A COMPARISON OF THE CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF FAMILY FUNCTIONING AND MACCOBY AND MARTIN'S PARENTING TYPOLOGIES

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(ABSTRACT)

The fields of family studies and child development share many similar concepts, yet the relationship between the two is rarely tested. This study is an exploratory examination of the conceptual similarities between the Circumplex Model of Family Functioning (Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell, 1979) and the Maccoby and Martin (1983) model of parenting typologies. Adaptability in the Olson model is conceptually similar to the demandingness/control dimension desribed by Maccoby and Martin, while cohesion is conceptually similar to the warmth-hostility dimension. It was hypothesized that each parenting type would exhibit specific family functioning styles.

Participants were recruited through ten area day care centers. Thirty-five mothers and twenty-four fathers participated. Self-report and observational methods were used. Parents were administered FACES III and the PARI at group meetings at the respective centers. Seventeen families agreed to participate in an at-home session, where two observational game-tasks, the Guess the Rules game to measure adaptability and the Kvebaek Family Sculpture Task to measure cohesion, were completed.

Analysis of variance, correlation coeffecients, and chi-square statistics were used to test the hypothesized relationships. Two anomolous findings occurred: almost half the parents described their families as chaotic and over half the parents were typed as uninvolved. These findings influenced the results. The results suggest some support for the conceptual similarities between the models. Correlations between the FACES and PARI subscales were low but significant, suggesting adaptability and authoritarian control, as well as cohesion and hostility-rejection are related. ANOVA results

suggested that the parenting group means for the FACES subscale scores were significantly different, and in directions that support the model. Parents who described themselves as permissive perceived themselves as the most adaptable and parents who percieved themselves as uninvolved perceived their families as the least cohesive.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction and Review of Literature

Introduction

Few are the areas of inquiry where the fields of family studies and child development come together. The works of Belsky and others (e.g., Belsky, 1979; Kreppner, Paulsen, & Schuetze, 1982) in the area of transition to parenthood are some of the exceptions. However, beyond this developmental transition there is little research that combines areas that are traditionally considered "family studies" and "child development". This study, a part of a larger research project, has bridged the areas of parenting and family functioning.

Olson and his colleagues (Olson, Russel, & Sprenkle, 1983; Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell, 1979) have developed a circumplex model based on two dimensions of family functioning: cohesion and adapatability. Cohesion is defined as the emotional bonding between family members (Olson, 1986). The continuum ranges from the disengaged family, in which members are distant from each other and have

little emotional bonding, to enmeshed family members who are overinvolved with each other and are very close to each other. Olson has suggested that the middle levels of cohesion, separated and connected, are healthy and functional levels for the family. The dimension of adaptability is characterized as the family's ability to change, to be flexible with family roles, rules and the power structure (Olson, et al., 1983). Adaptability ranges from rigid, when the family is not able to change, to chaotic, when the family changes very easily. The middle ranges of adaptability, structured and flexible adaptability, are also considered to be the most functional (Olson, et al., 1983).

Maccoby and Martin (1983), in a comprehensive review of the parenting literature, devised a four-fold typology of parenting behaviors. The typology is constructed along two axes. The first axis is defined as responsiveness. This dimension deals with how parents respond to the child and how closely parent and child responses are linked.

Earlier work had developed a similar dimension, the love - hostility dimension (for example, Schaefer, 1959), describing the parent's emotional tie to the child. The second dimension of the Maccoby and Martin model describes the level of maturity demands made upon the child by the parents. One pole of the continuum represents parents who make very few demands upon the child, often described as permissive; while parents at the other end make many strict demands.

Upon perusal of the two models, it seems there are areas of overlap. It seems the two models, from two different areas of study, may be describing similar phenomena. The parenting types as described by Maccoby and Martin (1983) seem to describe subsets of behavior in the family types described by the Circumplex model. These relationships will be explored further later in the discussion.

This study explored the links between the two models. Using both observational and self-report methodology, the relationships between Olson's

circumplex model and the Maccoby and Martin typology are examined.

Review of the literature

The purpose of this review is to acquaint the reader with the salient information about Olson's Circumplex model and the parenting model developed by Maccoby and Martin. Therefore, the history and a description of each of these models will be discussed. Following this, the discussion examines the conceptual similarites between the two models, and provides support for the purpose and research question of the study.

Circumplex model of family functioning

The orginal paper describing the Circumplex model of marital and family systems was published in 1979 (Olson, et al., 1979). The model seems to have

grown out of frustration with dealing with a growing list of terms related to family functioning, but seemingly not to each other. The authors described how they reviewed recent research on family functioning and determined that these myriad terms were related to two underlying concepts: cohesion and adaptability. These two concepts were inductively developed through the clustering of terms in the existing literature, and not through an empirical factor analysis (Olson, et al., 1979).

Olson and colleagues chose a circumplex model to integrate the two concepts, rather than using the dimensions separately as purely descriptive in nature. They found support for their use of a circumplex model and their choice of dimensions in the work of Angell (1936). Angell studied the adaptation of 50 intact families who suffered at least a 25% drop in income during the depression. He found eight different family types that could be described by a circumplex model using integration (Olson's cohesion) and adaptability.

In the original and later papers, Olson and his colleagues (Olson, et al., 1979; Olson, Russell, and Sprenkle, 1980; Olson, et al., 1983) have discussed how the dimensions they developed are similar to other models developed in the field such as Kantor and Lehr (1975) and the Beavers systems model (Lewis, Beavers, Gossert, & Phillips, 1976). The similarity between models has also been used to support the validity of the Circumplex model (Olsen, et al., 1983).

The Circumplex model (see Figure 1) describes 16 family types along the two dimensions of cohesion and adaptabilty. There is a curvilinear relationship between both dimensions and family functioning. These two dimensions will be discussed more thoroughly in later sections. The two other components of the model, creativity and communication, will be addressed only briefly, as they are not pertinent to the study at hand. Table 1 describes the hypothesized communication styles along the two dimensions. Sprenkle and Olsen (1978)

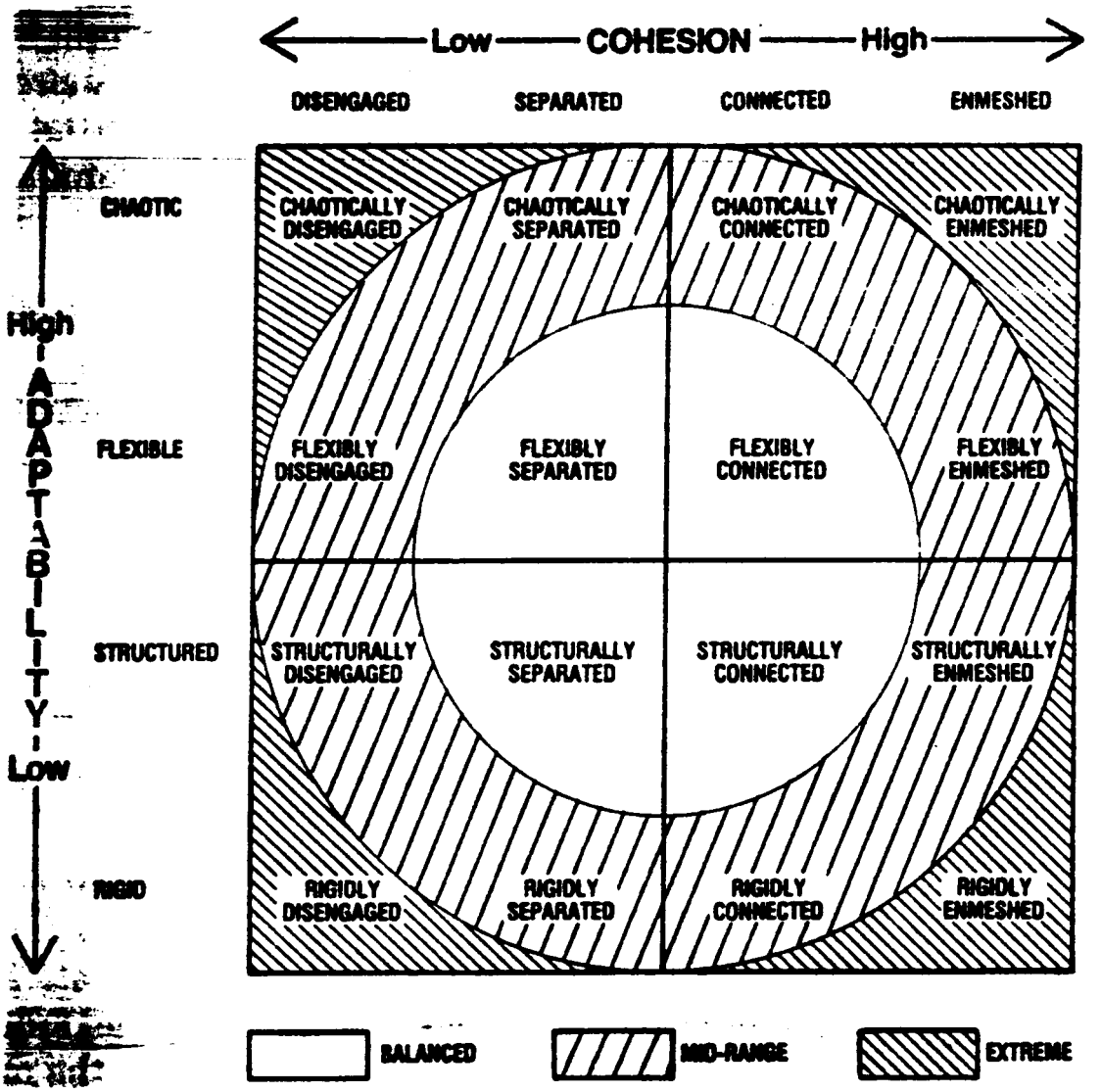

Figure 1.

The Circumplex Model of Family Functioning (Olson, et al., 1979)

Table 1

Hypothesized Communication Styles for the Various Family Styles (Olson, 1986, p. 343)

HIGH

Disorganized Structure
- endless negotiation
- sporadic, diffuse communication
- shifting, confused power
- irresponsibility

Balanced Relationship

Emotional Separation
- forced emotional distance
- artificial barrier between self, others as to goals and needs
- distancer/pursuer
- emotional reactivity (anxiety, anger, guilt)

- successful negotiation
- effective communication
- power over self
- responsibility for self
- adult-to-adult interactions
- cooperation plus assertiveness
- fair, thoughtful goals and needs

Emotional Enmeshment
- emotional fusion
- confusion of self, other as to goals and needs
- pursuer/distancer
- emotional reactivity (anxiety, anger, guilt)

Rigid Structure
- little negotiation
- fixed patterns of communication
- power over others (or manipulation)
- overresponsible/ overdependent patterns

ADAPTATION

LOW ——— HIGH

COHESION

and Russell (1980) elaborate on the creative dimension of the model. They suggest the more creative the family is at finding alternate behaviors and solutions, the better the family will be at adapting to change.

The conceptual basis of the model is families with balanced levels (the four middle family types) are the most viable. In the original paper, the group suggested that the four middle typologies were the most flexible; the midrange and extreme families would more often be dysfunctional (Olson, et al., 1979). The group's position has changed over time. The model now takes into consideration other family characteristics, such as ethnic group and family expectations. If a family, either due to cultural or individual expectations, considers a more "extreme" level of a dimension to be appropriate, then this level will be considered functional. For example, Mormon families generally strive for family togetherness; it would not be dysfunctional for these families to be enmeshed because it is a culturally encouraged goal (Olson, et al., 1983).

The moderate levels of either dimension are considered more functional because the family is able to develop a greater range of behaviors within these moderate levels than in the extreme levels. Families move along the dimensions during times of both normative and non-normative stress, as well as with developmental level. Newlywed couples tend to be more connected/enmeshed while families with adolescent children tend to be more separated/disengaged. The family responds to developmental and individual needs by moving along the dimensions. Families which begin from and easily return to the moderate levels of cohesion and adaptability can exhibit a broad range of possible behaviors. The families who begin at extreme levels often have more narrow ranges of behavior and are less able to cope with the changes that come with developmental and individual needs (Olson, et al., 1979). Communication, the third element of the model, becomes important to the family as it moves along the dimensions. Olson and his colleagues

suggest that it is the family's ability to communicate that eases transitions along the dimensions (Olson, et al., 1979).

This model was developed for both research and clinical use. Objectives of the model include integrating the two dimensions of cohesion and adaptabilty; conceptualizing how families maintain a dynamic balance between stabilty and change; describing the properties of families rather than only individuals or dyads; and developing a model that explains family adaptation to stress throughout the family life cycle. Another important objective has been to "provide a way of integrating concepts of the individual as a system with concepts of the marital and family systems" (1979, p. 16). This objective suggests the model is amenable to adapting itself to the interface and exchange between different sub-systems and between sub-systems and the system itself. For example, the model could be used for studying how the parent-child subsystem influences and is influenced by the family as a

whole system. This adaptability on the part of the model is necessary to bridge the gap between family functioning and parent-child interaction.

