

A SOCIALIZATION MODEL OF CHILDREN'S PERCEIVED PURCHASE INFLUENCE:
FAMILY TYPE, HIERARCHY, AND PARENTING PRACTICES

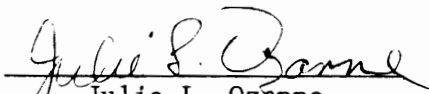
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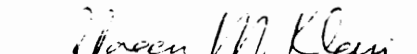
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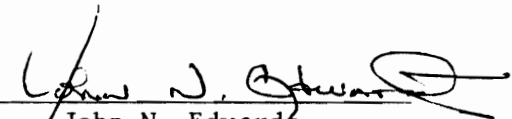
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this dissertation was to investigate how and why children's influence in purchase decisions might vary under different types of families. It was conceptualized that children in different types of families are socialized into different status roles and that these differences in socialization, in turn, would have varied implications for children's influence. Specifically, it was hypothesized that peerness in parent-child relations and children's household responsibility would be greatest in single-parent families, less in reconstituted families, and least in intact families. In addition, parental coalition formation, parental restrictiveness, and parental nurturance were expected to be greatest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families. Children's influence was hypothesized to be positively related to peerness, household responsibility, and nurturance, and negatively related to parental coalitions and restrictiveness. Hypotheses were tested using convenience samples of adolescents and one of their parents. Results generally failed to support the model: however, a number of methodological limitations that may have affected the study's outcomes were also present.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Although in the past many studies on family decision-making often excluded children as important influencers in family purchase decisions, recently there has been an increasing recognition that children can and do play an important role in family buying behavior. Academic studies have found that children have at least some influence in many different types of product decisions, particularly in decisions for low-priced packaged goods for family consumption and in decisions about products that they will use. These results parallel the conventional wisdom that children are important participants in family purchase decisions. For example, one analysis found that, in 1985, teenagers spent \$65 billion on products for themselves and their families (Hauser 1988). Younger children are also seen to have a role in family purchase decision-making, as witnessed by the much-debated practice of advertising to children.

Thus, children's influence is a topic worthy of research interest for at least two reasons. First, if academicians wish to fully understand family consumer behavior, children's purchase influence should be taken into account. Second, given the scope of the financial impact that children have on spending, understanding children's influence is important to practitioners as well. In fact, one recent survey of marketing practitioners indicated that understanding children's influence is the number one concern of practitioners involved in children's research (Harrigan 1991).

Various theoretical approaches to studying children's influence have been employed. The most common explanation used to study children's in-

fluence has been socialization theory. Within socialization studies of children's influence, research has tended to concentrate on the family as the primary socialization agent. Research has investigated how children's influence is affected by family socialization processes, such as the family communication environment. One family socialization process that is likely to have a substantial impact on children's influence is parental child-rearing practices. Specifically, certain types of parents may be more open to children's influencing of purchase decisions than are other types of parents.

One study (Carlson and Grossbart 1988) has investigated how parental styles, which are composed of the underlying dimensions of warmth and restrictiveness, affect parent-child communication about consumption, of which children's influence was one indicator. This study found that parental styles were significantly related to consumption communication, with greater parent-child communication occurring under the most warm types of parents. However, because children's influence was used as one indicator of consumption communication along with three other variables, the effects of parenting practices on children's influence cannot be determined on the basis of this study. In addition, this study did not examine how parenting practices are affected by family type (i.e., single-parent, reconstituted, and intact families), even though there is considerable reason to believe that family type has a substantial impact on parenting practices.

Indeed, one of the most glaring oversights of research on children's influence has been the failure to consider how family type may affect children's influence. There is considerable evidence to suggest that parent-child relations vary on the basis of family type (see, e.g.,

Hetherington 1981, Wallerstein and Blakeslee 1989, Weiss 1979a, among others). These differing parent-child relations are likely to have implications for children's influence in purchase decisions. However, most studies on children's influence have used intact, nuclear families as the normative criterion of study. Only one descriptive study (Darley and Lim 1986) has examined influence in dual-parent (families in which two parents are present) versus single-parent (families in which one parent is present) families: however, this study made no distinction between intact (families in which two original parents are present) and reconstituted (families in which one original parent and one step-parent are present) families (both were presumably treated as dual-parent families). Similarly, no theoretically based study, including those based on socialization explanations, has accounted for the how family type may affect the processes that are used to explain children's influence, such as parental socialization factors.

By using the intact family as the normative criterion of study, we are confining our understanding of children's influence to one family type. The relative oversight of other types of families is especially problematic, given that alternative family forms, such as single-parent and reconstituted families, are increasing. For example, the number of single-parent families has doubled from that found in 1970 and, today, one out of four families with children are headed by single parents (Demo and Acock 1988). A similar pattern exists for reconstituted families. Currently, 14 percent of American families with children are reconstituted families, up from 9.3 percent in 1980 (Glick 1989). Finally, on the basis of current trends, one study has estimated that 60 percent of today's children will live in a single-parent household sometime during

their childhood (Norton and Glick 1986). Given this diversity of family types, there is a need to broaden the scope of research on children's influence to include other family types in addition to intact, nuclear families.

In relation to studies of socialization effects on children's influence, there is evidence to suggest that children in different types of families are treated differently by parents: these differences in family relationships across family types may have critical implications for children's roles in family purchase decisions. For example, family type has been shown to have a substantial impact on parental socialization practices, which have been used to explain consumption communication (and, indirectly, children's influence).

To address the relative oversight of how family type affects children's influence and to explore how family type is likely to affect parenting practices, this dissertation will develop a socialization model for children's influence that examines how family type affects children's influence indirectly through its effects on socialization processes. Specifically, using the theory of hierarchy (Nock 1988), we will argue that children in different types of families are socialized into different status roles and that this differential socialization affects children's influence.

A related goal of this research is to explore in greater depth Carlson and Grossbart's (1988) result for a significant association between parenting practices and consumption communication (for which children's influence was used as one indicator) by "isolating" the variable of children's influence and systematically investigating how parenting practices (nurturance and restrictiveness) affect children's influence.

Because parenting practices are concerned with child socialization, and differences in child socialization may affect children's influence, parenting practices are likely to have implications for the level of children's influence.

According to the theory of hierarchy, status role socialization varies by family type. At one extreme, family status roles are characterized by high hierarchy, a role pattern in which children's status is inferior to that of adults. In contrast, in lower hierarchy families, there is greater equality in status roles between parents and children. Certain structural properties of the family, such as the number of adults present in the household and children's length of exposure to status-role models, are seen to affect the hierarchy of status role socialization. Specifically, intact families are conceptualized to be most hierarchical because two adults are present in the family (and two adults are likely to support each other's views and form coalitions to keep children subordinate) and children have not been exposed to less hierarchical role models. Single-parent families are viewed as being least hierarchical because only one adult is present (and therefore, there is no other adult present to reinforce a single-parent's authority) and children have been exposed to less hierarchical role models. Reconstituted families are conceptualized to lie between these two extremes: two adults are present but children have also been exposed to less hierarchical role models prior to remarriage.

Thus, we conceptualize that children in different types of families are socialized differently and that this differing socialization will affect children's influence in purchase decisions. Specifically, we expect that family type will be related to differences in parental

restrictiveness and nurturance (the two underlying dimensions of parental styles), children's household roles, the peerness of parent-child relations, and the extent to which parents form coalitions in relation to children. These five socialization factors, in turn, are conceptualized to differentially and directly affect children's influence in child-versus family-related product decisions.

This dissertation will be structured as follows. In chapter 2, we will review the conceptual approaches that have been used to study children's influence and the substantive results that previous descriptive research has found for the phenomenon. The theoretical and descriptive research will then be integrated into a socialization model of children's influence. This model will then be used to evaluate the existing state of knowledge regarding children's influence. We will also review and critically evaluate past research on this topic at the methodological level. In chapter 3, we will discuss the theory of hierarchy, review literature pertaining to the theory, and then develop our research hypotheses (model) about family type's effects on socialization processes and children's influence. In chapter 4, we present the methodology used for testing the model presented in chapter 3. Chapter 5 presents the results of hypotheses tests and related analyses. Finally, in chapter 6, we discuss limitations of the study and offer some suggestions for future research on children's influence.

OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER TWO

This chapter begins with a review of the conceptual approaches that have been used to study children's influence. These theoretical ap-

proaches include: resource theory, social power, and socialization theory. Of the three approaches, socialization explanations are the most common. We adopt a socialization perspective in this research because, although the other theories may provide useful insights into the phenomenon, we view socialization as a more basic process than the relative resource contribution or power bases of children (children's resources or power bases are likely to depend, in part, on family socialization processes).

Next, we review the substantive results of previous descriptive studies on children's influence. On the basis of this review, we conclude that descriptive studies have found children's influence to vary by: family and child sociodemographic variables, parental attitudes, family media habits and attitudes, and the situational factors of product type, subdecision, and decision stage.

We then present a socialization model for children's influence that is based on Moschis and Churchill's (1978) model of consumer socialization. We use this model to integrate the theoretical socialization studies and the results of descriptive research. This model, in turn, is used to evaluate the existing state of knowledge regarding children's influence.

Finally, we review methodological considerations in previous research on children's influence. On the basis of this review, we conclude that the most serious methodological problem of past research children's influence has been the inadequate attention paid to construct validity.

OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER THREE

In this chapter, the theory of hierarchy is reviewed in detail. Although this theory has not been empirically tested, we review literature that provides support for the theory's logic. A socialization model of children's influence that is partially based on the theory of hierarchy is then developed. Specifically, drawing on the theory of hierarchy, family type is conceptualized to pattern various aspects of parent-child relationships, such as the degree of peerness between parents and children, the degree to which children are given household responsibility, the extent to which coalitions are formed between parents, and the degree of parental restrictiveness. Moreover, it is from these patterns of social interactions in the family that children are socialized into status roles. These socialization factors, in turn, are conceptualized to affect children's influence in purchase decisions.

Although it is not part of the theory of hierarchy, we also conceptualize family type to be related to differences in parental nurturance. Nurturance, in turn, is viewed as affecting children's influence along with the other four socialization factors of peerness, children's household responsibility, parental coalition formation, and parental restrictiveness. The effects of family type and the socialization factors on influence are also expected to differ by product type, or whether the product is used by the family versus the child.

The chapter concludes with a discussion of the specific research hypotheses.

OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER FOUR

In this chapter, we review the research methodology used to test the model developed in chapter 3. Specifically, the analysis technique used to evaluate the mediational model of family type's effects on children's influence is outlined. Mediation was tested by a series of regression analyses according to the three step procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986).

Next, the sampling procedure used in the study is detailed. Data were collected from a convenience sample of adolescents and one of their parents (the parent who was most involved in the consumer socialization of the adolescent). Respondents were recruited from an urban-area high school. The recruitment of schools is also outlined in this section.

We then discuss operationalizations of constructs. Because many of the constructs included in the model had not been previously studied, two pretests were conducted to develop measures. One pretest included parents of teenagers, and the other consisted of high-school students. Results of the pretests and the specific construct operationalizations are discussed in detail. On the basis of pretest results, two final versions of the survey were developed, one for parents and one for teens.

The chapter concludes with a review of the data collection procedure. In brief, students completed surveys in class. Students then delivered the parent's survey to the parent who was most involved in the student's consumer socialization. Parents completed surveys at home and returned questionnaires to school via the adolescent.

OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER FIVE

This chapter reports the results of hypotheses tests and related analyses. First, the characteristics of the teen and parent samples are described. The operationalizations used in the study are then outlined, and the construct validity of the measures is evaluated. Next, a number of preliminary analyses are carried out, including an assessment of potential biases (such as nonresponse bias) and a validity-check analysis for the hypothesized ordering of family types. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the hypothesis test results.

In general, results indicated relatively little support for the model developed here. In particular, family type was found to have relatively little effect on the socialization variables included in the study or on children's influence. In addition, the effects of the socialization variables on children's influence demonstrated little consistency across the two samples.

OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER SIX

This chapter begins with a brief description of the study. Next, results of the analyses are systematically discussed in depth. The various limitations associated with the dissertation are then reviewed, and the research implications of these limitations are discussed. The chapter concludes with some possible directions for future research on children's influence.

With regard to limitations, a number of methodological problems were present in this study. There were problems with the construct validity of some measures, especially the dependent measures. In addition, because sample sizes were small, the study was, in general, underpowered. Non-

response bias also seemed to be present in the parent analysis. Finally, the study focused on only one parent in the family; therefore, results may have been different if both parents had been sampled.

These methodological limitations may have been responsible for the relatively poor performance of the model. However, results tended to indicate that further attention needs to be directed toward understanding socialization effects in reconstituted families, in particular. Indeed, in some cases in which significant results were found, the order of means across family types was counter to that expected. And in most of these cases, it was the order of reconstituted families that differed. For example, the validity check for status-role socialization indicated that status roles were most hierarchical in reconstituted families rather than in intact families, as expected. Whether this result was due to method-related factors or to an actual difference should be addressed in the future. Perhaps family types differ on other factors, besides the number of adults present and children's length of exposure to status role models, that affect family socialization processes.

The results most consistent with the model were those for parental coalition in the parents' analysis. Children's influence decreased with increasing parental coalition formation. Also, the greatest degree of parental coalition formation was found for intact families, and the least for single-parent families. Thus, parental coalition formation seems to be a construct that is worthy of further investigation in understanding children's influence.

SUMMARY

In sum, even though American families are becoming increasingly diverse, most of the past research on children's influence has focused on influence variations in intact families. Given that many aspects of family relationships have been found to vary on the basis of family type, however, it seemed likely that family type would also have implications for children's influence in purchase decisions. This dissertation sought to address this gap in the literature by presenting a socialization explanation for how family type might affect children's influence. This chapter presented a brief overview of how this idea was explored in the present study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, we will review previous research on children's influence in purchase decisions. First, we will review the theoretical approaches that have been used to study children's influence. These approaches include resource theory, social power, and socialization theory. After reviewing these theoretical approaches, we will examine prior descriptive results concerning children's influence. The results of these descriptive studies will then be integrated into a socialization model of children's influence. This model will then be used to evaluate previous research on children's influence at the conceptual level. Finally, we will review and evaluate previous research on children's influence at the methodological level.

THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO STUDYING CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE

As will be demonstrated below, traditionally, research on children's influence in family purchase decisions has been a- theoretical and descriptive. However, several recent studies have attempted to explain the phenomenon of children's influence in a theoretical context. These theoretical approaches include: resource theory, social power, and socialization theory.

Resource Theory

Resource theory was originally developed to explain spousal decision-making patterns (Blood and Wolfe 1960). The theory's basic tenet is that those in a relationship who control and contribute more resources

will have more power and influence in decision-making. In examining the tendency of husbands to dominate decision-making, Blood and Wolfe asserted that husband- dominance occurred because, traditionally, men possessed and contributed more socioeconomic resources to the family than did wives. Men tended to be better educated and to hold higher prestige jobs than did women, and men's earnings were often the family's primary source of income. Consequently, men had greater power in and were able to dominate many family decisions.

In applying resource theory to the study of children's influence in purchase decisions, Foxman, Tansuhaj and Ekstrom (1989b) used a broadened concept of resources. Specifically, the child's personal resources were conceptualized to include: the child's income level and employment status, the child's school grades, birth order and the presence or absence of siblings (with first-born and only children having more birth status resources); and parents' love of and confidence in the child. In accordance with the basic tenet of resource theory, Foxman et al. hypothesized that the greater the child's personal resources, the greater is children's influence in family purchase decisions.

Foxman et al.'s results generally supported the hypothesized positive relationship between children's personal resources and their influence in family decision-making. Using both child- and family-related products, they found that children's influence was greater the more income children had and the better the child's grades were (Table 1). For a measure of generalized influence, children with higher grades and those in whom parents had high confidence had greater influence than children with lower grades and those in whom parents had low confidence.

It is interesting that children's birth placement was found to have no statistically significant effect on either product influence or general influence. The authors do not offer an explanation for this result; however, since this study combined birth order and only-child status into one variable (i.e., birth placement), it may be that one or both of these factors are not important resources for adolescents (the age-group that was studied). Of the two, birth order seems less likely to be a resource for adolescents than is only-child status. Although results of this study did not support an effect for only-child status, it seems logical that only-child status would be an important resource for children in that parents have no alternative resources for child-related benefits in this situation. Moreover, only children lack siblings with whom to compete for parental attention. In contrast, it is difficult to view birth order as a resource for older children. Parents are likely to interact more (and value interactions more) with adolescents than with younger children irrespective of birth order. By adolescence, most children have achieved a sufficient degree of cognitive development such that they are able to reason more like an adult. Consequently, parents may find it easier to interact with adolescents (at least for activities such as purchase decision-making) than with younger children. The speculations outlined above warrant further study, along with examining other resources that children may have in family decision-making.

Resource theory has been criticized on a number of grounds (MacDonald 1980, Safilios-Rothschild 1970, 1976; Szinovacz 1987). One criticism of Blood and Wolfe's original formulation has been that their definition of resources as socioeconomic and tangible in nature is too narrow. These critics argue that the concept of resources should be broadened to include

interpersonal and affective resources since these types of resources also influence power relations and decision-making, perhaps more than socioeconomic ones do (Safilios-Rothschild 1970, 1976).

In considering children's influence in decision-making, if resources are confined to tangible, socioeconomic ones, it is difficult to envision children having much influence because of their relatively low possession of these types of resources. However, if the concept of resources is broadened to include affective and interpersonal ones, as Foxman et al. did, then clearly children often do possess resources that they can use to increase their power and influence in decision-making. (The fact that children have been found to have power and influence in decision-making argues for a broadened concept of resources.)

Resource theory has also been criticized for failing to account for the relative scarcity of resources, or the availability of alternative sources for a given resource (Safilios-Rothschild 1976; Szinovacz 1987). Essentially, these criticisms center on the degree of other's dependence on a particular family member for a resource. If a party in a relationship has few or no alternative sources for a given resource, then (s)he "is willing to pay a high price even for a moderate degree of benefit" (Safilios-Rothschild 1976). For example, if parents place a high value on a resource that only the child possesses (grades may be one example), then children's power and influence are enhanced.

It is interesting to note that many of the criticisms leveled at resource theory can be addressed by incorporating it into the broader theory of social exchange (Blau 1964; Emerson 1962; Homans 1961, 1974; Thibault and Kelly 1959). Indeed, many scholars have argued that resource theory is nothing more than a special (and poorly developed) case of so-

cial exchange theory (Safilios-Rothschild 1976; Scanzoni 1979). Resources (or reinforcers, rewards, or benefits) are a central concept in social exchange theory. And social exchange theory's comparison level for alternatives (Thibault and Kelly 1959) specifically addresses resource scarcity. Moreover, an important assumption of social exchange theory is that a resource is such by virtue of the value another places on it (Emerson 1981). Resource theory failed to explicitly consider the point that, for something to be considered as a resource, it must be valued by others in the relationship (Szinovacz 1987).

One flaw that resource theory and social exchange theory share is that what counts as a resource or reward is likely to be person- and situation-specific. For example, some parents may highly value a child's making good grades whereas other parents may not be very concerned with school performance. Similarly, some parents may value a child's being employed (because it may teach the child responsibility, for example) whereas others may not value child's employment at all (because a job may interfere with school performance). Each of these views has opposite implications for children's influence. In addition, some resources may not be transferable across different situations. For example, certain resources of the child may be important in some product decisions but less so in others--child's income may be an important resource in child-related product decisions but less so in family-related product decisions (Foxman et al. did not do separate analyses for child and family products.) In short, defining what is a resource or reward is problematic.

Despite its limitations, resource theory, with a broadened concept of resources, or more generally, social exchange theory, appears to offer some useful insights into explaining children's influence in family pur-

chase decisions. Indeed, many of the bivariate relationships that have been found for children's influence (Table 1) are consistent with and could be incorporated into a resource theoretic or social exchange explanation of children's influence (although this type of integration has not been attempted). The fact that resource theory and social exchange theory are the predominant approaches that family sociologists use to study family power indicates that they have heuristic value and have provided at least some insight into the study of family power (c.f. Szinovacz [1987] and symbolic interactionists such as Boyer [1980]). Although both resource theory and social exchange theory have limitations, they can still be used to aid in understanding children's influence. At the very least, they are an improvement over the typically atheoretical studies that have characterized research on children's influence in the past.

Social Power

Related to resource theory and social exchange theory are various schemes used to classify sources or bases of power. Power bases are "tangible and intangible resources that may originate from personal attributes or the individual's position within the family or other social systems" (Szinovacz 1987, p. 665). Perhaps the most commonly used typology of power bases is that of French and Raven (1959).

French and Raven's typology of bases of power includes five categories. Reward power is based on an actor's perceived ability to mediate rewards for another. Coercive power is based on an actor's perceived ability to mediate punishments for another. Legitimate power is based on a person's belief that another has a right to exert power due to social norms. Referent power is based on a person's liking for or identification

with another. Finally, expert power is based on a person's belief that another is knowledgeable within a given area of expertise. These bases of power do not necessarily operate independently; the use of one base may decrease another base's potency and vice versa. In the influence process, one's ability to change another's opinion is proportional to the strength of the power base one can bring to bear on the other and on the degree of the discrepancy between the two parties' opinions (French 1956).

One can consider the expert, referent, and legitimate bases of power as resources (Szinovacz 1987). An individual can use his/her expertise, the other party's identification with him/her, and norms prescribing authority relations as resources (with "resources" defined in a broad sense) to increase his/her power and influence. The reward and coercive bases of power refer more to how resources are deployed (as rewards or punishments; Szinovacz 1987), which is another way of saying that these two bases are dependent on the presence of, or mediated by, the actor. If bases are considered as resources, the link between French and Raven's typology, and resource and social exchange theories is apparent.

Kim, Lee, and Hall (1991) applied French and Raven's (1959) typology to studying children's influence in decision-making. They hypothesized that adolescent power, as indicated by each of the five bases, would be positively related to children's influence in family purchase decision-making. The authors did not offer separate hypotheses for each of the five bases of power, nor did they explicate how each of these bases should affect children's influence even though one might expect children's influence to rest more on certain bases than on others. It is not surprising that Kim et al. found that children perceived themselves to have reward, legitimate, and referent power, less expert power, and little

coercive power in their relationships with parents. However, results indicated that these bases of power had no statistically significant effect on children's influence for the products considered in this study (which were more broad than the products included in other studies).

The lack of support for the relationship between power bases and children's influence may be due to the fact that influence was measured as how important children thought their parents thought their children were in each of the product decisions. In short, the study did not measure children's perceptions of their own influence (or even parents' perceptions of children's influence), but rather children's perceptions of their parents' perceptions of their importance in a particular decision. With this type of poorly defined and indirect measure, it is questionable whether the construct of influence was tapped at all.

In addition, many of the measures that Kim et al. used for each of the power bases did not fit the context of the study. This is probably because the authors borrowed these indicators, with only slight modifications, from another study. For example, although expertise is conceptually domain-specific, the authors' measures of expertise covered such things as knowing how to get a good education rather than relating to children's expertise in a given product area. In sum, due to problems of construct validity, this study was an inadequate test of the relationship between power bases and children's influence, a relationship that is intuitively appealing and worthy of further investigation.

It should be noted that French and Raven's typology is not an exhaustive listing of all possible power bases (or resources). Over the years, various scholars have added (their own, often relatively idiosyncratic) bases to the typology to fit their particular research

interests (Raven and Kruglanski's [1970] addition of information as a basis of social power is one example), or have developed different typologies of power bases. A comprehensive typology of power bases has not yet been developed (perhaps this is not possible), but French and Ravens's work provides a useful starting point, as evidenced by its application in so many disciplines and contexts. In addition to further exploring how French and Raven's bases affect children's influence, it would be interesting to examine what other power bases children may draw on to increase their power and influence in decision-making.

Socialization Theory

Socialization is the process of social interaction by which an individual acquires his/her personality and the ways of his/her society (Gecas 1981).¹ Ward (1974 P.1) defines consumer socialization as "processes by which young people acquire skills, knowledge, and attitudes relevant to their functioning as consumers in the marketplace."² As such,

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Although many authors often confuse the terms, "socialization" is distinct from "development." Development refers to age-graded, sequential (cognitive) stages through which an individual progresses (Bush and Simmons 1981; Moschis and Churchill 1978; Moschis and Moore 1979). In contrast, socialization refers to social interaction between individuals and the outcomes of this interaction (i.e., acquisition of values, norms, attitudes, roles, and behaviors).

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Although this research, and Ward's definition, is confined to "young people," it should be noted that socialization is a life-long process (Bush and Simmons 1981). Since socialization results from social interaction, one is constantly learning from the significant others which whom one interacts--parents, spouses, one's own children and grand-children, for example.

consumer socialization is embedded within the larger context of socialization in general.

In marketing, socialization has been used to explain children's brand evaluations (Moschis and Moore 1979), materialism (Carlson and Grossbart 1988; Moschis and Churchill 1978, 1979; Moore and Moschis 1981), and exposure to mass media and/or the ability to filter advertising "puffery" (Grossbart and Crosby 1984; Moschis 1984; Moschis and Churchill 1979, 1979; Moschis and Moore 1979; Ward and Wackman 1972). Recently, socialization has been used to explain children's influence in purchase decisions (Carlson, Grossbart, and Walsh 1990; Foxman et al. 1989b; Moschis and Mitchell 1986), and the related concepts of children's consumption autonomy and parent-child communication about consumption (of which children's influence was conceptualized as an indicator; Carlson and Grossbart 1988), and children's purchase process participation (Burns and Gillett 1987).

Socialization occurs through interaction with significant others (i.e., socialization agents) with whom the socializee identifies (Bandura 1977; Gecas 1981; Losh-Hesselbart 1987; Lott and Lott 1983; Moschis and Churchill 1978; Moschis and Moore 1979; Peterson and Rollins 1987). The processes by which socializees learn from socialization agents that have been identified in marketing are: modeling and imitation (observational learning), reinforcement, and social interaction (Moschis and Churchill 1978; Moschis and Moore 1979).

Socializees seek to imitate the behaviors and internalize the values of those with whom they identify for a number of reasons. Socializees may have been rewarded for imitating the socialization agents' behavior in the past; thus, imitation can be a learned response itself (Lott and

Lott 1983). They may also have seen the socialization agent being rewarded for performing a certain behavior and vicariously experience those rewards themselves, which may lead socializees to perform similar behaviors (Bandura 1977). One consequence of socialization through such observational learning is that what is learned may be unintentional (Bandura 1977) when the socialization agents' behavior differs from socialization goals in practice. Finally, socializees may also wish to be like those with whom they identify and, consequently, model the behavior and adopt the values of the admired person (Losh-Hesselbart 1987).

The second learning process, reinforcement, involves reward (positive or negative reinforcement of desired behaviors and attitudes) and punishment (of undesired behaviors and attitudes; Moschis and Churchill 1978; Moschis and Moore 1979).³ According to learning theory, in simplistic terms, individuals perform those behaviors for which they have been rewarded and do not engage in those behaviors for which they have been punished. Socialization agents may use both reward and punishment to aid in achieving their socialization goals (i.e., having the socializer adopt certain behaviors, roles, and attitudes).

Finally, Moschis and his colleagues (Moschis and Churchill 1978; Moschis and Moore 1979) identify social interaction as the third learning process involved in socialization. However, they do not specify what this

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Moschis and colleagues incorrectly term "punishment" as negative reinforcement; however, negative reinforcement increases the occurrence of a certain behavior through removal of a noxious stimulus and, thus, it is conceptually distinct from punishment (which decreases frequency of behavior).

is or what it entails exactly. They note that social interaction is "less specific" than the other two types of learning processes and that it can "involve both modeling and reinforcement." Social interaction, as it is used by Moschis and colleagues, appears to be a catch-all category that many researchers have construed to include the family communication environment (Burns and Gillett 1987; Carlson et al. 1990; Foxman et al. 1989b; Moschis 1985; Moschis and Mitchell 1986). However, it is perhaps more accurate to state that learning occurs through the process of social interaction and that modeling, imitation, and reinforcement are the mechanisms by which individuals learn from this social interaction.

In marketing, the work of Moschis and his colleagues (Moschis and Churchill 1978; Moschis and Moore 1979) provides the most commonly used model of socialization. The model incorporates both socialization and developmental explanations for the learning of consumer skills, attitudes, and behaviors. The outcomes of socialization processes are "learning properties" or "a variety of consumer-related cognitions and behaviors that comprise the concept of consumer behavior, such as attitudes toward saving and spending and brand preferences" (Moschis and Moore 1979, p. 102). There are two primary "antecedent conditions" in the model: social structural variables are "factors, such as socioeconomic status, sex, and birth order, that help locate the learner within his/her social environment, where learning takes place" (Moschis and Moore 1979, p. 102); and age or life-cycle position, which incorporates the developmental stages that children use in perceiving their environment. Antecedent variables can directly affect socialization outcomes; they may also indirectly affect outcomes through their effects on socialization processes. Socialization processes include both socialization agents and

the type of learning process (i.e., modeling/imitation, reinforcement, and social interaction) occurring in the agent-learner relationship, and these processes directly affect socialization outcomes.

Moschis and Churchill's (1978) model provides a useful framework for conceptually organizing studies of consumer socialization. Indeed, most studies of consumer socialization have used the model, either explicitly or implicitly, to examine widely differing socialization outcomes. Recently, parts of the model have been applied to studying children's influence and related constructs, such as children's consumption autonomy. In one sense, children's influence can be thought of as a socialization outcome since it is through influencing and making purchase decisions that children actively take on the consumer role and practice the consumer skills that they have learned. In addition, given that many purchase decisions are made in the context of the family and that the family is a primary socialization agent for children, family socialization processes, in particular, are likely to have a significant impact on children's influence.

Antecedent Variables. The usual approach has been to treat antecedent variables as incidental factors that affect socialization outcomes but that are not of primary interest to researchers; consequently, most studies have used antecedent variables as covariates in their analyses (Carlson and Grossbart 1988; Carlson et al. 1990; Foxman et al. 1989b). One exception was Moschis and Mitchell's (1986) study that developed specific research hypotheses for how the antecedent variables of child's age, sex, income, and family socio-economic status affected children's influence (see Table 1 and family and child sociodemographic sections in literature review for a more detailed discussion of these

variables and results). As such Moschis and Mitchell examined how antecedent variables directly affect socialization outcomes.

Burns and Gillett (1987) investigated both the direct effect of antecedent variables (i.e., child's age, sex, and allowance, and number of children in the family) on children's purchase process participation, and the indirect effects of these variables on purchase process participation through their effects on socialization processes (i.e., family communication environment). They found that, for the indirect effects of antecedent variables, only the number of siblings affected socialization processes (with smaller families having a more concept-oriented family communication environment than larger families). Clearly, the issue of how antecedent variables affect socialization processes (and indirectly affect socialization outcomes) awaits further investigation.

Socialization Agents. Most of the studies examining children's influence and related concepts from a socialization perspective have concentrated on the family as the primary socialization agent. Only one study (Moschis and Mitchell 1986) has investigated how other socialization agents, such as peers and the mass media, affect children's influence. Moschis and Mitchell found that more frequent communication with peers enhanced adolescents' influence in need recognition, information search, and product evaluation, but not in choice. No effects were found for children's influence on the basis of television viewing.

The greater emphasis placed on the family as a socialization agent seems warranted in that, to the extent that parents "control the purse strings," the effects of other socialization agents are likely to be relatively less important. Moreover, children often identify with their

parents just as much as, if not more than, they do with other socialization agents: even adolescents have been found to identify with and feel close to their parents (Sibold 1986). In short, the family is likely to be the most relevant and forceful socialization agent in studying children's influence in purchase decisions.

Socialization Processes. The two socialization processes that have been investigated in relation to children's influence and related constructs are the family communication environment and parental style. The family communication environment has been conceptualized as arising out of social interaction (Moschis 1985; Moschis and Mitchell 1986) for obvious reasons. Although parental style has not been specifically related to Moschis and Churchill's (1978) model, it can be incorporated under the social-interaction category through its underlying dimensions of warmth and restrictiveness, which are evinced in the interaction between parents and children as well as reflective of parental values in child-rearing.

Family Communication Environment. The family communication environment sets the context for parent-child communication about consumption and consumer learning (Moschis 1985), and has been found to affect children's influence in purchase decisions and purchase process participation (Burns and Gillett 1987; Foxman et al. 1989b; Moschis and Mitchell 1986) and children's consumption autonomy (Carlson et al. 1990). The family communication environment is composed of two underlying, independent dimensions (McLeod and Chaffee 1972): socio-orientation and concept-orientation. Communication patterns that emphasize social relationships are termed "socio-oriented." High socio-oriented communications stress harmony, maintaining pleasant social interactions and cohesiveness, and avoiding conflict and controversy (McLeod and Chaffee 1972; Moschis

1985). Concept-oriented communications stress concepts and "cognitive orientations to events and issues in the world" (Moschis 1985). In high concept-oriented communication environments, children are encouraged to evaluate options and to explore concept relations (McLeod and Chaffee 1972).

In examining how the family communication environment affects children's influence, researchers hypothesized that children in socio-oriented families would have little influence due to the emphasis that these types of families place on maintaining harmony and avoiding conflict; children are expected to go along with parents' decisions and to not "rock the boat" by attempting to influence decisions (Burns and Gillett 1987; Foxman et al. 1989b; Moschis and Mitchell 1986). In contrast, children in concept-oriented families were expected to have greater influence in family purchase decisions because these families encourage children to develop concept-related thoughts and do not discourage controversy.

In general, these studies' results supported the notion that socio-oriented communications limit children's influence (Burns and Gillett 1987; Foxman et al. 1989b; Moschis and Mitchell 1986) whereas concept-oriented communications enhance children's influence (Burns and Gillett 1987; Foxman et al. 1989b). Moschis and Mitchell's (1986) failure to find a statistically significant, positive relationship between concept-orientation and children's influence is difficult to explain, although it may have been due to the fact that their study did not permit sufficient variation in the dependent variable (influence was measured on a three-point scale) to detect differences due to concept orientation.

The two dimensions of socio-orientation and concept-orientation have also been combined to develop a typology of families' communication environments (McLeod and O'Keefe 1972; Moschis 1985). Laissez-faire families are low on both socio-oriented and concept-oriented communications. In these families, there is little parent-child communication. Protective families are high on socio-orientation and low on concept-orientation. These families place a high value on obedience and deemphasize concept relations in their communications. Pluralistic families are low on socio-orientation and high on concept-orientation. Pluralistics encourage open discussion of ideas and place little value on obedience; they emphasize "mutual respect and interests" (Moschis 1985). Finally, consensual families are high on both socio-oriented and concept-oriented communication. Children in these families are encouraged to "explore controversy," but are also "constrained to develop and maintain ideas consonant with parents' ideas" (McLeod and O'Keefe 1972).

Carlson et al. (1990) examined how these four different types of family communication patterns affected children's consumption independence, mothers' yielding, and children's influence. They hypothesized that pluralistic and consensual mothers would (1) grant children more consumption independence, (2) yield more to children's requests, and (3) consider children's opinions more in purchase decisions than laissez-faire and protective mothers. Pluralistic and consensual mothers are high on concept-orientation and, therefore, are more likely to emphasize "the development of consumer skills and competence of children" and to respect children's thoughts and opinions than are laissez-faire and protective mothers. Carlson et al.'s (1990) results supported these hypothesized relationships.

On the basis of the results discussed above, it appears that the socialization process of the family communication environment is useful in explaining children's influence.

Parental Style. A second socialization process that has been used in examining children's consumption autonomy and parent-child communication about consumption (of which children's influence was one indicator) is parental style (Carlson and Grossbart 1988). In socializing children, parents differ in a number of respects, including how they attempt to control the behavior of their child and elicit the child's compliance, and how warm and responsive they are toward children. These varying parental practices have been conceptually grouped into parental styles to reflect parents' dominant socialization tendencies. In general, certain styles of parenting are viewed as being more effective in promoting the child's social and instrumental competencies than are other types of parenting (Aronfreed 1969; Baumrind 1968, 1971, 1978; Becker 1964; Dornbusch et al. 1987; Gecas 1987; Gecas and Seff 1991; Hoffman 1975; Kelly and Goodwin 1983; Maccoby and Martin 1983; Peterson and Rollins 1987; Rollins and Thomas 1979; Schaeffer and Bell 1958; Steinberg, Elmen, and Mounts 1989; Thomas et al. 1974).

Most researchers have conceptualized parental styles as varying along the two underlying dimensions of warmth and restrictiveness (c.f., Becker 1964; Schaeffer and Bell 1958), although the labels vary and include "warmth/nurturance" and "firm control" (Baumrind 1968, 1971, 1978), "support" and "control" (Gecas 1987; Gecas and Seff 1991; Peterson and Rollins 1987; Rollins and Thomas 1979; Thomas et al. 1974), "nurturance" and "control" (Scanzoni 1967), "acceptance" and "firm control" (Schaeffer 1965), and "warmth" and "restrictiveness" (Becker 1964; Carlson and

Grossbart 1988). We will use the labels of "nurturance" and "restrictiveness" in discussing parental socialization practices.

Nurturance includes how "accepting, affectionate, approving, understanding (and) child centered" parents are toward children (Becker 1964, p. 174; see also Carlson and Grossbart 1988; Scanzoni 1967), whether they "encourage verbalization" in children (Carlson and Grossbart 1988; Schaeffer and Bell 1958), and whether parents use praise and reasoning in discipline (Baumrind 1968, 1971; Becker 1964; Schaeffer and Bell 1958). Restrictiveness includes "strict enforcement of demands in the areas of...noise, obedience...and aggression" as well as in behaviors and manners (Becker 1964, p. 174). Restrictiveness also encompasses early maturity demands, how much parents value conformity in their children, and the degree of parents' authoritarianism (Baumrind 1968, 1971; Carlson and Grossbart 1988).

Baumrind's Typology. The predominant typology of parental styles is the one developed by Baumrind (1968, 1971). According to Baumrind (1968, 1971, 1978), there are three primary styles of parenting-- authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive--that vary according to the degree of nurturance and restrictiveness that parents exhibit in relation to children. Authoritarians are characterized by low nurturance and high restrictiveness, permissives by high nurturance and low restrictiveness, and authoritatives by high nurturance and restrictiveness. (Baumrind [1971, p. 24] also mentions a neglecting style of parenting, characterized by both low nurturance and restrictiveness, but she does not place a great emphasis on this parental style in her work, nor do other researchers who have used her typology, primarily because her research focus was on parents who were actively involved in child-rearing.)

Of the three parental styles, authoritative parenting is associated with more favorable child outcomes than are the permissive and authoritarian styles because it combines high parental warmth and guidance (i.e., restrictiveness; Abelman 1985; Baumrind 1968, 1971, 1978; Dornbusch et al. 1987; Kelly and Goodwin 1983; Korzenny, Greenberg, and Atkin 1979; Steinberg et al. 1989). For example, Dornbusch et al. (1987) found that the school performance of children whose parents were authoritative was better than that of children whose parents were authoritarian or permissive.

Becker's Typology. A second typology of parental styles that is an alternative to Baumrind's is the one developed by Becker (1964). Primarily, Becker's model differs from Baumrind's in that he included a third dimension of "anxious-emotional involvement" (i.e., the degree of "emotionality that parents experience in relation to the child," resulting in babying, over-protectiveness, and the like; Becker 1964, p. 174) in addition to the two dimensions of nurturance and restrictiveness. In essence, Becker "subdivided the restrictiveness dimension into restrictiveness versus permissiveness and anxious-emotional involvement versus calm detachment" (Becker 1964, p. 174). Although Becker is not specific as to his reasons for making this subdivision, it may be because much of the literature he reviewed was primarily concerned with examining problematic behaviors of young children, such as acting out, aggression, hostility, and "neurotic problems." These types of child behaviors are likely to be based, in part, on parental restrictiveness that is due to parents' extreme anxious-emotional involvement with children rather than on restrictiveness due to discipline-related values (for example, parents may restrict children's activities because they are afraid to let children

experience new things or because they believe children should not engage in certain behaviors from a disciplining perspective).

In her work, Baumrind (1971) collapsed the patterns of parenting that she found into the four broad categories of authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and neglecting parenting because her research indicated that these four styles were "prototypic" and that variations were merely sub-patterns of the prototypes. In other words, in her research, parental anxiety did not result in substantial variation in parental style probably because she did not work with a clinical sample. (See Exhibit I for how Becker's styles of parenting relate to those of Baumrind.)

Parental Style and Consumer Socialization. In their work relating parental style to children's consumption autonomy and parent-child communication about consumption, Carlson and Grossbart (1988) employed Becker's (1964) three-dimensional model of parental styles. However, even after operationalizing these three dimensions, the parenting styles that they empirically derived were primarily those of Baumrind's typology (i.e., authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and neglecting) with the exception of a fifth style of parenting, rigid-controlling, that is unique to Becker's work and is essentially a sub-pattern of authoritarian parenting. The difference between authoritarian and rigid-controlling parents is that the latter are more emotionally detached than are the former.

It is questionable whether the measures that Carlson and Grossbart used actually tapped anxious-emotional involvement. They construed anxious-emotional involvement to include fostering dependency, not fostering responsibility, and excluding outside influences. There were no indicators for babying, overprotectiveness, and solicitousness for the child's welfare per se--all of which Becker conceptualized as indicative

of anxious-emotional involvement. Moreover, the three indicators that Carlson and Grossbart used had high cross-loadings on the other two factors of warmth and restrictiveness (not fostering responsibility also loaded very highly and positively on warmth; fostering dependency loaded moderately highly and negatively on warmth; and excluding outside influences loaded highly and positively on restrictiveness). The authors do not report the percentage of explained variance for their three-factor solution. Given these cross-loadings and a lack of conceptual correspondence, it seems doubtful that the dimension of anxious emotional involvement was adequately measured. Even had the authors adequately operationalized anxious emotional involvement, there is little conceptual justification for relating a relatively clinical dimension of parenting, such as anxious emotional involvement, to studying children's consumer socialization. The authors seem to have tried to make the data "fit" a three-factor solution even though this third factor is of questionable relevance for the phenomena that they were studying.

Using the five parental styles (authoritarian, rigid-controlling, authoritative, permissive, and neglecting) that they empirically derived, Carlson and Grossbart (1988) examined the effects of these five parental styles on children's consumption autonomy (measured by parental yielding to the child's requests, allowing purchase if child pays all or part of the cost, and permitting child's independence in product selection) and parent-child communication about consumption (measured by coshopping, concept-orientation in family communications, children's influence, and extent of family communication).

To arrive at these "conglomerate" dependent variables, Carlson and Grossbart took 15 of the dependent variables examined in prior studies

of consumer socialization and submitted these 15 variables to a factor analysis. They extracted six factors that accounted for only 63 percent of the variance in responses (no single factor accounted for more than 19 percent of the variance), a result that is not surprising given that there was no theory to explain and logically relate these variables as "indicators" of overriding theoretical constructs. The reason these authors took this approach was that they wanted to be able to derive three dependent variables that would roughly correspond to the three underlying dimensions of parenting that they investigated.

However, the six "conglomerate" dependent variables are of questionable construct validity. As one example, children's influence loaded positively on the same factor as did coshopping, concept-orientation, and extent of family communication; however, conceptually these four variables are not all indicators for "parent-child communication about consumption as Carlson and Grossbart labeled them. Each is conceptually distinct. In fact, concept-orientation has been used as an independent variable to explain children's influence. Thus, the fact that the two loaded on the same factor is no surprise given that theory dictates that the two should be positively related (no correlation matrix was given but both had same-signed loadings), but because one explains the other, not because both are indicators of the same construct. In short, allowing the data to drive what is considered to be a dependent variable results in meaningless aggregations that have no validity. Moreover, interesting effects are obscured, such as how parental styles affect each one of the 15 dependent variables.

No differences in children's consumption autonomy were found on the basis of parental style. For parent-child communication about consump-

tion, of which children's influence was one "indicator," results indicated that authoritative, permissive, and, surprisingly, rigid-controlling mothers communicated more with their children about consumption than did authoritarian and neglecting mothers. Although authoritative and permissive mothers communicated about consumption more than did rigid-controlling mothers, this difference was not statistically significant. Given that authoritatives and permissives are the most warm types of parents, the fact that they communicate more about consumption is logical and consistent with Carlson and Grossbart's hypothesis. The result for rigid-controlling mothers is more difficult to explain conceptually (because rigid-controlling parents are less warm and theoretically similar to authoritarian parents); however, the lack of a difference between rigid-controlling, and permissive and authoritative mothers may be because many of the indicators of anxious emotional involvement (the determining characteristic of rigid-controlling parenting) loaded highly on the warmth dimension.

Carlson and Grossbart's results are qualified by problems in construct validity. They found no significant variations in children's consumption autonomy on the basis of parental style; however, because the three concepts of parental yielding, child's payment, and consumption independence were combined to form the dependent variable of child's consumption autonomy, the insignificant result may be due to a lack of relationship between parental style and any one, two, or all of these variables (or to some third variable that "swamped" the effects of parental style; however, the authors used a number of covariates in their analyses, so this explanation is less likely). On the basis of the statistics that Carlson and Grossbart reported, these effects cannot be

"unpacked." Similarly, although differences were found in consumption autonomy on the basis of parental styles, the source of this significance cannot be determined. For example, different parental styles may have resulted in variation in children's influence, but this cannot be determined due to Carlson and Grossbart's aggregation of children's influence and the three other concepts into the one dependent variable of consumption communication. In short, the issue of how parental style affects children's influence remains an open question.

Summary. Socialization appears to offer high explanatory power in studying children's influence. If there is such a thing as a "dominant theory" in research on children's influence, socialization explanations would fulfill this role as they are the most frequent (and well-specified) of the three theoretical approaches reviewed here. However, socialization theory is not without its limitations. Socialization conceptualizations such as parental style have been criticized for presenting an essentially static, one-sided view of the socialization process (Gecas 1981; Peterson and Rollins 1987). Critics charge that, because such theories view children as "blank slates" upon which parental values are imprinted, they overlook the reciprocal nature of socialization. They note that children are also powerful socialization agents for parents and that socialization is essentially a bidirectional process (see, e.g., Demo, Small, and Savin-Williams 1987).

Although these criticisms are valid, it is also true that parents are likely to have greater socialization effects on children than vice versa (because parents have more experience and familiarity with, and more knowledge about, social roles; Baumrind 1980). Moreover, the reciprocal nature of socialization may be captured in part through the concept of

children's influence. Specifically, one way that children may socialize parents (into certain brand preferences, for example) is through influencing purchase decisions (Ekstrom, Tansuhaj, and Foxman 1987).

Summary

Three conceptual approaches to studying children's influence have been reviewed: resource theory, social power, and socialization. Each has been shown to provide some useful insights into the phenomenon of children's influence: however, each is also subject to a number of limitations. Resource theory and the bases of social power are problematic in that what counts as a resource or a basis of power is likely to be person- and situation-specific. These approaches also present an essentially static view of power relationships and decision-making (i.e., they do not concentrate on power as a process of social interaction between relevant parties). Similarly, socialization explanations such as parental style have been criticized for presenting a static, one-sided view of the socialization process (this criticism also applies to the structurally oriented conceptualization of the family communication environment).

With regard to children's influence, although resource theory and social power are applicable and can be useful, this research will adopt a socialization perspective for explaining children's influence. Socialization theory is able to explain many of the relationships that resource theory can (for example, social-class effects on children's influence); however, socialization makes no assumption that family relationships are competitive, unlike resource theory. Moreover, although resources and bases of power are likely to be operative, socialization appears to be a more fundamental and basic process than is relative re-

source contribution. In other words, what counts as a resource on the magnitude of a child's resources is likely to depend on family socialization processes (e.g., children may have more resources with certain types of parenting than with others). Thus, socialization and resource theory are not necessarily competing explanations; it may be possible to integrate the two in future conceptualizations of children's influence. However, given that neither the effects of socialization nor of resources on children's influence is well understood, we have chosen to concentrate on the former.

EMPIRICAL, DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH ON CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE

Now that we have reviewed the theoretical approaches used to study children's influence, we turn to an examination of the earlier empirical and descriptive research regarding children's influence. It should be noted that much of this literature review is based on Mangleburg (1990).

As previously mentioned, until relatively recently, the intellectual heritage of research on children's influence has been a body of descriptive, a-theoretical, and disparate research results. In this section, we will attempt to conceptually group these studies to uncover sources of variation in children's influence. Although we will not repeat the theoretically based results for the conceptual approaches discussed above (to avoid redundancy), we will discuss those aspects of the theoretically based studies that are relevant to the sources of variation in children's influence garnered from prior descriptive research (i.e., product-type and socio-structural variations in influence).

Product Type

In reviewing past research on children's influence, the results indicate that influence varies by a number of different factors. One important source of variation in children's influence is product type. In general, children seem to have significant influence in product decisions for which they will be the primary consumer (Table 1). For example, children have been found to have substantial impact in decisions for breakfast cereals, snack foods, toys, children's clothes and school supplies. Children also influence decisions about family leisure time activities (such as vacations, movie attendance, eating out, and cable TV subscriptions), although their influence is less in these decisions than in decisions for products for their own use. One factor that may partially explain these results is the level of the child's product involvement. Children are likely to view products for their own use as the most personally relevant. Leisure activities should also be child-involving, but to a lesser extent than products that the child uses frequently.

In contrast to the significant role played by children in the child-related product decisions, children have less influence for products that are used by the entire family (with the exception of leisure-time decisions). This is particularly true when the family products involve substantial financial outlays. For example, children have been found to have little influence in decisions for cars, furniture, televisions, and life insurance. Due to the financial risk associated with these family products, it appears that parents prefer to make these decisions without permitting the child to influence them. It is also likely that children perceive products such as furniture as having low personal relevance; therefore, they may not be motivated to influence these deci-

sions. Intuitively, it seems likely that children's influence for any one product will depend on an interaction between the child's product involvement and the financial risks associated with that product.

One recent product-type typology that has been used in the domain of children's influence and that partially captures the relationships discussed above is the typology developed by Kim et al. (1991). Kim et al. segmented products along the two dimensions of major-minor (reflecting large and small expenditures, respectively) and family-child (depending on who is the primary user), resulting in a four-fold categorization of products. Major purchase items for the family included: car, stereo, house, TV, and vacations. Minor family purchase items consisted of juice, toothpaste, ketchup, shampoo, breakfast cereal, and soft drinks. For the child, major purchase items were a walkman and a bicycle. The child-minor purchase items included: clothes, shoes, movie, and calculator.

Kim et al. found that adolescents' perceptions of parental perceptions of their influence was greatest for child-minor items, followed by child-major, family-major, and family-minor items (no statistics were reported for whether these differences were statistically significant, rather the authors presented only rank orderings). Kim et al. (1991, p. 40) concluded that children have more influence for products for their own use than for family use "however, no such generalizations can be made between those decisions involving major and minor items." However, since Kim et al. did not measure perceived influence, they cannot legitimately make this claim. It is likely that children may have thought that their parents thought they would have low influence in minor family items; however, children may have perceived that they influenced these minor

family purchase decisions, but they were not asked to report this. In short, Kim et al.'s typology is more systematic than prior examinations of product-type effects; however, due to problems of construct validity, Kim et al. did not adequately test their typology's relationship to children's influence.

Decision Stage

Another factor affecting the degree of children's influence in purchase decisions is the stage of the decision process. With one exception (Moschis and Mitchell 1986), all of the studies examining children's influence across decision stages have used a three-stage model of the decision process. The three stages include problem recognition, search, and choice (Moschis and Mitchell (1986) also included an alternative evaluation stage). In general, children's influence is greatest in the problem recognition stage and declines significantly by the choice stage (Belch et al. 1985; Nelson 1978; Szybillo and Sosanie 1977).

These results should be regarded with some skepticism, as the range of products over which this pattern has been examined is limited. Specifically, Nelson (1978) and Szybillo and Sosanie (1977) used family restaurants as products. Belch et al. (1985) used a wider variety of products; however, this study included a number of products for which children's influence was low overall (i.e., television, car, furniture, and appliances). Additionally, the one other study employing decision stages did not specifically compare influence variations over stages (Moschis and Mitchell 1986).

Subdecisions

In addition to product type and decision stage, children's influence has also been found to vary according to product subdecisions. The su-

decisions investigated are adaptations of Davis's (1970, 1971) specific, as opposed to global, index of purchase decisions. The pattern emerging from these studies is that children's influence is lowest in the subdecisions of where to purchase (Belch et al. 1985; Jenkins 1979), gathering information (Darley and Lim 1986), and how much to spend (Belch et al. 1985; Darley and Lim 1986; Jenkins 1979; Nelson 1978; Szybillo and Sosanie 1977). Similarly, Foxman et al. (1989a) found that both parents and children perceived that children had low influence in selecting price ranges. Children are more involved in subdecisions regarding color, make/model, and brand choices (Belch et al. 1985; Darley and Lim 1986; Jenkins 1979; Nelson 1978; Szybillo and Sosanie 1977).

Given that parents are the primary socialization agents of children, it appears that they attempt to set bounds on children's influence through decreasing children's roles in the choice stage of the decision process, and in the subdecision of how much to spend. Limiting children's influence in these areas may be one way for the parent to teach the child responsibility and appropriate consumer behavior. It also seems that parents reserve more instrumental (i.e., allocation and scheduling) activities for themselves, and permit more child's influence in the more expressive subdecisions (i.e., color and model decisions). Children may lack the experience necessary to make informed decisions for instrumental activities.

Media Habits and Attitudes

In addition to the factors mentioned above, the media habits and attitudes of family members have also been found to affect the extent of children's influence in purchase decisions. Studies have shown that children's influence attempts increase as parents spend more time

watching television (Ward and Wackman 1972) and as children are exposed to ads (Brody et al. 1981). Similarly, children's influence attempts decreased as parents placed more restrictions on children's viewing of television (Ward and Wackman 1972). It appears that children's influence varies positively with the amount of television viewed in the home.

Related to the above findings, studies have found children's influence to vary with parents' attitudes toward advertising and parents' brand recall. Specifically, the more positive parents' attitudes are toward advertising, the more parents yield to children's requests (Ward and Wackman). Additionally, the greater parents' brand recall, the greater is the role of the child in family decision-making (Berey and Pollay 1968; Ward and Wackman 1972).

Parental Attitudes

A few studies have investigated how various parental attitudes affect children's influence in decision-making. For example, Berey and Pollay (1968) found mothers' child-centeredness to be inversely related to purchasing the child's favorite cereal. One reason for this may be that child-centered mothers are more concerned with the child's nutrition than are other mothers (Berey and Pollay 1968). Concern over nutrition may reflect these mothers' role perceptions of "what a good mother should do". Along this vein, Roberts et. al. (1981) found that children had less influence in decisions when mothers were more traditional and conservative.

These studies can be viewed as precursors to Carlson and Grossbart's (1988) research on parental styles. This earlier research, although lacking theoretical development, was tangentially related to parenting practices.

