

A STUDY OF SOCIAL
ADJUSTMENT AMONG CHILDREN
OF ONE PARENT FAMILIES

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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A STUDY OF SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT AMONG CHILDREN
OF ONE PARENT FAMILIES

by

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ABSTRACT

This study set out to examine the relationship between one parent family status and the social adjustment of children. The problem was conceptualized in terms of a symbolic interactionist orientation which viewed the child in the context of his interaction with significant others in his social environment. A comprehensive review of the literature concerning children in one parent families revealed considerable inconclusiveness. The formulation of confident inferences was hampered both by the fragmentary nature of much of the research, and by the complexity of the problem itself. However, it did lead to the proposition that one parent family status likely affects childrens' social adjustment in an adverse manner. Social adjustment was measured in terms of eight aspects of interpersonal functioning -- helping agency contact, school adjustment, peer relationships, perceived popularity, club membership, enuresis, discipline problems, and delinquency.

The proposition was tested through the use of inter-group comparisons between randomly selected samples of one and two parent families. Data were collected by means

of a modified mail survey method utilizing a questionnaire administered to voluntary respondents. This method achieved an overall response rate of 67 percent.

Analysis of the research findings yielded non-significant differences, tending toward predicted directions, on seven of the eight components measured. The exception was in the area of school adjustment, where children of one parent families showed significantly poorer adjustment.

Further analysis showed that boys did not differ significantly from girls, in terms of their social adjustment. Widows' children were found to show a significantly better adjustment than children in all other one parent families. However, this is likely due to factors other than the one parent family experience itself.

To conclude, the findings did not support the general proposition that one parent family status, in itself, causes poorer social adjustment in children. However, they did suggest that the one parent family presents a milieu in which factors, such as poverty, disorganization, and interpersonal problems are more likely to be present, and that these, in combination with one parent family status, are likely to affect social adjustment in a negative manner.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The family must perform myriad roles in the development of the child. In addition to providing basic physical care, it is charged with the primary responsibility for teaching and socializing the child in such a way that he or she grows up with the means with which both to cope and contribute to the society of which he or she is a part. As Elkin puts it:

The family has a most crucial role in the socialization of the child with practically all specialists agreeing that the parent-child relationship is the major determinant in the formation of his personality and his future relationships. The parents, it is also recognized, act not only in their own right, but as intermediaries of the larger culture, teaching the values of the larger society and of their own national, socio-economic, religious and ethnic groups. (Elkin, 1971:104-105)

By way of equipment with which to perform its functions, the family is provided with the support and sanction of the society, with a number of well-defined role prescriptions, (eg. mother, father, provider, nurturer) and of course, with the abilities which the parents themselves bring into the family unit as products of their own socialization. Simple, it might be said, but in most cases ample

resources with which to achieve the desired social adjustment of the child. But what if the family unit does not remain stable? What if a crucial parent-child relationship is interrupted, or wiped out altogether, through the death or voluntary departure of a parent? Is the child then predestined to fall short of an adequate adjustment, or are there mechanisms by which the family may cope effectively with the loss? What are the factors which determine the answers to these critical questions?

There is no denying the importance of the function that each parent plays in the development of the child. The loss of either parent represents the loss of a primary relationship, an important role model and an integral component of family interaction. In addition, the departure of a parent may bring about actual and perceived changes in the remaining family. There may be a lowering of social and financial status, an increase in stress-producing situations, as well as changes in the behaviour and self-perception of family members.

This study will attempt to identify the major effects of one parent family status upon the social adjustment of children living within such families through comparisons with the social adjustment of children from two parent families. The recognition of the need for this

study grew out of the milieu of a public and child welfare setting wherein the professional, and the bureaucracy were frequently called upon to deal with problems manifested within one parent families. It became apparent that many of the programs designed to deal with such problems were based upon unproven, and at times archaic assumptions as to the nature and effects of one parent family status.

The one parent family, for purposes of this study, is defined as any family unit consisting of at least one dependent child, and which has only one parent present. This follows the criteria generally used for census purposes (Census of Canada, 1971; Oja, 1975). As such, it is among the most common criteria used in research upon one parent families. The concept "dependent child" is defined as a child under 18 who is living at home and who, by reasons of age, or educational status, is dependent upon parental support. This definition would include all those families with at least one dependent child and in which one parent is absent, essentially on a permanent basis, whether by virtue of death, desertion, divorce or separation; it would also include family units consisting of unmarried mothers with dependent children. It would exclude re-constituted families-- all those families which,

though they may have experienced one parent family status for a time, have subsequently gained an essentially permanent (i.e. living-in) parent substitute in the form of a step-parent or common-law spouse.

Though the one parent family has always been present in most societies, adult mortality rates being what they were, the conditions of life in more traditional societies, wherein the family was the crucial economic, social and political unit, deemed that such families did not present a viable unit in any practical way. Therefore, they tended to be absorbed fairly quickly through either formal dissolution or reconstitution. Solo parenthood as a viable choice was scarcely considered. However, in modern society much of this has changed. There are more viable dimensions of choice, such that it has become possible for various forms of "broken" family units to exist successfully on a long-term basis.

The incidence of the one parent family has been on the increase in contemporary Western Society, especially in the past several decades (Schlesinger, 1972). More and more often, this is due to marital breakdown or non-marriage, (Canadian Council on Social Development, 1971) rather than to parental mortality. Census data show a 28.7 percent increase in Canada in the incidence of one

parent families between 1966 and 1971 (Census of Canada, 1971), while in the same period, two parent families increased by only 10.5 percent (National Council of Welfare, 1976:4). Comparisons during this same period showed that widows now comprised a smaller percentage of the one parent families than in the past. This strongly suggests that one parent family status was becoming more a matter of choice than of fate for many.

At present, according to the National Council of Welfare (1976), one parent families comprise over 10 percent of all families in Canada and this represents over 478,000 family units within which there are some 845,505 children, 701,560 of whom are dependent children under the age of 18. (See Tables 1 and 2 which follow). In Newfoundland, in 1971, there were some 7400 one parent families, with over 15,000 children (Census of Canada, 1971).

Table 1: Children in One Parent Families by Age Groups.

Canada: 1971

<u>Age Group</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage of Total</u>
Children under 6	145,575	11.2%
Children 6-14	369,705	43.7%
Children 15-18	186,280	22.0%
Children 19-24	143,945	17.1%

The past decade in Canada, and indeed throughout most of the Western world, has seen a great increase in the amount of attention paid to the "state of society" and its constituent members; a major result, or perhaps more appropriately, a major manifestation of this heightened awareness has been the increased attention directed toward social policy, and concomitantly, toward social problem research (Senate Committee on Poverty, 1971). One of the pertinent social problems to receive heightened attention has been the phenomenon of the one parent family. Current high interest in the one parent family grew in large part out of the large-scale research into poverty which began in the 1960's and carried on into the 1970's. In addition to revealing some startling facts about the nature and extent of poverty in general, it was found that the one parent family was represented far in excess of expected percentages among the poor (Menzies, 1971) and among clients of various social agencies. In fact, while among Canadian families in general, the incidence of poverty was 12.7 percent, fully 53 percent of one parent families live below Canada's poverty line, as defined by Statistics Canada (National Council of Welfare, 1976:2). If we were to take one of the several other proposed poverty lines, such as those proposed by

the National Council of Welfare or the Canadian Council on Social Development, (Statistics Canada's is the lowest of them all) an even higher percentage of one parent families would fall below the poverty line (National Council of Welfare, 1976). Examining the data from another viewpoint, the National Council of Welfare (1976:3) notes that while one parent families as a whole have a 53 percent incidence of poverty, those one parent families headed by females, have an over $2/3$ or 69 percent incidence of poverty. In its 1974 Survey of Consumer Finances, Statistics Canada corroborated this figure and at the same time showed that, of all one parent families with children under age 18, 85.5 percent were female-headed, while only 14.5 percent were male-headed. (Statistics Canada, 1974).

Table 2, which follows, provides a breakdown of one parent families, showing incidence, reason for one parent family status and sex of head. This is based upon 1971 Census data. However, it still shows that some 80 percent of one parent families were female-headed. These facts have some serious implications for the family. The Canadian Council on Social Development observes that as compared to men in the workplace, women are less likely to find employment, they

will tend to earn less if employed, and will be much less likely to be promoted. In fact, in 1974, only 45 percent of female one parent family heads were employed full time, as compared to 89 percent of male one parent family heads.

Table 2 : One Parent Families in Canada by Sex and Marital Status of Head.

	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total # of Families</u>
Widowed	38,070 (37.8%)	184,555 (48.8%)	222,625 (46.5%)
Divorced	11,260 (11.2%)	46,615 (12.3%)	57,880 (12.1%)
Separated	38,845 (38.6%)	122,450 (32.4%)	161,295 (33.7%)
Unmarried	12,505 (12.4%)	24,445 (6.5%)	36,945 (7.7%)
Total	100,680 (100%)	378,065 (100%)	478,745 (100%)

* The families in the Male-headed, Unmarried category would presumably represent broken common-law relationships in which the father has custody.

According to Wright (1970), though one parent families are found in all parts of the country, the incidence appears to be rather higher in urban areas. (Wright found 13.9 percent incidence in the large urban area which he studied, as compared to 10.5 percent incidence in the overall Canadian population). This may be attributable to a number of reasons. First, the higher

degree of social disorganization that exists in cities tends to produce more marital breakdown. Second, values and attitudes toward the relative permanence of marital relationships tend to be more flexible among an urban population, such that dissolution of an unsatisfactory marriage is a relatively more acceptable option. Third, there is a tendency on the part of all "problem families", including one parent families, to migrate to urban areas. The reasons for this phenomenon may include a lack of effective ties in their own communities, a need to escape from actual or perceived community disapproval and a desire to "start afresh" in a new area. Whatever the underlying reason, the phenomenon has been consistently demonstrated. (Newfoundland Government, 1977).

While a fair amount of research has been conducted into the one parent family in Canada in recent years, most of this research has focused upon the economic and social conditions under which the family is living. While there can be no doubt that the financial realities of life in a one parent family are frequently very harsh and thus act as important determinants of functioning, (Ferri, 1976:148; National Council of Welfare, 1976) we need to look beyond these effects if we are to obtain a

clear picture of the totality of the actual effects upon the child of living in a one parent family.

Demographic research into one parent families may have served a useful purpose in attempting to mobilize pressures toward social change, in that it has identified numerical population characteristics, such as the manifestation of poverty and "interpersonal problems" in one parent families. Implicit in most of this research is the assumption that the one parent family presents a social problem. This may well be a very safe assumption, since the society itself at any given time determines, through its current value and normative systems, the criteria for such labels, and prescribes appropriate reactions for others toward those persons so labelled. (Becker, 1962). In this manner, the label "social problem", when applied, can exert tremendous influence upon the relative pathology of the phenomenon of the one parent family. But what in fact are the characteristics of the one parent family which make up the label "social problem"? Part of the answer lies, no doubt, in financial deprivation and its results. However, this only relates to a segment of the one parent family population, and its effects are likely to be as common among the poor in general as they are among the poor one parent family

population (Ferri, 1976:148-149).

As a special type of family, the one parent family has been shown to differ, in a number of important characteristics, from the "normal" two parent family (Ferri, 1976; Canadian Council on Social Development, 1971; Roff et al., 1972; Schlesinger, 1974, etc.). But as Ferri points out, the research findings indicate that this basic fact alone may not in itself consistently produce significant differences between the social adjustment of children in one and two parent families. Rather, she and other researchers (eg. Davie, Butler, and Goldstein, 1972) have suggested that one or more of a series of other causative factors along with the fact of one parent family status, tend in many cases to produce maladaptive behaviours or adjustments. The argument, then, is that one parent family status presents a milieu in which deficiencies exist which imply a higher potential for problems (i.e. a "risk" situation). It follows logically that the operation of problem causing variables will more often result in manifestations of problems within the one parent family.