Empirical support of the circumplex model

Empirical support for the Circumplex model is tied to empirical support for FACES (Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale), a self-report instrument developed by the Olson group to measure cohesion and adaptability for both clinical and research purposes (Olson, et al., 1979; Olson et al., 1980; Olson, 1986). Since its inception, the scale has been updated twice. The present scale, FACES III, is a 20-item scale designed to measure perceived and ideal descriptions of a family system. Further information on the scale is provided in the instrumentation section of the methodology chapter.

Empirical verification of the Circumplex model has, for the most part, examined the model's ability to classify clinical and non-clinical families into

the appropriate family typologies (extreme for

clinical, balanced for non-clinical). Olson (1986) stated the cummulative research supported the model's ability to differentiate between families.

The first empirical test of the Circumplex model was published by Sprenkle and Olson (1978). The study compared clinical and non-clinical marital couples rather than families. The SIMFAM (Simulated Family Activities Measure) was used to measure the leadership styles, control or power, creativity, and supportive behaviors between couples. The findings were supportive of the model, although not all hypotheses were found to be statistically significant. During stressful trials, equalitarian leadership (balanced adaptability) was associated with adequate functioning. Greater levels of creativity, and higher levels of support were associated with higher functioning. The authors suggested the results were partially supportive of the model.

The next published study was conducted by Russell (1979). The sample was composed of 31 middle-class, Catholic families with an adolescent daughter aged 14 to 18. Cohesion, adaptability, support, and creativity were measured using a revised SIMFAM game, a self-report measure of adaptation, and a self-report measure of cohesion similar to the Bowerman and Bahr identification scale. Russell found a lack of relationship between the self-report and behavioral measures. The cohesion measures did suggest a curvilinear relationship between functioning and cohesion. The measures of adaptability generally supported the hypothesis that shared leadership is more functional than more extreme styles. The findings generally supported the hypotheses that families who are more supportive of each other are more functional, and that families who are more creative are more functional.

Unpublished work by Bell (1980) and Portner (1980) in which the original FACES was developed offer some support for the model (cited in Russell and Olson, 1983). The samples for these studies

in therapy and a control group of families without problems (Olson, et al., 1980).

Clarke (1984, cited by Olson, 1986) compared families with schizophrenics, families with neurotics, families who had previously participated in therapy, and a no-therapy control group. His results supported the model. Many families in the no-therapy group were categorized as balanced while many families in the neurotic and schizophrenic groups were categorized as extreme.

Another unpublished study (Olson and Killorin, 1984, cited in Olson, 1986) found differences between chemically dependent and nondependent families. The authors found a higher number of alcoholic families were in the extreme family types (21%) while only 4% of nondependent families were typed as extreme. Sixty-five percent of the normal families, whereas only 38% of the dependent families, were found in the balanced type.

Alexander, Johnson, and Carter (1984) examined and revised the FACES, then tested its psychometric properties on a sample of 42 clinical and 206 nonclinical families. They found little agreement between family members on cohesion and adaptability scores. Therapists' ratings of the clinic families' adaptability and cohesion (using the definitions published by the Olson group in 1978) were unrelated to the families' self-report ratings. These results bring to the fore two problem areas in family measurement : how to combine divergent, individual responses within the family into a group/family score, and how to deal with the lack of relationship between subjective, self-report measures and objective/behavioral measures.

The Alexander group (1984) also found the FACES scale did not differentiate between the clinical and nonclinical samples for adaptability or cohesion. Only the social desirability scale significantly differentiated between clinical and non-clinical families; the non-clinical group answered these

questions with far more conventional and socially desirable answers. The authors suggested there are serious theoretical and practical problems associated with the FACES, covertly implying problems with the Circumplex model also.

Carnes (1985) cited in Olson (1986) studied the families of origin and procreation of sex offenders. The results suggested that a high number of sex offenders came from extreme familiy types (49%) and currently lived in an extreme family type (66%). Only 11% came from balanced family types, and 19% of their current families were typed as balanced. This compares with the control group in which 57% of the families were balanced.

A study similar in intent to the Alexander, et al., study (1984) was published by Rodick, Henggeler, and Hanson (1986). This sample was comprised of 56 father-absent male adolescents and their mothers. Half the sample was delinquent; the

control group of non-delinquent dyads was matched on demographic variables. The sample completed the FACES, a demographic questionnaire and participated in a behavioral measure of communication. Of the nondelinquent families, 69% were typed as balanced, open families whereas 7% of the delinquent families were typed as balanced. Well over half the delinquent families (17 of the 29) were classified as chaotically enmeshed. Most of the non-delinquent families were typed as balanced (20 of 29); eight of those remaining families were typed as chaotically enmeshed. These authors found FACES and the model generally successful in differentiating delinquent from non-delinquent families.

Cohesion

The definition of cohesion has undergone change since publication of the 1979 paper. In the original paper, cohesion was defined as "the emotional bonding members have with one another and the degree of individual autonomy a person experiences in the family system" (Olson, et al., 1979, p. 5). By 1983, however, the definition had been streamlined to include only emotional bonding between members; the degree of individual autonomy was no longer considered in the definition of the dimension. It has, however, still been used to desribe family styles. Olson and colleagues identified at least forty concepts they considered to be related to the dimension of cohesion, such as boundaries, coalitions, pseudo-mutuality, differentiated self, and undifferentiated family ego mass (Olson, et al., 1980).

Families can be placed into four levels along the dimension of cohesion. Families with limited levels of attachment and commitment and high levels of individual autonomy are considered to be disengaged, the lower extreme of the dimension

(Olson, et al., 1983). This is conceptually similar to disengagement, psuedo-hostility, and emotional divorce (Olson, et al., 1980).

At the opposite end of the continuum is enmeshment; individuals in these families exhibit over-identification with the family, as well as high levels of family loyalty and consensus such that individuation of family members is prevented (Olson, et al., 1983). Related terms in the field include psuedo-mutuality, binding, and emotional fusion (Olson, et al., 1980).

The remaining levels of cohesion, separated and connected, are considered the balanced levels. Separated families exhibit moderately low levels of cohesion; connected families exhibit moderately high cohesion. The Olson group found fewer terms describing these moderate levels, but related terms would be mutuality, interdependence, and differentiated self (Olson, et al., 1980). As stated earlier, the model suggests that the moderate

levels of cohesion, separated and flexible, are most often the most viable levels of family functioning, while the extreme levels are associated with dysfunction.

This concept of cohesion has been used by many researchers since. As Olson and his colleagues suggested (1979) there are many terms and related concepts. The following discussion will describe some of the conceptual models that use cohesion or a similar concept in the model.

Angell's model (1936), described earlier in the paper, used the term integration for what today could be termed cohesion. Angell found that integration was related to how well families could adapt to major drops in income due to the Depression. Families who were more integrated or cohesive were better able to adapt to the changes in income.

Minuchin's work (Minuchin, Montalvo, Guerney, Rosman, & Schumer, 1967; Minuchin, Rosman, & Baker, 1978) was some of the first to emphasize the

importance of cohesion in family functioning. The thrust of this work has dealt with boundaries between subsystems within the system of the family. The work done at both the Wiltwyck school and the Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic have described the effects of enmeshed or disengaged family functioning on the individuals in the family. Minuchin and structural therapy brought the concept of cohesiveness to the fore in both the areas of family therapy and family studies.

Other systemic therapies have continued to consider the family's boundaries and cohesiveness when determining treatment modes. Strategic therapy (Madanes, 1981) and the Milan group's Paradox and Counterparadox (Selvini Palazzoli, Boscolo, Cecchin, & Prata, 1978) both consider the family's level of cohesion when developing the treatment plan for an individual family.

Descriptions of "normal family functioning" have also noted the importance of subsystem boundaries and family cohesion. The work of Kantor and Lehr (1975), the Beavers-Timberlawn group (Beavers, 1982), and the McMaster Model of Family Functioning (Epstein, Bishop, & Baldwin, 1982) each suggest the importance of boundaries and cohesion in healthy family functioning. Each has its own measures and methods of study, as well as its own retinue of studies supporting its hypotheses.

However, these models do not define the concept in quite the same way as the Circumplex model as well as among themselves. Kantor and Lehr describe families that are similar to the Circumplex's enmeshed, balanced, and disengaged families; yet do not suggest any one type is more healthy than another. Similar to the Circumplex model, the McMaster model also posits family cohesion as a continuum in which moderate levels are the most healthy.

The Beavers-Timberlawn model defines the cohesion continuum in a different way (Beavers & Voeller, 1983). These authors argue with the Olson interpretation of moderate levels of cohesion as optimal. They suggest unhealthy families are characterized by poor sub-system boundaries that shift between diffuse to rigid, while healthy families have clear boundaries and are at the opposite end of the continuum. This difference of theoretical conceptualization has produced an interchange of comments between the respective authors (for example Beavers & Voeller, 1983; Green, Kolevson, & Vosler, 1985).

Cohesion has been considered a resource by several models of family stress and coping. Hill's ABCX model (1958) is perhaps the most notable. Hill's "B" is the family's resources, including the family's integration: family coherence, unity and affection. McCubbin and Patterson (1983) extended Hill's model to the Double ABCX model. They also consider family cohesion as an important resource in coping with stress.

Reiss and Oliveri (1980) also used a concept similar to cohesion : coordination. Based on studies of family problem solving, they found three intrinsic coping abilities families had (or did not have) which were related to the family's response to stress and crisis. Coordination among family members is one of these three coping abilities.

Cohesion has been measured by both questionnaire/survey methods, such as the FACES III; and by behavioral measures, such as the Kvebaeck Family Sculpture Task. Russell (1980, p. 459) states measures of cohesion have ranged from loose ratings of "we feelingness" to counting the number of agreements and disagreements in family interaction. Both the questionnaire/survey and the observational/behavioral measure have the advantages and disadvantages attendant to their respective research methods. Using both questionnaire and behavioral measures gives the researcher a broader and more comprehensive view of the family.

Adaptation

The second dimension in the Circumplex model describes the family's flexibility and abilty to deal with change. The original definition of adaptability is:

> the ability of a marital/family system to change its power structure, role relationships, and relationship rules in response to situational and developmental stress (Olsen, et al., 1979, p. 12).

This definition assumes that the functional family must maintain a balance between stabilty and change. The definition of adaptability has not been revised in later papers. Terms that are related to adaptability include: leadership, implicit/explicit rules, problem-solving, and feedback loops (Olson, et al., 1979).

The dimension of adaptability also has four levels (refer to Figure 1). Rigid families exhibit an extremely low level of adaptability. These families are characterized by being almost inflexible. They usually have a rigid,

stereotypical role structure; many explicit and few implicit rules which are strictly enforced and a discipline style which is usually very strict and autocratic; poor problem-solving due partly to limited negotiation and few positive feedback loops (Olson, et al., 1980).

Chaotic families are at the opposite extreme. These families have limited leadership and the discipline tends to be permissive. Roles shift dramatically, as do the rules, which are usually implicit and arbitrarily enforced. Chaotic families also have poor problem-solving, but their difficulties come from endless negotiation and mostly positive feedback loops (Olson, et al., 1980).

The moderate levels of adaptability are termed structured (moderately high) and flexible (moderately low). Although each reflects its end of the continuum, both these family types are generally described as democratic, having good problem solving, sharing family roles, and generally

enforcing the family rules (Olson, et al., 1980). The Circumplex model predicts those families with moderate levels of adaptability will be more functional than those with extreme levels.

Adaptability can be measured by both pen and pencil measures such as the FACES III and behavioral/observational measures such as the Simulated Family Activities Measure (SIMFAM). As with cohesion, both types of meaures provide the researcher with different types of data. This suggests a more complete understanding of a family's adaptability would come from using both a questionnaire and a behavioral measure.

Parent typologies

Maccoby and Martin (1983) outline the history of the parenting literature. They suggest most of the earliest research, using mostly survey methods and factor analysis, had little theoretical basis. The work of Becker (1964), Sears, Maccoby, and Levin (1957), and Schaefer (1959) can be characterized as

such. Schaefer (1959) factor analyzed data from several early studies to devise a circumplex model of maternal behavior. He found two bi-polar dimensions which were labeled autonomy vs. control and love vs. hostility. Autonomy was not defined, but it was contrasted by its polar opposite, control.