Socio-Demographic Effects on Children's Influence

Family Characteristics. A number of family demographic characteristics may also affect children's influence, although the results are more conflicting here. Some studies have found children's influence to be greater with increased family income (Jenkins 1979) or higher socio-economic status (Moschis and Mitchell 1986). Similarly, Carlson et al. (1990) found that parental yielding increased with family income. However, Atkin (1978) and Ward and Wackman (1972) found no statistically significant effect for socio-economic status on children's influence attempts. This result may be explained by the fact that, although SES may not affect influence attempts, it may affect parental responses to these attempts. It seems intuitive that children will have more influence in higher socio-economic status families, given that such families are likely to make more purchases than lower class families. However, the literature is not clear on this point.

Another demographic variable that seems likely to affect children's influence is family size. Results here are mixed as well. Jenkins (1979) found children's influence to increase with family size; however, Ward and Wackman (1972) found no significant effect for number of children on children's influence attempts. Using number of children as a covariate, Carlson et al. (1990) also found that children's influence was lower as the number of children increased. Speculatively, one might expect family size to have a negative effect on any one child's influence, but that children's influence overall would increase, because children may be able to form coalitions in larger families.

Finally, one study examined the effects of dual-parent versus one-parent families on children's influence in family leisure decisions

(Darley and Lim 1986). The authors found that children in one-parent families had more influence in family outing decisions than did children in dual-parent families. This study did not distinguish between reconstituted and intact families (both were presumably classified as "dual-parent" families). In addition, the range over which differences in influence across family types was examined was limited to leisure activities.

Child Characteristics. Another group of factors having an impact on a child's influence in purchase decisions are characteristics of the child. The most commonly investigated variable here is the child's age. Most studies have found that older children have significantly more influence than younger children (Atkin 1978; Darley and Lim 1986; Jenkins 1979; Moschis and Mitchell 1986; Nelson 1978; Ward and Wackman 1972). Similarly, Carlson and Grossbart (1988) found that both the child's consumption autonomy and parent-child communication about consumption increased with child's age. This result is due partly to older children's greater cognitive ability, as compared to younger children. Older children also have more experience with products and have learned more about consumer roles. Older children may also make more influence attempts and be more successful in these attempts than are younger children. These factors, in addition to developmental level, probably contribute to older children's greater influence in family decision-making.

Child's sex is another commonly investigated child characteristic. Results for the effect of child's sex, however, are mixed. Moschis and Mitchell (1986) and Burns and Gillett (1987) found that females had more influence, and participated more, than did males. However, Carlson et al. (1990) found that mothers yielded more to sons' than to daughters'

requests. Sex difference in children's influence may be due to differences in sex-role socialization. Daughters may be socialized to be more relationship-oriented and more involved with their families than are sons (Moschis and Mitchell 1986). As a result, daughters may have more influence in purchase decisions than sons (there is probably a product-type effect here as well). The finding of Carlson et al. is more difficult to explain. Perhaps mothers yield more to sons as a means of rewarding assertive behavior. Alternatively, mothers may be more indulgent of sons, although the findings of Moschis and Mitchell (1986) and Burns and Gillett (1987) argue against this conclusion. Clearly, differences in influence due to sex-role socialization warrants further investigation.

Finally, children's influence has been found to vary on the basis of child's income. Specifically, results indicate that influence increases with increased child income (Foxman et al. 1989b; Moschis and Mitchell 1986). It would be interesting to examine the effects of income on child versus family products. No study has investigated this relationship. One might expect child's income to have greater effects on children's influence in child-related product decisions than it does on influence for family products.

Summary and Evaluation

In the past, research on children's influence was descriptive and a-theoretical. However, there have recently been a number of attempts to provide more theoretically based explanations for the phenomenon of children's influence. Results from a review of the descriptive literature suggest that children's influence varies by a number of different factors, including socio-demographic characteristics of the family and the child, parental attitudes (particularly those related to child-rearing) and

family media habits and attitudes, and the situational factors of product type, decision stage, and subdecisions. Theoretically, variations in influence have been related to the relative resource contribution and power bases of children, and to socialization factors, particularly family socialization factors.

Although it has not been done, it was argued earlier that many of the findings regarding children's influence were consistent with and could be incorporated into a socialization model of children's influence. Specifically, a modification of Moschis and Churchill's (1978) model can be used as a framework⁴ to integrate past research on children's influence, as shown in Figure 1. As previously mentioned, socialization studies of children's influence seem to have implicitly employed the model (or are at least consistent with it). In presenting the model, our purpose is to systematize and make explicit how previous theoretical studies of socialization fit the model, and to incorporate the descriptively based results on children's influence.

The modification of Moschis and Churchill's (1978) model rests on the addition of the moderating effects of situational variables on the relationship between socialization factors and children's influence. It is likely that characteristics of the decision task will interact with socialization processes in affecting children's influence. As one example, certain types of parents may be more open to children's influence

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This model does not include resources or bases of power, nor does it incorporate parental brand attitudes. Thus, it is not a truly comprehensive model of children's influence; however, it does subsume the majority of past results for children's influence.

for child products than for family products (i.e., Authoritatives), whereas for other types of parents, children may influence both family- and child- related product decisions (i.e., Permissives).

Using this model as a guide, we can conclude that descriptive research has examined the direct links between family and child socio-demographic characteristics and what we have termed "moderating variables," and children's influence (see Exhibit II). With one exception (Burns and Gillett 1987), the theoretically based studies on children's influence and related constraints have examined direct links between socialization factors and children's influence while controlling for the effects of antecedent variables (or examining the direct link between antecedent variables in addition to a socialization direct link; Moschis and Mitchell 1986). These studies did not account for the moderating effects of situational factors on children's influence. The one study that examined both the direct and indirect effects of antecedent variables (i.e., antecedents' effects on socialization factors) investigated a direct link between socialization factors; similar to the other theoretically based studies, it did not account for the moderating effects of situational variables (Burns and Gillett 1987).

From this analysis, we can conclude that no study on children's influence has simultaneously tested all of the hypothesized links in the model. We are not suggesting that one study should test all links for all variables included in the model; this would be impossible to do in the context of a single study. However, researchers should at least investigate all possible links for the concepts they wish to examine in relation to children's influence and account for moderating effects on these relationships.

METHODOLOGICAL REVIEW

Research on children's influence is qualified by a number of methodological limitations. These limitations generally apply to both the descriptive and theory-based research on children's influence. This section will review the major methodological limitations of past research and is based in large part on Mangleburg (1990).

Construct Validity

One of the most serious and pervasive problems in research on children's influence is the lack of attention paid to construct validity, even in many of the theoretically based studies. The most noteworthy example of this is the failure to adequately define 'influence'. As Rossiter (1978) notes, there are two aspects to influence, an active and a passive dimension. In this instance, passive influence is characterized by other family members taking the child into account when making a purchase decision, as opposed to the child directly influencing the decision itself.

In spite of Rossiter's clarification, most studies have not distinguished between active and passive influence. For example, Jenkins (1979) notes that "the definition of 'influence' varied from one [respondent] to another. Some perceived only the 'active' dimension ... while others perceived the word to encompass both the 'active' and 'passive' dimensions." The fact that respondents can attribute varying definitions to a term is due to inadequate conceptual definitions in the first place. If the researcher is unclear as to the meaning of a construct, it is no surprise that respondents are unclear as well. It is noteworthy that most

of the studies reviewed here failed to define "influence" conceptually. The net result of this oversight is that respondents assign their own meanings to the concept. As a result, their definitions may or may not be congruent with the researcher's notion of what a term means. In any event, construct validity is a serious issue under these conditions. The failure of most studies to carry out reliability analyses also supports this conclusion (Table 2).

Along with the suspect construct validity of "influence," the theoretically based studies have also suffered from a lack of construct validity for independent variables. Since these problems were detailed earlier, we will not fully rehash this discussion except to note that Kim et al.'s (1991) study borrowed measures from another study without adapting them to the context of their own research, resulting in inadequate operationalizations of their constructs. Carlson and Grossbart's (1988) operationalization of the anxious-emotional-involvement dimensions of parenting was also problematic (i.e., high cross-loadings on other dimensions); moreover, their decision to include this third dimension was questionable in the first place. It should also be noted that Carlson and Grossbart's dependent variables lacked construct validity due to their aggregation of conceptually distinct constructs into single dependent variables.

Measures

Another issue related to children's influence is the type of measure used to assess influence. Studies have employed a diversity of operationalizations for influence (Table 3). With one exception (Jenkins (1979) used a constant sum scale), studies have used 3, 5, 6 or 7 point Likert scales to measure influence. Some studies have asked respondents

to rate influence separately for family members (Belch et al. 1985; Darley and Lim 1986; Jenkins 1979; Nelson 1978; Roberts et al. 1981), whereas others have included all family members on a single scale (Foxman and Tansuhaj 1988; Foxman et al. 1989; Moschis and Mitchell 1986; Szybillo and

Sosanie 1977). In this latter approach, respondents are essentially asked to think about a purchase decision and aggregate the influence of all family members into one global-level evaluation to respond to the scale. The former approach of having respondents rate influence separately for family members has the advantages of (1) simplifying the cognitive tasks of respondents and (2) collecting data at a more disaggregate level. It is likely that significant information about influence is lost when respondents are asked to make global level evaluations.

Variation by Respondent

Results on children's influence also vary according to who is the respondent. Many studies have used only parents as respondents (Table 2); therefore, these studies can only provide information about parental perceptions of children's influence. These perceptions may or may not be accurate. For example, in studying children's power, Turk and Bell (1972) found that parents consistently reported that children had low power when self-report measures were used. However, when observational methods were used, children were found to have power. Thus, the effect of using parental reports to measure children's influence may be that the magnitude of children's influence is consistently underestimated. It is no surprise that those studies that have included children, as well as

parents, as respondents have generally found that children attribute more influence to themselves than parents attribute to them (see Table 1).

Differences in perceptions of influence may be due to perceptual biases and/or social desirability effects. Additionally, perceptual divergences may also be a methodological artifact. Surveys, in this instance, may reflect more subjective assessments, whereas observational studies may be more objective (i.e., an observer who is removed from the process independently evaluates "influence"). Clearly, the issue revolves around the interests of the researcher, whether one wishes to focus on subjective perceptions or behavior. Whatever the focus of the study, however, children should be included as they are the relevant unit of analysis in most studies of children's influence.

Method of Data Collection

Another issue related to research on children's influence is the method of data collection. All studies have used mono-method approaches to studying children's influence (Table 2).⁵ With few exceptions (Atkin 1978; Brody et. al. 1981), the method of choice has been the survey. The use of a single method within a research domain is problematic in that the results found may be confounded by methodological artifacts (McGrath 1982). The rival explanation that results are due to research method cannot be discounted when only a single method is used. Thus, the associations found between children's influence and various factors may be due to the use of surveys rather than to any "true" association. The

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Berey and Pollay (1968) used different methods to assess different variables; only one method was used per variable.

observational study by Atkin (1978) mitigates against this conclusion; however, more observational studies need to be done before we can have confidence in the findings.

The use of surveys has a number of advantages, such as time and cost reductions, and increased sample sizes. However, there are also a number of problems associated with their use. As previously mentioned, surveys may be more inter-subjectively biased than are observational studies. Finally, the use of surveys is problematic in dealing with young children who generally lack the cognitive ability to respond to test items. Although it is possible to circumvent this problem by using interviews, the usual approach has been to exclude children as respondents and use only parents. Thus, in some situations, other techniques such as interviews or observation may be more appropriate.

Statistical Techniques

A final consideration in this domain of research is the method of data analysis. Most of the studies have used chi-square analysis, ANOVA, or MANOVA to test various associations (Table 4). One problem that may occur in using these techniques is violation of the nonindependence assumption. The techniques are especially sensitive to this violation. When multiple respondents from the same family are used, one would expect their responses to be correlated with each other, and therefore, nonindependent. Yet studies examining divergences in family member perceptions use analyses of variance on these nonindependent samples in order to assess differences. It is not surprising that these studies find highly divergent perceptions as the type 1 error rate is seriously inflated when the nonindependence assumption is violated. Additionally, many studies test numerous relationships within the context of a single

sample and study, while failing to adjust the alpha level accordingly. When one fails to adjust alpha in response to numerous tests, significant results may be due partly to chance.

Summary

In summary, there are a number of methodological problems associated with research on children's influence in purchase decisions. Inadequate conceptual definitions and lack of reliability raise serious construct validity concerns. Children are often excluded from the analysis even though children's influence is the subject of study. The use of a single method, usually surveys, gives rise to the rival hypothesis that results may be method related. Finally, this research domain is hampered by inflated alpha levels; consequently, some associations found may be due to chance. In short, research on children's influence must be improved on methodological grounds if we wish to truly understand this phenomenon.

SUMMARY

On the basis of this literature review, we can identify issues that need to be addressed in future research on children's influence. One of the most troublesome oversights of past research on children's influence has been the relative inattention paid to other family types besides intact families. Only one descriptive study examined influence variations between dual-parent and single-parent families; even this study failed to distinguish between intact and reconstituted families. Moreover, no theoretically based study has incorporated family type into their explanations of children's influence, even though there is considerable reason

to believe that socialization processes, for example, are likely to be affected by variations in family type.

Another limitation of the theoretically based studies is that they have failed to consider moderating effects, such as product type and decision stage effects, on the relationships they are investigating.

Although parental socialization practices intuitively seem to offer promising explanations of children's influence, the effects of parenting practices on children's influence have not been adequately tested. The one study that was concerned with parental styles used children's influence as only one indicator of consumption communication. Therefore, we cannot determine the effects of parenting practices on children's influence on the basis of this study's results. This study also suffered from problems with construct validity for independent variables as well.

Indeed, this review indicates that construct validity is a pressing, and probably the most important, problem characterizing past research on children's influence. Even the theoretically based studies have suffered from this problem. Without adequate construct validity, our knowledge of children's influence is called into question. If we are not measuring what we purport to measure, significant results have little meaning.

In sum, there are a number of opportunities to enhance our understanding of children's influence. We have pointed out some of the most pressing issues in this summary, but there are other opportunities as well. However, this dissertation attempts to tackle some of the more important limitations by examining the effects of family type and socialization factors, including parenting practices, on children's influence. Our conceptual model is developed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

In the previous chapter, we presented a conceptual model for children's influence that is based on socialization processes. However, many of the relationships postulated in the model have not been empirically tested. For example, although one study investigated the variation in children's influence in dual-parent versus single-parent families (Darley and Lim 1986), no study has investigated how socialization processes are affected by family type and how children's influence is then affected by these family socialization factors (i.e., indirect effects of family type on children's influence). The relative oversight of how family type indirectly affects children's influence is a serious one given that there is considerable evidence to suggest that family type has a substantial effect on family socialization processes (see, e.g., Hetherington 1988).

In addition, although Carlson and Grossbart (1988) examined the effects of parental socialization practices (i.e., parental style) on parent-child communication about consumption, they did not systematically investigate the effects of parenting practices on children's influence. Recall that the authors used children's influence as one indicator of consumption communication along with the three other variables of extent of family communication, concept-oriented communication, and co-shopping. Because the authors aggregated these four variables into the one dependent variable of consumption communication, the effects of parenting practices on children's influence cannot be adequately determined from their study. It should also be noted that Carlson and Grossbart confined their analysis

to the relationship between parenting practices and consumption communication in intact families.

To address these gaps in the literature, this dissertation will develop a model that examines the indirect effects of family type on children's influence in purchase decisions. We postulate that family type indirectly affects influence through its effects on parenting practices and family role relationships. We will also systematically investigate the effects of parenting practices on children's influence (i.e., partially "unpack" Carlson and Grossbart's result for an association between parenting practices and consumption communication by isolating the variable of children's influence). Specifically, using the concept of hierarchy, we will argue that children in different types of families are socialized into different family status relations, which, in turn, affects children's influence in purchase decisions.

HIERARCHY IN THE FAMILY

In discussing roles of family members, Weiss (1979b) argues that an "echelon" structure exists in dual-parent families. An echelon structure is one in which some group members occupy superordinate positions, whereas other members occupy inferior, or subordinate, positions. This structure gives those on the superordinate level (i.e., parents) authority over subordinates (i.e., children). This structure reflects parents' greater power as compared with children. Authority is also maintained by agreement among those on the superordinate level to keep "underlings" subordinate. Parents attempt to uphold the rules and decisions made by each other. Weiss goes on to argue that, when parents divorce, this

echelon structure dissolves. Single parents are faced with increased tasks and responsibilities after marital separation. One means of coping with these increased role demands is to delegate responsibility to children. In addition, the single parent is now more free to "make deals" with children, as they no longer have to worry about upholding the echelon structure.

Nock (1988) further clarifies the notion of status relations or roles in the family through his concept of hierarchy. At one extreme, parent-child role relations are characterized by high hierarchy, which is "a structured authority pattern in which children are categorically inferior to adults" (Nock 1988, p. 958). In contrast, in lower hierarchy families, there is greater equality in parent-child status relations. According to Nock, hierarchy varies with different family types. Specifically, it is the family structure that allows certain types of parent-child authority relationships to exist and develop.

The determining characteristic of family type that affects role-status socialization is the number of adults present in the household. When two parents are present, the effect is generally that roles are age-graded with parents occupying superior positions and children, inferior positions (Parsons and Bales 1955). Two parents can form an authority coalition and each can uphold the other's authority. In contrast, when only one parent is present, it is more difficult to uphold clear authority distinctions between parents and children. There is no other adult to reinforce a single parent's authority. Consequently, role statuses between parents and children become more equal. Moreover, because a single parent may be overburdened in attempting to fulfill multiple role demands (which are shared or divided between two parents in

two-parent families), single parents may elevate the status of children to reduce their role overload.

The degree of hierarchy is also contingent on the length of time that children are exposed to a specific pattern of role-status socialization. The greater the time that children are exposed to a specific authority role model, the greater is children's learning of that specific pattern of status-role organization. With hierarchical role models, children learn that authority roles are structured into superordinate-subordinate positions. With non-hierarchical role models, children do not learn the superordinate-subordinate structure of authority.

Conceptually, then, family structures can be viewed as varying along a continuum of hierarchy, depending on the number of adults present in the household and the length of time that children are exposed to the resultant pattern of authority relations. Intact families are conceptualized to be the most hierarchical family form because two parents are present and children have only been exposed to these hierarchical role models. Single-parent families are the least hierarchical because only one adult is present and children have had exposure to less hierarchical role models. Reconstituted families lie between these two extremes: two adults are present, however, children have also had some degree of exposure to less hierarchical role patterns prior to remarriage. Their learning of these less hierarchical role patterns is likely to affect the establishment of authority in the reconstituted family.

It should be noted that there is likely to be variation in hierarchy within these three family types. For example, role relationships in single-parent families in which the parent has never been married are likely to be less hierarchical than role relationships in single-parent

families in which the parent lives with another adult. Similarly, role relationships in reconstituted families in which the parent remarried when the child was young are likely to be more hierarchical than role relationships in families in which parents delayed remarriage (because children have had a lengthy exposure to less hierarchical role models in the latter case). In intact families, role relationships in dual career families are likely to be less hierarchical than they are in traditionally oriented families because dual-career parents may grant more authority to children due to their role overload. However, because two adults are present in the family, intact families should still be the most hierarchical: children have never been exposed to other authority structures in intact families.

Although we recognize these distinctions, or degrees of hierarchy within family types, we will base our following discussion (and the research hypotheses) on differences in role relationships between the three broad classes of intact, reconstituted, and single-parent families. Existing research uses these three groups as "prototypes" for exploring differences in family relationships on the basis of family type (or controls for factors, such as length of time since remarriage or divorce, that affect hierarchy within these three broad classes). In addition, making fine distinctions within the three broad classes of family types is likely to adversely affect the power of hypothesis tests. The number of respondents within each group is likely to be small when such refinements are made. Thus, in this research, we conceptualize family types, ordered from single-parent to reconstituted to intact, as reflecting increasing hierarchy.

In the family, role statuses are manifested through the nature of dependency relations between parents and children (how dependent parents are on children), the structuring of daily household routines and tasks (how household duties and responsibilities are divided between parents and children), and parental socialization practices, particularly those related to discipline, or restrictiveness (Nock 1988). In addition to these three factors, Nock also implies that the extent of parents' cooperation and support of each other's views in relation to children (i.e., parental coalition formation) is reflective of status roles in the family.

Finally, although parental nurturance is not conceptually related to family status roles in Nock's theory of hierarchy, Carlson and Grossbart's (1988) work indicates that nurturance is likely to affect children's influence. Moreover, as will be discussed below, there is some evidence to suggest that nurturance varies under different family types. Therefore, because nurturance is one aspect of parental socialization tendencies (along with restrictiveness), and because there is evidence to suggest that nurturance may have an effect on children's influence, we included nurturance in our socialization model.

In sum, our socialization model includes the concepts of parent-child dependency relations, the structuring of household responsibility, the degree of parents' support of each other (or parental coalition formation), and parental restrictiveness; these four concepts are based on the theory of hierarchy. In addition, parental nurturance, which, together with restrictiveness, forms the basis of parental styles, is also included in the model. Specifically, we conceptualize family type to be related to each of these five socialization factors and that these five

factors, in turn, are related to differences in children's influence in purchase decisions.

In reviewing the literature on how family type affects family relationships, family structure has been shown to be related to parent-child dependency relations, the structuring of household tasks and responsibilities, and parental restrictiveness in a manner consistent with the notion that hierarchy increases with the number of adults and the length of time that children are exposed to these role models. In addition, research suggests that family type is also related to differing degrees of parental nurturance. This literature is reviewed below.⁶

Parental Dependency on Children

One manifestation of authority-role socialization is the nature of dependency relations between parents and children, or the extent to which parents depend on children as a source of affective support. With less hierarchy, one would expect increasing parental dependence on children as sources of affective support. Family type has been shown to be related to parents' emotional dependence on children, or the peeriness of parent-child relationships. Peeriness concerns how supportive children are of parents (i.e., whether parents rely on children to support them as friends).

Research has shown that parent-child relationships in single-parent families, and to a lesser extent in reconstituted families, are peer-like.

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Although the extent to which parents support each other in relation to children is implicit in the theory of hierarchy, no study, to our knowledge, has investigated this concept. Therefore, this concept is not included in the literature review.

In their fifteen-year longitudinal study of divorce, Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1989) note that children in single-parent families often become confidantes to their single parents. Similarly, Weiss (1979a, 1979b) found that many children, particularly adolescent daughters, tend to have peer-like relationships with their single parents. In their work on family counseling, Glenwick and Mowery (1986) have referred to an extreme form of peeriness in parent-child relationships as "Parent Becomes Peer" in which there is a "loss of intergenerational boundaries" between parent and child.⁷

Similar to the notion of peer-like relations within single-parent families, Furstenberg and Spanier (1984) found that many step-parents prefer to consider themselves as friends rather than as parents to their step-children. Other researchers have noted that there is an ambiguity in roles in reconstituted families (Kompara 1980; Pasley and Ihinger-Tallman 1989): it may be that step-parents choose to be peers as the path of least resistance.

Consistent with the results discussed above, Mangleburg (1991) found that college students in single-parent families perceived parent-child relations as being more peer-like than did college students in intact

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It should be noted that the research of Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1989), Weiss (1979a, 1979b), and Glenwick and Mowery (1986) is based on clinical case studies. As such, their results may not hold in nonclinical samples. However, Mangleburg (1991) has found similar relationships in a nonclinical sample of college students; thus, there is some evidence that peeriness exists in nonclinical families as well.

families. No differences in perceptions of peerness were found on the basis of sex.

Structure of Household Roles

Authority role socialization is also manifested through the structure of household roles (i.e., the manner in which household duties and responsibilities are divided between parents and children). With decreasing hierarchy, one would expect a more equal sharing of household responsibility between parents and children, or increasing children's household responsibility, as compared with more hierarchical families. Family type has been found to be related to children's household responsibility, or the extent to which children have responsibility in managing the household. The clinical case studies of Weiss (1979a, 1979b) indicate that children "grow up a little faster" in single-parent households, often taking on significant responsibility in household functioning. Similarly, the results of Wallerstein and Blakeslee's (1989) clinical study found that children in single-parent families often assume tasks previously performed by the absent spouse.

In studying the performance of household duties and division of labor in nonclinical single-parent families, Grief (1985) found that older children, especially females, did a significant amount of housework in father-headed single-parent households. Smith and Smith (1981) also found that household activities were shared among parents and children and that the style of household management had become more "democratic" since the fathers became single parents. It should be noted that neither of these studies compared the level of housework done by children in single-parent households with that done by children in intact or reconstituted households. Therefore, it is difficult to tell whether children

of single parents actually do perform more household tasks than children in other types of families on the basis of these studies.

In a survey comparing the household responsibility (i.e. task performance) of children in intact, reconstituted, and single-parent families, however, Amato (1987) found that children in single-parent and reconstituted families reported having greater household responsibility than did children in intact families. Similarly, in a convenience sample of college students, Mangleburg (1991) found that students in single-parent and reconstituted families perceived themselves to have more responsibility in managing the household during childhood than did students from intact families. No differences in household responsibility were found on the basis of sex.

Parenting Practices

Recall that most research on parenting practices has conceptualized parental socialization tendencies as based on the two underlying, orthogonal dimensions of restrictiveness and nurturance (c.f., Becker 1964; Carlson and Grossbart 1988; Schaeffer and Bell 1958). Research has investigated how family type affects both the restrictiveness and nurturance of parenting practices, or the quality of parenting. Studies have also investigated how parental styles differ under different types of families.

Parental Restrictiveness. With higher hierarchy, one would expect greater parental restrictiveness, which is parents' strict enforcement of demands of children in the areas of obedience, conformity, and behavior (Becker 1964). Increased restrictiveness would reflect parents' superior status as compared with children. For restrictiveness, Hetherington (1988), using multiple methods, found that remarried and single mothers

had less control over their children than did first-married mothers. In addition, parental monitoring of the child's behavior was lower in reconstituted and single-parent families than in intact families. Furstenberg and Spanier (1984) found that many step-parents were uncomfortable in a disciplinary parental role. Finally, using a convenience sample of college students, Mangleburg (1991) found that students in single-parent and reconstituted families perceived their parents as having less control than did students from intact families. Thus, it appears that fewer adults (or original parents in the case of reconstituted families) in the family is associated with decreased parental restrictiveness.

Parental Nurturance. Given that single parents tend to have many demands placed on them and that, as a result, they may delegate more responsibility to children, parent-child relations may be more instrumentally than affectively based in these types of families. Single parents also may not have as much time to spend on nurturing children as compared with parents in other family types. In the reconstituted case, step-parents may not be as involved with their step-children, and, therefore, they may be less nurturant as compared with an "original" parent. Thus, one would expect nurturance, which is how "accepting, affectionate, approving, understanding, and child-centered" parents are toward their children (Becker 1964, p. 174), to be greatest in intact families and least in single-parent families.

With regard to nurturance, research has shown that step-parents have less positive affect toward children than biological parents do (Peek et al. 1988). Mangleburg (1991) also found that female students in single-

parent families perceived their parents as being less supportive than did female students in reconstituted families.

Parental Styles. In examining the relationship between parental styles and family type, Dornbusch et al. (1987) used Baumrind's (1968, 1971) classification of parental styles (i.e., authoritarian, authoritative, permissive), but collapsed neglecting parenting (low restrictiveness, low nurturance) with permissive parenting (low restrictiveness, high nurturance) to form their "permissive" category. They found that parenting was more authoritarian (low nurturance, high restrictiveness) and permissive in single-parent and reconstituted families than it was in intact families, and that parenting was less authoritative (high nurturance, high restrictiveness) in reconstituted families than in intact families for boys but not for girls. Although generalizations about family type's effects on each dimension of restrictiveness and nurturance cannot be made on the basis of Dornbusch et al.'s results (because parental styles are based on the interaction of these two factors), their results are consistent with the notion that parental effectiveness declines with fewer adults or original parents (given that authoritative parenting is associated with the most favorable child outcomes).

In sum, family type has been shown to be related to peeriness, children's household responsibility, and parental restrictiveness in a manner consistent with the notion that fewer adults and children's reduced length of exposure to two-adult role models reduces hierarchy. In addition, there is at least some evidence to suggest that family type is also related to differences in parental nurturance.

A SOCIALIZATION MODEL OF CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE

The degree of hierarchy present in the family depends on family type. Hierarchy, or the structure of authority relations in the family, is evidenced through the peerness of parent-child relations, children's household roles, parental coalition formation, and parental restrictiveness. Conceptually, if we view family type, ordered from single-parent to reconstituted to intact families, as varying along a continuum of hierarchy, we can relate family type to the peerness of parent-child relationships, children's household roles, parental coalition formation, and parental restrictiveness, all of which are likely to affect children's influence in purchase decisions.⁸

Specifically, we propose that family type patterns various aspects of family relationships (i.e., peerness, children's household roles, parental coalition formation, and parental restrictiveness) and that it is from these patterns of family relations that children are socialized into a particular structure of authority in the family. And, although nurturance is not related to authority-role socialization, nurturance is one component of parental socialization tendencies, or parental styles. Moreover, research suggests that family type is also likely to affect parental nurturance. Thus, we postulate that family type will affect peerness, children's household roles, parental coalition formation, par-

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As Rossiter (1978) notes, influence can be either direct (i.e. active) or indirect (i.e. passive). This discussion is premised on the direct form of children's influence.

ental restrictiveness, and parental nurturance and that these socialization factors will, in turn, affect children's influence. In other words, we propose that family type will directly affect each one of these five socialization factors and that these five factors will, in turn, directly affect children's influence. The effect of family type on influence, then, is postulated to be mediated through peerness, children's household roles, parental coalition formation, parental restrictiveness, and parental nurturance.

Given that research has shown that children's influence varies by product type, we can segment influence into influence for family-related product decisions and influence for child-related product decisions. In addition, consistent with Kim et al. (1991), products can also be categorized according to whether they are of major or minor expense, or according to the degree of perceived financial risk associated with purchase decisions for given products. To control for the potential effects of perceived financial risk, we focus on only those products that are of relatively high expense, or more financially risky. It is likely that the relationships of interest in this study (i.e., effects of family type and socialization factors on children's influence) will be more pronounced for high-financial-risk types of decisions. Thus, to have a "strong" test of the model, we focus on children's influence in decisions for relatively expensive products for the family and the child. On the basis of these considerations, the effects of family type and the five socialization factors on children's influence in family- and child-related (high-financial-risk) purchase decisions can be modeled as shown in Figure 2.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Effects of Family Type on Socialization Factors

Peerness. For the effects of family type on peerness, we expect peerness to be greatest in single-parent families, less in reconstituted families, and least in intact families. In intact families, because two adults are present, parents are more likely to draw on each other for affective support and friendship: when two adults are present there should be less need for parents to rely on children to fulfill their needs for friendship as compared with the single-parent case. However, given that the sources of adult affective support are more limited for single parents, single parents may be more likely to treat their children as friends as compared with other family types. For reconstituted families, although another adult who could serve as a friend is present, it is also likely that parents had more peerlike relationships with children prior to remarriage. These peerlike relationships between parents and children are not likely to totally disappear after remarriage: it would be somewhat difficult for a parent to begin treating a child who was once viewed as being more of a friend as suddenly inferior. Thus, we hypothesize

H1: Peerness will be highest in single-parent families, less in reconstituted families, and least in intact families.

Children's Household Responsibility. Given that single parents tend to have many demands placed on them, one way that they may seek to alleviate some of their role overload is to delegate a degree of household responsibility to children. When two adults are present, however, as is

the case in intact families, there should be less need to delegate household responsibility to children: there is another adult present with whom household responsibility can be shared. Although if both parents work and, consequently, the role demands of each are increased, role strain is likely to be less for a married parent than for a single parent, who has no other adult with whom to share household responsibility. In reconstituted families, although two adults among whom responsibility can be shared are present, parents, prior to remarriage, are also likely to have learned that children can handle a significant degree of household responsibility. Thus, parents may be more likely to continue delegating some measure of household responsibility to children after remarriage, although the extent of this responsibility is likely to be less than that existed prior to remarriage, given that there is now another person to take on some of this responsibility. Thus, we hypothesize

H2: Children's household responsibility will be greatest in single-parent families, less in reconstituted families, and least in intact families.

Parental Coalition Formation. We expect parental coalition formation, which concerns the extent to which parents support each other's views in relation to children, to be greatest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families. The relationship between a single parent and a former spouse is likely to be somewhat conflictual; therefore, one would expect there to be less agreement and working together among parents in this instance than would be the case in other family types. Also, given that roles in reconsti-

tuted families tend to be somewhat ambiguous, step-parents may be less likely to be involved in child-rearing issues than an original parent is.

H3: Parental coalition formation will be highest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families.

Parental Restrictiveness. In examining how family type affects parental restrictiveness, we expect restrictiveness to be greatest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families. When two adults are present, as in intact families, restrictiveness is reinforced by the presence of the other adult. In addition, parental restrictiveness is likely to be viewed as more legitimate, as a parental right or duty, when two adults are present than is the case for a single parent. In single-parent families, to the extent that children are involved in fulfilling family duties, single parents may not believe that they have as much right to restrict children's activities and behavior as compared with intact families. Also, there is no other adult present to reinforce a single parent's restrictiveness. In reconstituted families, although two adults are present, both step-parents and children may not believe that step-parents have as much right to be restrictive as an original parent would have. Children may not accept a great degree of restrictiveness on the part of step-parents. Therefore, we hypothesize

H4: Parental restrictiveness will be greatest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families.

Parental Nurturance. It is expected that parental nurturance will be greatest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families. Although at first glance this hypothesis may appear to be counterintuitive, single parents may be so stressed and overburdened that they are unable to offer children substantial support, or nurturance. In addition, given the many demands placed on single parents, they may not have as much time to devote to nurturing children as compared with intact families. Two adults are likely to have more time to devote toward this nurturance. In reconstituted families, although two adults are present, the step-parent is likely to be somewhat more affectively disengaged from children than an original parent is likely to be.

H5: Parental nurturance will be greatest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families.

Effects of Socialization Factors on Children's Influence⁹

Peerness. In relating peerness to children's influence in family and child-related product decisions, we expect increasing peerness to positively affect children's influence in both family- and child-related product decisions. When parents view children more as peers, they are likely to consult children about the decisions they are making. Thus, when there are peer-like relations between parents and children, parents

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Recall that these hypotheses focus on children's influence in high-financial-risk purchase decisions for the family and the child.

are likely to consult children about family-related product decisions. Children are also more likely to offer "advice" (i.e., attempt to influence) in family-related product decisions when there are more peer-like relations between parents and children. Similarly, children are likely to feel comfortable in asserting preferences and influencing purchase decisions for products for their own use with increasing peerness.

H6: Increasing peerness in parent-child relationships positively affects children's influence in both family-related and child-related product decisions.

Children's Household Responsibility. Children's household responsibility is likely to positively affect children's influence in family-related product decisions. According to the norm of reciprocity, increased responsibility for family tasks is likely to be translated into children's having greater influence in decisions that concern the family, and this includes decisions about products for family consumption. Children who perform many household duties are also likely to gain expertise in the areas for which they have substantial responsibility. Thus, these children are likely to have greater knowledge about certain types of family products than are children who perform fewer family duties and who have less family responsibility.

We also expect that increasing household responsibility will positively affect children's influence in child-related purchase decisions in that increased household responsibility is likely to serve as a "bargaining chip" that children can "call" to influence child-related purchase decisions as well as family-related ones (according to the norm

of reciprocity). However, increasing household responsibility should have no effect on children's knowledge of child-related product decisions. Therefore, we expect the effects of household responsibility to be greatest for family-related decisions.

H7: Increasing children's household responsibility positively affects children's influence in both family-related and child-related product decisions: however, the effect of household responsibility will be greater for family-related purchase decisions.

Parental Coalition Formation. It is expected that increasing parental coalition formation will negatively affect children's influence in family-related product decisions. With increasing parental coalition formation, parents are likely to make many purchase decisions without the child's direct influence on the decision: such a decision pattern would reflect parents' greater status relative to their children. In addition, given that family-related decisions are likely to be important to parents, because they will be consuming the product and because these products are relatively financially risky, parents may be more likely to support each other's preferences over those of children. Finally, children are also likely to accept the legitimacy of parental dominance because they are accustomed to being subordinates through frequent exposure to parental coalitions.

Parental coalition formation is also likely to negatively affect children's influence in child-related purchase decisions in that these decisions are also likely to be relatively financially risky. However, these decisions are likely to be somewhat less important to parents than

the family-related decisions because parents will not be directly consuming these products. Thus, the effects of coalition formation are likely to be less for child-related than for family-related purchase decisions.

H8: Increasing parental coalition formation will negatively affect children's influence in both family-related and child-related purchase decisions: however, the effects of coalition formation will be greater for family-related decisions.

Parental Restrictiveness. It is expected that increasing parental restrictiveness will negatively affect children's influence in both family- and child-related product decisions. Parents who are restrictive are likely to limit and control children's influence in both types of product decisions because they believe children should be obedient and conform to parental wishes. Therefore, restrictive parents are not likely to be receptive to children's having a say in any type of purchase decision.

H9: Increasing parental restrictiveness negatively affects children's influence in both family-related and child-related purchase decisions.

Parental Nurturance. For parental nurturance, it is likely that children's influence in both family- and child-related product decisions will increase with increasing nurturance. Carlson and Grossbart (1988) found that the most nurturant and warm types of parents (i.e., authori-

tative and permissive) communicated more about consumption (of which children's influence was one indicator) than did less warm types of parents (i.e. authoritarian and neglecting). Parents who are more nurturant are likely to listen to children and to be open to children's opinions. Because more nurturant parents are child-centered, these parents should be supportive of children's influence in purchase decisions. This should be true for both family- and child-related product decisions.

H10: Increasing parental nurturance positively affects children's influence in both family-related and child-related product decisions.

SUMMARY

In summary, this chapter presented a socialization model of family type's effects on children's influence in purchase decisions. Drawing on the theory of hierarchy, which concerns how authority roles are structured in the family, we conceptualized family types, ordered from single-parent to reconstituted to intact families, as reflecting low to high hierarchy, respectively. With low hierarchy, status relations between parents and children are characterized by greater equality. Under high hierarchy, children are subordinate to parents.

We proposed that family type patterns a number of aspects of family relationships, including the degree of peerness between parents and children, the extent of children's household responsibility, the degree of coalition formation between parents, and the extent of parental restrictiveness. Further, we postulated that it was from family type's effects on these patterns of parent-child interactions that children were

socialized into different authority role structures. In addition, we also hypothesized that family type would affect parental nurturance, which is one component of parental socialization styles. Thus, we proposed that family type would directly affect the five socialization factors of peeriness, children's household responsibility, parental coalition formation, parental restrictiveness, and parental nurturance.

With regard to children's influence, we hypothesized that each one of these five socialization factors would directly affect children's influence. In other words, we presented a mediational model for the effects of family type on children's influence. Specifically, family type's effects were hypothesized to be mediated by peeriness, children's household responsibility, parental coalition formation, parental restrictiveness, and parental nurturance.

Products were segmented according to who would be the primary user of the product: the family or the child. In addition, our hypotheses focused on influence in decisions involving high, perceived financial risk for the family and the child. The model and research hypotheses are summarized in Figure 2. The next chapter presents the research methodology used to test these hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapter, we presented a mediational model for the effects of family type on children's influence in purchase decisions. Specifically, we hypothesized that the effects of family type on children's influence would be mediated through the status-role socialization factors of peeriness, children's household responsibility, parental coalition formation, and restrictiveness and also through parental nurturance. Family type was hypothesized to affect each one of these five factors. These factors, in turn, were hypothesized to affect children's influence in family- and child-related, high-financial-risk purchase decisions.

This chapter reviews the research design and methodology used to test the conceptual model outlined above (Fig. 2). To give a brief overview of the chapter, we begin with a discussion of how the research hypotheses will be tested and the analysis technique that will be used. We then review various aspects of the sampling procedure. Operationalizations of constructs are then discussed, and the results of two pretests related to measure development are presented. Based on pretest results, we develop the final survey instrument. The chapter concludes with a review of the procedure used to collect the data.

HYPOTHESES TESTS

To test the mediational model of the effects of family type on children's purchase influence, the procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny

(1986) will be followed. Essentially, the procedure involves a number of stages of regression analysis. In the first stage, the mediator variables (peeriness, household responsibility, parental coalition formation, restrictiveness, and nurturance) are regressed on family type, the independent variable. To test Hypotheses 1-5, each one of the five proposed mediators are regressed separately on family type.

The second stage involves regressing the dependent variable, children's purchase influence, on the independent variable, family type. Because we have two dependent variables, children's purchase influence in family-related, high-risk decisions and children's influence in child-related, high-risk decisions, separate analyses (regression equations) are done (estimated) for each dependent variable.

In the third and final stage, the dependent variable is regressed on both the independent variable and the mediator. To test for mediation, the results of the analyses from each stage are compared. To demonstrate mediation, (1) family type should affect the mediators in stage one analyses, (2) family type should also affect the dependent variables for children's purchase influence in stage two analyses, and (3) the mediators should affect the dependent variables in stage three analyses. The strongest case for mediation occurs if family type has no effect on children's purchase influence when mediators are controlled (i.e., family type is not a significant predictor in stage three analyses, but was in stages one and two).

Hypotheses 6-10 may be tested in two different manners. If the results of stages one and two analyses indicate support for mediation of family type (i.e., family type is significantly related to the mediators and the dependent variables), separate analyses will be performed for

family type with each mediating variable (peerness, household responsibility, parental coalition formation, restrictiveness, and nurturance) for each dependent variable (children's influence in family-related, high-risk decisions and children's influence in child-related, high-risk decisions) controlling for family type. This approach would result in 10 separate analyses (family type + mediator for each of the five mediators for each of the two dependent variables).

However, if mediation is not supported at stages one and two, Hypotheses 6-10 may also be tested by estimating regression equations for each "mediator" without including family type in the equations. In other words, family type may not be related to peerness, household responsibility, parental coalition formation, restrictiveness, and/or nurturance (Hypotheses 1-5 may not be supported), but these five socialization factors may be related to children's influence (Hypotheses 6-10 may be supported). The question here is what role do these five variables play: are they mediating variables or independent variables (predictors)?

SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Sample

Data were collected from a convenience sample of adolescents who attended high school and one of their (step)parents via surveys. Because most of the research on children's influence has been confined to investigating parents' perceptions of influence, we felt it was important to include children's views as well. Adolescents' perceptions may serve as a replication of parents' perceptions if results are consistent between the two samples. Alternatively, if adolescents' perceptions differ from

parents', these differences may be substantively or theoretically important.

Adolescents were selected because this group is of interest to marketers and because it provided the strongest test of the proposed model. Although younger children (children less than 13 years of age) may be given household responsibility, for example, their age may limit the tasks that they can perform. As a result, using younger children to test the model might not have provided enough variance in the variables of interest (e.g., household responsibility) to detect differences due to family structure or to examine differences in influence resulting from these variables. In other words, the range of some variables (e.g., household responsibility, peeriness) might have been restricted if younger children had been used. Age may also be a boundary variable for the model in that the model may not hold for younger children. For example, peeriness may not exist with younger children, irrespective of family type.

Only one (step)parent was surveyed in this research, namely the (step)parent who was most involved in teaching the adolescent about being a knowledgeable consumer. Although it would have been ideal to include both parents (where applicable) in the study, we focused on the one parent who was most involved in the adolescent's consumer socialization because of the difficulty in recruiting parents to participate in the research. Research has shown that response rates typically decrease by approximately 50 percent for each family member surveyed (Foxman et al. 1987). Given that we were concerned about nonresponse bias (see Assessment of Nonresponse Bias in following chapter), we decided to select only one parent to survey in this research. We chose to survey the parent whose perceptions were likely to be the most relevant for understanding the

relationships between family type, socialization, and children's influence, that is, the parent most involved in the consumer socialization of the adolescent. This parent was identified by asking adolescents from which parent they learned the most about being a knowledgeable consumer. This parent then completed the parent's survey.

The parent and adolescent in the household in which the adolescent lived was the unit of analysis for this study. The household rather than the family was selected because the household is the context in which purchase decisions are made and the adolescent socialized on a daily basis. For example, although an adolescent may identify an absent parent as part of his/her family, the absent parent is not part of the household in which the adolescent lives and in which purchase decisions are made.

Recruitment of Schools

Data were collected through high schools. Given that adolescents and their parents were the focus of this study, collecting data through the school system provided an effective means of reaching the targeted respondents. Using schools as the sampling frame facilitated the identification of households with adolescents, which would have been an extremely difficult task to perform otherwise.

To ensure that single-parent and reconstituted families were adequately represented in the sample, schools in urban areas were selected to contact. It was felt that there would be greater variance in family types in urban as opposed to more rural settings.

Initially, the principal of an urban high school with which I was familiar was contacted. An interview to discuss the research (and request the school's participation in the study) was scheduled. The interview lasted approximately 30 minutes. During the interview, the principal

suggested that superintendents, rather than principals, be contacted when soliciting schools' participation in the study. Apparently, most school systems follow a top-down approval process for research projects. (This principal forwarded the request for the school's participation in the project to the superintendent's office, where the request was later rejected.)

On the basis of this interview, we decided to contact the superintendents of urban-area schools to request participation in the project. Superintendents were contacted by mail and sent packets containing a cover letter (see Appendix 1 for a sample of the cover letter) and copies of the parent and student questionnaires. Approximately one week after the packets were mailed, superintendents were contacted by phone to discuss the project and to learn about the disposition of the request for study participation (some schools had separate research divisions to which all requests were forwarded).

Superintendents were contacted in two waves. In the first wave, we asked to sample students in study hall classes (and these students' parents) and offered to make a \$1 donation to high schools for every fully completed set of parent-student responses. We chose to collect data from students in study hall to minimize lost class time. The \$1 incentive was offered to increase the likelihood of schools' participation in the study.

The superintendents of 14 urban school districts, representing 41 high schools, were contacted in the first wave. Of these 14 school systems, negative responses were received from 13 districts. The reasons

for rejection,¹⁰ when offered, were: the research topic was too sensitive (and could result in negative publicity or legal problems for the school system;¹¹ eight school systems); the topic was too intrusive and infringed on parents' privacy (four school systems); the project was not directly related to educational goals (e.g., improving teaching methods, etc.; five school systems); the topic was not marketing-related (one school system); and it was too late in the year to take on any new projects or the project had to through a lengthy review process which was unlikely to be completed by the end of the school year (three school systems).

For the one school that responded positively, the superintendent had forwarded the request to the principal of one of the high schools in the district. The principal agreed to permit data collection from students only, and from students in only two periods of junior- and senior-level study halls. The data from this school was used for the adolescent's pretest (see discussion below).¹² Because of the disappointing responses

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Some superintendents gave multiple reasons for rejection.

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Two high schools were having substantial public relations problems at the time the request was made.

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Initially, I had planned to carry out the adolescent's pretest in the school in which I had a contact; however, this plan fell through, as noted above, because the school rejected the project. After this school's rejection, I believed that pretesting the adolescent questionnaire would not be possible. Consequently, I was very pleased that a school would give me access to do the pretest, even if the school would not agree to full-scale participation in the project.

from the first wave of schools, two modifications were made in soliciting schools' participation. The first modification was that the incentive was increased from \$1 to \$4 for every fully completed set of parent-student responses. The second modification was that the request was repositioned to focus specifically on marketing education and business students in the high school. It was suggested in a follow-up phone call with one of the superintendents (who rejected the project for this year) that schools might be more likely to participate if marketing and business classes were targeted. The project's educational benefits could then be stressed.

A second wave of mailings that incorporated these two modifications was undertaken. As in the first wave, packets containing a cover letter and copies of the parents' and adolescents' surveys were sent, and superintendents were called a week later to discuss the request.

The superintendents of five school systems, representing nine high schools, were contacted in this second wave. Of these five schools, one positive response was received. In this case, the superintendent forwarded the request directly to the marketing education teacher of one of the high schools in the district. Responses of students and parents from this urban-area high school provided the data for the study.

OPERATIONALIZATION OF CONSTRUCTS

This section details the process of operationalizing the constructs included in the model. First, constructs are defined and an initial pool of items is generated for each construct. The results of two pretests designed to aid in measure development are then presented. On the basis

of pretest results, finalized versions of the test instrument are constructed for both parents and teens.

Construct Definitions and Initial Item Pools

Children's Influence. As Rossiter (1978) has noted, there are two type of influence: direct influence and indirect influence. In situations of direct influence, adolescents actively participate in the making of decisions. Indirect influence occurs when other family members take the adolescent's wishes into account when making decisions. This study was confined to analyzing adolescents' and (step)parents' perceptions of active influence. Perceptions of influence were rated on a seven-point Likert-type scale anchored by "parent(s) made decision alone" to "teen made decision alone." The scale's midpoint was "parent(s) and teen participated equally in decision." In addition, a "do not own" response category was also provided. The Likert-type response format was selected because this research focuses on the status of adolescents relative to parents. Moreover, if a constant-sum measure of influence, for example, had been used, the number of family members over which influence was rated would have differed. Such an approach would have confounded measurement of influence with measurement of family type.

Adolescents and (step)parents rated perceived influence over twenty-six products, half of which were framed a priori as family products and half as teen products. The family products included: car, television, living-room furniture, microwave, lawn mower*, kitchen curtains*, wall clock*, pots and pans*, cable TV subscriptions, breakfast cereal, snack

foods, soft drinks, and toothpaste.¹³ The teen products included: bike, stereo, walkman, electronic game*, bedspread for teen's room*, calculator, clothes, shoes, school supplies, movie, deodorant*, shampoo, and perfume or cologne*. The starred products were included to increase the variance in adolescents' influence and to enhance the comparability of child- and family-related product decisions.

From the ratings of influence over these 26 products, two dependent variables were constructed: adolescents' influence in family-related, high-financial-risk decisions and adolescents' influence in teen-related, high-financial-risk decisions. Recall that the hypotheses relate to influence for high-risk decisions.

Family Type. Family type was measured on the basis of answers to demographic questions. Parents were asked "What is your current marital status?" Response categories included: married, divorced, separated, widow(er)ed, and single, never married.¹⁴ Parents were also asked to re-

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Starred items are products that have not been included in prior investigations of children's influence.

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In addition, if married, parents were asked whether the marriage was a first marriage for themselves and their spouses (yes/no for each spouse). However, this question, although it provided an indication of remarriage, did not necessarily indicate that the household was reconstituted. For example, one or both spouses could have been divorced prior to their becoming married and having children. In this case, the household would be classified as remarried, but not as reconstituted, because the two spouses are both original parents of the adolescent.

port the length of all marriages and, if single, the number of years single.

From responses to these questions, family categorizations were made as follows. Households were classified as single-parent if the parent indicated his/her marital status was single, divorced, separated, or widow(er)ed.¹⁵ Households were classified as reconstituted if the parent indicated marital status as "married" and if the length of the marriage was less than the teen's age. Households were classified as intact if parents indicated marital status as "married" and if the length of the marriage was equal to or greater than the teen's age.

For adolescents, family type was classified according to responses to the question "With which parent(s) do you currently live?" Response categories included (1) mother and father, (2) mother and stepfather, (3) father and stepmother, (4) mother only, (5) father only. An "other" response category was also provided for the case in which adolescents did not live with any parent (adolescents were also asked to specify who this person was). If the adolescent checked category 4 or 5, family type was classified as single-parent. If the adolescent checked category 2 or 3, family type was classified as reconstituted. If category 1 was checked, family type was classified as intact.

According to the theory of hierarchy, family types should be ordered from single-parent to reconstituted to intact, or from low to high hierarchy, according to the structure of authority roles. As a validity check

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Cohabiting single parents were also classified as "single-parent" families.

on this proposed ordering, a measure of status-role hierarchy was constructed. Initially, because this construct had not been previously examined, a pool of seven items was developed to operationalize the construct (see Table 5). Three items were positively framed and four items were negatively framed. Both positively and negatively framed items were included to ensure that respondents would answer the questions thoughtfully rather than merely yea- or nay-saying. The response format was a five-point Likert scale. A five-point scale was felt to be sensitive enough to provide the desired variance in responses.

Peerness. Peerness is defined as adolescents' support of parents through friendship-like relations. This construct had not been previously studied; therefore, a pool of eight items was developed to tap the peerness construct (see Table 5). Five items were positively framed and three were negatively framed. The response format was a five-point Likert scale.

Child's Household Responsibility. Two measures were developed for the construct of child's household responsibility, which is the extent to which adolescents have responsibility in managing the household. The first measure was a more global-level assessment of household responsibility. Because the construct had not been previously studied, an initial pool of nine items was developed for this global measure (see Table 5). Five of these items were positively framed and four were negatively framed. The response format was a five-point Likert scale.

The second measure of household responsibility was behaviorally based and was included to have multiple operations of the adolescent's household responsibility. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of times per week that the adolescent performed the following tasks for

the family: caring for younger brothers or sisters before school; caring for younger brothers or sisters after school; doing the laundry; shopping for groceries; cooking dinner; cleaning up after dinner; cleaning the house; mowing/caring for lawn; running errands; home repairs/maintenance; and car repairs/maintenance.¹⁶ In addition, an open-ended response format was provided for "other" tasks in which the respondent listed the task and indicated the number of times per week that it was performed by the adolescent.

Although there might be differences in performing tasks and having responsibility in a given task area, one would expect adolescents who have greater responsibility in a given area to also perform the task more frequently, as compared with adolescents who have less responsibility. (In addition, greater household responsibility should be reflected in a greater performance of duties across all task areas.) In short, the above set of behavioral items might be a direct or indirect assessment of household responsibility.

Because there might be differences in performing a task and having responsibility in a given task area, a number of items were included to allow for this possibility. Specifically, respondents were asked to indicate how often the adolescent engaged in the following activities: planning the family's meals; making out the grocery list; identifying problems that need to be fixed in the house; identifying problems that need to be fixed on the car; and delegating tasks to younger brothers or

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The latter two tasks were rated according to the number of times per month that adolescents performed the given activity.

sisters. The response format was a four-point rating-type scale that ranged from "never" to "very often." These items were designed to reflect increased authority in a given task area (e.g., an adolescent might frequently cook dinner, but have little responsibility in the task area of meal preparation; planning meals might be a more direct measure of responsibility for meal preparation than the frequency of actually performing meals is).

Parental Coalition Formation Parental coalition formation is defined as the extent to which parents support each other's views in relation to children and child-rearing issues. Because this construct had not been previously investigated, a pool of six initial items (see Table 5) was developed. Four items were positively framed and two were negatively framed. A five-point Likert scale was used as the response format.

Because the unit of analysis for this study was the household, this measure generally reflected coalition formation at the household level. Specifically, if family type was intact, coalition formation between both original parents was assessed. For reconstituted family types, coalition formation between the custodial parent and the step-parent was assessed. Finally, for single-parent family types, coalition formation was assessed as follows. If the single-parent lived with another adult, coalition formation between this parent and the resident adult was assessed. If the single-parent was divorced or separated and did not live with another adult, coalition formation between the single-parent and the nonresident parent was assessed.¹⁷ Finally, if single-parents were widow(er)ed or

single, never married and did not live with another adult, no assessment of coalition formation was made. Indeed, as coalition formation was conceptualized in this research, no coalitions could be formed in these households.¹⁸

The relevant adults involved in coalition formation were included, and the extent of coalition formation assessed, by using skip patterns in the survey. The skip patterns followed the criteria outlined above and specified the adults to be included when rating coalition formation.

