

PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS
AND FAMILY SYSTEMS
FUNCTIONING

By

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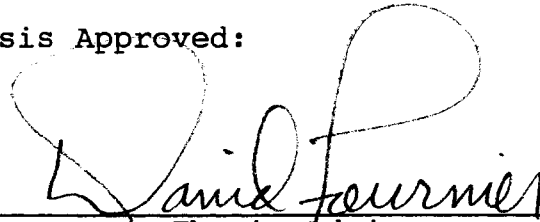
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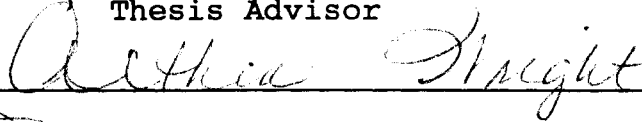
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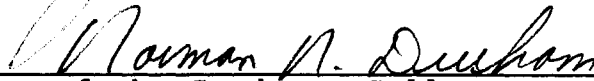
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

For most people, the family is the environment in which the majority of personality and social development occurs. It is the role of the family to accept each new and dependent member and mold and support this person to maturity. Historically, the family has done a good job of developing the potential of their children to become less dependent and more competent to assume helping roles as they mature.

There appears to be an increase in families who are failing in their responsibility to provide the love, support and to teach their children the skills necessary to live a functional life (Glenn, 1986). Indicators of family achievement present a disconcerting picture of steady decline from the childless stage through the years of childbearing and middle parenthood before leveling off and recovering in the postparental period after the children have married and established homes of their own (Olson & McCubbin, 1983). It becomes clear that families in our society are not immunized from trouble over the life span and appear to fight a losing battle against increasing stressors during the active years of childrearing. This is

reflected in the anxiety of parents who are increasingly tentative in their approach to childrearing. Articles, books, pamphlets and television specials are appearing with regularity, giving a wide range of suggestion to parents on how to solve the behavioral problems of their children. In addition, parents are going more frequently to parenting classes to discuss this problems of raising their children. These classes are being held by schools, churches and a variety of social service agencies (Fritz, 1985). This demonstrates a need for a more precise understanding of parent-child and family relationships.

The family has been affected by other problems which have been on the increase for a number of years. What was once America's model family living pattern has become an exception over the course of a single generation. Today, only 7% of all households fit the traditional family image. Of every 100 children born today, 12 are born out of wedlock, 41 are born to parents who divorce before the child is age 18, 5 are born to parents who separate, 2 will experience death of a parent before they reach age 18 and 41 will reach age 18 without such incidents (Otto, 1988).

Drug use continues to be a serious form of problem behavior for today youths (Johnston, O'Malley, & Bachman, 1987). Generally, speaking, youth drug use is declining. That does not mean that the drug problem is resolved, however. The United States continues to have the highest rates of drug use by young people in the world's

industrialized nations (Johnson, et al., 1987).

The most disturbing changes in youth behavior in recent years relates to mortality factors. When young people die, they die violent deaths. Among young people 15 to 24 who die, 77% die violently from accidents, suicides and homicides, such deaths have passed disease as the leading cause of death for young people (Oiegmuller, 1987). From 1950 to 1980, homicides increased threefold and suicides more then fourfold for this age group (Diegmuller, 1987). It becomes apparent that significant changes have occured not only in the family but our society.

One major problem has been the rapid change the families have experienced. Fifty years ago a child spent three to four hours per day personally involved with various members of the extended family. The extended family consisted of parents and children plus grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, etc., most of whom resided nearby. This involvement included such things as working together, discussing items of interest with other generations and personal interaction. Today's typical youngster may have a very different experience. The extended family has been reduced to what experts refer to as the nuclear family. The nuclear family consists of one or two parents plus the children. The grandparents, aunts, uncles, etc., now typically reside far away from the nuclear family. Within the nuclear families with two parents present, some studies report that parent-child interactions were reduced to

fourteen and one-half minutes per day (Glenn, 1981). Of these fourteen and one-half minutes, over twelve were used in one-way negatively toned communications such as parents issuing warnings or reproofing children for things done wrong (Glenn, 1981).

Virginia Satir (1972) states that once a human being has arrived on this earth, communication is the largest single factor determining what kinds of relationships he makes with others and what happens to him in the world about him. How he manages his survival, how he develops intimacy, how productive he is, how he makes sense, how he connects with his own divinity--all are largely dependent on his communication skills (Satir, 1972). If this is to be believed, then effective communication is important for healthy family relationships.

Statement of the Problem

The changes within the nuclear family, present challenges to all family members. Some families appear to adapt to these changes and continue functioning as a healthy family unit, while others, regrettably disintegrate or experience dysfunction under stress which frequently results in emotional damage to the children (Siegal & Senna, 1985).

The parents of these children who present behavioral problems or symptoms of emotional damage often seek help outside the family. In the treatment of families by family therapists, one of the most frequent goals is to improve

communication among family members. Often it is a parent/child relationship that is presented to the therapist by the family as the root of the problem. Many therapists believe that communication problems can have a very detrimental effect on the parent-child relationship (Barker, 1981). The communication goals developed by the therapist often include encouraging family members to listen attentively to each other, to express feelings openly and clearly, to speak for themselves, and to value the sender, the message and themselves as important and worthwhile even in the midst of disagreement.

Communication within the context of the family appears to be particularly important during the adolescent years. Family communication affects adolescent identity formation and role-taking ability (Cooper, Grotevant, Moore, & Condon, 1982). Cooper, et al, suggest that adolescents who experience the support of their families may feel freer to explore identity issues. Holstein (1972) and Stanley (1979) found that discussions between parents and children significantly facilitated the development of higher levels of moral reasoning in adolescents.

Grotevant and Cooper (1983) studied the role of communication in the process of adolescent's individuation from the family. They noted the importance of communication to helping families strike a balance between separateness from and connectedness to each other.

While there has been some research on the relationship of parent-adolescent communication to the social and cognitive development of children (Cooper, et al., 1982; Grotevant and Cooper, 1983; Steinberg and Hill, 1978) there has been little focus on parent-adolescent communication and its relationship to family functioning. After a hiatus in systematic research on family during adolescence, roughly from the early 1970's until the early 1980's the subject has become prevalent once again (Steinberg, 1987). Steinberg stated that adolescent's families

had disappeared into the background, hardly visible behind the rows of scientific apparatus used to assess formal operations, over the reams of interviews transcripts with college students on their development of ego identity, and beneath the stacks of moral dilemmas used to determine whether youngsters functioned at stage 3 or 4 (Steinberg, 1987, p. 191)

It is interesting to look back and note that the special issue of Child Development devoted entirely to early adolescence (Hill, 1982) contained but two articles in which the family is the focus of examination. The Handbook of Adolescent Psychology (Adelson, 1980) contains a chapter on peer relations but makes only few references to the fact that a majority of teenagers have parents as well as friends.

In summary, research is needed which addresses the effects of parent-adolescent communications on family systems functioning. This will be accomplished by identifying two groups of families that are likely to have differences in communication effectiveness; that is,

families that have a child referred to youth services programs and families not referred. Valid and reliable instruments pertaining to family systems functioning and communication are needed for research in the area.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to compare and note any difference between families of problem adolescents and families of non-problem adolescents. Of special concern were the patterns of communication and levels of family functioning.

One other purpose of this research was to describe the nature of parent-adolescent communications, as perceived by parents and their adolescent children, in different types of family systems. The research is based in family systems theory and the Circumplex Model of Marital and Family Systems (Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell, 1979). The model uses two dimensions depicting cohesion and adaptability to determine family functioning.

In this study, input regarding parent-adolescent communication and family functioning was acquired from both parents (when possible) and one adolescent child so that a complete description of family functioning and communication skill could be obtained.

It is hoped that findings from this study will provide information pertaining to the relationship of the family during adolescence and communications on family system

functioning. These findings may have implications for family therapists who work with families with troubled adolescents. Social workers, counselors, family therapists and juvenile court workers may gain from results that identify areas that lead to potential family dysfunction. Finally it is hoped that a better understanding of the dynamics of parent-adolescent relationships will be gained.

Research Questions

Questions pertinent to the research include:

1. Where are the majority of families with problem adolescents located according to the Circumplex Model? Are these families different from the non-problem families? Do they tend to be placed at the extreme levels of functioning?
2. What relationship exists between family functioning and communication skills?
3. What relationship exists between family functioning and family satisfaction?
4. What relationship exists between family functioning and family conflict?
5. What are the characteristics of the various types of families as identified by the Circumplex Model in terms of other variables used in this study, that is; economic status, educational level, religion, extended family support, social support, esteem and communication, mastery and health.

Theoretical Rationale

Family Systems Theory

Family system theories are theoretical models, which focus on individuals and family interrelations. They are derived from general systems theory, which was designed to aid the understanding of biological and non-living systems generally. It is a model which many family therapists find useful, however, seeing and treating the family as a system is not dependent upon the use of this particular theoretical base. Nevertheless, general systems theory probably provides the best currently available way of understanding and describing how family groups function as entities, rather than as collections of individuals.

Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1968), who initially proposed general systems theory distinguished open from closed systems. Closed systems are those in which there is no interaction with surrounding environment, as in a chemical or physical reaction in a closed container. Such systems obey different rules from those obeyed by open systems. Closed systems, for example, show entropy, the tendency to reach the simplest possible state from whatever the starting situation is. Thus if two gases which do not react chemically with each other are introduced into a closed container, the result will be a diffuse complete mixing of the two. When this has occurred the system is said to be in a state of equilibrium.

By contrast, families with open systems, do not show entropy. Instead there is a steady inflow and outflow of relevant material across the boundary of the system. If the characteristics of the boundary remain the same and the outside environment is also unchanged, a steady state is reached. However, the environment of most open systems is susceptible to change. The characteristics of the boundary may also change. These properties of open systems make change and evolution possible.

Systems theory consists of many basic principles. These principles can be studied individually, however, it is difficult to describe family systems theory without recognizing their interrelatedness.

One key principle of a system is that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts. The whole adds the relationship to the parts. One part in isolation cannot define a relationship. When assessing a family, the whole must be seen as well as the way one individual acts in relation to another. The resultant interaction of members provides the organization to the system. This aspect should also be assessed. The complexity of a system increases with the addition of members. A change in one member or part of a system will have an impact on the whole because of interrelatedness.

Communication is clearly necessary within and between systems. Boundaries are largely defined by the communication that occurs across them. The use of a system

model involves paying considerable attention to the communication processes in the family.

Finally, feedback is important in understanding how systems work. Speaking in systems terms, a family may be characterized as "a dynamic steady state in which there are built-in control mechanisms, homeostatic mechanisms, that allow change to occur in an orderly and controlled manner" (Prochaska & Prochaska, 1978, p.20). By means of feedback, both positive and negative information about the state of the system can be brought back through the system. Automatically triggering any necessary changes to keep that system "on track". A part of a system can alter its communications or behavior based on information it receives regarding the effects of its previous outputs on other parts of the system.

Family members continuously exchange information - introducing new inputs, discarding unnecessary or harmful outputs, correcting errors, communicating feelings and interpreting responses, advising, notifying or problem solving. Positive feedback increases deviation from a steady state. By definition, positive feedback has the potential to amplify deviation to the point that the systems self-destructs if it eventually drives the system beyond the limit within which it can function (Steinglass, 1978). An escalating argument between father and child that gets increasingly vicious and violent and reaches the point where neither family member can control the consequences is an

example of such positive feedback.

Negative feedback is corrective, adjusting that input so that the system may adjust homeostatically to its environment and return to its steady state. Negative feedback minimizes deviation and is a critical component in the system's ability to maintain stability.

The most enduring subsystems are the spousal, the parental and the sibling subsystems (Minuchin, Rosman & Baker, 1978). The husband-wife subsystem is basic; any dysfunction in this subsystem reverberates through the family as children are scapegoated or co-opted into an alliance with one parent against the other because the couple are in conflict. The spousal subsystem teaches the child about the nature of intimate relationships and provides a model of transactions between a man and a woman, both of which are likely to affect the child's relationships later in life. The parental subsystem is involved with child rearing and serves such functions as nurturance, guidance and control. Through interaction with the parental subsystem, the child learns to deal with authority, with people of greater power, before increasing his or her own capacity for decision making and self-control. The sibling subsystem contains the child's first peer group. Through participation in this subsystem, patterns of negotiating, cooperating, or competing develop. The interpersonal skills thus developed by a child will increase

significance as he or she moves beyond the family into school and later into the world of work.

Family Systems Functioning

The Circumplex Model of Family Systems was developed and refined by David Olson and his associates (1979, 1980, 1983). The model defines family functioning with three major concepts; cohesion, adaptability and communication. Communication is viewed as a facilitating factor for the other two. (See Figure 1)

Cohesion is defined as the emotional bonding family members have toward one another. Adaptability is the capacity of the family system to change its power structure, role relation, and relationship rules in response to situational and developmental stress. Communication, the third dimension, is important for facilitating a family's movement along the cohesion and adaptability dimensions.

Olson and his associates have placed the dimensions of cohesion and adaptability in a Circumplex Model in which different types of family systems are identified. (See Figure 1). They hypothesized that a curvilinear relationship exists between cohesion and adaptability and optimal family functioning. Specifically, they proposed that moderate degrees of both cohesion and adaptability, as measured by the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales (FACES), are the most functional for family development. On the cohesion dimension, families need a

CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF MARITAL & FAMILY SYSTEMS

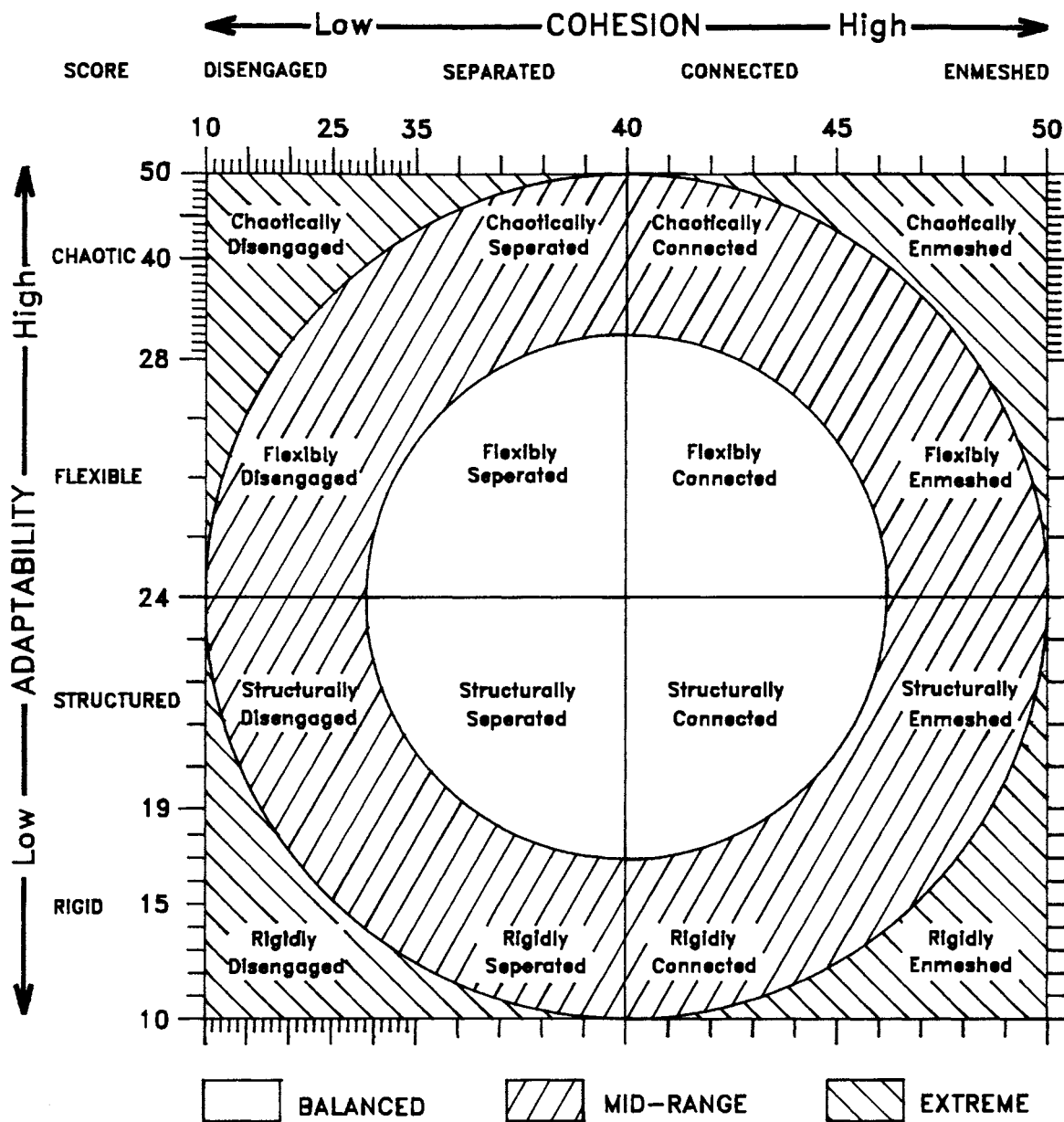


Figure 1. Sixteen types of marital and family systems derived from the Circumplex Model.

From Olson, D. et al., *Families: What makes them work*. Beverly Hills, Sage Publications, 1983.

balance between too much closeness (enmeshed system) and too little closeness (disengaged system). On the adaptability dimension, families need a balance between too much change (chaotic system) and too little change (rigid system). Families in the four central positions of the Circumplex Model (flexibly separated, flexibly connected, structurally separated, structurally connected) are balanced in that they can experience the extremes on the dimensions when necessary, but do not function at these extremes for a prolonged period of time. In contrast, families at the extreme are more likely to experience developmental problems and have difficulty moving to more functional degrees of cohesion and adaptability (Olson, et al 1983).

The importance of the communication dimension of the Circumplex Model lies in its capacity to facilitate movement on the cohesion and adaptability dimensions. Olson, et al. (1979, 1983) hypothesized that balanced families have more positive communications skills than extreme families. Positive communication skills include relatively high rates of supportive statements, effective problem-solving skills, and an emotionally warm tone. In contrast, extreme families are thought to evidence increased negative communication, including nonsupportive and defensive statements, and a relatively hostile tone.

The Circumplex Model of family classifications and the FACES instrument appear to be a second theory-based assessment model. The Circumplex Model was particularly

suited to the goals of this study and provided the primary model for the assessment of differences in problem and nonproblem families.

FACES was utilized to define families according to the cohesion and adaptability dimensions. Other instruments were utilized to further identify family characteristics such as parent-adolescent communication, family satisfaction, parent-adolescent conflict and individual and family background information. The study attempted to describe what the families looked like according to the Circumplex Model correlated with other key variables such as communication, family satisfaction, economic factors, and family demographics.

Family Communication Theory

Communication is generally accepted as one of the most crucial facets of interpersonal relationships. Its prominence in theoretical construction of family interactions attest to the great importance attributed to the role of communication (Barnes & Olson, 1985). Goffman (1959), in developing his ideas on symbolic interaction, viewed communication as central to the symbolic presentations that comprise all human interaction.

Communication is also important from the viewpoint of family development theory but its importance is perhaps most fully recognized by systems theory (Buckley, 1967; Russell, 1977). Information is exchanged within and between family

systems utilizing their established channels of communication.

One of the most detailed elaborations of the role of communication in human interactions is The Pragmatics of Human Communication (Watzlawick, Beavin & Jackson, 1967). They defined a family as a rule-governed system whose members are continually in the process of negotiating or defining the nature of their relationship. Lewis and Spanier's theory of marital quality (1979) postulates that effective interspousal communication contributes to the rewards each spouse experiences in their interactions.

The significance of effective communication between spouses and within families has been recognized by therapists, researchers and family life educators. Broderick cited the important diagnostic function of communication and the need to focus upon family communication patterns. Paolino and McCrady (1978) in their review of trends in marriage therapy and divorce recommended communication training as an effective initial intervention for mild to moderate marital problems.

The belief that good communication skills are crucial to satisfaction with family relationships is presented by a number of people involved in the marriage and family enrichment movement, who incorporate communication skill training into their enrichment programs (Mace, 1977).

Despite the significance of communication to family

relationships found in the writings of theoreticians and family practitioners, research into the nature of family communication presents some challenging difficulties. One of the main problems is the complexity of family communication which presents a wide variety of aspects upon which researchers might focus.

This study focuses on family communication as reported by each of three different family members. This study measured those aspects of family communication as experienced by each parent and one adolescent. Each described the amount of openness, the extent of problems or barriers to family communication and the degree to which people are selective in their discussion with other family members.

