMBER
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SEX
SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER
COURSE
SECTION
INSTRUCTOR
STUDENT SIGNATURE
MATCHING EXERCISES
DC 8756

APPENDIX B

INTERNAL-CONSISTENCY RELIABILITIES AND ORTHOGONALLY ROTATED FACTOR MATRICES FOR THE CHILDREN'S REPORT OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY SCALES

TABLE B-1.--Internal-Consistency Reliabilities for the Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory Scales

Scale	Father			Mother		
	Delinquent Boys N=31	Normal Boys N=85	Normal Girls N=80	Delinquent Boys N=81	Normal Boys N=85	Normal Girls N=80
Extreme autonomy	.81	.66	.71	.77	.66	.65
Lax discipline	.73	.70	.76	.68	.68	.67
Moderate autonomy	.71	.70	.63	.72	.67	.56
Encouraging sociability	.86	.77	.72	.85	.76	.77
Positive evaluation	.85	.76	.67	.80	.80	.76
Sharing	.93	.85	.81	.80	.86	.86
Expression of affection	.88	.81	.81	.85	.83	.81
Encouraging independent thinking	.79	.72	.70	.75	.74	.68
Emotional support	.91	.83	.92	.93	.80	.94
Equalitarian treatment	.91	.84	.84	.85	.80	.82
Intellectual stimulation	.91	.82	.84	.81	.82	.78
Child-centeredness	.87	.75	.77	.80	.78	.54
Possessiveness	.66	.58	.65	.50	.55	.55
Protectiveness	.64	.74	.63	.56	.64	.38

TABLE B-1.--Continued

Scale	Father			Mother		
	Delinquent Boys N=31	Normal Boys N=85	Normal Girls N=80	Delinquent Boys N=81	Normal Boys N=85	Normal Girls N=80
Intrusiveness	.77	.76	.57	.69	.72	.50
Suppression of aggression	.53	.62	.53	.56	.67	.40
Strictness	.80	.68	.74	.78	.73	.71
Punishment	.88	.76	.85	.86	.79	.86
Control through guilt	.46	.69	.70	.52	.77	.77
Parental direction	.70	.64	.54	.74	.67	.63
Nagging	.77	.75	.75	.78	.75	.76
Negative evaluation	.81	.73	.55	.82	.77	.70
Irritability	.83	.83	.84	.73	.83	.84
Rejection	.87	.66	.67	.78	.79	.58
Neglect	.84	.72	.86	.78	.60	.72
Ignoring	.89	.82	.84	.79	.82	.76

SOURCE: Schaffer, 1965a, p. 424.

TABLE B-2.--Orthogonally Rotated Factor Matrices for Reports of Maternal and Paternal Behavior by Children and Adults

Scale	Factor I				Factor II				Factor III			
	Mother		Father		Mother		Father		Mother		Father	
	Children	Adults	Children	Adults	Children	Adults	Children	Adults	Children	Adults	Children	Adults
Extreme autonomy	06	-04	01	-03	-03	-16	-08	-15	65	77	74	79
Lax discipline	11	05	15	00	03	13	-07	20	88	88	31	86
Moderate autonomy	60	47	70	33	-15	-26	-16	-22	31	50	23	71
Encouraging sociability	63	80	76	62	-30	-05	-14	-09	07	10	24	15
Positive evaluation	73	76	83	67	19	19	25	12	44	24	16	21
Sharing	93	91	95	81	11	02	18	20	07	-09	08	-10
Expression of affection	82	84	91	72	13	19	15	29	07	12	-07	10
Encourages independent thinking	69	78	85	71	05	-15	11	-15	-06	18	04	13
Emotional support	85	88	94	87	07	06	14	02	05	-13	01	01
Equalitarian treatment	88	80	98	76	07	-17	14	-29	01	03	02	15
Intellectual stimulation	84	84	88	79	10	03	17	11	00	-01	06	-10
Child-centeredness	73	78	74	64	38	49	45	56	32	29	24	2
Possessiveness	42	36	48	47	48	72	57	66	31	20	19	06
Protectiveness	27	64	49	36	60	53	59	65	-13	-03	-13	15
Intrusiveness	01	16	12	04	77	83	79	76	-04	-23	-12	-24
Suppression of aggression	03	26	16	13	39	47	52	51	-44	-10	-22	12
Strictness	03	16	-03	14	66	60	61	76	-55	-62	-54	-20
Punishment	13	11	-03	08	60	53	62	55	-58	-67	-61	-59
Control through guilt	-24	-25	-11	-26	64	72	72	69	-05	-01	-01	02
Parental direction	-31	-21	-24	-14	66	78	77	76	13	-17	-03	-20
Nagging	-61	-40	-60	-22	58	78	62	82	-28	-21	-25	-16
Negative evaluation	-70	-21	-71	-25	54	63	44	73	04	-05	13	-03
Irritability	-75	-61	-78	-43	43	48	35	56	10	05	16	04
Rejection	-71	-73	-76	-54	36	08	19	02	-20	13	-20	31
Neglect	-76	-85	-84	-64	33	31	20	23	15	10	18	-06
Ignoring	-80	-81	-91	-75	18	21	11	14	15	19	15	13

SOURCE: Schaffer, 1965(b), p. 553.
Note: Decimals are omitted.