Although, strictly speaking, the absent parent is not part of the household, it was believed that the absent parent could play a significant role in child-rearing issues in single-parent households. If this were the case, there would be a difference between the household in which purchase decisions were made and the parental unit involved in child-rearing issues. Parental coalitions between single and nonresident parents was assessed to allow for this possibility. The issue in measuring coalition formation is to identify the child-rearing authority unit and assess the degree of coalition formation between these individuals. This also raises the possibility of the absent parent's playing a role in coalition formation in reconstituted families. Although this would be an interesting issue to address, this research excluded nonresident parents from the assessment of coalition formation in reconstituted families and single-parent families in which another adult was present. We assumed that, from the adolescent's perspective, if there was another adult present in the household, whether a step-parent or some other person, this adult's role in child-rearing issues would be dominant as compared with any influence of absent parents. In essence, we assumed that the adults with whom the adolescent interacts on a daily basis would be the most important parties in coalition formation but that, if no other adults were present in the household, a nonresident parent could be involved in coalition formation in single-parent families. This assumption meant that only two adults were included in assessing coalition formation for any given family type.

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In the case of widow(er)ed households, a deceased parent or spouse could conceivably play a role, psychologically speaking, in coalition formation in the minds of family members. But, for the purposes of this research, we focused on perceptions of actions in coalition formation.

Parental Restrictiveness Consistent with Becker's (1964) definition, parental restrictiveness is defined in this research as parents' strict enforcement of demands of children in the areas of obedience, conformity, and behavior. Most of the existing measures of parental restrictiveness were developed for use with pre-adolescent children. Consequently, many of these scales did not fit the adolescent-related context of this study. In addition, most previous scales were of a forced-choice comparison nature (e.g., Baumrind 1971).

One exception to forced-choice scales was Rickel and Biasatti's (1982) scale for restrictiveness. Rickel and Biasatti's measure is a modification of the Block Childrearing Practices Report (CRPR; Block 1965). The CRPR is a widely used scale of parental socialization practices (see, e.g., Touliatos, Perlmutter, and Strauss 1990, p. 322). The CRPR uses a Q-sort response format. Rickel and Biasatti changed the response format to a six-point rating-type scale, anchored by "not at all descriptive of me" and "highly descriptive of me." Their revised scale included 22 items for restrictiveness (alpha values were .85 in their parent sample and .82 in their student sample). All items in the scale are positively framed. In addition, their measure of restrictiveness is designed for use with pre-adolescent children.

Despite the fact that Rickel and Biasatti's scale was developed for use with younger children, this scale was used as a starting point for developing items to tap parental restrictiveness. To begin, items that did not fit the context (e.g., items concerned with sexual behavior, toilet training, demands regarding neatness, etc.) were deleted. Of the original 22 items, 10 were retained for use as potential items in the current research (see items 1-8 and items 10 and 11 in Table 5). These

10 items were modified by replacing the word "child" in the original scale with the word "teenager." In addition, two of the items were reworded to be negatively framed.

In addition to these 10 items, 11 more items were developed for restrictiveness. These items were created with adolescents in mind. An attempt was also made to include items that were related to restricting specific behaviors of the adolescent (e.g., the use of curse words; see items 9 and 12-21 in Table 5). Of these 11 items, five were positively framed and six were negatively framed.

Thus, the resulting pool of initial items for restrictiveness included 21 items, 13 positive items and 8 negative items. These items were rated on six-point rating-type scales, similar to the format used by Rickel and Biasatti (1982). The only change was that the wording of the anchors was simplified (to account for expected variance in the reading abilities of potential respondents). The scale anchors used in this study were "not at all like me" and "a lot like me." The scale had no midpoint; respondents were forced to indicate whether they tended to be slightly more or less restrictive.

Parental Nurturance. Parental nurturance is defined as how "accepting, affectionate, approving, understanding, and child-centered" parents are toward adolescents (Becker 1964, p. 174). The same procedure used to create items for restrictiveness was also used to develop items for nurturance. Rickel and Biasatti's nurturance scale originally contained 18 items (alpha levels were .82 and .84 in their parent and student samples, respectively). Eleven of these items were retained and modified for use with the adolescent sample of this research (items 1-8, 11, 14, and 15 in Table 5). Four of the items were deleted because of face va-

lidity problems. Three items were deleted because they were related to younger children. Of the 11 retained items, two were changed from positive to negative wording.

In addition to these 11 items, six new items were developed for nurturance. These items were related to the parent's spending time with the teen and encouraging verbalization between parents and teens (Carlson and Grossbart 1988). Five of these six items were negatively worded.

In this manner, 17 items for nurturance were developed for potential use in this study. Ten items were positively worded and seven were negatively worded. The same response format used for restrictiveness was also used for nurturance: a six-point rating-type scale anchored by "not at all like me" and "a lot like me."

Social Desirability. Because studies have shown that social desirability bias may be problematic in family research, a measure of social desirability was also included. A 19-item shortened version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale was used (the complete scale has an internal reliability coefficient of .88 and a test-retest correlation of .88; see Crowne and Marlowe [1964] for psychometric properties of the scale). This shortened version was used by Carlson and Grossbart (1988; no information was provided concerning the performance of the scale in this study). Each of the 19 items was rated as "true" or "false" according to whether it described the respondent.

Initial Survey

An initial version of the parent's survey that incorporated these potential measures was constructed. To minimize response-set bias and to ensure that measurement of the dependent variables was not contaminated by responses to the socialization-related variables, influence items were

presented first (pages 1 and 2). The next set of items were those relating to restrictiveness and nurturance; these items were randomly ordered (pages 3 and 4). This was followed by measures for peeriness, household responsibility (global-level measure), and authority-role structure; items for these three constructs were combined in one section and randomly ordered (page 5). The measure of parental coalition formation came next, with directions for the skip pattern, as outlined above (pages 6 and 7). Page 8 of the survey contained the behavioral measures for adolescents' household responsibility (e.g., frequency of task and activity participation and the open-ended question for tasks). This was followed by the 19 social-desirability items (page 9). Finally, the last two pages of the survey contained demographic questions (e.g., age, sex, income, marital status, etc.). For an illustration of the survey's directions and general format, see Appendix 2.¹⁹

Pretesting

Because many of the constructs of interest in this research had not been previously investigated, two pretests were conducted to develop the construct operationalizations. The first pretest used a convenience sample of parents and the second, a convenience sample of high-school-aged adolescents. This section details the pretest procedures and results.

Parents' Pretest. A convenience sample of university faculty and staff members and customers of a local pharmacy provided the data for the

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The survey in Appendix 2 is the test instrument used in the full-scale study and reflects item deletion after pretesting. However, the directions and format between the pretest and full-scale versions of the survey were the same.

parents' pretest. To be included in the sample, respondents had to have an adolescent aged 13-18 years currently residing in their household. To control for the possibility of birth-order effects, respondents were instructed to answer questions with the oldest adolescent in this age range in mind.

Sampling Procedure. For the faculty and staff respondents, requests for participation in the research were sent through campus mail. Respondents were sent a packet containing a cover letter and the 11-page test instrument. In the cover letter, respondents were informed that the research was for a dissertation about "family member roles in purchase decisions and perceptions of parent-teenager relationships." Respondents were asked to participate only if they had a teenager in their household and to focus on the oldest teenager when responding to questions. They were also asked not to discuss the research with their teenagers. Respondents were informed that the survey would take approximately 30-45 minutes to complete and were asked to return the surveys via campus mail within one week.

To increase the likelihood of reaching those respondents with teenagers, faculty degree history was consulted. Information about the date of degrees received by faculty members, available in the graduate student catalog, was reviewed. Faculty members who received their undergraduate degrees in the late 60s and 70s were targeted. It was reasoned that these individuals were approximately the "right age" for having teenaged children (allowing for a few extra years for graduate study). (Although this method of identification is not ideal, it at least provided a rough-cut means of reaching the desired respondents.) In addition, faculty in departments who were likely to have some interest in the research (e.g.,

business departments, family and child development, etc.) were selected. Questionnaires were sent to all staff members in the targeted departments.

Of the 137 questionnaires distributed, 11 responses were received. This (dismal) response rate probably reflected a number of factors: individuals did not wish to participate, did not have teenaged children, and/or the survey was too long (two individuals returned surveys with a note to this effect), among others. In hindsight, the response rate probably could have been improved if reminder letters had been sent; however, this was not done.

Because the response rate of faculty and staff members was so low, a second group of respondents was included. This group was comprised of customers of a local pharmacy known to have teenaged children. These individuals were contacted for participation in the research and were given packets containing a cover letter, the questionnaire, and a preaddressed, postage-paid envelope. The cover letter was basically the same as that used for the faculty/staff respondents, with the exception that respondents were asked to return surveys through the mail in the postage-paid envelope provided. Of the 30 questionnaires distributed, 13 responses were returned.

Sample. Twenty-five parents of teenagers provided the data for the parents' pretest. The sample was 60 percent female, with an average age of 44 years. These individuals tended to be well-educated and upper-middle-class. Two households were single-parent and three were reconstituted; all others were intact families.

Analysis Procedure Because the sample size was too small to permit factor analyses of (1) the influence ratings over products (there were 26 products and only 25 respondents) and (2) the behavioral measure of

household responsibility (there were 16 tasks), no assessment of the measure for adolescents' influence or the behavioral measure of household responsibility could be made. For these constructs, factor analyses were to be the starting point in constructing the measures. Although we had some a priori notion about what family products might reflect high financial risk, it was less clear in the case of teen products. For the behavioral items for household responsibility, there were no a priori notions for selecting any task as a better measure than another. Consequently, all items for influence and responsibility were retained for analysis in the full-scale study.

One other effect of the small sample size was that it created a dilemma about what to do with missing data. If sample size is sufficiently large, one can afford to delete cases with missing data. In this case, because the sample size was so small, we decided to replace missing values with scale midpoints to preserve the data and use responses from all individuals. The scale midpoint was selected as the replacement value because, in this case, there were no available midpoints for measures because they had not been developed yet.

Replacing missing values may have the effect of smoothing out the data, which would be problematic in this context, given that our goal was to develop construct measures. We acknowledge that replacing missing values is not a desirable approach, but, for the case of this parent sample, the number of missing cases was 0-2 for each construct, which can be considered as a small number of missing cases. Analyses were done both with and without recoding missing values, and results were not substantially (or substantively) different between the two. The issue of missing

data, however, was more problematic in the adolescents' pretest (as will be discussed below).

Essentially, then, this pretest was used to construct measures for peerness, household responsibility (global measure), parental coalition formation, restrictiveness, nurturance, and authority- role structure. We also wished to see if it would be possible to reduce the number of social-desirability items.

The goal of the pretest was to construct reliable and face valid measures for constructs. Reliability (or the extent to which an indicator yields similar results on repeated measurements) is a necessary but not sufficient condition for construct validity (i.e., whether an indicator measures what it purports to measure). Because sample size was so small, a thorough assessment of construct validity was not possible in the pretest (e.g., the sample was too small to perform one factor analysis of responses for all constructs as evidence of convergent validity).

In creating the measures, we wished to develop unidimensional scales that had the smallest number of internally and logically consistent items. The following algorithm was used to develop the measures of peerness, household responsibility, parental coalition formation, nurturance, restrictiveness, and authority- role structure. (A somewhat different approach was used for the social-desirability measure; it will be discussed below.)

As a starting point, reliability analyses that included all potential items (see Table 5) for the six constructs were conducted (i.e., six separate reliability analyses). We used (1) the change in Cronbach's alpha if the item were deleted, (2) examination of inter-item correlations, and (3) logically guided judgment as bases for deleting items.

Items that did not correlate highly with other relevant items, did not seem to fit as well with other items logically, and for which the alpha level of the scale could be improved if these items were deleted, were deleted. This procedure was performed iteratively to the point at which the alpha level of the pool of remaining items could not be improved with more item deletions and the remaining items seemed to be logically related.

At this point, the retained items were submitted to a factor analysis to provide evidence for whether they all depended on the same underlying dimension (i.e., were all measures of the same underlying construct). If all items loaded at least .3 on a single factor, and this factor accounted for an adequate degree of variance in responses, the procedure was terminated and the output became the final scale. If not, reliability analyses were undertaken on items that loaded on the same factor, and the series of steps outlined above was repeated.

Results. The construct measures developed from the parents' pretest and scale properties are presented in Tables 6- 13. An important result of this pretest was that two subconstructs for nurturance and restrictiveness seemed to be indicated. For nurturance, two correlated factors were derived ($r = .7005$, $p < .01$). The first subscale, which was termed "encouraging verbalization," included five items related to the extent and warmth of communication between parents and adolescents (see Table 6). This subconstruct mirrors Carlson and Grossbart's (1988) use of an encouraging-verbalization subscale for the warmth dimension of parental styles.

The second subscale for nurturance contained four items concerning the amount of time the parent devoted to the adolescent (see Table 7).

This subscale was labeled "spending time with teen" and closely parallels notions of a "sustained contact" dimension of nurturance (see, e.g., Barber and Thomas 1986).

The high positive correlation between these two scales, together with the fact that a factor analysis of these items yielded a two-factor solution, provides strong evidence that the two scales each tap separate dimensions of the underlying theoretical construct of nurturance. Such a conceptualization is also consistent with prior research on nurturance.

With regard to the hypotheses for nurturance in this study, no differences in any of the hypothesized relationships are expected between encouraging verbalization and spending time with teen. As Gecas and Seff (1990, p. 947) state, "although it is useful to make such refinements of the concept of parental support [or nurturance] . . . components do not differ in the valence of their effects, even though they may differ in the magnitude of effects." Thus, the sign of the hypotheses for both encouraging verbalization and spending time with teen should be the same; effect sizes may differ but, at this point, it is difficult (and premature) to offer specific predictions about the magnitude of effects (since an effect for nurturance has not been demonstrated in the first place).

There was also some evidence of two subconstructs for restrictiveness. Two subscales were developed, but they were not significantly correlated ($r = -.098$, n.s.). The first subscale contained items related to restricting various behaviors of adolescents (see Table 8). This subscale was termed "restricting teen's behavior;" it is similar to Carlson and Grossbart's (1988) subdimension of "strictness" for restrictiveness. Indeed, most conceptualizations of restrictiveness

embody some notion of parental strictness (see, e.g., Becker 1964; Baumrind 1971).

The second subscale for restrictiveness was more difficult to label. By closely examining the items and thinking about what underlying commonality they could share, the subscale was eventually labeled "emphasizing parental authority in communication" (see Table 9). The items seemed to be related to parents' control of and dominance in communicative expression in the parent-teen relationship. On examination, it was felt that this subscale could be related to Carlson and Grossbart's (1988) "values conformity" subdimension of restrictiveness. If a parent values conformity, (s)he is likely to dominate and demand deference in communicative expression between parents (or other authority figures) and children. Again, there is strong support for a valuing conformity subdimension to restrictiveness (see, e.g., Baumrind 1971).

Because both items in this subscale and those for encouraging verbalization were both related to communication in the parent-adolescent relationship, we examined the correlation between these two scales. The relevant question here was whether "emphasizing parental authority" was a subcomponent of restrictiveness or rather the opposite end of an encouraging verbalization continuum. The low correlation between the emphasizing authority scale and the restricting behavior scale indicated that emphasizing authority might not be a subdimension of restrictiveness (even though an admittedly removed theoretical argument could be made for an emphasizing authority dimension of restrictiveness). If the items for emphasizing authority were merely negatively worded indicators for encouraging verbalization, one would expect there to be a significant negative correlation between the emphasizing authority scale and the

encouraging verbalization scale. Indeed, this proved to be the case: the two were significantly and negatively correlated ($r = -.4528, p < .01$).

Even though this result would seem to indicate that emphasizing authority was not a subdimension of restrictiveness, but rather that it was the opposite of encouraging verbalization, we were uncomfortable in making such a decision on the basis of this pretest. Because sample size was low and there was at least some theoretical basis for viewing emphasizing authority as a subcomponent of restrictiveness, we tentatively classified emphasizing authority as a subscale for restrictiveness. In other words, the items were retained for future analysis with data from a larger sample.

It is not surprising that nurturance and, arguably, restrictiveness were found to be multidimensional constructs. Indeed, most research indicates that nurturance and restrictiveness are two underlying, orthogonal dimensions of parenting, but that each of these dimensions, in turn, is composed of many related but distinct facets (see, e.g., Baumrind 1971; Gecas and Seff 1991). Rickel and Biasatti (1982) found their measures of nurturance and restrictiveness to be unidimensional, but their results seem to be the exception rather than the rule.

The measure developed for peerness included 5 items (Table 10). A four-item measure for household responsibility was created (Table 11). All initial items were retained for parental coalition formation (Table 12). Finally, a four-item measure was developed for authority-role structure (Table 13).

For social desirability, the process of measure development was different than the one outlined above. Initially, because we wished to retain only those items that truly distinguished between the presence or

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absence of socially desirable responses, all items that did not have at least a 60-40 percent split between the true and false categories were deleted. The resulting five items were retained (Table 14). This scale had an alpha level of .71 and yielded a single factor with 45.5 percent variance explained. While the percent of variance explained was lower than desired, the reliability of the scale appeared adequate.

Summary. All scales exceeded the recommended alpha level of .70 for social science research (Nunnally 1978). Scales, thus, seemed to be internally consistent. Moreover, all measures developed in this pretest had single-factor solutions, with the percent of variance explained ranging from 54.5 percent (adolescent's household responsibility) to 75.9 percent (parental coalition formation). The items representing each construct also exhibited face validity (with the possible exception of emphasizing authority, as discussed above), seeming to correspond to their respective construct definitions.

These results, taken together, seemed to indicate that the scales developed here were reliable measures. Thus, the necessary condition of reliability for construct validity seemed to be met. In addition, factor analysis results provided some evidence of convergent validity in that scale items for each (sub)construct seemed to be tapping a single, common dimension (for that construct or subconstruct).

Adolescents' Pretest. The survey for the adolescents' pretest was developed on the basis of the analysis from the parents' pretest. In other words, adolescents did not respond to all of the initially proposed items for constructs. Rather, they responded only to items that had comprised reliable scales in the parents' pretest. If a scale is not reliable in one sample, it is an inadequate scale; therefore, results of

the parents' pretest served as a minimum criterion for including items in the adolescents' pretest. Moreover, had different scales been developed for the two samples, meaningful comparisons between their results would have been problematic. In such a case, the rival explanation that convergence/divergence resulted from differing measurements in the two samples exists, by definition.

In constructing the survey, the items for all constructs were reworded to fit the adolescent's perspective. For example, the item, "I encourage my teenager to talk about his/her feelings," from the parents' survey was reworded as "My parent encourages me to talk about my feelings" for the adolescents' survey.

Because this research focused on the parent most involved in the consumer socialization of the adolescent, teens were asked to identify this person on the first page of the survey. The specific question was: "From which parent do you learn the most about being a knowledgeable consumer (such as learning about products and brands, going shopping with, and so on)?" Students were instructed to select only one person from the following list: mother, father, stepmother, stepfather, or guardian. They were told that, for sections two and three of the survey only (i.e., the sections containing the nurturance, restrictiveness, peerness, household responsibility, and authority-role structure items), when a question referred to "parent" they were to respond with the person they identified above in mind.

With the exception of adding this first page, the survey for the adolescents followed the same order as did that of the parents. For example, pages 2 and 3 of the adolescents' survey contained the influence items; page 4, the nurturance and restrictiveness items; page 5, the

peerness, household responsibility, and authority-role structure items; pages 6 and 7, the parental coalition items with directions for the skip pattern; page 8, the behavioral household-responsibility and social-desirability items; and pages 9 and 10, the demographic questions. Again, the dependent measures were presented first to reduce the possibility that responses would be affected by socialization items. Items within sections were randomly ordered to minimize response set bias.

Data Collection Procedure. Data were collected from high-school students in the first two periods of junior-and- senior-level study hall. (The school's principal would only agree to surveying older students who wished to participate in the research.) In this particular school, study halls were held in the school's cafeteria, which was a centrally located, open area that adjoined wings of the school. At the beginning of each study hall period, roll was taken and a concession stand at which students could purchase snacks and drinks was opened.

Study halls were segmented along class lines (i.e., freshman and sophomore study hall and junior and senior study hall). Thus, two study halls could be conducted simultaneously in the same room (which was the case in the second period of data collection). On the day scheduled for data collection, there was an honor-society induction occurring during the two periods of data collection. Thus, "better" students were not present to participate in the study.

To begin the data collection, the study-hall teacher introduced me to the students. I told students that I was from Virginia Tech and that I was working on a research project for my doctoral dissertation. Students were told that the research was about "family member roles in purchase decisions and parent-teenager relationships." I also told them

that, since not a lot of research had been done on what people their age thought about these issues, I was really interested in learning what they had to say. They were also informed that they did not have to participate in the project if they did not wish to do so, but that I hoped they would.

The surveys were then distributed to those students who agreed to participate. I told them to work through the survey at their own pace. They were asked to hold their surveys when they were done and that I would collect them at the end of the period. This was done to avoid having slower students feel pressure to complete the survey in the same amount of time as their classmates did. Finally, students were told that, if they had any questions, I would be more than happy to answer them.

Students worked through the survey, and responses were collected at the end of the 50-minute period. No student had trouble finishing the survey in the allotted time. Afterward, I thanked the students for participating in the project and informed them that I would send results to their principal in two to three weeks for them to see.

Sample. Data from a convenience sample of 26 junior- and senior-level students from an urban-area high school were collected. Of these 26 responses, one case was deleted because the student was sitting with a group of friends (who were not purportedly participating in the research) and all were contributing to completion of the questionnaire. Thus, analyses are based on 25 student responses. The sample was 52 percent female, with an average age of 17 years. Four students were from single-parent families, five were from reconstituted families, and the rest were from intact families.

Analysis Procedure. As was done in the parent sample, missing data were replaced with scale midpoints. The incidence of missing data was

higher in this pretest than in the parent's pretest. Missing data ranged from 0-4 cases on a construct-by-construct basis. The greatest number of missing cases occurred for peeriness. Finally, data were missing on a random basis. Analyses were done with both missing values recoded and not recoded and results did not differ substantially between the two.

The purpose of this pretest was to see if the results found in the parent sample would hold in a sample of adolescents. If so, this would provide another piece of evidence for the reliability and construct validity of the previously developed measures.

Reliability and factor analyses of the scales developed in the parents' pretest were carried out with the student data. As was the case with the parents' pretest, this sample size was too small to permit assessment of the influence and behavioral household-responsibility items.

Results. The results of the reliability and factor analyses for the student sample are presented in Tables 6-14. In general, the scales did not perform well in this sample.

For the encouraging verbalization dimension of nurturance (Table 6), reliability was lower in this sample than in the parent sample (.72 and .91, respectively), but it was still satisfactory. However, the factor analysis for teens yielded a two-factor solution. The first factor included four of the five items (51.6 percent variance explained) for encouraging verbalization. The second factor contained the item, "My parent does not know what my hopes are for the future." If this item were deleted, internal consistency could be improved from .72 to .79.

Because one of the items for spending time with teen was inadvertently omitted in this pretest, no assessment of this scale could be made in this sample.

For the restricting behavior dimension of restrictiveness (Table 8), reliability in the teen sample was dismal (alpha was .30). Moreover, two factors were indicated in the factor analysis, with the items concerning bedtime and homework loading on the first factor (37 percent variance explained) and the other two items loading on the second factor. With the homework item deleted, alpha is .40, but this result for reliability is still poor.

For emphasizing authority (Table 9), alpha was low (.56) and two factors were again indicated. The items for criticism and scolding loaded on the first factor (43.8 percent variance explained), and the other two items loaded on the second factor.

The alpha for peerness (Table 10) was lower in this sample than in the parents' sample (.80 and .86, respectively), but it was satisfactory. However, factor analysis yielded two factors: four items loaded on the first factor (55.5 percent variance explained). The item, "My parent never asks me for advice," comprised the second factor. If this item were deleted, alpha would decrease from .80 to .79. Examination of inter-item correlations indicated that the correlation between this item and the "if my parent had a problem . . ." item was low (inter-item correlation was .029).

Reliability was low for the household responsibility measure (alpha was .40; Table 11). A two-factor result was also obtained. Factor one was composed of the "I do not have a lot of family responsibility" and "I do not do a lot of household work" items (42.7 percent variance explained). With the item, "My parent would like to give me more family-related duties," deleted, reliability for the scale substantially

improves (from .40 to .60), but .60 is still not an adequate value for internal consistency.

For parental coalition formation (Table 12), alpha was low (.56). Factor analysis yielded three factors. One factor contained the two negatively framed items (21.6 percent variance explained) and another, the first item (13.6 percent variance explained).

Reliability was also low (alpha was .45) for the authority-role structure measure (Table 13). However, contrary to the results for previous scales, only one factor was obtained in the factor analysis. Reliability could be substantially improved for this scale with the item, "In comparing myself with my parent, my parent is the boss," deleted. The alpha value without this item is .72, which is acceptable.

Finally, the social desirability scale (Table 14) performed poorly as well. Alpha was .33, and factor analysis results indicated three factors. The items for resentment and taking advantage loaded on the first factor (33.1 percent variance explained), the item for giving up loaded on the second factor (26.1 percent variance explained), and the remaining two items loaded on the third factor.

Summary. In general, the scales developed in the parents' pretest performed poorly in the adolescents' pretest. In all cases, reliability was lower in the teen than in the parent sample. Moreover, in most cases, the resulting alpha value in the teen sample was far below that considered acceptable for social science research. Finally, scales were not found to be unidimensional in this pretest, contrary to the results of the parents' pretest. Given the small sample size and the less-than-ideal conditions in which this pretest was conducted (e.g., the physical setting, the concession stand, etc.), it is perhaps not surprising that

scales proved unreliable in this pretest. And of course, the scales could also be poor measures, as these results tend to indicate.

If results of this pretest can be considered valid, then the findings can be viewed as shedding some light on which items could be problematic in some scales. For example, the item of "My parent does not know what my hopes are for the future" for encouraging verbalization is a likely candidate for deletion. The same might be true for the homework item for restrictiveness, the "my parent would like to give me more family-related duties" item for household responsibility, and the parent-as-boss item for authority-role structure.

Discussion. One limitation characterizing both pretests is related to small sample size. Results based on small sample sizes can be misleading in that small samples are subject to greater sampling error than are large samples. Although there is little means of accurately estimating this bias, to at least get a handle on how problematic the error might be, the data from both pretest samples were combined. Moreover, because our purpose for using the data here was to aid in scale development, as opposed to testing hypotheses, pooling seemed warranted. If our purpose had been to test hypotheses, pooling would not have been legitimate, because differences between parents and teens would be of substantive and theoretical interest in this case (pooling would also result in nonindependence if parents and teens were from the same families, which, in this case, they were not).

Results for the combined sample are presented in Tables 6-14. The scales for encouraging verbalization (Table 6), restricting behavior (Table 8), peeriness (Table 10), and parental coalition formation (Table 12) indicated that the full scales, as developed in the parents' pretest,

were adequate. The alpha values for these three scales was at least .70 (and the reliability for each could not be substantially improved with item deletion), and the factor analyses all yielded single factors that explained at least 50 percent of the variation in responses.

The reliabilities for emphasizing authority (Table 9), household responsibility (Table 11), authority-role structure (Table 13), and social desirability (Table 14) were better in the combined analysis than they were in the adolescents' analysis. However, alpha for these scales with the pooled data still fell below the .70 criterion. Reliability for household responsibility could be improved from .60 to .66 by deleting the "My parent would like to give me more family-related duties" item. Similarly, for authority-role structure, reliability could be improved from .53 to .72 with the parent-as-boss item deleted.

With the exception of household responsibility, multiple factors were obtained for these scales in the pooled analysis. For emphasizing authority, the two factors obtained in the pooled analysis differed from the two found in the adolescents' pretest. In the pooled analysis, the first factor contained the questioning authority and criticism items (46.7 percent variance explained). For social desirability in the pooled analysis, four items loaded on the first factor (40 percent variance explained), and the giving up item comprised the second factor.

One interesting result of this analysis was the finding of two dimensions for authority-role structure. Items for this scale were found to load on one factor in both the parents' and adolescents' pretest. In the combined analysis, the parent-as-boss item loaded on a separate factor from other items; also, as indicated above, reliability could be improved to an acceptable .72 with this item deleted.

The pooled results seem to indicate that the scales for encouraging verbalization, restricting behavior, peerness, and parental coalition formation, as developed in the first pretest, were adequate measures. Similarly, the authority-role structure scale with the parent-as-boss item deleted also appeared to be an adequate measure. However, as was the case in the adolescents' pretest, the combined results indicated that the measures for emphasizing authority, household responsibility, and social desirability were problematic.

Ideally, at this point, it would have been desirable to carry out a third pretest for the three poorly performing measures. However, because of the difficulty in obtaining respondents, a third pretest was not performed. Rather, the items for these three scales were all retained (indeed, all items indicated in the parents' pretest were retained) for the full-scale study.

This retention was done with the knowledge that these three scales were likely to prove unreliable in the full-scale study. It was reasoned, however, that, in the case of household responsibility, if the global-level measure performed poorly, the behavioral measure could potentially compensate for this weakness. For the case of emphasizing authority, even if this measure performed poorly, hypotheses for restrictiveness could still be tested with the restricting behavior dimension alone. If the measure for social desirability performed poorly in the full-scale study, such that the presence of this bias could not be assessed, this was a trade-off we were willing to make. In a choice between not being able to conduct the study or having results potentially qualified by social desirability bias, we opted for the latter alternative.

Development of the Final Test Instruments. On the basis of pretest results, two versions of the test instrument were constructed. The final questionnaire for parents is given in Appendix 2. The adolescents' survey is given in Appendix 3.

Essentially, all items for all constructs examined in the parents' pretest were retained (these items are presented in Tables 6-14). As previously discussed, because pretest sample sizes were small, the behavioral items for household responsibility and the items for influence could not be assessed in the pretests. Therefore, all of the initial items were retained for these constructs (i.e., the 16 tasks and activities for household responsibility and the 26 products over which influence was to be rated) so that measures could be developed in the larger study samples.

For the final survey, a change was made in the response format for the task items for household responsibility. In the pretest, respondents were asked to indicate the number of times per week or month that the adolescent performed the task for the family. These items were not analyzed for scale development in the pretests. However, on examining the responses given (in a general sense), there seemed to be only slight variation in the number of times per week indicated for any one task.

Thus, at a cursory level, this response format did not seem to be sensitive enough to reflect variation in task-performance behavior. (Perhaps a one-week interval was too short a time period to reflect differences in performing tasks.) The response format, therefore, was changed to a four-point rating scale, ranging from "never" to "very often." This new response format, in addition to being potentially more sensitive to variations in task performance, also had the advantage of

simplifying the cognitive task of respondents, a desirable outcome given the length of the survey.

The test instrument for parents (Appendix 2) was nine pages long and followed the order used in the parents' pretest version (i.e., measures for dependent variables were presented first, followed by those for nurturance and restrictiveness, and so on). Items were randomly ordered within sections. Because pretest respondents did not appear to have difficulty in understanding the instructions, the directions used in the final test instrument were taken verbatim from the pretest.

The adolescents' survey (Appendix 3) was 10 pages long. This survey was one page longer than the parents' version, the extra page being the question in which adolescents were asked to identify the parental consumer-socialization agent. Otherwise, the format and item ordering used in the adolescents' survey was the same as that used for the parents.' The directions in the adolescents' survey were also similar to the ones used for parents, except that they were reworded to fit the adolescents' perspective (similar to how the items were reworded to fit the adolescents' perspective). The directions did not change between the adolescents' pretest version and the final version of the test instrument. Students in the pretest did not appear to have difficulty in understanding the directions (or the specific items for that matter).

Parents' and adolescents' surveys were numbered. This was done to indicate that the parent and adolescent respondent came from the same family.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Data were collected from a convenience sample of high-school students who attended an urban high school and one of their parents. As a brief overview, the data were collected in two stages. Stage one involved administering the test instrument to students in class. Then, in stage two, data were collected from parents via a survey that the students took home for the parent to complete.

Because this study focused on the parent who was most involved in the consumer socialization of the adolescent, the parents' survey was targeted at this individual. Specifically, the adolescent was asked to identify this parent on the first page of his/her survey. Students then took the parents' survey home to this person. (As a check on students' identification of parents, parents were also asked whether they themselves, as opposed to their spouse, were the primary consumer socializers of adolescents; this issue will be more fully discussed in the results chapter.)

This section begins with a description of data collection in the school. Next, the process of collecting data from students is discussed. Finally, the data collection procedure for parents is outlined.

Collecting Data in the School

The high school was located in a metropolitan area of a large city in Virginia.²⁰

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The director of the school's marketing education program was my initial contact at the school. (The superintendent of the school system had forwarded my request for participation in the study to this individual.) The director contacted me and gave me permission to collect data from all marketing education students in the school and introduced me to other teachers who were willing to participate in

The test instrument was administered to students by myself and another teacher, who was also female. I administered the surveys in all marketing education (n = 5) and typing classes (n = 6).²¹

Collecting Data from Students

At the beginning of the class period, the teacher introduced me to students. I told students that I was from Virginia Tech and that I was

the project.

One of these individuals was a typing teacher, who agreed to allow me to collect data in all of her typing classes. The other teacher taught general business classes. This individual agreed to allow data collection in the classroom but wanted to administer the surveys herself. I met with this teacher on the second day that I was at the school and discussed the instructions on how to complete the survey. I left copies of both the students' and parents' surveys with her to be administered to students two days later (a lecture had been scheduled for the day immediately following). This teacher eventually did not participate in the research, (purportedly) because there was not enough class time (i.e., a free day) to do so.

The teacher returned the surveys to the marketing education director because I was scheduled to return to this individual's classes to discuss the project the following week. The marketing education teacher, who was present while I administered surveys to the marketing education classes, contacted an English teacher. This teacher agreed to administer the surveys to students in class and to have students take surveys home to parents. I was not in contact with this teacher: however, the marketing education teacher explained how I had administered the surveys in the marketing education classes. The English teacher said that the same process was followed in the English classes.

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Data were collected from students on two separate days. On the first day, data were collected from marketing education classes. Two days later, data were collected from typing students. All students present on the respective days participated in the project.

Teachers were present during data collection. Surveys were administered to students at the beginning of class. For the marketing education classes, teachers lectured after all students had completed the survey. In the typing classes, a whole period was allotted for data collection. Students studied or talked quietly after they had completed their surveys and handed them in. Class periods ranged from 50 minutes (the standard) to an hour and a half (the extended period for lunch).

working on a research project for my dissertation. Students were told that the research was about "family member roles in purchase decisions and parent-teenager relationships. I told them that, since little research had been done on these topics, I was interested in learning what parents and, especially, people their age thought about these issues. I told them that I had a survey that I would like for them to complete "in class today" and also a survey that I would like for them to take home to their parents. I told students that I would talk a little bit more about the parents' survey after they were done completing their surveys.

I stressed to students that all the information they provided on the survey would remain anonymous. They were told that the number on the right-hand corner of their survey was merely to let me know that they and their parent belonged to the same family, but that there was no way I could know what family was represented by each number. I also asked students not to talk about the survey with their classmates because I was interested in learning what they, as individuals, thought about the issues. Finally, I asked students to hold their surveys until I came by to collect them.²² The survey took about 20 minutes for the students to

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Students were then given (1) the survey for them to complete in class and (2) a manilla envelope that contained the parents' survey and a cover letter to parents. As I handed out the materials, I told students that the manilla envelope contained the parents' survey and that they could set this envelope aside for now. I also told them to work through the survey at their own pace and that, if they had any questions, I would be happy to answer them.

complete. Some students took as much as 30-35 minutes to complete the questionnaire.²³

As students finished responding to the questionnaire, I came and collected their surveys individually. I looked at the first page of their survey, to see which parent the student had indicated as the primary consumer socializer, and told them, "Because you checked your [mother] for this question, I'd like for you to take the parents' survey home to your [mother]." To ensure that students delivered the parents' survey to the proper person, I also made an announcement, after all surveys were collected, about which parent they were to take the survey home to for completion.²⁴

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Teachers who were lecturing after the survey presented the lecture as something that might be done "if there was enough class time left." With the exception of two foreign students, students did not have trouble completing the survey during the class period (these two students were allowed to take the survey and complete it later; however, neither returned a completed questionnaire).

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At this time, I also told students that I would be returning to the school in eight days to collect the parents' surveys and, in the case of the marketing education classes, to discuss the research with them. Students were informed that I would like for them to return the parents' surveys in two days and that they should hand them in to their teachers (teachers agreed to this idea and thought that the less time given for a date of return, the better--because students would forget or lose the survey with a longer time period). I stressed that parents' surveys had to be turned in no later than the day I was scheduled to return. Finally, I thanked students for participating in the project.

Reminder letters for parents were left with the teachers. However, these letters were not distributed. Teachers were resistant to giving students another piece of paper "to lose." Rather, teachers reminded students in class that I would be returning to collect the

Collecting Data from Parents

Data were collected from parents via the take-home survey that the student delivered. Students delivered a packet containing the parents' questionnaire and a cover letter to parents. The parents' cover letter is given in Appendix 4.

In the cover letter, parents were told that the survey was for a dissertation research project on "family member roles in purchase decisions and perceptions of parent-teenager relationships." They were informed that, earlier in the day, their teenager had responded to a survey on these issues in class but that I would also like to learn about what they, as parents, thought about the topics.

Given that the survey originated in the schools, it was thought that parents might be particularly concerned about the anonymity of their responses. Various measures were taken to diffuse these concerns in the cover letter and to assure parents that their responses would remain confidential.

First, parents were informed that no one at the school would have access to any of the responses they provided. They were also told that their responses would be combined with those from other parents so that individual respondents could not be singled out. Finally, they were told that the sole purpose of the number in the right-hand corner of their survey was merely to indicate that parents and teens belonged to the same family, but that there was no way to tell what family was represented by each number.

surveys so students should make sure that they got the surveys in soon.

As another means of ensuring anonymity, parents were asked to place completed surveys in the manilla envelope and seal it. They were told that I would return to the school in a week to collect the sealed envelopes containing their surveys.

To increase parents' likelihood of participation, parents were informed that \$4 contribution would be made to the school for every completed parents' survey received. Students were not informed about this incentive since all students who were present in class participated in the project. Moreover, if students had been informed of this, they could potentially have been motivated to complete the parents' survey themselves.

It was felt that, by providing an incentive by which their children could directly benefit, parents would be more inclined to participate. In addition, for parents of marketing education students, the instructional value of the research was also stressed (i.e., that the project was a means for students to learn more about marketing research).

Finally, parents were asked to return the sealed envelopes containing their surveys to school via the child within one week. They were then thanked for their participation in the project.

In the beginning directions of the survey, parents were asked to not discuss the survey with their teenagers. In addition, they were instructed that, if they received more than one survey, they were to complete only one questionnaire. Specifically, they were asked to focus on the oldest high-school-aged teenager who brought a survey home when responding to questions. This request was made to control for the possibility of birth-order effects.

SUMMARY

In summary, this chapter outlined various aspects of the research design and methodology that was used to examine the relationships among family type, socialization factors, and adolescents' perceived purchase influence. Specifically, this study used a survey method to investigate the relationships between family type, socialization factors, and adolescents' perceived purchase influence. Data were collected from both adolescents and one of their parents, the parent who was most involved in the adolescents' consumer socialization. This parent was selected for inclusion because his/her perceptions are likely to be the most relevant for understanding the phenomenon of interest in this research: adolescents' perceived purchase influence.

Data were collected from adolescents in an urban high-school setting. Collecting data through the school system facilitated identification of households with adolescents. An urban setting was selected to maximize variance in family types.

Students responded to the adolescents' version of the test instrument in class: all students attending class on the day of data collection participated in the research. For parents, data were collected via a take-home survey that the adolescent delivered. Parents returned completed questionnaires to the school via the adolescent.

By sampling both parents and adolescents, more information is gained about the robustness of the relationships studied. If results are similar between the two samples, confidence in the model is increased. If results differ by sample, such differences may shed light on the model's boundaries and could offer interesting theoretical insights.

Results of the pretests indicated that some of the construct measures were problematic. Because sample sizes were small in both the parents' and adolescents' pretests, many of the issues related to the operationalizations of constructs were deferred for analysis in the full-scale study, which had larger sample sizes.

One interesting result from the parents' pretest was the finding of two apparent subconstructs for nurturance, a subdimension of encouraging verbalization and one related to spending time with the teenager. Pretest results also seemed to indicate that four of the scales were adequate measures, namely, those for encouraging verbalization, restricting behavior, peeriness, and parental coalition formation.

As detailed in the sampling procedure section, finding schools that would agree to participate in the study was extremely difficult. Only one of the schools contacted agreed to participate in the study. The low response rate was, perhaps, due in part to relative inexperience in conducting a project of this magnitude. Indeed, if the modified request in which a higher incentive and an approach targeted to the educational goals of the school had been used initially, perhaps more schools would have been willing to participate in the study. The low response rate was probably also due to the nature of this research, in which specific questions about potentially sensitive family issues are included.

Results of the hypotheses tests and related analyses will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSES AND RESULTS

As outlined in the previous chapter, a survey method was used to collect the data for this study. Data were collected from a convenience sample of adolescents attending an urban-area high school and one of their parents. Students' responses were collected in the classroom and parents' via a take-home survey that the student delivered.

This chapter reports the results of the hypotheses tests and related analyses. We begin with a description of both the adolescent and parent samples. This is followed by a discussion of the construct operationalizations used in the study and a description of measures for potential confounds. A number of preliminary analyses are then carried out, such as those related to assessing nonresponse bias and administrator effects. Finally, the results of the regression analyses for the hypotheses tests are reported.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

Adolescent Sample

One hundred and eighty six students participated in this research, or all students who were present on the dates of data collection. Of these 186 students, three cases were deleted because the student lived independently from parents or guardians. Two foreign students did not return completed questionnaires. Finally, responses from four additional students were deleted because these students were jointly completing

their questionnaires and not seriously participating in the research.²⁵ Useable responses, thus, were received from 177 of the 184 students.

Of these 177 students, 62 were from single-parent families, 32 were from reconstituted families, 78 were from intact families, and five were classified as being from "other" family types.²⁶ This "other" category consisted of adolescents who lived with guardians other than parents. Because this research was interested in examining the effects of family type among single-parent, reconstituted, and intact families, responses from the five students classified in the "other" category were excluded from analysis in the hypotheses tests. Thus, hypotheses tests were based on responses from the remaining 172 students.

The average age of students was 16 years. The sample was 72 percent female. The predominance of females in the sample reflected the fact that almost all typing students were female. Finally, for these adolescents, the average household contained two children under the age of 18 years.

In comparison to the population, both single-parent and reconstituted families were over-represented in this sample, and intact families were under-represented. Of the 172 adolescents, 36 percent were from single-parent families, 18.6 percent were from reconstituted families, and 45.4 percent were from intact families. The corresponding figures

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It is not surprising that no parents' responses were received for these four students either.

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Of the 62 single-parent families, seven single parents were reported as cohabiting by teens.

for the population are 25 percent, 13 percent, and 62 percent, respectively.²⁷ The over-representation of both single-parent and reconstituted families probably reflects the fact that the sample was drawn from an urban location, in which one would expect a greater variance in family types than would be the case in more rural locations. Recall that an urban setting was selected to maximize variance in family types; thus, this objective appears to have been achieved.

Parent Sample

The parent who was the most involved in the teen's consumer socialization was sampled in this research. This parent was identified by teenagers, who delivered surveys to the indicated parent. All teens delivered parents' surveys to the "correct" targeted parent.

Responses were received from 87 parents and 1 guardian. Again, because this research focused on single-parent, reconstituted, and intact family types, the response from the guardian was deleted. Thus, hypotheses tests were based on responses from 87 parents.

Of the 172 students, 50.5 percent of their parents participated in the study. This response rate for parents is comparable to that found in other studies that have sampled multiple family members. For example, Foxman et al. (1989) found that response rates decreased by 50 percent for each family member included in the analysis. The fact that 50 percent of parents did not respond raises the issue of nonresponse bias. This

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These percentages are based on 1980 census information; statistics for the 1990 census were unavailable at the time of this writing.

issue will be discussed in the Assessment of Nonresponse Bias section below.

The average age of parents was 43 years. The sample was 82 percent female²⁸ and tended to be lower-middle-class: average household income was between \$25,000 and \$30,000. The average age of the adolescent on whom parents focused when responding to the questionnaire was 16 years. These targeted adolescents were 74 percent female. Finally, as was the case for the adolescent sample, the average household had two children under the age of 18 years.

Of the 87 parent respondents, 33 were single parents (37.9 percent), 13 were from reconstituted families (14.9 percent), and 41 were from intact families (47.2 percent).²⁹ Similar to the adolescent sample, single-parent and reconstituted families were over-represented in this sample, and intact families were under-represented.

In comparing the distribution of family types between the two samples, one interesting result emerges: both single and ever-married parents were more likely to participate in the study than were parents from reconstituted families (i.e., while reconstituted families represented 18.6 percent of families for adolescents, the corresponding figure

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The predominance of females in the parent sample indicates that teens were more likely to say (step)mothers were more involved in their consumer socialization than were (step)fathers.

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Four of the 33 single parents cohabited with another opposite sex adult.

for parents was 14.9 percent). Although the reason for this result is not clear, one might speculate that parents in reconstituted families were less likely to respond because family relationships were characterized by more stress in these types of families. Indeed, there is some evidence to suggest that reconstituted family relationships are less cohesive and more stressful than is the case in other types of families (see, e.g., Macklin 1987). In fact, the hypotheses developed in this research are specifically related to this issue in that our focus is on parent-adolescent relationships. Consequently, if the reason that parents in reconstituted families were less likely to respond was that family relations were more stressful, this would be a systematic bias, or confound, in the study. This issue of nonresponse bias will be more fully addressed below.

OPERATIONALIZATIONS OF CONSTRUCTS

Before turning to an assessment of nonresponse bias, we would like to discuss the operationalizations of constructs used in the study. In this manner, the assessment of nonresponse bias can be carried out on a construct-by-construct basis.

Recall that, because the pretest sample sizes were small, the behavioral measures for household responsibility and the measures for adolescents' perceived purchase influence were not assessed in the pretest. Thus, in discussing the construct operationalizations, we begin with a description of how these measures were developed on the basis of the study samples. Next, we evaluate the pretest measures for peerness, household responsibility, parental coalition formation, restrictiveness, and

nurturance in the context of the study samples. Refinements of these measures are discussed and the construct validity of the resulting measures is then assessed.

Adolescents' Perceived Purchase Influence

Adolescents' perceived purchase influence was rated on a seven-point, rating-type scale ranging from "teen made decision alone" to "parent(s) made decision alone." A "do not own" response category was also provided. Because this research focused on adolescents, as opposed to other family members, purchase influence, responses were coded as 0 if respondents indicated "parent(s) made decision alone" and 6 if respondents indicated that "teen made decision alone." "Do not own" responses were coded as 9 and were treated as missing values. Thus, all analyses related to influence were based solely on responses from individuals (or households) who owned the given product(s).

To develop the two dependent measures of (1) adolescents' perceived influence in family-related, high-financial-risk product decisions and (2) adolescents' influence in teen-related, high-financial-risk product decisions, the following process was used. Initially, the 26 products were split into two equal groups of 13 products according to the a priori framing of the product, that is, according to whether the product was framed as family- or teen-related. Each of these two sets of 13 products was then factor analyzed for each sample. On the basis of factor analysis results, items were retained for reliability analysis. The goal was to develop a set of products for the family and the adolescent that reflected relatively high expense, or high financial risk.

Adolescents' Influence in Family, High-Risk Products. For family products, the parents' analysis yielded three factors and the teens'

analysis yielded five factors. In general, results of the factor analysis for family products in the parent sample were uninterpretable in evaluating products for level of financial risk.

For the teens' analysis, however, one of the family factors contained the products television, microwave, and furniture (15.6 percent variance explained). The product "car" also had the highest positive loading on this factor (.44894), but had loaded more negatively on another factor (-.59726) that also contained the products cable TV subscriptions and cereal. As a starting point, it was decided to retain the four products car, television, microwave, and furniture for reliability analysis. Logically, these four products seemed to be of relatively high expense in relation to the other nine family products included in the study.

The internal consistency of influence ratings over these four products was assessed in each sample. Cronbach's alpha was .74 and .67 for parents and teens, respectively. On examining the alpha value if an item were deleted, reliability could be improved in the teen sample if the car item was deleted (from .67 to .70). However, without the car included, reliability decreased in the parent sample from .74 to .71. In sum, recommendations of the reliability analyses differed between the two samples.

Although the recommended alpha level of .70 could be achieved in the two samples with the car item deleted, we decided to retain this item. In logically evaluating financial risk, a car should be the most financially risky purchase decision in this group of products. Cars cost more than microwaves, televisions, and (most) furniture. Given that we wanted to focus on high- financial-risk types of decisions, deletion of the car

item did not seem logically warranted. Also, internal consistency of the scale was higher for parents with the car included.

Therefore, we decided to use ratings of influence over the four products of car, television, microwave, and furniture as the measure for adolescents' perceived influence in family-related, high-financial-risk decisions. In support of this decision, factor analyses in the two samples indicated that one factor adequately represented the underlying variance in responses. For parents, the one factor accounted for 56.5 percent of the variance in responses: the corresponding figure for teens was 51 percent variance explained. Thus, the items appeared to be tapping one underlying dimension (i.e., construct) in each sample.

The scale for adolescents' influence in family-related, high-financial-risk decisions was created by summing and averaging these four items. The scale properties of this measure are presented in Table 15. Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness of fit tests for normality were significant in both samples, indicating that distributions were non-normal in both cases. The distribution was positively skewed for parents and appeared to be leptokurtic for adolescents.³⁰

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Because the distributions for most variables included in this study were non-normal, as was the case for this particular variable, various transformations of the data were attempted (e.g., reciprocal, log, natural log, and square root transformations, among others). However, none of the attempted transformations created more normally distributed variables. In fact, the attempted transformations often worsened the deviation from normality. This occurred even when a transformation that was recommended to address a particular type of departure from normality was attempted. For example, the log transformation is recommended for positively skewed distributions, such as the one existing for influence in family-related, high-risk decisions in the parent sample. The log transformation was attempted for

Adolescents' Influence in Teen, High-Risk Products. We intended to use the same process in developing the measure of adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk products that was used for influence in family, high-risk products. All 13 teen-related products were factor analyzed in both samples. However, the factor analysis results for both samples were generally uninterpretable in light of the financial-risk criterion.

Because the factor analysis results did not give much direction about which items would be the best indicators for teen, high-risk products, another approach was used to develop this measure. First, items that were relatively inexpensive were deleted from the set of teen products. These items included shampoo, deodorant, movie, school supplies, and perfume/cologne. A reliability analysis was carried out on the remaining items. Examination of the inter-item correlations and the alpha that resulted if an item were deleted were used as bases for item deletion. In addition, subsets of products that seemed logically related were analyzed.

From these analyses, a measure for adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions was created. This measure contained the products bike, stereo, and electronic game. These items logically seemed to reflect a high degree of expense, in comparison to clothes, for example. Cronbach's alpha for this three-item measure was .68 and .71 in the parent and teen sample, respectively. Factor analyses yielded single factors

this variable in the parent sample (the $\log(x + 1)$ was actually used in this instance because there were some cases having a 0 value for the measure), but the distribution of the transformed variable was also non-normal.

in both samples: the percent of variance explained by the factor was 61.2 percent in the parent sample and 63.6 percent in the teen sample.

Although the alpha value for parents was lower than desired, the percent of variance explained in parents' responses by the measure was quite substantial. In addition, .68 is not an alarmingly poor value for reliability. This scale was also the best measure that could be constructed when both samples were considered. Finally, the items, taken together, seemed to reflect relatively expensive teen products. Therefore, the three-item measure containing the products bike, stereo, and electronic game was used to operationalize adolescents' influence in teen-related, high-risk decisions.

The scale for adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions was constructed by summing and averaging responses to these three items. Scale properties are presented in Table 16. The distribution of this variable was normal in the parent sample but was non-normal in the adolescent sample. For adolescents, the distribution was negatively skewed.

Adolescents' Influence in Low-Risk Decisions Although the research hypotheses were confined to influence variations in high-financial-risk types of decisions, we also developed measures for influence in low-financial-risk decisions for family and teen products. Supplementary analyses were carried out on these variables to see what effects, if any, family type and the socialization factors might have on influence for these types of decisions.

It was reasoned that, although hypotheses were not developed for influence in low-risk decisions, such analyses might provide additional useful information about the model (i.e., would the model be supported for these types of decisions?). Earlier, we speculated that the strongest

case for testing the effects of family type and the socialization factors would be the high-risk types of decisions. By also including measures of influence for low-risk decisions, the validity of this assumption can be partially assessed.

The measure developed for adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions contained the products soft drinks, cereal, and snack foods. Alpha was .70 and .64 for parents and teens, respectively. A single factor explained 63 percent of the variance in parents' responses and 58 percent of the variance in teens' responses. To construct the measure, responses to these three items were summed and averaged. The scale properties of this measure are presented in Table 17. The distribution of this variable was normal for parents and appeared to be leptokurtic and somewhat negatively skewed for teens.

The products school supplies, deodorant, movie, and perfume/cologne comprised the measure for influence in teen, low-risk decisions. Cronbach's alpha was .67 and .52 for parents and teens, respectively. The percent of variance explained by the single factor was 50.7 percent for parents and 41.3 percent for teens.³¹ Responses to these four items were summed and averaged. The scale properties of this measure are pre-

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Although the reliability of this measure was low, the measure was retained for analysis because (1) the products seemed to be logically representative of teen, low-risk products and (2) we wished to include such products for conceptual completeness (i.e., to have products representing both family and teen low-risk decisions). Although the measure is not a particularly good one, it was the best that could be constructed when both samples were considered. Given the poor reliability of this scale, however, any results found in this case are qualified by construct validity concerns.

sented in Table 18. The distribution of this variable was platykurtic for parents and negatively skewed for teens.

Assessment of Construct Validity. To evaluate the construct validity of the dependent measures for influence, all product items were submitted to a factor analysis. To demonstrate convergent validity, all items purportedly representing a particular construct should load highly on the same factor and should have low loadings on factors representing different constructs. In this case, to demonstrate convergent validity, factor analysis should yield a four-factor solution, with separate factors for adolescents' influence in (1) family-related, high-risk decisions, (2) teen-related, high-risk decisions, (3) family-related, low-risk decisions, and (4) teen-related, low-risk decisions.

The factor analysis results for the parent sample are presented in Table 19 and, for teens, in Table 20. Four factor solutions were obtained for both samples. However, items representing each of the four influence measures did not load together in some cases.

In the parent sample, the family, high-risk product, television, loaded on a factor with three teen, low-risk products; however, television's loading on this factor was negative. Television had the highest positive loading on the factor containing the other family, high-risk products. School supplies also loaded with the three family, low-risk products. Indeed, school supplies (and, to a lesser extent, television) had high loadings on multiple factors. If the school supplies and television items are discounted, the factor analysis results for parents generally mirror the expected pattern, in which four factors containing the products expected to measure each of the four influence constructs were found.