Communication theorists assume that you can learn about the family system by studying communication, both verbal and nonverbal. The focus is therefore on observable, current interactions within the family system, not on a historical analysis of the individual family members. The core concept of the communication theorists is that relationships can be understood by analyzing the communicational aspects of their interactions.

The quality and quantity of communication within the family will determine the family's functional level. One would suppose that balanced families would be more skilled at communication and present a healthier functioning family; extreme families may not possess the skills necessary for

effective communications. One would expect to find more dysfunctional families and adolescents with more severe problems in the extreme families.

Hypotheses

The general hypothesis of this study is that families of problem adolescents will be functionally different in terms of the Circumplex Model than families with nonproblem adolescents and that there will be different levels of communication skills in these families according to their level of functioning. Conceptual hypotheses are listed below:

- I. Families with problem adolescents function in ways that are different than families with nonproblem adolescents.
- II. Families with different levels of functioning will exhibit different levels of communication skills.
- III. Families with different levels of functioning will exhibit different levels of family satisfaction.
- IV. Families with problem adolescents and fewer socio-economic resources will be less functional than families with non-problem adolescents and greater resources.

Definitions of Key Terms

Family Cohesion: The "emotional bonding that family members have toward one another", or "the degree to which an individual was separated from or connected to his or her family system" (Olson, McCubbin, & Barnes, 1983). Some specific concepts related to cohesion are family boundaries, decision making, coalitions, time, space, friends, interests and recreation.

Circumplex Model: A model illustrating the theoretical rationale for determining family typology based on the dimensions of adaptability and cohesion. This model is a visual representation of interrelated family variables as illustrated in Figure 1.

Family Functioning: The family's level of adaptability and cohesion identified by the Circumplex Model. There are four possible levels of adaptability which range from low adaptability (rigid) to high adaptability (chaotic). The central range of this dimension consists of two levels; low central (structured) and high central (flexible). The four levels of cohesion range from low (disengaged) to high (enmeshed). The low central level is called separated and the high central level is called connected.

Family Types: Sixteen family typologies result when the adaptability and cohesion dimensions are combined. These sixteen types may be reduced to three types of

families; Extreme, Mid-range and Balanced (Figure 1).

Extreme Families: Family types found on the high or low end of both the cohesion and adaptability dimension. Four of the sixteen family types compose the extreme family category.

Mid-Range Families: Family types found on the high or low end of one of the dimensions and on the central level of the other family functioning dimension. This category consists of eight of the possible sixteen family types.

Balanced Families: Family types found on the two central levels of both the cohesion and adaptability dimension. Four of the sixteen family types fashion the balanced family category.

Family Systems Theory: A generic term that refers to a number of theoretical approaches that have applied general systems theory to families.

Family Communication: This is the third dimension in the Circumplex Model and it is considered to be a facilitating dimension. Communication is considered critical to movement on the other two dimensions. Because it is a facilitating dimension, communication is not included graphically in the model.

Positive Communication Skills: This enables couples and/or families to share with each other their changing

needs and preferences as they relate to cohesion and adaptability (i.e., empathy, reflective listening, supportive comments, sending clear and congruent messages and effective problem-solving skills), (Olson, 1972).

Negative Communication Skills: This type of skill minimized the ability of a couple or family member to share their feelings and, thereby, restrict their movement on these dimensions, (i.e., double messages, double binds, criticism, lack of empathy and poor problem-solving skills), (Olson, 1972).

Problem Families (Sometimes referred to as families with problem adolescents): Families that contain adolescents who have been referred to social or clinical agencies.

Non-Problem Families (Sometimes referred as families with non-problem adolescents): Families where no history of referral for any family members to a social or clinical agencies has been made.

Organization of the Study

This chapter has described the basic concepts of family systems functioning and family during adolescence. It also reviewed the theoretical framework which serves as the basis for empirical study and delineated the areas of investigation.

The following chapter consists of a literature review describing family systems functioning based on the Circumplex Model. It also contains information on family communication patterns, parent-adolescent conflict and various approaches utilized with families during adolescence.

Chapter Three outlines the specific research methodology, procedures, and relates the composition of study sample. It also describes the instruments selected and designed for the purpose of this study.

Chapter Four discusses the analysis of data collected from research questionnaires. Also an evaluation of findings for each hypothesis is presented.

Chapter Five summarizes the study, its application to family studies and family practitioners. Conclusions and recommendations for further study are described in this chapter.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the research literature on the topic of families during adolescence strongly supports the role of the family in influencing adolescent behavior. The concern with the family at adolescence, while not a new concern, is nonetheless new in its focus. The reason for rekindled interest in adolescents' relations with mothers and fathers are many, but among them is the increased public attention that family issues in general have received during the past five years, both in the popular press and within the scientific literature.

Another reason concerns the publicity given in recent years to adolescent problem behavior, including delinquency, substance abuse, school failure and pregnancy. With this publicity has come the realization, that despite our tendencies to look to the peer group as the prime shaper of adolescent misbehavior, the family remains a fundamentally important influence on functioning throughout an individual's life. In his classic book Changing Youth in a Changing Society, Michael Rutter (1980) summarizes as follows:

taken together the findings... indicate that adolescents still tend to turn to their parents for guidance on principles and on major values but look more to their peers in

terms of interest and fashions in clothes, in leisure activities, and other youth-oriented pursuits" (p.30). Rutter concludes: "Young people tend both to share their parent's values on the major issues of life and also to turn to them for guidance on most major concerns. The concept of parent-child alienation as a usual feature of adolescence is a myth (p.31).

Thus there is reason to believe that through research on the family we can better understand, and perhaps remedy, a variety of adolescent problems.

This chapter provides a conceptual overview in which theoretical positions pertinent to this research are explored. Studies which are relevant to theory, which lead to the generation of hypotheses and provide rationale are reported. The family as a system is explored first. Literature pertaining to family functioning is presented next, followed by studies and observations related to family communication models, parent-adolescent conflict, and families with problem-adolescents. The final section establishes the relationship between the concepts.

The Family as a System

The notion of the family as a system has its roots in the general systems theory that was pioneered by Ludwig Von Bertalanffy (Bertalanffy, 1968). Bertalanffy's early formulations, based on his work in the biological sciences, viewed the essential phenomena of life as individual entities called organisms. An organism was defined as a form of life composed of mutually dependent parts and

processes standing in mutual interaction (Bertalanffy, 1968). The organism was seen to have self-regulative capacities and to be intrinsically active. While it interacted with its surrounding environment, taking in matter and energy and sending out matter and energy in exchange, its primary motivation for behavior was in the autonomous activity resting within the organism itself.

Family System

One might begin defining a family system by paraphrasing Bertalanffy and defining it as a dynamic order of people standing in mutual interaction. This family system would have a multitude of ways and styles of exchanging matter and energy with its environment, including the distinctive human capacity for imagining that an exchange has taken place even when it hasn't. It would have self-regulating capacities (moral, political, social, religious, economic and values and constraints). In addition, it would be intrinsically active, one would not have to look outside the family system to understand a sudden shift in family dynamics.

Purpose or Goal

The family system is a purposive, goal-oriented, task-performing system. A distinguishing characteristic of the family as a social system involves the functions which it performs for its members and for the society at large. The

interdependence of family members gives rise to a network of interaction patterns linking the occupants of the several positions in the family. These patterns are based on shared expectations and value judgement that set the family unit apart from other associations, give it boundary maintaining qualities, and enable it to perform the functions that keep it valuable (Hill, 1972).

Organization and Structure

A family system is highly cohesive and is well organized with a definite structure, and it functions in ways which are the characteristics of that family. A portion of the energy of the system is used to organize the system. Some energy is directed toward task functions, but sometimes too much energy directed toward maintenance functions at the expense of task functions can be troublesome for the family. Therefore, in a disorganized system one may observe a lack of a coherent sense of relationship and the expenditure of energy in a random manner. At this point there will be some reorganization in the family system. There will be changes in existing norms and rules (Becvar & Becvar, 1982).

Self stabilization of a system occurs as the system compensates for changing conditions in the environment by making coordinated changes in the system's internal environment. The buffering capacity of the system reduces the effects of the environment on its respective parts. By

the use of feedback mechanisms or communication systems become adaptive.

Communication and Information

Processing

Communication is very important in families because each individual is part of the whole and part of a subsystem. A subsystem may be a piece of a larger structure and at the same time also be a complete structure in itself. Communication patterns define the nature of relationship in a family system. Communication can be verbal, nonverbal or contextual. A change in context will elicit a change in the rules of a relationship (Becvar & Becvar, 1982). Social systems are held together and change by transfer of information within and between the boundaries of different systems. In family systems, information flow enables the system to stabilize and/or adapt to change as necessary and thus continue its existence.

Boundaries

A fundamental characteristic of systems is that it has boundaries. In the family system, this boundary is defined by the redundant patterns of behavior which characterize the relationships within the system and by those values which are sufficiently distinct as to give a family its particular identity (Becvar & Bevcар, 1982). The amount of information permitted into a system from without or the rigidity of the

boundary is indicative of the openness or closedness of a system. If a family accepts much information from without, the boundaries of that system become indistinct and are not discernible as separate from other systems. If boundaries are rigid, the family will not be flexible enough to effectively process information from its environment.

Open and Closed Systems

Openness and closedness of a family system refer to the boundaries a family establishes among family members and between itself and other systems. An open system interacts more with the environment; therefore, there is a continuous elaboration in its structure (Minuchin, 1974; Skynner, 1981). Over a period of time, the family develops certain repetitive, enduring techniques or patterns of interaction for maintaining its equilibrium when confronted by stress. An open system interacts more with the environment; therefore, there is a continuous elaboration in its structure. Openness and closedness of a system determine how family members establish their boundaries among themselves and with other systems.

If a system is closed, the family boundaries are rigid and nonpermeable to allow input or information from another system (Minuchin, 1974). In a healthy system, neither openness nor closedness is sufficient. If a family system is too open, it indicates the system functions toward the extreme disengaged end of the continuum and tolerates a wide

range of individual variation in its members. If the system is too closed, the behavior of one family member immediately affects others. Both extremes of the open and closed continuum are detrimental to a family system's viability. In the functional family, a healthy balance is more desirable.

Family Systems Functioning

Although there are many ways of looking at families, there are two main approaches to classifying families. These consider are the family's developmental stage; and family functioning, the essence of which is how the members relate to each other.

The categorizing of families on the basis of developmental stages is relatively straight forward. While it is certainly of clinical value it is usually a secondary consideration. The primary one is the ongoing process of interaction and functioning of the family. In an interdisciplinary area such as family studies, it is important to develop and refine some systems of classification so that different scientific and professional disciplines can communicate more meaningfully (See Table I).

Most family researchers and practitioners are systems-oriented. In general, they focus on patterns, relationships and reciprocal interactions within the family unit, but their emphases vary.

TABLE I
THEORETICAL MODELS OF FAMILY FUNCTIONING

THEORETICAL MODEL	FAMILY TYPOLOGY	FAMILY PARADIGMS	BEAVERS LEVEL OF FUNCTIONING	MCMASTER MODEL OF FAMILY FUNCTIONING	CIRCUMPLEX MODEL
Principle Theorist(s)	Kantor and Lehr	Reiss	Beavers	Epstein, Bishop & Levin	Olson
Theoretical Framework	Family systems	Family systems	Family systems	Family systems	Family systems
Family Types	Open, closed, and random	Environment-sensitive families, interpersonal, distance-sensitive families, consensus-sensitive families	Highly functional (competent families), midrange families (moderately dysfunctional), less functional families (severely dysfunctional families)	Rigid, flexible, laissezfaire & chaotic	16 family types based on each family's extent of cohesion and adaptability
Notions of Change	Power	Closure	Adaptability (systemic growth)	Behavior control, problem solving, roles	Adaptability
Focus of Model	Differentiating family systems through an analysis of their structural development and transactional styles	Classifies families according to the way they construct reality and make sense out of their social environment	Distinguish the processes occurring within families that differentiate those that function competently from those that become dysfunctional	Considers six aspects of family functioning for a current assessment of family functioning	Family classification matrix based on underlying dimensions (cohesion, adaptability and communication) of family functioning

Theoretical Models and Circumplex Model

Kantor and Lehr's Family Typology

Based on their observations of ordinary families over a period of nearly a decade and without attempting to distinguish "normal" from "pathological" families, Kantor and Lehr (1975) offer a comprehensive description of a variety of family structures. Working within a systems framework, they attempt to identify those basic family processes that regulate the behavior of members. In particular, they are concerned with how families process information and develop strategies for regulating distances between one another. Some families, for example, scrutinize an outsider for a lengthy period of time before admission is granted, while other families, with looser boundaries respond quickly with an invitation to come inside (White, 1978).

According to Kantor and Lehr, (1975), there are three basic family types - open, closed, and random - representing different configurations for structuring the family's internal relationships and its access to, and exchange with, the outside world. No type is superior or inferior to the others; no type exists in a pure form, although the researchers believe that families cluster around the three categories. Each type has its own rules, boundary arrangements, and form of homeostatic balance.

Kantor and Lehr, (1975) do not assume that dysfunctional families necessarily stem from one or another of these structural types. Potentially, each type of normal homeostatic arrangement may become flawed. If closed structures become too rigid, family members may run away or otherwise rebel. Random family structures run the risk of becoming chaotic. Even open families, desirable as they appear to be, may be disposed toward schism or divorce if incompatibilities produce excessive strain and create a family impasse (Hoffman, 1981).

Reiss's Family Paradigms

A psychiatrist, David Reiss, originally intent on discovering through laboratory research how families with schizophrenic members process information with the hope of learning more about comparable information-processing deficits in the identified patient Reiss has moved beyond the study of family cognitive patterns and problem-solving styles. What has emerged from his efforts, now extended to include "nonclinical" (normal) families - is a differentiation of several family perceptual and interactive patterns that goes beyond arbitrary functional/dysfunctional distinctions (Reiss, 1981; Oliveri & Reiss, 1982). Reiss's current research efforts are directed at discovering how families develop "paradigms", a family's shared assumptions about the social world, how such family paradigms may change, and what happens when a paradigm breaks down.

Reiss (1981) differentiates three ways of constructing reality, or three types family paradigms. Environment sensitive families believe the world is knowable and orderly and expect each member to contribute to its understanding and mastery. Interpersonal distance-sensitive families are composed of disengaged individuals "loners" who strive to demonstrate their autonomy and believe that any attention paid to suggestions or observations from other is a sign of weakness. Consensus - sensitive families are made up of enmeshed members who perceive the world as so chaotic and confusing that they must join together, maintain agreement at all times, and thus protect themselves from danger.

It is the environment-sensitive families that is the most problem-free. Its members are able to accept aid and advice from others, benefit from cues from the environment, act individually or jointly and delay closure in order to make an effective response based on the consideration of a number of alternative solutions. In terms of flexibility, the environment-sensitive family resembles the open family systems described in Olson's "circumplex model". Should its paradigm be threatened as a result of a family crisis, this type of family will attempt to maintain family integrity and overcome adversity together (Reiss, 1981).

McMaster'S Model of Family Functioning

This model was initially developed at McMaster University, Hamilton Ontario, Canada and later refined at

Brown University in Providence, Rhode Island (Epstein, Bishop & Levin, 1979). The model focuses on those dimensions of family functioning selected by the research as having the most impact on the emotional and physical well-being of family members. The model having evolved through a series of refinements over a period of 25 years, is a system-based approach to family evaluation. Families are assessed with respect to their functioning in three areas: (1) the basic task area, how family members deal with problems of providing food, money, transportation, and shelter; (2) the developmental task area, how they deal with problems arising as a result of changes over time, such as first pregnancy, or last child leaving home; and (3) the hazardous task area, how they handle crisis that arise as the result of illness, accident, loss of income, job change and so forth. Families unable to deal effectively with these three task areas have been found to be most likely to develop clinically significant problems (Epstein, Bishop, & Baldwin, 1982).

To appraise the structure, organization, and transactional patterns of a family, the McMaster model attends particularly to six dimensions of family functioning: (1) family problem solving, the ability to resolve problems to a level that maintains effective functioning; (2) Communication, how and how well, a family exchanges information and affect; (3) roles, how clearly and appropriately roles are defined, how responsibilities are

allocated and accountability is monitored in order to sustain the family and support the personal development of its members; (4) affective responsiveness, the family's ability to respond to a given situation with the appropriate quality and quantity of feelings; (5) affective involvement, the extent to which the family shows interest in and values the particular activities and interests of family members; and (6) behavior control, the patterns the family adopts for handling dangerous situations; for handling social interaction within and outside the family; for meeting and expressing members' psychobiological needs (eating, sleeping, eliminating, sex) and drives (such as aggression).

Four styles of behavior control are recognized by the architects of the McMaster Model: (1) rigid, with roles having very constricted and narrow standards; (2) flexible, where there is a reasonable standard and flexibility around it; (3) laissez faire, where there is total latitude and anything goes; and (4) chaotic, in which the style of control switches, usually unpredictably, from rigid to flexible to laissez faire, so that no-one ever knows what to expect.

Beaver's Level of Functioning

Beavers and his colleagues have made a contribution by observing and analyzing various forms of negotiation and other transaction patterns within competent families in an effort to shed light on how such processes evolve in healthy

families.

In their research, Lewis, Beavers, Gossett and Phillips (1976) looked beyond the strengths and weaknesses of individual family members in order to identify the interactions within a "healthy" family system that make for optimal functioning.

Their research plan required several judges to rate each family's video taped behavior along five major dimensions and according to a variety of subtopics and themes: (1) Structure of the family; (2) Mythology, degree to which a family's concept of itself was congruent with rater's appraisal of family behavior; (3) Goal-Directed Negotiation, the effectiveness of the family's negotiations; (4) Autonomy; and (5) Family Affect.

Beaver's model indicated that no single quality was unique to highly functional or competent families compared to the less functional families. A number of variables in combination accounted for family members' special style of relating to each other. Thus, family "health" was considered not as a "single thread" but a tapestry reflecting differences in degree along many dimensions. The capacity of the family to communicate thoughts and feelings and the cardinal role of the parental coalition in establishing the level of functioning of the total family stand out as the key factors. The parental coalition provide family leadership and serves as a model for interpersonal relationships.

In the highly functional families according to Beavers, members welcome contact with each other. They expect transactions to be caring, open, empathic, and trusting. By contrast, members of dysfunctional families often are defensive distant, or hostile. In highly functional families, members respect personal autonomy and tolerate individuality; each member feels free to agree or disagree with others, even if it leads to conflict. Family members are active and do things together. In dysfunctional families, members are more apt to feel isolated and to respond to each other in a passive, powerless, controlled fashion.

Beavers (1977) presents evidence that families can be ordered along a continuum with respect to their effectiveness. The most flexible, adaptable, goal-achieving systems are at one end of the continuum; the most inflexible, undifferentiated, and ineffective systems are at the other end of the continuum. Beavers uses the systems concept of entropy as an aid to understanding the effectiveness of family functioning. Entropy is a term used to describe the tendency of things to go into disorder; thus, a family with low entropy, implies a high degree of orderliness. Systems including family systems, have degrees of entropy. Beavers contends that the more closed family systems are doomed to increase in entropy because, lacking access to the world outside their boundaries, they cannot avoid the pull toward greater disorder. By contrast, open

systems receive energy by interacting with the environment and use it to build increasingly ordered structures, low in entropy, within their boundaries.

Circumplex Model

Family researcher David Olson and his colleagues (Olson, Sprenkle & Russell, 1979) propose an integrative model of family functioning based on the intersection of two basic family dimensions: cohesion and adaptability. General systems theory is the foundation for the circumplex model of marital and family systems. This model enables one to develop and describe 16 types of marital and family systems.

The functioning of the family is defined by its organization and interactional patterns. Olson, Russell, and Sprenkle (1983; Olson, Sprenkle, and Russell, 1979), in an attempt to unify the multitude of concepts from family systems theorists describing family organizations and interactional patterns, clustered more than 50 concepts from the family therapy and family research literature and postulated three central dimensions of family behavior; cohesion, adaptability and communication.

According to the Circumplex Model, sixteen types of families can be identified. Cohesion is defined as the emotional bonding family members have with one another and the degree of individual autonomy a person experiences in the family system. Some of the specific variables that can

be used to measure family cohesion are: parent-child coalition, independence, boundaries, coalition, time, space, friends, decision-making, interest, and recreation (Olson et al. 1980). There are four levels of cohesion ranging from extremely low (disengaged) to moderately low (separated), moderately high (connected), and extremely high (enmeshed). The balanced levels of moderately low to moderately high cohesion are hypothesized to be the most viable for family functioning.