APPENDIX C

SCORING AND SCALE FACTOR PLACEMENT FOR SCHAFFER'S CHILDREN'S REPORTS OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

PARENT BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

Instructions

We are interested in learning more about the different experiences people have had in their families. We are, therefore, asking a number of people to report their experiences during childhood. If you are under sixteen and have lived at home up to this time, answer the questions as they describe what happends there. If you left home before the age of sixteen, answer as you would have before you left home. If you are over sixteen and have always lived at home up to that time, answer as youwould have around the age of sixteen. If you did not grow up with your real father, answer the way you believe he would have behaved. Read each item on the following pages and fill in the number on the answer sheet that most closely describes the way your father behaves toward you. BE SURE TO MARK EACH ITEM and to put your social security number on all the answer sheets.

If you think the item is LIKE you father, darken 1.

If you think the item is SOMEWHAT LIKE your father, darken 2.

If you think the item is NOT LIKE your father, darken 3.

	LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
1. Makes me feel better after talking over my worries with him.	1	2	3
2. Likes to talk to me and be with me much of the time.	1	2	3
3. Isn't very patient with me.	1	2	3
4. Sees to it that I know exactly what I may or may not do.	1	2	3
5. Says I'm very good natured.	1	2	3
6. Wants to know exactly where I am and what I am doing.	1	2	3
7. Decides what friends I can go around with.	1	2	3
8. Soon forgets a rule he has made.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
9.	Doesn't mind if I kid him about things.	1	2	3
10.	Is easy with me.	1	2	3
11.	Doesn't talk with me very much.	1	2	3
12.	Will not talk to me when I displease him.	1	2	3
13.	Seems to see my good points more than my faults.	1	2	3
14.	Doesn't let me go places because something might happen to me.	1	2	3
15.	Thinks my ideas are silly.	1	2	3
16.	Is very strict with me.	1	2	3
17.	Tells me I'm good looking.	1	2	3
18.	Feels hurt when I don't follow advice.	1	2	3
19.	Is always telling me how I should behave.	1	2	3
20.	Usually doesn't find out about my misbehavior.	1	2	3
21.	Enjoys it when I bring friends to my home.	1	2	3
22.	Worries about how I will turn out, because he takes anything bad I do seriously.	1	2	3
23.	Spends very little time with me.	1	2	3
24.	Allows me to go out as often as I please.	1	2	3
25.	Almost always speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice.	1	2	3
26.	Is always thinking of things that will please me.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
27.	Says I'm a big problem.	1	2	3
28.	Believes in having a lot of rules and sticking to them.	1	2	3
29.	Tells me how much he loves me.	1	2	3
30.	Is always checking on what I've been doing at school or at play.	1	2	3
31.	Keeps reminding me about things I am not allowed to do.	1	2	3
32.	Punishes me for doing something one day, but ignores it the next.	1	2	3
33.	Allows me to tell him if I think my ideas are better than his.	1	2	3
34.	Let's me off easy when I do something wrong.	1	2	3
35.	Almost never brings me a surprise or present.	1	2	3
36.	Sometimes when he disapproves, doesn't say anything but is cold and distant for a while.	1	2	3
37.	Understands my problems and my worries.	1	2	3
38.	Seems to regret that I am growing up and am spending more time away from home.	1	2	3
39.	Forgets to help me when I need it.	1	2	3
40.	Sticks to a rule instead of allowing a lot of exceptions.	1	2	3
41.	Likes to talk about what he has read with me.	1	2	3
42.	Thinks I'm not grateful when I don't obey.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
43.	Tells me exactly how to do my work.	1	2	3
44.	Doesn't pay much attention to my misbehavior.	1	2	3
45.	Likes me to choose my own way to do things.	1	2	3
46.	If I break a promise, doesn't trust me again for a long time.	1	2	3
47.	Doesn't seem to think of me very often.	1	2	3
48.	Doesn't tell me what time to be home when I go out.	1	2	3
49.	Enjoys talking things over with me.	1	2	3
50.	Gives me a lot of care and attention.	1	2	3
51.	Sometimes wishes he didn't have any children.	1	2	3
52.	Believes that all my bad behavior should be punished in some way.	1	2	3
53.	Hugs and kisses me often.	1	2	3
54.	Asks me to tell everything that happens when I'm away from home.	1	2	3
55.	Doesn't forget very quickly the things I do wrong.	1	2	3
56.	Sometimes allows me to do things that he says are wrong.	1	2	3
57.	Wants me to tell him about it if I don't like the way he treats me.	1	2	3
58.	Can't say no to anything I want.	1	2	3
59.	Thinks I am just someone to "put up with."	1	2	3
60.	Speaks to me in a cold, matter-of-fact voice when I offend him.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
61.	Enjoys going on drives, trips or visits with me.	1	2	3
62.	Worries about me when I'm away.	1	2	3
63.	Forgets to get me things I need.	1	2	3
64.	Gives hard punishments.	1	2	3
65.	Believes in showing his love for me.	1	2	3
66.	Feels hurt by the things I do.	1	2	3
67.	Tells me how to spend my free time.	1	2	3
68.	Doesn't insist that I do my homework.	1	2	3
69.	Let's me help to decide how to do things we're working on.	1	2	3
70.	Says some day I'll be punished for my bad behavior.	1	2	3
71.	Doesn't seem to enjoy doing things with me.	1	2	3
72.	Gives me as much freedom as I want.	1	2	3
73.	Smiles at me very often.	1	2	3
74.	Often gives up something to get something for me.	1	2	3
75.	Is always getting after me.	1	2	3
76.	Sees to it that I'm on time coming home from school or for meals.	1	2	3
77.	Tries to treat me as an equal.	1	2	3
78.	Keeps a careful check on me to make sure I have the right kind of friends.	1	2	3
79.	Keeps after me about finishing my work.	1	2	3
80.	Depends upon his mood whether a rule is enforced or not.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
81.	Makes me feel free when I'm with him.	1	2	3
82.	Excuses my bad conduct.	1	2	3
83.	Doesn't show that he loves me.	1	2	3
84.	Is less friendly with me if I don't see things his way.	1	2	3
85.	Is able to make me feel better when I am upset.	1	2	3
86.	Becomes very involved in my life.	1	2	3
87.	Almost always complains about what I do.	1	2	3
88.	Punishes me when I don't obey.	1	2	3
89.	Always listens to my ideas and opinions.	1	2	3
90.	Tells me how much he has suffered for me.	1	2	3
91.	Would like to be able to tell me what to do all the time.	1	2	3
92.	Doesn't check up to see whether I have done what he told me.	1	2	3
93.	Asks me what I think about how we should do things.	1	2	3
94.	Thinks and talks about my misbehavior long after it's over.	1	2	3
95.	Doesn't share many activities with me.	1	2	3
96.	Let's me go any place I please without asking.	1	2	3
97.	Enjoys doing things with me.	1	2	3
98.	Makes me feel like the most important person in his life.	1	2	3
99.	Gets cross and angry about little things I do.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
100.	Believes in punishing me to correct and improve my manners.	1	2	3
101.	Often has long talks with me about the causes and reasons for things.	1	2	3
102.	Wants to know with whom I've been when I've been out.	1	2	3
103.	Is unhappy that I'm not better in school than I am.	1	2	3
104.	Only keeps rules when it suits him.	1	2	3
105.	Really wants me to tell him just how I feel about things.	1	2	3
106.	Let's me stay up late if I keep asking.	1	2	3
107.	Almost never goes on Sunday drives or picnics with me.	1	2	3
108.	Will avoid looking at me when I've disappointed him.	1	2	3
109.	Enjoys working with me in the house or yard.	1	2	3
110.	Usually makes me the center of his attention at home.	1	2	3
111.	Often blows his top when I bother him.	1	2	3
112.	Almost always punishes me in some way when I am bad.	1	2	3
113.	Often praises me.	1	2	3
114.	Says if I loved him, I'd do what he wants me to do.	1	2	3
115.	Gets cross and nervous when I'm noisy around the house.	1	2	3
116.	Seldom insists that I do anything.	1	2	3
117.	Tries to understand how I see things.	1	2	3