The phenomenon which we wish to study, (i.e. the effects of one parent family status upon childrens' social adjustment) is social as well as personal in nature.

Specifically, it can be stated that, as with most "social problems", the problem is that of identifying the relationship between the person, others, and society, and the effects upon the person, of the nature of the social interactions in which he is a participant. The problems which may be manifested can be classified within three categories - family problems (affecting the family as a whole), parental problems (affecting the parent primarily), and the children's problems - though it would be naive to attempt to completely separate these, or to deny their interdependence. As mentioned earlier, it may in fact be through an interplay of problems, or of potentially problematic situations, that the onset of the maladaptive behaviour which we seek to examine, might be manifested. This present study will attempt to examine the latter - problems which may be experienced by children within one parent families - through an evaluation of "social adjustment". Its purpose will be, to provide empirical evidence as to the actual cumulative effects of one parent family status upon the social adjustment of the child, and thereby to begin to build a foundation for appropriate social policies and programs.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

We have explored the background of the one parent family in general, and have identified the major characteristics and demographic factors. We now turn our attention to that body of research which concerns itself with children in one parent families.

Two major difficulties are immediately encountered in evaluating the research on children in one parent families. First, the sample composition varies tremendously in terms of size, selection criteria, age, and the manner in which family types are categorized. Second, there are great differences in the aspects of behaviour which each study investigates. These factors must be borne in mind when attempts are made to assess and generalize study results. Great care must be taken even in comparing one study to another.

Herzog and Sudia (1970) reviewed the findings of some 60 studies concerning the effects upon children of living in fatherless homes. They found that 24 studies supported the "classic" view that such homes exerted an

adverse influence, 16 were inconclusive, and 20 challenged this view. They point out emphatically that this simple count cannot be taken too seriously because the aspects investigated, the samples used, and the conclusions reached were so varied and fragmentary. They sum up by saying that:

If all confounding facts could be controlled, children in fatherless homes might be classified as somewhat worse off than children in two parent homes with regard to some, though not necessarily all, the variables investigated. (Herzog and Sudia, 1968:182)

As Herzog and Sudia point out, there is confusion in the literature. However, there are identifiable trends and linkages throughout. A number of recent studies have attempted to evaluate, in a comprehensive manner, the effects of one parent family status upon the adjustment of children. These studies have attempted to look at the child in the context of his entire significant social environment (i.e. family, school, peers etc.) and thereby to put together a composite picture of the child's adjustment.

In a recent, large scale longitudinal study in Britain, Ferri (1976) found that children of one parent families showed a poorer overall level of social adjustment than their peers from two parent families. She found significant positive correlations between one parent family

status and persistent enuresis, poor school achievement, low self-concept and poor social adjustment. She tempers her conclusions with the statement that the differences she found, though they were statistically significant, were not nearly as clear as expected in terms of magnitude. She observed a large number of one parent families in which the family life appeared relatively healthy, stable and productive and in which the children showed quite favorable adjustments.

Ferri suggests that the relative absence of extremely poor social adjustment in many cases is a good indication of the resiliency and potential for coping that exists in the family. The notion is extended that, when it must, the family may draw upon heretofore unrealized resources to enhance coping ability. Also, as Nye (1957) suggests, in many cases, the marital breakdown may accomplish the useful purpose of getting rid of a parent who was, in point of fact, "unwilling and unable" to parent effectively. Added to this, is the cessation of open conflict and a new freedom on the part of the remaining parent to improve role performance without being encumbered by a conflicting partner.

Ferri postulates that one parent family status alone may not produce highly significant effects upon

children. However, it presents a high risk situation in which other factors, operating with one parent family status, tend to produce deleterious effects. It may be a question, then, of increased risk rather than foregone conclusion.

A major study of social adjustment of children in Minnesota and Texas (Roff, Sells and Golden, 1972) reported a number of significant findings related to children in one parent families. This study found significant correlations between family status and 1) low peer group status, 2) poor school achievement, 3) low self-concept, 4) high tension level, and 5) low socioeconomic status. They concluded that adverse family factors are clearly linked to production of tensions that affect the entire range of the child's relationships and produce both an actual loss of peer status, and a subjective lowering of self-concept and level of social adjustment. They placed a great deal of stress upon the part played by the reactions of peers in determining the nature of effects.

Schlesinger (1974) observes that one parent family status tends to produce in children a feeling of being different (changes in self-feeling, sense of self) and of being left out of the mainstream (social isolation).

Children often fear this greatly to the point where they experience high anxiety levels and a tendency to withdraw (they are subjectively feeling the effects of labelling and actual qualitative changes in family life). He notes that in some cases children react to this by pressuring their parent to remarry (the situation is frightening and unpleasant for the child). In relation to the children's feelings of being different, Schlesinger points out that there is ample evidence that both peers and teachers reinforce such feelings with actual changes in their behaviour toward the child (actual labelling and changes in societal reaction). Whether such changes in behaviour toward the child are intentional or subconscious, they do tend to exert quite a punishing effect upon the child.

The research findings mentioned above represent attempts to look at the overall picture. They clearly suggest that one parent family status causes changes in the child's life situation which exert a definite effect upon his social adjustment. Most of the other research done on children in one parent families, as will be seen in the following sections, has been considerably narrower in scope, focusing on more specific fragments of the child's functioning in several general areas. However,

some clear trends do emerge.

Personal and Intersocial Functioning:

A fair amount of research has concentrated upon aspects of personal and intersocial functioning. A 1955 study of four year old children, found no significant differences between children from one and two parent families in the incidence of behavioural disturbances such as night terrors, nail-biting, thumb-sucking or eating difficulties, though it was found that children from one parent families showed a significantly higher incidence of enuresis (Rowntree, 1955). Similar findings regarding the incidence of behavioural disturbances were reported by McCord, McCord and Thurber (1962).

A later study, comparing children from broken and intact homes on scales measuring self-concept, attitude to family, and peer relationships, reported only very minimal differences between the groups (Thomes, 1968). Using a matched child guidance clinic sample, Russell (1957) found significant group differences between children from one and two parent families only on measures of lying and stealing. A 1953 study found some social psychological differences between groups of children from broken and unbroken homes; however, several of

these differences favored the children from broken homes (Landis, 1953). Further data which questioned the assumption that children of divorced parents necessarily suffer poorer adjustment was reported by Goode (1956). In a comprehensive study comparing children from broken homes with children from unbroken, but unhappy homes and unbroken, happy homes in terms of social adjustment, Nye (1957) found that those from broken homes appeared to be better off than those from unhappy unbroken homes in most important respects, though they were clearly not as well adjusted as the children in the control group from "normal" (i.e. happy, unbroken) families. Several other studies (Rutter, 1966; West, 1969; McCord, McCord and Thurber, 1962) appear to support these findings. In a study comparing children from broken and reconstituted families, Burchinal (1964) found nonsignificant differences on most measures of adjustment.

On the other hand, in a study of seven year old illegitimate children, results showed that these children manifested a significantly higher incidence of maladjustment than did similar children from intact homes (Crellin, Pringle and West, 1971). A study of adolescents in widowed homes reported that such children perceived less recognition and affection from adults, and

appeared to seek more attention from the opposite sex (Bartlett and Horrocks, 1958). Studying a small sample of pre-school children, Koch (1961) found that those from divorced homes showed a significantly higher anxiety level.

A large number of researchers have found a consistently high correlation between one parent family status and the sustained incidence of enuresis (eg. Douglas, 1970; Ferri and Robinson, 1976; Rowntree, 1955). Douglas makes the inference that the presence of enuresis, long regarded as a manifestation of prolonged stress, may indicate the presence of a higher general stress level in children of one parent families. This inference has received fairly wide acceptance in the literature.

School Adjustment and Achievement

Virtually every study of any size upon children in one parent families has paid attention to some aspects of the child's school adjustment and achievement.

In the field of academic attainment and progress, Edwards and Thompson (1971) found that, when social class differences were accounted for, children from one parent families showed no significant differences in intelligence from other children as measured by a picture intelli-

igence test. A study of Swedish first-graders, found no correlation between family status and reading ability (Malmquist, 1958).

However, a 1966 study in Britain (Pringle, Butler and Davie, 1966) found fewer good readers and more poor readers among seven-year olds from one parent families. Similarly, a 1971 study found that illegitimate children did less well on reading and arithmetic (Crellin et al., 1971).

There is some empirical evidence which suggests that children in fatherless families have lower I.Q.s, are slower in school and drop out earlier than do children in general (Kreisberg, 1967). Deutch and Brown (1964) showed that fatherless children scored significantly lower on an intelligence test. It was shown by Wallenstein (1937) that widows' children had lower I.Q.s and were slower in school.

A study by Ferri (1976), showed that children in one parent families exhibited a poorer general adjustment to school, and showed significantly lower levels of skill in both reading and arithmetic. Also, as suggested by previous researchers (eg. Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968; Pidgeon, 1970) Ferri points out the importance of teacher's expectations as a factor in childrens' attain-

ment. She suggests that knowledge on the teachers' part, of "anomalous family circumstances" may well have the effect of reducing teachers' expectations concerning the children from such milieux. These expectations may then themselves serve as a major handicapping factor in the development of already disadvantaged children. Most researchers point out that the academic differences found tend to be small and so, as Wallenstein puts it: "broken and normal home children cannot be looked upon as necessarily two distinctly different groups in school". (Wallenstein, 1937:2). However, there does appear to be a significant body of evidence to support the theory that one parent family status exerts a negative effect upon school adjustment and achievement.

Sex Differences

Many writers suggest that loss of one or another parent may produce different effects on boys and girls. A large number of studies which have focused on boys in father-absent homes (Wallenstein, 1937; Dager, 1964; Nash, 1965; Barclay and Cusamano, 1967; Biller, 1968, 1969) support the proposition that boys will be more seriously affected, than will girls, by father-absence.

Several other writers (Burton and Whiting, 1965;

Lynn, 1966; Lynn and Sawrey, 1969) have produced evidence that boys from father-absent homes differ particularly in terms of certain sex-role aspects of behaviour. Lynn has developed a theoretical formulation to explain the manner in which such differences may be caused:

It is postulated that the initial parental identification of both male and female infants is with the mother. Boys, but not girls, must therefore shift from this initial mother identification and establish masculine role identification..... (in the absence of) male models, a somewhat stereotyped and conventional masculine role is nonetheless spelled out for the boy by his mother, and women teachers in the absence of his father and other male models. (Lynn, 1966:466)

Lynn states further that such a "stereotyped" role may tend to be weak and ineffective. Lynn (1966) also notes a tendency toward over-protectiveness, especially on the part of female sole parents. Since most (over 80 percent) of sole parents are female, these findings would seem to be particularly pertinent in terms of childrens' social adjustment. However, as Herzog and Sudia (1968) point out, the validity of the criteria used in these studies, and their comparability, are sometimes questionable. They suggest that the overall findings on this aspect are inconclusive.

Much of the research shows that, overall, the role of mother may be more crucial to the child than that of father. In fact, some research shows that while many children of father-absent families make quite a good

adjustment, the effects of mother-absence are much more far-reaching (Ferri, 1976:149). This reflects the widely accepted notion of the importance of mother as nurturer. However, as Ferri points out, a significant body of more recent research indicates that the role of father may be just as crucial, though perhaps in more subtle ways. It is certainly the case that families with a male sole parent tend not to suffer nearly as much material deprivation as those headed by female sole parents (Canadian Council on Social Development, 1971). The importance of father is more difficult to study since male-headed one parent families are relatively scarce. However, it would appear to be well worth the effort to investigate this question.