The other major dimension of family functioning according to the Circumplex Model is adaptability. Adaptability refers to the ability of a family system to change its power structure, rules, and roles relationship in response to situational and developmental stress. There are four levels of the adaptability dimension. To describe, measure and diagnose on this dimension a number of variables can be used: Family power (assertiveness, control, discipline), negotiation, role relationships, relationship rules and feedback (Olson et al., 1980). The four levels of adaptability range from extremely low (rigid) to low to moderate (structural) to moderate to high (flexible) to extremely high (chaotic).

Olson and colleagues argue that a balance between these dimensions is most desirable for effective marital and family relationships as well as optimum individual development. With too much cohesion, the family is enmeshed and its members overly entwined in each other's lives; with

too little, the members remain distant, isolated and disengaged. Excessive adaptability leads to too much change, unpredictability, and possible chaos; too little adaptability may cause rigidity and stagnation.

Olson and associates' empirically developed Circumplex Model identifies 16 types of marital and family systems, as previously mentioned, based on each family type's extent of cohesion and adaptability. As shown in figure 1, the 16 types emerged from classifying the two dimensions into four levels (very low, low to moderate, moderate to high and very high), thus creating a 4x4 matrix or 16 cells. The four cells in the central area (flexibly separated, flexibly connected, structurally separated, and structurally connected) reflect balanced levels of cohesion and adaptability and have been found most functional in regard to both individual and family development. Correspondingly, the four extreme types (chaotically disengaged, chaotically enmeshed, rigidly disengaged, and rigidly enmeshed) are least functional over a period of time, although they may work well temporarily, as in response to a crisis such as death in the family.

The four central types are labeled open systems and the outer rings are characterized as closed or random systems, thus linking the Circumplex Model to the typology developed by Kantor and Lehr (1975). However, unlike Kantor and Lehr, Olson, Sprenkle and Russell (1979) contend that closed and

random family types are potentially dysfunctional, not simply different forms of family structure and life style.

Empirical Studies of the Circumplex Model

Empirical studies have verified the use of Circumplex Model as a theoretical base for clinical and research purposes. Olson and associates (1983) used the circumplex model and FACES II as the basis for a national survey of 1,140 Lutheran nonclinical couples and families from 31 states. This study measured family types, family stress, family resources, family coping, and family satisfactions. The research was an attempt to investigate normative family processes with regard to family life cycle. The outcome of the study strongly supported the use of the circumplex model and the hypothesis that balanced families seem to function more adequately throughout the family life cycles. Families also tended to use internal resources rather than external supports to cope with family stress. Community resources were used only if members could not cope by using their internal resources.

Russell (1979) used the SIMFAM interaction task to test the circumplex model. She studied both the cohesion and adaptability dimensions, testing 31 non-clinical families with adolescent girls. As hypothesized, high-functioning families were moderate on cohesion and adaptability, while low functioning families scored at the extreme of cohesion and adaptability. Placing the families into the circumflex

types, she found, as hypothesized, that all of the low functioning families fell into the extreme types while most (10 to 15) of the high functioning families fell into the balanced types.

Portner (1981) compared 55 families in family therapy (parent and one adolescent) with a matched control group of 117 non-problem families. She compared the two groups using FACES and the Inventory of Parent-Adolescent Conflict (IPAC). As hypothesized, more non-clinic families fell in the balanced areas of the Circumplex Model: 58% fell in the balanced areas on the cohesion and 42% fell in the balanced areas on adaptability. Clinic families tended to be more toward the chaotic disengaged extreme type (30%) with fewer non-clinic families at that extreme (12%).

Bell (1982) also utilized FACES and the IPAC to study 33 families with runaways and compared them with the same 117 non-problem families used in the Portner (1981) study. As hypothesized, he found significantly more non-problem families as described by the mother and adolescents (but not the fathers) in the balanced area compared to the runaway families. Conversely, he found more runaway families at the mid-range and extreme levels than non-problem families.

Comparing 27 high risk families with 35 low risk families, Garbarino, Sebes and Schellenbach (1985), focused on the type of family systems by using FACES. Using intact families, both parents and one adolescent completed FACES and a variety of other scales to assess family stress,

parenting, and family conflict. As hypothesized by the Circumplex Model, they found the majority of the low risk families were a balanced type (mainly flexibly connected type) while the majority of the high risk families were an extreme type (mainly chaotically enmeshed).

Other studies have focused on alcoholic families in which the identified patient is the mother or father. Using the original FACES, significant differences were found between the chemically dependent families and the non-dependent families (Olson, and Killorin, 1985). As hypothesized, alcoholic families had a significantly higher level of extreme families compared to the non-dependent families. Twenty-one percent of the chemically dependent families were extreme types while only four percent of non-dependent families were extreme types. Conversely, while about one-third of the dependent families were balanced, about two-thirds of the non-dependent families were balanced.

A recent study by Rodick, Hewggeler and Hanson (1985) used FACES to compare 58 mother-son dyad from father-absent families in which half had an adolescent juvenile offender and the other half had adolescents with no history of arrest or psychiatric referral. Only 7% of the delinquents were balanced while 69% of the non-delinquents families were balanced. Conversely, 93% of the delinquent families were mid-range or extreme types, while this was characteristics of only 31% of the non-delinquent families.

These studies of clinical samples clearly demonstrate the discriminant power of FACES and the Circumflex Model in distinguishing between problem families and non-symptomatic families. There is strong empirical support for the hypothesis that balanced families have more positive communication skills.

Family Communication Models

The general communicational orientation of family researchers and practitioners was developed by the Bateson and Mental Research Institute (MRI) groups during the 1950's. At various times, these groups included Gregory Bateson, Jay Haley, Don Jackson, Paul Watzlawick, Virginia Satir and John Weakland. The theoretical foundation for a communication/interaction approach to the family was laid, based largely on ideas derived from general systems theory, cybernetics and information theory.

To communication theorists, all behavior is communication, just as it is impossible not to behave, so communication cannot be avoided. All family therapists are interested in how family members communicate with each other, but some pay special attention to this aspect of family functioning. Foley (1974) has divided communication theorists into three groups, according to the aspect of family communications which they most emphasize. These aspects are Communication and cognition; Communication and power; and Communication and feeling (See Table II).

TABLE II
FAMILY COMMUNICATION MODELS
COMPARISON OF CRITICAL ISSUES

	COMMUNICATION AND COGNITION	COMMUNICATION AND POWER	COMMUNICATION AND FEELINGS
Principle Theorists	Don Jackson	Jay Haley	Virginia Satir
Major Concepts	Emphasized cognition and the relationship rules and homeostatic mechanisms that maintain the homeostasis of the system	Focus on the power struggle among family system members who vie to define the nature of the relationship	Highlights the concept of self-esteem and maturation, positing that a mature individual has learned to communicate effectively and has achieved a differentiation of self from the family system
Goal of Treatment	Aim at behavioral change, this could be seen when the homeostasis and rules of the family system had changed	Goal of family therapy is behavioral change that will result in a new homeostatic setting for the family system	Emphasis on improving methods of communication by correcting discrepancies between the literal message and the command message
Role of Therapist	"Expert" focused on therapist and the family's thinking	Metagovernor of the system" to resolve the problems of the power struggle	"official observer" of the family rules
Therapeutic Issues: History	Interested in historical data only if it sheds light on the current interactional process of the family	Does not find historical data relevant or pertinent to current power struggles	Conducts what is called the "family life chronology," acquaints all members of family with background and takes attention off identified patient
Diagnosis	Used only in terms of assessing the homeostatis of the family system, not in terms of identifying pathology	Does not find diagnosis helpful or useful. Labeling interactional problems does not help to change them.	Diagnosis has not practical value
3Therapeutic Relationship	Detached and cool, at all times maintaining the posture of the professional; manipulative and controlling	Projects himself in a calm, controlling manner, deal with emotions in terms of power struggle, also manipulative and controlling	Caring teacher and friend who teaches the family. More personally engaged less manipulative

Communication and Cognition

A leading pioneer of this approach was the late Don Jackson. Jackson's major theoretical contributions deal with the organization of human interaction. It was Jackson (1960) who introduced the concept of family homeostasis to the Bateson research project. Jackson observed that disturbed families were particularly resistant to change. When the patient improved, the stability or equilibrium of the family was disturbed; when the patient again lapsed into illness, the comfortable, status-quo balance, or equilibrium, returned. Jackson theorized that over a period of time, a family develops certain repetitive, enduring interfactional techniques for maintaining its equilibrium when confronted with stress.

It is Jackson's emphasis on the process of articulating relationships through specific interactions that characterizes him as a communication theorist. Jackson focused on (1) observing interfactional patterns and (2) investigating the lines of communication by looking at how the rules of the system have been violated, who has the right to do what to whom and when and who makes the family rules. Jackson aimed at behavioral change, rather than at change in attitude or feeling. Jackson saw the report aspect of the communication as dealing cognitively with the individual's thoughts about who he or she is and what the relationship means and the command aspect as intending to determine who the individual is, and so, to control what the

relationship should mean. Jackson's emphasis was on relabeling the implications of the behavior, rather than on clarifying the affect or power aspects of the relationship. His type of intervention reconceptualizes the meaning of the relationship for involved parties. Such a reconceptualization gives people the opportunity either to accept present behavior because they now understand it differently or to change it because they knowingly choose to do so.

For Jackson, then, the nature of the double bind is to effect one's identity and the meaning of one's behavior within a system. Communication in general has more to do with meaning and the determination of an individuals' identity than with affect or issues of power and control.

Communication and Power

This is an emphasis of Jay Haley (1976). Haley sees relationships as involving struggles for power. People in relationships are always attempting and struggling to define or redefine the relationship. Haley states that when one person communicates a message to the other, he is by that act making a maneuver to define the relationship (Haley, 1963). This is the result of the dual nature-the "report" and "command" aspects of messages and cannot be avoided. The power struggles that Haley postulates between any two people is not a matter of who controls whom, but rather a

matter of who controls the defining of the relationship and by what maneuvers.

Contrary to the more traditional view that symptoms serve to maintain an intrapsychic balance, Haley believes that symptoms maintain the homeostasis of the family system. Obviously, this necessitates looking at the symptoms in terms of how they maintain or challenge the power struggles within the system.

For Haley the key is control; control is achieved through communication; communication tells us whether relationships are symmetrical or complementary; people attempt to control each other through maneuvers and symptoms; change occurs through renegotiation and redefinition of the power relationships.

Within the axioms of communication theory, Haley's special emphasis is on power. For Haley, the report aspect of the communication deals with power, with how one controls the dynamics of the relationship; the intent of the command aspect is to define one's efficacy and one's prerogatives in entering into complementary or symmetrical relationships. As a therapist, Haley's emphasis is on clarifying the nature of the power relationship. This type of intervention teaches communicators awareness of their actual intentions in using underlying or implied maneuvers to win or share power in a relationship. This new awareness gives them the opportunity to accept or change behaviors. For Haley, then, communications in general have more to do with control and

the determination of one's options for control within the relationship than with identity or affect.

Communication and Feeling

Virginia Satir, was one of the best known of the early pioneers of family therapy, explained her view in her book Conjoint Family Therapy (Satir, 1967). She accepts most of the points of communications theory, agreeing that communication is non-verbal as well as verbal and that the context in which it occurs is important too. However, she places special emphasis on the communication of feelings. More than many other family practitioners she is also interested in the personality and development of the individuals in a family and the psychodynamic processes behind their current behavior.

The concept of maturation is central to Satir's viewpoint:

'The most important concept in therapy, because it is a touchstone for all the rest, is that of maturation' (Satir, 1967). Satir explains that mature people are those who are able to take full charge of themselves by assuming responsibility for their own choices and decisions.

Maturation is closely related to Satir's other core concept of self-esteem, in that one cannot be mature without having a feeling of self-worth. Communications within a family system reflect the self-esteem of the individuals within the family systems. Whereas, Jackson, emphasized thinking, Satir believes that the feeling, or emotional system of the family is expressed through communications.

Thus, the essence of communications lies in the feeling dimension. It is this emphasis that places Satir in the communication theory framework.

Satir believes that dysfunction occurs when communication is incongruent. By incongruent Satir means that the communicational and metacommunicational aspects of the message do not agree. People who communicate in dysfunctional styles are not only reflecting low self-esteem, but are also communicating non-acceptance of the other person or persons.

Within the principles of communication theory, Satir's special emphasis is on affect. For Satir, the report aspect of the communication deals with affect, with how one feels in the relationship, the intent of the command aspect is to define one's qualities as a care giver and care receiver. Satir's emphasis is on clarifying the expression of feeling within the relationship. This type of intervention allows communicators to become aware of the real feelings underlying their communications. This awareness gives them the opportunity to accept present behavior because they recognize the true feelings underlying these behaviors or to change behaviors in accordance with their new awareness.

For Satir, the nature of the double bind is to effect one's value as a nurturer or recipient of nurturance and consequently to compromise one's expression of feeling with a relationship. Communications in general have more to do

with how one feels and how one gives or received care than with identity and meaning or issues of power and control.

Parent-Adolescent Conflict

Conflict between parents and adolescents is usually seen as a normal and necessary part of human development (Conklin, 1979). Matteson found that parent-adolescent conflict was associated with marital problems (Matteson, 1974). Too much conflict can lead to family violence or dissolution (Bybee, 1979). High conflict is also associated with adolescent drug abuse (Baither, 1978), juvenile delinquency (Alexander, 1973), school failure (Cockram & Beloff, 1978) and runaways (Justice & Duncan, 1975).

A conflict is basically a disagreement between two or more persons (Ohlson, 1979); in this case, parents and adolescents. However, parent-adolescent conflict is more than just disagreement. Conflict connotes greater hostility, aggression and emotion than does disagreement. Parent-adolescent conflict is distinguished from other forms of interpersonal conflict by the relationship of the participant and their life goals. For example, marital relationships assume that the partners desire to live and grow together. In a parent-adolescent relationship, however, the parent usually wants the adolescent to follow directions and not make the same mistakes the parent made as a teenager, while the adolescent usually strives for independence from the family (Robin, 1979). Thus,

disagreements take place not only over content issues (e.g., how late to stay out), but also over how decisions will be made (process rules).

How parents "parent" obviously affects relationships with adolescents. Alexander (1973) states that normal families appear to facilitate more of the independent, "parent-like" styles of communication (supportiveness) in their adolescent offspring, while deviant families do not. Although no reason for differences in conflict is given, Alexander implies that the problem is generational: Bad parenting leads to conflicted adolescence and more bad parenting when these adolescents become parents.

In another study which yielded interesting results, Eme, Maisiak and Goodale (1979) surveyed 240 high school students concerning the "seriousness" of adolescent problems. Students aged 13-17 years, representing a random sample from a four-year high school, ranked the problems presented in (Table 2) on a four point scale (0=low concern, 3=high concern). Their study presents an unusual picture of the relative seriousness of the effect of parent-adolescent conflict on the adolescent. However, "conflict" was not addressed directly and students may have been influenced by the school setting of the survey. Again, older students may have been concern with becoming more independent from their families; younger students may have been more family oriented.

In a study by Genshaft (1977), high conflict was found to be associated with lower frequencies of communication. Harris and Howard (1979) reported that unhappy adolescents perceive their parents as mistreating and misunderstanding them. In a study of adolescent self-esteem, family communication, and marital satisfaction, Matteson (1974) concluded that children learn inadequate communication patterns from their parents. These parents are associated with low self-esteem in the adolescent and marital problems for the parents. Peterson (1979) regards the earlier onset of puberty today as compared with one hundred years ago as a major source of family disruption, since teens are more at risk for pregnancy.

Gambrill (1977) reported that parent-adolescent conflict was most often a dyadic problem; that is, only when the parent and the adolescent tried to communicate did things become conflicted. These same individuals probably could communicate effectively with other family members or with unrelated people.

In summary, a review of empirical studies strongly supports that parent-adolescent conflict is due to a communication skills deficit. This deficit includes a lack of positive interactions (and an excess of negatives) and a lack of problem-solving skills. Communication tends to be reciprocal and for highly distressed dyad, coercive (Prinz, 1976).

Also, demographic characteristics seem to affect conflict and communication (Jacob, 1975). The age and sex of the adolescent should be taken into account when analyzing results. The socioeconomic status of the family may influence the kinds of skills that may be learned, also, the premorbid status of individual members of the family may have a significant effect. Finally, religion and ethnicity, family size, and parents age may be factors which affect the success of treatment (Hall, 1987).

Families with Problem-Adolescents

Researchers and practitioners have emphasized the critical role of the family in the development of delinquency (Tolan, Cromwell, & Brasswell, 1986). Although most of the early studies focused on family structural variables, such as father's absence, researchers have consistently commented that family interaction style and emotional atmosphere are more direct indicators of the family's role in delinquency. Glueck and Glueck (1952) reported that family cohesion and parental discipline style were the variables that best differentiated delinquents from their nondelinquent counterparts.

Studies that focused directly on family interactions reached similar conclusions (Hetherington & Martin, 1979). One study found that families of delinquents, as a group, had difficulty resolving conflicts, and that within these families, the delinquent child was often more influential

than one or both parents on the tenor and direction of family interactions. In contrast, nondelinquent families usually achieved a satisfactory resolution of problems, although conflicts were common during the problem-solving process (Hetherington, Stouwie & Ridbeng, 1971).

Alexander (1973) compared observed interactions of normal and delinquents families and found that delinquent families often appeared to have confusing interactions with unclear communications. Specifically, he observed that delinquent families were characterized by defensive communications, extensive dominance of talking time by one family member, and a lack of communications focus. In these families, what a member said was not necessarily related to what had been said by the previous speaker.

The consistency of results found in interaction studies, and their congruence with the conclusions drawn by earlier studies of families and delinquency, provide support for a general proposition that family functioning as manifested in interfactual patterns, is a critical influence on delinquency. In addition, these findings imply that family-focused interventions should be considered for this population.

Another major set of studies by Alexander and his colleagues, which focused on the impact of the family system on delinquency, used a combination of behavioral and systemic concepts to compare interactions and communication styles of delinquent and adaptive families qualitatively and

quantitatively (Alexander, 1973; Alexander & Barton, 1976; & Alexander et al., 1977). Alexander noted three significant differences. First, among families of delinquents talking time was unevenly distributed, with one family member dominating talk during family interactions; in adaptive families a more even distribution of talking time occurred. Second, in delinquent families conversations were disjointed and disorganized. The conversation of adaptive families tended to be focused upon a mutual topic, with the flow of conversation smooth and coordinated. Finally, Alexander observed that the content of familial conversations differed between the two types of families. Adaptive families tended to have a greater proportion of supportive communications; delinquent families had a greater proportion of defensive communications.

Alexander suggests that delinquency is an outgrowth of confusing communication and a lack of reciprocal reinforcement of clear, meaningful communication. This manner of functioning is disintegrative to the family system's functional capabilities and problem adolescent is but one by product (Alexander et al, 1977).

Summary

The review of the literature provides confirmation that focus on the family through research can allow us to better understand adolescent and the family's role in their development. Early studies focused on a variety of family

structural variables. Most studies have neglected to take into account the responses of multiple family members rather than relying on the perceptions of a single family member as "representative".

This chapter has presented some clear evidence to support and demonstrate the value of family level analysis. Particularly, viewing the family as a system and the theoretical developments of the relations between families members and the differences between families.

Families and the individual family members who are supportive of one another, who encourage moves toward autonomy, and who possess positive communication and problem solving skills, are more likely to be healthy functioning families and produce non-problem adolescents. The families who provide inadequate support to its members, do not encourage growth and autonomy, and communicate in unclear manner will hinder healthy family functioning.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study investigates the relationship between family systems functioning and parent-adolescent communication. The differences between families with problem adolescents and families with non-problem adolescents will be the focus of this study. Relevant factors pertaining to family functioning found in the literature include the independent variables of family cohesion and adaptability. The assessment of family functioning focuses on emotional bonding and ability to resolve family problems.

Family systems functioning can be viewed as an independent variable which influences a family's communication patterns, practices, or attitudes. One may hypothesize that the family's levels of cohesion and adaptability and the family type would affect the family member's communications ability, family satisfaction, ability to resolve conflict and use of external resources.