		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
118.	Says that some day I'll be sorry that I wan't better as a child.	1	2	3
119.	Complains that I get on his nerves.	1	2	3
120.	Let's me dress in any way I please.	1	2	3

CONTINUE ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET USING THE SECTION MARKED "MATCHING EXERCISE"

[Scoring]

[A]	1.	Comforts me when I'm afraid.	1	2	3
[A]	2.	Enjoys staying at home with me more than going out with friends.	1	2	3
[A]	3.	Doesn't work with me.	1	2	3
[A]	4.	Insists that I must do exactly as I'm told.	1	2	3
[A]	5.	Encourages me to read.	1	2	3
[A]	6.	Asks other people what I do away from home.	1	2	3
[A]	7.	Loses his temper with me when I don't help around the house.	1	2	3
[A]	8.	Frequently changes the rules I am supposed to follow.	1	2	3
[A]	9.	Allows me to have friends at my home often.	1	2	3
[A]	10.	Does not insist I obey if I complain or protest.	1	2	3
[A]	11.	Hardly notices when I am good at home or at school.	1	2	3
[A]	12.	If I take someone else's side in an argument, is cold and distant to me.	1	2	3
[A]	13.	Cheers me up when I am sad.	1	2	3
[A]	14.	Does not approve of my spending a lot of time away from home.	1	2	3

[Scoring]		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
[A] 15.	Doesn't get me things unless I ask over and over again.	1	2	3
[A] 16.	Sees to it that I obey when he tells me something.	1	2	3
[A] 17.	Tells me where to find out more about things I want to know.	1	2	3
[A] 18.	Tells me of all the things he has done for me.	1	2	3
[A] 19.	Wants to control whatever I do.	1	2	3
[A] 20.	Does not bother to enforce rules.	1	2	3

BEGIN YOUR SECOND ANSWER SHEET. MAKE SURE YOUR SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER IS MARKED IN.