In this model controlling mothers were described as intrusive, fostering dependence, anxious about and overly protective of the child. The love vs. hostility dimension was characterized by positive evaluation of the child and expressions of affection at the love end; and by ignoring, punitiveness, and perceiving the child as a burden at the hostility end (Schaefer, 1959). Becker developed a four-fold typology of parenting based on the similar dimensions of warmth/hostility and restrictive/permissive (1964). However, neither Becker nor Schaefer provided a sound theoretical basis for their classification schemes.

Baldwin's (1955) work was considerably different. Observational data rather than self-report data were used to classify parenting behaviors. The findings produced a dimension described as parental warmth/coldness, similar to those identified by Becker and Schaefer. However, Baldwin found two other dimensions somewhat related to the restrictiveness/permissiveness dimension: democracy vs. autocracy and emotional involvement vs. detachment. Democratic parents do not make themselves the source of control upon the child, but communicate to the child the restrictions of the outside world. Baldwin's work also had a theoretical basis for the dimensions produced.

More recent work on parenting has used observational and multi-method methodologies and has been more fully grounded in theory, especially ethological and learning theories (Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

Ainsworth's work (for example, Ainsworth, Bell, & Stayton, 1971) with attachment has led to the development of a dimension related to love vs.

hostility. The dimension describes the responsiveness of the parent to the child and is related to how parent and child behaviors are linked. It does not address the affection aspect of the love vs. hostility dimension (Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

The dimension of autonomy vs. control has undergone some changes. Baumrind's work (for example Baumrind & Black, 1967) has led to the development of a dimension named parental demandingness. This dimension describes the consistency of discipline and the level of maturity demands made upon the child.

After reviewing the literature, Maccoby and Martin (1983) devised a typology of parenting behavior that is associated with child outcome behaviors. The two dimensions they identified are parental responsiveness and demandingness (see Table 2). The typlogy creates four parenting patterns: authoritarian-autocratic, indulgent-permissive,

Table 2

Maccoby and Martin's Parenting Typologies (1983, p. 39)

	Rejecting Unresponsive Parent - centered	Accepting Responsive Child - centered
Demanding, controlling	Authoritarian - autocratic	Authoritative reciprocal
Undemanding, low in control attempts	Uninvolved - undifferent	Permissive - indulgent

authoritative-reciprocal, and indifferent-uninvolved. Each of the patterns will now be discussed.

The authoritarian-autocratic pattern of parenting is characterized as unresponsive and parent-centered. Maccoby and Martin (1983) state that in this pattern the demands made by parents on the child and the child's demands on the parents are not balanced; "parents' demands take the form of edicts" and the "... parents place strict limits on allowable expression of ...needs by children" (p. 39). There is little or no negotiation or bargaining about rules or discipline; verbal communication between parent and child tends to be one way - parent to child. Parents value their authority and guard it from their children. The child's deviation from what is expected of him/her is severely punished. Punishment usually takes the form of power assertion; the parent asserts physical, emotional or economic power over the child. These parents tend to value obedience, respect for authority, tradition, and the preservation of order. Parents have an absolute set

of both behavior and attitude standards they expect their child to meet.

Maccoby and Martin's (1983) indulgent-permissive pattern is characterized by responsive, child-centered, and undemanding parenting behaviors. These parents take a relaxed and tolerant view toward the child's behavior; they make few demands or rules for the child, do not often punish the child, and generally avoid asserting their authority on the child. Maccoby and Martin (1983) point out that permissiveness typically occurs when the child is behaving in a manner that violates a social norm, such as aggressive or sexual impulses; parents who allow socially approved or desired behavior are permissive.

The third pattern is that of authoritative-reciprocal parenting. This is a pattern of behavior where parents expect the child to be responsible for demands made upon him/her, and the parents are reciprocally responsible to the child's demands. Parents expect mature behavior from the child, firmly set and enforce rules and use sanctions against the child if needed. These parents

recognize both their own rights and the child's rights, encourage the child to be an independent individual, and encourage open communication between parent and child (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

The last pattern described by Maccoby and Martin (1983) is that of indifferent-uninvolved. These parents are unresponsive, undemanding, and parent-centered. Unresponsive, like undemanding, is relative. If the child is still a part of the household, then there is most likely some level of emotional commitment to the child. Uninvolved parents seem to distance themselves from the child and to be motivated to behave in such a way as to minimize the cost of interaction with the child. Maccoby and Martin (1983) suggest that as the involvement with the child decreases, so will the number of parenting functions in which the parents participate; some parents may only participate in functions that are related to maintaining parental comfort and convenience.

Integration of the Models

It is intuitively pleasing that parenting style and family functioning are related. Parent-child interaction should influence family functioning; family interaction and functioning should influence the subsystem of parent and child. Satir (1964; cited by Olsen, et al., 1979) comments:

> The parents are the architects of the family and the marriage relationship is the key to all other family relationships. When there is difficulty with the marital pair, there is more than likely problems in parenting (1964, p. 1)

Theoretical support abounds in systems theory; subsystems and the system itself are recursively connected. Stability and change in one affects stability and change in the other (for example, Keeney, 1983; Keeney and Ross, 1985). However, the empirical evidence for this relationship is limited.

The transition to parenthood literature is beginning to include consideration of the relationship between the marital relationship, parenting, and the infant. Researchers have begun to find that satisfaction with parenting is associated with marital quality, the opposite

direction of the recursive relationship Satir suggested (Belsky, 1987). This developmental transition is a relatively easy time to study these recursive relationships because the child's contribution to the relationship, although certainly not insignificant, is easier to code than that of an older child.

An interest in the relationship between parent and child relationships and family structure variables has recently emerged (for example : Kidwell, 1981; Pfouts, 1980; and Richardson, Abramowitz, Asp, & Petersen, 1986). These studies have looked at the effects of such variables as birth order, age spacing, and number of siblings on parent-child relationships, especially parent-adolescent relationships. But these studies have not investigated the tie between the two fields.

One study that began to bridge the gap between child development and family studies was completed by Cheatham (1981). He analyzed the relationship between undercontrolled/ overcontrolled children (as determined by the Child Development Checklist) and the family's adaptability and cohesion scores.

Cheatham found a relationship between the two variable sets. Families with overcontrolled children tended to have higher cohesion scores while families with undercontrolled children tended to have lower cohesion scores. The results for adaptability were less clear.

When comparing the Circumplex and parenting models, similarities between the models become evident. Each of Maccoby and Martin's parenting types seem to readily fit into the Circumplex model. Each parenting type exhibits characteristcs of certain family types in the model. In Figure 2 the four parenting types have been superimposed onto the Circumplex model to make these relationships more clear. The following section of the discussion will support the above classifications.

Authoritarian parents, as described earlier, do not allow discussion about rules or roles, limit the child's independence of thought, and are, overall, very controlling of their child's behavior. These characteristics are indicative of family functioning low on the adaptability dimension but relatively

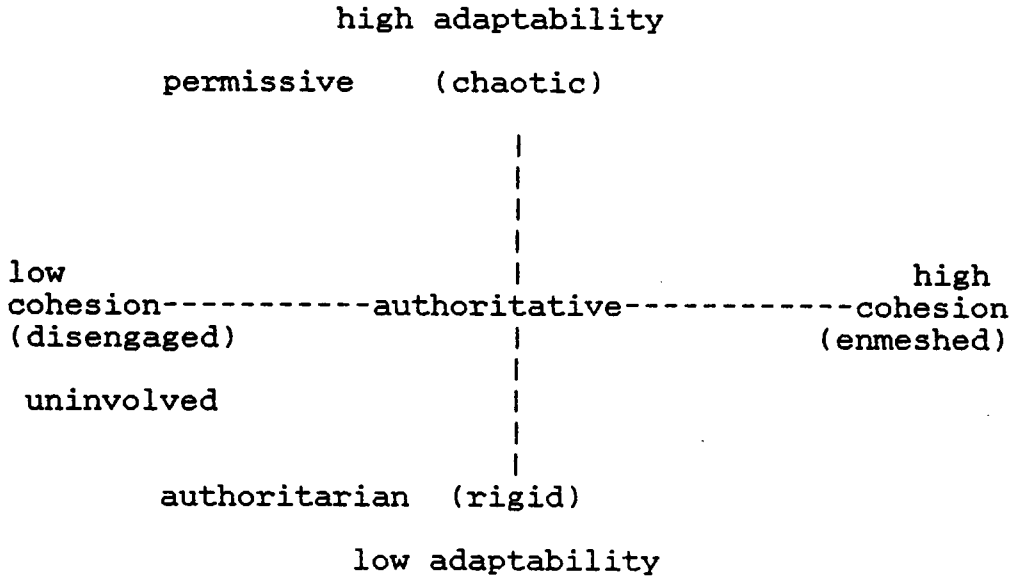

Figure 2.

Imposing the Parenting Typologies on the Circumplex Model, Developed to Illustrate the Integration of both Models

high on the cohesion dimension. According to the Olson group (1980), families who are rigid practise authoritarian leadership, are overly strict disciplinarians, limit negotiation, play rigid roles, and strictly enforce rigid rules. Each of these characteristics also fits the authoritarian method of parenting. Enmeshed families exhibit high dependence of family members, closed external boundaries, little private space or time for the individual, and most recreational time is spent with the family (Olson, et al., 1980). Maccoby and Martin (1983) do not specify the emotional relationship in the authoritarian parent-child relationship. However, they emphasize the controlling nature of the relationship, that parents make most if not all decisions for the child, and that the child's needs and individuality are of lesser importance than those of the parents. These characteristics would suggest a family with a relatively high level of cohesion. Based on these descriptions, one hypothesis of this study is that those parents who describe their parenting type as authoritarian will also describe their family styles

as very cohesive, but not very adaptable. This family style falls into the lower right quadrant of the model.

Uninvolved parenting has been placed in the lower left quadrant, indicating the family to be disengaged and somewhat rigid. Disengaged families are characterized by: high independence of family members, rigid generational boundaries, maximized time and space between family members, and decisions being primarily the responsibility of the individual (Olson, et al., 1980). Compare this to the uninvolved parenting type described as : relatively low emotional commitment, parents heavily involved with other activities with little time/energy to give to the child, a desire to keep the child at a distance, decreased levels of interaction, and dispensing with parenting functions considered inconvenient. The two definitions are similar. A description of the rigid family was reviewed above. The uninvolved parent family is not as classically rigid as the authoritarian family; however, the emphasis on what parents decide as appropriate, and the limited parent-child

negotiation are suggestive of a moderately rigid structure. This is tempered by possible dramatic rule shifts (when parents deem the rule inconvenient) and possibly lenient/unpredicatable discipline (when discipline is inconvenient) which are more characteristic of flexible/chaotic families. A second hypothesis of the study is that those parents who describe their parenting type as uninvolved will also describe their family styles as having low levels of both cohesion and adaptability. This places their described family style in the lower left quadrant of the model.

In the upper left quadrant is the permissive parent. This parenting style typifies chaotic, somewhat disengaged family functioning. Olson and colleagues (1980) described chaotic families as having limited leadership, lenient discipline, and arbitrarily enforced rules that may change with little explanation. Permissive parents avoid imposing their own rules and authority on the child, avoid punishment, and are very tolerant of the child's appropriate and inapproppriate behavior. Characteristics that suggest these families to be

somewhat disengaged include the parents' encouraging the child to make his/her own decisions, regulate his/her own behavior, and essentially be as independent as possible (Maccoby and Martin, 1983). The third hypothesis of this study is that those parents who describe their parenting type as permissive will likewise describe their family style as adaptable, but not cohesive. This describes the upper left quadrant of the circumplex model.

The authoritative parent is positioned in the balanced areas of the model. The parenting type exhibited by these families suggest relatively balanced levels of cohesion and adaptabilty. These families are characterized by open communication between parents and child, which includes : negotiation; respect for each other's needs, identity, and independence; clear, relatively consistent rules with relatively consistent, predictable discipline; and clear parental leadership (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). These characteristics are congruent with balanced levels of adaptability and slightly separated levels of cohesion (see Table 3 for a summary of

Table 3.

Characteristics of Balanced Families (Adapted from Olson, et al., 1983).

	COHESION	
	separated	connected
emotional bonding	moderate independence	moderate dependence dependence
decision-making	mostly individual, with joint shared on family issues	individual decisions shared, most made with family in mind
time	time spent alone and together is important	time together important, time spent alone allowed
boundaries and coalitions	clear generational boundaries and marital coalition clear	clear generational boundaries and marital coalition strong
	ADAPTABILITY	
	flexible	structured
negotiation	good	structured
discipline	democratic, unpredictable consequences	democratic, predictable consequences
rules	some changes, often enforced	few changes, usually enforced

flexible/structured adaptability and connected/separated cohesion). The last hypothesis of the study places those parents who describe their parenting type as authoritative in the balanced areas of the model, because it is predicted these parents will also describe their family styles as balanced in both cohesion and adaptability.