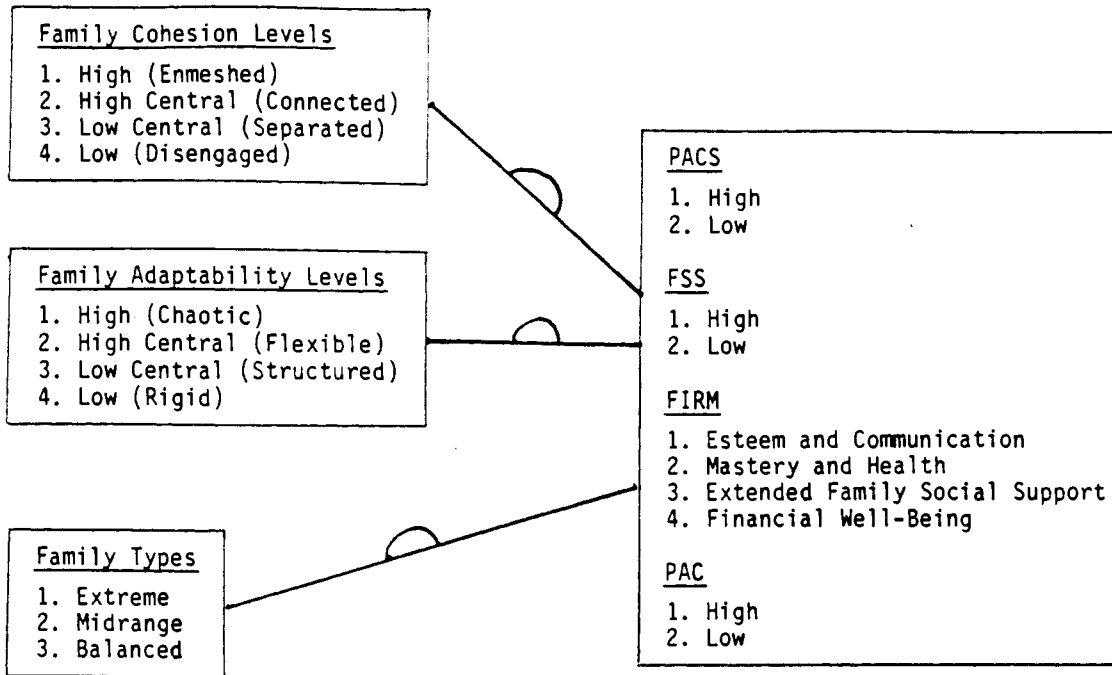
This chapter describes (1) research design, (2) pilot study, (3) selection of subjects, (4) methods of data collection, (5) instrumentation, (6) data analysis and processing, (7) statistical procedures, (8) limitations, and (9) research hypotheses.

Research Design

This study utilized comparative and correlational design strategies in order to investigate degrees of relationship or interrelationship between the major variables, problem family and non-problem families, family systems functioning, parent/adolescent communication level and family satisfaction (See Figure 2).

Comparative and correlational approaches were chosen for the design since the research variables are somewhat complicated and do not readily lend themselves to experimental control or manipulation by the researcher. Comparative, correlational research permits simultaneous measurement of the interrelationship of several variables. The extent to which variations in one factor correspond with variations in one or more other factors may be explored through these methods (Issac and Michael, 1981).

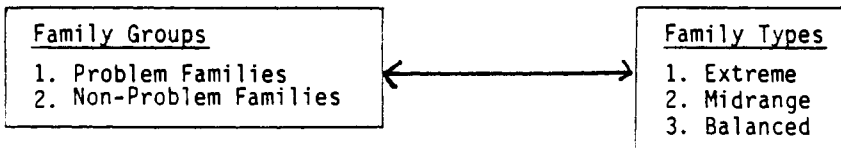
This method can present certain limitations. Identification of equivocal and superficial relationship patterns which have little or no reliability or validity is a possible limitation. Cause and effect are not identified; thereby, hypotheses are not supported. Less control and manipulation is exercised over the variables than with experimental research designs. The researcher is also limited by the design in data analysis (Kerlinger, 1973).



INDEPENDENT VARIABLES
FACES III

DEPENDENT VARIABLES
Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale
Family Satisfaction Scale
Family Inventory of Resources for Management
Parent-Adolescent Conflict

⤿ denotes a curvilinear relationship.



CO-INDEPENDENT VARIABLES - LEVEL OF ASSOCIATION

Figure 2. Hypothesized Relationships Between Independent and Dependent Variables.

Pilot Study

The instruments compiled for this study were field tested on five families. The primary purposes of the pilot study were to determine the time frame for administering the various instruments and to appraise the adequacy of the instrument and testing procedures. The readability of instructions and questions were also tested. All the pilot study families consisted of two parents with children between 12 and 18 years old residing in the home. The researcher met all the families in their home. Written permission was first obtained from each parent and also the adolescent. All families were given the same instructions by the researcher prior to the completion of the questionnaires.

Instructions were given to the total family and the questionnaires were completed by all members in the same room. The participants were reminded to ask the researcher if they had questions about the meaning of certain words, or if certain questions were unclear or confusing. All family members were asked not to talk with one another about the answers and to make notations on questions that were unclear or confusing to them.

The researcher was not sure if twelve year old children would be able to participate in the study. Two of the pilot families had children who were twelve years old. Both were able to complete the questionnaire in a reasonable amount of time. Both had questions regarding wording of a couple of

items, but no more than the older children involved in the pilot study. All the families in the pilot study were families with non-problem adolescents. The researcher thereby felt assured that limiting the study respondents to adolescents twelve years and older was reasonable. This decision is consistent with the developers of the instruments who stated the items were developed to be readable and understandable to adolescents as young as 12 years old (Olson, et al, 1983).

All families were able to complete the questionnaire within 30 minutes. Time was provided after the completion of the questionnaire to clarify items that were confusing. Efforts were made to clarify the items identified by the pilot families.

The results of the pilot administration revealed some minor errors. Several changes were made on the instructions to two of the instruments. Wording of the Likert type scale heading on the FIRM instrument was changed to be more consistent with the other instruments. It originally was a four point scale ranging from 0 to 3 and was changed to a five point scale ranging from 1 to 5. The instructions on the Parent-Adolescent Conflict instrument were reworded to be clear that when a conflict occurred every family member involved was checked.

Several of the pilot study parents work with families who have problem adolescents, they voiced some concern that many of their families do not read at the level required of

these instruments.

Selection of Subjects

The research population was composed of sixty families, residing in southeast Oklahoma, each consisting of one and two parent households with children 12 - 18 years living at home. Approximately half the families had children who were involved with a social service agency and half of the families who did not have any contact or referrals to agencies representing the social service agencies. The researcher determined this number in order to have enough families of the different family types depicted in the Circumplex Model for an adequate comparison. Families with problem adolescents were obtained through area youth services agencies in southeast Oklahoma. Families with non-problem adolescents were obtained through voluntary referral from area high schools and middle schools in southeast Oklahoma.

This sampling procedure reflects a blending of quota and purposive, or judgmental sampling. The procedures used are nonprobability methods in which the researcher uses his judgment or knowledge about the population to build representativeness into the sample (Rubin and Babbie, 1989). The researcher, when using purposive sampling, selects cases who are judged to be typical of the population in question.

It is felt that the sample used was at least moderately representative of families with adolescents in southeast

Oklahoma communities.

Data Collection

As previously mentioned, the subjects involved in this study included families and their adolescent child who were referred to a social service agency (i.e. Youth Shelters, Youth Services, Court Related and Community Services and Family and Children Services). The families were asked to complete the various self-report instruments described later in this chapter. The researcher informed the families completing the research project that all information would be kept strictly confidential. They were also informed that their names would not appear on any of the instruments. All families were contacted and voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. Consent forms were signed by both parents and also by the adolescent.

Questionnaires were then distributed to participating members. The scales were compiled in the following order: (1) Family Background Information, (2) FACES III NOW, (3) FACES III IDEAL, (4) Family Satisfaction, (5) Parent-Adolescent Communication (6) FIRM and (7) Parent-Adolescent Conflict. Family members were then given directions by the researcher or the assistant as to the completion of the questionnaire. It was explained that only the parents completed the family background information questions. Also, the adolescents had to answer each question on the Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale twice; first as it

related to their mother and second as it related to their father. All family members were asked to confer with the researcher if words needed clarification or if a statement was unclear. Family members were asked not to look at each others responses or help one another with the answers. The procedure took each family member less than 30 minutes. Upon completion of the instruments the researcher responded to any questions the family had regarding the procedures. Families were told that the results related to this study would be available upon their request.

Research Instruments

Five instruments used for this research were the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale, Version III (FACES III), the Parent-Adolescents Communication Scale (PACS), the Family Satisfaction Scale (FSS), and the Parent-Adolescent Problem Checklist (PAPC). The instruments for this study were selected based on reliability and validity established in previous studies and because of their usefulness in understanding families during adolescence and the role communication plays in family functioning. The consent form and Family Background Information form were developed by the researcher to provide the basic family demographic data. These instruments are included in the appendices. See Appendix A, B, & E. Measurement of the key variables are found in Table III. A description of these instruments follows.

Family Background Information Form

This instrument was utilized to elicit demographic information about each family. The items in the form provided specific information for the following variables:

- 1) Sex of Respondent.
- 2) Ages of respondent and family members living in the household.
- 3) Marital status.
- 4) Ethnicity.
- 5) Religious preference.
- 6) If family had been referred to Social Agency.
- 7) Annual Income.
- 8) Education of mother and father.
- 9) Health status of family members.
- 10) Number of persons currently in household.

This instrument was completed only by one of the parents participating.

Parent - Adolescent Problem Checklist (PAPC)

This is a relatively new instrument developed by Fournier (1984) to isolate conflict issues and intensity as perceived by each parent and their adolescent child. The instrument was designed to determine not only areas and amount of conflict but the specific family members involved

TABLE III
OPERATIONAL SUMMARY OF KEY VARIABLES
USED IN HYPOTHESIS TESTING

SCALE NUMBER	ITEMS	SOURCE	RANGE	MEASUREMENT LEVEL	CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION	CHRONBACH'S ALPHA**
Family Cohesion	1,3,5,7,9 11,13,15,17,19	FACES III	10-50	INTERVAL	Family emotional bonding	.77
Family Adaptability	2,4,6,8,10 12,14,16,18,20	FACES III	10-50	INTERVAL	Ability of family to change power structure	.62
Family Satisfaction	1-14	FSS	14-70	INTERVAL	Assess family satisfaction on the dimension of family cohesion and adaptability	.90
Parent-Adolescent Problem Checklist	1-33	PAPC	33-99	INTERVAL	Conflictual issues and intensity of parent-child conflict	.90
Open Family Communication	1,3,6,7,8,9 13,14,16,17	PAC	10-50	INTERVAL	Freedom or free flowing exchange of information both factual and emotional	.92
Problems in Family Communication	2,4,5,10,11,12	PAC	10-50	INTERVAL	Negative aspects of communication, hesitancy to share negative styles of interactions	.82
Esteem & Communication	17,24,14,23,19	FIRM	5-25	INTERVAL	Family system and social support resources in the area of respect from others and encouragement	.85
Mastery & Health	4,2,10,7,9	FIRM	5-25	INTERVAL	Sense of mastery over family events and outcomes	.85

(Continued)

TABLE III, Continued

SCALE NUMBER	ITEMS	SOURCE	RANGE	MEASUREMENT LEVEL	CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION	CHRONBACH'S ALPHA**
Extended Family Social Support	21,25,18,16	FIRM	4-20	INTERVAL	The mutual help and support given to and received from relatives	.62
Financial Well- Being	20,13,22,26,15	FIRM	5-25	INTERVAL	The family's perceived financial efficacy	.85
Social Desirability	1,3,5,6,8,11,12	FIRM	7-35	INTERVAL		.44

**Reliability coefficient as reported by the scale author.

in each type of conflict. The instrument offers three choices of response for the respondent: no conflict, some conflict and major conflict.

The instrument contained 33 items with possible scores ranging from 33 to 99. The higher scores may be indicative of a family having high conflict, especially if perceived by both parent(s) and child. This instrument was completed by each respondent.

Family Adaptability & Cohesion

Evaluation Scales (FACES III)

FACES III was developed by Olson and Associates (1985). It is the third version in a series of FACES scales developed to assess the two major dimensions on the Circumplex Model, i.e., family cohesion and family adaptability. The Circumplex Model was also developed by David Olson and colleagues in an attempt to bridge research, theory, and practice. The Circumplex Model enables an individual to classify families into 16 specific types or three more general types, i.e., balanced, mid-range, and extreme.

FACES III was selected for this study because of established reliability and validity. Reliability and validity studies have been done to increase the scientific rigor of the scales. In terms of reliability, internal consistency and test-retest reliability, the scales are generally good (see Table III).

While about 300 research projects are currently using FACES, FACES II, or FACES III, over ten studies have now been completed which demonstrate the validity of these scales. These studies have consistently demonstrated the ability of the FACES scales to discriminate between non-problem and problem families in predicted directions. As hypothesized by the Circumplex Model, significantly more non-problem families were balanced, while significantly more problem families were extreme types (Olson, 1985). In terms of both research and clinical work, data obtained from FACES III enables one to obtain a variety of useful assessments.

Studies conducted by Bell (1982), Portner (1981), Russell (1979), Olson and Killorin (1985), and Rodick, Henggeler, and Hanson (1985), validated the dimensions of adaptability and cohesion as direct measures of family systems patterns of behavior. All of these researchers used the Circumplex Model as the theoretical base of their research, and tested various hypotheses derived from the model. The studies also documented the existence of a curvilinear relationship between family systems functioning and cohesion and adaptability.

The instrument contains 10 cohesion items and 10 adaptability items. There are two items for each of the five concepts related to the cohesion dimension. Family Cohesiveness is the degree of emotional bonding that members have toward one another in the family system. Concepts used

to measure cohesion include emotional bonding, supportiveness, family boundaries, time and friend and interest and recreation. Cohesion is measured at four levels ranging from disengaged (very low), to separate (low to moderate), to connected (moderate to high), to enmeshed (very high). Response choices for each statement were: 1) almost never, (2) once in a while, (3) sometimes, (4) frequently and (5) almost always. When there is high cohesion, individuation of family members is hampered. With low cohesion levels (disengaged system), there is high individual autonomy and limited commitment to the family. Families scoring in the middle range experience a balance of independence and connectedness of family members.

Family adaptability is the ability of a family to adapt to developmental or situational stress. Concepts used to describe adaptability include leadership, control, discipline and the combined concepts of roles and rules. The four levels of adaptability range from rigid (very low), to structured (low to moderate), to flexible (moderate to high) to chaotic (very high). Each subject responded to 10 statements with the same choices listed under cohesion. Families scoring extremely high are considered to be chaotically organized, while those with extreme low scores are considered to be rigidly organized. Families scoring in the middle range are characterized as having a balance between stability and change.

The correlation between cohesion and adaptability on FACES III was reduced to almost zero ($r=.03$). This has resulted in two clearly independent dimensions.

The Parent-Adolescent Communi-
cation Scale (PACS)

The intent of this instrument was to develop a brief scale that measured both positive and negative aspects of communication, as well as aspects of the content and process of the parent-adolescent interactions. To accomplish this, the scale consists of two subscales.

These two subscales each tap both content and process issues. The first subscale, Open Family Communication, measures the more positive aspects of parent-adolescent communication. The focus is on the freedom or free flowing exchange of information, both factual and emotional as well as on the sense of lack of constraint and degree of understanding and satisfaction experienced in their interactions. The second subscale, Problems in Family Communication, focuses on the negative aspects of communication, hesitancy to share, negative styles of interaction, and selectivity and caution in what is shared.

Each scale is comprised of 10 items. These scales were developed using a factor analysis of the data from an earlier national study (Olson, McCubbin, et al, 1983). The factor analysis defined two main factors. Alpha reliabilities for each subscale are .87 and .78. A separate

study showed test-retest reliability to be .78 and .77 for the openness scale and the problem scale. The only difference between the parent and adolescent forms of the scale is the referent of each question. Adolescents answer the items twice, once as they pertain to their mother and again as they pertain to their father. Parents respond to the items once as the items related to their own relationship with their adolescent child.

Items from the two subscales are intermingled on the scale. The intent is to reduce response bias of respondents. The total score is basically a sum score. Families scoring high are considered to have good communication skills which are crucial to satisfaction with family relationships. Families scoring low on the scale are considered to have ineffective communication which minimizes and may prevent movement toward a balanced level of adaptability and cohesion. It is hypothesized that balanced families will have more positive communication skills than extreme families.

Family Satisfaction Scale (FS)

This instrument was designed to assess the major dimensions (cohesion and adaptability) of the Circumplex Model. While the main hypothesis derived from the Circumplex Model emphasized that "balanced" families will generally function more adequately than "extreme" families, important exceptions and qualifications are proposed. One

important qualification has to do with the stage of the family life cycle where it is hypothesized that families will differ in their location in the model and their level of functioning.

Another important hypothesis takes into account the normative expectations of a couple or family. The hypothesis states that if the normative expectations of a couple or family support behaviors on one or both extremes of the circumplex dimensions, they will function well as long as all family members accept these expectations. This takes into account different normative expectations and cultural backgrounds where being extreme on these dimensions is both appropriate and necessary (Olson, McCubbin, Barnes, Larsen, Muxen, & Wilson, 1985).

This raises the idea that it is less important where the family is located in the model than how they feel about their levels of cohesion and adaptability. Also, this raises a critical issue that some assessment needs to be made of both their location on the Circumplex and their feelings about their location.

The 14 items scale retained one item for each of the eight cohesion subscales and one item for each of the six adaptability subscales. All but two of the 14 items loaded more than .40 on the first varimax rotated principal factor. As a result, only one factor was retained for the Family Satisfaction Scale. Every item loaded more than .50 on the first principal component.

These results indicate this family satisfaction scale is uni dimensional and, therefore, the total score is most empirically valid. The Cronbach alpha for the scale formed by summing these 14 variables is .92. Alpha coefficients for the 8 item cohesion scale and for the 6 item adaptability scale were .85 and .84 respectively. Test-retest Pearson correlation coefficients for the Family Satisfaction Scale were .76 for the cohesion subscale and .67 for the adaptability subscale and the test-retest correlation for the total score was .75.

Family Inventory of Resources
for Management (FIRM)

This instrument attempts to assess the family's repertoire of resources. FIRM assumes that families possessing a larger repertoire of resources will manage more effectively and will be better able to adapt to stressful situations. It was developed by McCubbin, Comeau and Harkins (McCubbin and Patterson, 1981).

The selection of FIRM for this study was influenced by its use of appropriate concepts dealing with three major areas: (1) personal resources, (2) the family system internal resources and (c) social support. Personal resources refer to the broad range of resources, qualities and aids characteristic of individual family members which are available to any family member in need (McCubbin and Patterson, 1981). Family system resources encompass

primarily the original concepts identified by Hill (1958), and in Burr's (1973) synthesis of the literature concerning family adaptability and family integration or cohesion. Social support as defined by Cobb (cited in McCubbin and Patterson, 1981) is information exchanged between people which provides emotional support, resulting in the individual feeling loved and cared for; esteem support, resulting in the individual feeling esteemed and valued, and network support, resulting in the individual feeling he or she is part of a network of mutual obligation and understanding.

The instrument consisted of 69 self-report items and the respondent was asked to evaluate on a 0-3 scale how well the items "describe our family". However, for this study not all items in each subscale were used. Also a five point Likert scale was used ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

The internal reliability for these four subscales is .89 (Chronbachs' alpha). The four subscales are:

- 1) Family Strengths I: Esteem and Communication. This factor reflects the presence of a combination of personal, family system and social support resources. Internal Reliability = .85 (Chronbach's alpha).
- 2) Family Strengths II: Mastery and Health. This factor includes items that reflect personal, family system, and social support resources.

- Internal Reliability = .85 (Chronbach's alpha).
- 3) Extended Family Social Support. This scale contains items which indicate the mutual help and support given to and received from relatives. Internal Reliability = .62 (Chronbach's alpha).
 - 4) Financial Well-Being. This factor reflects the family's perceived financial efficacy; ability to meet financial commitments, adequacy of financial reserves, ability to help others and optimism about family's financial future. Internal Reliability = .85 (Chronbach's alpha).

FIRM also contains a Social Desirability Scale based on the Edmonds Scale of marital conventionalization (Edmonds, 1967). This scale attempts to locate individuals who describe themselves in favorable, socially desirable terms in order to achieve the approval of others. Families who score below the mean may indicate a lack of or depletion of resources in that particular area. A family score above the mean may indicate a better than average supply of resources which the family can call upon. A family score falling within the mean area indicates a score similar to most of the families who have completed this instrument in previous research studies and may indicate a moderate resource level in that area or subscale (McCubbin, Comeau, & Patterson, 1981).

Analysis of Data

Questionnaire data were converted into numerical codes representing attributes related to each variable. Analyses were conducted through the facilities of the computer center at Oklahoma State University. The statistical procedures used for analysis of data came from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSX) Computer Program (SPSSX User's Guide 2nd Ed. 1986) available also at Oklahoma State University. Frequency distributions were obtained on all data fields to detect errors which may have occurred in the coding process.