[B] 1.	Makes me feel at ease when I'm with him.	1	2	3
[B] 2.	Thinks that any misbehavior is very serious and will have future consequences.	1	2	3
[B] 3.	Is always finding fault with me.	1	2	3
[B] 4.	Allows me to spend my money in any way I like.	1	2	3
[B] 5.	Often speaks of the good things I do.	1	2	3
[B] 6.	Makes his whole life center about his children.	1	2	3
[B] 7.	Doesn't seem to know what I need or want.	1	2	3
[B] 8.	Sees to it that I keep my clothes neat, clean, and in order.	1	2	3
[B] 9.	Is happy to see me when I come from school or play.	1	2	3
[B] 10.	Questions me in detail about what my friends and I discuss.	1	2	3

[Scoring]		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
[B] 11.	Doesn't give me any peace until I do what he says.	1	2	3
[B] 12.	Insists I follow a rule one day and then forgets about it the next.	1	2	3
[B] 13.	Gives me the choice of what to do whenever possible.	1	2	3
[B] 14.	I can talk him out of an order, if I complain.	1	2	3
[B] 15.	Often makes fun of me.	1	2	3
[B] 16.	If I've hurt his feelings, stops talking to me until I please him again.	1	2	3
[B] 17.	Has a good time at home with me.	1	2	3
[B] 18.	Worries that I can't take care of myself unless he is around.	1	2	3
[B] 19.	Acts as though I'm in the way.	1	2	3
[B] 20.	If I do the least little thing that I shouldn't, he punishes me.	1	2	3
[B] 21.	Hugged and kissed me good night when I was small.	1	2	3
[B] 22.	Says if I really cared for him, I would not do things that cause him to worry.	1	2	3
[B] 23.	Is always trying to change me.	1	2	3
[B] 24.	Let's me get away without doing work I had been given to do.	1	2	3
[B] 25.	Is easy to talk to.	1	2	3
[B] 26.	Says that sooner or later we always pay for bad behavior.	1	2	3
[B] 27.	Wishes I were a different kind of person.	1	2	3

[Scoring]		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
[B] 28.	Let's me go out any evening I want.	1	2	3
[B] 29.	Seems proud of the things I do.	1	2	3
[B] 30.	Spends almost all of his free time with his children.	1	2	3
[B] 31.	Tells me to quit "hanging around the house" and go somewhere.	1	2	3
[B] 32.	I have certain jobs to do and am not allowed to do anything else until they are done.	1	2	3
[B] 33.	Is very interested in what I am learning at school.	1	2	3
[B] 34.	Almost always wants to know who phoned me or wrote to me and what they said.	1	2	3
[B] 35.	Doesn't like the way I act at home.	1	2	3
[B] 36.	Changes his mind to make things easier for himself.	1	2	3
[B] 37.	Let's me do things that other children my age do.	1	2	3
[B] 38.	Can be talked into things easily.	1	2	3
[B] 39.	Often seems glad to get away from me for a while.	1	2	3
[B] 40.	When I upset him, won't have anything to do with me until I find a way to make up.	1	2	3
[B] 41.	Isn't interested in changing me, but likes me as I am.	1	2	3
[B] 42.	Wishes I would stay at home where he could take care of me.	1	2	3
[B] 43.	Makes me feel I'm not loved.	1	2	3
[B] 44.	Has more rules than I can remember, so is often punishing me.	1	2	3

[Scoring]		LIKE	SOMEWHAT LIKE	NOT LIKE
[B] 45.	Says I make him happy.	1	2	3
[B] 46.	When I don't do as he wants, says I'm not grateful for all he has done for me.	1	2	3
[B] 47.	Doesn't let me decide things for myself.	1	2	3
[B] 48.	Let's me get away with a lot of things.	1	2	3
[B] 49.	Tries to be a friend rather than a boss.	1	2	3
[B] 50.	Will talk to me again and again about anything bad I do.	1	2	3
[B] 51.	Is never interested in meeting or talking with my friends.	1	2	3
[B] 52.	Let's me do anything I like to do.	1	2	3