Research Question and Purpose

The above discussion serves to introduce the general research question to be answered by the study : Is there a relationship between the Circumplex model of family functioning and Maccoby and Martin's (1983) typology of parenting behavior. The previous discussion has presented conceptual support for a relationship between the two models; however, there is no empirical evidence for this supposition. Therefore, this study is exploratory in nature. The purpose of the present study is to empirically test the relationship between the models, using both self-report and observational

methods of study. Empirical support for the relationship of the two models could be an important influence in both family studies and child development. Such an empirical test of models representing two different fields of study could open up the door for further investigation between these fields. This could only improve our understanding of the relationships between the whole family system, the marital dyad, the parent-child relationship, and the child him/herself; therefore widening our understanding of human behavior as a whole.

General Hypotheses

* The perceptions of family style by those parents who describe their parenting type as authoritarian will fall in the lower right quadrant of the Circumplex model

* The perception of family style of those parents who describe their parenting type as uninvolved will fall in the lower left quadrant of the Circumplex model

* The perceptions of family style of those parents who describe their parenting type as permissive will fall in the upper left quadrant of the Cicumplex model

* The perceptions of family style of those parents who describe their parenting type as authoritative will fall in the middle, balanced area of the Circumplex model

Research Hypotheses

* Parents who describe their parenting type as authoritarian will also perceive their family style as having low levels of adaptability

* Parents who describe their parenting type as authoritarian will also perceive their family style as having medium to high levels of cohesion

* Parents who describe their parenting type as uninvolved will also perceive their family style as having medium to low levels of adaptability

* Parents who describe their parenting type as uninvolved also perceive their family style as having low levels of cohesion

* Parents who describe their parenting type as permissive will also perceive their family style as having high levels of adaptability

* Parents who describe their parenting type as permissive will also perceive their family style as having low to medium levels of cohesion

* Parents who describe their parenting type as authoritative will also perceive their family style as having medium levels of adaptability

* Parents who describe their parenting type as authoritative will also perceive their family style as having medium levels of cohesion

CHAPTER II

Methods

This study, in conjunction with another study, explored the relationship between parenting and family functioning. The associated study involved the administration of two parenting scales to a sample of 59 parents with a child aged 3 to 5 years. One scale, the Parent Attitude Research Instrument (PARI), is widely used to assess parental attitudes toward parenting. The second scale, the Parenting Behavior Inventory (PBI), was developed to assess and classify parenting behaviors according to Maccoby and Martin's (1983) four parenting types. The PARI, a well accepted measure of parenting style, was used to validate the PBI. As part of this study FACES III was also administered. In addition, 30 of the 59 parents agreed to participate in an at-home session. They completed game-like tasks to measure aspects of cohesion and adaptability in family functioning. Results from these tasks were also used to validate the PBI.

Participants

All area child care centers and nursery school programs in Blacksburg and Montgomery County and several outside the county were asked to participate in the study. Centers outside of Blacksburg were included in an effort to provide a more heterogeneous population than is present in the town itself. Ten centers agreed to participate. The sample was drawn from these 10 child care centers. These centers were provided with letters for parents in order to solicit volunteer families. Child care centers and nursery schools were used to identify the sample because 1) they have a ready population that fits the requirements listed below and 2) the Virginia Tech Lab School (sponsoring the research project) had a good relationship with these centers, increasing the chances they would be cooperative.

Intact families were solicited to validate the PBI, as well as to provide more complete data from the observational tasks; however, not all families were intact, nor did both parents in all intact families participate. Families with children aged

three to five years were used because the PBI was constructed for families of preschool age children.

Incentive for participation for the families in the combination of the studies was 5, $25.00 gift certificates to Wade's grocery stores.

Measures

FACES III.

The FACES III is the third form of the FACES scale developed by Olson and his colleagues in tandem with the Circumplex model. FACES III measures perceived and ideal family functioning by having individual family members complete the form twice - once for how the family is currently functioning, and again for how they would like the family to be. It is designed to be administered to all members of the family over 12 years of age.

The scale has 20 items and two sub-scales, representing the two dimensions of the Circumplex model - adaptability and cohesion. It has been normed on a sample of 2453 adults across the life span and 412 adolescents. The internal consistency for the cohesion scale is r = .77, for

Table 4

Norms for FACES III (adapted from Olson, et al., 1985)

	Range	% (of families)
COHESION		
Disengaged	10 - 34	16.3
Separated	35 - 40	33.8
Connected	41 - 45	36.3
Enmeshed	46 - 50	13.6
ADAPTABILITY		
Rigid	10 - 19	16.3
Structured	20 - 24	38.3
Flexible	25 - 28	29.4
Chaotic	29 - 50	16.0

the adaptability scale it is r = .62; internal consistency for the entire scale is r = .68. Face and content validities are reported to be very good. There is no correlation between the two scales (r = .03), and little correlation with social desirability (adaptability r = .00; cohesion r = .39). Discrimination between groups, as reported earlier, is good (Olson, Portner, & Lavee, 1985).

Olson and colleagues (1985) did not provide norms specifically for the developmental stage of families with young children. Previously the group had suggested such families might fall between connected and enmeshed (Olsen, et al., 1983). Table 4 presents the published norms for all families in which the adults completed the scale (n = 2453). Olson and his colleagues suggest the percentages presented in the table for each dimension are the norms for that dimension for the United States. These are the norms which will be used in this study.

Adaptability game task

The SIMFAM (Simulated Family Activites Measure) procedure to assess family functioning requires a large area, much equipment, and family members able to understand the idea of rules. It is a structured performance technique that requires the family to discover the rules of a shuffle-board-like game. The family plays the "game" and are signaled by a green light if they have obeyed a rule, and by a red light if they have not obeyed a rule. Russell changed the procedures slightly by developing a final rule that the child's actions determined the rule (Russell, 1979). Cheatham (1981) developed a similar task, the Guess the Rules Game, to measure the adaptability of families with a child eight- to ten-years-of age. The family was presented with 30 rows of numerals. The family chose one numeral per row, in an effort to guess the rule for selecting the correct numeral (similar to SIMFAM's requirements of making the family determine the "rules" for the shuffle-board game). After three correct answers the rules changed and the process began again; however, the family is not informed of the rule change. Cheatham's last rule was that the

first numeral suggested by the child was the correct numeral. The ease with which the family adapts to the change of rules and determines the new rule is an indication of the family's adaptability. Cheatham's measure is usable in the "normal" research setting, but is not developmentally appropriate for preschool children who can not yet identify numerals. The present author developed a task similar to Cheatham's in intent, but more appropriate for younger children.

For this task the family was presented with a row of five stickers, depicting five categories of objects easily recognized by young childen. The family was told that it must work together, and parents should consider their child's response in choosing the sticker. The first rule is the bear sticker is always the correct answer. This is an easy rule and works to involve the family in the task. After three correct answers the rule changes, and the second rule is that the sticker in the fourth position from the left is the correct choice. The lower the family's adaptation, the slower they will be in changing from the old and determining the

new rule. For the last rule, the child's choice of sticker is always the correct choice. This rule is important, as it requires input from the family member least likely to be considered when making family changes (Cheatham, 1981). The family's score is the number of rows it takes for them to complete the task.

Cohesion game task.

Russell (1980) found the Kvebaek Family Sculpture task (adapting from the Cromwell, Fournier, & Kvebaek, 1980 adaptation) to be a reliable and useful measure of family cohesion (but not for adaptability). In this task family members are asked to complete the task separately and then as a family. The individual is presented with a 8 x 8" square board and figurines of different shapes to represent father, mother, child, and other family members. The individual is asked to place the figurines on the board "according to how close you feel to one another" (Russel, 1980, p.462). Requirements are 1) each figurine be placed on the board, and 2) only one be placed in a square. The individual is told s/he can place the figures

close together if they feel close or far apart if they feel distant; and further s/he is told to use the entire board if they so need. Distances between the figurines on the board are (according to Cromwell, et al., 1980) directly related to emotional distances. Emotional distance between family members is computed by measuring the distance between the figures on the board and using the law of right triangles; scores for all possible dyads and triads are determined. This study piloted the use of the Sculpture task with preschool children; it has not been used with this age group previously.

PARI.

The Parent Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) was orginally developed by Schaefer and Bell (1958). It has been studied and modified several times since its inception (e.g. Emmerich, 1969; Gerhart & Geismar, 1969; Tolor, 1976). The modified version developed by Emmerich (1969) was used in this study. The Likert-type scale has 55 items and a different

form for mothers and fathers. The scale has three factors : authoritarian control, hostility-rejection, and democratic attitudes.

Procedures

In the initial data collection, all participating parents completed the PBI, the PARI, and FACES III. The order of these tasks was balanced to avoid a response set.

Thirty of the families who participated in the first session agreed to participate in the second session. The sessions were arranged to be held in the family's home at a time both parents and the target child would be present. This second phase of the study was explained to the family in detail, emphasizing the confidentiality of the results. Written consent from both parents and for the child(ren) was obtained.

The families were asked to complete two tasks in the second phase. The first task was the "Guess the Rules Game". Next, the family was introduced to the Kvebaek Family Sculpture Task. Family members

decided among themselves who would complete the task first. Parents were advised in the instructions to have their spouse leave the room when they completed the task if they felt this was necessary. No spouses were asked to leave the room. Family interactions were observed across these tasks.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Demographic Data

The demographic data provided give a description of the entire sample. The sample consisted of 59 parents representing 37 families. Mothers were overrepresented; 35 mothers participated and only 24 fathers.

Ten child care centers agreed to participate in the study. Participation within centers ranged from only one parent in two different centers to 29 parents (representing 15 families) in another center. Families from university laboratory preschools (Virginia Tech and Radford University) represented almost half of the families in the sample (48.6%). Head Start families (n = 9) comprised 18.9% of the sample.

The mean age of the target children in the sample was 4.1 years of age (ranging from 3.0 to 5.5 years). Slightly over half (n = 20) were males. Most children were either the oldest (n = 16) child

or the only (n = 8) child in the family. Four children were middle children and 9 were the youngest child in the family.

Thirty parents from the first phase, including 16 of the mothers and 14 of the fathers, participated in the second phase of the study. Thirteen families were represented by both the mother and father in both stages. The mean age of the target child in the second phase was 3.9 years.

The following section presents the descriptive statistics for each of the measures used in the study. The reader is reminded these scores represent the individual parent's perceptions of their parenting type and family style.

FACES

The FACES scales were completed individually by each parent who participated in the first phase of the study. Therefore, the following scores and results are based on individual parent scores and not on combined family scores.

The mean score of the actual cohesion subscale was 41.19 (SD = 5.00, range 25 to 50). Theoretical range for each FACES subscale is from 10 to 50. The reliability of the cohesion subscale for this sample was 0.82; Olson, et al., (1985) report 0.77.

The norms provided by Olson, et al., (1985) were used to place FACES subscale scores into categories (see Table 4). Table 5 gives the percentage of each family style for cohesion and desired cohesion. Almost 75% of the scores fell into the balanced styles of separated and connected. Chi-square analysis revealed no difference in the percentages of the sample and the expected frequencies developed from the the norms for cohesion (X^2 = 6.93, 3, N = 57, p > .05).

The mean score of the actual adaptability subscale was 27.12 (SD = 5.48, range 14 to 39). Reliabilty for this subscale was 0.71. The published reliability is 0.62 (Olson, et al., 1985).

Again using the published norms, almost half the scores fell into the chaotic adaptability category (45.8%), while 44% fell into the balanced

categories of flexible and structured. The percentages are reported in Table 5. A significant difference was found between the expected frequencies for these categories (as determined by the Olson, et al., 1985, norms) and for the sample's adaptability categories (X^2 = 35.37, 3, N = 57, p <.05). More individual parents described their families as chaotic and fewer described their families as structured than would be expected from the norms.

Figure 3 presents how individual parents were placed on the Circumplex model.

Desired cohesion scores (M = 42.84, SD = 5.53, range 23 to 50), fell mostly in the enmeshed and connected categories. Desired adaptability scores (M = 30.96, SD = 4.68, range 18 to 40) placed almost 70% of the scores in the chaotic category. The pecentages for both these subscale scores are presented in Table 5.