Statistical Procedures

Data used for statistical analysis were obtained from the instruments discussed earlier in the Research Instruments section of this chapter. The SPSSX Statistical Program at the Oklahoma State University Computer Center was used to analyze the specific hypotheses and to determine reliability of the scales.

The statistical procedures applied to the data were: descriptive statistics, Chronbach's alpha, one-way ANOVA, two-way ANOVA and chi-square. Descriptive statistics produced by the SPSSX program included the mean, median, mode, standard error, standard deviation, variance, kurtosis, skewness, range minimum and maximum.

Chronbach's coefficient alpha is a measure of reliability based on internal consistency. It determines

whether measurement error is present due to errors in sampling content. When coefficient alpha approaches .55, minimum standards have been reached for research purposes (Nunnally, 1978).

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a statistical procedure designed to test for the significance of variances among two or more groups (Kerlinger, 1973). ANOVA demonstrates whether the variability among groups is large enough in comparison with the variability within groups to justifying saying that the means of the population from which the different groups were sampled are not all the same. The specific test of significance which determines if there is a significant difference depends on the F-ratio. Two-way ANOVA investigates the differences of two independent variables on a dependent variable. This tool is useful in determining if the difference in population means is a result of interaction of the two independent variables.

When significance of difference is found, further comparisons of groups are warranted to isolate the source of the difference (Issac & Michael, 1982). The use of multiple comparison procedures provide protection against calling too many differences significant and provide more stringent criteria for significance than does the usual t-test. Tukey's HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) is one of the most conservative methods for pair-wise comparison of means, requiring larger differences between means for significance than other methods.

Chi-square is a test of statistical significance useful in determining whether a systematic relationship exists between two variables. The sub-program CROSSTABS in SPSSX was used to calculate chi-square. Chi-square is computed by measuring the squared deviations between observed and theoretical frequencies in each category. The greater the discrepancies, the larger the chi-square becomes. A correlational coefficient is used with chi-square to provide some indication of the strength of association between variables. Cramer's V. is a conservative method for comparison of one or more variables measured with nominal level data. Cramer's V. does not indicate direction or describe the nature of the relationship (Hopkins & Glass, 1978).

Assumptions

1. One can learn about family system by studying communication patterns.
2. Respondents are willing to share information and perceptions about family life.
3. Communication skills can be learned and thereby improving family satisfaction and family functioning.
4. Comparison of families with adolescents involved and not involved with the social service agencies is an appropriate delineator.
5. Research findings can be used by professionals to better understand the significance of communication and

other variables on family systems functioning.

Limitations of Study

The relatively small and non-random nature of the sample limits generalization to other populations. The rural nature and geographical location may also bias the sample toward similar geographic areas rather than for families during adolescence in general. The type of problem the families were referred to social service agencies was not specified. The severity of problems faced by the families could vary greatly. Therefore, the families with problem adolescents in this study may or may not be representative of families with problem adolescents in this general population. Limitations of the study are:

- 1) In the majority of families with problem adolescents, only one parent (the mother) participated in study, this limits much of the data to mother-child dyads. It should be noted, however, that workers within the agencies said this reflects a reality in the field of family and children services with problem adolescents.
- 2) Families were referred to the researchers, rather than selected through random selection.
- 3) The study population was composed only of those families who consented to participate in the study.

- 4) The cognitive level of the questionnaire restricted data gathering to those families with adolescents twelve years of age or older and also with the reading ability of at least a twelve year old or seventh grade level.
- 5) A random sample was not used, thereby violating one of the assumptions of analysis of variance.
- 6) FACES III scores reflect the perceptions of family members rather than exact functioning of families.
- 7) Agency time constraints limited the data collection to the self report instruments.

Hypotheses

Specific hypotheses were developed from the research questions presented earlier. The following operational hypotheses pertain to the relationship of families with problem adolescents and families with non-problem adolescents and the different family functioning variables.

- I. Families with problem adolescents will have more extreme scores on the Circumplex Model than families with non-problem adolescents in a variety of background and family functioning variables.
- II. Families with central adaptability scores will have scores higher on family functioning variables than families with extremely high or

low adaptability scores.

- III. Families with central cohesion scores will have higher scores on family functioning variables than families with extremely high or low cohesion scores.
- IV. Balanced family types on the Circumplex Model (FACES III) will have higher scores on family functioning variables than mid-range or extreme family types.
- V. Families with problem adolescents will differ from families with non-problem adolescents on the following variables: communication openness, communication conflict, family cohesion, family adaptability, family satisfaction, extended family social support, financial well-being, mastery and health, esteem and communication and family conflict.

Statistical Analysis of Hypotheses

Descriptive statistics and measures of central tendency were used to summarize the demographic data collected from the Family Background Information form. This information pertained to each family member's age, sex, health status, family's race, religion, income, marital status and educational level of the parents.

The association of problem families and non-problem families (Hypothesis I), adaptability (Hypothesis II), cohesion (Hypothesis III), and family type (Hypothesis IV), was determined through the use of the chi-square statistic. Relationships were further analyzed through Cramer's V. coefficient.

Two-way analysis of variance was used to examine relationships between the independent variables of family adaptability and cohesion together and the mean differences among the dependent variables., PACS, FSS, and FIRM.

One-way analysis of variance was the method of statistical analysis for investigating relationships between each independent variable, problem families and non-problem families (Hypothesis I), adaptability (Hypothesis II), cohesion (Hypothesis III), and family type (Hypothesis IV) on each dependent variable. Further comparison of mean differences was conducted on these hypotheses by Tukey's HSD.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The primary purpose of this research was to determine if a relationship exists between family systems functioning, or adaptability and cohesion, and families with problem adolescents and families with non-problem adolescents. Also, of special concern were the patterns of communication and the levels of family functioning. Other family functioning variables were examined to determine their relationship to families, such as: family satisfaction, extended family social support, financial well-being, mastery and health, esteem and communication and family conflict. Selected demographic characteristics were also of particular interest. The first part of this chapter describes the demographic characteristics of the sample. The next section summarizes the empirical characteristics of the research measurements to establish sample study reliabilities levels. The remainder of the chapter presents an analysis of each hypothesis. Conclusions are also presented.

Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 59 families with a total of 152 individuals residing in medium-sized communities in Southeast Oklahoma. The sample was comprised of 59 adolescents and 93 parents of these adolescents. The ages of the adolescents in the study ranged from 13 to 18 with the average of 15.6 years. Fifty-eight percent (N=34) of the adolescents were male and forty-two percent (N=25) were female. The mean age for the fathers in the sample was 43 and for the mothers was 40 years. The majority of the families were caucasian (78%) and the second highest were Native American (15%), the remaining 7% were either Black, Mexican, Oriental or other. The families of problem-adolescents were generally of a low socio-economic status, with over half (58%) reporting annual income of less than \$20,000.00. The families of non-problem adolescents were generally of moderate socio-economic status, with over half (61%) reporting annual income of more than \$30,000.00. Generally, the families were of Protestant religion beliefs (93%). (See Table IV and Table V).

Circumplex Model

Hypothesis I proposes that families with problem-adolescents will have more extreme scores and be more dysfunctional as defined by the circumplex model than families with non-problem adolescents. As discussed in the previous chapters, the two dimensions that determine level

TABLE IV
SELECTED FAMILY BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristics	Family Problem-Adolescents N=31	Family Non-Problem Adolescents N=28	Total N=59
Marital Status			
Single, never married	2 (6.5%)	0	3.4%
Single, divorced	8 (25%)	3 (10.7%)	18.6%
First marriage	10 (32.3%)	22 (78.6%)	54.2%
Second marriage	7 (22.6%)	3 (10.7%)	16.9%
Third marriage	3 (9.7%)	0	5.1%
Fifth marriage	1 (3.2%)	0	1.7%
Racial Ethnic Identification			
Black (Negro)	1 (3.2%)	0	1.7%
Chicano (Mexican American)	0	1 (3.6%)	1.7%
Native American (Am. Indian)	6 (19.4%)	3 (10.7%)	15.3%
Oriental	1 (3.2%)	0	1.7%
White (Caucasian)	23 (74.2%)	23 (82.1%)	78.0%
Other	0	1 (3.6%)	1.7%
Religious Beliefs			
Protestant	28 (90.3%)	24 (85.7%)	88.3%
Catholic	2 (6.5%)	4 (14.3%)	10.0%
Jewish	0	0	0
Other	1 (3.2%)	0	1.7%
Total Family Income for 1987			
Less than \$10,000	10 (32.3%)	2 (7.1%)	20.3%
\$10,000.00 to \$19,000	8 (25.8%)	6 (21.4%)	23.7%
\$20,000.00 to \$29,000	6 (19.4%)	3 (10.7%)	15.3%
\$30,000.00 to \$39,000	1 (3.2%)	5 (17.9%)	10.2%
\$40,000.00 or more	6 (19.4%)	12 (42.9%)	30.5%

TABLE V
SELECTED INDIVIDUAL BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristics	Parents of Problem-Adolescents N=43	Parents of Non-Problem Adolescents N=50	Total N=93		
Sex					
Males	12 (28%)	22 (44%)	34		
Females	31 (72%)	28 (56%)	59		
Years of Education Completed	N=53**	N=53	N=106		
Less than 8 years of school	3	2	5		
Some High School	10	3	13		
Finished High School	12	4	16		
Vocational Training (After High School)	6	1	7		
Some college, did not finish	11	10	21		
College degree completed	8	10	18		
Graduate or professional training	3	23	26		
**Background information was given on some fathers who did not participate in the study					
	Problem-Adolescents N=31	Non-Problem Adolescents N=28	Total N=59		
Sex					
Males	21 (67.7%)	13 (46%)	34 (57.6%)		
Females	10 (32.2%)	15 (54%)	25 (42.4%)		
Age (X of years)					
Males	16.2	15.6	16.0		
Females	15.0	15.2	15.1		
Birth Order of Adolescents	Males	Females	Males	Females	Total
First born	11	6	11	10	38
Second child	6	2	2	5	15
Third child	2	0	0	0	2
Fourth child	1	2	0	0	3
Sixth child	1	0	0	0	1

of family functioning on the circumplex model are cohesion and adaptability. Olson and colleagues argue that a balance between these dimensions is most desirable for effective family relationship as well as optimum individual development (Olson, et al., 1980).

Family adaptability is the ability of a family system to change its power structure, rules, and roles relationship in response to situational and developmental stress (Olson, Russell and Sprenkle, 1983). There are four levels of the adaptability dimension. The four levels range from extremely low (rigid) to low to moderate (structural) to moderate to high (flexible) to extremely high (chaotic). The most functional family systems, according to the Circumplex Model, are more likely to be those in the central levels of the adaptability dimension, where there is a balance of stability and change. Family systems in the extreme ends of the dimension for a prolonged period of time may experience problems and become "dysfunctional" as a family system. However, as mentioned previously, if all family members concur with an extreme level of functioning or if it is the "norm" for a particular culture, group or family, the family may function well (Olson et al., 1980).

The cohesion dimension of the Circumplex Model refers to the degree of emotional bonding family members have with one another and the degree of individual autonomy a person experiences in the family system. There are also four levels of the cohesion dimension. The levels range from

extremely low (disengaged) to moderately low (separated), to moderately high (connected), and extremely high (enmeshed). The balanced levels of moderately low to moderately high cohesion are hypothesized to be the most viable for family functioning.

According to Olson (1979) families operating on either extreme of the cohesion dimension are often less functional. They can become too close, hampering individuation of family members, or become too disengaged or isolated from one another. Isolation often results in high individual autonomy and limited commitment to the family. It is believed that a "moderate" level of family cohesion is more conducive to effective family functioning.

The two independent variables of cohesion and adaptability were combined to identify 16 types of family systems, based on each family's member extent of cohesion and adaptability. After finding the family member classification into one of the 16 cells, the family was then classified in three family types, balanced, mid-range, and extreme. (See Figure 1, p. 14)

Reliability of Instruments for the Research Sample

Chronbach's Coefficient Alpha was obtained to determine if the Family Functioning subscales met minimum standards for reliability (.55). The Alpha Coefficient for the FACES

III subscales (cohesion and adaptability) for the total sample was .88 for cohesion and .67 for adaptability.

The alpha reliability was .85 for Open Family Communication, .68 for Problems in Family Communication. The results indicate that the two subscales were reliable.

The Chronbach Alpha for Family Satisfaction was .92, and was formed by summarizing the 14 items. The result indicates that the scale is very reliable.

The alpha reliability for the FIRM subscales was established using Chronbach Alpha. The reliability coefficient for Esteem and Communication was .68; for Mastery and Health .81; for Extended Family Social Support, .72; for Financial Well-Being, .75 ; and for Social Desirability, .77. The reliability of all scales was acceptable for research purposes (See Table VI).

Hypotheses Related to Parent- Adolescent Relationships and Family System Functioning

Hypothesis I investigates the relationship between families with problem-adolescents and families with non-problem adolescents and their level of family functioning according to the Circumplex Model. Family Group (problem and non-problem) is the independent variable.

Hypothesis II investigates the relationship between family group's adaptability scores and scores on the Family Satisfaction Scale (FSS), Parent-Adolescent Communication

TABLE VI
EMPIRICAL SUMMARY OF SCALES WITH RELIABILITY
ESTIMATES FOR CURRENT STUDY

SCALE NAME	FORM	MEAN	S.D.	THEORETICAL RANGE		ACTUAL RANGE		CHRONBACH'S ALPHA
				LOW	HIGH	LOW	HIGH	
Cohesion	FACESIII	34.74	8.3	10	50	10	49	.88
Adaptability	FACESIII	22.18	5.35	10	50	11	37	.67
Open Family Communication	PAC	35.36	7.70	10	50	14	50	.85
Problems in Family Communication	PAC	33.78	6.42	10	50	16	48	.68
Family Satisfaction	FSS	43.53	11.51	14	70	15	70	.92
Esteem & Communication	FIRM	18.92	3.51	5	25	8	25	.68
Mastery & Health	FIRM	15.70	4.78	5	25	5	25	.81
Extended Family Social Support	FIRM	13.77	3.57	4	20	4	20	.72
Financial Well Being	FIRM	16.43	4.81	5	25	5	25	.75
Social Desirability	FIRM	19.37	5.09	7	35	7	31	.77

Scale (PAC), and Family Inventory of Resources for Management (FIRM). Adaptability is the independent variable.

Hypothesis III investigates the existence and nature of the association of the independent variable, family cohesion, on the same dependent variables. The relationship of family members scores to the dependent variables are investigated in Hypothesis IV. Finally, Hypothesis V investigated the relationship between family type and the family functioning variables.

Hypothesis I: Families with Problem-Adolescents vs. Families with Non-Problem Adolescents

Hypothesis I states that families with problem adolescents will have more extreme scores on the Circumplex Model than families with non-problem adolescents. This hypothesis is built on the assumption that families extreme on both dimensions will tend to have more difficulty coping with situational and developmental stress. This assumes a curvilinear relationship on the dimensions of cohesion and adaptability. This means that too little or too much cohesion or adaptability is seen as dysfunctional to the family system. However, families that are able to balance between these two extremes seem to be coping better.

The sample population was analyzed by chi-square to determine if a relationship exists between the family groups

and the family type; balanced, mid-range, and extreme. The results of the analysis of the study sample is depicted in Table VII and Table VIII.

Family typology distribution of the problem families and the non-problem families from this study indicated differences in the expected and observed proportions between the two family groups in the different family types ($p < .003$). Of the problem family parents 22.7% were in the extreme type compared to only 8% of the non-problem families. Comparison of the two groups fathers and the problem family mothers and non-problem family mothers showed that a significant difference existed only between the mothers ($p < .05$). Figures 3 & 4 give a graphic illustration of the distribution of location of mothers and fathers on the Circumplex Model (See Figure 3 & 4).

Comparisons of the adolescents did not prove to be significant using the chi-square as the statistical analysis (See Table VIII). However, 45% of the problem-adolescents were located in the extreme type as opposed to only 17.8% of the non-problem adolescents (See Figure 5).

In the normal or balanced categories, 18% of the problem family parents and 16% of the problem family adolescents were located in the balance range. This compared to 38% of the non-problem family parents and 25% of the non-problem adolescents. In this study non-problem families did not compare very closely to the norms based on the national survey of 1100 "normal" couples and families by

TABLE VII
COMPARISON OF FAMILY TYPE BY FAMILY GROUP

Family Type	FAMILY GROUP	
	Problem Family	Non-Problem Family
Balanced	13 (17.6%)	26 (33.3%)
Mid-ranged	37 (50.0%)	43 (55.1%)
Extreme	<u>24 (32.4%)</u>	<u>9 (11.5%)</u>
Total	74 (100 %)	78 (100 %)

$\chi^2 = 11.50$ $p < 0.003$

TABLE VIII
COMPARISON OF FAMILY TYPE BY FAMILY GROUP MEMBERS

FAMILY GROUP		
Family Type	Problem Family Mothers	Non-Problem Family Mothers
Balanced	7 (22.6%)	13 (46.4%)
Mid-ranged	18 (58.1%)	14 (50.0%)
Extreme	<u>6 (19.4%)</u>	<u>1 (3.6%)</u>
Total	31 (100 %)	28 (100 %)
$x^2 = 5.73$ $p < 0.05$		

Family Type	Problem Family Fathers	Non-Problem Family Fathers
Balanced	1 (8.3%)	6 (27.3%)
Mid-ranged	7 (58.3%)	13 (59.1%)
Extreme	<u>4 (33.3%)</u>	<u>4 (13.6%)</u>
Total	12 (100 %)	22 (100 %)
$x^2 = 2.81$ $p < 0.2$		

Family Type	Problem Family Sons	Non-Problem Family Sons
Balanced	3 (14.3%)	3 (23.1%)
Mid-ranged	10 (47.6%)	8 (61.5%)
Extreme	<u>8 (38.1%)</u>	<u>2 (15.4%)</u>
Total	21 (100 %)	13 (100 %)
$x^2 = 2.05$ $p < 0.3$		

Family Type	Problem Family Daughters	Non-Problem Family Daughters
Balanced	2 (20%)	4 (26.7%)
Mid-ranged	2 (20%)	8 (53.3%)
Extreme	<u>6 (60%)</u>	<u>3 (20%)</u>
Total	10 (100%)	15 (100%)
$x^2 = 4.44$ $p < 0.1$		

CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF MARITAL & FAMILY SYSTEMS

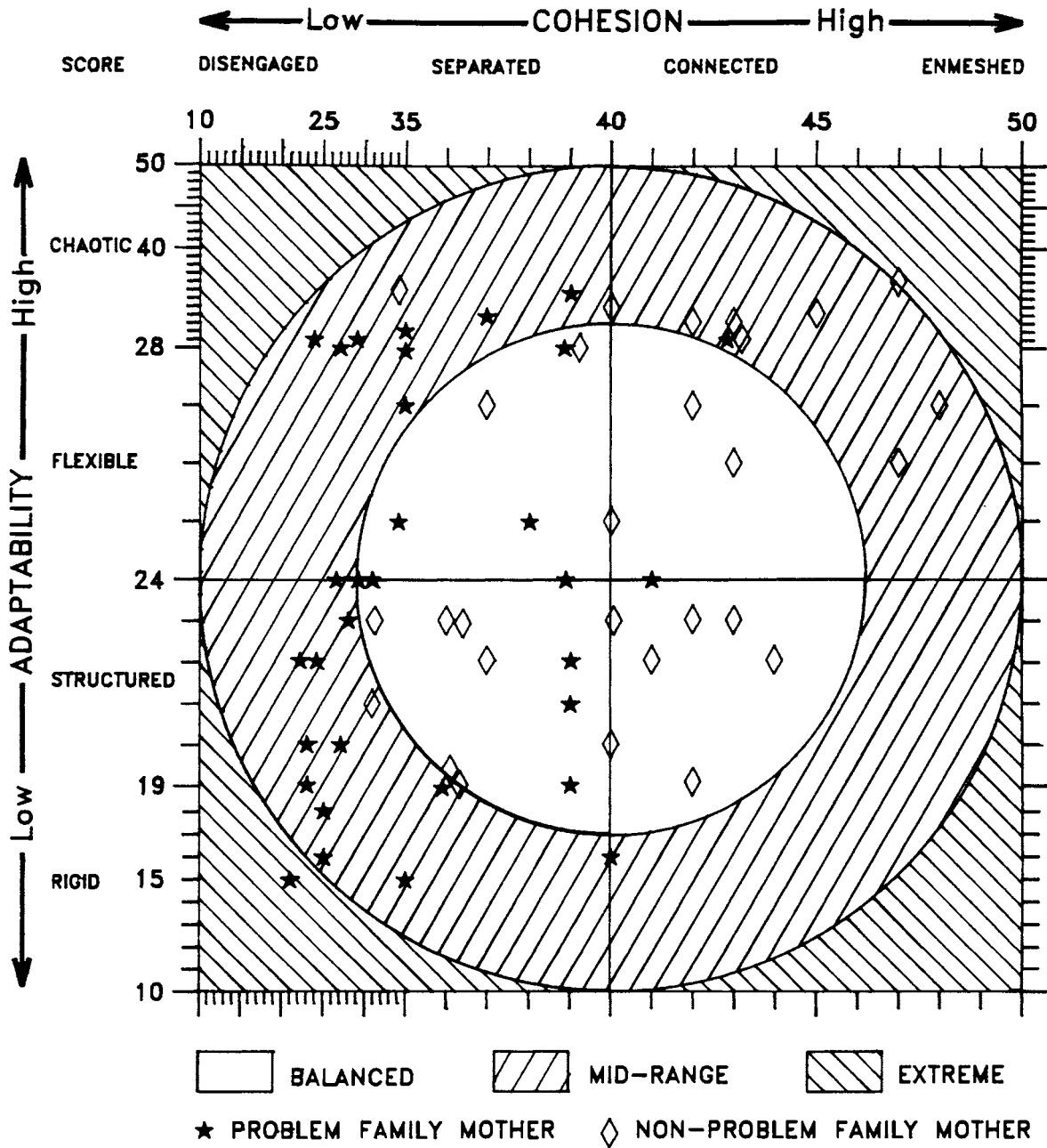


Figure 3. Circumplex Model with Location of Sample Mothers.

CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF MARITAL & FAMILY SYSTEMS

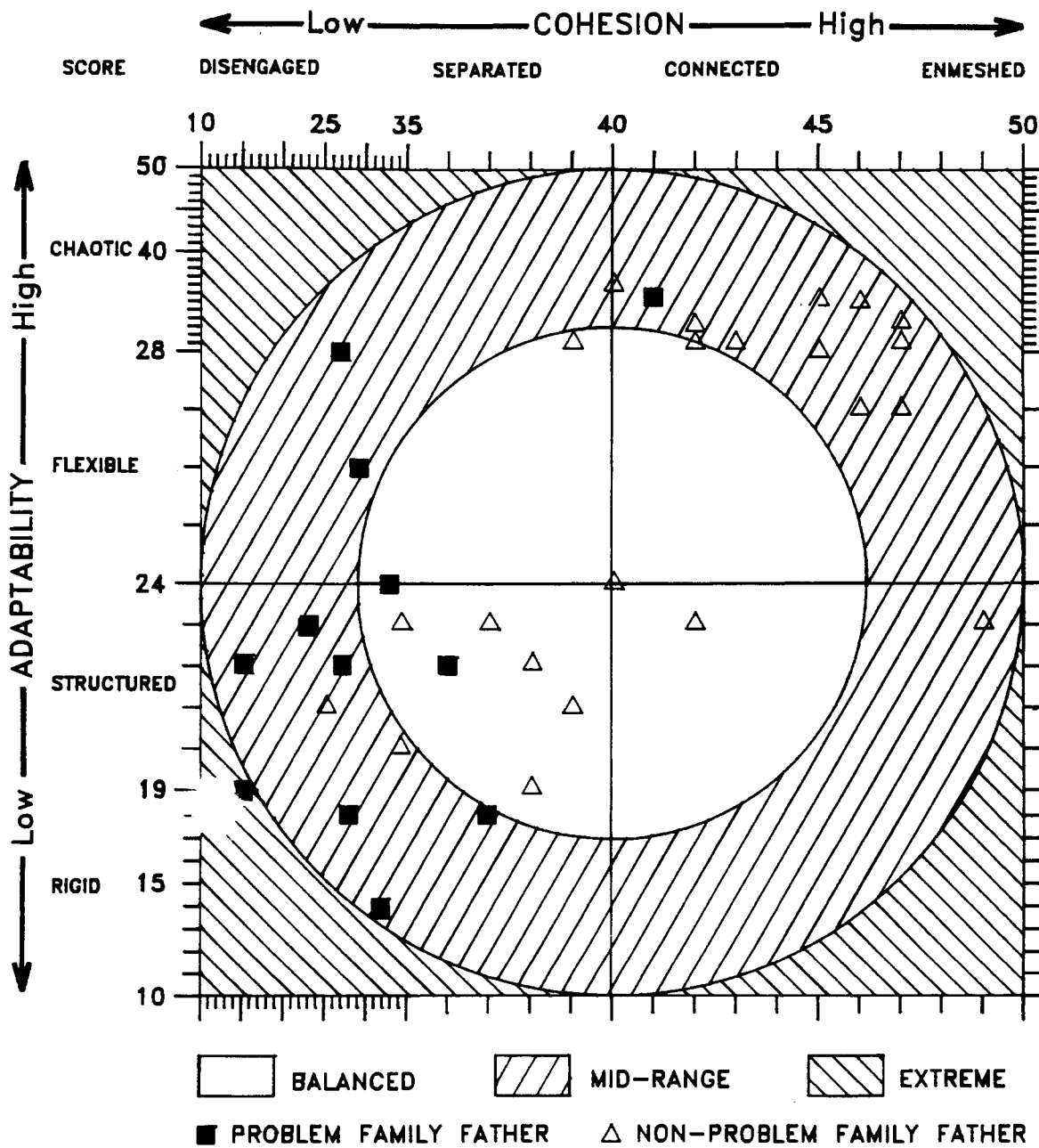


Figure 4. Circumplex Model with Location of Sample Fathers.

CIRCUMPLEX MODEL OF MARITAL & FAMILY SYSTEMS

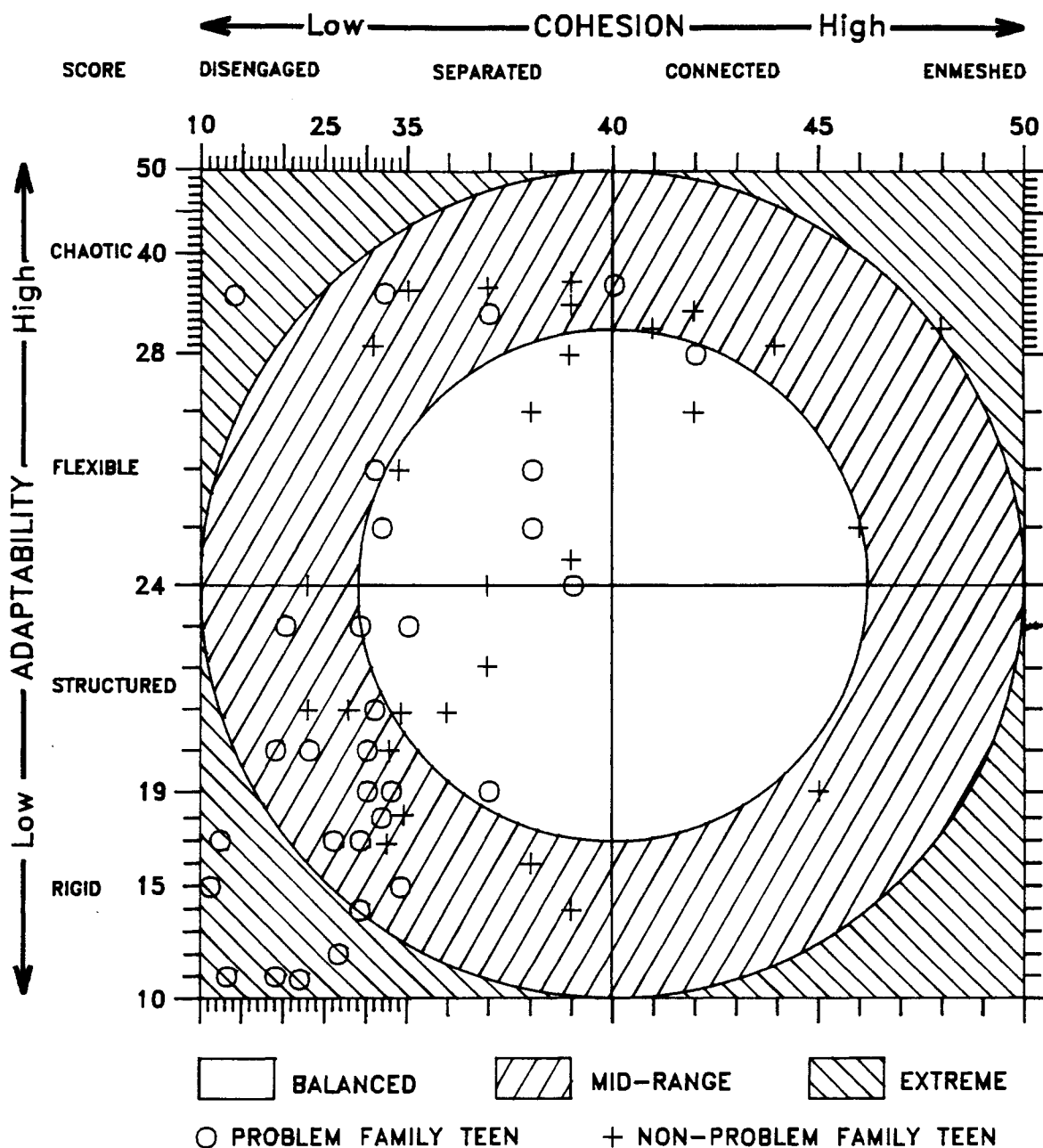


Figure 5. Circumplex Model with Location of Sample Teens.

Olson, et al. (1983). The norms established by Olson's study was 53.5% of the adults and 46.6% of the adolescents were located in the normal or balanced categories.

The major differences between the problem families and the non-problem families were in the disengaged categories of the cohesion dimensions. Large discrepancies were found in the disengaged (most dysfunctional) category of the cohesion dimension. In the study, 66% of the problem families parents and 77.4% of the problem adolescents were found to be disengaged while only 8% of the non-problem parents and 42.8% of the non-problem adolescents were in this category.

The discrepancies between the families on the adaptability dimension were not viewed as significant. It should be noted again that this is a non-random, relatively small sample in a primarily rural area and generalizations to larger populations are cautioned. The present study findings confirm other studies which have concluded that families of problem adolescents operate at the extremes on levels of functioning and differ considerably in family type or style. The present study revealed that the majority of problem families were disengaged and were evenly divided among the adaptability categories. Approximately 50% of the problem families were rigid or chaotic in their patterns of functioning. Garbarino, Sebes and Schellenbach (1984) found the majority of high risk families in their study were primarily of the chaotically enmeshed type. However,

Portner's (1981) study found that clinic families tended to be more toward the chaotic disengaged extreme type. Richard Bell (1982) studied families with runaways and found significantly more runaway families were disengaged than non-problem families.

Hypothesis II: Family Adaptability and Family Functioning Variables

Hypothesis II states that families with central adaptability scores will have more functional scores on the Family Satisfaction Scale, the Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale and the Family Inventory of Resources for Management Scale. This hypothesis investigated the relationship between family adaptability and various family functioning variables included in the scales mentioned above. It was postulated that families with central adaptability scores would have higher FSS, PACS and FIRM scores than families with low adaptability scores. Low adaptability (rigid) families would favor not changing existing patterns of interaction within the family system to meet the stress created by adolescents in the family. Thereby, the adolescents would act out in their behavior.

Family Satisfaction. Hypothesis II investigated the relationship between family adaptability and family satisfaction. It was stated that families with central adaptability scores would have higher family satisfaction scores than families with low adaptability scores and

families with high adaptability scores. While the main hypothesis derived from the Circumplex Model emphasized that "balanced" families will generally function more adequately than "extreme" families, important exceptions and qualifications are now proposed. One important qualification has to do with the stage of the family life cycle where it is hypothesized that families will differ in their location in the model and their level of functioning. Olson has found that parents and adolescents' scores were very different, therefore, separate norms are provided for these two groups (Olson, et al., 1985).

One-way ANOVA was used to assess group or level differences on the adaptability dimensions. Results showed that the differences among the group means were significant at the $F(3,148) = 8.03$ at the $p < .001$ level. Family satisfaction scores increased as the level of adaptability increased. The two central group's mean scores were higher than the low adaptability (rigid) group. However, they were lower than those of the high adaptability (chaotic) group. Further analysis by Tukey's HSD revealed that significant differences existed between low adaptability (rigid) types and high central adaptability (flexible) types, low adaptability (rigid) types and high adaptability (chaotic) and low central adaptability (structured) types and high adaptability (chaotic) types (Table IX).

These findings lend credence to the hypothesis that the level of adaptability is related to family satisfaction.

TABLE IX
LEVELS OF ADAPTABILITY IN RELATIONSHIP TO SELECTED
FAMILY FUNCTIONING VARIABLES

Family Functioning Variables	Individual's Low (Rigid) Group I X (N=34)	Individual's Low Central (Structured) Group II X (N=52)	Individual's High Central (Flexible) Group III X (N=38)	Individual's High (Chaotic) Group IV X (N=28)	F-Ratio	Prob.	Paired Means Significantly Different Tukey's HSD Method for groups 1&2, 1&3, 1&4, 2&3, 2&4, 3&4					
Family Satisfaction	36.1	41.7	44.8	49.5	8.0394	.0001	-	*	*	-	*	-
Family Communication	65.5	66.7	71.2	73.4	3.1618	.02	-	-	-	-	-	-
Open Family Communication	32.5	33.7	37.3	37.9	4.0679	.008	-	*	*	-	-	-
Problem in Family Communication	33.0	33.0	33.9	35.5	1.1167	NS	-	-	-	-	-	-
Esteem and Communication	17.3	18.4	19.3	20.7	5.4362	.001	-	-	*	-	*	-
Mastery and Health	14.2	15.5	15.8	17.2	2.1048	NS	-	-	-	-	-	-
Extended Family Social Support	13.0	12.8	14.1	15.6	4.4206	.005	-	-	-	-	-	-
Financial Well-Being	16.3	15.5	16.0	18.7	2.9072	.03	-	-	*	-	*	-
Social Desirability	17.0	19.0	20.0	21.0	4.5044	.004	-	-	*	-	-	-

The fact that the chaotic type had the highest mean of all groups, may reflect that families during adolescence have different normative expectations.

Family Communication. Hypothesis II stated that families with central adaptability scores will have higher scores on the Parent-Adolescent Communication Scales. Family functioning theory purports that families in the two central levels of adaptability will have more positive aspects of communication. These families in the extreme categories are thought not to possess effective communication skills. The focus would be on the freedom or free flowing exchange of information, both factual and emotional as well as the sense of lack of constraint. Families scoring high are considered to have good communication skills which are crucial to satisfaction with family relationships. Families scoring low on the scale are considered to have ineffective communication which minimizes and may prevent movement toward balanced level of adaptability and cohesion. The hypothesis was tested by one-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD. Family Communication was found to be significant $F(3,148) = 3.16, p < .02$. Of the two subscales within family communication only one was found to be significant. Open Communication was significant at the $F(3,148) = 4.06, p < .008$ level; whereas, Problem in Family Communication was not significant. Therefore, Open Communication accounted for Family Communication having been significant. There were no significant differences between the

groups for Family Communication and Problem in Family Communication. Tukey's HSD found significant difference in Open Communication between low (rigid) and high central (flexible) and low (rigid) and high (chaotic) (See Table IX).

The means for all three variables were progressive from low to high on adaptability. The hypothesis was partially supported with Open Communication accounting for the main difference. It was expected that if family members felt open to exchange information, both factual and emotional, that there would be hesitancy to share, or negative styles of interaction in dealing with a problem. This was not found to be the case on the adaptability variable.

Family Inventory of Resources for Management. Families who tend to live a more crisis oriented existence than others and who do not manage their resources will likely be in the extreme types of families. Hypothesis II stated that families with central adaptability scores will score high on the FIRM scale. These families will possess a larger repertoire of resources and will manage these resources more effectively and will be better able to adapt to stressful situations.

One-way ANOVA and Tukey HSD were used to analyze this hypothesis. No significant differences were found between Family Adaptability and Mastery and Health. However, a significant difference was found between Family Adaptability and Esteem and Communication, Extended Family Social Support

and Financial Well Being. Esteem and Communication group mean scores ranged from low for low adaptability (rigid) families to high for high adaptability (chaotic) families. Tukey HSD revealed that significant ($p < .05$) differences existed between rigid and chaotic and between structured (low central adaptability) and chaotic high adaptability (Table IX).

One-way ANOVA was used again to assess level of differences on the Adaptability dimension and Financial Well Being. The two extreme adaptability groups had the highest mean scores. Tukey's HSD revealed that significant differences existed between low central (structured) adaptability and high (chaotic) adaptability and rigid and chaotic. The mean scores did not follow as was predicted.

Extended Family Social Support and Social Desirability were both found to be significant. There were no significantly different means between groups for Extended Family Social Support. Rigid (low adaptability) and chaotic (high adaptability) were found to be significantly different. Both variable mean scores were progressive from low to high. The hypothesis was supported except Mastery and Health and high adaptability scores had the highest mean score for all the variables.

Hypothesis III: Family Cohesion and
Family Functioning Variables

Hypothesis III states that families with central cohesion scores will have more functional scores on the Family Satisfaction Scale the Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale, and the Family Inventory of Resources for Management scale. This hypothesis investigated the relationship between family cohesion and various family functioning variables included in the scales mentioned above. It was postulated that families with central cohesion scores would have higher scores on the FSS, PACS, and FIRM scales than families with low or high cohesion scores. Low cohesion (disengaged) would not create an environment within the family that would foster a feeling of belonging or satisfaction with family relationship.

Cohesion is the level of emotional bonding family members have with one another. Some factors encompassed in cohesion are boundaries, decision making and coalitions. There are four levels of cohesion. The low extreme or disengaged types is characterized by low bonding. The low central level is referred to as separated and the high central level is referred to as connected. In high cohesion, or enmeshment, there is extreme bonding and over-identification with the family that may lead to limited individual autonomy. According to theory, families with a central degree of cohesion will deal more effectively with situational stress and developmental change. Balanced

cohesion is the most conducive to effective family functioning and to optimum individual development.

Family Satisfaction. Hypothesis III investigated the relationship between family cohesion and family satisfaction. It was stated that families with central cohesion scores would have higher family satisfaction scores than families with low or high cohesion scores.

One-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD were used to determine the existence and nature of a relationship between these two variables. A significant difference $F(3,148) = 38.49$, $p < .001$ existed among the levels of cohesion and their relationship to family satisfaction. Low cohesion (disengaged) individuals scored significantly lower on the FSS than did central individuals. High cohesion (enmeshed) individuals had the highest mean scores. Significant group differences existed between all groups. This finding suggests that for this research sample the level of family cohesion plays a significant role in affecting the perceived family satisfaction. Again, normative expectations of a family would explain perhaps why the enmeshed group scored the highest. If the normative expectations of a family support behaviors on one or both extreme of the circumplex dimensions, they will function well as long as all family members accept these expectations (Olson, et al., 1985). (See Table X).

TABLE X
LEVELS OF COHESION IN RELATIONSHIP TO SELECTED
FAMILY FUNCTIONING VARIABLES (N=152)

Family Functioning Variables	Individual's Low (Disengaged) Group I X (N=48)	Individual's Low Central (Separated) Group II X (N=38)	Individual's High Central (Connected) Group III X (N=49)	Individual's High (Enmeshed) Group IV X (N=17)	F-Ratio	Prob.	Paired Means Significantly Different Tukey's HSD Method* for groups 1&2, 1&3, 1&4, 2&3, 2&4, 3&4					
Family Satisfaction	33.5	41.5	47.1	58.5	38.4966	.001	*	*	*	*	*	*
Family Communication	59.8	66.8	74.06	83.5	30.1446	.001	*	*	*	*	*	*
Open Family Communication	29.0	34.9	38.2	43.6	28.0961	.001	*	*	*	-	*	*
Problem in Family Communication	30.8	31.9	35.8	39.8	13.7238	.001	-	*	*	*	*	-
Esteem and Communication	15.8	19.4	20.5	20.8	24.7656	.001	*	*	*	-	-	-
Mastery and Health	12.5	15.7	17.0	19.9	15.8270	.001	*	*	*	-	*	-
Extended Family Social Support	11.7	14.3	14.4	15.8	8.7777	.001	*	*	*	-	-	-
Financial Well-Being	15.1	16.2	16.5	19.8	4.2121	.006	-	-	*	-	*	-
Social Desirability	15.8	20.0	21.0	22.7	15.1945	.001	*	*	*	-	-	-

Family Communication. Hypothesis III stated that families with central cohesion scores will have higher scores on the Parent-Adolescent Communication scale than families with extreme cohesion scores. The dynamics of the interpersonal relationships in families change over time as the children grow from totally dependent newborns to autonomous adults. Communication is an essential ingredient to the establishment of the type of negotiation process families adopt to meet the developmental changes dictated by the growth of individual members. Of particular interest were issues such as the extent of openness or freedom to exchange ideas, information, and concerns between generations; the trust or honesty experienced; and the tone or emotional tenor of the interactions, whether positive or negative. Families with a central degree of cohesion will deal more effectively with situational stress and developmental change and demonstrate more positive communication skills to facilitate this process.