In the teen sample, both the high- and low-risk teen items loaded on the same factor, with the exception of school supplies, which loaded on a separate factor by itself. The family high-risk and low-risk products loaded on two separate factors in the expected manner. Thus, in the teen sample, convergent validity was demonstrated for the family high- and low-risk items, but not for the teen high- and low-risk items.

It is interesting that the factor analysis results of all products for the teen sample provided strong evidence of convergent validity for family high- and low-risk decisions when reliability for these two measures was lower in the teen sample than in the parent sample. For the parent sample, factor analysis results for all products yielded four factors that generally corresponded to the four influence constructs. Problematic items in the parent analysis were school supplies and television. School supplies were also problematic in the teen analysis; they loaded on a factor separate from all other products.³² Finally, in the teen analysis for all products, items for teen high- and low-risk decisions all loaded on the same factor; however, these items loaded on separate factors in the parent analysis.

In sum, reliability analyses were adequate in at least one of the two samples for both family high- and low-risk decisions (in the parent sample) and for teen, high-risk decisions (in the teen sample). The reliability of the measure for teen, low-risk decisions was low in both

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These results seem to suggest that school supplies are a poor item; however, the reliability of the measure for teen-related, low-risk decisions was even lower with this item deleted.

samples. With regard to convergent validity, factor analyses of all products provided mixed evidence for construct validity, depending on the sample. The two teen measures performed better in the parent analysis and the two family measures performed better in the teen analysis. However, given the lack of consistency of results between the two samples, convergent validity (and, hence, construct validity) is questionable. The items for each of the four constructs do appear to have face validity in that products representing high- and low-risk decisions seem to be more and less expensive, respectively.

Thus, although convergent validity and adequate reliability were not demonstrated in both samples in all cases, results in at least one sample partially supported the construct validity of the measures for family high- and low-risk decisions and teen, high-risk decisions. The four measures also appeared to have face validity. Therefore, these four measures were used in the hypotheses tests in this study; results are, however, qualified by construct validity concerns. A construct valid measure should perform well in both samples; the influence measures here did not. Developing better measures for influence is a needed direction in future research.

Behavioral Measure of Household Responsibility

For the behavioral measure of household responsibility, respondents rated the frequency of adolescents' performance of 16 household tasks and activities on a four-point scale ranging from "never" to "very often." It was reasoned that adolescents who had a high degree of household responsibility would perform more household tasks and activities than adolescents having less responsibility.

As a starting point in developing this measure, responses to all 16 tasks and activities were submitted to a factor analysis. The goal was to develop an initial subset of items that seemed to be related. The factor analysis of all 16 products was performed for each sample.

Four factors were obtained in the teen sample and five in the parent sample. The first factor in the teen analysis contained the four items of cooking dinner, planning the family's meals, making out the grocery list, and shopping for groceries. This first factor accounted for 26.2 percent of the variance in responses. For parents, the first factor contained the two items of making out the grocery list and planning the family's meals. This factor accounted for 26.3 percent of the variance in responses. Although the items of cooking dinner and shopping for groceries did not load on this first factor for parents, these two items did have high positive loadings on the factor.

Therefore, it was decided to retain the four items of cooking dinner, planning the family's meals, making out the grocery list, and shopping for groceries for further analysis. These four items seemed to be logically related and to reflect responsibility for meal preparation.³³

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Two other factors, one related to home care and another related to cleaning, also seemed to be indicated in both samples. However, neither of these scales performed as well as the one related to meal preparation, perhaps due to the fact that the adolescent sample was predominantly female. Given the finding of multiple factors in both samples and the relative consistency of the items comprising these factors in the two samples, it appears that household responsibility, in a behavioral sense, could be a multidimensional construct. Although it would be interesting to explore this issue in greater detail and relate specific dimensions of household responsibility to influence for various subsets of products, this would be a topic for a future study. For our purposes, we decided to focus on only the meal

These four items were submitted to a reliability analysis in both samples. Alpha was .77 for parents and .72 for teens. Examination of the inter-item correlations and the alpha if an item were deleted, however, indicated that the item of shopping for groceries could be deleted without substantially decreasing reliability. Moreover, the correlations among the grocery-shopping item and the other three items were lower than the correlations among the other items.

Thus, because the grocery-shopping item appeared to be a relatively weak item, it was deleted from the scale. The alpha of the remaining three items was .75 for parents and .72 for teens. One factor accounted for 67.3 percent of the variance in parents' responses and 64.3 percent of the variance in teens' responses.

To construct the measure for behavioral household responsibility, responses to the three remaining items were summed and averaged. Scale properties are presented in Table 21. The distribution of this variable was non-normal in the teen sample and appeared to be platykurtic.

In evaluating the construct validity of the measure, the necessary condition of reliability for construct validity appeared to be met, and factor analysis results provided some evidence for convergent validity. There was, however, a question relating to whether responsibility for meal

preparation dimension of household responsibility because (1) the measure for this dimension performed better than the others and (2) there is little theoretical reason, based on the model developed here, to expect differences due to specific subdimensions of household responsibility. Our reasoning suggests that adolescents having higher household responsibility would have higher responsibility in all task areas. This assumption may not prove to be correct, but given the complexity that already exists in this study, we leave testing this assumption to a future date. In effect, then, the behavioral measure of household responsibility used in this study reflects responsibility only in the area of meal preparation.

preparation is an adequate measure for behavioral household responsibility: this issue will be more fully addressed below after the global-level measure of household responsibility has been discussed.

Peerness

On the basis of pretest results, five items were developed to measure the peerness of parent-adolescent relations (see Table 10 for the particular items). These five items were rated on five-point Likert scales.

In evaluating the performance of the five-item scale in both the parent and teen samples of the study, results indicated that the five items together were not a good measure of peerness in the parent sample. Cronbach's alpha for the five items in the parent sample was .64; alpha was .75 for the five items in the teen sample. Moreover, two factors were obtained in factor analyses of all five items in both samples. In both cases, the three items of "confiding in teen," "being good friends," and "talking about problems with teen" all loaded on the first factor, which accounted for 42.6 percent and 50.3 percent of the variance in responses in the parent and teen samples, respectively. The two negatively framed items of "never asking teen for advice" and "not relying on teen in making personal decisions" loaded on a second factor.

On the basis of these results, the three items that loaded on the first factor in both samples were used as the operationalization of peerness in this study. Scale properties of this three-item measure are presented in Table 22. Alpha was .75 in the parent sample and .73 in the teen sample. When the three items were factor analyzed, one factor that accounted for 67 percent of the variance in parents' responses and 65.2 percent of the variance in teens' responses was obtained.

To create the measure for peerness, responses to these three items were summed and averaged. The distribution of the peerness variable was non-normal in both samples and appeared to be leptokurtic.

In sum, the three-item measure appeared to meet the necessary condition of reliability for construct validity in both samples. Also, factor analysis results provided evidence for convergent validity in that a single factor that accounted for a substantial degree of variance in responses was found in both samples. The fact that the three-item scale performed well in both samples is also further evidence for the construct validity of the measure.

Global Measure of Household Responsibility

On the basis of pretest results, four items were retained as measures of household responsibility at a global level (see Table 11). These four items were rated on a five-point Likert scale.

In analyzing the performance of the four-item scale in the parent and teen study samples, results indicated that the measure was a poor one in both samples. Reliability of the four items was .37 in the parent sample and .28 in the teen sample. Two factors were also obtained in both samples. In the parent sample, the two items "teen does not have a lot of family responsibility" and "teen does not do a lo of household work" loaded on the first factor (39.3 percent variance explained). For teens, these two items and the item "expecting teen to help manage household" loaded on the first factor (42.5 percent variance explained).

With the item "giving teen more family-related duties" deleted, reliability improved to .50 and .56 in the parent and teen samples, re-

spectively.³⁴ However, these alpha values were still unacceptably low. Therefore, we decided to analyze the correlations between items.

The correlations analysis indicated that, for parents, only the two negatively framed items were significantly correlated ($r = .4649$, $p < .01$). For teens, all pairwise combinations of items were significantly correlated, but the strongest correlation occurred between the two negatively worded items ($r = .3668$, $p < .01$). Therefore, we decided to retain the two negatively framed items of "teen does not have a lot of family responsibility" and "teen does not do a lot of household work" as a two-item operationalization of household responsibility.

Responses to these two items were summed and averaged. Scale properties are presented in Table 23. The distribution of the household responsibility variable was non-normal in both samples and appeared to be platykurtic in both samples.

Because there were only two indicators for household responsibility, internal consistency cannot be adequately evaluated; hence, the construct validity of the measure is suspect. However, the two item measure was the best that could be constructed from the data. At the least, the two items appeared to have face validity.

As an additional indication of the construct validity of the two-item measure, we examined the correlation between this global-level measure and the behavioral measure of household responsibility. Because

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Recall that this item was also identified as being potentially problematic in the adolescent pretest sample. Therefore, it is not surprising that the item performed poorly in the study samples as well.

both indicators purportedly measure household responsibility, we would expect the two to be significantly and positively correlated. The correlation between the two was .2073 in the teen sample ($p < .01$) and .1467 ($p > .05$) in the parent sample. Thus, results for the teen sample provided evidence that both measures tapped household responsibility. The result for parents, however, did not.

The lack of a significant correlation between the two in the parent sample could indicate that one or both of the measures was of questionable construct validity. Because there was no prior research regarding household responsibility, we decided to retain both measures for hypotheses tests: if a measure behaves as expected, there is evidence for nomological validity and increased confidence in the measure's construct validity.³⁵

Parental Coalition Formation

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Of course, it could be argued here that construct validity is moot for the global-level measure because only two items comprise the scale. Also, the face validity of the behavioral measure is problematic in that the behavioral measure actually reflects responsibility for meal preparation. We acknowledge that construct validity is a serious issue for both of the operationalizations of household responsibility. However, we decided to retain both measures for analysis, given that household responsibility had not been previously investigated. It was felt that the hypothesis tests could perhaps offer additional insight about the measures. For example, if significant relationships occurred for the behavioral responsibility measure in the teen sample, and given that the behavioral measure was significantly correlated with the global-level measure in this sample, there would be increased confidence in the assumption that responsibility for meal preparation was reflective of household responsibility in general.

From the pretest results, six items, rated on five-point Likert scales, were used to assess parental coalition formation. These six items are presented in Table 12.

The reliability of these six items was .82 in the parent sample and .69 in the teen sample. All six items loaded on a single factor in both samples, with this factor accounting for 53.8 percent of the variance in parents' responses and 41.9 percent of the variance in teens' responses. From this analysis, it appeared that the full six-item scale performed well in the parent sample but relatively poorly in the teen sample.

Examination of the alpha level resulting if an item were deleted, however, indicated that the reliability of the parental coalition scale could be improved with the item, "My (ex)spouse and I frequently disagree over issues concerning the children," deleted. With this item deleted, reliability substantially improved in the teen sample: alpha increased from .69 to .74 with the deletion. Reliability also improved from .82 to .84 in the parent sample with this item deleted. This result is not surprising given the low correlations between this item and others comprising the scale (e.g., in the teen sample, this item's correlation with other items was .1559 or less).

On the basis of this analysis, the five-item scale shown in Table 24 was used as the operationalization of parental coalition formation in this study. The five items yielded a single factor in both samples and accounted for 60.6 percent of the variance in parents' responses and 49.5 percent of the variance in teen's responses.

Responses to these five items were summed and averaged to construct the measure of parental coalition formation. Scale properties of the

measure are presented in Table 24. The distribution of this variable was normal in both samples.

In evaluating the construct validity of the measure, the five-item scale appeared to be internally consistent in both samples. In assessing convergent validity, the items all comprised a single factor for both parents and teens, and this factor accounted for an adequate degree of variance in responses. Thus, there was evidence that the five items all tapped a single, underlying construct. The fact that the scale performed well in both samples also provides additional evidence for the measure's construct validity.

Parental Restrictiveness

Recall that in the pretest there was some evidence for two subdimensions for parental restrictiveness: a dimension concerned with restricting various behaviors of the teen and one related to emphasizing parental authority in communication. Items for each of these dimensions were rated on six-point Likert-type scales. Results of the analyses for each of these two scales are presented separately.

Restricting Teen's Behavior. On the basis of pretest results, four items were developed to measure the subdimension of restricting the teen's behavior (see Table 8 for the particular items). Recall, however, that the four-item scale performed poorly in the adolescent pretest sample. In particular, the item related to homework was especially problematic in the adolescent pretest sample.

Results of the analyses of the four-item scale in the parent study sample also indicated that the homework item was problematic. For example, reliability of the four-item scale, which included the homework item, was .60 in the parent sample. With the homework item deleted, the reli-

ability of the scale for parents improved to .73. Results of the analysis for teens, however, was opposite. In the teen sample, reliability of the four-item measure was .67; however, with the homework item deleted, reliability decreased to .64. Thus, the results in the two samples offered different recommendations about whether to include the homework item.

Given that the data were collected through the school, these results tend to indicate that parents' responses to the homework item could have been influenced by social desirability bias. Although none of the social desirability items were significantly correlated with this item, it seems logical that parents could have been likely to respond more positively to this item than others, given that data were collected through the school.³⁶

Because parents' responses to the homework item potentially could have been influenced by collecting data through the school, and, more

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The fact that there were no correlations between the social desirability items and the homework item does not necessarily mean that social desirability could not have been present. Indeed, the social desirability items did not perform well in either of the study samples. There were few correlations between any of the social desirability items and other variables in the study. As will be discussed below, the social desirability items were not very sensitive in the study samples (i.e., items generally had less than a 60-40 percent split between socially desirable and undesirable responses). Thus, because the social desirability items seemed to be relatively poor indicators, it is difficult to tell whether social desirability was not present (as results of the analyses indicated) or whether the lack of significance regarding social desirability was due to poor measurement. One factor mitigating against a social desirability explanation in the restricting behavior case, however, was that the item regarding saying bad things about teachers was not problematic. If collecting data through the schools had affected responses, one would expect this item to be affected similarly to how the homework item would have been.

important, because reliability could be substantially improved in the parent sample with this item deleted, it was decided to drop the homework item and use the three remaining items to operationalize restricting teen's behavior (see Table 25 for the three items). Although the reliability of the three items was worse than that for the four items in the teen sample, the reliability of the four items (.67) for teens was still less than satisfactory. Thus, deleting the homework item resulted in an apparently internally consistent measure in the parent sample and a measure of questionable internal consistency in the teen sample.

Factor analysis of the three items, however, provided some evidence that the items were indicative of a single, underlying construct. One factor accounted for 65.4 percent of the variance in parents' responses and 57.8 percent of the variance in teens' responses. Thus, for this measure, results of analyses for construct validity were less strong than they were for some of the previous measures. Reliability was adequate in the parent sample but less so in the teen sample. The items, however, appeared to be indicators of one underlying construct and all items seemed to be face valid.

To create the measure for restricting teen's behavior, responses to the three items were summed and averaged. Scale properties are presented in Table 25. The distribution of this variable was non-normal in both samples and was negatively skewed and somewhat platykurtic in the parent sample and platykurtic in the teen sample.

Emphasizing Parental Authority in Communication. A second potential subdimension to restrictiveness was identified in the parents' pretest: a dimension of emphasizing parental authority in communication. One the

basis of this pretest, four items were retained as potential indicators of emphasizing authority (see Table 9 for the four items).

Consistent with this scale's poor performance in the adolescent pretest, however, analyses of the scale in the two study samples indicated that this measure was extremely poor. Cronbach's alpha was .29 for parents and .38 for teens. The percent of variance in responses explained by a single factor was also low in both samples (32.4 percent for parents and 35.2 percent for teens). Finally, although there were some significant correlations between items for teens, there were no significant correlations among any of the items for parents.

Given these results, which indicated that the measure was wholly inadequate and could not be improved, it was decided to drop this "construct" from analysis. It is perhaps not surprising that this measure failed to perform adequately, given the questionable construct validity of the scale initially (i.e., the scale was difficult to label even in the parents' pretest and failed to correlate significantly with restricting behavior, the other subdimension of restrictiveness, in this pretest). In sum, then, hypotheses tests regarding restrictiveness were confined to examining the effects of restricting behavior.

Parental Nurturance

Two subdimensions of parental restrictiveness were identified on the basis of pretest results: a dimension of encouraging verbalization and one related to spending time with the teenager. Items representing both of these dimensions were rated on six-point Likert-type scales. Measures for each of these two dimensions are discussed separately.

Encouraging Verbalization. Five items that were indicated in the pretests were initially used to measure encouraging verbalization (see

Table 6 for the particular items). Reliability of the five items was .70 in the parent sample and .73 in the teen sample. However, results of the factor analysis in the parent sample indicated that the five items were not unidimensional. Specifically, two factors were obtained in the parent analysis: the three positively framed items loaded on one factor and the two negatively framed items loaded on the second factor.

On the basis of this result, the three positively framed items were retained for analysis. The reliability of the three items was .74 for parents and .69 for teens. Although reliability was better with the five items than with the three items for teens, reliability of the three-item measure was close to the recommended .70 level in the teen sample.

Moreover, factor analysis results in both samples indicated that the three-item measure performed better than the five-item measure. For example, for teens, one factor accounted for only 48.3 percent of the variance in responses when five items were considered, but the percent of variance explained was 61.5 percent for the three items. A single factor also accounted for a substantial portion of the variance in parents' responses to the three items, with one factor accounting for 65.5 percent of the variance in parents' responses.

Therefore, three items were used to operationalize the encouraging verbalization subdimension of restrictiveness. Responses to these three items were summed and averaged; properties of the scale are presented in Table 26. The distribution of this variable was also non-normal in both samples: the distribution was negatively skewed for parents and somewhat flat, or platykurtic, for teens.

With regard to construct validity, the value for Cronbach's alpha exceeded the recommended .70 criterion in the parent sample and was close

to .70 in the teen sample. Thus, the measure appeared to meet the necessary condition of reliability for construct validity in both samples. Results of the factor analysis in both samples also provided strong evidence for convergent validity, in that a single factor accounted for a high degree of the variance in responses in both cases. Finally, the measure appeared to adequately generalize from one sample to another, in that results were generally similar between the two, although the scale performed best for parents.

Spending Time with Teen. The second subdimension of parental nurturance identified in the parents' pretest was that of spending time with the teenager. Four initial items were retained from the pretest to measure this dimension of nurturance (see Table 7 for these items).

A reliability analysis of these four items yielded an alpha value of .60 for parents and .63 for teens. Results, however, indicated that reliability could be improved in both samples if the item, "I rarely sit down with my teen to talk about life in general," were deleted. With this item deleted, reliability was .71 and .68 for parents and teens, respectively. Moreover, the one factor obtained from responses to these three items accounted for 63.5 and 61.4 percent of the underlying variance in responses for parents and teens, respectively.

Therefore, on the basis of these analyses, these three items were used to measure spending time with teen. Responses to the three items were summed and averaged. Scale properties are presented in Table 27. The distribution of this variable was normal in both samples.

Although the reliability of this measure was lower than desired in the teen sample, reliability was adequate in the parent sample. Factor analysis results also indicated that the measure was relatively

unidimensional in both samples. The measure seemed to perform moderately well in both samples, and particular items seemed to be logically related, or face valid.

Evaluation of Construct Validity

Overall, the scales developed to operationalize the socialization constructs performed better in the parent sample than they did in the teen sample. For example, the measures for peerness, household responsibility (behavioral measure), parental coalition formation, restricting teen's behavior, and the two subdimensions of nurturance (i.e., encouraging verbalization and spending time with teen) were more internally consistent in the parent sample than in the teen sample, as assessed by Cronbach's alpha. The reason for the greater consistency in parents' responses is not clear. Perhaps it is "natural" for teens to be more inconsistent due to their younger age and lower maturity level. Most scales, however, did perform at least moderately well in the teen sample.

For parents, with the exception of the global measure for household responsibility, all measures of the socialization constructs exceeded the .70 criterion recommended as a minimum value for internal consistency in social science research. For teens, only the measures of peerness, behavioral household responsibility, and parental coalition formation exceeded this criterion. However, the alpha values for the measures of the two nurturance subdimensions were close to the .70 criterion (in the teen sample, alpha was .69 for encouraging verbalization and .68 for spending time with teen).

The lowest value for Cronbach's alpha (excluding the global measure of household responsibility) in the teen sample occurred for the measure of restricting teen's behavior (alpha was .64 in this case). Again, why

this measure should perform relatively poorly for teens is not clear. Contrary to the results for parents, teens apparently perceive that parents are inconsistent in restricting the behaviors comprising the items of the scale. Although it may be the case that greater consistency could have been achieved if different items had been used, it may also be the case that teens perceive parents as being inconsistent in restricting behavior in general. Thus, the "low" alpha value here could be an accurate reflection of inconsistency in teens' perceptions.³⁷ The results of the reliability analysis for parents gives some credence to this explanation.

Thus, with the exception of the global measure of household responsibility in both samples and restricting behavior in the teen sample, results indicate that scales are generally internally consistent. Thus, with these two exceptions, the necessary condition of reliability for construct validity appeared to be met by the construct measures developed here. Because alpha was relatively low for restricting behavior in the teen sample, results for hypotheses tests related to this variable in the teen sample may be qualified by construct validity concerns.

Factor analysis results also provided evidence that the measures were unidimensional, again with the exception of the global household responsibility scale. A single factor accounted for a substantial degree

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Indeed, research suggests that the reliability of many measures is lower for adolescents than for parents. For example, in studying mother-teen dyads, Moschis and Mitchell (1986) found that measures tended to be less internally consistent for adolescents than for mothers.

of the variance in responses for all but this measure in both samples. Thus, measures appeared to be tapping single, underlying dimensions.

The global measure of household responsibility, because it is comprised of only two items, is of suspect construct validity. With only two items, internal consistency cannot be evaluated. The two items did appear to exhibit face validity. Face validity, however, is a relatively weak form of evidence for construct validity. Thus, results of all analyses concerning global-level household responsibility are qualified by the suspect construct validity of the measure.

One point also bears mentioning about the behavioral measure of household responsibility. The scale developed in this instance was internally consistent in both samples. However, the items actually reflect household responsibility for meal preparation, as discussed above. Therefore, hypotheses tests concerning this measure will actually reflect differences due to variance in responsibility for meal preparation. We have assumed that increased responsibility in meal preparation is indicative of increased household responsibility in general.

Discriminant Validity. Although measures appeared to be generally internally consistent, an evaluation of discriminant validity was also undertaken, when appropriate, to provide further evidence for construct validity. To demonstrate discriminant validity, indicators purported to measure a particular construct should correlate more highly with other indicators for that construct than with indicators purportedly measuring different constructs.

To evaluate discriminant validity, the scales developed above were correlated with each other. Correlation results for all study variables for parents are presented in Table 28 and, for teens, in Table 29.

For parental nurturance, the scales for the two subdimensions of encouraging verbalization and spending time with teen should correlate more highly with each other (because they each purportedly measure subdimensions of nurturance) than they should correlate with scales for the other socialization variables. In particular, because peerness can also be construed as relating to warmth in parent-teen relationships, we were interested in seeing whether the two subdimensions of nurturance correlated more highly with each other than they did with peerness.³⁸

This result was obtained for teens but not for parents. For teens, the correlation between the two subdimensions was .6847 ($p < .01$). Both of these subdimensions were also significantly correlated with peerness ($r = .5944$, $p < .01$ for encouraging verbalization; $r = .5428$, $p < .01$ for spending time with teen). Results of a Z-test indicated that the correlations of peerness and encouraging verbalization did not significantly differ ($p = .20$); however, the correlations of peerness and spending time were significantly different ($p < .10$). Thus, discriminant validity was demonstrated for the time subdimension and peerness in the teen sample, but not for the encouraging verbalization subdimension.

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The subdimensions of nurturance also significantly correlated with other socialization variables. However, because these socialization factors were not directly concerned with warmth in parent-teen relations (i.e., nurturance and parental coalition formation, for example, are more conceptually removed than are nurturance and peerness), these correlations were not viewed as particularly problematic. Indeed, socialization factors should be somewhat correlated with each other according to the model developed here in that these socialization factors should all reflect hierarchy. Also, the correlations between the two subdimensions and these other socialization variables were lower than the correlation between the two subdimensions themselves in both samples (see Tables 28 and 29).

The two subdimensions were also significantly correlated with each other in the parent sample ($r = .4814, p < .01$). However, the encouraging verbalization subdimension correlated more highly with peeriness ($r = .5461, p < .01$) than it did with spending time, the other nurturance subdimension, in this sample. Thus, discriminant validity was not demonstrated between encouraging verbalization and peeriness in the parent sample.

Convergent Validity. To further assess the construct validity of the measures, a factor analysis of all measures for the socialization factors was undertaken.³⁹ To demonstrate convergent validity, items representing a particular construct should all load uniquely (or at least have the highest positive loading) on a factor containing all items for that particular construct. To perform this analysis, all scales were put on a six-point metric. Results of the overall factor analysis for parents are presented in Table 30 and, for teens, in Table 31.

Results of the factor analysis for parents provided strong evidence of convergent validity for most scales. For example, one factor containing all of the indicators for a given construct was found for parental coalition formation, spending time with teen, restricting teen's behavior, and household responsibility.

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The behavioral measure of household responsibility was not included in this analysis. The items for the validity check of authority-role structure, however, were included in this analysis. (This measure will be more fully discussed below in the section detailing measurement of checks and potential confounds.) The items for authority-role structure were included in the overall factor analysis to see whether they would be differentiated from the items for the socialization constructs, which, as the results indicated, they were.

Only the items for peerness and encouraging verbalization failed to load on two unique factors. Rather, items for these two constructs all loaded together on one factor, with the exception of the third peerness item, which loaded on a factor by itself. The result that the items for these two constructs loaded together mirrors the one found above in the correlation analysis, in which the highest correlation occurred between these two scales. However, the peerness items did have high crossloadings on the factor containing the sole peerness item, although these loadings were lower than those for the items on the factor containing the verbalization items.

For teens, results of the factor analysis indicated less convergent validity in this sample. The first factor in this analysis contained items for the three constructs of encouraging verbalization, spending time with teen, and peerness: items, however, should have loaded on three separate factors corresponding to each construct. Thus, the result of item confounding found for encouraging verbalization and peerness in the parent sample was duplicated in the teen sample.

Also, two of the restrictiveness items loaded on the same factor as did the two household responsibility items. Finally, one of the items for each of the three constructs of parental coalition formation, spending time with teen, and restricting teen's behavior all loaded together on a single factor.

In sum, convergent validity was generally demonstrated in the parent sample (with the exception of encouraging verbalization and peerness), but not in the teen sample. The results of this convergent validity analysis for teens generally mirror results of the reliability analyses of individual scales in this sample. Specifically, measures were found

to perform more poorly in both types of analyses in the teen sample than in the parent sample.

Summary. In an overall sense, measures seemed to perform relatively well in both samples. Scales were found to be generally internally consistent and unidimensional in both samples. The fact that scales tended to perform well regarding reliability and unidimensionality in both samples increases confidence in the construct validity of the measures. Convergent validity was also demonstrated in the parent sample, with the one exception noted above. As previously noted, however, scales did tend to perform less well for teens than for parents. This difference may be due to relative immaturity and age-related inconsistency on the part of teens.

Results of the construct validity analyses, however, were not rosy in all cases. As discussed above, construct validity is a serious concern for the measures for household responsibility. In short, results of hypotheses tests regarding household responsibility will be qualified by the questionable construct validity of the measures.

Similarly, given the results of the overall factor analyses in both samples, there is some doubt about the encouraging verbalization and peerness measures. Specifically, do the scales measure two different constructs or are the two scales merely different operationalizations of the same construct? On examining the items comprising each of the measures, the items do appear to be tapping different constructs, on the face of it. However, results of the overall factor analysis support the latter alternative. If the two scales are found to perform differently in the hypotheses tests, as expected, there would be evidence that they each represent two distinct constructs. Thus, at this point, a more thorough

evaluation of construct validity for these two measures is not possible; the measures await further investigation in the context of the hypotheses tests.

MEASURES OF CHECKS AND POTENTIAL CONFOUNDS

This section reviews the measure developed for the authority-role validity check for family type. The (attempted) measurement of social desirability is also discussed. Finally, the measurement and coding of various demographic variables that could serve as potential confounds, or rival explanations, in the study are also outlined.

Authority-Role Structure

As mentioned in the previous chapter, a check on the hypothesized ordering of family types from low to high hierarchy (i.e., from single-parent to reconstituted to intact families) was also included in this study. The process of developing the measure for authority-role structure is outlined in this section; results of the analysis relating this measure to family types will be discussed in the Preliminary Analyses section below.

On the basis of pretest results for parents, four items were retained as potential indicators for authority-role structure (see Table 13 for the particular items). Items were rated on five-point Likert scales.

Results of reliability analyses for the four items in the two study samples, however, indicated that a four-item scale was an inadequate measure of authority-role structure. The internal consistency of these items was low in both the parent and teen study samples: Cronbach's alpha was .46 and .53, respectively.

In addition, two factors were obtained for both parents and teens. In both cases, the "parent-as-boss" item loaded on a factor separate from that of the other three items. This result is not surprising given that the "parent-as-boss" item was identified as problematic in the adolescent pretest and also in the combined analysis of pretest responses.

With this item deleted, internal consistency improved in both samples. Alpha increased from .46 to .53 for parents and from .53 to .59 for parents. However, the resulting alpha values with item deletion were still well below the .70 criterion.

On examining the correlations between items, only the correlation between the two items of "parents and children have equal status in our family" and "in general, I consider my teenager and myself to be equals" was significant in both samples. The correlation between these two items was .4975 for parents ($p < .01$) and .4508 for teens ($p < .01$). Thus, it was decided to use these two items as the measure of authority-role structure. The two-item measure, however, is subject to the limitations of all two-item measures (i.e., construct validity is suspect in that reliability of a two-item measure cannot be adequately evaluated). The two items did appear to exhibit face validity; thus, it was felt that the two items could offer at least some insight into the ordering of family types.

To construct the measure of authority-role structure, responses to these two items were summed and averaged. Scale properties of the measure are presented in Table 32.

Social Desirability

Five items were retained as potential measures for social desirability on the basis of pretest results. These five items performed

poorly in both study samples. Internal consistency was low for the five items: alpha was .50 for parents and .37 for teens. Multifactor solutions were also obtained in both samples. Finally, the items were relatively insensitive indicators in both samples: only one item in each sample had at least a 60-40 percent split between the true-false response categories.

Correlations between each of the five items and the other variables included in this study were also generally nonsignificant. For example, in the teen analysis, the only correlation that was significant between any of the social desirability items and the study variables was the correlation between the table-manners item and the restrictiveness scale ($r = -.1743$, $p < .05$). However, the table-manners item did not adequately differentiate between socially desirable and undesirable responses (i.e., the split between the two categories was 28 and 72 percent, respectively).

Because the items, both together and individually, performed poorly, social desirability could not be assessed in this study. For example, the low correlations of the social desirability "scale" and items with the study variables does not necessarily mean that social desirability was not present in responses. The bias could have been present, even though results tended to indicate that it was not a problem. Indeed, little can be concluded about the presence or absence of social desirability because no adequate measure of social desirability existed in this research.

Measurement of Potential Confounds/Covariates

Various demographic factors that could serve as potential confounds or covariates to the relationships of interest in this study were also assessed. This section briefly describes how these factors were measured.

Research has shown that income tends to be lower in households headed by single parents as opposed to other types of households. Therefore, parents were asked to indicate total annual household income by checking one of 10 response categories. For the first six response categories, income was divided into \$5,000 increments, ranging from "under \$5,000" to "\$25,000 to \$29,999." The next two response categories were \$10,000 increments. The ninth category was "\$50,000 to \$74,999," and the last was "over \$75,000." Thus, the response categories for income reflected income distribution in the population.⁴⁰ Responses were coded from 1 to 10, depending on the category indicated.⁴¹

Social class, of which income is one indicator, has been shown to affect adolescents' purchase influence (e.g. Moschis and Mitchell 1986). Therefore, the educational background of the parent respondent and (step)parent's occupation(s) were assessed in addition to household income. Parents indicated their education level by checking one of eight options that ranged from "elementary school" to "graduate degree." Responses were coded from 1 to 8 to reflect the eight categories.

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Teens were not asked to respond to this question because it was felt that they would not know what their household's income level actually was.

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Although responses were in category format, the data were treated as as interval-level data due to the number of categories included (an analysis with dummy coding would have been unwieldy). In addition, the categories represented real numbers and thus provide meaningful information about the distance between, for example, income levels. Thus, we believed it was reasonable to treat the data as being interval-level.

Occupation was measured by asking both parents and teens to respond to an open-ended question concerning (step)parents' occupation(s).⁴² These open-ended responses were then coded into seven categories, according to the categorization scheme developed by Warner (1960). Warner's classification of occupations includes seven categories that reflect social class distinctions among occupations: lower categories indicate lower class occupations. The seven categories, ranging from low to high, include: unskilled workers, semiskilled workers, proprietors of small businesses, skilled workers, clerks and kindred workers, semiprofessionals and officials of large business, and professionals and proprietors of large business. These categories were coded from 1 to 7, respectively.

Parents were also asked to indicate the number of hours that they worked. Although this variable has not been previously studied, we included hours worked because it might affect both adolescents influence and household responsibility. If both parents are employed full-time, perhaps teens will be more involved in making family purchases and carrying out household tasks. Greater teen involvement in these areas might occur due to the time pressures placed on working parents. To measure hours worked, parents were asked to indicate, in an open-response format, how many hours they worked, on average. These response were directly

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Parents were asked to give their occupation and those of their spouses, if married. Teens were asked to give the occupation of all parents and step-parents.

coded (i.e., if a parent worked 40 hours a week, a value of 40 was coded for the hours worked variable).

Family size has also been shown to potentially affect the degree of adolescents' purchase influence (e.g., Jenkins 1979). Thus, both parents and teens were asked to list the age and sex of all children (or brothers and sisters, in the case of teens) present in the household. From these responses, a measure was constructed that counted the number of children in the household who were under the age of 18 years.⁴³

Finally, the age of both the responding parent and the targeted teen were measured in years. Many studies have shown that children's purchase influence is greater the older a child is (see, e.g., Atkin 1978, Moschis and Mitchell 1986, Ward and Wackman 1972, among others). Parent's age has also been shown to affect adolescent's purchase influence (Foxman et al. 1987).

For the purposes of analysis, these demographic variables were treated as covariates in hypotheses tests. The correlations among the demographic variables and the study variables are presented in Tables 33 (results for parents) and 34 (results for teens). Where indicated, the demographic variables were built into the regression models (through analysis of covariance via the general linear model) to ascertain whether differences in influence related to family type and the socialization factors remained after demographic variables were controlled.

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Older children who lived at home were not included in the count because it was felt that these individuals would be relatively independent of parents.

PRELIMINARY ANALYSES

Before hypotheses tests were conducted, a number of preliminary analyses were carried out. One set of analyses was related to assessing the presence of various potential biases. Bias, or systematic variation not related to measured variables, results in confounding and threatens the internal validity of the study. Three types of potential biases were addressed in this research: administrator effects (or demand bias), nonresponse bias, and systematic variance in responses to influence items. An analysis of the authority-role validity check for family type was also performed. Finally, sex differences in parental responses were examined.

Assessment of Potential Biases

Administrator Effects. Because students' surveys were administered by two different people, the researcher and a teacher (who were both female), teens' responses could have been differentially affected by the person administering the questionnaire. Specifically, the fact that test instruments were administered by the researcher could have created demand bias in responses. Students may have attempted to respond to questions in a manner consistent with what they thought the hypotheses of the study were. The teacher, however, was blind to the hypotheses of the study. Therefore, to check for potential demand bias, teens' responses were split into two groups according to whether the researcher or the teacher administered the test instrument.

Because we were interested in assessing demand bias, which could systematically affect results of hypotheses tests, we wished to have a more liberal test in evaluating this bias. Therefore, tests for administrator effects were evaluated at a .15 significance level.

Results of the analyses for all study variables (dependent and mediating variables) indicated that the two groups significantly differed only in the case for encouraging verbalization ($F(1,171) = 3.21, p = .0751$). In this instance, the mean for the group in which the teacher administered the questionnaire was higher (mean = 4.52) than was the case for the group in which the researcher was the administrator (mean = 4.15).

If subjects had attempted to respond to items for encouraging verbalization in a manner consistent with hypotheses, they would have reported increased verbalization. Thus, one would expect the mean in the researcher-administered group to be higher than the mean in the teacher-administered group. This, however, was not the case. Also, given that 12 tests were performed for administrator effects, it may be that the significant result obtained was due to chance, rather than to any real difference between the two groups (i.e., teacher vs. researcher as administrator). In sum, these results suggest that administrator effects were not problematic in this study.

Nonresponse Bias. As mentioned previously, given that this research focused on family relationships, nonresponse bias is a potentially problematic issue. Specifically, it may be that certain types of parents are unlikely to respond to any type of research on the family. As an extreme example, neglectful parents may not be motivated to participate in any research project dealing with the family. Moreover, if the quality of parent-adolescent relationships is low, parents may also be unlikely to

participate in studies, such as this one, that specifically focus on such relationships. Indeed, one might expect that the more negative the parent-adolescent relationship is, the less likely the parent would be to participate in the research.

If certain types of parents, or parents who have a particular type of relationship with adolescents, fail to participate in a study, sample estimates will be systematically affected. For example, if only those parents who are highly nurturant participate in the study, the sample mean for nurturance would be much higher than the population mean. In other words, self-selection could result in a restriction of the range of some variables, thereby making it more difficult to detect a relationship between nurturance and influence, for example, if one does in fact exist. In this manner, nonresponse bias threatens conclusion validity.⁴⁴

Although there is no means of directly assessing nonresponse bias, we used teens' responses to indirectly assess the magnitude and direction of nonresponse bias for parents.⁴⁵ Specifically, we compared responses from teens whose parents participated in the research with those of teens

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Nonresponse bias also limits the generalizability of results. If only one end of the distribution of a variable is sampled, one cannot generalize results back to the population. In short, nonresponse bias adversely affects external validity. Also, nonresponse bias may interact with the study variables in different manners, affecting the internal validity of the study as well.

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Nonresponse bias was not problematic for teens. All but two students who were present on the day of data collection completed the survey. The two foreign students did not return completed surveys.

whose parents did not participate. The fact that all teens present on the day of data collection participated in the research allowed us to make these comparisons. In short, we used the responses from teens whose parents did not participate as estimates for what the responses of non-participating parents would have been.

One caveat to this analysis bears mentioning. In comparing the responses of participating parents with their respective teenagers, a number of differences were found. Teens reported that (1) their relationship with parents was less peerlike, (2) they had more household responsibility, (3) there was less coalition formation between parents, and that (4) parents were less nurturant and restrictive than parents reported. Thus, there were systematic differences in parents' and teens' responses.

The implication of this difference in the present analysis is that teens' responses do not provide "accurate" estimates of parents' responses since the two groups systematically differ on perceptions of the study variables. To be able to use the responses of teens whose parents did not participate as estimates for what parents' responses would have been, we assumed that the magnitude and direction of differences in parents' and teens' responses would be the same for both responding and nonresponding parents. Thus, we assumed that the correspondence between parents' and teens' responses in the parent-nonresponding case was the same as that occurring in the parent-responding case. Although this assumption may not be accurate, it allowed us to assess nonresponse bias's effects on sample estimates empirically. The analyses to be presented, then, are qualified by the caveat that teens, as compared with parents, report increased household responsibility and decreased peerness, parental coalition formation, nurturance, and restrictiveness.

Similar to the above case for demand bias, alpha was set to .15 to have a "fair" test for nonresponse bias. In examining the results for the two groups (parents participated vs. parents did not participate), only two statistically significant differences emerged.

Nonresponse Bias across Family Types. For spending time with teen, teens of participating parents reported that their parents spent more time with them (mean = 4.17) than teens of nonparticipating parents said their parents spent (mean = 3.68; $t(170) = 2.57, p < .01$). Thus, estimates for spending time with teen are likely to be positively biased in the parent analysis. In other words, if a significant, positive relationship is found between spending time and adolescents' influence for parents, one would not be able to tell whether the finding was due to the treatment effect of spending time or to the positive bias in the estimate for spending time.

There was also a statistically significant difference in responses of teens of participating and nonparticipating parents for global-level household responsibility ($t(168) = 2.52, p < .01$). Teens of participating parents reported greater household responsibility than did teens of nonparticipating parents. Thus, similar to the above case, sample estimates for household responsibility will be positively biased in the parent analysis. The bias increases the probability that a significant, positive relationship will be found between household responsibility and adolescents' influence in the parent sample.

No other statistically significant differences were found between the two groups for any of the other socialization (or dependent) variables.

Nonresponse Bias within Family Type. One possibility not addressed in the above analysis is the potential for self-selection (or nonresponse bias) to interact with family type.⁴⁶ For example, it may be that less nurturant parents in reconstituted families are less likely to participate than less nurturant parents in other family types. If so, sample estimates and hypotheses tests between family type and nurturance would be systematically affected. The sample estimate for nurturance in reconstituted families would be positively biased. This bias would also make it more difficult to detect a difference in nurturance on the basis of family types: the positively biased estimate of nurturance in the reconstituted case would lead to this mean's being closer to the mean for intact families, according to our model.

To allow for a possible interaction between self-selection and family type, teen responses were split by family type. Within each family type, we compared responses of teens of participating parents with responses of teens of nonparticipating parents for each study variable. The significance level was again set to .15. Results are reported below by construct and only statistically significant differences are reviewed.

Adolescents' Influence in Family, Low-Risk Decisions. For the dependent measures, only adolescents' influence in family-related, low-financial-risk decisions differed between the two groups of teens within

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Indeed, an examination of parents' response rates by family type indicated that parents in reconstituted families were less likely to participate than parents in other types of families. The teen sample was 18.6 percent reconstituted whereas only 14.9 percent of the parent was reconstituted.

family types. For single-parent families, teens of participating parents reported less influence in these types of decisions (mean = 4.26) than did teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 4.86; $t(55) = -2.06$, $p = .044$). For reconstituted families, teens of participating parents also reported less influence in these decisions (mean = 3.44) than did teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 4.35; $t(29) = -1.63$, $p = .114$). No statistically significant difference was found for the two groups of teens in intact families ($t(69) = .67$, n.s.).

Thus, results of tests for differences in influence on the basis of family type would be affected for these types of decisions. If the extent of adolescents' influence is under-reported in single-parent and reconstituted families, a failure to find a significant difference could be due to under-reporting. We would expect influence in these types of decisions to be highest in the single-parent case. But, if the estimate for influence in single-parent families is negatively biased, as indicated, detection of this effect would be more difficult.

Peerness. For peerness, only results for single-parent families significantly differed between the two groups of teens ($t(59) = 1.76$, $p = .084$). Teens of participating parents reported greater peerness (mean = 4.21) than did teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 3.62). Given that we hypothesized peerness to be highest for single-parent families, the positive bias in the peerness estimate makes it more likely that this hypothesis will be supported in the parent analysis.

Household Responsibility. For global-level household responsibility, teens responses significantly differed for both reconstituted and intact families. In reconstituted families, teens of participating parents reported greater household responsibility (mean = 4.44) than did

teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 3.41; $t(30) = 1.92$, $p = .064$). Similarly, in intact families, teens of participating parents indicated greater household responsibility (mean = 4.17) than did teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 3.55; $t(73) = 2.14$, $p = .035$). Given that we hypothesized household responsibility to be greater in these two family types, hypothesis tests for household responsibility in the parent sample will be positively biased.

Parental Coalition Formation. Only responses for teens in intact families differed for parental coalition formation. Teens of participating parents reported greater parental coalition formation (mean = 3.92) than did teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 3.53; $t(67) = 1.76$, $p = .082$). Given that coalition formation was hypothesized to be greatest in intact families, these results indicate that tests of the coalition hypotheses in the parent sample will be positively biased.

Restricting Teen's Behavior. For restricting teen's behavior, responses for the two groups of teens differed only in the reconstituted case. Teens of participating parents reported increased restrictiveness (mean = 4.10) than did teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 3.33; $t(28) = 1.70$, $p = .10$). The positive bias in the restrictiveness estimate for reconstituted families would make it more difficult to detect a difference in restrictiveness between reconstituted and intact families and less difficult to detect a difference between this family type and single-parent families. The effect of the bias on the hypothesis test for restrictiveness in the parent sample is thus equivocal.

Encouraging Verbalization. For encouraging verbalization, only the responses of teens in single-parent families significantly differed ($t(59) = 2.83$, $p = .006$). Teens of participating parents indicated a

greater degree of encouraging verbalization (mean = 4.59) than did teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 3.65). We hypothesized that encouraging verbalization would be lowest for single-parent families. Thus, the positive bias for encouraging verbalization in single-parent families should make it more difficult to support this hypothesis in the parent analysis.

Spending Time with Teen. Finally, for spending time with teen, results differed between the two groups of teens in both single-parent and reconstituted families. For the single-parent case, teens of participating parents indicated parents spent more time with teens (mean = 4.08) than did teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 3.34; $t(60) = 2.05$, $p = .045$). A similar pattern emerged for reconstituted families: teens of participating parents reported greater time spent with teen (mean = 4.27) than did teens of nonparticipating parents (mean = 3.29; $t(30) = 2.13$, $p = .042$). Given that we hypothesized that time spent with teen would be lower in these two types of families than in intact families, the positive bias in responses should make it more difficult to support the time hypothesis in the parent analysis.

One interesting result of the analysis for nonresponse bias is its implication for social desirability bias. If increased peerness, household responsibility, parental coalition formation, restrictiveness, and nurturance are viewed as more socially desirable responses, the results for nonresponse bias imply that social desirability is evinced through self-selection rather than through biasing responses per se. Perhaps this was what led to the social desirability items' being relatively insensitive in this study.

Response Bias in Dependent Measures. The response bias in dependent measures occurred through a differential distribution of "do not own" responses by family type. Recall that, for the purpose of hypothesis testing, "do not own" responses were excluded from the analysis. Therefore, hypothesis tests are based on responses from only those households that owned the products comprising each of the dependent measures. If the distribution of "do not own" responses varied by family type, this would indicate a systematic bias in the data. Moreover, such a finding would also have implications for the construct validity and generalizability of the dependent measures.

The results of the analysis of "do not own" responses by family type are presented in Tables 35 (for parents) and 36 (for teens). In comparing the observed with the expected number of "do not own" responses across family types, some interesting results emerge.

For example, for the products of car and microwave, which are items for family-related, high-risk decisions, results in the parent analysis indicate that single-parent families were more likely to not own these products than would be expected by chance.⁴⁷ In contrast, intact families were less likely to not own microwaves than would be expected by chance.

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In examining the total number of "do not own" responses, it becomes apparent that the incidence of not owning is much higher, in general, for more expensive products than for less expensive products. For example, the total number of "do not own" responses for perfume was 4 and 8 for parents and teens, respectively. However, for bike, the incidence of "do not own" responses was much higher (16 and 31 for parents and teens, respectively). This result likely reflects an income effect: fewer people may be able to afford a bike than perfume.

Similar to the result for parents, in the teen analysis, single-parent families were more likely, and intact families were less likely, to not own cars than would be expected by chance.

In examining the products comprising the teen-related, high-risk scale, similar results emerged for the product "bike," in the parent analysis, and the products "bike" and "electronic game" in the teen analysis. Single-parent families were more likely, and intact families were less likely, to not own the respective products than would be expected by chance.

The reason why single-parents should be more likely to not own these products is not clear. Perhaps it is due to single-parents' having lower incomes than is the case in other families. Alternatively, this result could be due to some other (unknown) factor.

Because hypotheses tests excluded cases from analysis if a "do not own" response was indicated for any one product, results are based on only those respondents who owned all products for a given measure. Thus, the generalizability of results is negatively affected by the "do not own" response bias. That is, there could be a confounding variable, such as income, that effectively eliminates certain groups (i.e., low-income households) from analysis or differentially eliminates respondents from "treatment" conditions (or family types).

Validity Check for Family Type

According to the theory of hierarchy, status roles should be least hierarchical in single-parent families and most hierarchical in intact families, with reconstituted families lying somewhere between these two extremes. As a check to see whether status roles varied in hierarchy

across family types in the expected manner, authority-role structure was regressed on effect-coded family types.

Family types were effect-coded to permit analysis of covariance via the general linear model, as will be discussed. We used effect coding in assessing the validity check so that similar analyses would be used in hypotheses tests and analysis of the validity check. Finally, effect codes reflect deviations from the grand mean; in contrast, dummy codes would have reflected deviations from a comparison group mean.

Because there were three family types, two effect codes for family type were constructed. Given the ordering of family types from single-parent to reconstituted to intact families, family types were coded as 1, 0, and -1, respectively, for the first effect code (E1). And family types were coded as 0, 1, and -1, respectively, for the second effect code (E2).

Given that we conceptualized that family types would be ordered from single-parent to reconstituted to intact, as reflective of increasing hierarchy, we would expect this ordering of family types on the measure of authority-role structure. In evaluating regression results, we used an alpha level of .10 to evaluate tests. Results for the regression of authority-role structure on the effect codes for family type are presented in Table 37, for parents, and in Table 38, for teens.

In the parent analysis, results indicated that the effect codes were significant predictors for authority-role structure ($F(2,82) = 2.84, p = .064$). However, the means for authority-role structure across family types were not as expected. The mean was 3.557 for single-parent families, 4.209 for reconstituted families, and 4.136 for intact families. We expected authority- role structure to be highest in intact families,

but the mean was highest for reconstituted families. Results of contrasts indicated that authority-role structure was significantly lower in single-parent families as compared with intact and reconstituted families ($F(1,83) = -2.28, p = .025$), but the difference in authority-role structure between reconstituted and intact families was not statistically significant ($F(1,83) = -.14, p = .89$).

Results of the analysis for teens also indicated that authority-role structure significantly differed on the basis of effect-coded family types ($F(2,168) = 2.64, p = .074$). However, once again, the means for authority-role structure across family types were not as expected, with means of 3.504, 4.073, and 3.544 for single-parent, reconstituted, and intact families, respectively. Results of contrasts indicated that authority-role structure was significantly greater in reconstituted families than in single-parent and intact families ($F(1,169) = 2.27, p = .025$), but the difference in authority-role structure between single-parent and intact families was not statistically significant ($F(1,169) = -.20, p = .85$).

In sum, then, results of the validity-check analysis for family type can be construed as indicating that the hypothesized ordering of family types according to hierarchy is incorrect (i.e., the theory of hierarchy is incorrect). Indeed, a similar ordering of means was found in both analyses. However, the result could also be construed as indicating that the measure of authority-role structure is a poor one. Given that only two items comprise the measure, this explanation is also quite plausible. At this point, it is too early in the empirical analysis stage to discard the theory of hierarchy (because hierarchy has not been empirically tested

before): this is particularly true given the doubtful construct validity of the authority-role structure measure.

Sex of Parental Respondent Effects

To determine if the sex of the parental respondent had an effect on any of the study variables, we performed a number of analyses of variance. If parental sex was found to have an effect, this factor would need to be accounted for (or built into) in the regression models. However, results indicated that (step)fathers and (step)mothers did not significantly differ in perceptions of any of the study variables. (The finding of no difference in perception between males and females could reflect the small number of males versus females included in the parent sample.)

A check on teens' identification of the selected parent as the primary consumer socialization agent was also included. We asked parents whether they thought they themselves or their spouses were most involved in teaching their teen about being a knowledgeable consumer. Only nine parents indicated that their spouse was more involved in their teen's consumer socialization than they were. Thus, there seemed to be some consistency among family members regarding the primary consumer socialization agent of the teen.

RESULTS OF HYPOTHESES TESTS

To test the hypotheses, we generally followed the procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) for testing for mediation of family type's effect on adolescents' perceived purchase influence. Specifically, we first regressed the socialization variables, which could be construed as mediators, on family type. We then regressed each of the dependent var-

iables on family type in separate analyses. According to Baron and Kenny, the final stage in a mediational analysis is to regress the dependent variable on both the predictor (family type) and the mediators (the socialization variables).

However, results of the first two stages of analysis indicated that mediation generally was not present (family type was not a significant predictor in most cases). Therefore, we tested hypotheses 6-10, which were related to the effects of socialization variables on influence, by separately regressing each one of the dependent variables on each of the five mediators.

Thus, the stages we followed in testing hypotheses were as follows. First, we regressed each one of the socialization variables on family type. In the second set of analyses, we regressed the dependent variables on family type. Third, we regressed the dependent variables on each of the socialization variables. Finally, on the basis of the previous analyses, we constructed multiple regression models, when appropriate (e.g., if mediation had been previously indicated).

Univariate, rather than multivariate, tests were used because (1) hypotheses were framed in a univariate manner (e. g., for each socialization factor separately), (2) multivariate tests are more conservative than are univariate tests and, given the relatively small sample sizes in the study, univariate tests provided more powerful tests of effects, and (3) given that many of the variables included in the model had not been previously studied, we wished to examine how each uniquely affected adolescents' perceived purchase influence.

Related to the use of the more powerful univariate tests, was the issue of sample size. After cases with "do not own" responses were de-

leted, the remaining sample sizes were low for both parents and teens. These relatively small sample sizes meant that the power to detect treatment effects was low. We attempted to offset low power by using univariate tests. To increase power, we also decided to set the significance level for evaluating hypotheses to .10.

One limitation of these remedies for low power is that the chance of making a Type I error increases. Indeed, given the number of tests performed in this study, it is likely that some results will be due to chance. Specifically, given that there were four dependent variables (including the two dependent variables in the post hoc analyses) and eight independent variables and that all tests were performed in two samples, six significant results may be due to chance alone ($8 \times 4 \times 2 = 64$; $64(.10) = 6.4$ results that may be due to chance). However, because this research included investigation of many previously unstudied variables, we wanted to provide liberal tests to avoid prematurely "dumping" a variable that actually does affect influence. But, in so doing, we somewhat increased the risk of retaining variables that, in reality, have no effect on influence. In short, we made a trade-off between Type I and Type II errors.

As previously mentioned, a number of demographic variables that could serve as potential confounds or covariates in the study were measured. These factors were built into regression models and analyzed as covariates, when such an approach was warranted, that is, when these variables were significantly correlated with the predictor and the dependent variable (i.e., a potential confound) or significantly correlated with the dependent variable alone (i.e., a covariate). Results for covariate analyses will be presented along with hypothesis-test results below.

For the purpose of hypothesis testing, family types were effect coded. Effect coding of family types permitted us to analyze covariates via the general linear model. For the first effect code (E1), family types were assigned the following values: 1, for single-parent families, 0, for reconstituted families, and - 1, for intact families. For the second effect code (E2), family types were assigned the values of: 0, for single-parent families, 1, for reconstituted families, and -1, for intact families.

Before proceeding to the hypothesis tests, we would like to outline the treatment of missing values. With the exception of the "do not own" responses for influence (which were coded as missing), missing data occurred on a random basis. Therefore, we excluded cases with missing values on an analysis basis. For example, in the regression of influence in family, high-risk decisions on peeriness, cases with missing values for either influence or peeriness were excluded from the analysis. If cases with missing values on any one variable had been deleted across the board, the already low sample size would have been further decreased. Deleting cases with missing values on an analysis basis preserved more of the data. Thus, because the deletion-by- analysis approach was used, degrees of freedom for test statistics vary across analyses and reflect the incidence of missing data.