ITEM COMPOSITION OF THE CHILD'S REPORT OF PARENT BEHAVIOR INVENTORY'S SUBTESTS

Factor	Schaffer Scale	Item Numbers
(I)	1-Acceptance	1, 13, 25, 27, 49, 61, 73, 85, 97, 109, B1, B13, B5, B17, B29, B41
(I)	2-Child Centeredness	2, 26, 50, 74, 98, B2, B6, B30
(II)	3-Possessiveness	14, 38, 62, 86, 110, B14, B18, B42
(I)	4-Rejection	3, 15, 27, 39, 51, 63, 75, 87, 99, 111, B3, B15, B7, B19, B31, B43
(III)	5-Control	4, 28, 52, 76, 100, B4, B8, B32
(III)	6-Enforcement	16, 40, 64, 88, 112, B16, B20, B44
(I)	7-Positive Involvement	5, 17, 29, 41, 53, 65, 77, 89, 101, 113, B5, B17, B9, B21, B33, B45
(II)	8-Intrusiveness	6, 30, 54, 78, 102, B6, B10, B34, 18, 42, 66, 90, 114, B18, B22, B46
(II)	9-Control through Guilt	18, 42, 66, 90, 114, B18, B22, B46
(II)	10-Hostile Control	7, 19, 31, 43, 55, 67, 79, 91, 103, 115, B7, B19, B11, B23, B35, B47
(II)	11-Inconsistent Discipline	8, 32, 56, 80, 104, B8, B12, B36
(III)	12-Nonenforcement	20, 44, 68, 92, 116, B20, B24, B48
(I)	13-Acceptance of Individuation	9, 21, 33, 45, 577, 69, 81, 93, 105, 117, B9, B1, B13, B25, B37, B49
(III)	14-Lax Discipline	10, 34, 58, 82, 106, B10, B14, B38
(II)	15-Instilling Persistent Anxiety	22, 46, 70, 94, 118, B2, B26, B50
(I)	16-Hostile Detachment	11, 23, 35, 47, 59, 71, 83, 95, 107, 119, B11, B3, B15, B27, B39, B51
(III)	17-Withdrawal Relations	12, 36, 60, 84, 108, B12, B16, B40
(III)	18-Extreme Autonomy	24, 48, 72, 96, 120, B4, B28, B52

Note: Score by assigning the value of 3 to Like, 2 to Somewhat Like, and 1 to Not Like

APPENDIX D

TWELVE FACTORS FROM SECOND FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE REAL FORM OF THE PHENOMENOLOGICAL FATHERING SCALE

TWELVE FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE REAL FORM OF PHENOMENOLOGICAL FATHERING SCALE

Items listed in order of highest to lowest loading within factor.

FACTOR I

56) He enjoyed having me around.

2) He was proud of me.

41) He was protective of me.

49) He was responsive to and supportive of my interests.

57) When he was present, if I was hurt he was concerned and made sure I was all right.

23) He always picked me up on time.

43) He believed I could do anything I put my mind to.

51) He was on my side when I got in trouble.

loaded higher on another factor--28 He was warm and snuggly.

46) He gave me piggyback rides, tickled me, tossed me, etc.

loaded higher on other factors--13 He liked to take me places.

58) If I had a problem, he would solve it for me.

FACTOR II

3) He was proud of me. (negative)

9) He spanked me.

67) He yelled at me.

62) He was critical of my table manners and eating habits.

55) He did most of the punishing.

11) When I was discouraged or failing in school or an activity, he became angry and critical.

6) I was afraid of him.

68) It was hard to know at times what he would be angered by and punish.

64) He was grouchy.

29) He felt there was a logical reasonable way of living, and let me know if I was not behaving in that way.

very weak--26) he disliked crying.

FACTOR III

24) When a problem arose, he asked for my opinion.

FACTOR V

31) I respected him as a person.

16) When I was out in public with him I felt embarrassed. (negative)

17) He was basically happy.

8) I was proud of him.

14) I felt like he did not love me. (negative)

FACTOR VI

50) He wanted to know where I was going to play.

38) It was important to him to know with whom I was playing.

loaded higher on another factor--41 He was protective of me.

53) He brought me treats and suprises he knew I would like.

FACTOR VII

60) He was busy with outside activities.

4) He was out of town.

Loaded higher elsewhere--37 I felt like he was not around enough.

61) He was so talkative it was hard to get a word in edgewise.

FACTOR VIII

20) It was hard to know what would make him angry at times, what I would be punished for.

5) He was not affectionately demonstrative.

loaded higher on another factor--68 It was hard to know what he would be angered by and punish.

FACTOR IX

36) He told me he loved me.

18) I told him I loved him.

28) He was warm and snuggly.

FACTOR X

45) He had so much work to do there was little time for me.

37) I felt like he was not around enough.

52) Even when he was around he was too preoccupied to spend much time with me.

44) Very weak - It didn't matter to him where I went or at what time I came in at night.

FACTOR XI

7) He shared humorous stories about his childhood with me.

32) He shared sad stories about his childhood.

33) It was hard to know what he was feeling. (negative)

FACTOR XII

70) He wanted me to do things better than other kids.

APPENDIX E

FOUR FACTORS FROM FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE RECALLED PARENTAL DIVORCE SCALE (RPDS)

QUESTIONS COMPRISING THE FOUR DIVORCE FACTORS

Divorce I--Parent-Child Divorce Adjustment

27) My relationship with Dad before divorce was close.

29) My relationship with Dad after divorce was close.

13) When they divorced I believed it was best for all concerned. (negative)

12) I wished I could've lived with the other parent.

21) My mother was happier after the divorce. (negative)

9) I wished my parents would remarry.

Divorce II--Hostile Parental Involvement

25) One parent asked me for information about the other.

23) One parent told me untrue things about the other.

26) My custodial parent cooperated with visitation and encouraged visits. (negative)

15) When my parents divorced I was worried about my future.