Results of analysis with one-way ANOVA showed that central scores were higher than low cohesion (disengaged) group scores. However, the high cohesion (enmeshed) types had the highest mean score. Significant differences among groups on the cohesion dimension were found at the .0001 level. Tukey's HSD analysis identified pairs of groups as different at the .05 level. Significant differences were found between the means of all the paired groups (See Table X).

Members of the disengaged group had the lowest scores and perceived themselves as not having open communication within their families. These findings may be a result of little family bonding or support. Individuals who do not feel a closeness to their family members may not sense a freedom or openness to exchange information and concerns.

Of interest was the finding that high cohesion group scores reflected a better perception of parent-adolescent communication. One might suggest that parent-adolescent relationships characterized by enmeshed family systems, block attempts at individuation (Olson, et al., 1983). Enmeshed group scores would reflect a feeling of low trust and emotional interaction, this was not the finding with this sample. The outcome may be related to family life cycle stage as families are often more cohesive during middle childrearing years.

Family Inventory of Resources for Management.

Hypothesis III investigated the relationship between family members' cohesion scores and scores on the FIRM scales. This hypothesis states that family members with central cohesion scores will possess a larger repertoire of resources, will manage these resources more effectively and will be better able to cope with stressful situations with the available family support. The Circumplex Model postulates that the most viable family systems tend to be those in the central levels of the cohesion dimension. Critical resources that distinguish balanced families from

extreme families is that balanced families feel good about their financial management and extended family and friends (McCubbin & Patterson, 1981).

The FIRM scale contained four sub-scales that were analyzed. One way ANOVA was used to assess group or level differences on the cohesion dimensions. Results showed that the differences among the group means were significant at the .001 level for esteem and communication and mastery and health, extended family social support and social desirability. Financial well-being was significant at the .006 level. Further analysis by Tukey's HSD revealed that significant differences existed between low cohesion (disengaged) and the other three groups low central (separated), high central (connected), and high (enmeshed) for the esteem and communication sub-scale. The same was true for mastery and health with the addition of low central (separated) and high (enmeshed) also being significantly different. Extended Family Social Support had significant differences between low cohesion (disengaged) and the other three levels; separated, connected, and enmeshed. Financial well-being had significant differences between two paired groups. These groups were high cohesion and low, and low central. Once again the mean was progressive, decreasing from low to high. All means were significant, however the means were progressive when the extremes were expected to be lower. (See Table X).

Hypothesis IV: Families with ProblemAdolescents and Non-ProblemAdolescents and FamilyFunctioning Variables

Hypothesis IV states that families with non-problem adolescents (referred to as non-problem families) will have more functional scores on the various family functioning scale than families with problem adolescents (referred to as problem families). This hypothesis investigates the relationship between problem families and non-problem families and various family functioning variables including the FSS, PACS, and FIRM scales. It was hypothesized that non-problem families would have a greater level of family satisfaction, possess more positive communication skills, and have more resources and extended family support available to them. These characteristics suggest that they are better able to deal with the stress and conflict of the developmental changes. Also, the non-problem families will have a much more positive view and experience of these developmentally important years.

Family Satisfaction. Hypothesis IV stated that non-problem families will score higher on the Family Satisfaction Scale. Family satisfaction is primary an outcome variable because it reflects the mood and happiness with the overall functioning of the family. This hypothesis postulates that a non-problem family, because of a lesser

degree of conflict and discord between parents and adolescents, will generally be more satisfied with the family relationships and family life.

One-way analysis of variance investigated the difference between family groups and family satisfaction. Results of the ANOVA were significant $F(1,150) = 39.58$, $p < .001$ level (See Table XI), thereby confirming this hypothesis. The mean score for non-problem families was 47.97. This was slightly higher than the national surveyed norm of 47.0. However, the problem families score was 37.14. This reflects a significantly lower level of satisfaction with their family relationships. Having adolescents in the family who are involved with a social service agency because of their behavior can be stressful to the family members. Generally, satisfied families are less stressed families, and families under stress do, indeed, tend to be dissatisfied. The results have been clear and consistent that families under stress are equally dissatisfied with their marriage, with their family lives and with the quality of their lives (Olson, et al., 1985).

Family Communication. Hypothesis IV stated that non-problem families would score higher on the parent-adolescent communication scale. It is hypothesized that effective communication facilitates movement to, and maintenance of family systems at the desired, balanced, functioning level of family functioning. Further, ineffective communication

minimizes and may prevent movement toward balanced levels of family functioning.

One-way analysis of variance investigated differences between family groups with the family communication variables. Hypothesis IV stated that non-problem families would have higher scores on family communication variables. Results of ANOVA were found significant $F(1,150) = 34.01$, $p < .001$. (See Table XI). The mean score for non-problem families was 74.07 as compared to the mean score of problem families which was 63.32. Similar differences were found on the sub-scales, open family communication and problems in family communication, between family groups (See Table XI).

Theoretically, non-problem families would allow a greater degree of freedom with which information is exchanged between parents and children. This was assessed by the open family communication sub-scale and supported by the results. Problems in family communication measured the difficulties or hindrances in the intergenerational exchange of information. As predicted, problem families scored lower on this sub-scale, reflecting an inability in effective communication skills which are crucial to family relationships.

Family Inventory of Resources for Management.

Hypothesis IV investigates the relationship between family groups and the family functioning variables included in the FIRM sub-scales. This hypothesis states that non-problem families will possess a larger repertoire of resources and

TABLE XI
 PROBLEM FAMILIES AND NON-PROBLEM FAMILIES RELATIONSHIP TO
 SELECTED FAMILY FUNCTIONING VARIABLES (N=152)

Family Functioning Variables	Problem Family Members (N=74)	Non-Problem Family Members (N=78)	F-Ratio	Prob.
Family Satisfaction	37.14	47.97	39.586	.001
Family Communication	63.32	74.07	34.010	.001
Open Family Communication	32.00	38.00	25.381	.001
Problems in Family Communication	31.32	36.01	22.777	.001
Esteem and Communication	17.39	20.24	28.24	.001
Mastery and Health	13.33	17.82	41.379	.001
Extended Family Social Support	12.97	14.44	6.608	.01
Financial Well-Being	15.10	17.61	10.938	.001
Social Desirability	17.09	21.43	33.016	.001

will manage more effectively these resources. Also, they will be better able to handle the demands of the developmental tasks faced by families with adolescents with the available family support.

Five family resource variables were contained in the FIRM scale. One-way ANOVA was used to assess family groups differences on these family resource variables. Results for Esteem and Communication, Mastery and Health, Financial Well-being and Social Desirability were significant ($p < .001$) (See Table XI). The mean scores for non-problem families on Esteem and Communication was 20.24 and was 17.39 for problem families. On Mastery and Health for non-problem families the mean score was 17.82 and for problem families 13.33; and on Financial Well-being the mean score for non-problem families was 17.61 and problem families 15.10. The mean differences was significant for Extended Family Social Support at the .01 level; the mean for non-problem families was 14.44 and for problem families 12.97.

Families with adolescents use more marital and family resources than they do at any other stage (Olson, et al., 1983). Theoretically, non-problem families would utilize their resources and family support more effectively than problem families. In this study the perception of problem families was lower on these variables than non-problem families and therefore the hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis V: Relationship Between
Family Type and Family Functioning
Variables

Family type is an independent variable obtained when cohesion and adaptability dimensions are combined. Sixteen possible family types are produced through this union. These sixteen types can be categorized into three major family types identified in the Circumplex Model. These three types are called balanced, mid-range, and extreme. Balanced family types are considered to be the most functioned, while extreme types tend to function at the highest and lowest levels of cohesion and adaptability. These extreme types are not expected to be able to change their behavior as easily as the balanced types (Olson, et al., 1983). However, extreme families will function adequately as long as all family members have the same expectations. Different life cycle stages may also alter theorized expectations.

Hypothesis IV stated that balanced family types will score higher on the family functioning variables contained within the FSS, PACS, & FIRM scales, than would midrange or extreme family types. Balanced families tend to promote adequate family functioning and will change to adapt to the developmental changes dictated by the growth of individual family members.

Family Satisfaction. Hypothesis V stated that balanced family types will score higher on the Family Satisfaction Scale. Family satisfaction reflects the mood and happiness with the overall functioning of the family. This hypothesis postulates that balanced families will generally function more adequately than extreme families.

One-way analysis of variance investigated the difference between family types and family satisfaction. Results of the ANOVA were significant $F(2,149) = 5.90$, $p < .003$, thereby confirming this hypothesis (See Table XII). Tukey HSD analysis identified pairs of groups as different at the .05 level. Significant differences were found between balanced and extreme; and mid-range and extreme. Balanced families members had the highest mean score and extreme had the lowest. This was as predicted from the hypothesis. The stage of family life cycle will affect the location of families in the Circumplex Model and their level of functioning. Families during adolescence have the lowest mean scores, than any other family life stage.

Family Communication. Hypothesis V stated that balanced families will have higher scores on the Parent-Adolescent Communication scale than extreme families. Adolescence is often viewed as a turbulent period of challenge and change in the relationship between these emerging adults and their parents. As adolescents grow toward adulthood, parallel changes are needed in their relationship with their parents to facilitate and enable

TABLE XII
 FAMILY TYPE IN RELATION TO SELECTED
 FAMILY FUNCTIONING VARIABLES (N=152)

Family Functioning Variables	Balanced Family Type Group I X (N=25)	Mid-Range Family Type Group II X (N=84)	Extreme Family Type Group III X (N=43)	F-Ratio	Prob.	Paired Means Significantly Different Tukey's HSD Method for Groups		
						1&2	1&3	2&3
Family Satisfaction	45.0	44.0	36.6	5.9025	.003	-	*	*
Family Communication	69.9	70.3	63.8	3.5095	.03	-	-	*
Open Family Communication	36.3	36.0	31.3	4.9758	.008	-	*	*
Problems in Family Communication	33.5	34.3	32.4	.9421	NS	-	-	-
Esteem and Communication	20.0	19.2	16.6	10.0793	.00	-	*	*
Mastery and Health	16.5	16.0	13.4	4.6407	.01	-	*	*
Extended Family Social Support	14.2	13.8	12.9	1.2657	NS	-	-	-
Financial Well-Being	15.4	16.8	16.3	1.0878	NS	-	-	-
Social Desirability	19.7	19.9	17.1	3.9472	.02	-	-	-

these changes, or at least to remove obstacles to the demands of the developmental tasks faced by adolescents. Some families experience a great deal of upheaval and difficulty during this period, it is postulated that balanced families will have a much more positive view and experience of these developmentally important years.

Results of analysis with ANOVA showed that Family Communication was significant $F(2,149) = 8.50, p < .03$ (See Table XII). However, mid-ranged families had a slightly higher mean, 70.3, compared to balanced families 69.9. Extreme families had the lowest mean score 63.8. Problems in Family Communication was not found to be significant. Open family communication was highly significant $F(2,149) = 4.9, p < .008$. This variable accounted for most of the difference in the Family Communication Variable.

Tukey's HSD revealed that on Family Communication mid-range and extreme families means differed significantly. On the Open Communication Subscale, the balanced group differed from extreme, and the mid-range group also differed significantly from extreme families.

The views and perspectives of balanced and mid-range families did not differ, but as expected extreme families did give partial support to the hypothesis. This is consistent with the hypothesized view that adolescents and their parents from balanced family types would have more positive perceptions and experience in communication with each other.

Family Inventory of Resources for Management.

Hypothesis V investigates the relationship between family types and the family functioning variables included in the FIRM subscales. This hypothesis states that balanced families will possess and more effectively use these resources. They will also be better able to handle the demands of the developmental tasks faced by families with adolescents with the available family support.

Five family resource variables were contained in the FIRM scale. One-way ANOVA was used to assess family type differences on these family resource variables. Results for Esteem and Communication, Mastery and Health, and Social Desirability were found to be significant ($p < .01$) (See Table XII). Tukey's HSD found significantly different means between balanced and extreme, and mid-range and extreme for both Esteem and Communication, and Mastery and Health (see Table XI). No other paired groups were found to be significant at the .05 level. The means scores were progressive for all variables with balance having the highest and extreme the lowest, except for Financial Well-Being which was not found to be significant. The hypothesis was partially supported.

Summary

Descriptive statistics, Chi Square, ANOVA and One-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD were applied to data obtained from FACES III, FBI, FSS, and PAC. All tests of the hypotheses

were analyzed at the .05 level of probability to be determined as significant.

The findings and results were discussed in the order in which the hypotheses were presented in Chapters I and III. The findings presented in this chapter were based on information from 59 families from rural southeastern Oklahoma. Ninety-three parents and 59 adolescents ranging from 12 - 18 years of age composed the sample population. Thirty-one families had problem adolescents, as identified by this study; and 28 families had non-problem adolescents. Problem families in this sample were generally of low socio-economic status and low education, while the non-problem families were generally of moderate socio-economic status and high education level. Both types of families were primarily Protestants and Caucasians.

Chi-square was used to analyze family group and family type. Two statistically significant relationships were found. Differences in problem and non-problem families were found with problem families more likely to be extreme types. Also, problem and non-problem mothers were found to be significantly different. Non-problem mothers were more likely to be balanced type than problem family mothers.

Both the adaptability and cohesion dimensions have four levels or groups for analysis, with scores ranging from low to high. The mean difference of the effects of these groups on nine dependent variables was determined by One-way ANOVA. If mean differences were significant ($p < 2.05$) Tukey HSD was

applied to the means to discover which differences were contributing most to the findings.

Significant differences between the four adaptability groups were found in interaction with all the family functioning variables except Open Family Communication and Mastery and Health. Tukey's analysis revealed that significant differences occurred between rigid (low adaptability) and chaotic (high adaptability) on five of the seven variables.

One-way ANOVA of the cohesion variable revealed significant mean differences with all the family functioning variables. Tukey's analysis revealed that paired means significantly differed for all paired groups on Family Satisfaction and Family Communication. Significant differences were found between the means of disengaged (low cohesion) and enmeshed (high cohesion) on all the dependent variables. Significant differences were found between disengaged (low cohesion) and connected (high central cohesion) on all the variables except Financial Well-being.

One-way ANOVA of the family group variable revealed significant mean differences with all the family functioning variables. Of particular note was the ten point mean difference on Family Satisfaction between problem family members and non-problem family members. Non-problem families were slightly higher than the national norm established, whereas, the problem families were nearly ten

points below the national norm, revealing considerable less satisfaction with family relationships and interaction.

Finally, the two independent variables were combined to form three distinct family types, balanced, mid-range and extreme. Differences between these types on each family functioning variable was determined. Significant differences were found on all dependent variables but three, Problems in Family Communication, Extended Family Social Support and Financial Well-Being. Tukey analysis revealed a significant difference existed between extreme and mid-range on five of the six dependent variable only Social Desirability was not significant. Balanced and extreme families were significantly different on four of the six dependent variables: Family Communication was not significant and again, Social Desirability was not significant.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Erik Erikson (1976) views each life stage as a key "psychosocial crisis," which he defines not as a threat or catastrophe but as a turning point, a crucial period of increased vulnerability and heightened potential. The way in which an individual family member resolves the crisis can either enhance or weaken his or her ability to master crisis in subsequent stages. Family transitional events such as marriage, parenthood, launching and middle age call for family reorganization and adaptation. No phase of the family life cycle seems to be more stressful than the adolescent years (Olson, et al., 1983). Part of this stress comes from the changing needs and preferences of the adolescents as they increasingly seek independence from their family. Another factor to consider is the lack of congruence between family members' perception of their relationships and interactions.

Parents and their adolescents seem to live in rather different worlds. Parents frequently report not understanding their adolescents, while in turn, adolescents

complain about the same problem with their parents. In this study, the focus was in the parent-adolescent relationship and its effect on family functioning. Particularly, the emphasis was on the differences between problem families and non-problem families.

A thorough review of the literature on family systems and the relationship to family functioning indicated that emphasis needs to be placed on the entire family and not just the troubled adolescent (Alexander, 1973; Tolan, Cromwell, & Brasswell, 1986). The literature also revealed that approaches based on family systems theory (von Bertalanffy, 1968) have had very promising results with adolescents in a variety of settings (Alexander et al., 1977).

Five research instruments were compiled for this study. One of the most useful instruments was developed by David Olson (1983): FACES III was used in this study to assess the type of family (balanced, mid-range, or extreme) on the Circumplex Model. This self-report instrument enables an individual to describe his or her family on the dimensions of family adaptability and cohesion. The Parent-Adolescent Communication Scale assesses positive and negative aspects of communication between parents and adolescent children. It was composed of two subscales: Open Family Communication focuses on the freedom of the flow of factual and emotional information, and problems in family communication focuses on more destructive patterns and avoidance tactics. The Family

Satisfaction Scale was designed to assess each members satisfaction with the family as a whole. Items were derived from the areas covered by the Circumplex Model. Family Inventory of Resources for Management was developed to assess the family's repertoire of resources. The selection of times for FIRM was influenced by literature and theory in three major areas: (a) personal resources, (b) the family system internal resources and (c) social support. Finally, the Family Background Information Form was constructed to obtain basic demographic data from the families.

Fifty-nine families, consisting of 94 parents and 59 adolescents ranging in age from 12 to 18 were asked to give their opinions to scale items. The families all lived in a rural area in southeastern Oklahoma. Thirty-one families had adolescent children who had been referred to a social service agency; while 28 families had adolescent children who had never been referred to a social service agency. The mean age for the fathers in the study was 43 and for the mothers was 40 years. The adolescent mean age was 15.6 years. Generally, the families who participated were white (78%), low to moderate socio-economic status, Protestant (93%), and from rural areas. The study sample was non-random.

Results from statistical analysis of data obtained revealed the existence and nature of interactions of family groups (problem families and non-problem families), dimensions of the Circumplex Model (adaptability and

cohesion) and family type (balanced, mid-range, and extreme) on the family functioning variables.

Hypothesis I was supported when significant differences were found between family group and family type. There was nearly a three times greater likelihood of a problem family being an extreme family type than a non-problem family. Further analysis showed that significant difference existed between problem family mothers and non-problem family mothers. Non-problem mothers were more than twice as likely to be balanced family types than problem family mothers. Also, non-problem mothers were six times more likely to be extreme family types. No significance was found in comparison of other family members (fathers, sons, daughters).

Hypothesis II was partially supported in that a significant difference was found on all but two variables. However, the high cohesion (chaotic) group had the highest mean scores on all the variables. This was not originally predicted. It was predicted that the two central cohesion groups would have the highest mean scores. High extreme individuals perceived the highest family satisfaction and also had the highest mean score for family communication.

Hypothesis III was also partially supported for the same reasons as mentioned above. Significant differences were found on all the family functioning variables. However, the enmeshed group (high cohesion) had the highest means score on all the dependent variables. The high

cohesion group had the fewest individuals in its group (17), less than half of the next lowest group low central cohesion (separated). The enmeshed group was over ten points above the national norms on both Family Satisfaction and Family Communication.

One possible explanation for the extreme individuals scoring high is that the study consisted of non-problem family members and the designation of high-scoring individuals as extreme may be somewhat misleading. The extreme group may actually consist of high balanced levels rather than extreme dysfunctional levels of cohesion and adaptability.

Hypothesis IV was supported in that a significant difference was found between family group on all the family functioning variables. Non-problem family members had higher mean scores on all the dependent variables. This reflected that non-problem family members were generally more satisfied with their family life, possessed more positive communication skills, and had greater repertoire of family resources available to them. Non-problem family parents generally had a higher level of education and a higher level of annual income, which could in turn make more resources available to their families. Adolescents can put an economic strain on a family, which can be stressful to the families.

Hypothesis V was partially supported. There was a significant difference between family type (balanced, mid-

range, and extreme) on six of the nine family functioning variables. No significant difference was found on problems in Family Communication, yet there was significant difference on Family Communication. Open Family Communication was significant at the .008 level contributing to most of the difference in Family Communication. Balanced family type had the highest mean score on all significant family functioning variables that were found to be significant, except for Family Communication and it was less than one point lower than the mid-range family type.

Balanced and mid-range family types were within one point of each other on all the mean scores. However, as predicted, extreme family types scored considerably lower. Families with good parent-adolescent communication had higher levels of family satisfaction, which means they are satisfied with their levels of cohesion and adaptability.