The Importance of "Reason for One Parent Family Status"

With respect to "reason for one parent family status" as a determinant of the overall effect of such status upon the child, the findings clearly suggest that while widows' children tended in many respects to show almost as good a level of social adjustment as children of two parent families, the children of divorced and separated parents showed consistently poorer social adjustment. In fact, it would appear logical to assume that if death

occurs on a random basis within the population -- an obviously safe assumption -- then the families of widows can be assumed to be identical initially, in all relevant aspects, to the families of dual parents. Like the "deserving poor" of Elizabethan times, they also enjoy the utmost in sympathy and support from society. It is clear, therefore, that for a variety of reasons, families of widows may experience the set of problem-causing factors in the one parent family milieu on a much narrower scale than other one parent families, and they may "start out better".

As several writers point out (Hansen and Hill, 1964; Herzog and Sudia, 1968) the degree of social disapproval is also clearly a very important determinant of such effects. Meanwhile, as shown by Morrisson (1974), parents who divorce manifest a higher incidence of personal adjustment problems. The suggestion is made that though this may very well be a cause of poor child adjustment, it may be equally likely that it is merely another symptom of an underlying family pathology, which in fact may also have caused the child's social adjustment problems. If this is the case, the problems may have developed over a long period of time, and may have been well entrenched before the creation of the one parent family.

Their manifestation within the one parent family may in fact be due to a reaction to new crises created by the "weakened" family unit, or to increased scrutiny and expectation of problems.

Conclusions

One of the most significant findings to come out of the research on children in one parent families is the relative mildness of the observed differences between children of one parent families, and children of "normal" two parent families in many of the studies. Ferri (1976) attributes this not to a lack of differences but to a previous tendency to make the unwarranted assumption that great differences do exist. In actuality, when one puts aside the common over-generalizations and stereotypes, the hard data, though it reflects clear differences, shows that these differences may be only fractions of those which were assumed to exist. Another interesting fact is that, in general, the more recent writers have been reporting larger differences between one and two parent families. This is attributed to the widely held feeling that the one parent family is becoming a more serious problem. Some of the literature (for example from Canada -- Menzies, 1971; Guyatt, 1971; Canadian Council

on Social Development, 1976; National Council of Welfare, 1976) seems to support this notion. However, it is difficult to determine whether the observed change is due to increased severity, or to increased scrutiny and insight as to the breadth of the problem. The latter appears more likely.

To sum up, though the literature is somewhat inconclusive, it does suggest clearly that one parent family status tends to bring about changes affecting the family and the child. There are actual and perceived changes in the family's situation; there are changes in actual and perceived societal reaction and in the way in which the child perceives himself and his situation. These changes appear to affect social adjustment in a generally negative manner.

Whatever the real severity of the effects of one parent family status upon the children, the important fact remains that broad assumptions are still widely held to the effect that one parent families are bad for children. Societal reaction, both in terms of attitudes and programs, is shaped on the basis of such assumptions. Therefore, there is a need to test these assumptions in terms of their current relevance. For our purposes, there is a great need to determine whether, and to what extent,

the findings concerning the effects of one parent family status upon children are generalizable to the Newfoundland population. This is especially true in the light of the scarcity of Canadian research, and the total lack of Newfoundland research up to this date on the topic.

Chapter 3

Theoretical Rationale

This study will establish a theoretical model for explaining the manner in which family status exerts an effect upon the social adjustment of children, utilizing a number of the central concepts of Symbolic Interactionist theory. Particular emphasis will be given to the question of how the child's social adjustment is affected by changes in his definitions of the situation in terms of his interaction with those around him as a result of the subjective and objective effects of his one parent family status.

The social self consists of three vital elements: the imagination of our appearance to others; the imagination of others' judgement of that appearance; and some sort of self-feeling about that (Cooley, 1902:151-3).

Thomas used the term "situation" to describe the totality of the objective atmosphere (including the prevalent set of values, attitudes, etc.) in which social interaction takes place. For every such situation, the child must define the situation to himself (i.e. he must

make a "definition of the situation"). The behaviour of significant others serves partially to validate or refute definitions of the situation and thus cause either their acceptance or re-definition. These definitions of the situation form the essential mediational, judgemental process through which the child adjusts to the situation, as he interprets it, and thus determine the decisions he makes as to what behaviour to exhibit (Thomas and Thomas, 1928:572). In Thomas's view:

The fundamental significance of definitions of the situation is clear: all self-determined acts are preceeded by and dependent upon them, and a whole life policy and the personality of the individual himself issue from them. (Thomas, 1927:13)

The definition of the situation, then is vital.

It comprises the subjective self (what Cooley refers to as the essential "self-feeling" about what one perceives about how others view him and his situation) which determines both self-concept and behaviour. Consequently, the collectivity of the child's definitions of all his significant situations and his self-feeling about this, determines his adjustment to his place in the societal context (i.e. his social adjustment).

As a result of his definitions of the situation, the child groups his symbolic environment into categories such that classes of objects and situations are classified

on the basis of their social meaning, and the behaviour which they call for. A very important kind of category is that which is called position. Positions are socially recognized categories of actors (eg. father, sergeant, divorcee, delinquent). Their special significance is that they serve as cues for future behaviour of persons so categorized and they organize behaviour toward these persons (i.e. we come to expect certain behaviours from people, and we behave toward them on the basis of these expectations). The child also perceives himself in a certain "position" and thus organizes his own behaviour accordingly.

The child's "self", and indeed his total perceptual field, is derived from societal interaction. We must keep in mind here that, in the case of children, the "others" with whom the person interacts would include parents and family members among the most important.

In his dependent state, the child will be affected in different ways depending upon the nature of the parent-child interaction, the effects of family status upon the parent, the way the parent reacts to family status, and the way in which the parent mediates and translates societal reaction to the child. These factors will play an important role in determining the overall impact of

family status upon the child. However, given this screening effect, the rule still applies -- that changes in societal interaction ultimately result in changes in the child's perception of himself and his adjustment to his total situation.

Applying the above concepts to the child of the one parent family, this view sees the fact of one parent family status as producing changes in the actual life situation of the child, and changes in his actual and perceived societal interaction such that his definitions of the situation will change. Differential societal interaction includes: 1) the assignment of the child by significant others into a different "position" with 2) a new set of expectations. The "others" in this case are significant individual others and significant groups of others such as parents, family, peers, relatives, school-mates and teachers.

In the broad sense, the society as a whole exerts influence as a "generalized other". The child, through role-taking in the on-going process of obtaining feedback in the formation of self, perceives the alterations in expectations and positional assignment on the part of others. This in turn causes him to alter his definitions of the situation (i.e. his perception of his position and

of the role expectations placed upon him). In turn, there are changes in behaviour in accordance with the new perceived positions (some of which may be negativist -- role fulfilling in nature). The assumption here is that, in this case, since one parent family status is a socially deviant state which carries with it certain social penalties in the form of "stigmatization", the nature of the actual and perceived changes in societal reaction may be such that the whole re-defining process is often necessarily one of lowering of position (status loss), through societal proscription (Becker, 1963). These changes, and their negative connotations, of which the child will be aware, will affect his "self-feeling", as Cooley termed it (1928:151). As a result, his overall social adjustment will be affected in a negative manner.

Statement of Proposition

To sum up, the effects of one parent family status are widespread and are experienced over the entire duration in time of the one parent family. There are periods of particular crises, just as there are instances of successful accomodation. However, all other things being equal, one parent family status denotes a change in situation which results in differential interaction between

the child and significant others in his social environment. These changes result in the child's making new definitions of his situation which imply a re-defining of his view of himself. Since one parent family status is a socially deviant state, the overall changes that occur tend to be penalizing in nature. This implies that the end result will likely be that the child's overall level of social adjustment will be adversely affected by living in a one parent family. Therefore, the specific proposition which this present study will investigate is as follows:

One parent family status will exert a negative effect upon the social adjustment of children living in such families.

This general proposition will be operationally defined and subsequently measured in terms of a number of hypotheses which embody components of the construct of "social adjustment". We will define social adjustment within the framework of Symbolic Interactionism. Social adjustment is a theoretical term which is variously used to denote some or all of a whole range of components of interpersonal functioning. As such, the term itself has little empirical meaning, or potential predictability, unless defined in an operational manner. By necessity, any such definition must, of course, be somewhat arbitrary.

Our stated theoretical view of the problem sees the person always in the context of social interaction. The level of adjustment is derived from the nature of the interaction which takes place between the person and significant others, the definitions of the situation which are a result of this interaction, and from the "self-feeling" which is derived from these definitions of the situation. These factors govern the nature of the person's current behaviour and functioning, and the future development of the self. It will be at this level that we will operationally define social adjustment. Specifically, social adjustment is seen as an aggregate of observable components of the person's functioning including indications of his own feelings toward himself. It must be noted that though there is considerable overlap, the term social adjustment is distinct from the term "self-concept". Whereas the former incorporates both subjective and objective components, the latter is essentially a product of subjective (within the self) components.

A major portion of the research upon children in one parent families has concerned itself with measuring social adjustment. As noted by Herzog and Sudia (1968) there have been some fairly wide variations in the components included in these measures. However, common to

all of them is the concentration mainly upon the readily observable. This present study will incorporate in its measure of social adjustment those components which have been most frequently used in previous studies and which have demonstrated reliability and inter-relatedness. Each such component is embodied in one of the following eight hypotheses.

Contact With Helping Professionals

One obvious component of the social adjustment of the child would seem to be the incidence of a recognition, either voluntary or imposed, of the need for professional counselling of some sort, and evidence that this recognition was translated into actual contact with appropriate agencies or professionals. This aspect was included in studies of social adjustment by Koch (1961); Russell (1957); Nye (1957); Roff et al. (1972); Rutter (1966); Wallenstein (1937); Ferri (1976); Morrisson (1974) and in the Bristol Social Adjustment Guide ("BSAG", 1974). It should be noted that we are concerned with showing the incidence of contact, more than with showing evidence of the utilization of services on a sustained basis. Though it would be an interesting study in itself to investigate treatment success in these cases, our concern is with agency contact as an indicator of the perception of an adjustment problem in the person. Our hypothesis

then is that:

Children of one parent families will be more likely to have had contact with child guidance agencies, counsellors and psychiatrists than will children of two parent families.

School Achievement

For the child, school forms one of the greatest parts of his real life situation. Much of his socialization is accomplished there, and a great deal of his interaction with significant others takes place in the school setting itself and in related activities. Decades of educational research have established beyond doubt the way in which factors relevant in the child's life are reflected in the school setting. Also, it has been amply demonstrated that such factors play a large part in determining the way in which he is perceived and treated by peers and teachers. School adjustment and achievement are thus important indicators of the child's social adjustment. Almost without fail, the research on children in one parent families has included measures of school achievement. Studies that have been specifically concerned with this factor include Edwards and Thompson (1971); Malmquist (1958); Kreisberg (1967); and Deutsch and Brown (1964). In many cases, strong correlations have been identified between poor school achievement and social

adjustment. Thus our second hypothesis states:

The children of one parent families will likely exhibit a lower level of school achievement than will children of two parent families, as measured by class group placement.

Relationships With Peers

The nature of the child's relationship to his peers is a vital component of his life situation. They are the group of significant others who possess the most power to determine his actual and perceived status. Within the peer group system there are tremendously complex "rating criteria" which are applied to each child by his peers. The criteria used in determining the child's position vis-a-vis his peers, draw upon evaluations of his entire situation, including his family situation. Value judgements are made and here, perhaps more than anywhere else, the child can be subjected to the penalties of a socially deviant family status. He will form a perception of how others feel about him, and this will determine his concept of where he stands in relation to his peers. Other factors will mediate the process. For example, there may be factors such as frequent change of address, socio-economic conditions, shyness, fear of risk-taking, etc. which exert considerable influence over the child's peer relationships. These factors then,

would affect the number of friendship relationships the child has, and his own perceived popularity among his peers. These aspects have been explored by many researchers such as Roff, Sells and Golden (1972); Rosenberg (1965); Thomes (1968); Ferri (1976) and in the Bristol Social Adjustment Guide (1974). It is possible to conclude from the research evidence that one parent family status tends to affect friendships and perceived popularity in a negative manner. Our hypotheses then, would predict:

Children of one parent families will be likely to have fewer friends than will children of two parent families.