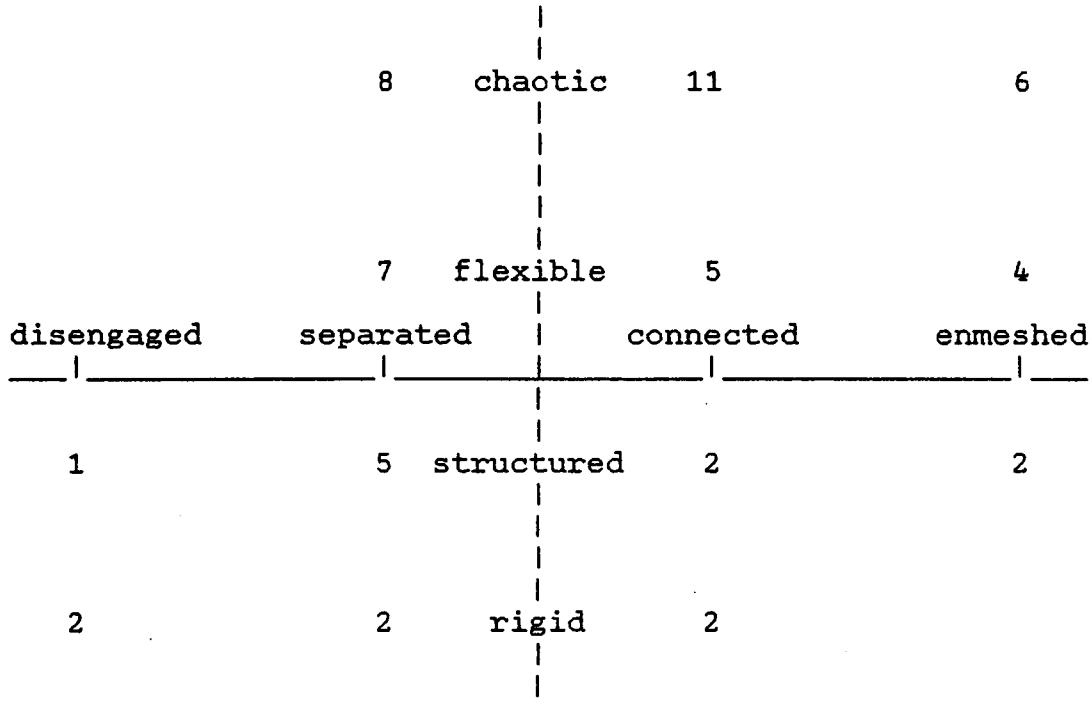

Figure 3.

Individual Parents' Perceptions of Family Styles Mapped on the Circumplex Model (each numeral indicates the number of parents whose perception of family style fell in that cell)

Table 5

Totals and Percentages of Actual and Desired Family Style Categories

Dimension	Actual		Desired	
Cohesion	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Disengaged	3	5.1	4	7.1
Separated	23	39.0	13	25.0
Connected	21	35.6	15	26.8
Enmeshed	12	20.3	24	41.1
total	59	100.0	56	100.0
Adaptability				
Chaotic	27	45.8	38	67.9
Flexible	16	27.1	14	25.0
Structured	10	16.9	3	5.3
Rigid	6	10.2	1	1.8
total	59	100.0	56	100.0

PARI and Parenting Types

Two of the parents did not complete the PARI, thus their responses were not included in the analyses of the PARI scores. Subscale scores, rather than the total PARI score, were used in the analyses.

The authoritarian-control subscale mean was -19.12 (SD = 11.43). The theoretical range of scores for this subscale is -50 to +50, and the sample's range was from -38 to +23. Reliability for this subscale was found to be 0.68. The hostility-rejection subscale mean was 4.63 (SD = 8.36, range -13 to +26, theoretical range -30 to +30). Reliability for the hostility-rejection subscale was 0.79. The democratic attitudes subscale mean was 15.63 (SD = 6.43, range -5 to 27, theoretical range -30 to +30). Reliability for this scale was not calculated as the subscale is not used in the analyses.

The authoritarian-control and hostility-rejection subscale scores were used to determine the parent types. As shown in Table 6, most parents were identified as uninvolved (64.4%). Over 25% of

Table 6

Parenting Types as Classified by the PARI Subscales*

	Low Hostility-rejection score	High Hostility-rejection score
High Authoritarian-control score	authoritative (n = 2)	authoritarian (n = 0)
Low Authoritarian-control score	permissive (n = 15)	uninvolved (n = 37)

* 3 sets of scores fell on an axis and were not categorized

the parents were identified as permissive, 5.1% as authoritative, and no parents were identified as authoritarian. The remaining 5.1% were not categorized because at least one of the subscale scores fell on an axis.

Observational Game-tasks

Thirty parents (representing 17 families) participated in the second phase of the study, and 28 completed the Guess the Rule Game. Two families chose to stop playing before they completed the game; they seemed to become discouraged and frustrated with the task. The mean score for the Guess the Rules Game was 28.07 (SD = 5.78, range 16 to 38). The lowest score possible would be 9, and there is no determined highest score.

All families completed the Kvebaek Family Sculpture Task. Scoring was completed as described by Russell, 1980. Only the parents' responses were used in scoring. Of the 12 possible scores possible, four were used in this study for each family. The individual distance scores reflect the "perceived emotional distance of each family member

from all other members" (Cromwell, Fournier, and Kvebaek, 1980, p. 16) and was calculated for the husband, wife and target child. The fourth score derived was the triad score, which reflects the emotional distance among family members in the triad. The theoretical range for the individual distance score is 1 - 98, whereas the theoretical range for the triad score is 3 - 294. A low score indicates an emotionally close family and a high score indicates an emotionally distant family. For this sample the father's individual distance score mean was 2.8 (SD = 2.82); the mother's individual distance mean score was 2.7 (SD = 5.93); the child's individual distance mean score was 2.4 (SD = 3.38). The mean of the triad score (father, mother, target child) was 7.4 (SD = 12.07). Because the scores did not differentiate between families, the scores were not used to describe the families' cohesion level.

Relationships among the Measures

Due to the experimental nature of the study and several of its measures, a series of correlation coeffecients was computed to determine if relationships existed between the measures. The first set of correlations was used to ascertain the relationship between the game-task measure of adaptability and the FACES actual and desired adaptability subscales. The correlation for the 28 subjects between the Guess the Rules Game scores and the actual adaptability subscale was $r = 0.11$, $p > .05$. However, the correlation between the Guess the Rules game score and the desired adaptability subscale score was significant, $r = 0.37$, $p < .05$, suggesting a relationship between the two. Those families who had more difficulty completing the task, suggesting lower levels of adaptability, also had parents who described their ideal family style as more adaptable.

The correlations between the Kvebaek Family Sculpture Task and the FACES actual and desired cohesion subscales scores are reported in Table 7. The only significant relationship found within this

Table 7

Correlations for the Kvebaek Family Sculpture Task Scores and the Cohesion Subscale Scores

		individual distance scores			
	n	husband	wife	child	triad
cohesion	30	0.11	0.19	0.17	0.17
desired cohesion	30	-0.42*	-0.02	0.02	-0.09

* $p < .05$

group was also between the desired subscale score and the husband's individual distance score. The negative relationship between the two scores indicates the subjects who described their ideal family style as highly cohesive likewise described the husband's relationship with the wife and target child as highly cohesive. Otherwise, there was no relationship between the Faces subscale scores and the Kvebaek task scores. The two measures of cohesion seem to not be related.

Correlations between scores on the subscales of the PARI and FACES are presented in Table 8. The significant relationship found between the hostility-rejection subscale and both the actual and desired cohesion subscales ($\underline{r}$ = -0.28 and $\underline{r}$ = -0.26, respectively) indicates those parents who described their families as more cohesive were also less hostile and rejecting towards their children. Likewise, parents who described their family style as more adaptable also described their parenting styles as less authoritarian and controlling ($\underline{r}$ = -0.36).

Table 8

Correlations for the PARI Subscales and the FACES Subscales

		PARI subscale
Faces subscale	n	Hostility rejection
cohesion	57	-0.28*
desired cohesion	54	-0.26*
		Authoritarian control
adaptability	57	-0.36*
desired adaptability	54	-0.11

* $p < .05$

The observational game-task scores and the PBI subscale scores were correlated to begin validation of the PBI. The correlations are presented in Table 9. A probability level of $p < .1$ was chosen due to the exploratory nature of the study. A significant relationship between adaptability as measured by the Guess the Rules game and the control subscale of the PBI was found. This finding indicates that less adaptable families are more controlling. There seems to be no relationship between cohesion and the PBI scale as measured by the Kvebaek Family Sculpture Task.

Research Questions

The fundamental purpose of the study was to determine if a relationship existed between family styles as described by the Circumplex Model and parenting types as defined by Maccoby and Martin (1983). Chi square test of independence was used to test the general hypotheses, restated below:

* The perceptions of family style by those parents who decribe their parenting type as authoritarian will fall in the lower right quadrant of the circumplex model

Table 9

Correlations Between the PBI Subscales and the Observational Game - tasks

Observational Game task Scores	PBI Subscales: Warmth - hostility n	Warmth - hostility	PBI Subscales: Control n	Control
Individual distance - husband	30	0.05	30	0.01
Individual distance - wife	30	0.06	30	0.08
Individual distance - child	30	0.00	30	0.11
Triad	30	0.04	30	0.08
Guess the Rules Game	30	0.16	30	0.28*

* $p < .10$

*The perceptions of family style by those parents who describe their parenting type as uninvolved will fall in the lower left quadrant of the Circumplex model

*The perceptions of family style by those parents who describe their parenting type as permissive will fall in the upper left quadrant of the Circumplex model

*The perceptions of family style by those parents who describe their parenting type as authoritative will fall in the balanced, middle area of the Circumplex model

Chi-square analyses were completed to test the independence of parenting type as measured by the PARI and parental perception of family style as measured by FACES III. Because only 2 parents fell into the authoritative parenting type, this category was not used in the analysis. Two other parents' PARI scores fell on axes, and their scores were not used. Four family types were determined from the cohesion and adaptability categories, representing each of the four quadrants of the circumplex model: high cohesion, high adaptability (upper right); high cohesion, low adaptability (lower right); low cohesion, high adaptability (upper left); and low cohesion, low adaptability (lower left). The findings suggested parenting type was independent

of perceptions of actual family style (X^2 = 6.15, 3, n = 54, p > .05) and was independent of perceptions of desired family style (X^2 = 2.42, 3, n = 52, p > .05). Thus the general hypotheses were not supported. A parent's description of his/her parenting type was not associated with where his/her perceived family style fell on the Circumplex model.

The research hypothese were not tested as written because 1) they were directly related to the general hypotheses which were not supported, meaning each research hypothesis, as written, would not be supported and 2) the data did not fall as expected (for example, the high number of parents whose perception of family style placed them in the upper right quadrant) meaning the research hypotheses could not be statistically analyzed as proposed. The research hypotheses were indirectly tested by comparing the parenting type groups' FACES subscale scores with each other instead against the model.

The means for the cohesion and adaptability subscales for each parenting type are presented in Table 10. A series of one-way ANOVA's were run to test for differences in the FACES subscale scores by

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations of FACES Subscales by Parenting Type

Parenting Type	FACES Subscales					
	Cohesion			Desired Cohesion		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
authoritative	2	35.50	6.37	1*	38.00	-
uninvolved	37	40.19	5.04	37	42.00	6.00
permissive	15	44.00	3.14	13*	45.23	3.24
	Adaptability			Desired Adaptability		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
authoritative	2	18.50	0.71	1*	34.00	-
uninvolved	37	26.97	5.29	37	31.05	4.69
permissive	15	27.87	6.22	13*	30.00	5.34

* Three parents did not complete the FACES ideal subscales

the three parenting types (authoritative, uninvolved, and permissive) as determined by the PARI scores. The ANOVA for the actual cohesion scores found a significant difference between the groups, $F = 5.13$, $p < .01$, and the ANOVA for actual adaptability was also significant, $F = 2.55$, $p < .10$. The ANOVA's for both desired cohesion and desired adaptability were not significant, $F = 2.07$, $p > .10$, and $F = 0.44$, $p > .10$, respectively.

Scheffe' multiple comparison procedures were chosen to determine which group means differences were significant. The Scheffe' was chosen because of greatly different n's (n's = 2, 37, 15). The results of the Scheffe' procedures are in Table 11. The permissive parenting group had significantly higher cohesion scores than the other two groups. The authoritative parenting group had significantly lower adaptability scores than the other two parenting groups.

Table 11

Scheffe' Procedures for the Significant Parenting Type ANOVA's

comparison groups	F value
Cohesion	
authoritative and uninvolved	1.96
authoritative and permissive	5.95*
uninvolved and permissive	6.31*
Adaptability	
authoritative and uninvolved	4.47*
authoritative and permissive	5.09*
uninvolved and permissive	0.28

*$p < .05$

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Discussion

The study was an exploratory examination of the conceptual similarities between the Circumplex Model of Family Functioning (Olson, et al., 1979) and the parenting types developed by Maccoby and Martin (1983). The research hypotheses predicted specific relationships between individual parents' descriptions of their parenting type and perceptions of their family's style. Authoritarian parents were predicted to perceive their family as having low adaptability and medium to high cohesion. Permissive parents were expected to do the opposite,

perceiving their family as highly adaptable with medium to low levels of cohesion. It was hypothesized uninvolved parents would perceive their family as having low levels of both adaptability and cohesion, whereas authoritative parents would perceive balanced levels of both.