Future Direction

This study raises many questions which are still unanswered. To further understand the findings of this study it is suggested that the following projects be undertaken:

- 1) Comparison of family average scores as well as individual scores to ascertain if the perceived level of functioning by the combined family unit correlates in a similar manner with individual perceptions of family functioning.

2) Further study which investigates the differences between family typologies and family functioning is needed. Further investigation into the differences between the sixteen family types identified on the Circumplex Model and their relationship to family functioning is warranted.

3) Research should be expanded to larger and more diverse populations and norms established, as this study was relatively small, non-random and focused on a rural population.

4) It would be useful to have statistical methods developed which pertain to the total family unit for analysis. This study utilized individual members' scores for analysis. Other methods of evaluation might prove more reliable and valid for future research in family studies.

5) Further investigation into the effects of family functioning variables on the family systems would be valuable to family practitioners to provide needed information about the capabilities and limitations of family therapy with problem families.

6) There were many absent fathers in this study. The importance of the father in the parent-child relationship can no longer be ignored. Future studies need to focus upon the mother-father-child relationship, rather than on the father-child or mother-child relationship.

7) Research in the future will need to use multi-methods to account for the increase in variables examined which affect parent-child relationships. Multi-variable

models will render more precise understanding of the development of family relationships.

Despite its limitations, this study seems to have contributed to the knowledge available for understanding parent-adolescent relationships and family systems functioning. The overall conclusion is that non-problem families have more resources available to them, communicate better and feel better about their family relationships. Also, problem families appear to be disengaged in their emotional bond to their family members.

This study has accomplished its purposes by increasing the knowledge available to social workers, counselors, teachers, and those in the helping professions. It also provided an opportunity for families to evaluate their own attitudes about their family relationships.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
PARENT CONSENT FORM

PARENTAL INFORMED CONSENT FORM
FOR STUDY: FAMILY COMMUNICATION SURVEY

I voluntarily agree to participate in the study on "Family Communication Survey" being conducted by a doctoral candidate in the Department of Family Relations and Child Development from Oklahoma State University. I understand that no record of my name and code number will be made in order to guarantee anonymity. I understand that all information that I provide is confidential and that neither my name nor any family member's name will be associated with the questionnaire. I understand I can withdraw from the study at any time.

I also grant permission for my child _____ to participate in the study on "Family Communication Survey" under the same conditions as explained above.

Date

Parent/Guardian

Date

Parent/Guardian

Researcher: James W. Burke, Jr.
Doctoral Candidate
Department of Family Relations
and Child Development
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74078-0337

APPENDIX B

TEEN CONSENT FORM

PARENTAL INFORMED CONSENT FORM
FOR STUDY: FAMILY COMMUNICATION SURVEY

I voluntarily agree to participate in the study on "Family Communication Survey" being conducted by a doctoral candidate in the Department of Family Relations and Child Development from Oklahoma State University. I understand that no record of my name and code number will be made in order to guarantee anonymity. I understand that all information that I provide is confidential and that neither my name nor any family member's name will be associated with the questionnaire. I understand I can withdraw from the study at any time.

I also grant permission for my child _____
to participate in the study on "Family Communication Survey" under
the same conditions as explained above.

Date

Parent/Guardian

Date

Parent/Guardian

Researcher: James W. Burke, Jr.
Doctoral Candidate
Department of Family Relations
and Child Development
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74078-0337

APPENDIX C
FAMILY COMMUNICATION SURVEY,
PARENT FORM

family communication survey



Confidential

Please do not put your name on this form.

Date _____

ID _____

Respondent
(circle one)

FATHER

MOTHER

PART I The following items are statements about relationships between you and your family. Read each statement and decide for each one how frequent, on a scale that ranges from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always), the behavior occurs in your family. ITEMS 1-20 should be answered how you see the family now and ITEMS 21-40 should be answered how you would like your family to be.

1	2	3	4	5
ALMOST NEVER	ONCE IN A WHILE	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.

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

DESCRIBE YOUR FAMILY NOW:

- ___ 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.

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

IDEALLY, how would you like YOUR FAMILY TO BE:

- ___ 21. Family members 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 have a say in their discipline.
- ___ 25. We would like to do things with just our immediate family.
- ___ 26. Different persons act as leaders in our family.
- ___ 27. Family members would feel closer to each other than to people outside the family.

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

IDEALLY, how would you like YOUR FAMILY TO BE:

- ___ 28. Our family would changes 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. The 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 is very important.
- ___ 40. We could tell who does which household chores.

PART II The next fourteen statements refer to family satisfaction.

1	2	3	4	5
DISSATISFIED	SOMEWHAT	GENERALLY	VERY	EXTREMELY
	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED

HOW SATISFIED ARE YOU:

- ___ 1. With how close you feel to the rest of your family?
- ___ 2. With your ability to say what you want in your family?
- ___ 3. With your family's ability to try new things?
- ___ 4. With how often parents make decisions in your family?
- ___ 5. With how much mother and father argue with each other?
- ___ 6. With how fair the criticism is in your family?
- ___ 7. With the amount of time you spend with your family?
- ___ 8. With the way you talk together to solve family problems?
- ___ 9. With your freedom to be alone when you want to?
- ___ 10. With how strictly you stay with who does what chores in your family?
- ___ 11. With your family's acceptance of your friends?
- ___ 12. With how clear is it what your family expects of you?
- ___ 13. With how often you make decisions as a family, rather than individually?
- ___ 14. With the number of fun things your family does together?

PART III - P The next 20 items refer to parent/adolescent relationship and are to be completed by the parent(s) only.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

- ___ 1. I can discuss my beliefs with my child without feeling restrained or embarrassed.
- ___ 2. Sometimes I have trouble believing everything my child tells me.
- ___ 3. My child is always a good listener.
- ___ 4. I am sometimes afraid to ask my child for what I want.
- ___ 5. My child has a tendency to say things to me which would be better left unsaid.
- ___ 6. My child can tell how I'm feeling without asking.
- ___ 7. I am very satisfied with how my child and I talk together.
- ___ 8. If I were in trouble, I could tell my child.
- ___ 9. I openly show affection to my child.
- ___ 10. When we are having a problem, I often give my child the silent treatment.
- ___ 11. I am careful about what I say to my child.
- ___ 12. When talking with my child, I have a tendency to say things that would be better left unsaid.
- ___ 13. When I ask questions, I get honest answers from my child.
- ___ 14. My child tries to understand my point of view.
- ___ 15. There are topics I avoid discussing with my child.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

- ___ 16. I find it easy to discuss problems with my child.
- ___ 17. It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to my child.
- ___ 18. My child nags/bothers me.
- ___ 19. My child insults me when s/he is angry with me.
- ___ 20. I don't think I can tell my child how I really feel about some things.

PART IV The next 26 items refer to family resources and how well the statements reflect your family.

1	2	3	4	5
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

- ___ 1. Our family is as well as adjusted as any family in this world can be.
- ___ 2. Sometimes we feel we don't have enough control over the direction our lives are taking.
- ___ 3. Family members understand each other completely.
- ___ 4. Our family is under a lot of emotional stress.
- ___ 5. There are times when family members do things that make other members unhappy.
- ___ 6. No one could be happier than our family when we are together.
- ___ 7. It is hard to get family members to cooperate with each other.
- ___ 8. If our family has any faults, we are not aware of them.
- ___ 9. Many times we feel we have little influence over the things that happen to us.

1	2	3	4	5
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

- ___ 10. We have the same problems over and over---we don't seem to learn from past mistakes.
- ___ 11. We feel our family is a perfect success.
- ___ 12. There are times when we do not feel a great deal of love and affection for each other.
- ___ 13. If a close relative were having financial problems we feel we could afford to help them out.
- ___ 14. When we make plans we are almost certain we can make them work.
- ___ 15. We seem to have little or no problem paying our bills on time.
- ___ 16. Our relatives seem to take from us, but give little in return.
- ___ 17. When we face a problem, we look at the good and bad of each possible solution.
- ___ 18. We try to keep in touch with our relatives as much as possible.
- ___ 19. We seem to be happier with our lives than many families we know.
- ___ 20. When we need something that can't be postponed, we have money in savings to cover it.
- ___ 21. Our relatives are willing to listen to our problems.
- ___ 22. We worry about how we would cover a large unexpected bill (for home, auto repairs, etc. for about \$100).
- ___ 23. We get great satisfaction when we can help out one another in our family.
- ___ 24. The members of our family respect one another.

1	2	3	4	5
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

___ 25. Our relatives do and say things to make us feel appreciated.

___ 26. We feel we are financially better off now than we were 5 years ago.

PART V The next 35 items are possible areas of conflict between parent and adolescents. For each item mark the amount of conflict and with what family member the conflict occurred.

	AMOUNT OF CONFLICT			P	M	C			
	No Conflict	Some Conflict	Major Conflict				A	O	H
							T	T	I
							H	H	L
			B	B	D				
			R	R					
Curfew on Weekends									
Decisions About Cloths									
Doing Household Chores									
Behavior of Some Friends									
Smoking									
Use of Car									
Time Spent With Family									
Poor Grades at School									
Use of Alcohol									
Problem School Behavior									
Church Attendance									
Grooming Habits									
Response to Discipline									
Use of Drugs									
Punishment Used by Parent									
Use of Money									
Opposite Sex Friends									
Plans for Future									
Activities Away from Home									
Sexual Behavior									
Talking With Family Members									
Care of Possessions									
Use of "Bad Language"									
Education Plans									
Time Spent Away from Home									
Being Dependable									
Amount of Allowance									
Watching Television									
Attitude About Homework									
Eating Habits									
Family Arguments									
Choice of Friends									
Laziness or Lack of Effort									

APPENDIX D
FAMILY COMMUNICATION SURVEY,
ADOLESCENT FORM

family communication survey



Confidential

Please do not put your name on this form.

Date _____

ID _____

Respondent
(circle one)

Son , Daughter

PART I The following items are statements about relationships between you and your family. Read each statement and decide for each one how frequent, on a scale that ranges from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always), the behavior occurs in your family. ITEMS 1-20 should be answered how you see the family now and ITEMS 21-40 should be answered how you would like your family to be.

1	2	3	4	5
ALMOST NEVER	ONCE IN A WHILE	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.

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

- ___ 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.

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

IDEALLY, how would you like YOUR FAMILY TO BE:

- ___ 21. Family members 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 have a say in their discipline.
- ___ 25. We would like to do things with just our immediate family.
- ___ 26. Different persons 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.

- | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--------------|-----------------|-----------|------------|---------------|
| ALMOST NEVER | ONCE IN A WHILE | SOMETIMES | FREQUENTLY | ALMOST ALWAYS |
-
- ___ 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. The 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 is very important.
- ___ 40. We could tell who does which household chores.

PART II The next fourteen statements refer to family satisfaction.

1	2	3	4	5
DISSATISFIED	SOMEWHAT	GENERALLY	VERY	EXTREMELY
	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED

HOW SATISFIED ARE YOU:

- ___ 1. With how close you feel to the rest of your family?
- ___ 2. With your ability to say what you want in your family?
- ___ 3. With your family's ability to try new things?
- ___ 4. With how often parents make decisions in your family?
- ___ 5. With how much mother and father argue with each other?
- ___ 6. With how fair the criticism is in your family?
- ___ 7. With the amount of time you spend with your family?
- ___ 8. With the way you talk together to solve family problems?
- ___ 9. With your freedom to be alone when you want to?
- ___ 10. With how strictly you stay with who does what chores in your family?
- ___ 11. With your family's acceptance of your friends?
- ___ 12. With how clear is it what your family expects of you?
- ___ 13. With how often you make decisions as a family, rather than individually?
- ___ 14. With the number of fun things your family does together?

PART III - T The next 20 items refer to parent/adolescent relations and is to be completed by the teenager. Each statement should be scored separately for the mother and father.

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

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

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

- ___ 14. My mother/father tries to understand my point of view.
- ___ 15. There are topics I avoid discussing with my mother/father.
- ___ 16. I find it easy to discuss problems with my mother/father.
- ___ 17. It is very easy for me to express all my true feelings to my mother/father.
- ___ 18. Mother/father nags/bothers me.
- ___ 19. My mother/father insults me when s/he is angry with me.
- ___ 20. I don't think I can tell my mother/father how I really feel about some things.

PART IV The next 26 items refer to family resources and how well the statements reflect your family.

1	2	3	4	5
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

- ___ 1. Our family is as well as adjusted as any family in this world can be.
- ___ 2. Sometimes we feel we don't have enough control over the direction our lives are taking.
- ___ 3. Family members understand each other completely.
- ___ 4. Our family is under a lot of emotional stress.
- ___ 5. There are times when family members do things that make other members unhappy.
- ___ 6. No one could be happier than our family when we are together.

1	2	3	4	5
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

- ___ 7. It is hard to get family members to cooperate with each other.
- ___ 8. If our family has any faults, we are not aware of them.
- ___ 9. Many times we feel we have little influence over the things that happen to us.
- ___ 10. We have the same problems over and over---we don't seem to learn from past mistakes.
- ___ 11. We feel our family is a perfect success.
- ___ 12. There are times when we do not feel a great deal of love and affection for each other.
- ___ 13. If a close relative were having financial problems we feel we could afford to help them out.
- ___ 14. When we make plans we are almost certain we can make them work.
- ___ 15. We seem to have little or no problem paying our bills on time.
- ___ 16. Our relatives seem to take from us, but give little in return.
- ___ 17. When we face a problem, we look at the good and bad of each possible solution.
- ___ 18. We try to keep in touch with our relatives as much as possible.
- ___ 19. We seem to be happier with our lives than many families we know.
- ___ 20. When we need something that can't be postponed, we have money in savings to cover it.
- ___ 21. Our relatives are willing to listen to our problems.

1	2	3	4	5
STRONGLY AGREE	MODERATELY AGREE	NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	MODERATELY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

- _____ 22. We worry about how we would cover a large unexpected bill (for home, auto repairs, etc. for about \$100).
- _____ 23. We get great satisfaction when we can help out one another in our family.
- _____ 24. The members of our family respect one another.
- _____ 25. Our relatives do and say things to make us feel appreciated.
- _____ 26. We feel we are financially better off now than we were 5 years ago.

PART V The next 35 items are possible areas of conflict between parent and adolescents. For each item mark the amount of conflict and with what family member the conflict occurred.

	AMOUNT OF CONFLICT			F	M	C
				A	O	H
	No	Some	Major	T	T	I
	Conflict	Conflict	Conflict	H	H	L
			B	B	D	
			R	R		
Curfew on Weekends						
Decisions About Cloths						
Doing Household Chores						
Behavior of Some Friends						
Smoking						
Use of Car						
Time Spent With Family						
Poor Grades at School						
Use of Alcohol						
Problem School Behavior						
Church Attendance						
Grooming Habits						
Response to Discipline						
Use of Drugs						
Punishment Used by Parent						
Use of Money						
Opposite Sex Friends						
Plans for Future						
Activities Away from Home						
Sexual Behavior						
Talking With Family Members						
Care of Possessions						
Use of "Bad Language"						
Education Plans						
Time Spent Away from Home						
Being Dependable						
Amount of Allowance						
Watching Television						
Attitude About Homework						
Eating Habits						
Family Arguments						
Choice of Friends						
Laziness or Lack of Effort						

APPENDIX E

FAMILY BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Form FB - Family Background Information Form ID _____

Please use the following chart to describe the members of your household. Be sure to INCLUDE YOURSELF. Write in the age for each member and then CIRCLE sex and health status. Identify YOURSELF by circling your AGE.

How many persons are in your current household? _____

FAMILY MEMBER	Father		Mother		1st child		2nd child		3rd child		4th child		Other	Other
	(write in)		(write in)		(write in)		(write in)		(write in)		(write in)		(write in)	(write in)
SEX: (circle)	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
AGE: (write in)														
HEALTH STATUS:	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent
	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good
	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair	Fair
	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor

What is your marital status?

1. Single, never married
2. Single, divorced
3. Single, widowed
4. Married -1st,2nd,3rd,4th,5th
5. Married, separated

Racial or Ethnic Identification

1. Black (Negro)
2. Chicano (Mexican American)
3. Native American (American Indian)
4. Oriental
5. White (Caucasian)
6. Other

Religious Beliefs

1. Protestant
 - a) Denomination _____
 - b) No Church preference
2. Catholic
3. Jewish
4. Other _____

Has your family ever been referred to a social service agency?

1. yes
 2. no
- If yes, circle which one

1. Youth Services
2. Juvenile Court
3. Mental Health Agency
4. Court Related Community Service
5. Other _____

Total Family Income for 1987

1. Less than \$10,000.00
2. \$10,000 - \$19,000.00
3. \$20,000 - \$29,000.00
4. \$30,000 - \$39,000.00
5. \$40,000 or More

Years of Education Completed

1. Less than 8 years of school
2. Some High School
3. Finished High School
4. Vocational Training (After High School)
5. Some college, did not finish
6. College degree completed
7. Graduate or professional training

FATHER

MOTHER

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

APPENDIX F

INSTRUMENTS PERMISSION FORM

MARRIAGE AND FAMILY INVENTORIES PROJECT
Inventories Developed by Olson and Colleagues

ABSTRACT ON PROPOSED STUDY*

NAME:	<u>James W. Burke, Jr.</u>	PHONE:	<u>(405)332-8000</u>
AFFILIATION:	<u>Oklahoma State University</u>		
ADDRESS:	<u>Dept. of FRCD</u>	ABSTRACT DATE:	<u>December 4, 1987</u>
	<u>Oklahoma State University</u>	START DATE:	<u>May, 1988</u>
CITY:	<u>Stillwater</u>	COMPLETION DATE:	<u>July, 1989</u>
STATE:	<u>Oklahoma</u>	DISSERTATION PROJECT:	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes
ZIP:	<u>74078-0337</u>		<input type="checkbox"/> No

TITLE OF PROJECT: Parent-Adolescent Relationships and Family Systems Functioning

BRIEF DESCRIPTION: Families with adolescents can be the most stressful life cycle stage. Study of families that have problems with their adolescent children and families that do not, could help understand the dynamics involved in family relationships during this period. The circumplex model may provide a mechanism for determining why some families are functional and others are dysfunctional. This information could aid in identifying relevant variables to work with these families.

THEORETICAL VARIABLES: Circumplex Variables

TYPE OF GROUP(S): Families with Problem Adolescents and
 Families with Non-Problem Adolescents

SAMPLE SIZES: 60 Families

DESIGN: Comparative and Correlational

METHODS: (over)

(OVER)

*This Abstract should be completed and returned when requesting permission to use or copy any of the Inventories. Thank you for completing this form. Please return to:

David H. Olson, Ph.D.
 Family Social Science
 290 McNeal Hall
 University of Minnesota
 St. Paul, MN 55108

METHODS:**A. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS DEVELOPED BY OLSON & COLLEAGUES**
(Check One or More)**1. Self-Report Scales**

- FACES III
 - Perceived Only
 - Perceived & Ideal
- FACES II
 - Perceived Only
 - Perceived & Ideal
- FACES I (Original)
- Family Satisfaction
- Marital Satisfaction
- ENRICH - Marital Scales
- PREPARE - Premarital Scales
- PAIR - Marital Intimacy
- Parent-Adolescent Communication

2. Behavioral Assessment

- Clinical Rating Scale on Circumplex Model
- Inventory of Premarital Conflict (IPMC)
- Inventory of Marital Conflict (IMC)
- Inventory of Parent-Child Conflict (IPCC)
- Inventory of Parent-Adolescent Conflict (IPAC)

B. OTHER RESEARCH SCALES

Do you wish to be kept on our mailing list?

- Yes
 - No
-

VITA

James W. Burke, Jr.

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS AND FAMILY SYSTEMS
FUNCTIONING

Major Field: Home Economics

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Tulsa, Oklahoma, August 13,
1950, the father of Jennifer Marie and Elizabeth
Anne Burke.

Education: Graduated from Bishop Kelly High School,
Tulsa, Oklahoma, in May, 1968; received Bachelor
of Arts degree in Political Science from The
University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma in May, 1972;
received Master of Social Work Degree from Our
Lady of the Lake University of San Antonio, Texas
in August, 1976; completed requirements for the
Doctor of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State
University in July, 1989.

Professional Experience: Juvenile Probation Officer,
Tulsa County Aftercare Unit, 1972-1974; Director
of Tulsa County Boys Group Home and Social Worker
in Protective Services Child Abuse Unit, Tulsa
County, 1974-1976; Training Specialist Supervisor
for Division of Social Services, Tulsa County DHA,
1976-1978; Assistant Professor of Social Work,
East Central University, 1978-present. License
Social Worker, State of Oklahoma, Academy of
Certified Social Workers and member of National
Association of Social Workers.