Divorce III--Resolution

22) My father was happier after the divorce.

24) One parent gave me messages to give to the other. (negative)

17) My parents argued after divorce. (negative)

20) I was happier after the divorce.

Divorce IV--Parental Cooperative Involvement

19) My parents were friends after the divorce.

18) My parents made plans for me together after the divorce.

16) My parents talked after the divorce.

8) After the divorce my parents disagreed about how I should be raised. (negative)

APPENDIX F

CORRELATIONAL MATRIX

	DIV1	IDIV2	IDIV3	SCHAF1	SCHAF2	SCHAF3	SCHAF4	SCHAF5	SCHAF6	SCHAF7
DIV1	1.0000**	-0.1641	0.5376*	0.1837	0.1334	0.0895	-0.1509	0.0525	0.3198	0.1212
IDIV2	-0.1641	1.0000**	-0.0699	0.3337	0.2478	-0.3064	-0.3866	-0.2746	-0.2172	0.3906
IDIV3	0.5376*	-0.0699	1.0000**	0.3094	0.1806	0.1272	-0.1265	0.0874	0.2974	0.1892
SCHAF1	0.1837	0.3337	0.3094	1.0000**	0.7755**	-0.0161	-0.7699**	-0.2817	-0.3045	0.8988**
SCHAF2	0.1334	-.2478	0.1806	0.7755**	1.0000**	0.2407	-0.5985**	-0.1833	-0.2997	0.7137**
SCHAF3	0.0895	-0.3064	0.1272	-0.0161	0.2407	1.0000**	0.2891	0.5361*	0.4950*	-0.0328
SCHAF4	-0.1509	-0.3866	-0.1265	-0.7699**	-0.5985**	0.2891	1.0000**	0.6246**	0.5493*	-0.7329**
SCHAF5	0.0525	-0.2746	0.0874	-0.2817	-0.1833	0.5361*	0.6246**	1.0000**	0.8758**	-0.2141
SCHAF6	0.3198	-0.2172	0.2974	-0.3045	-0.2997	0.4950*	0.5493*	0.8758**	1.0000**	-0.2621
SCHAF7	0.1212	0.3906	0.1892	0.8988**	0.7137**	-0.0328	-0.7329**	-0.2141	-0.2621	1.0000**
SCHAF8	0.1517	-0.2058	0.0853	-0.1649	-0.0567	0.7580**	0.4770*	0.7017**	0.6686**	-0.1069
SCHAF9	-0.0747	-0.2321	0.0109	-0.6359**	-0.4226	0.4345	0.7944**	0.5941**	0.5738*	-0.6415**
SCHAF10	0.0657	-0.1943	-0.0138	-0.5778**	-0.3981	0.5713*	0.7785**	0.7842**	0.7476**	-0.4955*
SCHAF11	-0.2388	-0.1133	0.0850	-0.3291	-0.1857	0.3971	0.6064**	0.4121	0.2066	-0.3823
SCHAF12	0.1708	-0.0978	0.0483	0.2287	0.1305	0.0439	-0.1030	-0.3688	-0.4025	0.1444
SCHAF13	0.1083	0.4122	0.1402	0.9180**	0.7238**	-0.2498	-0.8932**	-0.5201*	-0.5288*	0.8534**
SCHAF14	0.0058	0.0733	0.0702	0.3437	0.3273	0.1900	-0.2509	-0.3986	-0.4692*	0.2855
SCHAF15	-0.0789	-0.3526	-0.1001	-0.5724*	-0.3589	0.5842**	0.8238**	0.7193**	0.6367**	-0.4982*
SCHAF16	-0.1414	-0.3531	-0.2646	-0.8997**	-0.8065**	-0.0049	0.8683**	0.3609	0.3744	-0.8486**
SCHAF17	-0.0772	-0.3538	0.0196	-0.5055*	-0.2823	-0.5650*	0.8214**	0.5654*	0.4411	00.5275*
SCHAF18	0.1457	0.1918	0.0327	0.5948**	0.4820*	-0.2470	-0.7147**	-0.7845**	-0.7289**	0.5030
DEATH8	0.4215	0.1218	0.0180	0.1132	0.2511	0.2557	0.0168	0.0406	0.0589	0.0494
DEATH10	0.4215	0.1218	0.0180	0.1132	0.2511	0.2557	0.0168	0.0406	0.0589	0.0494
RETOT71	0.1619	-0.3442	-0.1393	-0.7657**	-0.5931**	-0.1807	0.5173*	0.0506	0.1157	-0.6745**
IDTOT71	0.0367	-0.2294	-0.0553	-0.3692	-0.4836*	-0.3410	0.3568	0.0185	0.0499	-0.2328
DSTOT71	0.0038	0.2994	0.1179	0.7674**	0.5959**	-0.2887	-0.6659**	-0.4149	-0.5077*	0.8090**
DSPARTOT	0.2136	-0.1343	0.2277	-0.0560	-0.0718	-0.2251	0.1355	0.0948	0.1368	0.0244