Regression of Socialization Variables on Family Type

To test Hypotheses 1-5, each of the socialization variables was separately regressed on the effect-coded family types, which served as the predictors. Separate analyses were performed for parents and teens. Results from each sample are reported by construct below.

Peerness. We hypothesized that peerness would be greatest in single-parent families, less in reconstituted families, and least in intact families. Results of the regression of peerness on effect-coded family types are presented in Table 39, for parents, and in Table 40, for teens. No statistically significant relationship between peerness and family type was found for parents ($F(2,83) = .30, p > .10$) or for teens ($F(2,168) = .49, p > .10$). Hypothesis 1, therefore, was not supported.

Adolescents' Household Responsibility. We expected adolescents' household responsibility to be greatest in single-parent families, less in reconstituted families, and least in intact families. Recall that there were two operations of household responsibility, a global-level measure and a behaviorally based measure.

Results of the regression analysis for global household responsibility and family type are presented in Table 41, for parents, and in Table 42, for teens. No significant difference in household responsibility, as assessed by the global measure, was found on the basis of the effect codes for family type in either the parent sample ($F(2,82) = .51, p > .10$) or the teen sample ($F(2,166) = .15, p > .10$). Thus, when the global-level measure of household responsibility is used, Hypothesis 2 is not supported.

For the behavioral measure of household responsibility (in meal preparation), regression results are presented in Table 43, for parents, and in Table 44, for teens. For teens, no statistically significant difference in household responsibility (in meal preparation) on the basis of family type was found ($F(2,159) = .43, p > .10$).

In contrast, for parents, regression results indicated that adolescents' household responsibility (in meal preparation) varied across fam-

ily types ($F(2,83) = 3.12, p = .0492, R^2 = .07$). The means, however, were not in the expected direction. Specifically, the mean for household responsibility (in meal preparation) was highest in reconstituted families (mean = 2.66), lower in single-parent families (mean = 2.33), and lowest in intact families (mean = 2.05). We had expected household responsibility to be greatest in single-parent families, not in reconstituted families, as was indicated here. Results of contrasts indicated that parents in intact families perceived their teens as having less family responsibility than did parents in reconstituted and single-parent families ($F(1,84) = -2.46, p = .016$), but the difference between parents' perceptions in reconstituted and single-parent families was not statistically significant ($F(1,84) = -1.26, p = .21$).

Thus, there was little support for Hypothesis 2 in the parents' analysis when the behavioral measure of household responsibility (in meal preparation) was employed. Parents in intact families reported the lowest level of adolescents' household responsibility (in meal preparation) and this was less than what parents in single-parent families reported for their adolescents, as expected. However, parents in reconstituted families reported the highest level of adolescent household responsibility (in meal preparation), counter to our hypothesis.

Because parents' perceptions of household responsibility (in meal preparation) were also likely to vary according to the sex of the adolescent, we performed a number of analyses to account for sex differences in household responsibility. To estimate regression models that included sex effects, adolescents' sex was effect coded (for the effect code for sex, E3, female was assigned the value of 1 and male, the value of -1).

The first regression model estimated was the "full" model, in which household responsibility in meal preparation was simultaneously regressed on the two effect codes for family type and the effect code for sex. This regression was significant ($F(3, 82) = 4.91, p = .0035, R^2 = .15$), indicating that all three effect codes, taken together, were significantly predictive of adolescents' household responsibility (in meal preparation).

Next, to test for whether regression slopes were similar for males and females in each family type, interaction terms ($E1 * E3$ and $E2 * E3$) were entered into the model. If regression slopes are similar between males and females in each family type, the change in the F-statistic should not be significant when the interaction terms are added. If the F-change is significant with the addition of the interaction terms, this would indicate that separate regression models should be estimated for household responsibility for males and females (because an interaction between sex and family type is present). The change in the F-statistic with the addition of the interaction terms, however, was not significant ($p = .1567$), indicating that no interaction between adolescents' sex and family type was present.

The next stage in the analysis involved comparing the effects of sex and family type on adolescents' household responsibility. Specifically, after controlling for sex, would family type still be related to adolescents' household responsibility (in meal preparation)?

To address this question, we estimated submodels of the full regression model. In other words, we sequentially entered sex and family type in the model and examined the change in the F-statistic. To demonstrate that family type was still predictive of varying levels of

household responsibility even after adolescents' sex was controlled, we began the analysis by entering sex in the model. When the effect code for adolescents' sex was entered, the F-statistic was 7.10 ($p = .0092$).

Next, the two effect codes for family type were simultaneously entered into the equation. If the change in the F-statistic was significant with the addition of the effect codes for family type, we would conclude that, even after controlling for sex differences in household responsibility, family type was still found to affect adolescents' household responsibility. And, indeed, this was found to be the case ($\delta F = 3.59$, $p = .0319$). Thus, family type was predictive of household responsibility even after sex differences were controlled.

Thus, these results indicate that both family type and the adolescents' sex are related to household responsibility. The regression equation is:

$$\text{HRESP} = 2.24 - .08E1 + .37E2 + .26E3$$

where E1 and E2 are effects codes for family type and E3 is the effect code for sex.

Parental Coalition Formation. It was expected that the degree of parental coalition formation would be greatest in intact families, lower in reconstituted families, and lowest in single-parent families.⁴⁸ Re-

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As previously discussed, single parents who were widow(er)ed or had never been married and who did not live with another adult were excluded from this analysis (because, analytically, no coalitions can exist in these circumstances). Therefore, in the single-parent "condition," coalitions between the single-parent and a live-in or between the single parent and the absent parent, if no live-in was present, were assessed. Thus, the coalition estimates for single parents reflect both coalitions between single parents and live-ins

sults of the regression analysis for parental coalition formation and family type are presented in Table 45, for parents, and in Table 46, for teens.

Regression results indicated that there was a significant relationship between (effect-coded) family type and parental coalition formation for both parents ($F(2,76) = 13.25, p < .001, R^2 = .26$) and teens ($F(2,153) = 8.45, p < .001, R^2 = .10$). The effect of family type on parental coalition formation was greater in the parents' analysis than it was in the teens' analysis: family type explained more variance in parents' perceptions of parental coalition formation than it did in teens' perceptions.

In examining the means for parental coalition formation across the three family types, results indicated that the means were in the predicted direction in both analyses. Single parents reported less parental coalition formation (mean = 3.17) than did parents in reconstituted (mean = 4.15) and intact families (mean = 4.38; $F(1,77) = -4.59, p < .01$), but there was no statistically significant difference in coalition formation between reconstituted and intact families ($F(1,77) = .74, p = .46$). Similarly, teens of single parents reported lower levels of parental coalition formation (mean = 3.04) than did teens in reconstituted (mean = 3.33) or intact families (mean = 3.76; $F(1,154) = -2.95, p < .01$). Teens in reconstituted and intact families, however, did not significantly

and coalitions between single parents and absent parents (i.e., no distinction was made between these two groups in the single-parent "condition").

differ in perceptions of parental coalition formation ($F(1,154) = 1.31$, $p = .19$).⁴⁹

One potential rival explanation to the significant relationship between family type and parental coalition formation that was found for parents was income. Income was significantly correlated with both family type ($r = .5272$, $p < .01$, indicating that income increased from single-parent to reconstituted to intact families) and parental coalition formation ($r = .2440$, $p < .01$, indicating that coalition formation increased with increasing income). In addition, teen's age was also negatively correlated with parental coalition formation ($r = -.2593$, $p < .01$, indicating that coalition formation decreased with increasing teen's age), which suggested that teen's age, in addition to family type, was predictive of the extent of parental coalition formation.

To account for the factor of teen's age, and to see if coalition formation differed on the basis of family type after income was controlled, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) via the general linear model (GLM) was undertaken. In performing ANCOVA via the GLM, a series of sequential analyses are undertaken.

First, the full model with all predictors in the equation is estimated. Next, to test for homogeneity of regression slopes (i.e., whether ANCOVA is appropriate or whether separate regression models should be

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Recall that the analysis of nonresponse bias indicated that the sample estimate of coalition formation in intact families was likely to be positively biased. Therefore, it is highly likely that perceptions of coalition formation do not differ between these reconstituted and intact groups of parents.

estimated), interaction terms between the predictor and the covariates are constructed and these terms are added to the equation. If regression slopes are homogeneous (i.e., ANCOVA is appropriate), the change in the F-statistic should be nonsignificant with the addition of the interaction terms. Next, to indicate whether ANCOVA is worthwhile (i.e., whether the covariate explains additional variance in the dependent variable beyond what the predictor does), an analysis in which the predictor is entered into the equation first and then the covariate is entered is undertaken. The change in the F-statistic should be significant when the covariate is entered (i.e., with the predictor controlled). Finally, to demonstrate that the predictor has an effect after the covariate is controlled, the covariate is entered and then the predictor is entered. Again, the change in the F-statistic should be significant when the predictor is added to the equation that already contains the covariate.

Results of the regression analysis for the full model containing the covariates (income and teen's age) and the predictors (effect codes for family type, E1 and E2) indicated that parental coalition formation was significantly affected by these factors ($F(4,66) = 9.08$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .36$). The regression equation was:

$$PCOAL = 6.09 - .70E1 + .39E2 - .01INCOME - .17TAGE,$$

where E1 and E2 are effect codes for family type, INCOME is annual household income, and TAGE is teen's age.⁵⁰

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The negative sign of INCOME in the regression equation (which is opposite to what would be expected), coupled with the high correlation between income and family type, indicates that multicollinearity is a problem in this analysis. Ideally, if we had a large enough data

Homogeneity of regression slopes was also indicated in that the change in the F-statistic was not significant with the interaction terms added ($p = .6889$). Thus, this analysis indicated that ANCOVA was an appropriate analysis technique in this case.

When E1 and E2 were entered, the F-statistic was 14.11 ($p < .001$). With the addition of income and teen's age to the equation, the change in F was significant ($p = .049$), indicating that adding income and teen's age to the equation was worthwhile (these two covariates accounted for additional variance in coalition formation beyond that explained by family type).

Finally, in a separate analysis, when income and teen's age were entered, the F-statistic was 4.79 ($p = .0112$). With the addition of the effect codes for family type to the equation, the change in the F-statistic was significant ($p < .001$). This result indicated that, even after controlling for the effects of income and teen's age, family type was still a significant predictor of parental coalition formation.

In sum, there was mixed support for Hypothesis 3. Overall, perceptions of parental coalition formation significantly differed on the basis of family type, as expected. Moreover, this relationship remained even after the effects of income were accounted for. Also consistent with our hypothesis was the finding that coalition formation was least in single-parent families and greatest in intact families. However, contrary to our expectations, there was not a statistically significant difference

set, it would have been desirable to split the data set and perform the analysis on each subsample to evaluate the effect of multicollinearity. However, the data set was too small to perform analyses for subsamples. Thus, the regression results are likely to be nonrobust in this analysis.

in perceptions of coalition formation between reconstituted and intact families.

Restrictiveness. We hypothesized that the level of parental restrictiveness would be highest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families. Results of the regression of restricting teen's behavior (the operationalization of restrictiveness used in this study) on the effect codes for family type are presented in Table 47, for parents, and in Table 48, for teens.

No statistically significant relationship between restricting teen's behavior and family type was found for either parents ($F(2,79) = .32, p > .10$) or teens ($F(2,167) = .94, p > .10$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Nurturance. Nurturance was hypothesized to be highest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families. Two indicators of nurturance were used in this research: encouraging verbalization and spending time with teen.

Encouraging Verbalization. The regression results for encouraging verbalization and family type are presented in Tables 49 (parents' analysis) and 50 (teens' analysis). Results indicated that perceptions of encouraging verbalization did not significantly differ across family types for either parents ($F(2,82) = .24, p > .10$) or teens ($F(2,167) = 1.22, p > .10$). Therefore, the nurturance hypothesis, using the encouraging verbalization indicator for nurturance, was not supported.

Spending Time with Teen. The results of regressing spending time with teen on the family-type effect codes are presented in Table 51, for parents, and in Table 52, for teens. Parents in different family types

did not significantly differ in their perceptions of how much time they spent with their teenagers ($F(2,82) = .38, p > .10$).

Teens in different families, however, did differ in their perceptions of how much time parents spent with them ($F(2,168) = 3.52, p = .0317, R^2 = .04$). However, means were not in the expected order. Teens in intact families indicated that their parents spent the most time with them (mean = 4.19), as compared with single-parent (mean = 3.73) and reconstituted families (mean = 3.59; $F(1,169) = 2.65, p < .01$). However, counter to expectations, the lowest level of time spent with teen occurred for reconstituted rather than single-parent families ($F(1,169) = -2.25, p = .026$).

Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supported for parents for either subdimension of nurturance: it also was not supported for encouraging verbalization in the teen sample. Results for spending time in the teen sample provided mixed support for the hypothesis in that means were not ordered as expected. Thus, overall, support for Hypothesis 5 was weak.

Regression of Dependent Measures on Family Type

The dependent measures for adolescents' influence were each separately regressed on the effect codes to determine whether influence varied across family types. These analyses were a first step in testing for mediation of the effects of family type on influence. Before testing for mediation of family types' effects, it must be shown that family type is a significant predictor of influence. Regression of the dependent measures on family type, thus, was undertaken to investigate this issue.

Adolescents' Influence in Family-Related, High-Financial-Risk Decisions. The dependent variable of adolescents' influence in family-related, high-risk decisions was regressed on the effect codes for family

type to determine whether family type was a significant predictor of influence in these types of decisions. Results of this regression analysis for parents are presented in Table 53 and, for teens, in Table 54.

Using the .10 significance level, results of the regression analysis in the parent sample indicated that parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in family-related, high-risk decisions varied across family types ($F(2,69) = 2.96$, $p = .0583$, $R^2 = .08$).

Means were also in the expected direction. Single-parents perceived that their adolescents had greater influence (mean = 1.00) in these types of decisions than parents in reconstituted families (mean = .64) and intact families (mean = .46) perceived their adolescents as having ($F(1,70) = 2.05$, $p = .045$). However, no statistically significant difference in influence was found between reconstituted and intact families ($F(1,70) = -.60$, $p = .55$).

Although parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in family-related, high-risk decisions were found to vary on the basis of family type, two covariates were also indicated as being related to adolescents' influence in these types of decisions. Parents' education was significantly and negatively correlated with adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions ($r = -.364$, $p < .01$), indicating adolescents' influence in these types of decisions decreased with increasing parental education. Teen's age was also significantly correlated with influence in these types of decisions ($r = .2754$, $p < .05$), indicating influence increased with age.

To determine if family type affected adolescents' influence after these two factors were controlled, an ANCOVA via GLM was performed, following the steps outlined earlier. The regression of influence on edu-

cation, age, and the two effect codes for family type was significant ($F(4,67) = 4.36$, $p = .0034$, $R^2 = .21$), indicating that influence was affected by the set of predictors. The regression equation was:

$$\text{FAMHI} = -.52 + .22\text{E1} - .12\text{E2} - .15\text{EDUC} + .12\text{TAGE}.$$

The test for homogeneity of regression slopes indicated that ANCOVA was appropriate: the change in the F-statistic with the interaction terms added to the model was nonsignificant ($p = .6278$). In the sequential analysis that tested for whether the covariates reduced unexplained variance, results showed that the covariates did reduce error variance. With the effect codes already in the model, the change in the F-statistic was significant when education and age were added to the equation ($\delta F = 5.39$, $p = .0068$). The covariates, therefore, added to the prediction of influence.

Finally, to determine whether family type affected influence after education and age were controlled, we examined the change in the F-statistic when the effect codes were added to a model that already contained the covariates. With parental education and teen's age already in the model, the change in the F-statistic was nonsignificant when the effect codes for family type were added to the equation ($\delta F = 1.37$, $p = .2621$). Therefore, these results indicate that family type is not a significant predictor of adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions after parents' education and teen's age are controlled.

Similarly, teens' perceptions of their influence in these types of decisions did not differ on the basis of family type ($F(2,142) = .13$, $p > .10$).

The results in both samples, then, indicated that family type had no significant effect on influence (after education and age were con-

trolled, in the case of parents). Also note that this result meant that family type's effect could not be mediated in this instance since there was no relationship between family type and influence.

Adolescents' Influence in Teen-Related, High-Financial-Risk Decisions. The dependent variable of adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions was regressed on the effect codes for family type to determine whether influence in these types of decisions varied on the basis of family type. Results of the regression analysis are presented in Table 55, for parents, and in Table 56, for teens.

Results indicated that parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions did not significantly differ on the basis of family type ($F(2,52) = .42, p > .10$). Teens' perceptions of their influence in these types of decisions also did not differ across different types of families ($F(2,114) = .11, p > .10$). Therefore, because no relationship between family type and influence for these types of decisions existed, the effects of family type could not be mediated in this instance (essentially, there is nothing to mediate).

Supplementary Analyses. Although our research hypotheses were confined to influence in high-financial-risk types of decisions, we also included measures of influence in both family- and teen-related low-risk types of decisions to see if the model would hold in these cases. It should be noted that tests involving influence in low-risk types of decisions are post hoc analyses (i.e., these relationships were not hypothesized).

Adolescents' Influence in Family-Related, Low-Financial-Risk Decisions. Results of the regression of adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions on the effect codes for family type are presented in

Table 57, for parents, and in Table 58, for teens. Family type had no statistically significant effect on adolescents' perceptions of their own influence in these types of decisions ($F(2,161) = 1.50, p > .10$).

However, parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions did vary on the basis of family type ($F(2,77) = 4.12, p = .02, R^2 = .10$). Single parents perceived that their adolescents had greater influence in these types of decisions (mean = 4.34) than parents in reconstituted (mean = 3.25) and intact (mean = 3.58) families perceived their adolescents as having ($F(1,78) = 2.93, p < .01$); however, the difference in influence perceptions between reconstituted and intact families was not statistically significant ($F(1,78) = .85, p = .40$). Note that the ordering of means in this instance is counter to the order expected. According to our reasoning, one would expect parents in reconstituted families to perceive greater adolescent influence than parents in intact families: the means, however, were opposite to this expectation.

Adolescents' Influence in Teen-Related, Low-Financial-Risk Decisions. Regression results for adolescents' influence in teen, low-risk decisions are presented in Table 59, for parents, and in Table, 60, for teens. Neither parents' ($F(2,80) = .34, p > .10$) nor teens' ($F(2,162) = 1.20, p > .10$) perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions varied on the basis of family type.

Regression of Dependent Variables on Socialization Variables

Because family type was not found to have an effect on adolescents' influence, the mediational hypothesis for the effects of family type was not supported. The socialization variables could not be mediators because adolescents' influence was not found to vary on the basis of family type (i.e., there was no relationship to mediate). However, Hypotheses 6-10

could still be tested by regressing the dependent variables on the socialization factors. In other words, the socialization variables, although not mediators of a family-type effect, could still be predictive of influence variation in their own right. To test the hypotheses related to socialization effects, then, the two dependent measures were each separately regressed on each one of the five socialization factors. Results for each dependent variable are presented separately.

Adolescents' Influence in Family-Related, High-Financial-Risk Decisions

Peerness. Results of regressing adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions on peerness are presented in Table 61, for parents, and Table 62, for teens. We hypothesized that increasing peerness would positively affect adolescents' influence in these types of decisions. Results indicated that there was no statistically significant effect of peerness on either parents' ($F(1,69) = 1.00, p > .10$) or teens' ($F(1,139) = .07, p > .10$) perceptions of adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported for family, high-risk decisions in either sample.⁵¹

Adolescents' Household Responsibility. We hypothesized that increasing household responsibility would positively affect adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions. Results of the regression of

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The scatterplot of peerness and influence in the parents' analysis (see Table 61) indicated that the relationship between the two variables might not be linear (indeed, many of the relationships in this sample appeared somewhat nonlinear). However, as mentioned previously, we attempted to transform variables and also attempted to add polynomial terms to the model. Neither of these approaches, however, resulted in improved model fit.

adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions on the global measure of adolescents' household responsibility are presented in Table 63, for parents, and in Table 64, for teens. Results indicated that neither parents' ($F(1,67) = .46, p > .10$) nor teens' ($F(1,140) = .002, p > .10$) perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions differed on the basis of household responsibility, as assessed by the global-level measure.

Results for the behavioral measure of household responsibility (in meal preparation) were similar to those found with the global measure. Neither parents' ($F(1,68) = .83, p > .10$; see Table 65) nor teens' ($F(1,136) = 1.93, p > .10$; see Table 66) perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions varied on the basis of household responsibility (in meal preparation), as assessed by the behavioral measure. Thus, Hypothesis 7 was not supported in either sample using either measure of household responsibility for influence in family, high-risk decisions.

Parental Coalition Formation. We hypothesized that increasing parental coalition formation would negatively affect adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions. Results of regressing influence in these types of decisions on parental coalition formation are presented in Table 67, for parents, and in Table 68, for teens. Results for the teen sample indicated that adolescents' did not perceive their purchase influence in family, high-risk decisions to vary on the basis of parental coalition formation ($F(1, 126) = .03, p > .10$).

However, parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence did significantly differ on the basis of parental coalition formation ($F(1,63) = 6.48, p = .0134, R^2 = .09$). Adolescents were perceived to have less

influence with increasing parental coalition formation. For example, for every one (standardized) unit increase in influence, parental coalition formation decreases by approximately one-third of a standard unit (i.e., beta of parental coalition formation is $-.305345$).

Thus, for adolescents' influence in family-related, high-financial-risk decisions, Hypothesis 8 was supported for parents but not for teens.

Restrictiveness. It was hypothesized that increasing parental restrictiveness would negatively affect adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions. Results of the regression analysis for this relationship are presented in Table 69, for parents, and in Table 70, for teens. Regression results indicated that neither parents' ($F(1,67) = 2.11, p > .10$) nor teens' ($F(1,138) = 1.20, p > .10$) perceptions of adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions differed on the basis of restricting teen's behavior. Hypothesis 9, therefore, was not supported in either sample for adolescents' influence in these types of decisions.

Nurturance. We hypothesized that increasing nurturance would positively affect adolescents' influence in family-related, high-financial-risk types of decisions. Recall that two indicators for nurturance were included in the study: encouraging verbalization and spending time with teen. Results for each of these two subdimensions will be presented separately.

Encouraging Verbalization. Results of regressing adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions on encouraging verbalization are presented in Table 71, for parents, and in Table 72, for teens. Teens'

perceptions of their influence in these types of decisions did not vary on the basis of encouraging verbalization ($F(1,142) = .65, p > .10$).

Parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence, however, were found to be affected by encouraging verbalization ($F(1,68) = 3.20, p = .0781, R^2 = .04$). Counter to expectations, however, influence was found to decrease with parents' increasing tendency to encourage verbalization. For each one standard unit increase in influence, encouraging verbalization decreases approximately two-tenths of a standard deviation (i.e., beta of encouraging verbalization is $-.211993$). Thus, Hypothesis 10 was not supported in the parents' analysis either. In fact, results were counter to expectations in the parent sample.

Spending Time with Teen. Results of the regression of influence in family, high-risk decisions on spending time with teen are presented in Table 73, for parents, and in Table 74, for teens. Results indicated that neither parents' ($F(1,66) = 1.85, p > .10$) nor teens' ($F(1,142) = .59, p > .10$) perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions varied on the basis of how much time parents spent with teens. Thus, Hypothesis 10 was not supported in either sample for either subdimension of nurturance. Moreover, results for encouraging verbalization in the parents' analysis indicated that nurturance negatively affected influence in these types of decisions, a result that is opposite to the one hypothesized.

Adolescents' Influence in Teen-Related, High-Financial-Risk Decisions

Peerness. We hypothesized that increasing peerness would positively affect adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions. Results of regressing adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions on adolescents' influence are presented in Table 75, for parents, and Table 76,

for teens. Results indicated that neither parents' ($F(1,52) = 2.31, p > .10$) nor teens' ($F(1,109)$) perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions significantly differed on the basis of peerness. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supported for adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions.

Adolescents' Household Responsibility. It was hypothesized that increasing household responsibility would positively affect adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions. Results for the two measures of household responsibility are presented separately.

Results of the regression of influence in teen, high-risk decisions on the global measure of household responsibility are presented in Table 77, for parents, and in Table 78, for teens. For the global-level measure of household responsibility, neither parents' ($F(1,51) = .14, p > .10$) nor teens' ($F(1,113) = 1.62, p > .10$) perceptions of influence for these types of decisions differed on the basis of household responsibility, as assessed by the global measure. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported when the global assessment of household responsibility was used.

Results of regressing influence in teen, high-risk products on the behavioral measure of household responsibility (in meal preparation) are presented in Tables 79 (for parents) and 80 (for teens). Results indicated that parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions did not significantly differ on the basis of household responsibility (in meal preparation), as measured at the behavioral level ($F(1,52) = .19, p > .10$).

However, teens' perceptions of their influence in these types of decisions did differ on the basis of household responsibility (in meal preparation) when the behavioral measure was used ($F(1,108) = 3.55, p =$

.0622, $R^2 = .03$). However, results indicated that increasing household responsibility negatively affected adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions. For example, as adolescents' influence increases by one standard deviate, household responsibility decreases by almost two-tenths of a standard unit (beta is $-.178401$).

Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported in either sample using either measure of household responsibility. Moreover, results in the teen analysis for the behavioral measure of household responsibility were counter to what was expected: increasing household responsibility was found to negatively, rather than positively, affect influence in teen, high-risk decisions.

Parental Coalition Formation. We hypothesized that increasing parental coalition would negatively affect adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions. Results of the regression of this influence measure on parental coalition formation are presented in Table 81, for parents, and in Table 82, for teens. Results indicated that adolescents' perceptions of their influence in these types of decisions did not significantly differ on the basis of parental coalition formation ($F(1,104) = 2.45, p > .10$).

In contrast, parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions were significantly affected by parental coalition formation ($F(1,48) = 4.49, p = .0394, R^2 = .09$). Consistent with our expectation, increasing parental coalition formation negatively affected adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions. For each one unit increase in influence, parental coalition formation increased by three-tenths of a standard deviation (beta for parental coalition formation is

-.292353). Thus, Hypothesis 8 was supported for parents but not for teens.

Restrictiveness. We hypothesized that increasing restrictiveness would negatively affect adolescents' influence in teen, high risk decisions. Results of the regression of influence in these types of decisions on restrictiveness are presented in Tables 83 (for parents) and 84 (for teens). Results indicated that neither parents' ($F(1,49) = 2.01, p > .10$) nor teens' ($F(1,112) = 2.41, p > .10$) perceptions of adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions significantly differed on the basis of restricting teen's behavior. Hypothesis 9, therefore, was not supported in either sample.

Nurturance. It was hypothesized that adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions would be positively affected by increasing parental nurturance. Results for the two subdimensions of nurturance will be presented separately.

Encouraging Verbalization. Results of the regression of influence in teen, high-risk decisions on encouraging verbalization are presented in Table 85, for parents, and in Table 86, for teens. Results indicated that neither parents' ($F(1,51) = .38, p > .10$) nor teens' ($F(1,114) = .95, p > .10$) perceptions of influence in these types of decisions differed on the basis of encouraging verbalization. Hypothesis 10, thus, was not supported in either sample when the subdimension of encouraging verbalization was considered.

Spending Time with Teen. Results of regressing influence in teen, high-risk decisions on spending time with teen are presented in Tables 87 (for parents) and 88 (for teens). Results showed that influence perceptions were not significantly affected by the amount of time that par-

ents spent with teens for either parents ($F(1,50) = .31, p > .10$) or teens ($F(1,114) = .74, p > .10$). Therefore, Hypothesis 10 was not supported in either sample for either subdimension of nurturance.

Supplementary Analyses

The measures for adolescents' influence in family, low-risk and teen, low-risk decisions were also each separately regressed on the five socialization variables. Because analyses related to these two dependent variables were post hoc in nature, only significant results will be reported below.

Adolescents' Influence in Family-Related, Low-Financial-Risk Decisions. No significant relationships were found between teens' perception of influence in family, low-risk decisions and any of the socialization factors. For parents, significant relationships were found between adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions for both peerness and the global measure of household responsibility.

Results of regressing adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions on peerness are presented in Table 89. Parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions were significantly affected by peerness ($F(1,77) = 6.26, p = .0144, R^2 = .08$). Consistent with what our model would indicate, influence increased with increasing peerness: for a one unit change in influence, peerness increased by approximately three-tenths of a standard deviation (beta of peerness is .274296).

Results of the regression of adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions on the global measure of household responsibility are presented in Table 90. Parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions varied on the basis of household responsi-

bility ($F(1,75) = 3.40, p = .0693, R^2 = .04$). However, contrary to what our model would suggest, influence decreased with increasing household responsibility in this instance.

Adolescents' Influence in Teen-Related, Low-Financial-Risk Decisions. Adolescents' influence in teen, low-risk decisions significantly varied on the basis of (1) household responsibility (global measure) and restrictiveness in the teen sample and (2) household responsibility (global measure) and encouraging verbalization in the parent sample.

Results of regressing adolescents' influence in teen, low-risk decisions on the global measure of household responsibility are presented in Table 91, for parents, and in Table 92, for teens. Results indicated that both parents' ($F(1,78) = 5.07, p = .0271, R^2 = .06$) and teens' ($F(1,159) = 5.21, p = .0238, R^2 = .03$) perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions varied on the basis of household responsibility, as assessed by the global measure. Results in both samples, however, indicated that influence decreased with increasing household responsibility. Such a finding is inconsistent with what our model would suggest.

For teens, results of the regression of influence in teen, low-risk decisions on restricting teen's behavior are presented in Table 93. Results showed that teens' perceptions of their influence in these types of decisions were related to how restrictive they perceived their parents as being ($F(1,156) = 14.85, p = .0002, R^2 = .09$). Results were also consistent with what our model would suggest: adolescents' influence increased with decreasing restrictiveness.

Finally, results of the regression of influence in teen, low-risk decisions on encouraging verbalization are presented in Table 94. Par-

ents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions varied on the basis of encouraging verbalization ($F(1,78) = 3.23$, $p = .0761$, $R^2 = .04$). Consistent with what our model would suggest, parents perceived greater adolescent influence the more they perceived themselves as encouraging verbalization.

MULTIPLE REGRESSION MODELS

On the basis of the foregoing analyses, it was possible to construct multiple regression models for adolescents' influence, with the exception of adolescents' influence in teen-related, high-financial-risk decisions. (Multiple predictors were not indicated for this dependent variable in either sample.) These models will be presented by the particular dependent variable below.

Adolescents' Influence in Family-Related, High-Financial-Risk Decisions

For parents, the family type effect was not supported in this study because the effect of family type was nonsignificant after parents' education and teen's age were controlled. However, results indicated that perceptions of adolescent influence varied on the basis of parental coalition formation and encouraging verbalization. Therefore, a multiple regression model containing the two covariates and the two socialization variables was constructed. The regression of adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions on these four factors was significant ($F(4,58) = 4.50$, $p = .0031$, $R^2 = .24$).

However, after controlling for the effects of education and teen's age, the socialization variables were not significantly predictive of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions (significance of the

change in F when these two variables were added into the equation was .1718). Thus, the best fitting and most parsimonious model that could be constructed for adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions contained the two demographic variables, parents' education and teen's age ($F(2,60) = 6.99, p = .0019, R^2 = .19$). The regression equation was

$$FAMHI = -.75 - .16EDUC + .14TAGE,$$

where EDUC is parent's education level and TAGE is teen's age. Apparently, the effects of the demographic variables are much stronger than any "treatment" effect.

No multiple regression analysis was indicated in the teen analyses because no statistically significant effects were found. Indeed, teens' perceptions of their own influence in family, high-risk decisions were not found to vary on the basis of any of the variables included in the study.

Adolescents' Influence in Family-Related, Low-Financial-Risk Decisions

On the basis of the previous analyses, a number of factors were shown to affect parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions. Specifically, in the parent analyses, influence in these types of decisions was found to vary on the basis of family type, peeriness, and (the global measure of) household responsibility. In addition, parent's education and teen's age were also significantly correlated with influence in family, low-risk decisions.

Thus, a regression model that included the three predictors and the two covariates was estimated. Results indicated that the regression of influence in family, low-risk decisions on these five variables was significant ($F(6,68) = 3.33, p = .0062, R^2 = .23$). Moreover, when parent's education and teen's age were controlled, the effects of family type,

peerness, and household responsibility were still significant (the change in the F- statistic was significant when these models were added to the equation, $p = .0084$). The regression equation was

$$\text{FAMLO} = .36 + .51\text{E1} - .44\text{E2} + .33\text{PEER} - .17\text{HRESP} - .09\text{EDUC} + .18\text{TAGE},$$

where E1 and E2 are effect codes for family type, PEER is peerness, HRESP is (the global measure of) adolescents' household responsibility, EDUC is parent's education level, and TAGE is teen's age. Thus, both the covariates and the three independent variables contribute to the explanation of adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions.

Multiple regression was not indicated for adolescents' perceptions of their influence in family, low-risk decisions.

Adolescents' Influence in Teen-Related, Low-Financial-Risk Decisions

For parents, adolescents' influence in teen, low-risk decisions was found to vary on the basis of encouraging verbalization and adolescents' household responsibility. In addition, parent's age, the number of children under 18 years, and teen's age were also significantly correlated with influence in these types of decisions. Therefore, a regression model including these five variables was estimated for influence in teen, low-risk decisions. The overall regression was significant ($F(5,69) = 5.02$, $p = .0006$, $R^2 = .27$). Moreover, the effects of encouraging verbalization and household responsibility remained after the three demographic factors were controlled ($p = .0213$). The overall regression model was

$$\text{TEENLO} = .26 + .20\text{TAGE} + .02\text{PAGE} - .26\text{NOCHILD} + .28\text{VERBAL} - .22\text{HRESP},$$

where TAGE is teen's age, PAGE is parent's age, NOCHILD is the number of children under age 18 in the household, VERBAL is encouraging verbalization, and HRESP is (global-level) adolescents' household responsibility.

Multiple factors also affected teens' perceptions of their influence in teen-related, high-risk decisions. In addition to restrictiveness and household responsibility (global measure), the number of children under 18 years and mother's occupation also affected influence in these types of decisions. The overall regression of influence on these four factors was significant ($F(4,110) = 8.10, p < .001, R^2 = .23$). After controlling for the covariates, restrictiveness and household responsibility remained significant predictors of influence in teen, low-risk decision (change in F was significant at $p = .0001$ when these two socialization variables were added to the equation). The overall regression model for teens was

$$\text{TEENLO} = 6.58 + .05\text{MOCCUP} - .12\text{NOCHILD} - .20\text{RESTRICT} - .09\text{HRESP},$$

where MOCCUP is mother's occupation, NOCHILD is the number of children under age 18 in the household, RESTRICT is restrictiveness, and HRESP is (global-level) household responsibility.

SUMMARY

In summary, results of the hypotheses tests indicated that there was little support for the model in either sample. Moreover, mediation of family type was not demonstrated in either sample for any dependent measure. Finally, the strongest relationships found among family type, the socialization factors, and influence occurred in the two post hoc analyses for influence in family and teen low-risk decisions. These findings will be more fully discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter begins with a brief description of the study and a discussion of the major findings. The limitations of the research are then reviewed. We also discuss the implications of this research and outline some of the potential contributions that an understanding of family type could make in the domain of children's influence in purchase decisions. Finally, we offer some suggestions for future research.

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken to investigate how and why children's influence in purchase decisions might vary under different types of families. With one exception (i.e., Darley and Lim 1986), previous research on children's influence focused exclusively on influence variations in intact families, even though other types of families were becoming increasingly prevalent in society. In short, past studies on children's influence seemed to ignore the diversity characterizing American families today.

It was felt that this diversity in family types could have strong implications for children's influence in purchase decisions. Research in other disciplines had shown that family type affected numerous aspects of parent-teen relationships (see, e.g., Amato 1987; Hetherington 1988; Wallerstein and Blakeslee 1989, among others). We reasoned that it was also likely that family type would affect children's influence in purchase decisions, given that purchase decisions are made in a family context:

if family type affects parent-teen relationships, these differing relationships could, in turn, affect children's influence. This study, therefore, was undertaken to examine these ideas about how and why family type might affect children's purchase influence.

Conceptual Model

To understand and explain family type's effects on children's influence in purchase decisions, we drew on Steven Nock's (1988) theory of hierarchy in the family. Nock proposes that children in different types of families are socialized into different status roles. At one end of the spectrum, parent-child status roles are characterized by high hierarchy, a role pattern in which children's status is inferior, or subordinate, to parents. At the other extreme, with low hierarchy, there is greater equality in status between parents and children.

The level of hierarchy depends on the number adults present in the household and children's length of exposure to a particular status role model. In general, status roles are conceptualized to be more hierarchical when two adults, as opposed to one adult, are present in the family. Moreover, the greater the amount of time that a child is exposed to the more hierarchical role pattern of authority occurring with two parents, the greater is the child's learning of the more hierarchical role pattern.

On the basis of these considerations, we conceptualized family types as varying in hierarchy from single-parent to reconstituted to intact families, or from low to high hierarchy. Single-parent families should be least hierarchical because only one adult is present. Intact families should be most hierarchical because two adults are present and children have never been exposed to less hierarchical role models. Reconstituted

families lie between these two extremes: two adults are present but children are also likely to have had at least some exposure to less hierarchical role patterns prior to remarriage. Thus, we conceptualized family types as being ordered from single-parent to reconstituted to intact families to reflect low to high hierarchy.

The structure of status roles in the family patterns various aspects of the parent-child relationship. Nock identified three areas of parent-child relations that are related to the structure of status roles: the nature of dependency relations between parents and children (or the extent to which parents rely on children to be their friends), the division of household tasks and responsibilities between parents and children (or the degree to which children have household responsibility), and the disciplinary practices of parents (or parental restrictiveness). The extent to which parents support each other's positions in relation to children (or parental coalition formation) is also indicative of authority in the family.

A conceptual model of children's influence that incorporated these socialization influences was developed (see Fig. 2). Specifically, the model included the constructs of peerness (representing the nature of dependency relations between parents and children), adolescents' household responsibility (relating to the division of household tasks and responsibilities between parents and children), parental restrictiveness (relating to parental disciplinary tendencies), and parental coalition formation that Nock suggested were related to status role socialization. We hypothesized that family type would affect each one of these socialization factors and that each of these factors, in turn, would affect children's influence in purchase decisions. Family type's effects

on children's influence, then, were expected to be mediated by peerness, adolescents' household responsibility, parental restrictiveness, and parental coalition formation.

Finally, although it is not part of the theory of hierarchy, we also included the construct of parental nurturance in the model. Previous research on children's influence indicated that nurturance might affect the degree of children's purchase influence. Also, research on parenting practices in different family types suggested that nurturance might vary under different family types (see, e.g., Peek et al. 1988). Thus, for conceptual completeness, we also included the socialization factor of parental nurturance in our model of children's influence.

In summary, according to our model of children's influence, which is partially based on the theory of hierarchy, we hypothesized that children in different types of families are socialized into different status roles. This status role socialization occurs through family type's patterning of parent-child relationships and interactions (i.e., family type's effects on peerness, adolescents' household responsibility, parental restrictiveness, and parental coalition formation). Family type was also seen to affect parental nurturance. The resulting differences in parent-child relations, in turn, were hypothesized to affect the degree of children's influence in purchase decisions.

Research Hypotheses

We hypothesized that family type, as ordered to reflect low to high hierarchy, would affect the peerness of parent-adolescent relations, the degree of adolescents' household responsibility, the extent of parental coalition formation, and how restrictive and nurturant parents were toward adolescents. These five socialization factors, in turn, were hy-

pothesized to affect adolescents' influence in purchase decisions for family- and teen-related high-financial-risk products.

Specifically, we hypothesized that peerness and household responsibility would be greatest in single-parent families, less in reconstituted families, and least in intact families. It was also hypothesized that parental coalition formation, parental restrictiveness, and parental nurturance would be greatest in intact families, less in reconstituted families, and least in single-parent families.

For the effects of these five socialization factors on adolescents' influence in family and teen-related, high- financial-risk decisions, we hypothesized that adolescents' influence would be positively affected by greater peerness, household responsibility, and parental nurturance. It was also hypothesized that adolescents' influence would be greater with decreasing parental coalition formation and parental restrictiveness. The effects of the socialization factors were also expected to be stronger in the case of the family-related as opposed to the teen-related high-risk decisions.

Operationalizations of Constructs

Because many of the constructs included in our model had not been previously studied (or because existing scales did not fit the context of the study), we developed measures for each of the constructs included in the model. With the exception of the dependent measures and the behavioral measure of household responsibility (which could not be studied due to the small sample sizes in both pretests), operationalizations of (socialization) constructs were developed partially on the basis of pre-test results.

To develop the measures of the socialization constructs, two pretests were conducted: one for parents of adolescents and one for adolescents. The pretest for parents, in particular, provided some useful insights into construct operationalizations. From the parents' pretest, items that had been shown to comprise reliable scales for the constructs were retained for further analysis in the study samples. In general, the scales developed in the parents' pretest performed poorly in the adolescents' pretest; however, the poor performance of the measures in the adolescent pretest could have been due to the less-than-ideal conditions of data collection in this instance (e.g., the presence of the concession stand, the fact that "better" students were absent from study halls, and so on). The sample size in both pretests was also small, indicating that sampling error could be problematic in both cases. Therefore, the measures developed for the socialization constructs were re-evaluated and refined in the context of the larger study samples.

On the basis of the data collected for the study, the dependent measures and the behavioral measure of household responsibility were constructed and the socialization measures were refined. In general, the evidence for construct validity for the dependent measures was weaker than was the case for the socialization measures. The construct validity of the measures will be more fully discussed in the limitations section below.

Data Collection

This study used a survey method to investigate the relationships between family type, socialization factors, and adolescent's perceived purchase influence. Data were collected from a convenience sample of

adolescents who attended an urban-area high school and one of their parents.

Students completed their surveys in class. Collecting data through the school system facilitated identification of households with adolescents. An urban-area school was selected to maximize variance in family types. All but two students present on the dates of data collection participated in the research. Surveys were administered by the researcher and a teacher, who were both female.

The parent who was most involved in the consumer socialization of the adolescent served as the parental respondent. This parent was selected to sample because his/her perceptions were likely to be the most critical in understanding adolescents' influence in purchase decisions. Students identified the parent who was most involved in teaching them about being a knowledgeable consumer. Students then delivered the parental questionnaire to the indicated parent. Parents completed surveys at home and returned them to school via the adolescent.

To enhance the likelihood of parents' participation in the study, a \$4 contribution was made to the school for every fully completed set of parent-teen responses. Students were not informed about this contribution.

Sample Characteristics

A convenience sample of adolescents in marketing education, typing, and English classes provided the data for the teen analyses. One hundred and seventy two students from the three family types of single-parent,

reconstituted, and intact families participated in the research.⁵² Single-parent (36 percent of sample) and reconstituted (18.6 percent of sample) families were over-represented in the sample, and intact families (45.4 percent of sample) were under-represented, as compared with the population (corresponding percentages for the population are 25 percent, 13 percent, and 62 percent for the three family types, respectively, according to 1980 census information). The sample was 72 percent female with an average age of 16 years.

For the convenience sample of parents, 87 parents participated in the study. As was the case in the adolescent sample, both single-parent (37.9 percent) and reconstituted (14.9 percent) families were over-represented, and intact families (47.2 percent) were under-represented, in the sample. The average age of parents was 43 years, and 82 percent were female. The sample also tended to be lower-middle-class: average household income was between \$25,00 and \$30,00 and the average education level was vocational/technical school.

Data Analyses

Data for parents and teens were analyzed separately. For the purpose of hypothesis testing, a series of regression analyses was used. First, to test Hypotheses 1-5 (i.e., the effects of family type on peeriness, adolescents' household responsibility, parental coalition formation, and parental restrictiveness and nurturance), we regressed each of the five

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Responses from students in "other" family types were deleted in the hypothesis tests because this research was confined to examining influence across the three family types mentioned above.

socialization factors on family type. Then, because family type's effects were thought to be mediated by the socialization factors, we separately regressed each one of the two dependent variables (i.e., adolescents' influence in family, high-financial-risk decisions and adolescents' influence in teen, high-financial-risk decisions) on family type. To demonstrate mediation, it must be shown that the independent variable (family type) has an effect on the dependent variable (adolescents' influence).

Because results of the regression of adolescents' influence on family type, however, indicated that family type was not predictive of adolescents' influence, we then regressed each one of the two dependent variables separately on each one of the five socialization variables. In other words, although the five socialization factors were not shown to be mediating variables, they could still be predictors of adolescents' influence in their own right. This series of regression analyses served as the tests of Hypotheses 6-10 (i.e., effects of peeriness, adolescents' household responsibility, parental coalition formation, parental restrictiveness, and parental nurturance on children's influence).

Although our hypotheses were confined to examining adolescents' influence in high-financial-risk decisions for the family and the teen, we also included measures of adolescents' influence in low-financial-risk teen and family decisions. These analyses were post hoc in nature and were conducted to provide additional information about the model and adolescents' influence.

In addition to the study variables, we also measured a number of potentially confounding variables, such as income, the number of hours parents worked, parents' age, education level, occupation, and sex, adolescent's age and sex, and the number of children under age 18 years in

the household. Where indicated, these demographic variables were included in the regression models outlined above. Specifically, we statistically controlled for these variables and then examined whether the predicted effects were still obtained.

Finally, multiple regression models that included both demographic⁵³ and independent variables⁵⁴ were constructed for each one of the dependent variables,⁵⁵ where indicated. These models were constructed to aid in understanding adolescents' influence and to show the relative predictive power of the independent variables.

Discussion of Results

The results of hypotheses tests and supplementary analyses are presented in Figure 3. These results are discussed in-depth below.

Family Type's Effects on Socialization Factors. In general, results of the regression analyses in both samples indicated that family type had

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Demographic variables included income, teen's age and sex, parents' education and occupation, and the number of children in the household under age 18.

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Independent variables included family type and, for Hypotheses 6-10, peeriness, adolescents' household responsibility, parental coalition formation, parental restrictiveness, and parental nurturance.

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Dependent variables included adolescents' influence in family-related, high-financial-risk decisions and adolescents' influence in teen-related, high-financial-risk decisions and, in the supplementary analyses, adolescents' influence in family-related, low-financial-risk decisions and adolescents' influence in teen-related, low-financial-risk decisions.

little effect on the five socialization variables. Family type was found to have no statistically significant effect on peeriness, adolescents' household responsibility (as assessed by the global-level measure), parental restrictiveness, or the extent to which parents encouraged verbalization in either sample. In addition, no relationship between family type and adolescents' household responsibility (in meal preparation, or the behavioral measure of household responsibility) was found in the teen sample. Finally, in the parent analysis, family type had no significant effect on parents' spending time with teenagers.

In considering the statistically significant relationship between family type and adolescents' household responsibility (in the parent analysis) and between family type and parents' spending time with teenagers (in the teen analysis), means were not in the expected direction. In both cases, the ordering of single-parent and reconstituted families was opposite to that hypothesized. For example, the highest level of adolescents' household responsibility (in meal preparation) was reported for reconstituted families: however, we hypothesized that household responsibility would be greatest in single-parent families. Similarly, we expected parents in single-parent families to spend the least amount of time with teenagers: results, however, indicated that the lowest level of parents' spending time with teenagers was reported in reconstituted families.

Support in both samples was found only for the hypothesis relating to family type's effect on parental coalition formation. In both cases, means were in the expected direction, with coalition formation's being highest in intact families and lowest in single-parent families.

On the basis of these analyses, there was little support provided for the model regarding family type's effects on the socialization variables (i.e., Hypotheses 1-6). This result is surprising, given that many studies have shown that family type affects numerous aspects of parent-adolescent relationships (see, e.g., Hetherington 1988, Wallerstein and Blakeslee 1989, Weiss 1979a, among others). In short, our results are generally inconsistent with the body of literature relating family type to differences in family functioning. Although it could be that family type has no effect on the variables of concern in this study, as results indicate, this research was also characterized by a number of methodological limitations that may have affected the outcome of the hypotheses tests. These limitations will be thoroughly discussed shortly.

Although there were a number of methodological limitations associated with this study, the relationship between family type and adolescents' household responsibility may be conceptually robust. The highest level of adolescents' household responsibility was found in reconstituted families rather than in single-parent families, a result that was counter to expectations. Perhaps parents and adolescents in single-parent families eat out more (or have separate meals more often) than is the case in reconstituted families. Alternatively, reconstituted families may be larger than single-parent families; hence, there may be more of a need for adolescents to share household responsibility in reconstituted families.

Similarly, the result that parents in reconstituted families spent the least amount of time with teenagers may also be conceptually robust. Perhaps there is some form of competition between children and step-parents with regard to the original parent's time in reconstituted fami-

lies. Also, after remarriage, the original parent must divide time between children and a spouse, and, given that there are a finite number of hours in the day, less time is likely to be spent with children after remarriage as compared with the time prior to remarriage, *ceteris paribus*. Finally, given that not only must spouses adjust to the marriage but one partner must also adjust to becoming a step-parent, there may be more of a need for spouses to spend time with each other in remarried families than is the case in intact families.

Family Type's Effects on Adolescents' Influence. Family type had no statistically significant effect on adolescents' perceptions of their influence in family- or teen- related, high- or low-financial-risk decisions. Parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in teen-related purchase decisions did not vary on the basis of family type. Parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in family-related purchase decisions, however, did vary under different types of families, with adolescents in single-parent families having the most influence and those in intact families having the least influence, as expected.

But, for the high-risk decisions, family type's effects became non-significant after parent's educational level and teen's age were controlled. Specifically, adolescents' influence in these types of decisions decreased with increasing parental education and was greater the older the teen was (the highest level of parental education was reported in intact families, and the lowest, in single-parent families; children tended to be younger in single-parent families than in intact families). Better educated parents may be more likely to have greater knowledge of or be more involved with these family, high-risk decisions than less-educated parents; therefore, these types of parents may prefer

to make such decisions without the adolescents' directly being involved. Better educated parents may also attempt to educate adolescents about making such decisions by having them observe parents making the decision rather than letting teens participate in the process before they have acquired adequate consumer skills. Similarly, parents may be more open to older children's participation than to younger children's, given that older children are likely to have greater knowledge about family, high-financial-risk products as compared with younger children.

Summary. In sum, then, the only significant difference in adolescents' influence found on the basis of family type occurred for family-related, low-financial-risk decisions in the parent analysis. Parents in single-parent families perceived their adolescents as having the most influence, and parents in intact families perceived their adolescents as having the least amount of influence in these types of decisions.

From these analyses, it can be concluded that family type had very little, if any, effect on adolescents' influence. And because family type had no effect on influence, with the exception of the family, low-risk case in the parent analysis, the mediational hypothesis of family type's effects on influence was rejected. Essentially, there was no relationship between family type and influence for the socialization variables to mediate.⁵⁶

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Although analytically family type's effects could have been mediated in the family, low-risk case in the parent analysis, mediation was rejected in this instance as well. This was because family type did not have an effect on the socialization variables (i.e., peeriness and the global measure of household responsibility) that were predictive of adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions. To demon-

In the family, high-risk case, although mediation was rejected for the socialization variables, it may be that family type affects purchase influence in these types of decisions through other mediating variables besides those hypothesized. Indeed, our results suggest that, in this instance, family type's effects may be mediated by parents' education level and the age of adolescents: in this study, family type's effects on influence became nonsignificant when parent's education and teen's age were added to the model, which suggests that these two variables are mediators of family type's effects on influence in family, high-risk decisions. Perhaps those with less education and older children are more likely to divorce. And parents who have less education may take more of a "hands on" approach to adolescent consumer socialization, letting adolescents learn about purchase decisions by having teens participate in decision-making. Also, parents who have divorced may require older children to be more independent, and, therefore, older teens may have greater influence in family, high-risk decisions as a means of fostering this independence.

Effects of the Socialization Factors on Adolescents' Influence. For the two dependent measures of the study, adolescents' influence in high-financial-risk decisions for both the family and the teen, no statistically significant differences were found on the basis of peeriness, household responsibility (for the global measure), restrictiveness, or spending time with teen in either sample. No differences in parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in high-risk decisions occurred on

strate mediation, the predictor (family type) must be shown to affect the "mediators" (socialization variables).

the basis of the behavioral measure of adolescents' household responsibility (in meal preparation). For teens, the behavioral measure of household responsibility (in meal preparation) was negatively related to adolescents' influence in teen, high-risk decisions, a finding that was counter to the one hypothesized. Perhaps parents who give teens little household responsibility are more indulgent and, therefore, would be more open to teen's influence in teen-related, high-risk decisions. Alternatively, it may be that meal preparation is not viewed as an important responsibility; if so, the adolescent would gain little leverage in influencing purchase decisions as a result of having responsibility for meal preparation.

With regard to encouraging verbalization, no differences in either dependent variable occurred for encouraging verbalization in the teen analysis. In the parent analysis, encouraging verbalization was found to be negatively associated with adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions, a result that was counter to the one hypothesized: however, after controlling for the effects of parents' education level and teen's age, encouraging verbalization was not found to be a significant predictor of adolescents' influence. Perhaps better educated parents expect teens to be more proactive in learning consumer roles. These types of parents may expect teens to learn about consumer roles on their own or from watching the example set by parents. Therefore, better educated parents may be less likely to communicate directly with adolescents (i.e., to encourage verbalization more) about consumption, and they may also be less receptive to adolescents' influence in family, high-risk decisions. However, as children age and learn more about family, high-risk products and consumer roles, parents may be more willing to let older teens prac-

tice what they have learned by allowing them to participate in family, high-risk types of decisions.

The only hypothesis that was supported for adolescents' influence in family- and teen-related, high-risk decisions was that related to parental coalition formation in the parent analysis. In both cases, adolescents' influence decreased with increasing parental coalition formation, as expected. However, only parents' perceptions of influence varied on the basis of coalition formation: teens' perceptions did not.

In addition, for family, high-financial-risk decisions, the effects of parental coalition formation became nonsignificant after parent's education and teen's age were controlled. Better educated parents may be more likely to form coalitions, especially for younger children who are likely to require more "parenting" than older children, and to form coalitions for relatively important decisions, such as family-related, high-risk purchase decisions.

Summary. In sum, the hypotheses relating to the effects of peerness, household responsibility, restrictiveness, and nurturance on adolescents' influence in high-financial-risk decisions were not supported in either sample. In general, the model performed poorly in both samples, with the exception of parental coalition formation in the parent analysis. Overall, the socialization factors of peerness, restrictiveness, and spending time with teen appeared to have little effect on adolescents' influence in family- and teen-related, high- financial-risk types of decisions.