Children of one parent families will be likely to perceive themselves as being less popular than will children from two parent families.

Club Membership

A good measure of the way in which a person sees himself in relation to the larger society is the degree to which he chooses to take part in activities of a voluntary nature. For example, does the child participate only minimally in school, and peer-related functions, or does he choose to become involved in non-mandatory participatory activities? Is his concept of his own position such that he can derive fulfillment rather than anxiety

from such participation? This question is obviously an important one in assessing the child's adjustment. Aspects of this question have been investigated by Nye (1957); Ferri (1976); Burchinal (1964); Roff et al. (1972) and significant correlations have been established. It is difficult to establish clear causal connections here because the effects can be mediated by self-concept, isolation, mobility and socio-economic factors. However, it still has considerable importance as a measure of social integration. Our hypothesis states that:

The children of one parent families will be likely to belong to fewer organized clubs and activities than will children of two parent families.

Incidence of Enuresis

The presence of stress, especially stress that lasts for long periods of time, implies some far-reaching effects upon the person. The sustained incidence of enuresis has been widely used in measures of emotional disturbance. It has been found consistently^f that enuresis is a fairly reliable indicator of the presence of sustained stress in children. A large number of studies have looked at the incidence of enuresis among children of one parent families and there has been a consistent finding that the incidence of enuresis among such children is significantly higher than the norm. (Rowntree (1955);

Douglas (1970); Ferri and Robinson (1976); Koch (1961); Morrisson (1974); and Nye (1957). This suggests that children in one parent families may be experiencing high levels of stress. We would hypothesize that this is likely to be the case in our study population and that it is an indicator of poor social adjustment:

Children of one parent families will be likely to exhibit a higher incidence of enuresis than will children of two parent families.

Discipline Problems

The child's reaction to and ability to accept authority reflect a whole range of facets of his underlying feelings. Resistance to the rules and regulations that are imposed upon him can indicate anything from an inability to cope with the pressure of conforming, to a manifestation of underlying conflicts and hostilities. All other things being equal, if a child displays more resistance to the discipline of parents and teachers than can logically be expected, one may deduce that the child may be experiencing certain internal conflicts which are distressing to him. A number of studies -Rosenberg (1965); Nye (1957); West (1969); Goode (1964); Ferri (1976) and Morrisson (1974) - have attempted to link the incidence of discipline problems, at home and at school, to the question of the social adjustment of children of

one parent families. Some positive correlations have been found and this factor obviously is an important part of the child's adjustment. Our hypothesis would predict that:

Children of one parent families will be likely to present more discipline problems than will children of two parent families.

Delinquent Behaviour

Delinquent behaviour represents the contravention of some fairly basic rules of behaviour. Its occurrence is a concrete indicator of a slip in the socialization process. For whatever reasons, the child has chosen to obtain gratification of one kind or another by using socially unacceptable means. It may indicate a reaction to material deprivation, a lack of parental control, a cry for help. It may indicate that the child has failed to find acceptance within the "normal" peer group and so has allowed himself to drift into a deviant group which is composed mostly of "outcasts". Indeed, delinquent behaviour may also be a further manifestation of unresolved conflicts which were first manifested as behaviour problems. Clearly, delinquent behaviour has a big impact upon the child, and affects his view of himself. Several investigators (Russell, 1957; Douglas, 1970; Thomes, 1968; Goode, 1964; Roff et al., 1972; Nye, 1957; West, 1969)

have directed some attention to the incidence of delinquent behaviour in relation to children in one parent families. This study would hypothesize to the effect that there is likely to be a positive correlation between delinquency and one parent family status, using police contact as a measure of active and suspected acts of delinquency. Our hypothesis then, is that:

Children in one parent families will likely be questioned by the police more often than will children of two parent families.

The preceeding set of hypotheses define and measure social adjustment in terms of eight components: social agency contact, friendships, perceived popularity, enuresis, school achievement, discipline problems, club membership, and delinquency. As such, the construct of social adjustment is defined operationally in terms which, taken together, encompass a whole spectrum of personal functioning, and the various roles which the child has to play. By using comparisons between groups, divided on the basis of family type, it will be possible to get a clear measure of the comparative effects of one parent family status upon the social adjustment of the child.

Finally, two other general hypotheses would seem to be useful to investigate, in the light of the concentration upon them in the literature -- the sex of the child,

and the reason for one parent family status -- as determinants of the overall effects of one parent family status upon children.

Sex of Child

There is great debate, and relatively little consensus, on the question of which parent - mother or father- is the most vital to the child. Obviously, both play an extremely important role. However, there has been a fair amount of work done on boys in fatherless families (Lynn, 1966; Lynn and Sawrey, 1969; Wallenstein, 1937; Nash, 1965; Burton and Whiting, 1965; Dager, 1964; Biller, 1968,1969) which appears to suggest that boys will be more seriously affected than girls by father absence. Since over 80 percent of one parent families are fatherless, this would seem to be an important aspect. Relative to this, we would hypothesize as follows:

Boys in one parent families will likely manifest poorer social adjustment than will girls in one parent families.

Reason for One Parent Family Status

The question of the route by which a family reaches one parent family status -- i.e., whether it was by death of the spouse, or by one of the various types of marital breakdown -- has been given a good deal of attention in the research. The results indicate fairly consistently

that widowed families manifest fewer problems than either divorced, deserted, separated or unmarried parent families. Of course, it is frequently impossible to determine the extent to which these differences are attributable to one parent family status alone. There are clear indications that other kinds of family pathology, along with differential societal reaction, may account for much of the observed difference . However, even though it will be impossible to distinguish causation from symptomatology, it would appear useful to compare groups and thus draw some conclusions as to the degree of differences manifested. We would hypothesize on the basis of previous findings as follows:

Children in widowed one parent families will likely manifest a higher level of social adjustment than will children in all other one parent families.

The analysis of these final two hypotheses will form part of the general analysis of data.

Chapter 4

Methodology

The Sample:

The target population chosen for this study was the St. John's Metropolitan Area. This area consists of the city of St. John's and several smaller satellite communities within an approximate 10 mile radius which make up the urban region, with a population of approximately 140,000. Based on previous research in other Canadian urban regions, it was estimated that anywhere from 10 to 14 percent of all families in this area would likely be one parent families. This would represent a total population of from 1400 to 1700 one parent families (estimates based on 1971 Census data which reported 7400 one parent families in all of Newfoundland). This population would be comprised of all types of one parent families including those of widowed, divorced, separated, deserted and unmarried sole parents. The instrument was to be administered to a random sample of at least 100 families chosen from among this population, and to a similar random sample of two parent families, as the comparison group.

From the outset, it was apparent that no comprehen-

give enumeration of families existed -- either of one parent or two parent families. Because of their relative plenitude, it was not expected to be difficult to find an adequate comparison sample of two parent families. However, after exploring various possible sample sources of one parent families (eg. Social Services Department, Hospitals, Family Counselling Centre, Big Brothers, Parents Without Partners, Children's Hospital) it was clear that most readily available sources would yield only badly skewed partial samples, most of them tending toward the segment of the population which had shown above average manifestations of the phenomena we wished to measure. Thus it was necessary to choose a sample source which held an equal chance for all the population to be represented. Sampling through the local school population was one obvious choice which would yield a more representative sample. However, even this would have entailed considerable non-randomness through the exclusion of a number of groups (eg. all pre-schoolers, all drop-outs, and residents of special schools). Also, it would have entailed enlisting the support and co-operation of the local school boards -- not always an easy task. Therefore it was decided to draw a completely random sample, both of one parent and two parent families,

from among the general population.

The first step in the sampling procedure began with the obtaining of an enumeration of the entire population. There were several possible sources including census data, the city tax rolls, and the telephone book. However, these all posed problems. The available census data was six years old, the city tax rolls excluded all non-property owners, and, of course, the phone book excluded non-subscribers and all unpublished listings. Therefore, it was decided to use the current edition of Polk's City Directory for St. John's, which contained an up-to-date listing of all residents, by street, and included all those who were renting accommodations along with all resident property-owners. It also listed people regardless of whether or not they had telephones.

The sampling began with the electronic generation of a random number (which happened to be the digit six). Beginning with the sixth listing in the City Directory, every sixtieth listing thereafter was taken. The entire directory was thus sampled and 750 listings were thus included in our initial sample, approximately 98 percent of whom had telephones.

Next, each listing in the sample was contacted by telephone and the mother of the household was interviewed.

The nature and purpose of the research (see Appendix "B") was explained to them very briefly. They were then asked whether they had at least one child at home under the age of 18, who had not yet left school. If they answered in the affirmative to this question, they were asked to participate in the study by completing the questionnaire. The questionnaire and the mailing procedures were briefly explained to them, and an assurance of anonymity was given. If respondents then agreed to participate, they were told that they would receive the questionnaire package in the mail within two or three days. Finally, all potential respondents were asked to name two families whom they knew of who met our criteria. One of the families so named was to be a two parent family, and one was to be a one parent family. Additional referrals were also obtained through a slip, attached to the questionnaire when it was mailed out, which asked respondents to write in the names of two families who met our criteria. All of the families so named through this referral system were then added to our sample, contacted in the manner described above, and asked to participate in the study. Those few families in our sample who did not have telephones were contacted in person or by letter.

This sampling procedure extended over a period of

nine weeks from March 17, 1978 to May 20, 1978, until finally the desired number of respondents was obtained. A total of 1147 persons in all were contacted, necessitating well over 1500 telephone calls. Of those contacted, 656 did not qualify to answer the questionnaire -- in most cases because they did not have any children, or because their children were grown up. Of the remaining 491 who qualified, and who agreed to participate, 314 were two parent families, and 177 were one parent families.

The time-span and the amount of work involved in this sampling procedure posed somewhat of a problem, but the results obtained were satisfactory. An examination of the samples obtained revealed that the two groups which it yielded were equivalent. Table 3 which follows, compares the two groups on demographic characteristics. The use of the chi-square test revealed that the two groups did not differ significantly on any of the several dimensions examined.

Table 3: Comparison of Demographic Characteristics of the One Parent and Two Parent Sample Groups.

AGE	PERCENTAGE		RELIGION	PERCENTAGE		EDUCATION	PERCENTAGE		SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS	PERCENTAGE	
	SINGLE	DUAL		SINGLE	DUAL		SINGLE	DUAL		SINGLE	DUAL
20 and under	1.0	0.0	Roman Catholic	46.9	40.1	Grade 8 or less	15.3	9.0	0-9	9.3	13.5
21 to 25	8.2	3.3	Anglican	24.5	25.9	Some High School	27.6	26.5	10-19	11.6	10.3
26 to 30	12.7	13.2	United Church	16.3	22.2	High School Graduate	14.3	15.6	20-29	1.2	2.7
31 to 35	25.5	26.9	Salvation Army	4.1	1.4	Trades Training	14.3	9.1	30-39	3.5	3.2
36 to 40	16.3	23.6	Other	5.1	9.4	Some University	9.2	8.5	40-49	31.4	27.6
41 to 50	20.6	25.5	Bone	3.1	0.9	University Graduate	7.1	6.2	50-59	5.3	3.2
50 and over	8.2	7.5		100	100	Other	12.2	26.1	60-69	26.7	23.9
	100	100					100	100	70-79	8.1	14.1
									80-89	2.3	1.1
									90-99	100	100
									$\chi^2=5.30$ $d.f.=3$ $P<.72$		

The Research Instrument

As with the obtaining of the research sample, the design of an appropriate research instrument entailed the "breaking of new ground", as it were. Given the subject matter of the study, and various practical considerations, no appropriate standard instrument existed for the collection of the required data. It was therefore necessary to design such an instrument. In this process, there were a number of guiding principles which were followed.