* - Signif. Le .01 ** - Signif. Le .001 (99.0000 is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed)

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DIV3 - Factor III of the Recall of Parental Divorce Scale (RPDS)
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IDTOT71 - Ideal form of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS)
DSTOT71 - Discrepancy score form of the Phenomenological Fathering Scale (PFS)
DSPARTOT - Discrepancy score form of the Perception of Parental Marital Relationship

	SCHAF8	SCHAF9	SCHAF10	SCHAF11	SCHAF12	SCHAF13	SCHAF14	SCHAF15	SCHAF16	SCHAF17
DIV1	0.1517	-0.0747	0.0657	-0.2388	0.1708	0.1083	0.0058	-0.0789	-0.1414	-0.0772
IDIV2	-0.2058	-0.2321	-0.1943	-0.1133	-0.0978	0.4122	0.0733	-0.3526	-0.3531	-0.3538
IDIV3	0.0853	0.0109	-0.0138	0.0850	0.0483	0.1402	0.0702	-0.1001	-0.2646	0.0196
SCHAF1	-0.1649	-0.6395**	-0.5778**	-0.3291	0.2287	0.9180**	0.3437	-0.5724*	-0.8997**	-0.5055*
SCHAF2	-0.0567	-0.4226	-0.3981	-0.1857	0.1305	0.7238**	0.3273	-0.3589	-0.8065**	-0.2823
SCHAF3	0.7580**	0.4345	0.5713*	0.3971	0.0439	-0.2498	0.1900	0.5842**	-0.0049	0.5650*
SCHAF4	0.4770*	0.7944**	0.7785**	0.6064**	-0.1030	-0.8932**	-0.2509	0.8238**	0.8683**	0.8214**
SCHAF5	0.7017**	0.5941**	0.7842**	0.4121	-0.3688	-0.5201*	-0.3986	0.7193**	0.3609	0.5654*
SCHAF6	0.6686**	0.5738*	0.7476**	0.2066	-0.4025	-0.5288*	-0.4692*	0.6367**	0.3744	0.4411
SCHAF7	-0.1069	-0.6415**	-0.4955*	-0.3823	0.1444	0.8534**	0.2855	-0.4982*	-0.8486**	-0.5275*
SCHAF8	1.0000**	0.4570*	0.7511**	0.5330*	-0.0967	-0.3704	0.0504	0.7599**	0.2725	0.6194**
SCHAF9	0.4570*	1.0000**	0.8031**	0.6718**	-0.1784	-0.8384**	-0.1114	0.8261**	0.5991**	0.8191**
SCHAF10	0.7511**	0.8031**	1.0000**	0.6462**	-0.1702	-0.7542**	-0.1280	0.8731**	0.5921**	0.8144**
SCHAF11	0.5330*	0.6718**	0.6462**	1.0000**	0.1516	-0.5162*	0.3132	0.6774**	0.4001	0.8246**
SCHAF12	-0.0967	-0.1784	-0.1702	0.1516	1.0000**	0.2008	0.7919**	-0.1372	-0.1056	0.0970
SCHAF13	-0.3704	-0.8384**	-0.7542**	-0.5162*	0.2008	1.0000**	0.3032	-0.7622**	-0.8743**	-0.7131**
SCHAF14	0.0504	-0.1114	-0.1280	0.3132	0.7919**	0.3032	1.0000**	-0.0331	-0.3070	0.1531
SCHAF15	0.7599**	0.8261**	0.8731**	0.6774**	-0.1372	-0.7622**	-0.0331	1.0000**	0.6386**	0.8605**
SCHAF16	0.2725	0.5991**	0.5921**	0.4001	-0.1056	-0.8743**	-0.3070	0.6386**	1.0000**	0.5618*
SCHAF17	0.6194**	0.8191**	0.8144**	0.8246**	0.0970	-0.7131**	0.1531	0.8605**	0.5618*	1.0000**
SCHAF18	-0.4846*	-0.6315**	-0.7117**	-0.4103	0.4855*	0.7423**	0.5590*	-0.6378**	-0.5890**	-0.5219*
DEATH8	0.2408	-0.0271	0.2338	-.1325	0.3528	0.0854	0.3470	0.0947	0.0031	0.1949
DEATH10	0.2408	-0.0271	0.2338	0.1325	0.3528	0.0854	0.3470	0.0947	0.0031	0.1949
RETOT71	0.0011	0.3963	0.3706	0.1663	-0.0395	-0.6624**	-0.1440	0.2921	0.6717**	0.3313
IDTOT71	-0.0851	-0.0525	0.0652	-0.0565	0.1171	-0.3141	-0.1174	0.0263	0.4634*	0.0274
DSTOT71	-0.4281	-0.8281**	-0.6893**	-0.4626*	0.2538	0.8313**	0.0943	-0.7155**	-0.6864**	-0.6244**
DSPARTOT	-0.2132	0.0252	-0.0339	-0.1089	0.1488	-0.1166	-0.0684	0.0574	0.2005	-0.0163