Adolescents' household responsibility affected influence, but only teen's perceptions of their own influence in teen, high-risk decisions. Thus, household responsibility appears to have no effect on influence in family, high-risk decisions, perhaps because responsibility in meal

preparation is not viewed as being an important aspect of household responsibility. Also, having responsibility in meal preparation is likely to have little effect on adolescents' knowledge of expensive products for the family, and, hence, little effect on influence in these types of purchase decisions (increasing knowledge may positively affect influence).

Similarly, encouraging verbalization affected parents' reports of adolescents' influence, but only for family, high-risk types of decisions. However, increasing verbalization negatively affected influence in these types of decisions, a result that was counter to expectations.

Supplementary Analyses. Although no hypotheses were offered for adolescents' influence in low-financial-risk decisions, we included measures of influence in low-risk decisions for both the family and the teen to provide additional insight into the model. The socialization variables might have had an effect on influence in low-risk decisions even though they generally had little impact in the high-risk case. It should be noted that these analyses were all post hoc in nature.

For adolescents' influence in the low-risk decisions for the family and the teen, no statistically significant differences were found in either sample on the basis of household responsibility (in meal preparation, or the behavioral measure), parental coalition formation, and spending time with teen. Also, parents' and teens' perceptions of adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions did not vary on the basis of restrictiveness or encouraging verbalization. In other words, for the family, low-risk case, teens' perceptions of their own influence did not vary for any of the five socialization variables.

Parents' perceptions varied only on the basis of peerness (increasing peerness was associated with greater influence in family, low-risk decisions) and (the global measure of) household responsibility. However, the finding related to household responsibility was counter to the one suggested by our model. The model would suggest that adolescents' influence increases with greater household responsibility, but we found influence to decrease with increased household responsibility. Perhaps parents who give less household responsibility to adolescents are more indulgent and, therefore, are more open to adolescents' influencing decisions for inexpensive family products.

Finally, for the teen, low-risk instance, parents' perceptions of influence were not related to peerness or restrictiveness, and adolescents' perceptions were not related to peerness or encouraging verbalization. Parents' perceptions' of adolescents' influence in teen, low-risk decisions did, however, vary on the basis of encouraging verbalization: the more parents' encouraged verbalization, the greater was children's influence in teen, low-risk decisions. When parents emphasize verbalization and communicate more with teens, teens are likely to have more influence and to feel comfortable in asserting this influence.

Both parents' and teens' perceptions of influence in teen, low-risk decisions varied on the basis of global household responsibility, but the household-responsibility result again was counter to the one suggested by our model. Both parents and teens reported that adolescents had more influence in teen, low-risk decisions the less household responsibility that teens had. As previously discussed, parents who give less household

responsibility to teens may be more indulgent and, therefore, more receptive to adolescents' influence in purchase decisions.

Teens also perceived that they had more influence the less restrictive their parents were, a finding that is consistent with our model. Because restrictive parents are likely to value conformity and obedience in children, they are unlikely to allow children to influence purchase decisions. Less restrictive parents, on the other hand, are not likely to limit children's influence, especially for relatively inexpensive products for the child's own use.

Summary. Thus, in the family, low-risk case, household responsibility (in meal preparation), parental coalition formation, restrictiveness, and nurturance were found to have no effect on adolescents' influence in either sample. Indeed, the only result for adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions that can be considered as being consistent with our model was the one obtained for peerness in the parent sample, in which parents perceived greater adolescent influence with increasing peerness.

For the teen, low-risk decisions, peerness, household responsibility (in meal preparation), parental coalition formation, and spending time with teen were not significantly related to perceptions of adolescents' influence in either sample. Although a relationship between influence and household responsibility was found in both samples, the direction of household responsibility's effect was counter to the one suggested by our model in both instances. The only results that were consistent with our model in the teen, low-risk case were the findings for encouraging verbalization in the parent sample and those regarding restrictiveness in the teen sample.

Summary of Effects of Socialization Factors. In general, results showed that the socialization variables included in this study were relatively poor predictors of adolescents' influence, particularly for the high-financial-risk decisions. The only model-consistent result found in the high-risk case was for parental coalition formation in the parent analysis. Results of the multiple regression analysis for family, high-risk decisions also indicated that, after parent's education and teen's age were controlled, parental coalition formation was not a significant predictor of parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in these types of decisions. It is, however, interesting that parental coalition formation was found to have no statistically significant effect in low-financial-risk types of decisions but did have an effect in the teen, high-risk instance. Perhaps parents do not care enough about inexpensive teen- and family-related purchase decisions to form coalitions.

Our results also suggest that (1) adolescents' household responsibility is more predictive of influence in low-risk than in high-risk decisions and that (2) adolescents' influence is negatively affected by increasing household responsibility. The only statistically significant relationship between influence in high-risk decisions and household responsibility was found for teen's perceptions of influence in teen, high-risk decisions.⁵⁷ In contrast, household responsibility was found

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This was also the only statistically significant effect found for the behavioral measure of household responsibility in the high-risk set of analyses. Thus, in comparing this result with those relating to household responsibility and influence in low-risk types of decisions, in which the global measure of household responsibility was significantly related to influence, it could be concluded that the

to have an effect in low-risk decisions for the family (in the parent analysis) and for the teen (in both the parent and teen analyses). Moreover, in all cases, the sign of the relationship between household responsibility and influence was negative, providing relatively strong evidence that influence decreases with increasing household responsibility. Why this should be the case, however, is not clear. Perhaps parents who give less household responsibility to adolescents are more indulgent than other parents and, therefore, more likely to accept adolescents' influence in purchase decisions. This would be an interesting question to explore in the future.

For peeriness, restrictiveness, encouraging verbalization, and spending time with teen, it is difficult to draw any meaningful conclusions on the basis of these results. These variables only affected influence in certain cases, but no pattern in the effects could be observed. Moreover, the effects of these variables were not demonstrated to be consistent across samples. Indeed, with the exception of household responsibility (for which results were counter to those expected), socialization effects were inconsistent between the parent and teen samples. The reason for the inconsistency between parents and teens is not

reason household responsibility was more predictive of influence in the low-risk than in the high-risk case was because of the different operations used for household responsibility in the two instances (i.e., the behavioral measure of household responsibility for the high-risk case and the global measure for the low-risk case). Although this may indeed be the case, the signs of the effects of household responsibility were the same in both low- and high-risk decisions, irrespective of which household-responsibility measure was used. This result provides at least some evidence that household responsibility was more predictive in low- than in high-risk decisions and that household responsibility's greater effect in the low-risk case was not due solely to the global measure.

clear. Perhaps the difference is due to the lower reliability of the scales in the teen sample. Or perhaps parents and teens do differ in the factors they perceive as affecting adolescents' influence. Parents' perceptions of influence were related to parental coalition formation, encouraging verbalization, and peeriness, in addition to household responsibility. Teens' perceptions of influence were related to restrictiveness, in addition to household responsibility. Perhaps parents are more likely to focus on positive aspects in parent-teen relations and teens are more likely to focus on negative ones.

General Discussion and Summary

In general, the model developed in this research performed poorly in both samples (although more so for teens). Family type was found to have little effect on the socialization variables (with the exception of parental coalition formation) or on the dependent variables (adolescents' influence in high-financial-risk decisions for the family and the teen). No variations in influence on the basis of family type were found in the teen analyses. For parents, family type only affected influence in family-related decisions, and, after demographic factors were controlled, only influence in low-financial-risk types of decisions. And because family type did not have an effect on influence, the mediational hypothesis was rejected in all but the family, low-risk case in the parent analysis.⁵⁸

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Mediation was not demonstrated in this case as well, because family type had no effect on the socialization factors that affected parents' perceptions of adolescents' influence in family, low-risk decisions

Socialization factors were also not found to be very predictive of adolescents' influence. Only the result for household responsibility and influence in low-risk decisions demonstrated any degree of consistency between the two samples, and these analyses were post hoc in nature.

In short, these results indicate that our model of adolescents' influence was not supported. The general failure of support for the model is further indicated by the fact that six results could have been due to chance alone rather than to any "true" treatment effects. On the basis of these findings, one could also conclude that the theory of hierarchy may be inadequate and may not significantly aid in the understanding of adolescents' influence. However, as previously mentioned, this research was characterized by a number of methodological limitations and flaws. These limitations make it difficult to draw meaningful conclusions from the study, as will be discussed below.

METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As is the case with all research, this study was subject to a number of limitations. In this section, we review the major limitations and shortcomings of the study and possible means for addressing these limitations in future research.

Construct Validity Problems

One of the problems associated with this study was related to construct validity. Particularly problematic were the measures developed

(i.e., family type did not affect peeriness or the global measure of household responsibility).

for adolescents' influence. The reliability of the influence scales was low in at least one sample in all cases. For example, although the internal consistency of the measure for adolescents' influence in family, high-financial-risk decisions was .74 in the parent sample, Cronbach's alpha was only .67 in the teen sample (and this influence measure performed better than the others from an internal consistency perspective). The fact that scales did not prove to be internally consistent across samples also casts doubt on the construct validity of the measures. A construct valid scale should demonstrate an adequate degree of internal consistency across relevant samples. Indeed, reliability is a necessary but not sufficient condition for construct validity: if a scale is not reliable, construct validity is moot. Thus, the low reliability of influence measures in a given sample is indicative of a lack of construct validity. In short, the questionable construct validity of the dependent measures could have been responsible for the failure to support our model of adolescents' influence.

There were also construct validity problems for the two household-responsibility measures. The global-level measure of household responsibility was a two-item measure: therefore, the measure had low internal consistency. The behavioral measure of household responsibility had a face validity problem. The behavioral measure actually assessed adolescents' household responsibility in meal preparation. Thus, it could be that responsibility in meal preparation affects adolescents' influence differently than adolescents' household responsibility in general would. In short, because the behavioral measure tapped only one dimension of household responsibility, it is only legitimate to make statements about how household responsibility in meal preparation affected adolescents'

influence on the basis of our results for behavioral household responsibility. Because we did not measure household responsibility at the global level in a behavioral sense, we cannot draw conclusions about how household responsibility, in general, affects adolescents influence when actual behaviors are considered.

Although one of the most consistent findings in this research was that adolescents' influence decreased with increasing household responsibility, our confidence in this result is undermined by construct validity concerns. Both measures had construct validity problems: therefore, we cannot determine whether the relationship found between household responsibility and influence actually exists or whether it is the result of low construct validity (of household responsibility and/or influence).

Although the measures for peerness, restrictiveness, encouraging verbalization, and spending time with teen appeared to be relatively internally consistent, nomological validity was not demonstrated in this study. Confidence in construct validity is increased when measures behave as they are expected to behave. The general failure of the measures to perform as expected in this study, thus, casts doubt on the construct validity of these measures. In other words, our failure to find significant results, in general, can be interpreted as a theoretical flaw or as a failure to adequately measure constructs (or as the result of some other method flaw). This question, however, cannot be answered in the context of a single study but rather through the pattern of findings across repeated studies. The fact that measures for these constructs were internally consistent, though, does provide at least some (limited) evi-

dence that the lack of significance was not the result of poor measures in these cases.

Implications for Future Research. One implication for future research is to develop better measures than were used in this study, particularly for the constructs of adolescents' influence and household responsibility. Reliability of the influence measures was low in one or both samples in all cases. Since reliability is a necessary condition for construct validity, the influence measures were generally weak. In the future, careful attention should be directed at developing internally consistent measures for influence, for example, through more extensive pretesting than was used in this study.

Similarly, both the behavioral and global-level measures for household responsibility had limited construct validity. Thus, future research should be directed at developing better measures for household responsibility before we can have confidence in how this construct is related to adolescents' influence. Specifically, there is a need to develop an internally consistent global-level measure of household responsibility. This study used only a two-item measure. In addition, this study indicated that household responsibility, in a behavioral sense, might be a multidimensional construct. This issue should be more fully explored so that construct valid measures can be constructed. If household responsibility is in fact multidimensional, this could also provide a fruitful avenue for future research (i.e., how do various subdimensions affect adolescents' influence?).

Limited Generalizability

A second group of limitations in this study were related to issues of external validity. Because products on which influence ratings were

based were not randomly selected, our results may not apply to influence in other types of product decisions. Also, it may not be warranted to generalize these results to other samples since we used convenience samples to test the model.

There were also a number of problems in the study that limited our ability to generalize results back to the study samples. Because nonresponse bias was problematic in the parent sample, it is not warranted to generalize our results back to the convenience sample of parents. Rather, our results apply only to those parents who responded. Similarly, our results were confined to analyzing influence variations for only those respondents who owned the given products. Thus, a different pattern of results may be found for nonrespondents and those who do not own the relevant products.

Implications for Future Research. To have increased confidence in the generalizability of this study's results future research using different (and larger) samples and different products (that all respondents are equally likely to own, i.e., for which there are not systematic differences across "conditions") is needed. In addition, nonresponse bias also limited the ability to generalize back to the study samples of this research. Possible means for decreasing the threat of nonresponse bias are discussed below.

Nonresponse Bias

As previously mentioned, our analyses indicated that nonresponse bias was problematic in the parent sample. In addition to adversely affecting the external validity of the study, self-selection systematically biased sample means. This bias in the mean could have affected the outcome of hypothesis tests. Indeed, analyses indicated that nonre-

response bias decreased the likelihood that hypotheses related to encouraging verbalization and spending time with teen would be supported, and increased the likelihood that hypotheses for peerness, household responsibility, and parental coalition formation would be supported in the parent analysis. In addition, an analysis of nonresponse bias also indicated that social desirability was likely evinced through self-selection. In other words, respondents were more likely to indicate socially desirable responses than was indicated for nonrespondents. In sum, nonresponse bias systematically affected the outcome of hypothesis tests in the parent analysis; therefore, it is difficult to draw conclusions about the model's performance in the parent sample.⁵⁹

Implication for Future Research. To mitigate the potential for nonresponse bias, future studies may wish to consider adopting some form of personal incentive to increase the likelihood of parents' participation. If respondents have the chance to personally benefit by participating in research, they may be more likely to participate. In this study, we used a cash contribution to the school as an incentive, but, judging by the low response rate for parents, cash contributions to schools seem to be relatively poor motivators. Perhaps a lottery would be a more effective incentive.

Low Power

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However, it is also true that nonresponse bias could not have been the "cause" of the insignificant findings in the teen analysis. Measures, however, were generally more unreliable for teens than for parents.

Perhaps the most glaring limitation of this study was related to low power. Sample sizes were small for both parents and teens, particularly given that "do not own" responses were treated as missing data. Moreover, the small sample sizes overall meant that there were few respondents within each family type. With small sample sizes, it is more difficult to detect differences due to treatment effects. Moreover, given the relatively small magnitude of the effect sizes for most study variables (i.e., in most cases, an individual predictor explained less than 10 percent of the variance in the dependent variable, as indicated by the R^2 values in the regression analyses), the problem with small sample sizes was exacerbated. If effect sizes had been larger, smaller samples would not have quite so problematic as they were in this case.

We attempted to address the issue of low power by setting a more liberal value for the significance level of hypotheses tests. However, even with the alpha level set to .10, power was still low overall. For example, the power to detect differences in influence in teen, high-risk decisions on the basis of family type was only .23 in the parents' analysis and .13 in the teens' analysis. Given the low power of this research, it is not surprising that we generally failed to support the model. In fact, given the low power, it is surprising that as many statistically significant effects as there were found.

Implication for Future Research. With regard to low power, future studies that use larger sample sizes than the ones employed here should be undertaken. Because sample sizes in this research were small, this study did not provide a powerful test of the model. In other words, our ability to detect differences due to family type and socialization effects was limited because sample size was small. Future research should have

large enough sample sizes so that detection of treatment effects is possible, if these effects do in fact exist.⁶⁰

Threats to Internal Validity

Because there was no random assignment to family types, any differences found on the basis of family type (of which there were few) are subject to rival explanations. In other words, family types may systematically differ on a number of factors, and any one of these could be responsible for a seeming significant relationship between family type and some dependent variable, as opposed to family type's being the "cause" of the effect. We attempted to address this issue by measuring and statistically controlling (where indicated) potentially confounding variables. Measuring potential confounds allowed us to evaluate whether observed effects were due to the "treatment" or to some other variable.

For example, income was a potential rival explanation for family type's effects on parental coalition formation. Income was significantly correlated with both family type (as ordered from single-parent to reconstituted to intact) and coalition formation. Specifically, income was positively correlated with family type, as ordered from single-parent to reconstituted to intact families. In addition, income was positively correlated with greater parental coalition formation. Thus, income was a rival explanation for family type's effects on parental coalition for-

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Of course, there is a limit to how large a sample should be used: with a large enough sample, it is possible to detect a statistically significant relationship that is nonetheless trivial. Thus, the practical importance of a result and considerations of power should be weighed against each other.

mation. It may have been the case that income, rather than family type, affected parental coalition formation (i.e., family relations may be more stressful with lower income and, therefore, parents in lower income families may be less likely to work together and form coalitions). However, after income was controlled, family type remained a significant predictor of coalition formation, indicating that there was in fact a relationship between family type and coalition formation that was not due to income.

Although we controlled for potential confounds when third variables were indicated as being problematic, rival explanations were not a major concern in this research. Because family type was found to have little effect on both the socialization and influence variables, confounding of "treatment" effects was not a serious limitation in this study. In other words, if there is no relationship between family type and variable Y, there is no effect for a third variable to confound. However, rival explanations for family type's effects could be a serious limitation in future research. Therefore, potential confounds should be measured and controlled.

Sampling Only One Parent

Another limitation of this research was that only one parent was sampled within families. Parents may differ in their approaches to childrearing, for example, and differences between parents may affect adolescents' influence in purchase decisions. However, because only one parent was sampled, we could not evaluate any such effects on adolescents' influence in the context of this study. In short, by failing to include both parents, our results might have provided an incomplete picture of socialization effects on adolescents' influence.

We surveyed only one parent because of the difficulty in finding respondents to participate: we expected nonresponse to be problematic (which it was), and sampling two parents would have further exacerbated the problem. More important, we selected to survey the one parent who was most involved in the consumer socialization of the adolescent. We believed that this parent's perceptions were likely to be the most critical in understanding adolescents' influence. However, this assumption was untested in the study.

Indeed, one reason that the model performed poorly in our study may have been due to the fact that only one parent was sampled. We allowed adolescents to select the parent who was most involved in their consumer socialization. And although there was general agreement among parents and adolescents that the named parent was the primary consumer socializer of the adolescent, it is also likely that adolescents indicated the parent that they got along with the best. The implication of this for the present study is that, logically speaking, adolescents were likely to select the parent with whom they had more peerlike relations, or parents who were less restrictive and more nurturant than perhaps the other parent was.

The failure to sample both parents becomes problematic if the parent not sampled has an important role in the socialization of the adolescent and/or family purchase decisions. This study, therefore, may have provided an inaccurate picture of socialization effects on adolescents' influence, but this cannot be adequately evaluated because only one parent was sampled.

Implication for Future Research. Future research should also include both parents, where applicable. Because this study only sampled

one parent, our understanding of socialization effects within the family is limited. Indeed, perhaps the reason that few effects were found in this study was that students all focused on the one parent they "liked" the best as being the primary consumer socializer. If both parents are sampled in future studies, this potential bias could be more fully evaluated. However, there is a trade-off in sampling more family members. Although understanding of influence may be enhanced by sampling both parents, response rates are likely to decrease further with the addition of another family member. Thus, sampling both parents is likely to increase the problem of nonresponse bias. But, previously discussed, offering personal incentives may reduce the the threat of nonresponse bias.

The Use of Surveys

Finally, the use of surveys to study parent-teen perceptions of influence and the socialization factors may have been responsible for the low consistency of results across the two samples. Surveys can tell us about perceptions, which may or may not correspond to actual behaviors. Moreover, as previously discussed, scales generally performed more poorly in the teen than in the parent sample. One reason for this may have been that the wording of the teen's survey was not in language easily understood by teen respondents. Indeed, parents were used as the starting point in constructing the measures; thus, items could have been framed in adult-like language that had little meaning for teens. (This problem could be addressed by using teens as the starting point in developing measures). Alternatively, it may be that the poor performance of the measures in the teen sample reflected teens' relative immaturity: teens may be more inconsistent in their views than parents due to their relative youth and immaturity. If this is the case, it may be that other methods,

such as observation, which do not rely on self-reports, may be more appropriate in studying children's influence. At the very least, alternative methods would give an indication of the presence of this potential method bias of surveys.

Finally, it may be that teens and parents differ in the meanings they assign to construct. For example, although "influence" was defined as active participation in purchase decisions, it may be that teens and parents thought differently about what constituted active participation. If this is the case, then depth interviews or focus groups could be used to shed light on these perceptual differences.

Implications for Future Research. To address the issue of method bias, there is a need to use other methods of investigation, beyond surveys, to study children's influence. Other methods will have different biases associated with them; thus, if results are duplicated using another method, there is increased confidence in the results of any one study. Alternatively, if results differ when different methods are used, there is increased confidence that results may reflect method-related bias.

The use of surveys may be especially problematic in studying children: even teens' self-reports may lack reliability and, consequently, validity. Also, if perceptions actually do differ between parents and teens, these differences may be worthy of study in and of themselves. And other methods, such as depth interviews, seem better able to explore such issues. In sum, there is a need to study adolescents' influence using multiple methods, beyond surveys.

POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE MODEL

As previously mentioned, because of the limitations outlined above, this study was an inadequate test of the model. Indeed, the low predictive power of family type found in this study runs counter to research in other disciplines, which has found that family type affects numerous aspects of family life (see, e.g., Amato 1987, Dornbusch et al. 1985, Hetherington 1988, Peek et al. 1988, Wallerstein and Blakeslee 1989, among others) and adolescents' adjustment (see, e.g., Demo and Acock 1988). It seems logical that family type would also have implications for adolescents' influence, even though our results would suggest otherwise. In short, the model developed in this study is intuitively appealing, and, because of the flaws in testing the model in this study, we believe that it is premature to reject the model at this point. The model should at least be given a "fair" chance at succeeding before it is discounted.

In the domain of research on children's influence, the model developed here, which is based, in part, on the theory of hierarchy, has the potential to offer a number of useful insights into the phenomenon of children's influence. For example, factors that may affect adolescents' influence but that have not been previously studied are included, such as family type, peeriness, household responsibility, and parental coalition formation. Also, the model incorporates the concepts of parental restrictiveness and nurturance, which have been implicated as affecting children's influence in previous research (Carlson and Grossbart 1988). Moreover, in contrast to much of the past research on children's influence, which has tended to be descriptive in nature, the model, as based on hierarchy, offers some explanation as to why the included constructs should affect influence. The understanding of children' influence is enhanced by theoretically based reasoning.

In addition to the potential theoretical contributions that the model could make to understanding children's influence, a number of practical implications could also be derived. If family type is shown to affect adolescents' influence in future research, then marketers could use family type as a profitable segmentation basis. Segmenting markets on the basis of demographic variables, such as family type, is also one of the least difficult segmentation strategies to implement. If children in single-parent families, for example, have greater influence than children in other types of families, perhaps promotional campaigns could be directed to these children. Also, if parent-adolescent relations are more peerlike in these types of families, an ad might depict this peeriness to highlight the personal relevance of a given product and increase sales. Thus, the model could have practical as well as theoretical relevance.

In sum, given the potential theoretical and practical contributions that the model could make to understanding children's influence, we believe that it is a worthwhile idea to pursue in future research. This study failed to support the model; however, our results are qualified by various methodological limitations. Thus, one primary goal of future research should be to address the limitations existing in this study, as outlined above, and then evaluate how the model fares.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Because a number of methodological limitations were present in this study, our results are open to multiple interpretations. The model may not have been generally supported because family type and the socialization factors do not, in actuality, have an effect on adolescents'

influence. However, the failure to support the model could also have been due to the limitations outlined above. Thus, there is a need for future research to evaluate and clarify whether the theory or the method used in the study was responsible for the lack of significant findings. If future research that addresses the methodological problems of this study is undertaken and the model remains unsupported, there would be increased confidence that the model may be an inadequate explanation of adolescents' influence. If, however, the model is supported after these problems are addressed, there would be some evidence that the reason for our lack of significant results was method-related.

Despite the methodological limitations, this study did indicate some interesting questions to address in future research. One fruitful area of inquiry would be to further explore how family type is related to the socialization variables included in the study. In particular, there is a need to further examine how socialization in reconstituted families differs from socialization in the other two family types.

In some instances, the order of means for single-parent and reconstituted families was opposite to that expected (e.g., reconstituted families reported that adolescents had greater household responsibility and that parents spent less time with teens than was the case for single-parent families). Although these results appear to run counter to what the theory of hierarchy would suggest, the results do appear to be logical (that reconstituted families may have more of a need to delegate household responsibility than is the case in single-parent families, in which parents and children may function more independently, with each performing the tasks necessary for their own benefit independently).

Similarly, the validity check for authority-role structure tends to indicate that family relations may be more hierarchical in reconstituted as opposed to intact families. Perhaps because there is greater role ambiguity in reconstituted families, family members may fall back on a pattern of authoritarianism, in which role statuses and positions are known and rigid, as a means of dealing with ambiguity. In short, our results tend to suggest that reconstituted families do not fit the theory of hierarchy as well as single-parent and intact families do. There may be other factors, beyond the number of adults present, operating in the case of reconstituted families. Future research should explore what these factors might be. Role ambiguity may be one promising avenue.

Indeed, given that these results generally provided little support for the theory of hierarchy, it may be that alternative conceptualizations are needed to understand family type's effects on children's influence. Perhaps conflict theory could be used as an alternative conceptual framework. It may be that the level of conflict in a family, rather than family type per se, is related to differences in children's influence. There is some evidence to suggest that the level of conflict in the family, rather than family type alone, is responsible for varying child outcomes, such as children's self-esteem (Demo and Acock 1988). Thus, children's influence may be affected more by the presence of conflict than by family type per se.

In addition, implicit in the theory of hierarchy is the notion of length of exposure to status-role models. However, length of exposure was not directly assessed in this study. It may be that reconstituted families in which remarriage occurred quickly are highly similar to intact families whereas reconstituted families in which there was a substantial

delay between marriages are highly similar to single-parent families. In short, perhaps there is a need to make finer distinctions within the three broad classes of intact reconstituted, and single-parent families. This issue should be explored in the future.

Another avenue for future research would be to more thoroughly explore the role of parent's education and teen's age in understanding children's influence, particularly influence in family, high- and low-financial-risk types of decisions. Indeed, in the case of family-related, high-financial-risk decisions, these two variables were found to be stronger predictors of influence than the study variables. Perhaps better educated parents rely more on modeling, and less on giving children "hands on" experience, in socializing children into consumer roles. Why older children appear to have more influence than younger children would also be an interesting question to explore in the future. Specifically, are differences in influence due to age-related maturation, differences in knowledge acquisition or experience, or to some other factor?

The result that parent's education and teen's age appear to be related to influence in family-related decisions but not to influence in teen-related decisions is also an interesting direction for future research. Perhaps better educated parents have stronger views about appropriate domains for adolescents' influence (e.g., that children should not be involved in family-related purchase decisions) and, therefore, seek to limit adolescents' influence in these types of decisions (perhaps through forming coalitions with each other, at least in the high-financial-risk case).

There was also some evidence in this study, however, that adolescents' influence in family, high-financial-risk decisions may not be

substantively important. In this study, both parent and teen respondents reported that adolescents had little or no influence in these types of decisions. Whether this result reflected the particular products included or tends to hold across relatively expensive products for the family should be explored in future studies. If other studies demonstrate similar results, then researchers may wish to focus on understanding adolescents' influence in other types of purchase decisions.

With regard to household responsibility, our results also seem to suggest that there is a negative, rather than a positive, relationship between household responsibility and adolescents' influence, especially for teen products. Why this would be the case, however, is unclear. Perhaps parents who give teens less household responsibility are more indulgent and, therefore, very receptive to children's influencing purchase decisions. There was also some indication in this study that, from a behavioral standpoint, household responsibility could be multidimensional in nature. Perhaps different dimensions of household responsibility have varied implications for children's influence, in general, and across certain product types. This idea should be more thoroughly developed and explored in future research.

This research also tends to suggest that, at least for parents, parental coalition formation, a concept that has not been previously studied, is a relatively important predictor of children's influence in purchase decisions for expensive products, but not for influence in decisions for inexpensive products. There seems to be some notion of importance or involvement underlying the formation of coalitions, with increasing involvement perhaps increasing the likelihood that coalitions will be formed. This idea should be further investigated in the future.

Finally, this research indicates that parents and teens, in most instances, differ in their perceptions of the factors affecting children's influence. Results suggest that parents may tend to concentrate on more positive aspects of parent-teen relationships and that teens may tend to concentrate on more negative aspects. If so, future studies may wish to take this factor into account when testing for differences among family members' perceptions of influence.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, this research sought to investigate the effects of family type and socialization factors on adolescents' influence. The theory of hierarchy was used to explain family type and socialization effects on influence.

Data from a convenience sample of parents and teens was used to test the model. In general, the model was not supported in either sample. However, because of the methodological limitations associated with this study, the reason for the failure to find significant effects is not clear. The lack of support could have been due to a theoretical deficiency or to a methodological flaw. Clearly, there is a need to conduct further research to evaluate which alternative is more probable.

In short, this dissertation presented an intuitively appealing model of adolescents' influence. However, the actual testing of the model was subject to a number of methodological limitations. There were problems with construct validity (particularly for the dependent variables), low power, and nonresponse bias, among others. These issues must be addressed in future research before we can draw meaningful conclusions about the

model (and the theory of hierarchy which underlies it) and children's influence.

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TABLE 1
RESEARCH ON CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE

SOURCE	PRODUCTS	DEPENDENT VARIABLES	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES
Atkin (1978)	cereal	parent/child interaction	child's age, child's sex, SES
Belch et al. (1985)	car, TV, cereal vacation, appliance furniture perceptions	family member influence agreement in influence	decision stage, product, subdecision, respondent
Bery & Polley (1968)	cereal	purchase of child's favorite cereal	child's assertiveness, mother's child-centeredness, mother's brand recall
Brody et al. (1981)	candy bars, chips, chocolate drink, jelly	child's influence attempts, no. of advertised brands requested	exposure to TV ads
Burns and Gillett (1987)	toy, game	child's purchase process participation	communication environment
Carlson, Grossbart (1988)	same as Jenkins (1979)	child consumption autonomy, parent-child communication	parental styles
Carlson et al. (1990)	influence-same as Jenkins (1979); yielding-comic; toy candy, snack food, sports equipment	child's influence, yielding, consumption independence	mother's communication orientation
Darlay & Lim (1986)	movie, family outing participant sports	children's influence	family type, child's age, locus of control, subdecision
Foxman & Tansuhaj (1986)	child-records, PC, clothes, magazine, bike, toothpaste; family-PC, groceries, cable TV, furniture, toothpaste, car	family member influence agreement in influence perceptions	product, product importance, respondent
Foxman et al. (1989a)	same as above	relative child's influence, general child's influence divergence in influence perceptions	product respondent, father's age, family size, mother's work here.,

Foxman et al. (1989b)	same as 1988 ref.	relative child's influence, general child's influence	concept-oriented child's resources-income, birth status, school grades, parents' love and confidence in child
Jenkins (1979)	vacation, appliance, car, life insurance, furniture, savings, groceries	children's influence	product, subdecision, demographics
Kim, Lee, & Hall (1991)	family major-house, car, stereo, TV, vacations, family minor-toothpaste, ketchup, shampoo, cereal, soft drinks, juices, child major-walkman, bikes, child minor-clothes, shoes, calculator, movie	children's perception of parental perception of child's influence	child's power bases
Mehrotra & Torgas (1977)	cereal, restaurant, child's clothes & shoes, chips, soft drinks	parental yielding	product, ATO vars., media usage
Moschis & Mitchell (1986)	soft drinks, school supplies, car repair, appliance, child-clothes, records, grooming products	children's influence in decision stages	concept- & socio-oriented family commun., child's age, child's money, child's sex, SES, peer communication
Nelson (1978)	restaurant	child's involvement	decision stage, income, family size, child's age
Roberts et. al. (1981)	children/pet foods, gum, clothing/cereal/cookies, snacks	child's influence	mothers' attitudes
Szybillio & Sosanie (1977)	restaurant, family trip	child's influence	decision stage, product, subdecision
Hard & Mackman (1972)	relevant foods, less relevant foods, child-durables, toiletries, other	children's influence attempts	restrictions on child's TV viewing, mothers' time spent w/TV, mothers' adv. attitudes, mothers' ad recall, child's age

TABLE 1 (cont.)
RESEARCH ON CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE

SOURCE	RESULTS
Atkin (1978)	Parents refuse younger children's requests more than older children's requests.
Belch et al. (1985)	Children's influence is greatest for cereal & vacation. Children's influence is lowest in choice stage. Child's influence lowest for how much & where for car, how much for vacation, what type of furniture, where for cereal. For cars, husband & child disagreed over child's influence for all subdecisions. For vacations, husband & child disagreed over child's influence in where, how much time & where to stay subdecisions. For cereal, husband & child disagreed over what size, where & when subdecisions. For problem recognition, husband & child disagreed over child's influence for TV & over father's influence for furniture. Children believe they have more influence than their fathers think they do; children believe fathers have more influence than fathers think they themselves have.
Berey & Pollay (1966)	The more child-centered the mother, the less she's likely to purchase child's favorite cereal. The higher mother's brand recall, the more likely she is to buy child's favorite cereal.
Brody et al. (1981)	Children exposed to ads made more influence attempts than those not exposed to ads. Children requested more advertised brands under co-viewing conditions than child viewing alone or no ad conditions.
Burns and Gillett (1987)	Socio-oriented family communication environment negatively affects children's purchase process participation. Concept-oriented commun. environment positively affects purchase participation.
Carlson and Grossbart (1988)	No differences in child's consumption autonomy found on the basis of parental style. For consumption communication, communication was greatest for authoritative, permissive, and rigid-controlling mothers, and less for authoritarian and neglecting mothers.
Carlson et al. (1990)	Children's influence, parental yielding, and child's consumption independence were higher with pluralistic and consensual mothers than they were with laissez-faire and protective mothers.
Darley & Lim (1986)	For movies, external LOC parents perceive more child's influence than internal LOC. Single parents perceived more child influence for where than dual-parents. Older children have more influence for when & specific info than younger children. For outing, older children have more influence than younger. Older children have more influence for how much than younger. External LOC parents perceive more child influence for specific info than internal LOC.
Foxman & Tansuhaj (1988)	For sports, older children have more influence in when, what type, how much, info gathering, and specific info than younger children. Internal LOC single parents perceive less influence for all subdecisions except where than internal duals parents. Children have more influence for child than family products. The more important child's toothpaste is to mothers, the less influence children have. The more important is cable TV, the more influence the child has. Mothers & children disagreed over influence for child's records, clothes, magazine, & bike, furniture, groceries & family toothpaste. Children rated their influence as greater relative to parents than did mothers.

- Foxman et al. (1989a)
- Children had influence in suggesting products, paying attention to new products and learning best buy. Children do not get to suggest price range. Family members disagreed over child's influence for child's dress clothes & tooth-paste! children perceive themselves as having more influence than do parents. The older the father & the more concept-oriented family communication, the less divergence in influence perceptions. The larger the family & the more the mother works, the greater perceptual divergences.
- Foxman et al. (1989b)
- Children's product influence increased as children possessed more income and made better grades. For general influence, children who made better grades and in whom parents had greater confidence influence than those making worse grades and in whom parents had less confidence. Birth status resource had no effect on either product or general influence.
- Jenkins (1979)
- Children have little influence for all products except vacations. Children's influence is lowest for how much, where to stay and transportation mode.
- Kim, Lee, and Hall (1991)
- No differences in children's perceptions of parents' perceptions of children's influence were found on the basis of child's power bases. Children's influence was greatest for in minor-child items, followed by child-major, family-major, family-minor products.
- Mehrotra & Torgas (1977)
- Yielding varies by product type.
- Moschis & Mitchell (1986)
- The more socio-oriented the family communication, the less is children's influence in the stages of alternative evaluation and choice. The more child discusses product consumption with peers, the greater child's influence in all stages but choice. The older the child, the greater the influence in all stages. The more money earned by child, the greater the influence in choice. Females have more influence than males across all stages. The higher the SES, the greater the child's influence in problem recognition.
- Nelson (1978)
- Younger children have less involvement than older. Older children have less involvement than parents only for choice and how much. The greater the income, the greater child's involvement in choosing type and brand of restaurant. The larger the family, the greater child's involvement in providing info, selecting particular type and brand. Child's influence is greatest for problem recog. & search, and declines by choice stage.
- Roberts et al. (1981)
- Children have less influence the more concerned mothers are about nutrition, and family financial matters. Children had less influence the more traditional & conservative were mothers.
- Szybilllo & Sosanie (1977)
- Children had more influence in problem recognition & search and less in choice. Children had least influence on how much to spend.
- Hard & Mackman (1972)
- Parents yield more to older than younger children's requests. Parental yielding decreases as parents place more restrictions on TV viewing. Yielding increases as parents have more positive advertising attitudes and as they spend more time watching TV. Children's influence attempts increase as parents spend more time watching TV and as their brand recall increases. Children's influence is greatest for relevant foods and durables for child's use.

TABLE 2

CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE: RELIABILITY, VALIDITY AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

Source	Sample	Method of Data Collection	Reliability*	Validity*
Atkin (1978)	516 parent-child dyads; nonrandom; children 3-12 years	observational, cross-sectional	not reported	very low
Belch et al. (1985)	260 husband, wife, child triads; nonrandom; child over 13 yrs. living at home	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	very low
Berey & Pollay (1968)	48 mothers & children non-random; children 8-11 yrs.	interview, survey, observations; cross-sectional	chi-sq. analysis on mother response x interviewers; no diff. found	low
Brody et al. (1981)	57 mother-child dyads; non-random; children 3-5 yrs.	experimental	.83 inter-judge agreement	high
Burns & Gillett (1987)	123 fifth, sixth, seventh & eighth graders; nonrandom; upper-middle class	survey, cross-sectional	alphas from .63 to .74	moderate
Carlson, Grossbart (1988)	451 mothers of elementary school students; nonrandom	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	very low
Carlson et al. (1990)	451 mothers of elementary school students; nonrandom	survey, cross-sectional	alphas from .56 to .70	high
Darley & Lim (1986)	106 parents (66% mothers, 33% fathers); nonrandom; children 1-17 yrs.; middle class	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	low
Foxman & Tansufaj (1988)	193 mother-child dyads; nonrandom; children 11-18 yrs.; middle class	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	very low
Foxman et al. (1989a)	161 husband, wife, child triads; nonrandom; children 11-18 yrs.; middle class	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	low
Foxman et al. (1989b)	161 husband, wife, child triads; nonrandom; children 11-18 yrs.; middle class	survey, cross-sectional	alphas from .62 to .84	high
Jenkins (1979)	105 married couples; non-random; children 1-19 yrs.; middle class; recruited by marketing research firm	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	very low

Kim, Lee, & Hall (1991)	143 high-school students; nonrandom; avg. age 15.9 years; middle class	survey, cross-sectional	alphas from .59 to .87	low
Mehrotra & Torges (1977)	1,671 mothers; nonrandom; Market Facts mail panel	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	very low
Moschis & Mitchell (1986)	161 mother-child dyads; nonrandom; children in junior & senior high school	survey, cross-sectional	Cronbach's alpha ranged from .51 to .76	moderate
Nelson (1978)	84 parents (1 parent responds per family); non- random; upper- to middle- class	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	very low
Roberts et. al. (1981)	1,150 mothers; nonrandom; Needham, Harper & Steers mail panel	survey, cross-sectional	alphas from .51 to .78	low
Szybillo & Sosanie (1977)	190 wives, nonrandom; child at least 5 yrs. old; upper- to middle-class	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	very low
Ward & Mackman (1972)	109 mothers; nonrandom; children 5-12 yrs.; upper & middle class	survey, cross-sectional	not reported	low

*NOTE: Reliabilities for particular scales, when known, are presented in Table 3 under Measures.

*NOTE: Very low - lack of reliability; inadequate or absent construct definitions; no controls
 Low - reliability tested; constructs poorly defined OR reliability untested; constructs defined
 Moderate - reliability tested; constructs adequately defined; no controls, covariates, or random assignment
 High - reliability tested; constructs well-defined; controls, random assignment used

TABLE 3
CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE: MEASURES AND SCALES

Source	Dependent Variable(s)	Independent Variable(s)	Measures & Scales
Atkin (1976)	parent-child interaction	child's age (& sex) SES	initiation, response 3-5, 6-8, 9-12 yrs. middle, working
Belch et. al. (1985)	family member influence	product decision stage subdecisions	6 pt. Likert (1=no influence; 6=all the influence); rated for each member for each product in all stages and subdecisions problem recognition, search, choice where & when to purchase, how much to spend, style, make and model decisions
Berey & Polley (1988)	purchase of child's favorite cereal	child assertive mother child-centered mother's brand recall	pantry check; summed index (5 pts. for child's first choice, 4 pts. for second, 3 pts. for third, 2 pts. for other, 1pt. subtracted if out-of-stock) 3 pt. Likert (1=rarely, 3=often) for 4 components of assertiveness (verbal, leadership, persists, initiates) 3 pt. Likert (1=rarely, 3=often) for frequency of participation in child activities summed index (5 pts. for each of child's brands recalled)
Brady et al. (1981)	children's influence attempts no. of advertised items requested	exposure to ads	observed; child's independent request for advertised item 3 conditions (child alone viewed, dyad viewed, control-no ads)
Burns & Gillett (1987)	child's purchase process participation	socio-oriented commun. concept-orient commun.	frequency of participation in need recog., store suggestion & selection (5-pt Likert, 1=never, 5=all of the time; summed; .7) 6-item, 5-pt Likert (1=never, 5=all of the time; summed; .65) 8-item, 5-pt Likert (summed; .74)
Carlson & Grossbart (1988)	child's consumpt. autonomy p-e commun. re consumption	parental styles	yielding, child's payment, and consumption independence children's influence, co-shopping, extent of commun., concept ori multiple and varying indicators
Carlson et al. (1990)	children's influence yielding consumption independence	communi. orientation	5-pt Likert (s.agree/s.disagree; summed over products; .84) 5-pt Likert (very often/never; summed over products; .78) 5-item scale (child shoes/parent shoes); .63 median splits on socio- (.54) vs. concept-orient. (.71)
Derley & Lim (1986)	child's influence	family type child's age factor locus of control (parents) subdecision	5 pt. Likert (1=never influential; 5=almost always influential) for all products and subdecisions single- vs. dual parents high, low Rotter's Internal-External LOC Scale; 23 yes-no items (8-11 internals, 12-23 externals) when & where to go, how much to spend, what type, gathering info., specific info., initial suggestion
Foxman & Tansuhaj (1988)	family member influence	product product importance	5 pt. Likert (1=parents alone, 2=parents more than child, 3=equal say -parents & child, 4= child more than parents, 5=child alone) for all products 6 pt. Likert (1=really import.; 6=really unimport.)
Foxman et. al. (1989a)	relative child's influence general child's influence		5 pt. Likert (same as in Foxman & Tansuhaj) for products 5 pt. Likert (1=strongly agree, 5=strongly disagree) that child has influence for 7 activities (suggesting prices, stores, brands & products, co-shopping, learning best buy, paying attention to new products) same as 1989a reference
Foxman et al. (1989b)	relative child's influence general child's influence	commun. environment parental confidence	4-item, 5-pt Likert (very often/never) for both socio (.88) and concept-orientation (.62) 4-item Likert (.84)
Jenkins (1979)	children's influence	product subdecision (vacation)	100 pt. constant sum scale (100 pts. allocated between husband, wife, child for each product and subdecision) info. collection, whether to take child, how long to stay, when, how to get there, how much to spend, lodging, where
Kim, Lee, & Hall (1991)	child percept. of parent perceptions of influence	power bases	rated over products w/in each dimension (5-pt Likert, not to seriously/taken very seriously; child-maj .84 [2 items], child-min .77, fam-maj .87; fam-min .80) 5-pt Likert; alphas for reward, coercive, legitimate, expert referent bases were .87, .88, .84, .65, and .59, respectively
Mehrotra & Torges (1977)	parental yielding	product AIO variables media usage	Not Reported 37 items (1 item arbitrarily selected from each of 37 scales what TV shows watched & magazines read)
Meschis & Mitchell (1986)	children's influence in decision stages	family communication peer communication demographics money child earns	3 pt. Likert (1=parents, 2=child, 3=both) summed over produc 5 pt. Likert (1=never, 5=very often); summed over 6 items for both socio- (.51) and concept-oriented (.72) communicat 5 pt. Likert (1=never, 5=very often); 8 items summed (.76) child's age & sex, SES
Nelson (1978)	child's involvement	decision stage child's age family income family size	4 pt. Likert (1=not involved, 4=very involved) for husband, child for all products and decision stages problem recognition, search, choice, restaurant type & brand how much to spend age of youngest child (under 5 yrs., over 6 yrs.)
Roberts et. al. (1981)	child's influence	mother's attitudes	4 pt. Likert (1=almost all the time, 4=never) for products 6 pt. Likert (agree to disagree) for 18 attitude scales
Szybillio & Sosanie (1977)	family member influence		7 pt. Likert (1=husband(M), 2=wife(W), 3=M & W, 4=child(C), 5=M & C, 6=W & C, 7=M & W & C) for all products, stages

Herd & Mackman
for products
(1972)

child's influence attempts
parental yielding

product
decision stage
subdecisions

parent-child interaction
mother's mess
communication behavior

problem recognition, search, choice
when, what type, what brand, how much to spend

4 pt. Likert (1=often, 4=never); frequency of attempts

X yielding
parent-child conflict, restrictions on child's TV viewing
mother's time spent with TV, attitudes towards advertising and
ad recall

TABLE 4
CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE: EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Source	Method of Analysis	Effect	Test Statistic	P-value	Effect Size
Atkin (1978)	cross-tabs	p-o interaction x age	chi square = 16.3	.05	phi = .18
Beich et al. (1985)	means ANOVA (husband-child disagree)	problem recognition	F(2,777) = 3.02	.05	eta = .08
		TV	= 5.61	.01	= .12
		search			
		appliance	= 3.27	.05	= .09
		furniture	= 6.66	.01	= .13
		choice			
		appliance	= 3.49	.05	= .09
		vacation			
		where	= 7.02	.01	= .14
		how long	= 9.29	.01	= .15
		where to stay	= 6.37	.01	= .13
		cereal			
		what size	= 9.86	.01	= .16
		where	= 7.58	.01	= .14
		when	= 4.88	.01	= .11
Beray & Polley (1988)	Spearman correlation	child-centered x purchase	rho = -.27	.05	rho = -.27
		" x child assertive	= .19	.10	= .19
		brand recall x purchase	= .49	.01	= .49
Brady et al. (1981)	t-tests	influence attempt x cond.	t not reported		
Burns & Gillett (1987)	path analysis	no. sibs - concept orient	p.coef = -.20	.05	r = -.16
		socio-orient-purch. part.	= -.15	.10	= -.13
		cncept-orient-purch. part.	= .19	.05	= .21
Carlson & Grossbart (1988)	ANCOVA or MANCOVA	p. style x consump. comm.	not reported		
Carlson et al. (1990)	ANCOVA	commun. orient. x influ.	F = 18.28	.01	eta = .33
		commun. orient. x yield	F = 5.24	.05	= .20
		commun. orient. x indep.	F = 3.34	.05	= .15
Darley & Lim (1986)	MANOVA (then univariate tests)	movie - LOC	F = 3.2	.01	cannot be determined (no info. for df)
		outing - family type	F = 2.87	.05	
		- age	F = 1.91	.08	
		sports - LOC x age	F = 2.46	.02	
		movie/when - family type	F = 2.76	.05	
		outing/how much - age	F = 2.78	.05	
		outing/specific info - LOC	F = 2.97	.05	
		sports/how much - age	F = 3.39	.05	
		" - LOC x family	F = 2.83	.05	
		sports/when - age	F = 6.21	.01	
		" - LOC x family	F = 3.86	.01	
Foxman & Tansuhaj (1988)	ANOVA means	product x respondent	F = 354.12	.0001	R square = .58
Foxman et al. (1989a)	means MANOVA stepwise regress.	respondent x product	F = 1.95	.01	cannot be determined
		father's age	beta = -.42	.01	
		no. of children	= .15	.05	
		mother's work hrs.	= .12	.05	
		concept-oriented	= -.07	.01	
Foxman et al. (1989b)	MANOVA, ANOVA	comm. enviro. x prod. infl.	F = 39.56	.01	eta = .09
		comm. enviro. x gen. infl.	= 23.55	.01	= .87
		o. income x prod. infl.	= 3.89	.02	= .02
		c. grades x prod. infl.	= 3.71	.02	= .02
		c. grades x gen. infl.	= 3.46	.06	= .01
		parent opin. x gen. infl.	= 15.63	.01	= .03
Kim et al. (1991)	canonical corr. analysis	power bases- "influence"	not reported		
Meschis & Mitchell (1986)	partial correlations	problem recognition			
		peer commun.	p. corr. = .20	.01	
		age	= .20	.01	
		sex	= .24	.01	
		SES	= .13	.05	
		search			
		peer commun.	= .14	.05	
		age	= .15	.05	
		sex	= .27	.01	
		alternative evaluation			
		socio- commun.	= -.13	.05	
		peer commun.	= .14	.05	
		age	= .31	.001	
		sex	= .26	.001	
		choice			
		socio- commun.	= -.20	.05	
		age	= .28	.001	
		child's money	= .21	.01	
		sex	= .16	.05	
Nelson (1978)	frequencies Spearman correlation	age x prob. recog.	rho = .28	.05	rho = .28
		" x search	= .22	.05	= .22
		" x choice	= .34	.05	= .34
		" x restaur. type	= .25	.05	= .25
		" x brand	= .26	.05	= .26
		" x how much	= .25	.05	= .25
		family size x search	= .20	.05	= .20
		" x restaur. type	= .23	.05	= .23
		" x brand	= .26	.05	= .26
		income x choice	= .24	.05	= .24
		" x brand	= .22	.05	= .22

Source	Method of Analysis	Effect	Test Statistic	P-value	Effect Size
Roberts et al. (1981)	chi-square analysis		test statistics not reported		
Szybiello & Sosenski (1977)	frequencies				
Ward & Mackman (1972)	correlations	infl. attempts x yield.	r = .35	NR	eta = .35
		age x yielding	= .20	.01	= .20
		infl. attempts x conflict	= .18	.05	= .18
		view. restr. x yielding	= -.24	.01	= -.24
		time w/TV x infl. attempt	= .18	.05	= .18
		ad recall x infl. attempt	= .26	.01	= .26
		time w/TV x yielding	= .23	.01	= .23
		ad attitudes x yielding	= .16	.05	= .16

Table 5

INITIAL ITEMS FOR CONSTRUCTS

Parental Nurturance

(1=not at all, 6=a lot like me; framed for parent)

- I have a very warm and loving relationship with my teenager.
- I encourage my teenager to talk about his/her feelings.
- *I rarely joke with my teenager.
- I make sure that my teenager knows that I appreciate what he/she tries to accomplish.
- *I do not encourage my teenager to question things.
- I express my affection by hugging my teenager.
- I find it interesting to be with my teenager for long periods of time.
- I encourage my teenager to be curious.
- *I do not spend a lot of time with my teenager.
- *I do not know what my teenager's hopes are for the future.
- I respect my teenager's opinion and encourage him/her to express it.
- *I rarely sit down with my teenager just to talk about life in general.
- *I find it difficult to talk to my teenager.
- I trust my teenager to behave as he/she should, even when I am not with him/her.
- I usually take into account my teenager's preference when making plans for the family.
- I am always doing things with my teenager.
- *I rarely listen to what my teenager has to say.

Parental Restrictiveness

(1=not at all, 6=a lot like me; framed for parent)

- I teach my teenager that, in one way or another, he/she will be punished when he/she does something wrong.
- I control my teenager by warning him/her about the bad things that can happen to him/her.
- *I do not care if my teenager says bad things about his/her teachers.
- I believe that criticism makes my teenager improve.
- I let my teenager know how disappointed I am when he/she does something wrong.
- I want my teenager to make a good impression on others.
- *I do not try to keep my teenager away from other teenagers or families whose ideas and values are different from my own.

- I do not allow my teenager to question my decisions.
- I expect my teenager to follow my rules.
- I do not allow my teenager to get angry with me.
- I scold my teenager when he/she does something I don't like.
- I make sure that my teenager gets his/her homework done.
- *I let my teenager set the rules for his/her own behavior.
- *I do not believe in punishing my teenager.
- *I do not mind it if my teenager questions my authority.
- *In general, I think my teenager should be free to do whatever he/she wants.
- If my teenager goes out with friends, I set a clear time for when he/she has to be back home.
- *I do not care what time my teenager goes to bed at night.
- I try to control who my teenager spends time with.
- I expect my teenager to let me know where he/she will be when he/she goes out with friends.
- *I do not mind it if my teenager occasionally uses curse words.

Peeriness

(1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree; parent)

- I often confide in my teenager.
- *I never ask my teenager for advice.
- I consider my teenager and myself to be good friends.
- If I had a problem that affected me personally, I would talk about it with my teenager.
- *I do not rely on my teenager to help me make decisions concerning myself.
- My teenager understands me better than most people do.
- *I would never tell my teenager about the things that concern me personally.
- My teenager knows my secrets.

Child's Household Responsibility

(1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree; parent)

- *My teenager does not have a lot of family responsibility.
- I expect my teenager to help manage the household.
- *My teenager does not play an important role in managing the family.
- My teenager has more family responsibility than most people his/her age.
- If circumstances were different, I would give my teenager less family responsibility.
- *I would like to give my teenager more family-related duties.
- *My teenager does not do a lot of household work.
- I sometimes worry that my teenager has to do too much for

our family.
My teenager has not had much time just to be young and enjoy
life.

Parental Coalitions

(1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree; parent)

- My (ex)spouse and I work together in directing the children's lives.
- I uphold the decisions my (ex)spouse makes regarding the children.
- *My (ex)spouse is not actively involved in decisions concerning the children.
- My (ex)spouse and I present a united front to the children.
- If there is some disagreement between parents and children, my (ex)spouse and I support each other.
- *My (ex)spouse and I frequently disagree over issues concerning the children.

Authority-Role Structure

(1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree; parent)

- In our family, there is a clear difference between parent(s) and children as to who has the most power.
- *In general, I consider my children and myself to be equals.
- In comparing myself with my teenager, I am the boss.
- *Parent(s) and children have equal status in our family.
- *Our family is democratic when we make decisions.
- I have a lot of power over my teenager.
- *My teenager has a lot of influence over me.

*NOTE--Starred items are reverse scaled.

TABLE 6

MEASURES AND SCALE PROPERTIES FROM PRETEST SAMPLES

ENCOURAGING VERBALIZATION

I encourage my teenager to talk about his/her feelings.
 I make sure that my teenager knows that I appreciate what he/she tries to accomplish.
 I do not know what my teenager's hopes are for the future.*
 I respect my teenager's opinion and encourage him/her to express it.
 I find it difficult to talk to my teenager.*

	PARENTS	TEENS	COMBINED
Alpha	.91	.72	.81
Number of factors	1	2	1
% variance explained	74.1	72.8	58.0
Mean	5.23	4.51	4.89
Standard deviation	.697	1.023	.930
Minimum	3.60	2.80	2.80
Maximum	6	6	6

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on six-point Likert-type scales (not at all/a lot like me). Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items.