It should be noted that almost half the parents who participated in the study were from a university preschool center. Although efforts were made to make the sample more heterogeneous, the homogeneity of the sample may have had an effect on the results. The results are representative for two-parent families with a child aged three to five years of age in some type of child care facility in Southwest Virginia, but should not be used to generalize beyond those parameters.

Two other findings should also be noted. Most parents' perceptions fell into the chaotic category of family adaptability (45.8%). This finding affected the results, as it placed many more families in the two right-hand quadrants of the

Circumplex model than was expected based on the published norms. However, as FACES has not been used extensively with families of preschool children, one is unable to determine if this result is a function of the limited population parameters of the sample or a function of the model. This is an area of the Circumplex model that needs further study. Are families of preschool children highly adaptable, or only those families with two working parents?

A reasonable explanation exists for the high number of chaotic families. Families with young children and two working parents need to be adaptable. The parents may need to see themselves as highly flexible in terms of rules, responsibilities, and leadership. This high level of flexibility may be necessary in a family where the parental, spousal, and occupational roles, as well as personal needs, must be constantly renegotiated.

A second anomalous finding was the number of parents typed as uninvolved (64.4%) and permissive (26.3%), whereas so few were typed as authoritative (5.1%) and authoritarian (0%). The high number of uninvolved parents might also be attributed to demanding schedules. Parents may not be able to expend the emotional energy necessary to develop a closer relationship with the child. Is distancing oneself from one's child functional in terms of family organization? This is a second question that could benefit from further study. These results also affected the analyses.

Relationships Between the Models

Overall, the general hypotheses, which placed each parenting type into a quadrant of the Circumplex model, were not supported. The Chi-square analysis indicated parenting style was independent of family type.

Almost half (46%) the parents' scores fell into the upper right quadrant (highly cohesive and adaptable), which was not described by any of the parenting types. Figures 4, 5, and 6, show how the families fell on the Circumplex model by uninvolved, permissive, and authoritative parenting types, respectively.

No parents were typed as authoritarian, so the hypotheses for this type could not be tested.

It was predicted that parents with uninvolved styles would fall into the lower left quadrant of the model, characterized by low levels of both cohesion and adaptability. Only 7 of 38 parents typed as uninvolved fell into this quadrant, and half fell into the upper right quadrant representing high cohesion and adaptability. This hypothesis was not supported.

Uninvolved parents were predicted to describe their family style as having medium to low levels of adaptability. The one-way ANOVA's tested for differences between parenting type group means on the

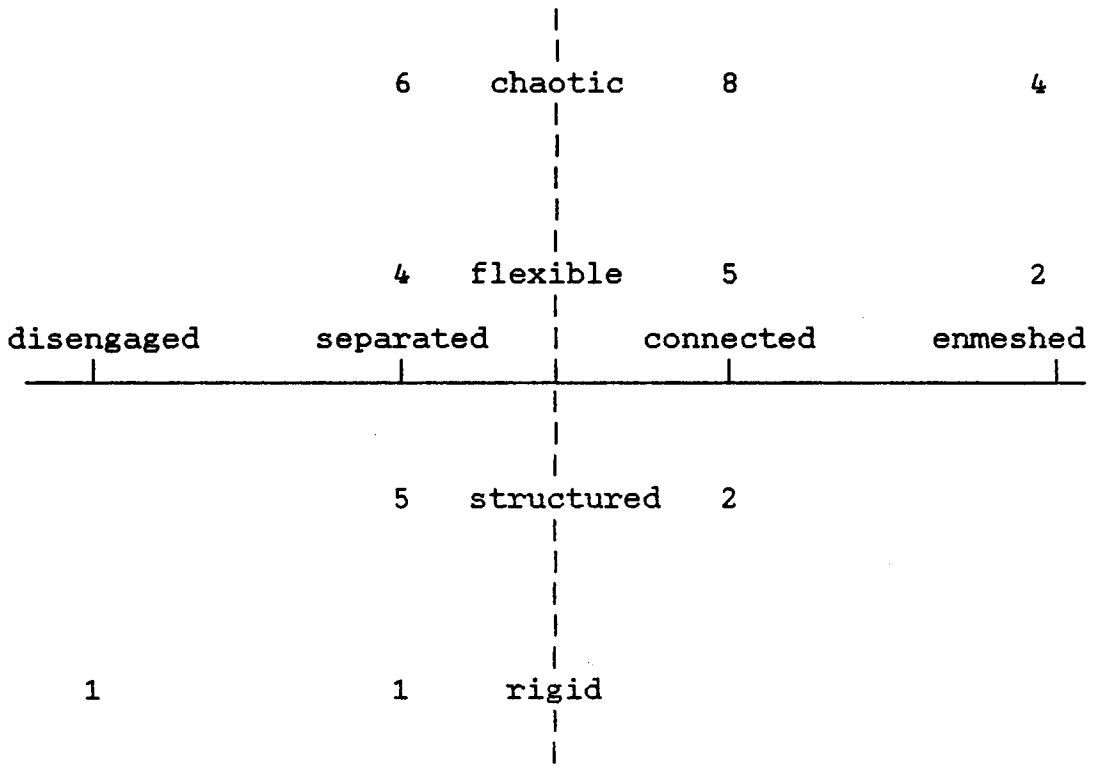

Figure 4.

Family Style Perceptions of Uninvolved Parents (numerals represent the number of parents whose family style perceptions fell into the cell)

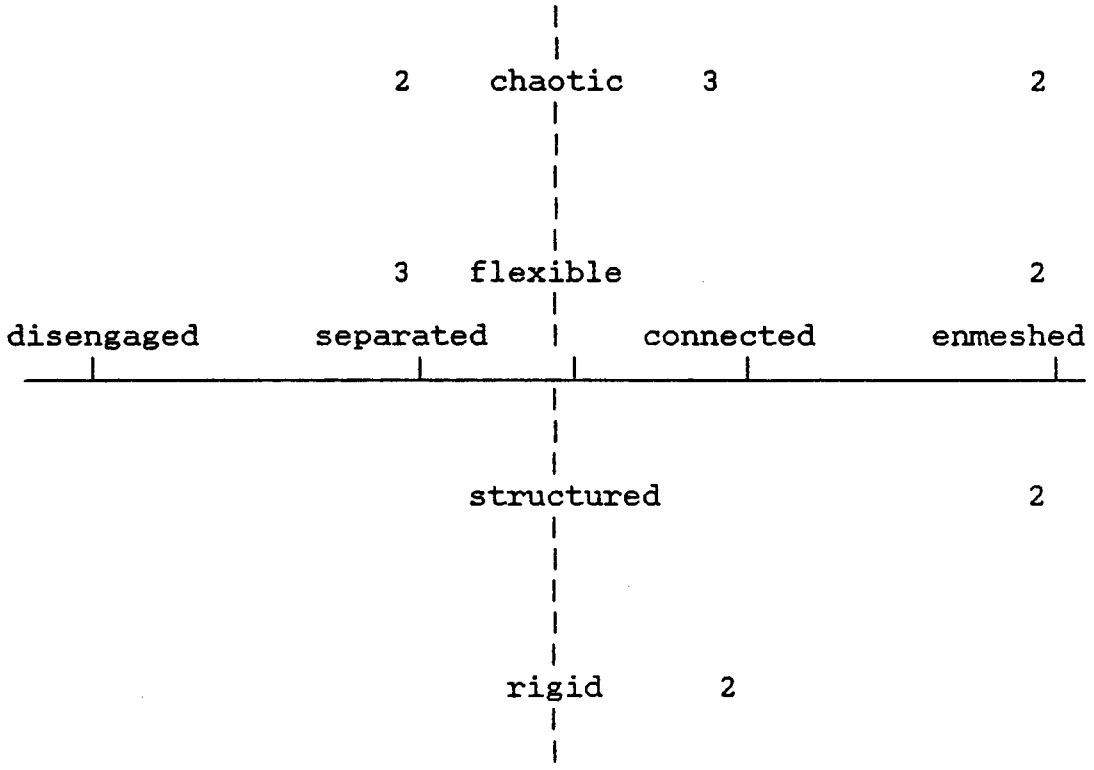

Figure 5.

Family Style Perceptions of Permissive Parents (numeral represents the number of family style perceptions that fell in the cell)

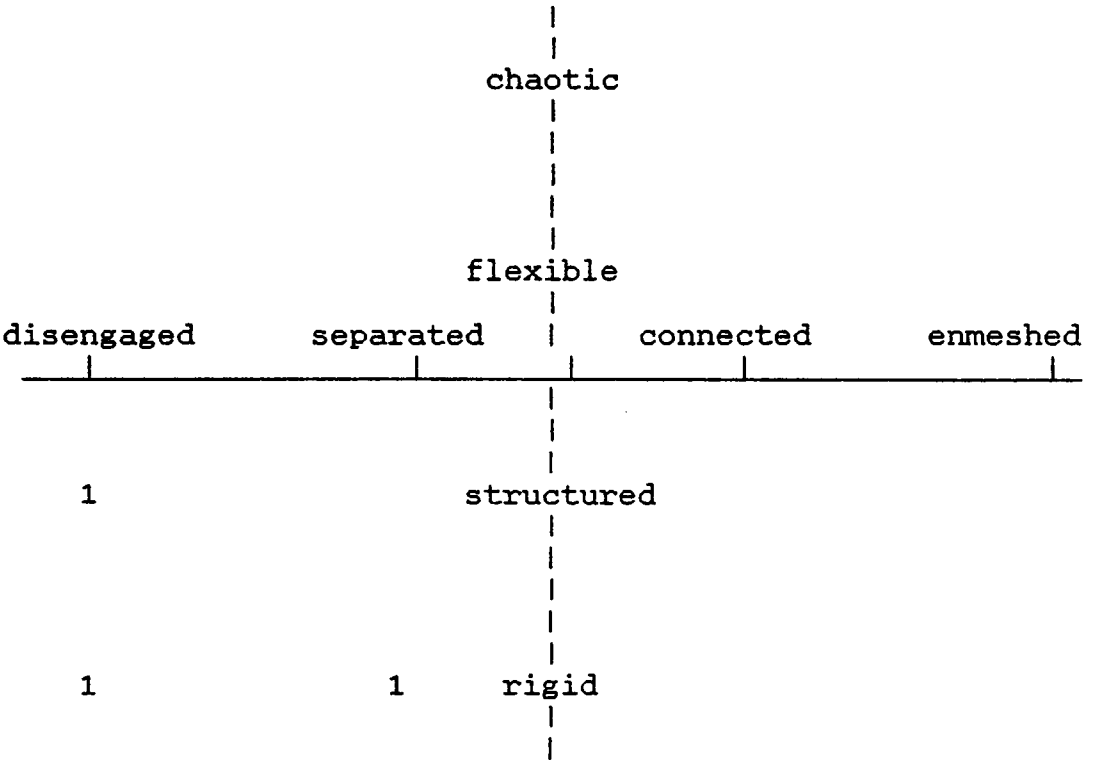

Figure 6.

Family Style Perceptions of Authoritative Parents (numeral represents the number of parents whose family style perceptions fell in the cell)

FACES subscales. The mean for the uninvolved group (M = 26.95) was not the highest of the three groups, but was significantly higher than the mean for the authoritative group (M = 18.50). This suggests the uninvolved parents perceived themselves as more flexible than was hypothesized. However, this result is not surprising. The uninvolved parent exhibits characteristics of both rigid and chaotic families; it would seem the more flexible nature of the parenting style, such as dramatic rule shifts and unpredictable discipline, outweighs the effects of limited parent-child negotiation and parent control.

It was hypothesized that uninvolved parents would describe their families as having low levels of cohesion. These parents' cohesion scores were not significantly lower than those of the permissive parents, which gives some support to the hypothesis. Descriptions of uninvolved parenting type seems to be related to descriptions of relatively lower levels of cohesion.

Permissive types, it was hypothesized, would fall into the upper left quadrant characterized by low cohesion but high adaptability; approximately one-third (5 of 15) fell into this quadrant. Again, almost half (7) fell into the upper right quadrant. Therefore, this hypothesis was also not supported.

Permissive parents were expected to describe their families as highly adaptable. The permissive group had the highest adaptability mean ($\underline{M}$ = 27.87); it was significantly greater than the authoritative group ($\underline{M}$ = 18.5) but not significantly greater than the uninvolved group ($\underline{M}$ = 26.97). This lends support to the hypothesis of perceptions of permissive parenting being associated with perceptions of more flexible/chaotic family style.