First, since the questionnaire would simultaneously collect information for three studies, along with a set of demographic questions, it would tend to be fairly lengthy. Therefore a good deal of attention was given to streamlining it as much as possible. No narrative responses were requested, and the questions were kept very brief. A second vital consideration was the standard of literacy of the respondents. It was known that this would vary greatly, hence the questionnaire was worded in a concise manner, utilizing the simplest possible vocabulary. In fact, according to pre-testing, the required reading ability level was at approximately the upper elementary level.

Third, given the fact that response to the instrument

was completely voluntary, with no face-to-face contact between researchers and respondents, a great deal of attention had to be paid to enhancing the respondents' attitudes toward both the research and the researcher in order to maximize the chances of response. Factors such as the preservation of the privacy and dignity of individuals were given top priority in the design and administration of the instrument. The tone of questions was always as positive as possible. As well, the social utility of the research, and anonymity of respondents was stressed. To avoid any stigmatization, for the one parent family group, the instrument was designed so as to be identical for both one and two parent families.

A final basic consideration was to scale the instrument in such a manner that comprehension and response would be maximized, while data analysis would be facilitated. A Likert-type scaling system was used. This consisted of five to seven response choices for each question, arranged, wherever appropriate, on a continuum from high positive, through the mid-range, to high negative. Single-word responses were used wherever possible. The positive response choices were placed first in order to tone down possible stress associated with negative choices.

The instrument which evolved (see Appendix "A") consisted of 75 questions arranged in four discrete

subject areas, with the demographic section being the last of these. This format is modelled upon one used by Nye (1976).

Each of the operational hypotheses was translated into measurable form by using one to three questions, some of which were interconnected. The section concerning social adjustment of children was the third section of the questionnaire. Mothers responded to these questions, each of which measured observable factual information concerning their oldest child who was still in school (eg. incidence of enuresis, frequency of discipline problems). Questions covered the range of the child's functioning in all relevant spheres of his life. This procedure was similar to that utilized by Ferri (1976), and has demonstrated reliability for the sort of data being collected.

The instrument was pre-tested on a sample of 30 respondents. Evaluation of the results showed it to be highly effective, easily understood, and of manageable length (it required approximately 20 minutes to complete). Some minor style changes were made prior to final printing.

In the data collection phase, the administration of the instrument was fashioned, with slight modifications, after the process described by Dillman (1972) for maximizing responses to mail questionnaires. This process

combines a number of administration techniques into an integrated approach to maximize response.

First, the questionnaires were photographically reduced from standard 8 1/2 " x 11 ", down to 6 1/4 " x 8 1/2" page size. They were printed on both sides of the paper, folded and placed in booklet form, such that they consisted of only eight double pages. A "neutral", interest-getting title ("A Study of Families") was placed on the cover, along with an outline map of the province, thus presenting a small and attractive format. A serial number was placed clearly on each questionnaire.

To accompany the questionnaire, a one page letter (see Appendix "B") was printed, on the University letter-head. This letter briefly described the purpose of the research, and stressed its social utility. It gave the assurance of anonymity and explained the purpose of the serial number (i.e. to remove respondents' names from the subsequent mailing lists). The letter mentioned the importance of everyone's responding, if the sample was to be representative. Finally, it listed both daytime and nighttime telephone numbers for the researchers, and invited people to call if they wished any further information. The letter bore the names and signatures of the researchers.

The questionnaire package consisted of the questionnaire itself, the accompanying letter, and an addressed, stamped, return envelope. The respondents' name and address were individually entered with identical type on both the letter and the initial mailing envelope. This gave an impression of personalization, while controlling costs. For the same reasons, the envelopes bore postage stamps rather than postage meter marks.

This package was sent to respondents by first class mail. It was followed, a week to 10 days later, by a follow-up post-card designed as both a reminder, and a thank-you. This card (see Appendix "C") spoke again of the social utility of the research, and of the importance of each respondent. It expressed appreciation and again encouraged respondents to call the numbers listed, if they wished further information, while urging respondents to return their completed questionnaire as soon as possible.

After about one month, the remaining non-respondents were again contacted by telephone and asked to return their questionnaires. If they claimed to have lost, or never to have received the questionnaire, a second questionnaire package was mailed to them. This last stage differed somewhat from Dillman's method of administration, which included a three- week reminder letter to non-

respondents, and finally, a seven-week registered letter along with a replacement questionnaire. These latter steps by Dillman were not adopted because of time considerations, and because their usefulness in affecting higher response rates in Dillman's research had not been significant.

The combined effects of the use of the above-noted methods of administration produced an overall response rate which was excellent. Of the 177 one parent families, and the 314 two parent families who were sent questionnaires, 98 of the one parent families, and 231 of the two parent families returned them. This represents a response rate of 64 percent for one parent families and 69 percent for two parent families and an overall return rate of 67 percent. This is well above the average response rate for mail questionnaires -- especially for lengthy, voluntary ones such as this. The fact that 162 of those who agreed to respond, did not do so points out the tenuousness of commitment in some cases. However, the results were highly satisfactory.

Measurement of Variables

As expected, the sample procedure yielded a higher number of two parent families than of one parent families. The final cut-off date for data collection was made when

one parent family returns neared the desired number. At that point, two parent family returns stood at 231, a little over twice the number of one parent families. All of the returned questionnaires had been coded as they came in. They were subsequently key-punched, so that when the cut-off date was reached, the data was ready to be analyzed. Data analysis was done using the facilities of Memorial University Computer Services, and Newfoundland and Labrador Computer Services. The hardware used was an I.B.M. 370 computer.

Each of the eight hypotheses were operationally measured in terms of one or more variables. Wherever possible, one question was used to gather the data necessary to test a hypothesis. Six of the hypotheses were thus measured through the use of a single question. These were agency contact, popularity, peer relationships, club membership, enuresis and delinquency. However, the remaining two hypotheses, those concerning school adjustment and discipline problems, necessitated the measurement of more than one component. Each such component was a separate facet of the concept, and so each could be measured by one single question. Specifically, "school adjustment" was measured in terms of school achievement (class group level); frequency of academic problems; and the incidence

of attendance problems. "Discipline problems" were measured in terms of the incidence of discipline problems at home; and the incidence of discipline problems at school. Cross-tabulations were done by computer to test for dependency among the components of these measurements of school adjustment and discipline problems. These tests revealed that all of the tested components appeared to be significantly independent of each other ($p < .05$ in all cases).

All of the data was divided on the basis of one parent versus two parent family status and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, et al., 1975) was used for analysis. The Student's t-test was used as the primary test for significance of differences for all but a few categorical questions (for which the chi-square was used). The nature of the research hypotheses, which predicted directions of the data, made it appropriate to use one-tailed t-tests.

Chapter 5

Findings

This section will present and examine the research findings concerning the social adjustment of children. These findings are graphically presented in a series of histograms, which provide a simple comparison of the percentages of one and two parent families who selected any particular response choice. A statistical table accompanies each histogram and provides the results of data analysis in terms of the significance, and direction of the observed intergroup differences.

The manner in which the construct of social adjustment was measured in this study entailed the use of eight discrete components, each of which presented an integral concept, which was of interest in and of itself. In order to obtain an accurate picture of social adjustment however, it is necessary to look at all of these several criteria separately when interpreting results, and then to attempt to tie the findings together to form a "composite picture", as it were, of the social adjustment of the children studied.

The particular children concerning whom responses were made for each of the sample groups, were found to be

equivalent in terms of demographic characteristics. The mean age of the children from the one parent family group was 11.58 years old, while the mean age for those of the two parent family group was 11.67 years old. Girls made up 57 percent of the one parent family children, and 58 percent of the two parent family children. None of these differences reached significance. It is possible to conclude therefore, that the between-group differences which were found were not due to demographic factors such as age or sex differences between the sample groups.

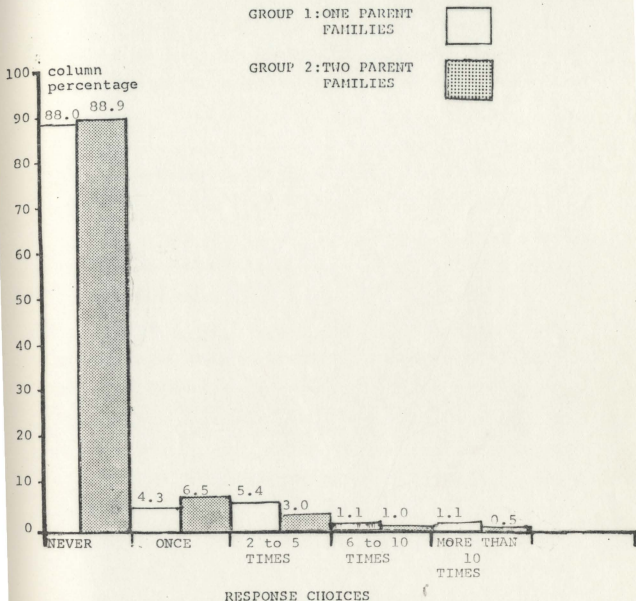
The overall research findings comparing children in one parent families to children in two parent families did not support the proposition that children in one parent families would exhibit poorer social adjustment than would children in two parent families. Of the eight components measured, though there were some interesting trends, non-significant intergroup differences were found on seven of them. The one exception was in the area of school adjustment, where the findings were in the hypothesized direction and supported the proposition. The following sections will examine the data in detail and discuss the specific findings.

Contact with Helping Agencies

The amount of contact with helping agencies on the part of the child was considered to be an important indicator of adjustment problems. Based upon previous research, it was hypothesized that children in one parent families would likely have had more contact with helping agencies than would children in two parent families. This dimension was measured in terms of one question which asked how many times the child had ever received professional help for an emotional problem. The responses to this question are presented in Figure 1 which follows.

As can be seen from Figure 1, nearly nine-tenths of both groups of children had never had any agency contact. This is essentially in line with prior expectations. However, the small numbers who had any contact (11 one parent family children, and 22 two parent family children) made it useless to pursue an analysis of two further peripheral questions which measured the frequency of contact, and the type of professional seen. Though not essential to the measurement of the variable, they would have provided some interesting comparisons.

As shown by the statistical table accompanying Figure 1, the differences between the mean responses of the



GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANCE
GROUP 1 SINGLE	92	1.2283	0.697	-.04	0.63	p < .26
GROUP 2 DUAL	199	1.1759	0.572			

*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

FIGURE 1: COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE OF CHILDREN'S CONTACT WITH HELPING AGENCIES.

one and two parent family groups did not reach significance ($p < .26$). The percentages of each group who had had no contact (88 percent and 88.9 percent) were nearly identical, and the remainder of the responses were spread fairly evenly across the response categories. The small amount of difference which was exhibited between the groups did tend toward the hypothesized direction. However, though this may be worthy of some note, no definite conclusions can be drawn from it.

Overall, there is no plausible alternative explanation for the findings concerning contact with helping agencies. It should be remembered here that this dimension measures only actual incidence of contact. It is not possible to make any definite conclusions as to the extent, if any, of influence exerted upon this dimension, by such factors as differences in accessibility to services, and differences in criteria used for the definition of need for service. It would, however, appear logical to assume that since the two sample groups do not differ significantly on the range of demographic characteristics, they are unlikely to differ significantly in such areas as these. It must therefore be concluded, based on the present research findings, that children of one parent families do not differ significantly from children in two parent

families in their degree of contact with helping agencies.