TABLE 7

MEASURES AND SCALE PROPERTIES FROM PRETEST SAMPLES

SPENDING TIME WITH TEENAGER

I find it interesting to be with my teenager for long periods of time.
 I do not spend a lot of time with my teenager.*
 I rarely sit down with my teenager just to talk about life in general.*
 I am always doing things with my teenager.

	PARENTS	TEENS	COMBINED
Alpha	.89		.89
Number of factors	1		1
% variance explained	74.5		74.5
Mean	4.64		4.64
Standard deviation	1.168		1.168
Minimum	2.25		2.25
Maximum	6		6

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on six-point Likert-type scales (not at all/a lot like me). Starred items are reverse-scaled. No results are reported for teens because one of the scale items was inadvertently omitted on the teen's survey. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items.

TABLE 8

MEASURES AND SCALE PROPERTIES FROM PRETEST SAMPLES

RESTRICTING TEENAGER'S BEHAVIOR

I do not care if my teenager says bad things about his/her teachers.*
 I make sure that my teenager gets his/her homework done.
 I do not care what time my teenager goes to bed at night.*
 I do not mind it if my teenager occasionally uses curse words.*

	PARENTS	TEENS	COMBINED
Alpha	.83	.30	.70
Number of factors	1	2	1
% variance explained	66.0	68.2	53.1
Mean	4.93	3.56	4.25
Standard deviation	.894	.964	1.151
Minimum	3	1.75	1.75
Maximum	6	5.75	6

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on six-point Likert-type scales (not at all/a lot like me). Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items.

TABLE 9

MEASURES AND SCALE PROPERTIES FROM PRETEST SAMPLES

EMPHASIZING PARENTAL AUTHORITY IN COMMUNICATION

I believe that criticism makes my teenager improve.
 I do not allow my teenager to get angry with me.
 I scold my teenager when he/she does something I don't like.
 I do not mind it if my teenager questions my authority.*

	PARENTS	TEENS	COMBINED
Alpha	.74	.56	.61
Number of factors	1	2	2
% variance explained	56.0	79.8	78.4
Mean	3.31	3.80	3.56
Standard deviation	.931	1.141	1.060
Minimum	1.25	1.75	1.25
Maximum	5	6	6

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on six-point Likert-type scales (not at all/a lot like me). Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items.

TABLE 10

MEASURES AND SCALE PROPERTIES FROM PRETEST SAMPLES

PEERNESS

I often confide in my teenager.
 I never ask my teenager for advice.*
 I consider my teenager and myself to be good friends.
 If I had a problem that affected me personally, I would talk about it with my teenager.
 I do not rely on my teenager to help me make decisions concerning myself.*

	PARENTS	TEENS	COMBINED
Alpha	.86	.80	.82
Number of factors	1	2	1
% variance explained	64.4	76.7	58.1
Mean	3.38	3.23	3.31
Standard deviation	.784	.778	.785
Minimum	2.00	1.20	1.20
Maximum	4.40	4.60	6

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on five-point Likert scales. Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items.

TABLE 11

MEASURES AND SCALE PROPERTIES FROM PRETEST SAMPLES

ADOLESCENTS' HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY

My teenager does not have a lot of family responsibility.*
 I expect my teenager to help manage the household.
 I would like to give my teenager more family-related duties.*
 My teenager does not do a lot of household work.*

	PARENTS	TEENS	COMBINED
Alpha	.72	.40	.60
Number of factors	1	2	1
% variance explained	54.5	74.9	47.1
Mean	2.96	3.40	3.17
Standard deviation	.776	.714	.772
Minimum	1.50	2.00	1.50
Maximum	4.25	4.50	4.5

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on five-point Likert scales. Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. With item 3 deleted, alpha for the combined responses is .66.

TABLE 12

MEASURES AND SCALE PROPERTIES FROM PRETEST SAMPLES

PARENTAL COALITIONS

My (ex)spouse and I work together in directing the children's lives.
 I uphold the decisions my (ex)spouse makes regarding the children.
 My (ex)spouse is not actively involved in decisions concerning the children.*
 My (ex)spouse and I present a united front to the children.
 If there is some disagreement between parents and children, my (ex)spouse
 and I support each other.
 My (ex)spouse and I frequently disagree over issues concerning the children.*

	PARENTS	TEENS	COMBINED
Alpha	.93	.56	.85
Number of factors	1	3	2
% variance explained	75.9	72.2	66.9
Mean	3.79	3.19	3.49
Standard deviation	1.025	.609	.888
Minimum	1.17	1.33	1.17
Maximum	5	4.33	5

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on five-point Likert scales. Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items.

TABLE 13

MEASURES AND SCALE PROPERTIES FROM PRETEST SAMPLES

AUTHORITY-ROLE STRUCTURE

In general, I consider my teenager and myself to be equals.*
 In comparing myself with my teenager, I am the boss.
 Parent(s) and children have equal status in our family.*
 My teenager has a lot of influence over me.*

	PARENTS	TEENS	COMBINED
Alpha	.72	.45	.54
Number of factors	1	1	2
% variance explained	55.0	55.3	73.6
Mean	3.53	3.50	3.52
Standard deviation	.659	.673	.659
Minimum	2	2	2
Maximum	5	5	5

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on five-point Likert scales. Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. With item 4 deleted, alpha for the combined responses is .72.

TABLE 14

MEASURES AND SCALE PROPERTIES FROM PRETEST SAMPLES

SOCIAL DESIRABILITY

I sometimes feel resentful when I do not get my way.*
 My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out.
 On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I
 thought too little of my ability.*
 There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.*
 There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in
 authority though I knew they were right.*

	PARENTS	TEENS	COMBINED
Alpha	.71	.33	.59
Number of factors	1	3	2
% variance explained	45.5	81.3	61.7
Mean	1.52	1.70	1.61
Standard deviation	.337	.221	.297
Minimum	1	1	1
Maximum	2	2	2

NOTE.--Items were rated as true or false. Starred items are reverse-scaled.

Table 15

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

FAMILY PRODUCTS--HIGH FINANCIAL RISK (FAMHI)

family car, living-room furniture, microwave, television

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	72	145
Alpha	.74	.67
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	56.5	51.0
Mean	.68	1.14
Standard deviation	.861	.944
Minimum	0	0
Maximum	3.5	3.75
Kurtosis	2.164	-.293
Skewness	1.620	.630
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.003	.037

NOTE.--Products were rated on seven-point Likert-type scales (0 = parent(s) decided alone; 6 = teen decided alone). Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

Table 16

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

TEEN PRODUCTS--HIGH FINANCIAL RISK (TEENHI)

electronic game, bike, stereo

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	55	117
Alpha	.68	.71
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	61.2	63.6
Mean	4.20	4.97
Standard deviation	1.485	1.233
Minimum	1	.33
Maximum	6	6
Kurtosis	-.701	1.976
Skewness	-.567	-1.415
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.222	.000

NOTE.--Products were rated on seven-point Likert-type scales (0 = parent(s) decided alone; 6 = teen decided alone). Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

Table 17

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

FAMILY PRODUCTS--LOW FINANCIAL RISK (FAMLO)

breakfast cereal, soft drinks, snack foods

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	80	164
Alpha	.70	.64
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	63.0	58.0
Mean	3.83	4.33
Standard deviation	1.376	1.292
Minimum	0	0
Maximum	6	6
Kurtosis	-.369	.444
Skewness	-.121	-.724
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.248	.018

NOTE.--Products were rated on seven-point Likert-type scales (0 = parent(s) decided alone; 6 = teen decided alone). Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

Table 18

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

TEEN PRODUCTS--LOW FINANCIAL RISK (TEENLO)

school supplies, deodorant, movie, perfume or cologne

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	83	165
Alpha	.67	.52
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	50.7	41.3
Mean	4.77	5.48
Standard deviation	1.086	.745
Minimum	2	1.75
Maximum	6	6
Kurtosis	-.326	3.968
Skewness	-.764	-1.847
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.023	.000

NOTE.--Products were rated on seven-point Likert-type scales (0 = parent(s) decided alone; 6 = teen decided alone). Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

TABLE 19

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ALL PRODUCT ITEMS--PARENTS

PRODUCT	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4
BIKE	.80807			
STEREO	.80416			
GAME	.63499	.34349		
PERFUME		.86700		
MOVIE		.72783		
DEODORANT		.67327		
TELEVISION	.40118	-.43864	.42636	.37305
FURNITURE			.83101	
CAR			.77676	
MICROWAVE			.69733	.37006
CEREAL				.91232
SNACKS				.69378
S. SUPPLIES	.43371	.35495		.47467
DRINKS	.38081		.30316	.47284

TABLE 20

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ALL PRODUCT ITEMS--TEENS

PRODUCT	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4
STEREO	.70722			
PERFUME	.69077			
MOVIE	.60528			
GAME	.59021			
BIKE	.53200		.46499	
DEODORANT	.49992		.46244	
MICROWAVE		.80559		
TELEVISION		.79922		
FURNITURE		.71443		.33191
CAR		.52042		
DRINKS			.79488	
CEREAL			.68335	.30070
SNACKS	.37621		.50229	-.35176
S. SUPPLIES				.80352

Table 21

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

BEHAVIORAL MEASURE OF ADOLESCENTS' HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY (RESBEH)

Frequency of performing tasks of (1) cooking dinner, (2) planning family's meals, and (3) making out the grocery list.

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	86	162
Alpha	.75	.72
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	67.3	64.3
Mean	2.24	2.22
Standard deviation	.796	.813
Minimum	1	1
Maximum	4	4
Kurtosis	-.563	-1.088
Skewness	.251	.033
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.181	.005

NOTE.--Items were rated on four-point Likert-type scales (1 = never; 4 = very often). Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

Table 22

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

PEERNESS (PEER)

I often confide in my teenager.

I consider my teenager and myself to be good friends.

If I had a problem that affected me personally, I would talk about it with my teenager.

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	86	171
Alpha	.75	.73
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	67.0	65.2
Mean	3.65	3.44
Standard deviation	.794	.938
Minimum	1.33	1
Maximum	5	5
Kurtosis	.639	-.002
Skewness	-.795	-.569
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.027	.006

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on five-point Likert scales. Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

Table 23

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

ADOLESCENTS' HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY (HRESP)

My teenager does not have a lot of family responsibility.*
 My teenager does not do a lot of household work.*

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	85	173
Item correlation	.4649	.3668
Mean	3.05	3.26
Standard deviation	.972	1.341
Minimum	1	1
Maximum	5	5
Kurtosis	-.962	-.917
Skewness	-.086	-.003
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.035	.011

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on five-point Likert scales. Starred items are reverse-scaled. Item correlations are significant at .01 level. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

Table 24

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

PARENTAL COALITIONS (PCOAL)

My (ex)spouse and I work together in directing the children's lives.
 I uphold the decisions my (ex)spouse makes regarding the children.
 My (ex)spouse is not actively involved in decisions concerning
 the children.*
 My (ex)spouse and I present a united front to the children.
 If there is some disagreement between parents and children,
 my (ex)spouse and I support each other.

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	79	156
Alpha	.84	.74
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	60.6	49.5
Mean	3.35	2.94
Standard deviation	.863	.812
Minimum	1	1
Maximum	5	5
Kurtosis	.137	.099
Skewness	.417	.157
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.238	.333

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on five-point Likert scales. Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

Table 25

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

RESTRICTING TEENAGER'S BEHAVIOR (RESTRICT)

I do not care if my teenager says bad things about his/her teachers.*
 I do not care what time my teenager goes to bed at night.*
 I do not mind it if my teenager occasionally uses curse words.*

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	82	170
Alpha	.73	.64
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	65.4	57.8
Mean	4.78	3.90
Standard deviation	1.133	1.341
Minimum	1.67	1
Maximum	6	6
Kurtosis	2.247	-.738
Skewness	-1.403	-.355
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.025	.021

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on six-point Likert-type scales (not at all/a lot like me). Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

Table 26

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

ENCOURAGING VERBALIZATION (VERBAL)

I encourage my teenager to talk about his/her feelings.
 I make sure that my teenager knows that I appreciate what
 he/she tries to accomplish.
 I respect my teenger's opinion and encourage him/her to express it.

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	85	175
Alpha	.74	.69
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	65.5	61.5
Mean	4.89	4.26
Standard deviation	.925	1.206
Minimum	1	1
Maximum	6	6
Kurtosis	1.487	-.042
Skewness	-1.149	-.654
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.007	.005

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on six-point Likert-type scales (not at all/a lot like me). Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

Table 27

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

SPENDING TIME WITH TEENAGER (TIME)

I find it interesting to be with my teenager for long periods of time.
 I do not spend a lot of time with my teenager.*
 I am always doing things with my teenager.

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	83	176
Alpha	.71	.68
Number of factors	1	1
% variance explained	63.5	61.4
Mean	4.38	3.92
Standard deviation	.996	1.281
Minimum	2	1
Maximum	6	6
Kurtosis	-.338	-.516
Skewness	-.376	-.237
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.302	.179

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on six-point Likert-type scales (not at all/a lot like me). Starred items are reverse-scaled. Factors were rotated using varimax rotation. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

TABLE 28
CORRELATIONS AMONG STUDY VARIABLES--PARENTS

	FTYPE	VERBAL	TIME	PEER	RESTRICT	AUTHOR	HRESP	RESBEH	PCOAL	FAMHI
FTYPE	1.0000									
VERBAL	-.0360	1.0000								
TIME	-.0759	.4814**	1.0000							
PEER	-.0871	.5461**	.4098**	1.0000						
RESTRICT	.0860	.0671	.2525*	.0495	1.0000					
AUTHOR	.2374*	-.3542**	-.2131	-.4119**	.0470	1.0000				
HRESP	-.1080	.0557	.2604*	.0357	.1461	.0609	1.0000			
RESBEH	-.1695	.2957**	.4124**	.2018	.0869	-.0164	.1467	1.0000		
PCOAL	.4913**	.4682**	3440**	.1936	.1510	-.0117	.0646	.1991	1.0000	
FAMHI	-.2781*	-.2120	-.1650	.1194	-.1746	-.2457*	-.0824	-.1100	-.3053*	1.0000
FAMLO	-.2502*	-.0813	.0188	.2743*	-.1294	-.1582	-.2082	-.1584	-.1527	.4028**
TEENHI	-.1397	.0861	-.0785	.2064	-.1987	-.0963	-.0516	.0603	-.2924*	.3478*
TEENLO	-.0677	.1994	-.0025	.1764	-.1313	-.1341	-.2471*	.1421	-.0473	.1017
FAMLO		FAMLO	TEENHI	TEENLO						
FAMLO	1.0000									
TEENHI	.3659**	1.0000								
TEENLO	.3423**	.3918**	1.0000							

* Significant at p < .05 (Two-tailed)
** Significant at p < .01 (Two-tailed)

TABLE 29
CORRELATIONS AMONG STUDY VARIABLES--TEENS

	FTYPE	VERBAL	TIME	PEER	RESTRICT	AUTHOR	HRESP	RESBEH	PCOAL	FAMHI
FTYPE	1.0000									
VERBAL	.0886	1.0000								
TIME	.1659*	.6847**	1.0000							
PEER	.0764	.5944**	.5428**	1.0000						
RESTRICT	.0367	.1756*	.2220**	.0249	1.0000					
AUTHOR	.0060	-.3432**	-.3284**	-.4621**	-.0913	1.0000				
HRESP	.0325	.1196	.1683*	.0489	.2326**	-.0018	1.0000			
RESBEH	-.0078	.1224	.1412	.1345	.0730	.0128	.2073**	1.0000		
PCOAL	.3146**	.1268	.2040*	.1041	.2917**	-.1843*	.2149**	.0569	1.0000	
FAMHI	-.0069	.0674	.0646	.0218	.0928	-.2033*	-.0041	.1183	-.0148	1.0000
FAMLO	-.1014	-.0483	-.0808	.0009	-.0592	-.1165	.0085	.0036	-.0076	.1829*
TEENHI	-.0425	-.0909	-.0804	-.0585	-.1452	-.1189	-.1191	-.1784	.1517	.2268*
TEENLO	-.1033	-.0203	-.0643	.0463	-.2948**	-.1710*	-.1781*	-.0003	-.1172	.1579
FAMLO	1.0000									
TEENHI	.3766**	1.0000								
TEENLO	.2839**	.5880**	1.0000							

* Significant at $p < .05$ (Two-tailed)

** Significant at $p < .01$ (Two-tailed)

TABLE 31

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ALL CONSTRUCT ITEMS--TEENS

ITEM	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5
TIME1	.81971				
VERBAL3	.74683				
VERBAL1	.67546				
PEER1	.66546				
TIME3	.66060		.32214		
PEER3	.65149				
PEER2	.63344				
VERBAL2	.49677				
PCOAL5		.76378			
PCOAL4		.74504			
PCOAL1		.67318		.48990	
PCOAL3		.66103			
HRESP1			.66966		
RESTRICT3			.64092		-.37409
RESTRICT2			.62087		
HRESP2		.37375	.53127		
PCOAL2				.69542	
TIME2	.40550			.69000	
RESTRICT1			.49609	.59510	
AUTHOR2	-.30649				.77504
AUTHOR1				-.31997	.66136

Table 32

MEASURES OF CONSTRUCTS AND SCALE PROPERTIES

AUTHORITY-ROLE STRUCTURE (AUTHOR)

In general, I consider my teenager and myself to be equals.*
 Parent(s) and children have equal status in our family.*

	PARENTS	TEENS
n	85	171
Item correlation	.4975	.4508
Mean	3.36	3.11
Standard deviation	.902	.983
Minimum	1.5	1
Maximum	5	5
Kurtosis	-.826	-.616
Skewness	-.351	.121
K-S goodness of fit (p=)	.003	.005

NOTE.--Items are framed for parents and were rated on five-point Likert scales. Starred items are reverse-scaled. Item correlations are significant at .01 level. Means are average values for all items. K-S represents Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for fit to normality; significant p-values indicate non-normality.

TABLE 33

CORRELATIONS AMONG VARIABLES AND RESPONDENT BACKGROUND FACTORS--PARENTS

	PAGE	HRMORK	OCCUP	EDUC	INCOME	NOCHILD	TAGE
FTYPE	.1454	-.1943	.0428	.1607	.5272**	.0618	-.1341
VERBAL	.1596	.0012	.2002	-.0970	.1878	.1011	-.2205*
TIME	-.1813	-.1673	-.0503	.0175	.1807	-.1382	-.3306**
PEER	.0443	-.0602	-.1000	-.3081**	.0864	-.0042	-.0396
RESTRICT	-.1353	-.0631	.0019	.0732	.0834	.2165	-.0752
AUTHOR	-.0740	.1430	.1469	.3391**	.2013	.0914	.0698
HRESP	-.2011	.1721	-.0100	.0785	.1146	.1126	-.1311
RESBEH	-.0723	.0913	-.0722	-.0322	-.1655	.1507	-.0396
PCOAL	-.0169	-.1110	-.0116	.0973	.2440*	.0842	-.2593*
FAMHI	.0670	.1428	-.1183	-.3640**	-.1598	-.1443	.2754*
FAMLO	.1896	-.0231	-.1536	-.2530*	-.1526	-.1790	.2235*
TEENHI	.2493	-.0592	-.1083	-.1516	.1313	-.0187	.2288
TEENLO	.3424**	-.0600	-.1683	-.2068	-.0658	-.3166**	.2707*

* Significant at $p < .05$ (Two-tailed)** Significant at $p < .01$ (Two-tailed)

TABLE 34

CORRELATIONS AMONG VARIABLES AND RESPONDENT BACKGROUND FACTORS--TEENS

	NOCHILD	TAGE	MOCCUP	FAOCCUP	SMOCCUP	SFAOCCUP
FTYPE	.0612	-.0087	-.0435	.0706	-.0703	.1629
VERBAL	-.1547*	-.0451	-.0263	.0904	.0331	.0923
TIME	-.1084	-.0080	.0014	.0833	-.0925	.0552
PEER	-.0834	.0546	.0267	-.0416	.1102	-.0898
RESTRICT	.0300	-.0148	-.0734	-.0632	.4763	-.2826
AUTHOR	.2920**	.0417	-.0859	-.0111	-.2276	.1754
HRESP	.1095	-.0566	-.0096	.1171	-.1227	.2023
RESBEH	-.0223	-.0069	.1819*	.0284	-.3300	.2522
PCOAL	.0899	-.0465	.0967	.0764	.6399*	-.1650
FAMHI	-.1138	-.0128	-.0588	-.0649	.1349	.0782
FAMLO	-.1083	.0872	-.1239	.0244	.3342	-.0016
TEENHI	-.1123	.1981*	-.0192	.0667	.7631*	-.0677
TEENLO	-.2210*	.1436	.2010*	.0848	-.1717	-.0356

* Significant at $p < .05$ (Two-tailed)** Significant at $p < .01$ (Two-tailed)

TABLE 35

FREQUENCY OF "DO NOT OWN" RESPONSES BY
FAMILY TYPE--PARENTS

Product	Single-parent	Reconstituted	Intact	Total
Family car	4 (1.89)	0 (.75)	1 (2.36)	5
Electronic game	6 (6.44)	2 (2.53)	9 (8.02)	17
Living-room furniture	0	0	2	2
School supplies	0	0	0	0
Breakfast cereal	1 (1.89)	0 (.75)	4 (2.36)	5
Soft drinks	1	0	0	1
Deodorant-teen	0	0	1	1
Microwave	4 (2.65)	1 (1.04)	2 (3.30)	7
Bike-teen	11 (6.06)	2 (2.38)	3 (7.55)	16
Television	0	0	0	0
Snack foods	0	0	0	0
Stereo-teen	4 (3.41)	1 (1.34)	4 (4.25)	9
Movie-teen	0	0	0	0
Perfume/cologne-teen	1 (1.52)	0 (.60)	3 (1.89)	4

NOTE.--The parent sample was composed of 37.9 percent single-parent families, 14.9 percent reconstituted families, and 47.2 percent intact families. Expected values are in parentheses and were calculated by multiplying total "do not own" responses by percentages for family types.

TABLE 36

FREQUENCY OF "DO NOT OWN" RESPONSES BY
FAMILY TYPE--TEENS

Product	Single-parent	Reconstituted	Intact	Total
Family car	9 (6.12)	3 (3.16)	5 (7.72)	17
Electronic game	15 (10.44)	2 (5.39)	12 (13.12)	29
Living-room furniture	2 (2.52)	1 (1.30)	4 (3.18)	7
School supplies	2	0	1	3
Breakfast cereal	1 (1.80)	0 (.93)	4 (2.27)	5
Soft drinks	3	0	0	3
Deodorant-teen	0	0	2	2
Microwave	4 (5.04)	3 (2.60)	7 (6.36)	14
Bike-teen	14 (11.16)	5 (5.77)	12 (14.07)	31
Television	1 (2.52)	2 (1.30)	4 (3.18)	7
Snack foods	1	0	1	2
Stereo-teen	3 (3.96)	1 (2.05)	7 (4.99)	11
Movie-teen	0	0	0	0
Perfume/cologne-teen	4 (2.88)	0 (1.49)	4 (3.63)	8

NOTE.--The teen sample was composed of 36.0 percent single-parent families, 18.6 percent reconstituted families, and 45.4 percent intact families. Expected values are in parentheses and were calculated by multiplying total "do not own" responses by percentages for family types.

TABLE 37

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND AUTHORITY-ROLE STRUCTURE
PARENTS

Multiple R	.25440	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.06472		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.04191	Regression	2	6.91833	3.45917
Standard Error	1.10418	Residual	82	99.97505	1.21921
		F =	2.83722	Signif F =	.0644

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.241527	.222182	.156320	1.087	.2802
E1	-.410332	.178239	-.331048	-2.302	.0239
(Constant)	3.967636	.134057		29.597	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	3.56
Reconstituted	4.21
Intact	4.14

TABLE 38

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND AUTHORITY-ROLE STRUCTURE
TEENS

Multiple R	.17464	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.03050		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.01896	Regression	2	7.82007	3.91003
Standard Error	1.21644	Residual	168	248.59440	1.47973
		F =	2.64240	Signif F =	.0741

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.366184	.159368	.224850	2.298	.0228
E1	-.203283	.135113	-.147230	-1.505	.1343
(Constant)	3.706781	.099203		37.366	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	3.50
Reconstituted	4.07
Intact	3.54

TABLE 39

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND PEERNESS
PARENTS

Multiple R	.08504	Analysis of Variance				
R Square	.00723		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	
Adjusted R Square	-.01669	Regression	2	.60494	.30247	
Standard Error	1.00026	Residual	83	83.04331	1.00052	
		F =	.30231	Signif F =	.7399	
----- Variables in the Equation -----						
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T	
E2	-.026274	.207493	-.018812	-.127	.8995	
E1	.103853	.159658	.096639	.650	.5172	
(Constant)	4.313852	.123200		35.015	.0000	

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	4.42
Reconstituted	4.29
Intact	4.24

TABLE 40

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND PEERNESS
TEENS

Multiple R	.07619	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.00580		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.00603	Regression	2	1.35661	.67831
Standard Error	1.17604	Residual	168	232.35643	1.38307
		F =	.49043	Signif F =	.6132

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	-.013575	.157923	-.008592	-.086	.9316
E1	-.092414	.131183	-.070415	-.704	.4821
(Constant)	4.031614	.096959		41.581	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	3.94
Reconstituted	4.02
Intact	4.14

TABLE 41

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND TEEN'S HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY PARENTS

Multiple R	.11032	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.01217		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.01192	Regression	2	1.50822	.75411
Standard Error	1.22184	Residual	82	122.41641	1.49288
		F =	.50514	Signif F =	.6053

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.051147	.245857	.030744	.208	.8357
E1	.116568	.197232	.087344	.591	.5561
(Constant)	3.590757	.148342		24.206	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	3.71
Reconstituted	3.64
Intact	3.42

TABLE 42

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND TEENS' HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY
TEENS

Multiple R	.04276	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.00183		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.01020	Regression	2	.54441	.27220
Standard Error	1.33806	Residual	166	297.20892	1.79042
		F =	.15203	Signif F =	.8591

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
E2	-.062836	.175294	-.035690	-.358	.7205
E1	-.014953	.147322	-.010106	-.101	.9193
(Constant)	3.797211	.109899		34.552	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	3.78
Reconstituted	3.73
Intact	3.88

TABLE 43

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND BEHAVIORAL MEASURE OF TEEN'S
HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY--PARENTS

Multiple R	.26459	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.07001		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.04760	Regression	2	3.77154	1.88577
Standard Error	.77693	Residual	83	50.10055	.60362
		F =	3.12410	Signif F =	.0492

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.310083	.161238	.277743	1.923	.0579
E1	-.017227	.124874	-.019923	-.138	.8906
(Constant)	2.346946	.095808		24.496	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	2.33
Reconstituted	2.66
Intact	2.05

TABLE 44

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND BEHAVIORAL MEASURE OF TEEN'S
HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY: TEENS

Multiple R	.07364	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.00542		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.00709	Regression	2	.57704	.28852
Standard Error	.81584	Residual	159	105.82968	.66560
		F =	.43348	Signif F =	.6490

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.102408	.110362	.095009	.928	.3549
E1	-.049863	.094091	-.054260	-.530	.5969
(Constant)	2.245922	.068462		32.805	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	2.19
Reconstituted	2.35
Intact	2.19

TABLE 45

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND PARENTAL COALITION FORMATION PARENTS

Multiple R	.50841	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.25848		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.23896	Regression	2	23.45521	11.72760
Standard Error	.94094	Residual	76	67.28846	.88537

F = 13.24593 Signif F = .0000

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.253205	.191082	.175858	1.325	.1891
E1	-.727564	.158623	-.608716	-4.587	.0000
(Constant)	3.900641	.117517		33.192	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	3.17
Reconstituted	4.15
Intact	4.38

TABLE 46

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND PARENTAL COALITION FORMATION
TEENS

Multiple R	.31539	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.09947		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.08770	Regression	2	15.88012	7.94006
Standard Error	.96935	Residual	153	143.76532	.93964

F = 8.45008 Signif F = .0003

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	-.045836	.130083	-.034557	-.352	.7251
E1	-.337105	.112951	-.292702	-2.985	.0033
(Constant)	3.372529	.081880		41.189	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	3.04
Reconstituted	3.33
Intact	3.76

TABLE 47

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND RESTRICTING TEEN'S BEHAVIOR
PARENTS

Multiple R	.08953	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.00802		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.01710	Regression	2	.83378	.41689
Standard Error	1.14283	Residual	79	103.17841	1.30606
		F =	.31920	Signif F =	.7277

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.068645	.246837	.042802	.278	.7817
E1	-.138856	.188667	-.113276	-.736	.4639
(Constant)	4.786315	.145751		32.839	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	4.65
Reconstituted	4.86
Intact	4.86

TABLE 48

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND RESTRICTING TEEN'S BEHAVIOR
TEENS

Multiple R	.10556	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.01114		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.00070	Regression	2	3.38543	1.69272
Standard Error	1.34130	Residual	167	300.44529	1.79907
		F =	.94088	Signif F =	.3923

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	-.233077	.180215	-.129012	-1.293	.1977
E1	.070417	.149733	.046912	.470	.6388
(Constant)	3.840180	.110733		34.680	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	3.91
Reconstituted	3.61
Intact	4.00

TABLE 49

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND ENCOURAGING VERBALIZATION PARENTS

Multiple R	.07591	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.00576		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.01849	Regression	2	.41413	.20706
Standard Error	.93346	Residual	82	71.44993	.87134

F = .23764 Signif F = .7890

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.120040	.187707	.094379	.640	.5243
E1	-.034929	.149483	-.034484	-.234	.8158
(Constant)	4.924628	.113137		43.528	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	4.89
Reconstituted	5.05
Intact	4.84

TABLE 50

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND ENCOURAGING VERBALIZATION
TEENS

Multiple R	.12033	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.01448		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.00268	Regression	2	3.56401	1.78201
Standard Error	1.20523	Residual	167	242.57978	1.45257
		F =	1.22679	Signif F =	.2959

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
E2	-.167362	.157850	-.105110	-1.060	.2906
E1	-.029725	.133128	-.022135	-.223	.8236
(Constant)	4.188195	.098922		42.338	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	4.17
Reconstituted	4.02
Intact	4.38

TABLE 51

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND SPENDING TIME WITH TEEN PARENTS

Multiple R	.09738	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.00948		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.01528	Regression	2	.77161	.38580
Standard Error	1.00369	Residual	80	80.59118	1.00739

F = .38297 Signif F = .6831

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.113853	.208918	.082012	.545	.5873
E1	.022749	.163145	.020984	.139	.8895
(Constant)	4.420755	.124757		35.435	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	4.44
Reconstituted	4.54
Intact	4.28

TABLE 52

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND SPENDING TIME WITH TEEN TEENS

Multiple R	.20062	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.04025		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.02882	Regression	2	11.49131	5.74565
Standard Error	1.27716	Residual	168	274.02916	1.63113
		F =	3.52251	Signif F =	.0317

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
E2	-.249398	.167127	-.145483	-1.492	.1375
E1	-.106589	.140392	-.074017	-.759	.4488
(Constant)	3.843148	.104597		36.742	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	3.73
Reconstituted	3.59
Intact	4.19

TABLE 53

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND FAMILY, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

Multiple R	.28120	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.07907		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.05238	Regression	2	4.16341	2.08171
Standard Error	.83830	Residual	69	48.48937	.70274
		F =	2.96225	Signif F =	.0583

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	-.059347	.177107	-.051258	-.335	.7386
E1	.297703	.145902	.312118	2.040	.0451
(Constant)	.699635	.108295		6.460	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	.99
Reconstituted	.64
Intact	.46

TABLE 54

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND FAMILY, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS
TEENS

Multiple R	.04289	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.00184		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.01222	Regression	2	.23589	.11795
Standard Error	.94939	Residual	142	127.99083	.90134

F = .13085 Signif F = .8775

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	-.068374	.135468	-.054364	-.505	.6145
E1	.044036	.115334	.041125	.382	.7032
(Constant)	1.128352	.083771		13.469	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	1.17
Reconstituted	1.06
Intact	1.15

TABLE 55

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

Multiple R	.12674	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.01606		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.02178	Regression	2	1.91173	.95587
Standard Error	1.50071	Residual	52	117.11049	2.25212
		F =	.42443	Signif F =	.6564

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.066849	.366646	.033805	.182	.8560
E1	.169367	.309188	.101563	.548	.5862
(Constant)	4.256967	.224302		18.979	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	4.43
Reconstituted	4.32
Intact	4.02

TABLE 56

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS
TEENS

Multiple R	.04293	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.00184		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.01567	Regression	2	.32513	.16257
Standard Error	1.24293	Residual	114	176.11551	1.54487
		F =	.10523	Signif F =	.9002

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	-.026997	.188277	-.017282	-.143	.8862
E1	.073760	.172059	.051670	.429	.6690
(Constant)	4.974347	.120871		41.154	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	5.05
Reconstituted	4.95
Intact	4.93

TABLE 57

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND FAMILY, LOW-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

Multiple R	.31077	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.09658		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.07311	Regression	2	14.44320	7.22160
Standard Error	1.32465	Residual	77	135.11097	1.75469
		F =	4.11560	Signif F =	.0200

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	-.476496	.276498	-.248880	-1.723	.0888
E1	.618581	.216271	.413066	2.860	.0054
(Constant)	3.724879	.165873		22.456	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	4.34
Reconstituted	3.25
Intact	3.58

TABLE 58

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND FAMILY, LOW-RISK PRODUCTS
TEENS

Multiple R	.13521	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.01828		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.00609	Regression	2	4.97036	2.48518
Standard Error	1.28757	Residual	161	266.91243	1.65784
		F =	1.49905	Signif F =	.2264

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	-.195508	.171719	-.113879	-1.139	.2566
E1	.253367	.146460	.173032	1.730	.0856
(Constant)	4.301180	.106606		40.347	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	4.56
Reconstituted	4.11
Intact	4.25

TABLE 59

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND TEEN, LOW-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

Multiple R	.09169	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.00841		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	-.01638	Regression	2	.81380	.40690
Standard Error	1.09533	Residual	80	95.97988	1.19975
		F =	.33915	Signif F =	.7134

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	-.127520	.220573	-.085054	-.578	.5648
E1	.143513	.174629	.120905	.822	.4136
(Constant)	4.736832	.133252		35.548	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	4.88
Reconstituted	4.61
Intact	4.72

TABLE 60

REGRESSION RESULTS: FAMILY TYPE AND TEEN, LOW-RISK PRODUCTS
TEENS

Multiple R	.12061	Analysis of Variance			
R Square	.01455		DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Adjusted R Square	.00238	Regression	2	1.32445	.66223
Standard Error	.74422	Residual	162	89.72631	.55387
		F =	1.19564	Signif F =	.3052

----- Variables in the Equation -----					
Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
E2	.082031	.098100	.083709	.836	.4043
E1	.041629	.085085	.048978	.489	.6253
(Constant)	5.503713	.061265		89.834	.0000

FAMILY TYPE	MEAN
Single-parent	5.55
Reconstituted	5.59
Intact	5.38

TABLE 64

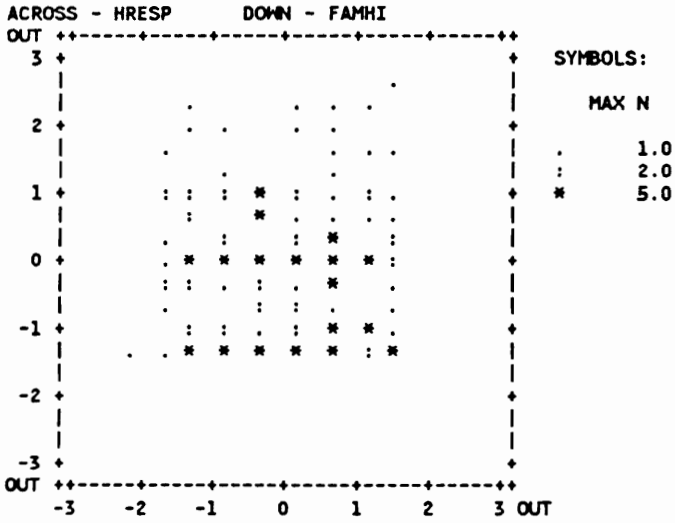
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY AND FAMILY, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS--TEENS

MULTIPLE R	.00410	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.00002		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.00713	REGRESSION	1	.00212	.00212
STANDARD ERROR	.95090	RESIDUAL	140	126.58943	.90421

F = .00235 SIGNIF F = .9614

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
O VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
HRESP	-.002932	.060515	-.004095	-.048	.9614
(CONSTANT)	1.166393	.249670		4.672	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.0041, P > .05

TABLE 65

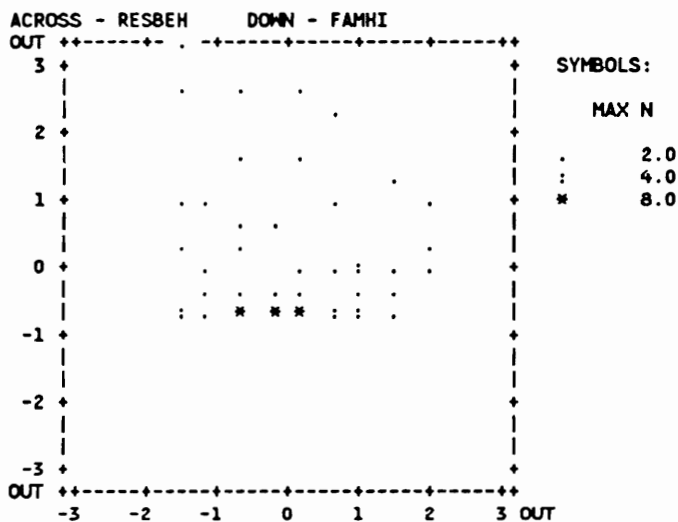
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: BEHAVIORAL HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY AND FAMILY,
HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS
PARENTS

MULTIPLE R	.10995	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.01209		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.00244	REGRESSION	1	.62847	.62847
STANDARD ERROR	.86906	RESIDUAL	68	51.35813	.75527

F = .83212 SIGNIF F = .3649

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
RESBEH	-.124803	.136815	-.109951	-.912	.3649
(CONSTANT)	.969807	.317180		3.058	.0032

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



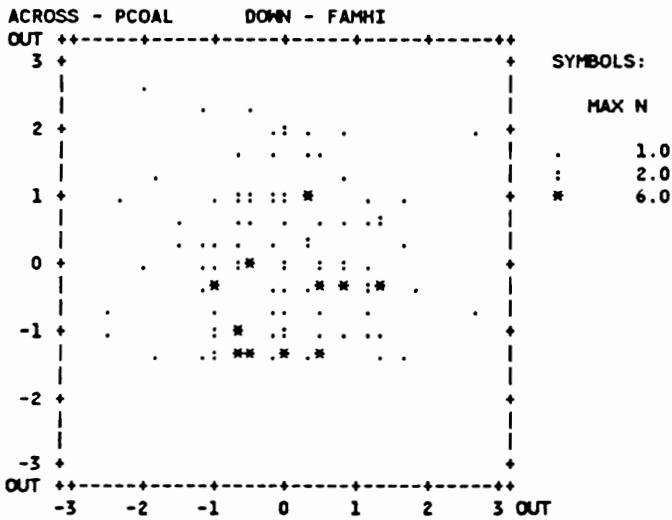
PEARSON CORRELATION = -.1100, P > .05

TABLE 68

REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: PARENTAL COALITION FORMATION AND FAMILY, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

MULTIPLE R		ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.01483	REGRESSION	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.00022	RESIDUAL	126	118.64382	.94162
STANDARD ERROR	-.00771				
	.97037				
		F =	.02772	SIGNIF F =	.8680
----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
PCOAL	-.014963	.089880	-.014830	-.166	.8680
(CONSTANT)	1.227276	.320984		3.823	.0002

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.0148, P > .05

TABLE 69

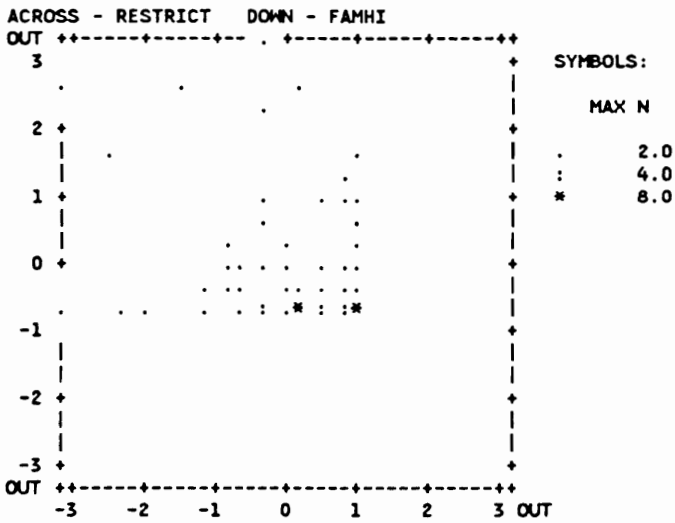
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: RESTRICTING BEHAVIOR AND FAMILY, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

MULTIPLE R	.17463	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.03050		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.01603	REGRESSION	1	1.57924	1.57924
STANDARD ERROR	.86564	RESIDUAL	67	50.20518	.74933

F = 2.10753 SIGNIF F = .1512

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
RESTRICT	-.126351	.087035	-.174632	-1.452	.1512
(CONSTANT)	1.302303	.425837		3.058	.0032

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.1746, P > .05

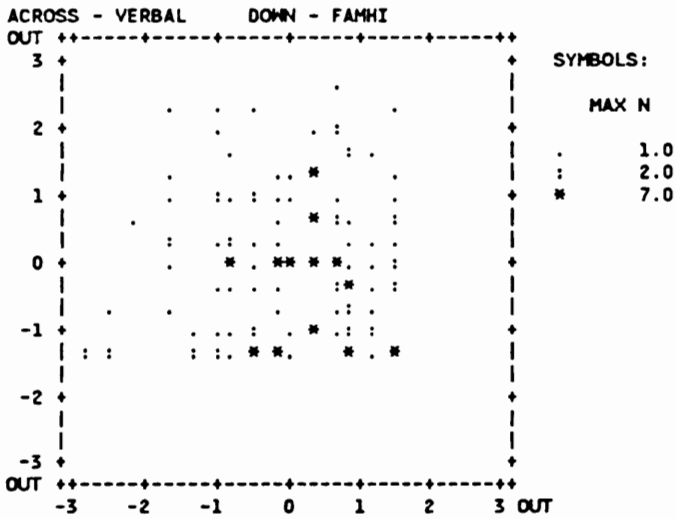
TABLE 72

REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: ENCOURAGING VERBALIZATION AND FAMILY, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS--TEENS

MULTIPLE R	.06742	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.00455		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.00246	REGRESSION	1	.58287	.58287
STANDARD ERROR	.94806	RESIDUAL	142	127.63198	.89882
		F =	.64848	SIGNIF F =	.4220

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
O VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
VERBAL	.053648	.066620	.067424	.805	.4220
(CONSTANT)	.910882	.296032		3.077	.0025

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = .0674, P > .05

TABLE 74

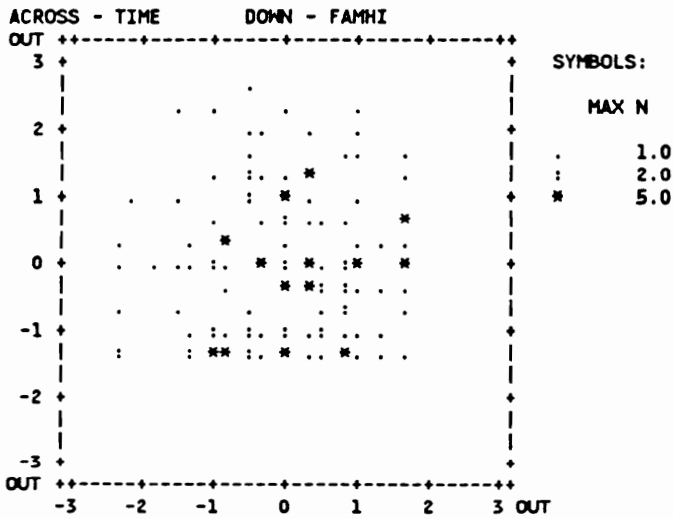
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: SPENDING TIME WITH TEEN AND FAMILY, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

MULTIPLE R	.06457	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.00417		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.00284	REGRESSION	1	.53462	.53462
STANDARD ERROR	.94824	RESIDUAL	142	127.68022	.89916

F = .59458 SIGNIF F = .4419

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
O VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
TIME	.048787	.063270	.064573	.771	.4419
(CONSTANT)	.946382	.264010		3.585	.0005

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = .0646, P > .05

TABLE 75

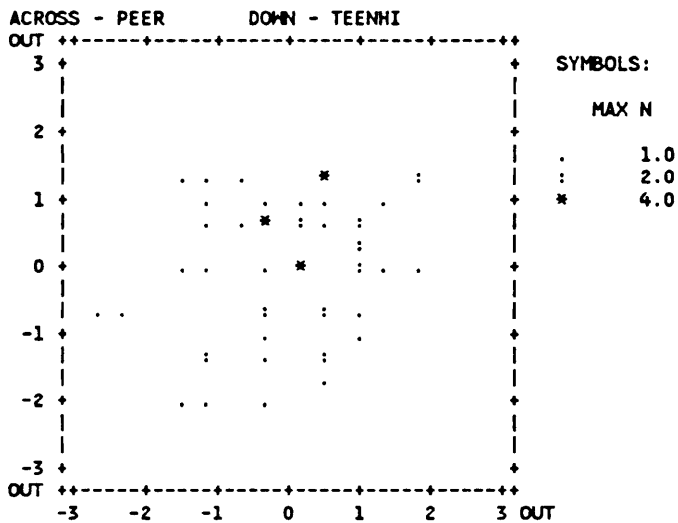
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: PEERNESS AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

MULTIPLE R	.20642	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.04261		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.02420	REGRESSION	1	5.06972	5.06972
STANDARD ERROR	1.48007	RESIDUAL	52	113.91176	2.19061

F = 2.31430 SIGNIF F = .1342

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
O VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
PEER	.303201	.199306	.206420	1.521	.1342
(CONSTANT)	2.929606	.861395		3.401	.0013

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = .2064, P > .05

TABLE 76

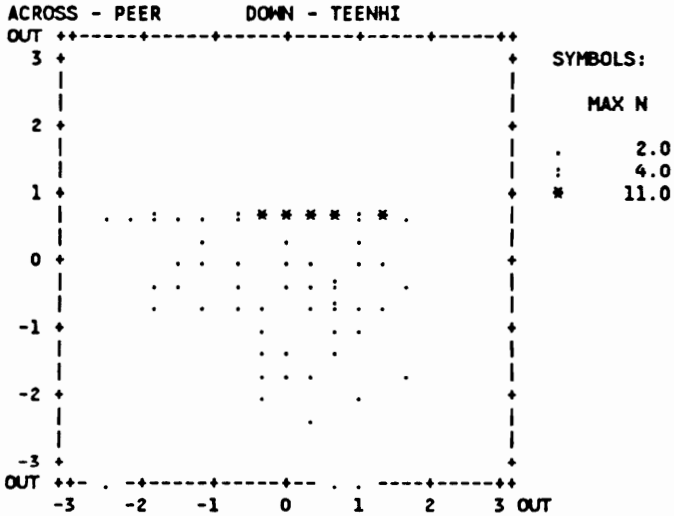
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: PEERNESS AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

MULTIPLE R	.05854	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.00343		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.00572	REGRESSION	1	.58837	.58837
STANDARD ERROR	1.25298	RESIDUAL	109	171.12535	1.56996

F = .37477 SIGNIF F = .5417

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIBLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
PEER	-.062174	.101561	-.058536	-.612	.5417
(CONSTANT)	5.222291	.419565		12.447	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.0585, P > .05

TABLE 77

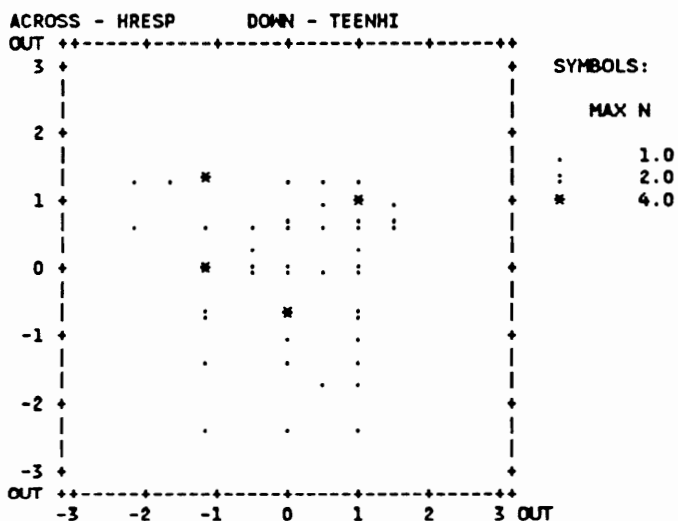
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

MULTIPLE R	.05158	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.00266		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.01689	REGRESSION	1	.30203	.30203
STANDARD ERROR	1.48986	RESIDUAL	51	113.20322	2.21967

F = .13607 SIGNIF F = .7137

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
HRESP	-.066731	.175482	-.051584	-.369	.7137
(CONSTANT)	4.456789	.657209		6.781	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.0516, P > .05

TABLE 78

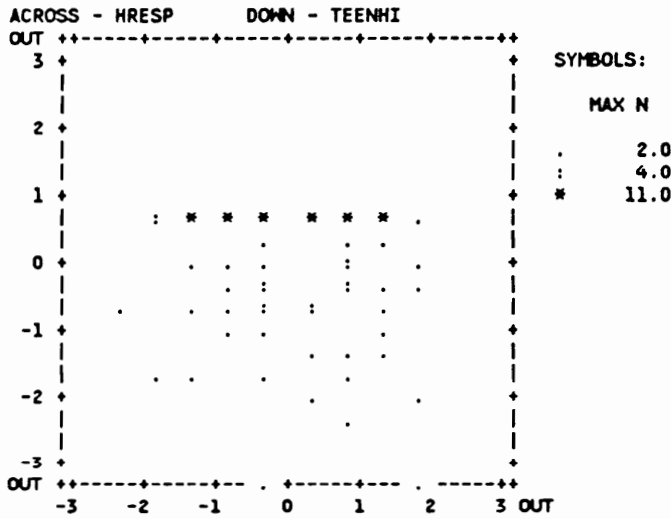
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

MULTIPLE R	.11906	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.01418		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.00545	REGRESSION	1	2.45629	2.45629
STANDARD ERROR	1.22949	RESIDUAL	113	170.81520	1.51164

F = 1.62492 SIGNIF F = .2050

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
O VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
HRESP	-.120266	.094346	-.119063	-1.275	.2050
(CONSTANT)	5.434997	.377281		14.406	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.1191, P > .05

TABLE 80

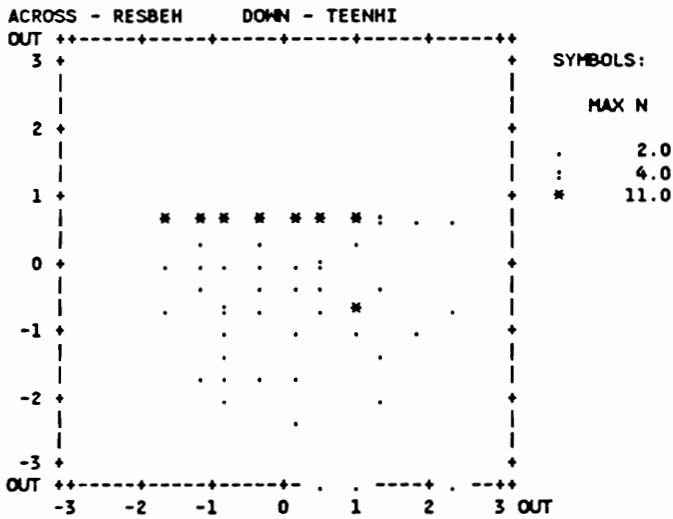
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: BEHAVIORAL HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

		ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
MULTIPLE R	.17840	REGRESSION	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
R SQUARE	.03183	RESIDUAL	108	165.78254	1.53502
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.02286				
STANDARD ERROR	1.23896				

VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION					
O VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
RESBEH	-.287749	.152715	-.178401	-1.884	.0622
(CONSTANT)	5.617568	.363566		15.451	.0000

F = 3.55030 SIGNIF F = .0622

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.1784, P < .10

TABLE 81

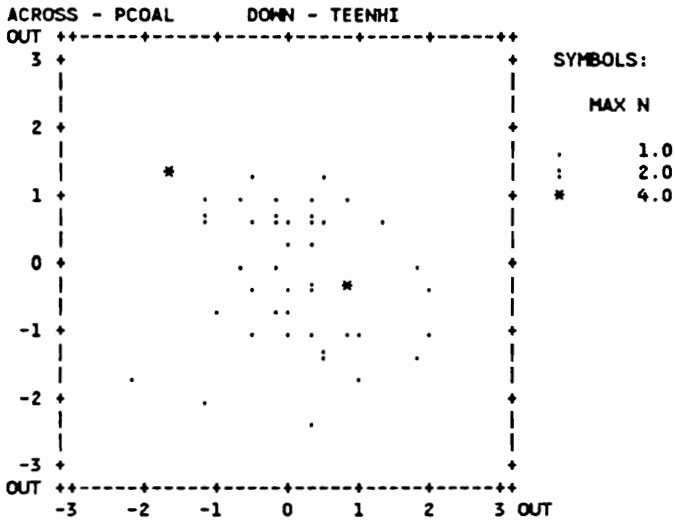
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: PARENTAL COALITION FORMATION AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS--PARENTS

		ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
MULTIPLE R	.29235				
R SQUARE	.08547		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.06642	REGRESSION	1	7.75407	7.75407
STANDARD ERROR	1.31473	RESIDUAL	48	82.96816	1.72850

F = 4.48600 SIGNIF F = .0394

VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION					
O VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
PCOAL	-.397985	.187904	-.292353	-2.118	.0394
(CONSTANT)	5.813332	.768802		7.562	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.2924, P < .05

TABLE 83

REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: RESTRICTING BEHAVIOR AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