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	SCHAF18	DEATH8	DEATH10	RETOT71	IDTOT71	DSTOT71	DSPARTOT
DIV1	0.1457	0.4215	0.4215	0.1619	0.0367	0.0038	0.2136
IDIV2	0.1918	0.1218	0.1218	-0.3442	-0.2294	0.2994	-0.1343
IDIV3	0.0327	0.0180	0.0180	-0.1393	-0.0553	0.1179	0.2277
SCHAF1	0.5948**	0.1132	0.1132	-0.7657**	-0.3692	9.7674**	-0.0560
SCHAF2	0.4820*	0.2511	0.2511	-0.5931**	-0.4836*	0.5959**	-0.0718
SCHAF3	-0.2470	0.2557	0.2557	-0.1807	-0.3410	-0.2887	-0.2251
SCHAF4	-0.7147**	0.0168	0.0168	0.5173*	0.3568	-0.6659**	0.1355
SCHAF5	-0.7845**	0.0406	0.0406	0.0506	0.0185	-0.4149	0.0948
SCHAF6	-0.7289**	0.0589	0.0589	0.1157	0.0499	-0.5077*	0.1368
SCHAF7	0.5030*	0.0494	0.0494	-0.6745**	-0.2328	0.8090**	0.0244
SCHAF8	-0.4846*	0.2408	0.2408	0.0011	-0.0851	-0.4281	-0.2132
SCHAF9	-0.6315**	-0.0271	-0.0271	0.3963	-0.0525	-0.8281**	0.0262
SCHAF10	-0.7117**	0.2338	0.2338	0.3706	0.0652	-0.6893**	-0.0339
SCHAF11	-0.4103	0.1325	0.1325	0.1663	-0.0565	-0.4626*	-0.1089
SCHAF12	0.4855*	0.3528	0.3528	-0.0395	0.1171	0.2538	0.1488
SCHAF13	0.7423**	0.0854	0.0854	-0.6624**	-0.3141	0.8313**	-0.1166
SCHAF14	0.5590*	0.3470	0.3470	-0.1440	-0.1174	0.1943	-0.0684
SCHAF15	-0.6378**	0.0947	0.0947	0.2921	0.0263	-0.7155**	0.0574
SCHAF16	-0.5890**	0.0031	0.0031	0.6717**	0.4634*	-0.6864**	0.2005
SCHAF17	-0.5219*	0.1949	0.1949	0.3313	0.0274	-0.6244**	-0.0163
SCHAF18	1.0000**	0.1125	0.1125	-0.3277	-0.1881	0.5872**	-0.0620
DEATH8	0.1125	1.0000**	1.0000**	0.0414	-0.0659	0.0431	0.0510
DEATH10	0.1125	1.0000**	1.0000**	0.0414	-0.0659	0.0431	0.0510
RETOT71	-0.3277	0.0414	0.0414	1.0000**	0.6164**	-0.5098*	0.1640
IDTOT71	-0.1881	-0.0659	-0.0659	0.6164**	1.0000**	0.0649	0.3392
DSTOT71	0.5872**	0.0431	0.0431	-0.5098*	0.0649	1.0000**	0.1358
DSPARTOT	-0.0620	0.0510	0.0510	0.1640	0.3392	0.1358	1.0000**

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APPENDIX G

WRITTEN SUBJECTS' COMMENTS

COMMENTS

My real father was a Municipal Court Judge and a Detroit Recorder's Ct. Visiting Judge. He had 7 children between ages 6 and 14 then he died; consequently we rarely received individualized attention. I think I had the best relationship with him out of all my brothers and sisters, though. He often took me to work, concerns, driving in parades, etc.

I was the youngest of three children. I had two older brothers who were 4 and 8 years older than me. My father treated the two boys very differently than me. They were punished more often and more severely than I. He almost never punished me and it was very rare if he really ever got angry at me. I was my father's "little girl," his "little princess." He catered to me as much as he possibly could. He did however try not to spoil me too much. He also tried to instill in me a sense of appreciation. Although he did not punish me often he would try and talk to me when I did something wrong and teach me a sense of "right and wrong." On the whole he was a very loving and understanding man and we had a very good relationship as father and daughter. That is basically what stands out in my mind about him, even though I was only 9 when he died.

While answering some of these questions I found it difficult to do so in the way that I thought would be right and in a way fair to my father. You seem to have failed to take into consideration the number of children in a family. Since I am from a "large" family (nine brothers and sisters) I found it awkward answering questions that seemed directed to females with fewer brothers and sisters.

Questions such as "Usually makes me the center of his attention" led me to believe that I should answer 'not like my father' because he could not spend all his time making me the center of his attention--there were nine others that needed his attention. Yet I answered it was like my father because he paid attention to me when he could. Was that the correct response?--I don't know.

Overall, I hope my survey helps in your research. Thanks for listening to my comments.

Good luck,
396-80-7361

Thank you for making up such a neat survey--I never had a chance to express my true feelings and thoughts about my father before. He wasn't/isn't a bad father, but he never has time for any of his children--all daughters. Many times I have felt like I am a disappointment to him because I wasn't a boy. I know he wanted one.