Parents with a permissive style were hypothesized to describe low to medium levels of cohesion. This hypothesis was not supported. The permissive group had a significantly higher cohesion score ($\underline{M}$ = 44.00) than the other two parenting style groups. Maccoby

and Martin's (1983) description of the permissive parenting type includes both low and high levels of cohesion. Maccoby and Martin did state the relationship between a permissive parent and child would be a warm rather than hostile one; the results suggest the overall level of perceived family cohesion is relatively high.

All the authoritative parents fell into the lower left quadrant represented by low cohesion and adaptability. The hypotheses that these parents would describe family types that fell into the balanced areas of the model were not supported.

Authoritative parents were hypothesized to describe balanced or medium levels of cohesion and adaptablity. However, these parent described the lowest levels of both among all three groups. The hypotheses were not supported. It would seem the authoritative parenting type is associated with perceptions of extremely low levels of both adaptability and cohesion.

Although the Chi-square results indicate there is no relationship between the perceived overall family style and parenting type, the ANOVA's did indicate significant differences between the parenting groups in the predicted directions. Uninvolved parents perceived their families to be less cohesive than permissive parents, supportive of the notion these parents would percieve their families to have low levels of cohesion. Permissive parents described their families as the most adaptable of all the parenting types. This too is supportive of the original hypotheses.

Other findings, although not supportive of the stated hypotheses, are supportive of the hypothesis of a conceptual relationship between the two models. Permissive parents perceived their families as more cohesive and uninvolved parents perceived their families as more adaptable than had been predicted. Permissive families, according to Maccoby and Martin's (1983) definition, can exhibit both ends of the

cohesion continuum. Whereas some characteristics are clearly those of a disengaged family (e.g., encouraging the child to make his/her own decisions and little parent-child interaction about discipline and rules), Maccoby and Martin (1983) predict this to be a warm relationship because parents may be responsive to and concerned for the child. Because arguments may be made for both sides of the continuum, it seems possible the relationship is not linear but curvilinear. The same argument can be made for the adaptability dimension and the uninvolved parenting style. The Maccoby and Martin (1983) description contains elements of both ends of the continuum. They describe the uninvolved parent in such as way as to suggest the parent may be very flexible or very rigid. Parents who describe themselves as permissive also perceive their family style as more cohesive and more adaptable than other parents. Parents who describe themselves as uninvolved perceive their families as highly adaptable, but less cohesive than other parents.

Observational Tasks Validation

The Guess the Rules game had a low, yet significant, correlation with the desired adaptablity subscale ($r = 0.37$). However, the correlation was not in the expected direction; a higher desired adaptability score suggests the family wishes to be more chaotic, whereas a higher Guess the Rules score suggests a more rigid family. If one assumes FACES III is a reliable and valid scale for the sample, then the Guess the Rules game does not measure the same construct of "adaptability" as the FACES scale does. Russell (1979) also found no relationship between a self-report measure of adaptability and the Simulated Family Activities Measure (on which the Guess the Rules game was based). Cheatham (1980) provided no data on the original version of the Guess the Rules game with which to compare his own or the present sample's FACES scores.

The families seemed to enjoy playing the game. Although it may not measure the full extent of family adaptability, it may measure family decision-making and parenting behaviors. Most families

responded to the task enthusiastically, yet each acted and reacted in different manners. Some families played in a more light-hearted manner, while others approached the task with an almost mathematical precision. Parents also responded to their children's suggestions very differently. Some parents were very thorough when explaining the game and decision-making strategy employed to the child, and included the child in the process. Others almost completely ignored the child and concentrated on finding the solutions themselves. Further use of the instrument is needed to determine its usefulness both as a measure of adaptability and as an observational tool for quantifying parenting behavior.

The Kvebaek Family Sculpture tasks were, for the most part, unrelated to cohesion as measured by FACES III. Only the husband's individual distance score was moderately correlated with desired cohesion ($r = -0.42$). This is potentially an interesting result. As husbands, conventionally considered the most distant member of the family, are perceived (by both husband and wife) as more

emotionally close to other family members, the parents also describe their ideal family style as more close. This may be either a result of social desirablity or it may represent an interesting dynamic within the family. It is worthy of further investigation.

The scores for the Kvebaek task did not differentiate among families. Almost all families placed all figures as close together on the board as was allowed. This may have been construed as a more socially desirable answer. The task was developed to be used primarily as a clinician's tool with families of adolescents, and as such may be inappropriate for use with healthy families of preschool children. The task may measure a different facet of cohesion than the FACES III scale, or may measure desired cohesion as results from this study suggest. Further study of the population and of the instrument will begin to determine the answer.

The families seemed less enthusiastic about this task. One reason seemed to be the children's reactions to the task. The pre-operational

preschool children were able to understand the basic idea of closeness, yet developmentally could not separate themselves from the moment. One clear example was Family W. The preschool child was upset with her parents before the research team arrived at the home. When asked to do the Kvebaek task, the child promptly put one figure each on three of the board's corners. The researcher asked the child if this was how much she usually liked her parents, and the child essentially responded no, but that was how she felt at present. Several other children placed a sibling or a parent far away from the rest of the family, then looked at that member with a grinning face. It may be the child was representing a family dynamic, but it seemed more likely the child was consciously provoking the family member. Unless the researcher wants this more concrete answer from the child, the Kvebaek task does not seem to be an appropriate task for preschool childrem. The task must be used more with families of preschool children to determine its appropriateness with this stage of family.

PBI Validation

The scores of the PBI subscales were correlated with the observational game-tasks. There were no significant correlations between any of the Kvebaek Family Sculpture tasks and the warmth-hostility subscale. The measures may not measure the same construct of cohesion/emotional warmth, or this may be due to the problems with the Kvebaek scale discussed earlier.

The control subscale scores were significantly correlated with the Guess the Rules game scores, but the magnitude of the statistic ($r = 0.28$) was too low to be decisive in determining the relationship between the two measures. The relationship is in the expected direction. Parents who exert greater control over their children also were less adaptable in the Guess the Rules game. A further area of investigation would be to compare the restrictive subscale score (the most reliable of the control subscales, Manning, 1988) with the third phase of the game (when the child's first answer is the correct answer). It may be those parents who are

most restrictive are the least likely to listen to the answers their children give.

FACES and PARI Relationships

The Hostility-rejection subscale was significantly correlated to both the cohesion and desired cohesion subscales. The magnitude of both correlations was low ($r = -0.28$, and -0.26, respectively) so no definitive statement about the relationship can be made. Parents who scored higher on the cohesion scale, perceiving their family as cohesive, scored lower on the hostility-rejection scale, indicating their parenting style was not hostile and rejecting but warm. This finding is indirectly supported by Cheatham (1980), who found families with overcontrolled children tended to be more cohesive than families with undercontrolled children.

Adaptability had a low significant correlation with authoritarian control ($r = -0.36$). Again, the magnitude is not strong enough to make a definitive statement about relationship, but does suggest there is some level of relationship between the scales.

This set of low but significant correlations is supportive of a general relationship between parenting type and family style. They document some level of relationship between cohesion and hostility-rejection and between adaptability and authoritarian control. The anamolous findings of both measures (parents describing their parenting as uninvolved and their families as highly adaptive) and the homogeneity of the sample may have artificially reduced the magnitude of the coeffecients, and the relationships may be stronger than the analyses suggest.

Conclusions

The analyses indicate several thought-provoking findings that lead to areas for further exploration. Norms for families with preschool children need to be developed for FACES III. It may be that dual-worker and dual-career families of preschool children perceive themselves as adaptable and cohesive, or the result may be a function of the narrow parameters of the populations from which the sample was drawn.

The game-tasks may prove to be useful tools in future research. The findings from this study, such as the relationship between desired cohesion and husband's individual distance score, should be explored further. The Guess the Rules game needs to be developed, both as a measure of family adaptability, and also as a measure of parenting type.

While each analysis provides, at best, moderate support for the basic hypotheses, the combination of several analyses providing support indicate there is merit in the hypothesis of a conceptual relationship between the two models. The findings call for

further study of this conceptual hypothesis, using different measures and methods.

A broad area to begin this exploration centers on the relationship between the FACES and PARI scales. The FACES III scale asks individuals to give perceptions about their family style, including parenting behaviors. Family style is a complex dynamic based on the interactions, negotiations, and compromises of all family members. The PARI measures the individual parenting styles of both father and mother, and does not address how one parent's style affects his/her spouse's style. These basic conceptual differences need to be explored. This might be begun by uing both FACES's individual subscale scores and the discepency score, to look at individual and "family" data, and compare these with the PARI results.

A more narrow area of exploration is the relationship between the PARI subscales and the specific questions about parenting behaviors on the FACES. It could be enlightening to discover a

the family's overall parenting behaviors and the individual's perceptions if his/her own specific parenting behaviors. This might be carried out by correlating the specific FACES items as well as the overall subscale scores with the PARI subsclale scores. This would allow comparisons of the perceptions of the parenting behaviors within the family style with the individual parenting styles.

The results of the present study do not provide a definitive answer to the question of relationship between the two models, but these results do suggest the importance of continuing the search. To find areas of overlap between the fields of family studies and child development could open new doors to research in both fields. It could help to consolidate previous research and coordinate future research efforts, so that knowledge in one field can complement and support knowledge in another.

Continued study may bring about practical knowledge also. Working with parents and families may be made easier and more productive if we can understand the link between parenting and family functioning, and use this link when working with

families. Knowledge of the normed responses of families with preschooler on both the FACES and PARI scales may also have clinical value. If it is "normal" for these parents to percieve themselves as uninvolved parents and their families as highly adaptive, then clinicians should be aware of this.

In conclusion, the results of this study open many doors to research, to theory, and to practice. It does not provide a definitive answer to the question of relationship between the Circumplex and parent typology models, nor to the question of relationship between family studies and child development. It does however begin the search, and provide directions for the next steps.

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APPENDIX A
CONSENT FORM

Consent Form

I acknowledge that I have been informed of the nature of this study and I understand the information will be kept confidential at all times. The investigator has provided me with her telephone number (703 - 961 - 6148) in case I have any questions at a later time. I also understand that I may withdraw from the study at any point in time. I am willing to participate in this study and to allow my child(ren) to participate.

Name of child(ren)_____

Name of father_____

Father's signature_____

Name of mother_____

Mother's signature_____

_____ Yes, we would like a copy of the results of this study.

APPENDIX B

FACES III

FACES III

David H. Olson, Joyce Portner, and Yoav Lavee

1	2	3	4	5
ALMOST NEVER	ONCE IN AWHILE	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	ALMOST ALWAYS

DESCRIBE YOUR FAMILY NOW:

_____ 1. Family members ask each other for help.

_____ 2. In solving problems, the children's suggestions are followed.

_____ 3. We approve of each other's friends.

_____ 4. Children have a say in their discipline.

_____ 5. We like to do things with just our immediate family.

_____ 6. Different persons act as leaders in our family.

_____ 7. Family members feel closer to other family members than to people outside the family.

_____ 8. Our family changes its way of handling tasks.

_____ 9. Family members like to spend free time with each other.

_____ 10. Parent(s) and children discuss punishment together.

_____ 11. Family members feel very close to each other.

_____ 12. The children make the decisions in our family.

_____ 13. When our family gets together for activities, everybody is present.

_____ 14. Rules change in our family.

_____ 15. We can easily think of things to do together as a family.

_____ 16. We shift household responsibilities from person to person.

_____ 17. Family members consult other family members on their decisions.

_____ 18. It is hard to identify the leader(s) in our family.

_____ 19. Family togetherness is very important.

_____ 20. It is hard to tell who does which household chores.

FAMILY SOCIAL SCIENCE, 290 McNeal Hall, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 55108

FACES III: Ideal Version

David H. Olson, Joyce Portner, and Yoav Lavee

1 ALMOST NEVER	2 ONCE IN AWHILE	3 SOMETIMES	4 FREQUENTLY	5 ALMOST ALWAYS

IDEALLY, how would you like YOUR FAMILY TO BE:

____ 21. Family members would ask each other for help.

____ 22. In solving problems, the children's suggestions would be followed.

____ 23. We would approve of each other's friends.

____ 24. The children would have a say in their discipline.

____ 25. We would like to do things with just our immediate family.

____ 26. Different persons would act as leaders in our family.

____ 27. Family members would feel closer to each other than to people outside the family.

____ 28. Our family would change its way of handling tasks.

____ 29. Family members would like to spend free time with each other.

____ 30. Parent(s) and children would discuss punishment together.

____ 31. Family members would feel very close to each other.

____ 32. Children would make the decisions in our family.

____ 33. When our family got together, everybody would be present.

____ 34. Rules would change in our family.

____ 35. We could easily think of things to do together as a family.

____ 36. We would shift household responsibilities from person to person.

____ 37. Family members would consult each other on their decisions.

____ 38. We would know who the leader(s) was in our family.

____ 39. Family togetherness would be very important.

____ 40. We could tell who does which household chores.

FAMILY SOCIAL SCIENCE, 290 McNeal Hall, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 551