This finding raises some critical questions. On the one hand, it appears to challenge some widely held assumptions about the incidence of emotional problems in one parent families. On the other hand, it raises the very real possibility that the spectrum of services which are available may be insufficient, and inappropriate in many cases to meet the needs of families in distress, and that this may account, in part, for the low level of contact. In either case, it points up the need for further investigation of this question.

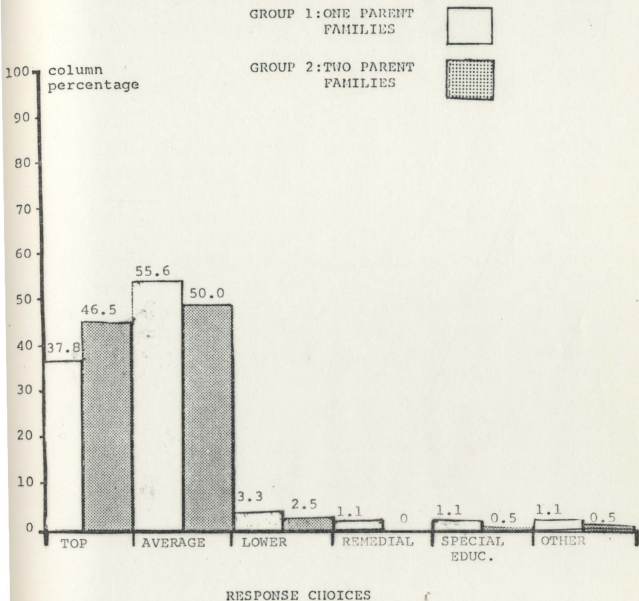
School Adjustment

School represents an integral part of the child's life. His adjustment to school and related activities form a critical link in the developmental process, and as such the question of school adjustment is an extremely important part of the construct of social adjustment. This present study measured school adjustment in terms of three hypotheses. It was hypothesized that children in one parent families would likely show a lower level of school achievement, (measured by class group level), more attendance problems, and more academic problems than

those in two parent families. Each of these was measured directly in terms of one question:

a) School achievement: School achievement was measured in terms of the class group level in which the child was at the time. Figure 2, which follows, shows the comparison of the responses to this question. As expected, most of the children fell into the "top" or "average" groups (in all 93.4 percent of one parent family children, and 96.5 percent of the two parent family children). However, significant differences were observed overall between the two groups. The t-test yielded a significance level of .05. The differences were in the direction hypothesized i.e. they favored the two parent family group. It can therefore be concluded that these findings support the hypothesis that children in one parent families exhibit significantly lower school achievement than do children in two parent families.

b) Academic Problems: The incidence of academic problems was measured by one question which asked respondents to report the frequency of problems on a five point scale. Figure 3, which follows, presents the results of this question.

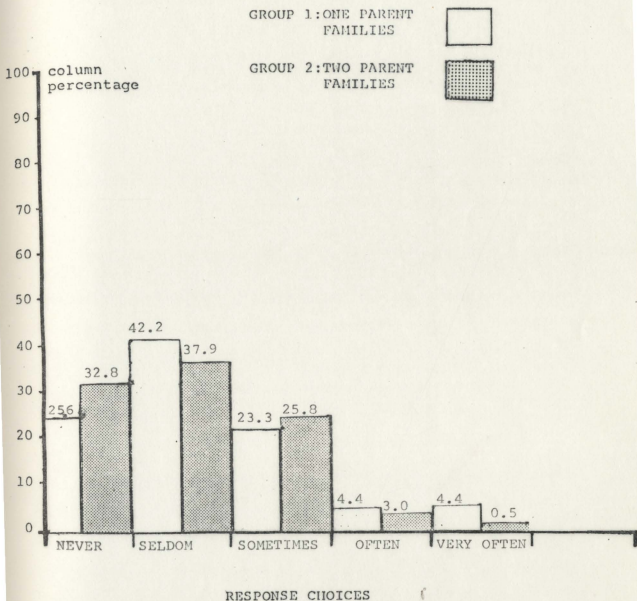


GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANC
GROUP 1 SINGLE	90	1.7556	0.825	-0.10	1.61	p<.05
GROUP 2 DUAL	198	1.5960	0.675			

*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

FIGURE 2: CHILDREN'S SCHOOL CLASS GROUP PLACEMENT:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE



GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANCE
GROUP 1 SINGLE	90	2.2000	1.019	-0.10	1.67	p<.05
GROUP 2 DUAL	198	2.0050	0.870			

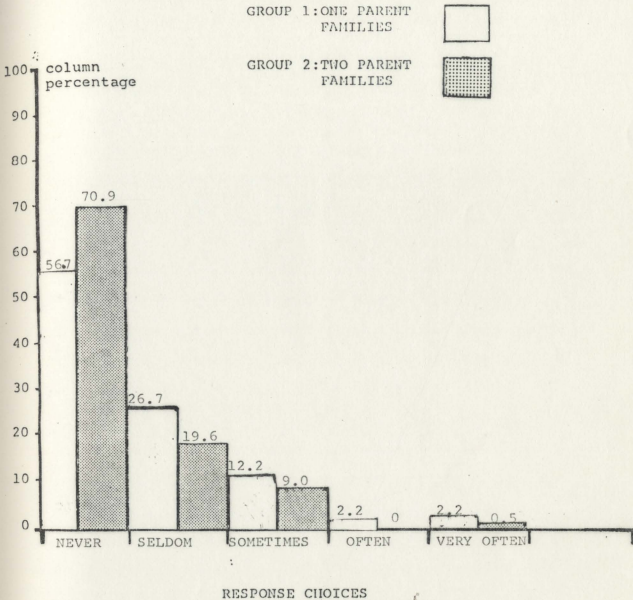
*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

FIGURE 3: CHILDREN'S ACADEMIC PROBLEMS:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE

As can be seen from the statistical table accompanying Figure 3, the two groups differed significantly in the relative incidence of academic problems ($p < .05$). The differences found were in the hypothesized direction, i.e. children of one parent families exhibited a significantly higher rate of academic problems than did those of two parent families. Also, it is interesting to note that while nearly 33 percent of the two parent family children had reportedly never experienced academic problems, only 25.6 percent of one parent family children fell into this category. On the strength of the findings, it can be stated with confidence that the children of one parent families exhibit a higher incidence of academic problems than do those of two parent families.

c) Attendance Problems: The third component of the measure of school adjustment was concerned with the incidence of attendance problems. Frequency of attendance problems was measured on a five point scale. Figure 4, which follows, presents the results of this measure. As indicated in the table of analysis in Figure 4, the differences between the means of the two groups were highly significant. In fact, the t-test revealed that the differences were significant at better than the .01 level ($p < .008$). A comparison of the means also readily



GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANC.
GROUP 1 SINGLE	90	1.6667	0.936	-0.16	2.45	p<.008
GROUP 2 DUAL	199	1.3979	0.695			

*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

FIGURE 4: CHILDREN'S ATTENDANCE PROBLEMS:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE

reveals that these differences were in the directions hypothesized i.e. they showed that the children of one parent families consistently exhibited more attendance problems than did those of two parent families.

This finding, combined with the findings concerning school achievement and academic problems, all of which were significant and were in the predicted direction, permit a confident conclusion as to the school adjustment of children in one parent families. Specifically, they clearly support the hypothesis that children in one parent families will exhibit a poorer level of school adjustment than will children in two parent families.

These findings concerning school adjustment are admittedly not all-encompassing. It would have been well beyond the scope of the present study, if not totally impossible, to effectively measure every facet of the child's school life. However, the measures employed do provide a sufficient gauge of the child's school adjustment since they cover perhaps the three major indicators.

The overall implications of these findings are somewhat difficult to fully assess. The literature on school adjustment clearly links poor school adjustment to such factors as low income, poor housing, limited parental interest, low parental aspirations, and lower

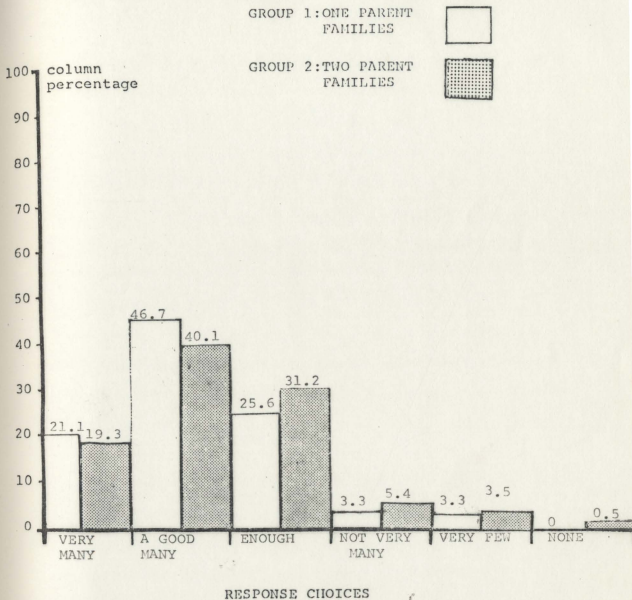
parental support of and involvement in learning activities. It has also been found fairly consistently that children in one parent families are prone to experience many of these disadvantages. Though this present study did not permit comprehensive measures of all of these factors, it did suggest that one parent families experienced lower incomes and poorer housing than did two parent families. It also found that sole parents were more likely to experience difficulty in meeting all of the requirements of the roles they had to play. This would suggest that, though willing, they may in fact be unable to show as much as other parents in the way of support and involvement to their children in school.

If children of one parent families are at a disadvantage from the outset in school, this has some important implications. First, they will likely accomplish less, and not go as far in school in the long run. Second, the tendency to achieve less and experience more problems in school will eventually exert great effects upon other facets of the child's life, notably in terms of his aspirations, his self-concept and peer relationships. For these reasons, among others, the findings related to school adjustment would appear to be important. They would imply the need, on the part of school and helping professionals, as well as parents, to anticipate problems

and to direct appropriate resources toward diagnosing and where possible, remedying these problems.

Peer Relationships

The whole area of peer relationships is a particularly important part of the child's life. As such, his social adjustment will be affected in a major way by the nature of his peer relationships. Since this area is an extremely complex one, it would be difficult to make an all-encompassing measure of effects. At any rate, many of the effects are highly subjective and likely not measurable in a reliable way. It was decided therefore, to use one measure which would yield results which were readily amenable to intergroup comparison. Specifically, it was decided to measure the number of friends the child had. On the basis of previous research, it was hypothesized that children of one parent families would likely have fewer friends than would children of two parent families. Data for this measure was gathered through the use of one simple question which asked respondents to report the number of friends the child had, on a descending, six point scale. Figure 5, which follows, provides a comparison of responses from one and two parent families.



GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANCE
GROUP 1 SINGLE	90	2.2111	0.930	0.07	-1.13	p<.13
GROUP 2 DUAL	202	2.3515	0.998			

*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

FIGURE 5: CHILDREN'S PEER RELATIONSHIPS:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE

As can be seen from the statistical table in Figure 5, the differences between the means for the two groups did not reach significance ($p < .128$). An examination of the data reveals that there is a definite, though non-significant, tendency in the findings which favors the children of one parent families, i.e. that the children of one parent families tended to have more friends than those of two parent families. This is contrary to the hypothesized relationship, though inconclusive.

There appears to be no alternative explanation for these findings. The differences, and their direction, were consistent over all response categories. They cannot be attributed to any between-group demographic differences (already shown to be non-significant), nor to interaction with parental traits. It must therefore be concluded that children in one parent families do not differ significantly from children in two parent families in terms of the number of friendship relationships they have.