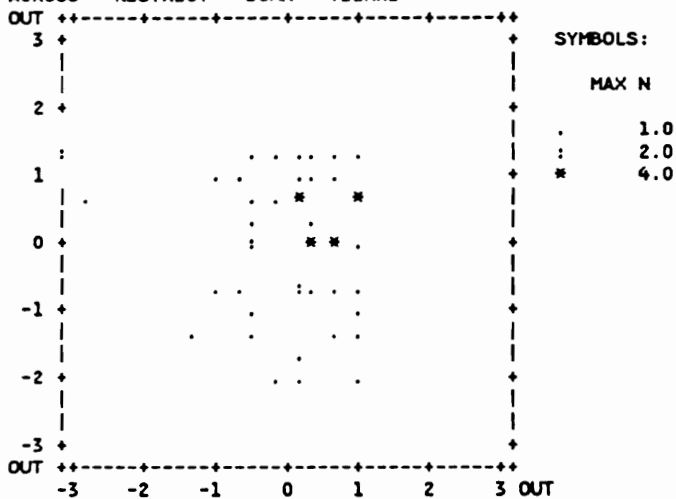
MULTIPLE R	.19868	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.03947		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.01987	REGRESSION	1	4.50924	4.50924
STANDARD ERROR	1.49646	RESIDUAL	49	109.73041	2.23940

F = 2.01360 SIGNIF F = .1622

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
RESTRICT	-.258750	.182345	-.198675	-1.419	.1622
(CONSTANT)	5.462541	.912282		5.988	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT

ACROSS - RESTRICT DOWN - TEENHI



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.1987, P > .05

TABLE 84

REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: RESTRICTING BEHAVIOR AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

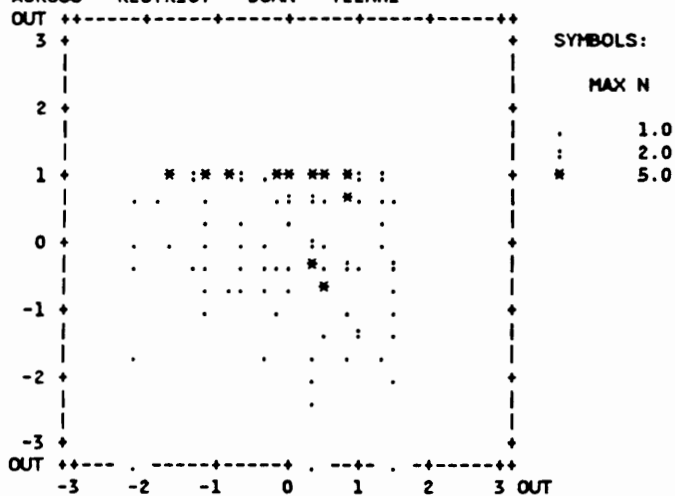
MULTIPLE R	.14524	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.02109		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.01235	REGRESSION	1	3.68847	3.68847
STANDARD ERROR	1.23626	RESIDUAL	112	171.17313	1.52833

F = 2.41340 SIGNIF F = .1231

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
RESTRICT	-.132228	.085116	-.145237	-1.554	.1231
(CONSTANT)	5.468210	.351142		15.573	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT

ACROSS - RESTRICT DOWN - TEENHI



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.1452, P > .05

TABLE 85

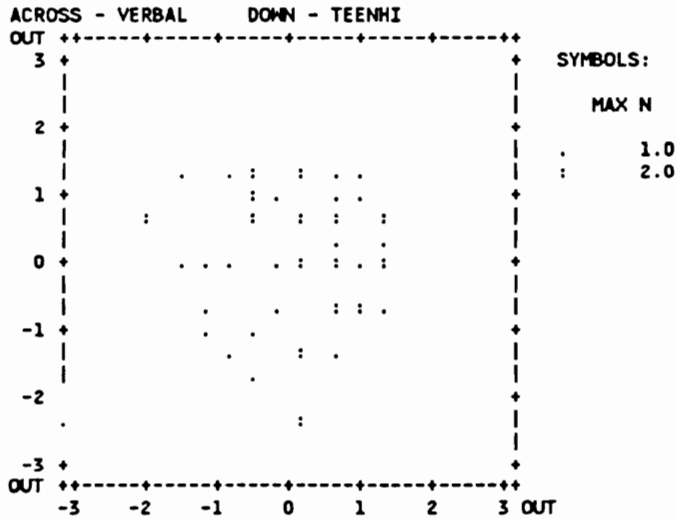
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: ENCOURAGING VERBALIZATION AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

MULTIPLE R	.08610	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.00741		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.01205	REGRESSION	1	.84683	.84683
STANDARD ERROR	1.49113	RESIDUAL	51	113.39636	2.22346

F = .38086 SIGNIF F = .5399

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
VERBAL	.139048	.225312	.086096	.617	.5399
(CONSTANT)	3.548328	1.097658		3.233	.0022

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = .0861, P < .05

TABLE 86

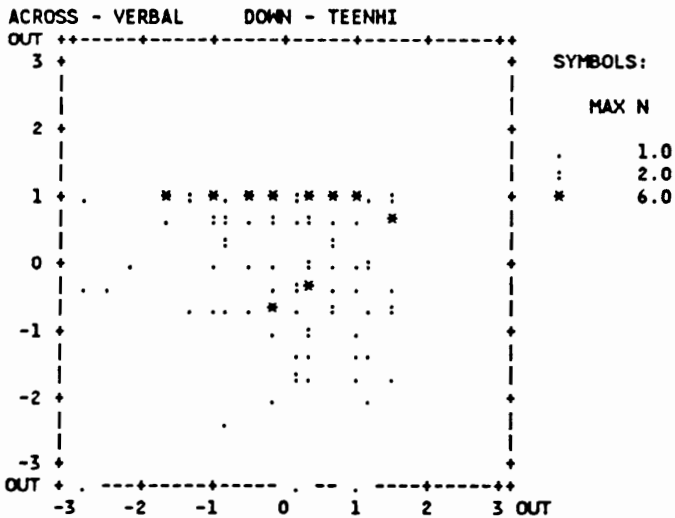
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: ENCOURAGING VERBALIZATION AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

MULTIPLE R	.09085	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.00825		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.00045	REGRESSION	1	1.44746	1.44746
STANDARD ERROR	1.23516	RESIDUAL	114	173.92036	1.52562

F = .94877 SIGNIF F = .3321

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
VERBAL	-.095909	.098465	-.090851	-.974	.3321
(CONSTANT)	5.364354	.430904		12.449	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.0909, P > .05

TABLE 87

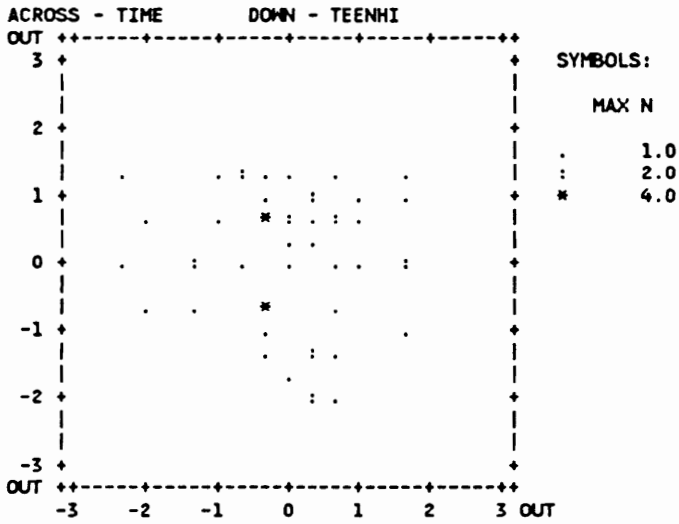
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: SPENDING TIME WITH TEEN AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

MULTIPLE R	.07847	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.00616	REGRESSION	DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.01372	RESIDUAL	50	114.69742	2.29395
STANDARD ERROR	1.51458				

F = .30982 SIGNIF F = .5803

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
O VARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
TIME	-.119686	.215027	-.078474	-.557	.5803
(CONSTANT)	4.751985	.948440		5.010	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.0785, P > .05

TABLE 88

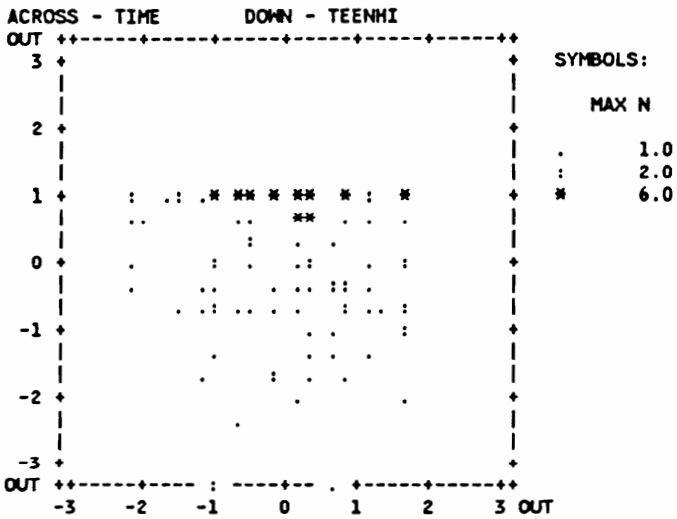
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: SPENDING TIME WITH TEEN AND TEEN, HIGH-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

		ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
			DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
MULTIPLE R	.08036	REGRESSION	1	1.13248	1.13248
R SQUARE	.00646	RESIDUAL	114	174.23534	1.52838
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	-.00226				
STANDARD ERROR	1.23628				

F = .74096 SIGNIF F = .3912

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
TIME	-.076803	.089223	-.080360	-.861	.3912
(CONSTANT)	5.258375	.365392		14.391	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.0804, P > .05

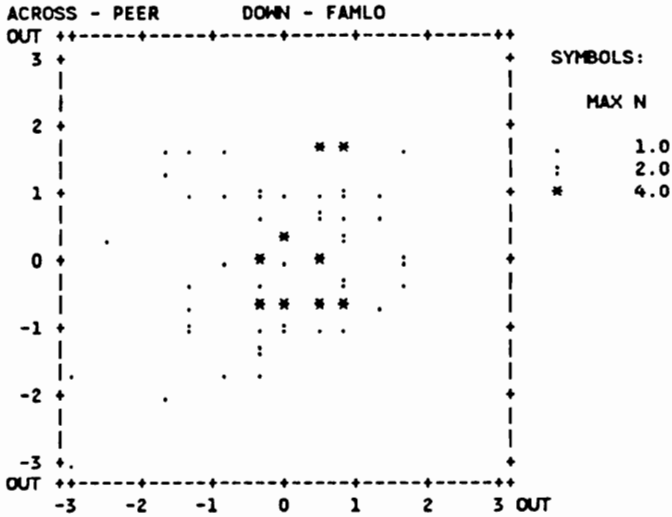
TABLE 89

REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: PEERNESS AND FAMILY, LOW-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

MULTIPLE R	.27430	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.07524		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.06323	REGRESSION	1	10.77763	10.77763
STANDARD ERROR	1.31163	RESIDUAL	77	132.46851	1.72037
		F =	6.26471	SIGNIF F =	.0144

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
PEER	.378228	.151113	.274296	2.503	.0144
(CONSTANT)	2.225763	.669691		3.324	.0014

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = .2743, P < .05

TABLE 90

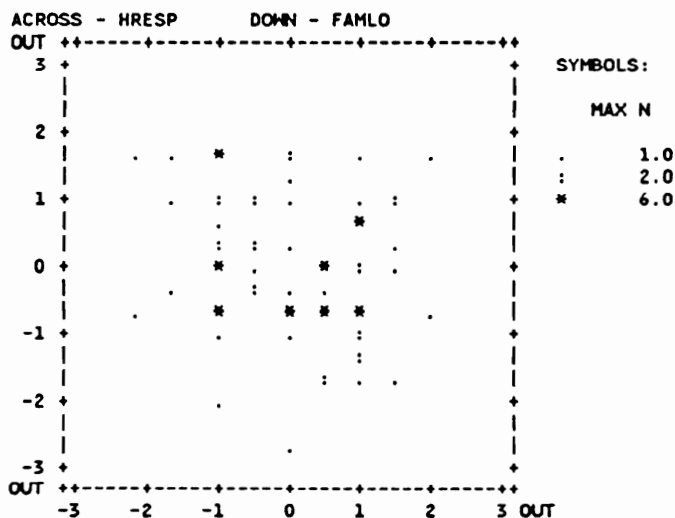
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY AND FAMILY, LOW-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

MULTIPLE R	.20816	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.04333		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.03057	REGRESSION	1	6.24367	6.24367
STANDARD ERROR	1.35574	RESIDUAL	75	137.85157	1.83802

F = 3.39695 SIGNIF F = .0693

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
HRESP	-.231043	.125357	-.208159	-1.843	.0693
(CONSTANT)	4.638804	.475729		9.751	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.2082, P < .05

TABLE 91

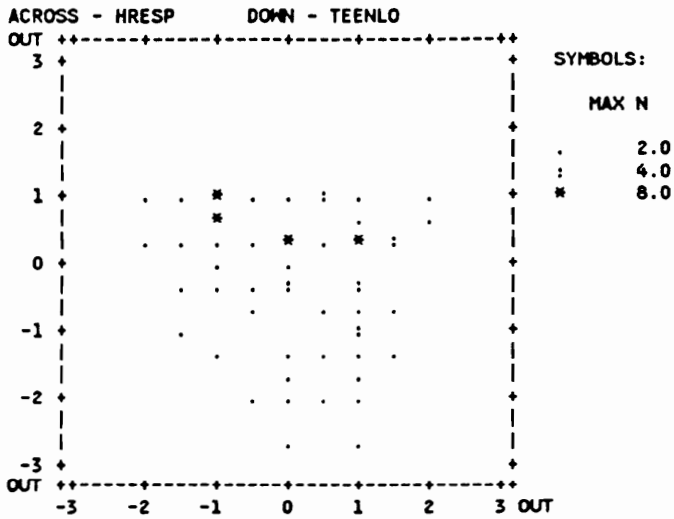
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY AND TEEN, LOW-RISK PRODUCTS PARENTS

MULTIPLE R	.24709	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.06105		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.04902	REGRESSION	1	5.62598	5.62598
STANDARD ERROR	1.05322	RESIDUAL	78	86.52324	1.10927

F = 5.07178 SIGNIF F = .0271

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
HRESP	-.216108	.095960	-.247089	-2.252	.0271
(CONSTANT)	5.540071	.360861		15.352	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.2741, P < .05

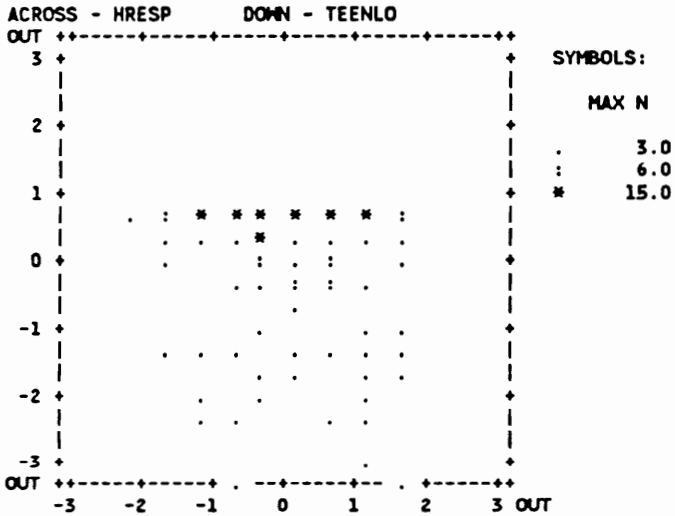
TABLE 92

REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: HOUSEHOLD RESPONSIBILITY AND TEEN, LOW-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

MULTIPLE R	.17808	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.03171		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.02562	REGRESSION	1	2.83144	2.83144
STANDARD ERROR	.73737	RESIDUAL	159	86.44961	.54371

		F = 5.20765		SIGNIF F = .0238	
----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
HRESP	-.100258	.043934	-.178084	-2.282	.0238
(CONSTANT)	5.873514	.179469		32.727	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



PEARSON CORRELATION = -.1781, P < .05

TABLE 93

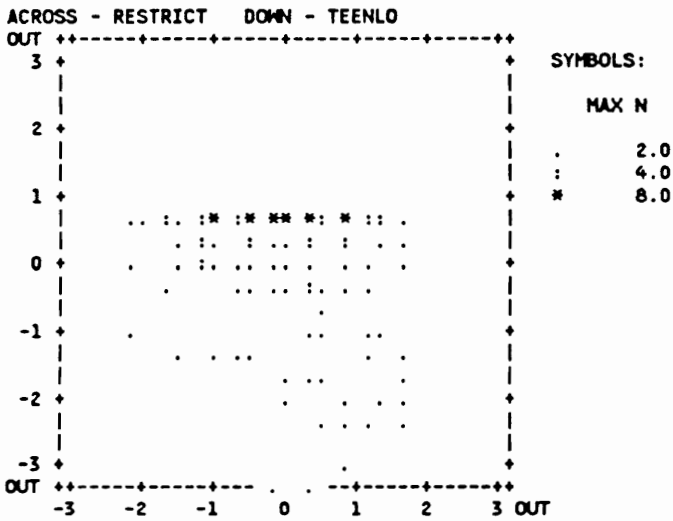
REGRESSION RESULTS AND SCATTERPLOT: RESTRICTING BEHAVIOR AND TEEN, LOW-RISK PRODUCTS TEENS

MULTIPLE R	.29483	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE			
R SQUARE	.08692		DF	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE
ADJUSTED R SQUARE	.08107	REGRESSION	1	7.74184	7.74184
STANDARD ERROR	.72201	RESIDUAL	156	81.32303	.52130

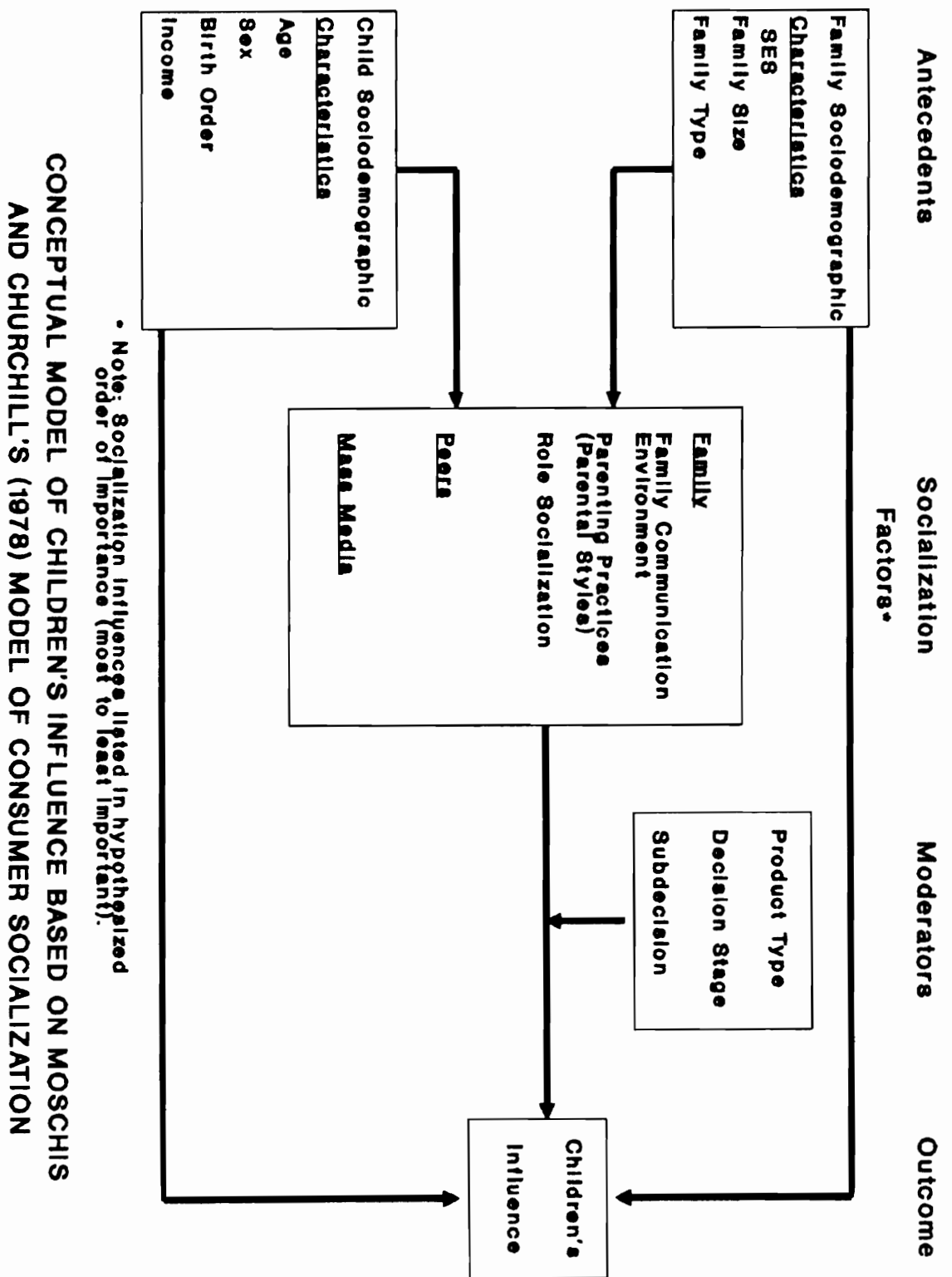
F = 14.85099 SIGNIF F = .0002

----- VARIABLES IN THE EQUATION -----					
OVARIABLE	B	SE B	BETA	T	SIG T
RESTRICT	-.170748	.044308	-.294828	-3.854	.0002
(CONSTANT)	6.124280	.182753		33.511	.0000

STANDARDIZED SCATTERPLOT



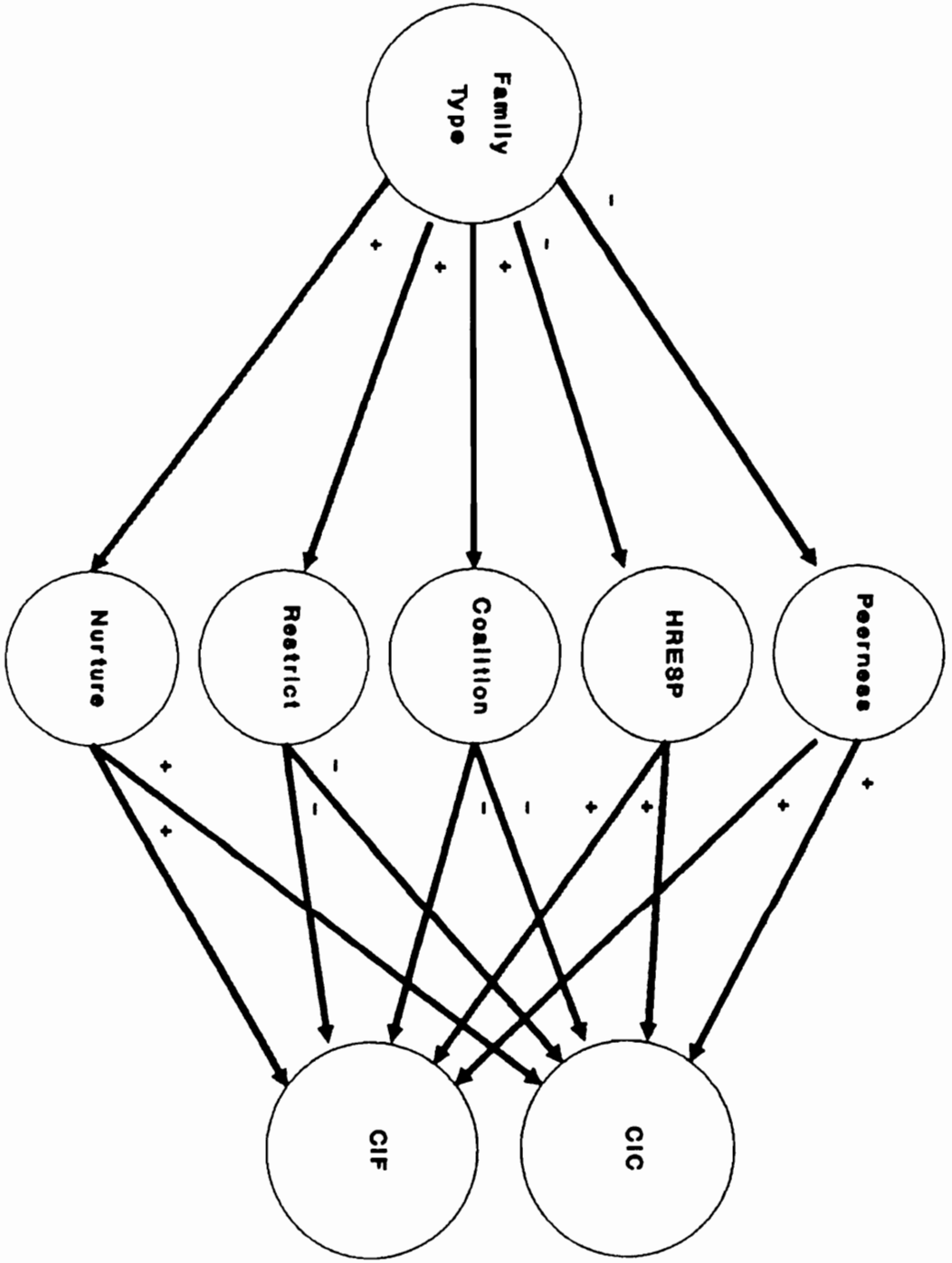
PEARSON CORRELATION = -.2948, P < .05



• Note: Socialization Influences listed in hypothesized order of importance (most to least important).

CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE BASED ON MOSCHIS AND CHURCHILL'S (1978) MODEL OF CONSUMER SOCIALIZATION

FIGURE 1



CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF CHILDREN'S INFLUENCE
 FIGURE 2

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables											
	AU	PE	HR	RB	PC	R	V	T	FH	TH	FL	TL
F Type	S	O	O	S	+	O	O	O	+	O	+	O
	S	O	O	O	+	O	O	S	O	O	O	O
PEER	P	T							O	O	+	O
	P	T							O	O	O	O
HRESP	P	T							O	O	-	-
	P	T							O	O	O	O
RESBEH	P	T							O	O	O	O
	P	T							O	O	O	O
PCOAL	P	T							+	+	O	O
	P	T							O	O	O	O
RESTRICT	P	T							O	O	O	O
	P	T							O	O	O	O
VERBAL	P	T							O	O	O	+
	P	T							O	O	O	O
TIME	P	T							O	O	O	O
	P	T							O	O	O	O

RESULTS OF HYPOTHESES TESTS

FIGURE 3

Appendix 1
SUPERINTENDENTS' COVER LETTER

Dear :

I am a doctoral candidate in marketing at Virginia Tech. The reason I am writing to you is that my dissertation topic is on teenagers' and parents' perceptions of family member purchase behavior and parent-teenager relationships. Given this research focus, I would like to explore the possibility of collecting data through the marketing education and business classes at [school name].

For my research purposes, I would need to collect data from both students and one of their parents. I would like to have an achieved sample size of 250 parent-teenager dyads. To outline my initial thinking on the process (although I am flexible), I would like to administer a survey to students in class. The survey would take about 20-25 minutes of class time. I would then ask students to take a survey home to one of their parents for the parent to complete. The questions asked of students and parents would be similar, only reworded to fit the respondent's perspective. I would ask the parent to return the survey to school via the student within one week and send a reminder home to that effect midweek. All responses would be kept confidential and anonymous. In return for participation in this research, I would make a \$4 contribution to the marketing or business student organization of the school for every fully completed set of parent-student responses.

I have enclosed copies of both the students' and the parents' questionnaires for you to inspect. The enclosed copies demonstrate the types of questions I would be asking. To be specific, section I assesses the dependent variable of teenagers' purchase influence. Sections II and III measure the independent variables of parental warmth, restrictiveness, and peeriness of parent-teenager relationships, and the level of the teenager's household responsibility. Sections IV through VI assess the extent to which parents (or other adults present in the household) support each other's views in relation to the teenager. Section VII is a behaviorally based measure of the teenager's household responsibility, and section VIII measures potential statistical controls, or background characteristics of respondents.

Because of the nature of this research, I would not make the raw data available to the school. However, I would be willing to forward copies of any publications arising from this research. My reason for not providing access to the raw data is to maintain respondent confidentiality.

What benefits would you receive from this arrangement, should you decide to accept? Apart from contributing to a scholarly endeavor and aiding me in completing my dissertation, this project might prove useful as an instructional tool in marketing education and business classes, to acquaint students with the types of issues marketing researchers address (and raise funds for student marketing groups, such as FBLA, DECA, or similar groups).

If my proposal is acceptable to you, I would like to begin collecting data in early-mid May. As I mentioned, I am flexible with respect to the process outlined above and I am willing to work with you to secure your approval.

I will contact you in a week, after you have had time to look over the enclosed materials, to discuss my request and to answer any questions that you may have. If you should need to talk to me in the meantime, I can be reached at (703) 382-3642 (H) or (703) 231-6949 (O). I hope that you may be in a position to help me collect the data for my dissertation. Thank you for your time and consideration.

The purposes of this survey are to gain some understanding of how you and your family act as consumers and to learn something about your attitudes toward various family relationships. When questions refer to your "teenager," please answer these questions with the oldest high-school-aged teenager who brought a survey home in mind. We also ask that you not discuss your responses with your teenager while you are completing the questionnaire. All information contained in this survey will remain anonymous and confidential.

I. Listed below are a number of products. For each product, we would like to know how actively involved your teenager was in the decision relative to you and your spouse (if you are married). Please check an appropriate response category for each product. In the questions below, "parents" refer to you and your spouse and "teenager" refers to your oldest high-school-aged teenager. If you are not married, please answer with yourself (as "parent") and your oldest high-school-aged teenager (as "teenager") in mind. Some examples follow.

	Teenager made decision alone	Teenager had more say than parents)	Teenager had slightly more say than parents)	Parents) and teenager participated equally	Parents) had slightly more say than teenager	Parents) had more say than teenager	Parents) made decision alone	Do not own
Car insurance-teenager	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
Backpack for teenager	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
Family vacation	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
Welcome mat	()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()

For the car insurance, the response checked above indicates that parents made the decision about car insurance for the teenager with very little input from the teenager. For the teenager's backpack, the response checked indicates that the teenager made the decision with very little input from the parents. The response checked for the vacation indicates that the teenager and parents participated equally in the decision. Finally, the response checked for the welcome mat indicates that the family does not own a welcome mat. Please use these examples as guides in checking your responses for the products below.

	Teenager made decision alone	Teenager had more say than parents)	Teenager had slightly more say than parents)	Parents) and teenager participated equally	Parents) had slightly more say than teenager	Parents) had more say than teenager	Parents) made decision alone	Do not own
1. Family car	1. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
2. Shampoo for teenager	2. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
3. Family toothpaste	3. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
4. Clothes for teenager	4. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
5. Kitchen curtains	5. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
6. Mail clock	6. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()

	Teenager made decision alone	Teenager had more say than parent(s)	Teenager had slightly more say than parent(s)	Parent(s) and teenager participated equally	Parent(s) had slightly more say than teenager	Parent(s) had more say than teenager	Parent(s) made decision alone	Do not own
7. Electronic game for teenager	7. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
8. Living-room furniture	8. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
9. School supplies for teenager	9. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
10. Breakfast cereal	10. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
11. Bedspread for teenager	11. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
12. Pots and pans	12. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
13. Soft drinks	13. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
14. Decodrant for teenager	14. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
15. Microwave oven	15. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
16. Bike for teenager	16. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
17. Shoes for teenager	17. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
18. Family television	18. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
19. Calculator for teenager	19. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
20. Clothes for yourself	20. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
21. Snack foods	21. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
22. Lawn mower	22. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
23. Stereo for teenager	23. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
24. Cable TV subscriptions	24. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
25. Soft drinks	25. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
26. Malkman for teenager	26. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
27. Shoes for yourself	27. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
28. Movie for teenager to see	28. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
29. Perfume or cologne for teenager	29. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()

II. In this section, please indicate the extent to which each statement describes you and your opinions in your relationship with your teenager by checking one response for each question. It is important to answer all questions; some statements may seem alike but are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

	Not like me at all	Not like me	Somewhat not like me	Somewhat like me	Like me	A lot like me
1. I encourage my teenager to talk about his/her feelings.	1.	()	()	()	()	()
2. I do not allow my teenager to get angry with me.	2.	()	()	()	()	()
3. I make sure that my teenager knows that I appreciate what he/she tries to accomplish.	3.	()	()	()	()	()
4. I find it interesting to be with my teenager for long periods of time.	4.	()	()	()	()	()
5. I believe that criticism makes my teenager improve.	5.	()	()	()	()	()
6. I rarely sit down with my teenager just to talk about life in general.	6.	()	()	()	()	()
7. I scold my teenager when he/she does something I do not like.	7.	()	()	()	()	()
8. I respect my teenager's opinion and encourage him/her to express it.	8.	()	()	()	()	()
9. I do not spend a lot of time with my teenager.	9.	()	()	()	()	()
10. I do not care if my teenager says bad things about his/her teachers.	10.	()	()	()	()	()
11. I do not care what time my teenager goes to bed at night.	11.	()	()	()	()	()
12. I am always doing things with my teenager.	12.	()	()	()	()	()
13. I do not know what my teenager's hopes are for the future.	13.	()	()	()	()	()
14. I do not mind it if my teenager questions my authority.	14.	()	()	()	()	()
15. I find it difficult to talk to my teenager.	15.	()	()	()	()	()
16. I do not mind it if my teenager occasionally uses curse words.	16.	()	()	()	()	()
17. I make sure that my teenager gets his/her homework done.	17.	()	()	()	()	()

III. In this section, please indicate your opinion by checking one response (strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, strongly agree) for each statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Parent(s) and child(ren) have equal status in our family.	1. ()	()	()	()	()
2. I often confide in my teenager.	2. ()	()	()	()	()
3. My teenager does not have a lot of family responsibility.	3. ()	()	()	()	()
4. I consider my teenager and myself to be good friends.	4. ()	()	()	()	()
5. If I had a problem that affected me personally, I would discuss it with my teenager.	5. ()	()	()	()	()
6. I expect my teenager to help manage the household.	6. ()	()	()	()	()
7. In general, I consider my teenager and myself to be equals.	7. ()	()	()	()	()
8. My teenager has a lot of influence over me.	8. ()	()	()	()	()
9. I would like to give my teenager more family-related duties.	9. ()	()	()	()	()
10. I never ask my teenager for advice.	10. ()	()	()	()	()
11. I do not rely on my teenager to help me make decisions concerning myself.	11. ()	()	()	()	()
12. My teenager does not do a lot of household work.	12. ()	()	()	()	()
13. In comparing myself with my teenager, I am the boss.	13. ()	()	()	()	()

IF YOU ARE CURRENTLY MARRIED, PLEASE COMPLETE SECTION IV OF THE SURVEY AND THEN SKIP TO SECTION VII. IF YOU ARE DIVORCED OR SEPARATED AND YOU DO NOT LIVE WITH ANOTHER ADULT PRESENT IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD, PLEASE SKIP TO SECTION V OF THIS SURVEY. IF YOU ARE SINGLE BUT LIVING WITH ANOTHER ADULT PRESENT IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD, PLEASE SKIP TO SECTION VI OF THE SURVEY. FINALLY, IF YOU ARE SINGLE (AND HAVE NEVER BEEN MARRIED) OR WIDOWED AND YOU ARE NOT CURRENTLY LIVING WITH ANOTHER ADULT, PLEASE SKIP TO SECTION VII OF THIS SURVEY.

IV. In this section, if you are currently married, please indicate your opinion by checking one response (strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, strongly agree) for each statement. After completing this section, please skip to section VII of the survey.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. My spouse and I work together in directing the children's lives.	1. ()	()	()	()	()
2. My spouse is not actively involved in decisions concerning the children.	2. ()	()	()	()	()
3. If there is some disagreement between parents and children, my spouse and I support each other.	3. ()	()	()	()	()
4. I uphold the decisions my spouse makes regarding the children.	4. ()	()	()	()	()
5. My spouse and I present a united front to the children.	5. ()	()	()	()	()
6. My spouse and I frequently disagree over issues concerning the children.	6. ()	()	()	()	()

V. In this section, if you are divorced or separated and you do not live with another adult present in your household, please indicate your opinion by checking one response (strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, strongly agree) for each statement. After completing this section, please skip to section VII of the survey.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. My ex-spouse and I work together in directing the children's lives.	1. ()	()	()	()	()
2. My ex-spouse is not actively involved in decisions concerning the children.	2. ()	()	()	()	()
3. If there is some disagreement between parents and children, my ex-spouse and I support each other.	3. ()	()	()	()	()
4. I uphold the decisions my ex-spouse makes regarding the children.	4. ()	()	()	()	()
5. My ex-spouse and I present a united front to the children.	5. ()	()	()	()	()
6. My ex-spouse and I frequently disagree over issues concerning the children.	6. ()	()	()	()	()

VI. In this section, if you are single and living with another adult present in your household, please indicate your opinion by checking one response (strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, strongly agree) for each statement. After completing this section, please continue to section VII of the survey.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. The other adult present in my household and I work together in directing the children's lives.	1. ()	()	()	()	()
2. The other adult present in my household is not actively involved in decisions concerning the children.	2. ()	()	()	()	()
3. If there is some disagreement between adults and children, the other adult present in my household and I support each other.	3. ()	()	()	()	()
4. I uphold the decisions the other adult present in my household makes regarding the children.	4. ()	()	()	()	()
5. The other adult present in my household and I present a united front to the children.	5. ()	()	()	()	()
6. The other adult present in my household and I frequently disagree over issues concerning the children.	6. ()	()	()	()	()

VII. All respondents please complete this section. Below are a number of questions concerning various household tasks and chores that your teenager may perform. Please answer each question as indicated.

Please indicate how often your teenager engages in the following activities for the family:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often
1. Caring for younger brothers or sisters before school?	1. ()	()	()	()
2. Caring for younger brothers or sisters after school?	2. ()	()	()	()
3. Doing the laundry?	3. ()	()	()	()
4. Shopping for groceries?	4. ()	()	()	()
5. Cooking dinner?	5. ()	()	()	()
6. Cleaning up after dinner?	6. ()	()	()	()
7. Cleaning the house?	7. ()	()	()	()
8. Mowing/caring for the lawn?	8. ()	()	()	()
9. Running errands for the family?	9. ()	()	()	()
10. Home repairs/maintenance?	10. ()	()	()	()
11. Car repairs/maintenance?	11. ()	()	()	()
12. Planning the family's meals?	12. ()	()	()	()
13. Making out the grocery list?	13. ()	()	()	()
14. Identifying problems that need to be fixed in the house?	14. ()	()	()	()
15. Identifying problems that need to be fixed on the car?	15. ()	()	()	()
16. Delegating tasks to younger brothers or sisters?	16. ()	()	()	()

VIII. Please respond to these questions by circling whether the statement describes you (True) or does not describe you (False).

I sometimes feel resentful when I do not get my way.	True	False
My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant.	True	False
On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.	True	False
There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.	True	False
There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority though I knew they were right.	True	False

IX. This section is meant to give us some idea of you and your family's background. All information will remain confidential and anonymous.

1. What is your sex? Male Female (please circle one)

2. What is your age in years? _____ years

3. What is your occupation? _____

How many hours per week do you work, on average? _____ hours/week

4. If you are married, what is your spouse's occupation? _____

How many hours per week does your spouse work, on average? _____ hours/week

5. If you are not currently married but live with another adult present in your household, what is this person's occupation? _____

How many hours per week does this person work, on average? _____ hours/week

6. Please list the age and sex of all children present in your household.

Age	Sex
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

7. Are there other adults who live in your household, besides yourself and your spouse, if married? (For this question, please include all older children who have graduated from high school, but who still live at home.)

_____ yes _____ no

If "yes," how many other adults, besides yourself (and your spouse, if married), are present in your household? _____ adults

What are these adults' ages and relationships to you?

Age	Relationship
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

8. What is your current marital status?

married widowed/widowed
 divorced single, never married
 separated

9. If married, how long have you been married? _____ years

10. If you are currently married, is this a first marriage:
for you? yes no
for your spouse? yes no

11. If you have been married previously, please list the years of all marriages, beginning with the most recent marriage (if relevant).

married from 19____ to present
married from 19____ to 19____
married from 19____ to 19____
married from 19____ to 19____

12. If single, how long have you been single? _____ years

13. Please indicate your education level.

elementary school some college
 some high school graduated four-year college
 graduated high school some graduate work
 technical/vocational school graduate degree

14. Please indicate your total annual household income.

under \$5,000 \$25,000 to \$29,999
 \$5,000 to \$9,999 \$30,000 to \$39,999
 \$10,000 to \$14,999 \$40,000 to \$49,999
 \$15,000 to \$19,999 \$50,000 to \$74,999
 \$20,000 to \$24,999 over \$75,00

15. Do you give your teenager an allowance? yes no
If "yes," why do you give an allowance? (please check all that apply)

as payment in return for performing chores
 to teach your teenager the value of money
 to give your teenager extra spending money
 to give your teenager money for necessary items
 other (please specify: _____)

16. Who is most involved in teaching your teenager about being a knowledgeable consumer (such as discussing products and brands with teenager, going shopping with teenager, and so on)? _____ yourself or _____ your spouse

YOUR RESPONSES TO ALL QUESTIONS WILL REMAIN STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL AND ANONYMOUS. THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO RESPOND TO THIS SURVEY. WE APPRECIATE YOUR PARTICIPATION.

Appendix 3
FAMILY CONSUMER SURVEY--TEENS

In this survey, we are interested in learning what you think about family members' roles in purchase decisions and also how you view your relationships with your parents and other family members. Before answering this survey, we would like to remind you not to talk about your answers with your classmates. We are interested in learning what you yourself think about the questions. All of your answers to the questions in this survey will remain anonymous and confidential.

To begin the survey, we would like for you to answer the following question, keeping in mind ONLY THE PARENT(S) IN THE HOUSEHOLD IN WHICH YOU CURRENTLY LIVE (please check only one response):

From which parent do you learn the most about being a knowledgeable consumer (such as learning about products and brands, going shopping with, and so on)?

- mother
- father
- stepmother
- stepfather
- other (please specify who this person is: _____)

For sections II and III of the survey only, when a question refers to "parent" (that is, it refers to only one parent), please answer the question keeping the parent that you checked above in mind. In other words, in sections II and III, we want you to focus on this parent when answering the questions. Also, we ask that you deliver the parent's survey to this parent for her/him to complete (this will be more fully discussed after you have completed your survey).

	I made decision alone	I had more say than parents)	I had slightly more say than parents)	Parents) and I participated equally	Parents) had slightly more say than I did	Parents) had more say than I did	Parents) made decision alone	Do not own
7. Electronic game for yourself	7. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
8. Living-room furniture	8. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
9. School supplies for yourself	9. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
10. Breakfast cereal	10. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
11. Bedspread for yourself	11. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
12. Pots and pans	12. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
13. Soft drinks	13. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
14. Deodorant for yourself	14. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
15. Microwave oven	15. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
16. Bike for yourself	16. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
17. Shoes for yourself	17. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
18. Family television	18. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
19. Calculator for yourself	19. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
20. Clothes for your parents)	20. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
21. Snack foods	21. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
22. Lawn mower	22. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
23. Stereo for yourself	23. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
24. Cable TV subscriptions	24. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
25. Soft drinks	25. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
26. Walkman for yourself	26. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
27. Shoes for your parents)	27. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
28. Movie for you to see	28. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
29. Perfume or cologne for yourself	29. ()	()	()	()	()	()	()	()

II. For this section, when answering questions, please keep in mind the parent who is most involved in teaching you about being a knowledgeable consumer (the parent that you identified on the first page of this survey). In this section, please indicate the extent to which each statement describes your parent in his or her relationship with you by checking one response for each question. It is important to answer all questions; some statements may seem alike but are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

	Not at all like my parent	Not like my parent	Somewhat not like my parent	Somewhat like my parent	Like my parent	A lot like my parent
1. My parent encourages me to talk about my feelings.	1. ()	()	()	()	()	()
2. My parent does not allow me to express it when I get angry with him/her.	2. ()	()	()	()	()	()
3. My parent makes sure that I know that he/she appreciates what I try to accomplish.	3. ()	()	()	()	()	()
4. My parent finds it interesting to be with me for long periods of time.	4. ()	()	()	()	()	()
5. My parent believes that criticism makes me improve.	5. ()	()	()	()	()	()
6. My parent rarely sits down with me just to talk about life in general.	6. ()	()	()	()	()	()
7. My parent scolds me when I do something that he/she does not like.	7. ()	()	()	()	()	()
8. My parent respects my opinion and encourages me to express it.	8. ()	()	()	()	()	()
9. My parent does not spend a lot of time with me.	9. ()	()	()	()	()	()
10. My parent does not care if I say bad things about my teachers.	10. ()	()	()	()	()	()
11. My parent does not care what time I go to bed at night.	11. ()	()	()	()	()	()
12. My parent is always doing things with me.	12. ()	()	()	()	()	()
13. My parent does not know what my hopes are for the future.	13. ()	()	()	()	()	()
14. My parent does not mind it if I question his/her authority.	14. ()	()	()	()	()	()
15. My parent finds it difficult to talk to me.	15. ()	()	()	()	()	()
16. My parent does not mind it if I occasionally use curse words.	16. ()	()	()	()	()	()
17. My parent makes sure that I get my homework done.	17. ()	()	()	()	()	()

III. In this section, when questions refer to "parent," please keep in mind the parent that you identified on the first page as the one who teaches you the most about being a knowledgeable consumer. Please indicate your opinion by checking one response (strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, strongly agree) for each statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Parents () and children) have equal status in our family.	1. ()	()	()	()	()
2. My parent often confides in me.	2. ()	()	()	()	()
3. I do not have a lot of family responsibility.	3. ()	()	()	()	()
4. I consider my parent and myself to be good friends.	4. ()	()	()	()	()
5. If my parent had a problem that affected him/her personally, he/she would discuss it with me.	5. ()	()	()	()	()
6. My parent expects me to help manage the household.	6. ()	()	()	()	()
7. In general, I consider my parent and myself to be equals.	7. ()	()	()	()	()
8. I have a lot of influence over my parent.	8. ()	()	()	()	()
9. My parent would like to give me more family-related duties.	9. ()	()	()	()	()
10. My parent never asks me for advice.	10. ()	()	()	()	()
11. My parent does not rely on me to help him/her make decisions concerning him/herself.	11. ()	()	()	()	()
12. I do not do a lot of household work.	12. ()	()	()	()	()
13. In comparing myself with my parent, my parent is the boss.	13. ()	()	()	()	()

IF THE PARENTS IN THE HOUSEHOLD IN WHICH YOU LIVE ARE MARRIED, PLEASE COMPLETE SECTION IV OF THE SURVEY AND THEN SKIP TO SECTION VII. IF YOU LIVE WITH A SINGLE PARENT AND YOUR PARENTS ARE DIVORCED OR SEPARATED AND THIS SINGLE PARENT DOES NOT LIVE WITH ANOTHER ADULT, PLEASE SKIP TO SECTION V OF THIS SURVEY. IF YOUR PARENT IS SINGLE BUT LIVING WITH ANOTHER ADULT PRESENT IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD, PLEASE SKIP TO SECTION VI OF THE SURVEY. FINALLY, IF YOUR PARENT IS SINGLE (AND HAS NEVER BEEN MARRIED) OR IS WIDOWED AND DOES NOT CURRENTLY LIVE WITH ANOTHER ADULT, PLEASE SKIP TO SECTION VII OF THIS SURVEY.

IV. In this section, if the parents in the household in which you live are married, please indicate your opinion by checking one response (strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, strongly agree) for each statement. After completing this section, please skip to section VII of the survey.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. My parents work together in directing my life.	1. ()	()	()	()	()
2. One of my parents is not actively involved in decisions concerning me.	2. ()	()	()	()	()
3. If there is some disagreement between parents and children, my parents support each other.	3. ()	()	()	()	()
4. My parent upholds the decisions the other one makes regarding me.	4. ()	()	()	()	()
5. My parents present a united front to me.	5. ()	()	()	()	()
6. My parents frequently disagree over issues concerning me.	6. ()	()	()	()	()

V. In this section, if your parents are divorced or separated and the parent with whom you live does not live with another adult present in your household, please answer the questions below with your single parent and your absent parent in mind. Please indicate your opinion by checking one response (strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, strongly agree) for each statement. After completing this section, please skip to section VII of the survey.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. My parents work together in directing my life.	1. ()	()	()	()	()
2. My absent parent is not actively involved in decisions concerning me.	2. ()	()	()	()	()
3. If there is some disagreement between parents and children, my parents support each other.	3. ()	()	()	()	()
4. My single parent upholds the decisions my absent parent makes regarding me.	4. ()	()	()	()	()
5. My parents present a united front to me.	5. ()	()	()	()	()
6. My parents frequently disagree over issues concerning me.	6. ()	()	()	()	()

VI. In this section, if your parent is single and living with another adult present in your household, please indicate your opinion by checking one response (strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, strongly agree) for each statement. After completing this section, please continue to section VII of the survey.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. The other adult present in my household and my parent work together in directing my life.	1. ()	()	()	()	()
2. The other adult present in my household is not actively involved in decisions concerning me.	2. ()	()	()	()	()
3. If there is some disagreement between adults and children, the other adult present in my household and my parent support each other.	3. ()	()	()	()	()
4. My parent upholds the decisions the other adult present in my household makes regarding me.	4. ()	()	()	()	()
5. The other adult present in my household and my parent present a united front to me.	5. ()	()	()	()	()
6. The other adult present in my household and my parent frequently disagree over issues concerning me.	6. ()	()	()	()	()

VII. All respondents please complete this section. Below are a number of questions concerning various household tasks and chores that you may perform. Please answer each question as indicated.

Please indicate how often you engage in the following activities for the family:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often
1. Caring for younger brothers or sisters before school?	1. ()	()	()	()
2. Caring for younger brothers or sisters after school?	2. ()	()	()	()
3. Doing the laundry?	3. ()	()	()	()
4. Shopping for groceries?	4. ()	()	()	()
5. Cooking dinner?	5. ()	()	()	()
6. Cleaning up after dinner?	6. ()	()	()	()
7. Cleaning the house?	7. ()	()	()	()
8. Mowing/caring for the lawn?	8. ()	()	()	()
9. Running errands for the family?	9. ()	()	()	()
10. Home repairs/maintenance?	10. ()	()	()	()
11. Car repairs/maintenance?	11. ()	()	()	()
12. Planning the family's meals?	12. ()	()	()	()
13. Making out the grocery list?	13. ()	()	()	()
14. Identifying problems that need to be fixed in the house?	14. ()	()	()	()
15. Identifying problems that need to be fixed on the car?	15. ()	()	()	()
16. Delegating tasks to younger brothers or sisters?	16. ()	()	()	()

VIII. Please respond to these questions by circling whether the statement describes you (True) or does not describe you (False).

I sometimes feel resentful when I do not get my way.	True	False
My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant.	True	False
On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.	True	False
There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.	True	False
There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority though I knew they were right.	True	False

IX. This section is meant to give us some idea of you and your family's background. All information will remain confidential and anonymous.

1. What is your sex? Male Female (please circle one)
2. What is your age in years? _____ years
3. What is your mother's occupation? _____
4. What is your father's occupation? _____
5. What is your stepmother's occupation? _____
6. What is your stepfather's occupation? _____
7. Please list the age and sex of all brothers and sisters present in your household.

Age	Sex	Is this person a stepbrother or stepsister? (yes or no)
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

8. Are there other adults who live in your household, besides your parents? (For this question, please include older brothers and sisters who have graduated from high school but who still live at home.)
_____ yes _____ no

If "yes," how many other adults, besides your parents are present in your household?
_____ adults

What are these adults' ages and relationships to you?

Age	Relationship
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

9. With which parent(s) do you currently live? (please check only one response)

- _____ mother and father
- _____ mother and stepfather
- _____ father and stepmother
- _____ mother only
- _____ father only
- _____ other (please specify _____)

10. During your life, how many years have you lived in each type of household listed below?

- With mother and father? _____ years
- With mother and stepfather? _____ years
- With father and stepmother? _____ years
- With mother only? _____ years
- With father only? _____ years
- With one parent and another adult who was not your stepparent? _____ years
- With a legal guardian other than one of your parents? _____ years

11. Do you have a job? yes no

If "yes," what is your job? _____

How many hours per week do you work, on average? _____ hours/week

Approximately how much do you earn every two weeks? \$ _____

What types of things do you spend your money on? (Please give examples of things you might buy for yourself and your family, if you spend any of this money on your family.)

12. Do you get an allowance? yes no

If "yes," how much do you get per month? \$ _____/month

What types of things do you spend your allowance money on?

Why do your parents give you an allowance? (please check all that apply below)

- _____ payment in return for performing chores
- _____ to teach me the value of money
- _____ to give me extra spending money
- _____ to give me money for necessary items
- _____ other (please specify: _____)

YOUR RESPONSES TO ALL QUESTIONS WILL REMAIN STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL AND ANONYMOUS. THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO RESPOND TO THIS SURVEY. WE APPRECIATE YOUR PARTICIPATION.

Appendix 4
PARENTS' COVER LETTER

May 3, 1992

Dear Parent:

I am a doctoral candidate in marketing at Virginia Tech. My dissertation research is on family member roles in purchase decisions and perceptions of parent-teenager relationships. I am interested in learning what both parents and teenagers think about these issues.

Earlier today, your teenager completed a survey on these issues in class. Enclosed is a parental survey on these topics that I would like for you to complete, if you are willing to participate in the project. The questionnaire takes about 20 minutes. Once you have completed your survey, I ask that you place it in the enclosed envelope and seal it. Because the questions asked of you and your teenager are similar, I ask that you not discuss this research with your teenager until after you have placed your completed questionnaire in the sealed envelope. If you do not wish to participate in this project, I would like for you to return the blank survey in the enclosed envelope, unsealed.

I ask that you return the questionnaire to your teenager's class by giving your envelope to your teenager to deliver. I will return to the school tomorrow to collect parents' surveys.

I want to assure you that all responses to this survey will remain anonymous and confidential. Your responses will be combined with those from other parents (and your teenager's will be combined with those from other teenagers) so that individuals cannot be identified. The only purpose of the number in the right-hand corner of your survey is to indicate that you and your teenager belong to the same family: but there is no way to identify what family is represented by which number. Finally, the school will not have access to any responses that you provide.

I know that you, as parents, are busy people, but I hope that you will be able to participate in this research. I am looking forward to learning what both you and your teenagers think about the issues contained in the questionnaire. In addition, if you do participate in this project, I will make a \$4 contribution to the school to be used in whatever student benefitting projects that the school sees fit. If you should have any questions about this research, you may contact me at 703-231-6949. Or, if you wish, you may talk to my dissertation chairperson, Dr. Joe Sirgy, at 703-231-5110. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Tammy Mangleburg

VITA

Tamara F. Mangleburg was born in Fredericksburg, Virginia. She completed her undergraduate, M.B.A., and doctoral studies at Virginia Tech. She has published a review of research on children's influence in purchase decisions and has co-authored an article on international development. She has also worked as a copyeditor for Journal of Consumer Research. Her research interests include: family decision-making and children's consumer socialization, mass communication effects on persuasion, and issues related to international marketing and development. She is currently an assistant professor of marketing and teaches consumer behavior and marketing management.

A handwritten signature in black ink, reading "Tamara F. Mangleburg". The signature is written in a cursive style with a large, looping initial "T".