FACES III

David H. Olson, Joyce Portner, and Yoav Lavee

1	2	3	4	5
ALMOST NEVER	ONCE IN AWHILE	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	ALMOST ALWAYS

DESCRIBE YOUR FAMILY NOW:

_____ 1. Family members ask each other for help.

_____ 2. In solving problems, the children's suggestions are followed.

_____ 3. We approve of each other's friends.

_____ 4. Children have a say in their discipline.

_____ 5. We like to do things with just our immediate family.

_____ 6. Different persons act as leaders in our family.

_____ 7. Family members feel closer to other family members than to people outside the family.

_____ 8. Our family changes its way of handling tasks.

_____ 9. Family members like to spend free time with each other.

_____ 10. Parent(s) and children discuss punishment together.

_____ 11. Family members feel very close to each other.

_____ 12. The children make the decisions in our family.

_____ 13. When our family gets together for activities, everybody is present.

_____ 14. Rules change in our family.

_____ 15. We can easily think of things to do together as a family.

_____ 16. We shift household responsibilities from person to person.

_____ 17. Family members consult other family members on their decisions.

_____ 18. It is hard to identify the leader(s) in our family.

_____ 19. Family togetherness is very important.

_____ 20. It is hard to tell who does which household chores.

FAMILY SOCIAL SCIENCE, 290 McNeal Hall, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 55108

FACES III: Ideal Version

David H. Olson, Joyce Portner, and Yoav Lavee

1 ALMOST NEVER	2 ONCE IN AWHILE	3 SOMETIMES	4 FREQUENTLY	5 ALMOST ALWAYS

IDEALLY, how would you like YOUR FAMILY TO BE:

____ 21. Family members would ask each other for help.

____ 22. In solving problems, the children's suggestions would be followed.

____ 23. We would approve of each other's friends.

____ 24. The children would have a say in their discipline.

____ 25. We would like to do things with just our immediate family.

____ 26. Different persons would act as leaders in our family.

____ 27. Family members would feel closer to each other than to people outside the family.

____ 28. Our family would change its way of handling tasks.

____ 29. Family members would like to spend free time with each other.

____ 30. Parent(s) and children would discuss punishment together.

____ 31. Family members would feel very close to each other.

____ 32. Children would make the decisions in our family.

____ 33. When our family got together, everybody would be present.

____ 34. Rules would change in our family.

____ 35. We could easily think of things to do together as a family.

____ 36. We would shift household responsibilities from person to person.

____ 37. Family members would consult each other on their decisions.

____ 38. We would know who the leader(s) was in our family.

____ 39. Family togetherness would be very important.

____ 40. We could tell who does which household chores.

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APPENDIX C

KVEBAEK FAMILY SCULPTURE TASK

Verbal instructions for the Kvebaek Sculpture task.

"These figures represent : you
your mother (your wife, husband)
your father (your son or daughter)
Arrange the figures on this board according to how close you feel to one another - how close you feel to Mom (or spouse) and Dad (or child) - and also how close you think they feel to one another - how much they love or like each other. For example, if you think two people feel very distant from one another - or don't like each other a lot -you might place one here (one corner), and one way over here (diagonal corner). If you think two people feel very close - or like each other a lot, you might place the two figures right next door to each other. When you're done, all three figures should be arranged on the board. You can put one figure in each square. Remember, you have the entire board to use. (from Russell, 1980:462).

APPENDIX D

GUESS THE RULES GAME

Verbal instructions for the Guess the Rules game.

"This is a game where you have to guess the rules. Please choose one of the five stickers on the first row after all the family members have mutually agreed upon a choice.

"I will then tell you if your guess is correct. Using that information, choose a sticker from the second row. After each guess you will be told if your choice is correct or incorrect. After several tries you will be able to determine the rules of the game. Ther e are three things to remember : 1) the stickers are not arranged in any pattern on the page; 2) the rules may change; and 3) you should work together on this task." (adapted from Cheatham, 1981:75).

APPENDIX E

PARENTING ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

(PARI)

MOTHER'S AND FATHER'S FORMS

Read each of the statements below and rate them as follows:

A	*a*	*d*	*D*
strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree

Indicate your opinion by drawing a circle around the "A" if you strongly agree, around the "a" if you mildly agree, around the "d" if you mildly disagree, and around the "D" if you strongly disagree.

There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered. Many of the statements will seem alike but all are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

(MOTHER FORM)

	Agree		*Disagree*	
1. A good mother should shelter her child from life's little difficulties.	A	a	d	D
2. Children should be taught about sex as soon as possible.	A	a	d	D
3. People who think they can get along in marriage without arguments just don't know the facts.	A	a	d	D
4. Parents should not have to earn the respect of their children by the way they act.	A	a	d	D
5. The women who want lots of parties seldom make good mothers.	A	a	d	D
6. Most mothers are content to be with children all the time.	A	a	d	D
7. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it.	A	a	d	D
8. If a parent is wrong he should admit it to his child.	A	a	d	D
9. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens.	A	a	d	D
10. Most mothers can spend all day with the children and remain calm and even-tempered.	A	a	d	D
11. Parents who are interested in hearing about their children's parties, dates, and fun help them grow up right.	A	a	d	D
12. A child should learn that he has to be disappointed sometimes.	A	a	d	D
13. It is very important that young boys and girls not be allowed to see each other completely undressed.	A	a	d	D
14. If a couple really loves each other there are very few arguments in their married life.	A	a	d	D
15. Parents should adjust to the children some rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents.	A	a	d	D

16. A good mother should develop interests outside the home.	A	a	d	D
17. One of the worst things about taking care of a home is a woman feels that she can't get out.	A	a	d	D
18. Children should not be allowed to disagree with their parents, even if they feel their own ideas are better.	A	a	d	D
19. It's best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his mother's views are right.	A	a	d	D
20. A child should be taught to fight his own battles.	A	a	d	D
21. Children will get on any woman's nerves if she has to be with them all day.	A	a	d	D
22. Children would be happier and better behaved if parents would show less interest in their affairs.	A	a	d	D
23. A child should be protected from jobs which might be too tiring or hard for him.	A	a	d	D
24. Sex play is a normal thing in children.	A	a	d	D
25. Sometimes it's necessary for a wife to tell off her husband in order to get her rights.	A	a	d	D
26. Children should learn to compromise and adjust to the demands of their parents.	A	a	d	D
27. Too many women forget that a mother's place is in the home.	A	a	d	D
28. Most young mothers don't mind spending most of their time at home.	A	a	d	D
29. A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions.	A	a	d	D
30. A child should be encouraged to look for answers to his questions from other people even if the answers contradict his parents.	A	a	d	D
31. Children should not be encouraged to box or wrestle because it often leads to trouble or injury.	A	a	d	D
32. Raising children is an easy job.	A	a	d	D
3^ If parents would have fun with their children, the children would be more apt to take their advice.	A	a	d	D
34. Children have to face difficult situations on their own.	A	a	d	D
35. Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children.	A	a	d	D
36. Almost any problem can be settled by quietly talking it over.	A	a	d	D
37. There is no reason parents should have their own way all the time, any more than that children should have their own way all the time.	A	a	d	D
38. A mother can keep a nice home and still have plenty of time left over to visit with neighbors and friends.	A	a	d	D

39. One of the bad things about raising children is that you aren't free enough of the time to do just as you like.	A	a	d	D
40. Children should be discouraged from telling their parents about it when they feel family rules are unreasonable.	A	a	d	D
41. The child should not question the thinking of his parents.	A	a	d	D
42. It's quite natural for children to hit one another.	A	a	d	D
43. Mothers very often feel that they can't stand their children a moment longer.	A	a	d	D
44. Laughing at children's jokes and telling children jokes usually fail to make things go more smoothly.	A	a	d	D
45. Children should be kept away from all hard jobs which might be discouraging.	A	a	d	D
46. Children are normally curious about sex.	A	a	d	D
47. It's natural to have quarrels when two people who both have minds of their own get married.	A	a	d	D
48. It is rarely possible to treat a child as an equal.	A	a	d	D
49. A good mother will find enough social life within the family.	A	a	d	D
50. Most young mothers are pretty content with home life.	A	a	d	D
51. When a child is in trouble he ought to know he won't be punished for talking about it with his parents.	A	a	d	D
52. A good mother can tolerate criticism of herself, even when the children are around.	A	a	d	D
53. Most parents prefer a quiet child to a "scrappy" one.	A	a	d	D
54. A mother should keep control of her temper even when children are demanding.	A	a	d	D
55. When you do things together, children feel close to you and can talk easier.	A	a	d	D

Read each of the statements below and rate them as follows:

A	*a*	*d*	*D*
strongly agree	mildly agree	mildly disagree	strongly disagree

Indicate your opinion by drawing a circle around the "A" if you strongly agree, around the "a" if you mildly agree, around the "d" if you mildly disagree, and around the "D" if you strongly disagree.

There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered. Many of the statements will seem alike but all are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

	Agree		*Disagree*	
1. A good father should shelter his child from life's little difficulties.	A	a	d	D
2. Children should be taught about sex as soon as possible.	A	a	d	D
3. People who think they can get along in marriage without arguments just don't know the facts.	A	a	d	D
4. Parents should not have to earn the respect of their children by the way they act.	A	a	d	D
5. A man can't do a father's job and have an active social life too.	A	a	d	D
6. Most fathers are content to be with children in their spare time.	A	a	d	D
7. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it.	A	a	d	D
8. If a parent is wrong he should admit it to his child.	A	a	d	D
9. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens.	A	a	d	D
10. Most fathers could spend all day with the children and remain calm and even-tempered.	A	a	d	D
11. Parents who are interested in hearing about their children's parties, dates, and fun help them grow up right.	A	a	d	D
12. A child should learn that he has to be disappointed sometimes.	A	a	d	D
13. It is very important that young boys and girls not be allowed to see each other completely undressed.	A	a	d	D
14. If a couple really loves each other there are very few arguments in their married life.	A	a	d	D

15. Parents should adjust to the children some rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents. A a d D
16. A good father still has time for activities outside the job and home. A a d D
17. Settling down to family life is hard for a man because it means giving up so many other things. A a d D
18. Children should not be allowed to disagree with their parents, even if they feel their own ideas are better. A a d D
19. It's best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his father's views are right. A a d D
20. A child should be taught to fight his own battles. A a d D
21. It's no wonder men reach the boiling point when they come home and run immediately into family problems. A a d D
22. Children would be happier and better behaved if parents would show less interest in their affairs. A a d D
23. A child should be protected from jobs which might be too tiring or hard for him. A a d D
24. Sex play is a normal thing in children. A a d D
25. Sometimes it's necessary for a husband to tell off his wife in order to get his rights. A a d D
26. Children should learn to compromise and adjust to the demands of their parents. A a d D
27. Too many men forget that a father's place is with his family. A a d D
28. Most fathers don't mind spending most of their spare time at home. A a d D
29. A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions. A a d D
30. A child should be encouraged to look for answers to his questions from other people even if the answers contradict his parents. A a d D
31. Children should not be encouraged to box or wrestle because it often leads to trouble or injury. A a d D
32. Raising children is an easy job. A a d D
33. If parents would have fun with their children, the children would be more apt to take their advice. A a d D
34. Children have to face difficult situations on their own. A a d D
35. Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children. A a d D
36. Almost any problem can be settled by quietly talking it over. A a d D

37. There is no reason parents should have their own way all the time, any more than that children should have their own way all the time. A a d D
38. A father can be a family man and still have plenty of time left over to visit with neighbors and friends. A a d D
39. One of the bad things about raising children is that you aren't free enough of the time to do just as you like. A a d D
40. Children should be discouraged from telling their parents about it when they feel family rules are unreasonable. A a d D
41. The child should not question the thinking of his parents. A a d D
42. It's quite natural for children to hit one another. A a d D
43. There are times when a father feels he can't stand his family a moment longer. A a d D
44. Laughing at children's jokes and telling children jokes usually fail to make things go more smoothly. A a d D
45. Children should be kept away from all hard jobs which might be discouraging. A a d D
46. Children are normally curious about sex. A a d D
47. It's natural to have quarrels when two people who both have minds of their own get married. A a d D
48. It is rarely possible to treat a child as an equal. A a d D
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