It should be reiterated that the measure used does not encompass the whole sphere of influence of peer relationships. However, it provides a reliable basic measure, and the findings were also supported by two peripheral measures. These were "ease in making friends" and "getting along with friends". Both of these questions yielded results which, though non-significant ($p < .242$, $p < .069$

respectively), were nevertheless in the same direction, i.e. they avored the children of one parent families. This would seem to further dispel the likelihood of extraneous influences accounting for the findings. It would appear therefore, that one parent family status, in itself, does not adversely affect peer relationships.

Perceived Popularity

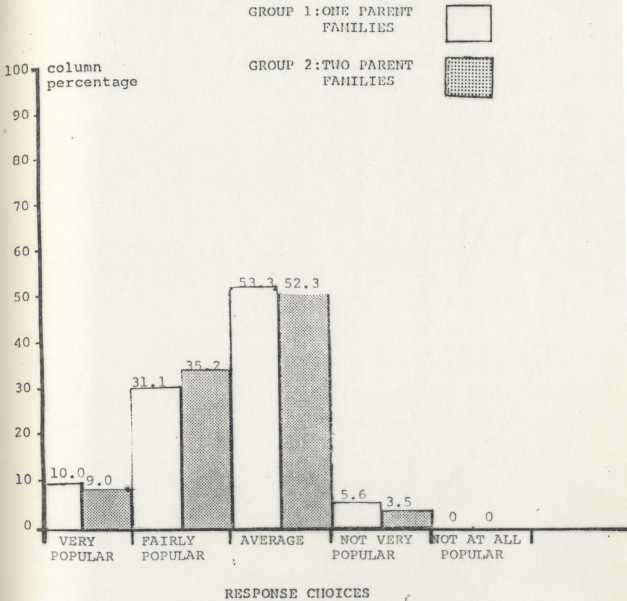
Another important facet of the child's lifespaces, which is related to his interaction with others, is the way in which he imagines others to view him. Specifically, the child will form a perception of his own popularity among his peers. Obviously, this is a vitally important determinant of his overall feelings of self-worth and hence plays a significant part in determining his social adjustment.

Perceived popularity will be mediated by both the actions of others, and the child's interpretations of such actions, but the subjective interpretation by the child is the critical matter. Previous research findings led to the hypothesis that children of one parent families would likely perceive themselves as being less popular than would children of two parent families. This

dimension was measured by a single question which provided a measure of perceived popularity on a descending, five point scale. The results of this measure are shown in Figure 6, which follows.

As can be seen, the majority of both groups (94.4 percent of the one parent family group, and 96.5 percent of the two parent family group) fall into the positive response range. Also, no respondents at all fell into the "not at all popular" category, leaving a total of 5.6 percent of one parent family group and 3.5 percent of the two parent family group who fell into the "not very popular" category. This is not surprising since it was expected that a majority of both groups would fall into one of the "popular" categories.

As can be seen by the table accompanying Figure 6, the overall differences between the mean responses of the two study groups did not reach significance ($p < .324$). Further examination of the data does reveal that the differences, though not significant, did tend toward the hypothesized direction, showing some tendency for one parent family children to perceive themselves as being less popular. However, the results are not strong enough to support the hypothesis. This fact, along with the consistency of the findings over the response



GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANCE
GROUP 1 SINGLE	90	2.5444	0.752	-0.03	0.46	p < .33
GROUP 2 DUAL	199	2.5025	0.710			

*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

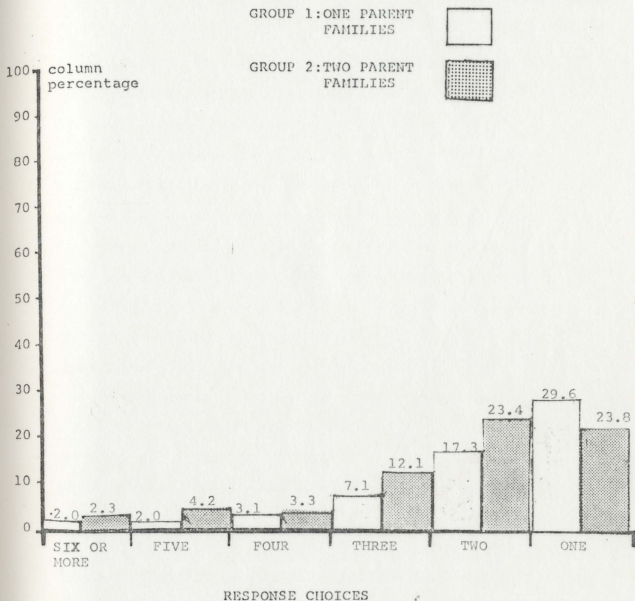
FIGURE 6: CHILDREN'S PERCEIVED POPULARITY:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE

categories, and the absence of any plausible alternative explanations for them, must lead to the conclusion that the children of one parent families do not differ significantly from children of two parent families in terms of their perceived popularity.

Club Membership

The extent to which the child took part in voluntary social activities outside the home was deemed to be one fairly important indicator of personality and peer adjustment. As such, it was seen as an important component of social adjustment. This component was defined to include the child's membership in any organization, sports league, or hobby group. The voluntariness of membership was stressed since the focus was on the child's willingness, of his own accord, to choose to take part in such activities. It was hypothesized that children of one parent families would likely be involved in fewer voluntary clubs, than would children of two parent families. Measurement was through a single question which asked for the number of clubs in which the child was currently involved.

The results of this measure are shown in Figure 7, following, and the accompanying table provides the statistical analysis of this variable. Since the scaling



GROUP	N	r*	χ^2	d.f.	SIGNIFICANCE
GROUP 1 SINGLE	98	-0.03	5.83083	7	p<.55
GROUP 2 DUAL	214				

* -- Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

FIGURE 7: CHILDREN'S CLUB MEMBERSHIP:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE

system used in this case was a categorical, rather than an interval scale, the mean and t-test were not considered appropriate measures of the significance of inter-group differences. Therefore, the test of significance used was the chi-square. According to this test, the two groups did not differ significantly in terms of club membership ($p < .55$). An examination of the data indicates that the overall findings did show a tendency in the direction hypothesized, however, since the differences did not reach significance, no conclusions can be drawn from this.

There does not appear to be any alternative explanation for these findings. The sex and age of the children were not significantly different. A peripheral question which checked the voluntariness of club membership yielded non-significant differences between the groups, ($p < .32$) as did another which measured "staying in clubs after joining" ($p < .78$). Overall then, on the basis of the research findings regarding club membership, no significant differences were observed between the children of one parent families and two parent families. Thus the hypothesis that children in one parent families will belong to fewer clubs than children of two parent families cannot be accepted.

Enuresis

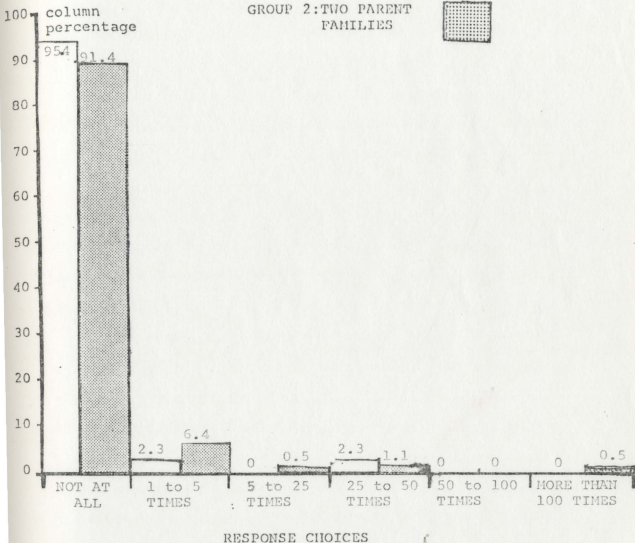
The persistent incidence of bedwetting among children, when they should normally have been expected to achieve bladder control, is seen by many writers as being symptomatic of emotional disturbance. This condition is obviously one which is likely to cause considerable anxiety and distress both for children who experience it, and for their parents. This study's particular interest in persistent enuresis arose out of its use as an indicator of the presence of sustained emotional stress. As such, the incidence of enuresis can serve as a valuable component of our measure of social adjustment. This was particularly true where one parent families were concerned, since numerous previous research findings have linked enuresis to children in one parent families. Therefore, the hypothesis being tested here states that children of one parent families will likely exhibit a higher incidence of enuresis than will children of two parent families. This component was measured in terms of one question which asked for the frequency of bedwetting in the past year. Figure 8 presents the results of this measure.

As can be seen from Figure 8, as expected, the overall incidence of bedwetting was very low. Only 4.6

GROUP 1: ONE PARENT
FAMILIES



GROUP 2: TWO PARENT
FAMILIES



GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANC
GROUP 1 SINGLE	87	1.0920	0.473	0.04	-0.61	p < .27
GROUP 2 DUAL	187	1.1337	0.547			

*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

FIGURE 8: FREQUENCY OF BEDWETTING AMONG CHILDREN:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE

percent of the one parent family children, and 8.6 percent of the two parent family children had wet the bed at all in the past year. A comparison of the mean scores for the two groups revealed that overall, they did not differ significantly in terms of their frequency of bed-wetting ($p < .27$). Further examination of the data shows that the non-significant differences which were shown, were in the direction contrary to that hypothesized -- that is, they showed a slightly higher incidence of bed-wetting on the part of the children in the two parent family group.

The above-noted findings do not appear to be attributable to alternative explanations. A number of researchers have suggested that the incidence of enuresis in children of one parent families tends to level off by the pre-teen years. However, the two comparison groups in the sample were not significantly different in terms of age so that any such changes would still be reflected.

To conclude, the data do not support the hypothesis that children in one parent families will exhibit a higher incidence of enuresis than children in two parent families. The findings, though they did not reach significance, appear to suggest, that the opposite may be the case. However, this is unlikely to be a consistent

finding.

Discipline Problems

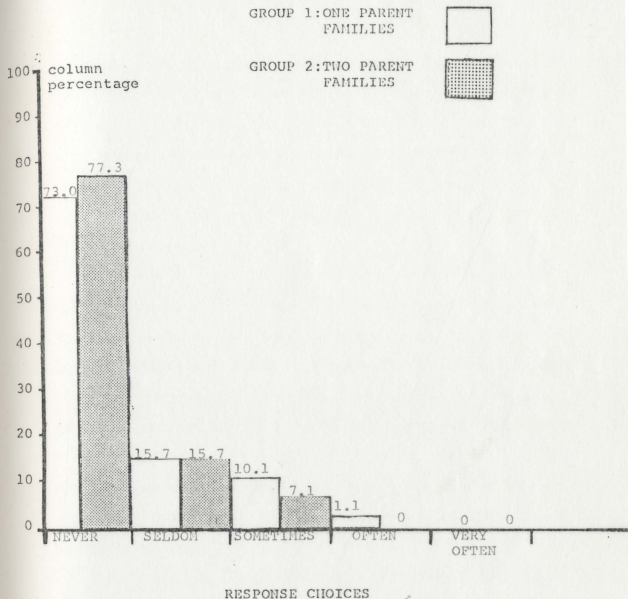
The manner in which the child accepts and conforms to authority, be it that of parents or others, is a critical area of concern. Resistance by the child to the rules and regulations which are imposed upon him may be a manifestation of underlying conflicts. Often too, the child may be acting out as a result of some problem which is distressing to him. In addition to the importance of the reasons for their occurrence, the very manifestation of discipline problems also implies some important consequences in terms of others' reactions to the child. Hence, the incidence of discipline problems was obviously considered to be one important indicator of social adjustment problems. Previous research findings led to the hypothesis that children of one parent families would likely exhibit more discipline problems than would children of two parent families. Due to the nature of this component, it was measured in terms of two discrete areas -- discipline problems at school, and discipline problems at home.

a) Discipline problems at school: The incidence of

discipline problems at school was measured in terms of one question which asked mothers to report the number of times, of which they were aware, that the child had experienced discipline problems in school. As such, it dealt with fairly serious discipline problems and not the minor day to day transgressions in the classroom. Figure 9, which follows, provides the results of this measure.

As expected, the majority of the children of both one parent and two parent families (73 percent and 77.3 percent respectively) were reported as "never" having discipline problems. A further 15.7 percent of each group fell into the "seldom" category, while none of either group fell into the "very often" category. An overall examination of the data analysis indicates that differences between the mean responses for the two groups did not reach significance ($p < .13$). The differences did show a tendency in the predicted direction. However, it must be concluded on the basis of data, that the two comparison groups did not differ significantly in terms of school discipline problems.

b) Discipline problems at home: The incidence of discipline problems at home was also measured in terms of one question which measured frequency of discipline



GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANCE
GROUP 1 SINGLE	89	1.3933	0.717	-0.07	1.18	p < .13
GROUP 2 DUAL	198	1.2980	0.594			

*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

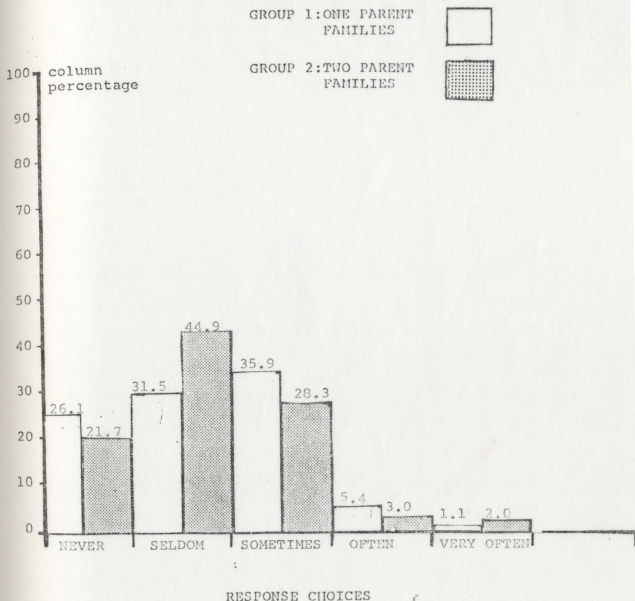
**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

FIGURE 9: CHILDREN'S SCHOOL DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE

problems on a five point scale. Since it pertained to the home milieu, where the parent is aware of every discipline problem, this measure was expected to yield a much higher reported incidence of discipline problems than did the question which pertained to school discipline problems. Figure 10, following, reports the results of this measure.

As can be seen from an examination of the data in the accompanying table, the differences observed between the mean responses for the two groups were relatively minor. Though they did show a tendency toward the predicted direction, they did not reach significance. The one-tailed t-test yielded a significance level far short of the acceptable level ($p < .325$). Therefore, it must be concluded that the two comparison groups did not differ significantly in terms of their manifestation of discipline problems at home.

As expected, compared to the measure of school discipline problems, a much higher percentage of children in both groups were reported as having at least some discipline problems at home. In fact, only 26.1 percent of the one parent family children, and 21.7 percent of the two parent family children were reported as "never" having discipline problems at home (compared to 73.0 percent and



GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANCE
GROUP 1 SINGLE	92	2.2391	0.942	-0.03	0.46	p<.32
GROUP 2 DUAL	198	2.1869	0.879			

*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

FIGURE 10: CHILDREN'S DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS AT HOME:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE

77.3 percent respectively who were reported as "never" having discipline problems at school). This would appear to reflect the higher visibility to the parent of home discipline problems, rather than a higher incidence of problems per se.

Overall, neither of the two measures employed to compare the relative incidence of discipline problems between children of one and two parent families, yielded any significant differences between the groups. There appear to be no alternative explanations for these findings. Demographic factors were not significantly different, nor were the mean age and sex of the children in the two groups. It must therefore be concluded that the present research findings do not support the hypothesis that children of one parent families exhibit significantly more discipline problems than do children of two parent families.

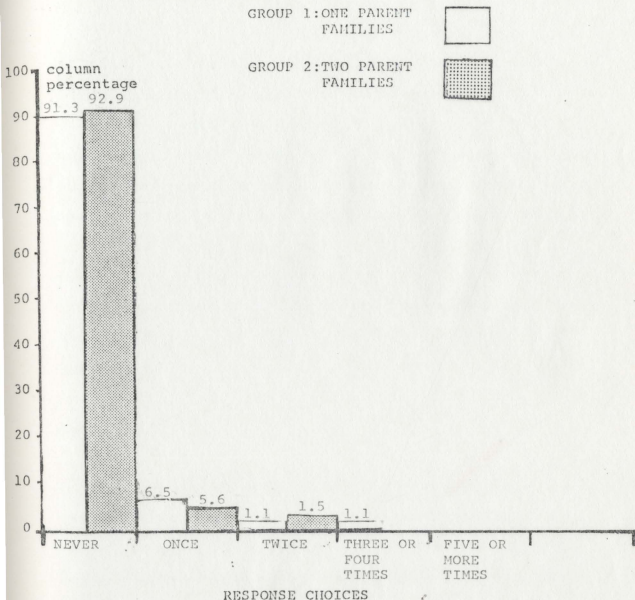
Delinquency

One final facet of the social adjustment of the child concerned the incidence of delinquent behaviour. It was deemed that, although the incidence would undoubtedly be relatively low, it would be important to include

a measure of delinquency as part of the construct of social adjustment. Delinquent behaviour is for the most part an indicator of some serious dysfunction in the child's life, because otherwise, he would not likely resort to such behaviour which carries with it all sorts of social penalties. The use of socially unacceptable behaviour may be a reaction to such things as serious material deprivation, parental ineffectiveness, poor social integration or emotional conflicts. Its consequences can potentially permeate all of the child's relationships.

Based upon previous findings, the present hypothesis predicted that children of one parent families would likely exhibit a higher incidence of delinquency than their counterparts in two parent families. The incidence of delinquency was measured in terms of the number of times the child had been questioned by the police. This was considered to be a highly accurate way of measuring the extent of involvement since it would reflect the number of cases of suspected, as well as proven, delinquent involvement. Again, a single question was used to measure this component. The results of this measure are shown in Figure 11.

It is readily evident from this figure that, as



GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	r*	t-value**	SIGNIFICANCE
GROUP 1 SINGLE	92	1.1304	0.518	-0.05	0.76	p<.23
GROUP 2 DUAL	198	1.0859	0.331			

*--Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

**--The Students' t-test--one-tailed value

FIGURE 11: POLICE CONTACT BY CHILDREN:
COMPARISON BY FAMILY TYPE

expected, only a few children (8.7 percent of one parent family children and 7.1 percent of two parent family children) had ever been questioned by the police. An examination of the statistical analysis shows that the difference between the means of the two study groups, though tending in the predicted direction, did not reach statistical significance ($p < .225$). It must therefore be concluded that children of one parent families do not differ significantly from children of two parent families in terms of their contact with police concerning delinquency.

Sex of Child

An additional analysis of the research findings was conducted, with the data divided on the basis of the sex of the child. This was designed to test the proposition, suggested by a number of writers, that "boys will exhibit poorer social adjustment than will girls in one parent families". All eight dimensions of the construct were examined. Non-significant differences were found on all but one of these. The exception was in the area of school adjustment, which was measured in terms of three dimensions -- class group, academic problems, and

attendance problems. The results for these variables are reported in Table 4 which follows.

Table 4 : "Comparison of the School Adjustment of Boys and Girls in One Parent Families".

Var 059		Class Group Level		
	N	Chi-square	d.f.	Significance
Girls	50	12.37937	5	$p < .03$
Boys	39			

Var 062		Attendance Problems			
	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	Significance
Girls	50	1.5000	.839	-2.02	$p < .0235$
Boys	39	1.8974	1.021		

Var 060		Academic Problems			
	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	Significance
Girls	50	1.9400	.843	-2.74	$p < .004$
Boys	39	2.5385	1.144		

The data supported the proposition upon all three dimensions. Boys in one parent families exhibited significantly lower school achievement, more academic problems, and more attendance problems than did girls. However, it must be kept in mind that there is a copious body of research which indicates that boys in general tend to achieve a poorer adjustment to the school milieu than do girls. Bronfenbrenner notes this and cites the accepted explanation that this consistent phenomenon is a result of differences in orientation produced by differences in the

socialization process for boys and girls. Also, it must be remembered that though these findings are significant, they support the proposition upon only one of eight dimensions, while all other differences were non-significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected in the area of sex differences. Boys were not shown to exhibit significantly poorer social adjustment than girls in one parent families.

Reason for One Parent Family Status

The data were further analyzed on the basis of the reason for one parent family status. The general proposition was that "within the one parent family group, the children of one parent families headed by widows would likely exhibit a better level of social adjustment than the children of all other one parent families". This was suggested by the literature, and the hypothesis was logically supported in terms of the theory of social deviance, (deviant family situations as producing social penalties), and the theories suggesting the frequent presence of individual or family pathology in marital breakdown.

Comparisons were made between the families of widows (representing approximately 35 percent of the one parent family group) and all other one parent families combined

(representing 65 percent of the one parent family group, specifically composed of 31 percent divorced sole parents, 25 percent separated, 2 percent unmarried, and 7 percent deserted). All of the eight dimensions of the construct of social adjustment were examined.

The findings derived from this analysis of the data were extremely interesting. With only one exception, (which did not reach significance) the differences found on all variables showed a tendency toward supporting the proposition that widows' children would show a better level of social adjustment. Several statistically significant correlations were found. The significance levels of specific findings are reported in Table 5 shown on Page 97.

An examination of the data in detail shows that the children of one parent families headed by widows showed significantly less helping agency contact, higher school achievement, fewer academic problems, higher perceived popularity, higher club membership, and fewer discipline problems in school. Several other differences were in the predicted direction, and came very close to reaching significance. These included fewer school attendance problems ($p < .16$); more friends ($p < .07$); lower incidence of bedwetting ($p < .08$); and fewer discipline

problems in the home ($p < .08$). The one variable which was not in the predicted direction, the amount of police contact, did not approach significance ($p < .43$).

Table 5 : Widowed One Parent Families Compared to all Other One Parent Families. Comparison of Research Findings Concerning Social Adjustment of Children.

Variable Labels	Means		Significance
	Widows'	Others'	
Agency Contact	2.0571	2.3509	$p < .04^*$
School Achievement (class group)	1.4857	1.9272	$p < .01^*$
School Attendance	1.5429	1.7455	$p < .16^{**}$
Academic Problems	1.8857	2.4000	$p < .009^*$
Peer Relationships	2.0286	2.3274	$p < .07^{**}$
Perceived Popularity	2.3143	2.6909	$p < .01^*$
Club Membership	5.0882	6.0000	$p < .03^*$
Frequency of Bedwetting	1.0000	1.1509	$p < .07^{**}$
Discipline Problems at School	1.2286	1.5000	$p < .04^*$
Discipline Problems at Home	2.0571	2.3509	$p < .07^{**}$
Delinquency	1.1429	1.1228	$p < .43$

* significant differences ($p < .05$) in hypothesized direction.

** non-significant differences ($p > .05$) in hypothesized direction.

The above findings provide some strong evidence to support the general proposition that children of one parent families headed by widows exhibit a better overall social adjustment than do those of all other one parent families. However, it is not possible to establish a single direct causal relationship. It would appear that these symtomatical differences exhibited between the two groups may be rooted in such factors as differential societal reactions in terms of attitudes and treatment, and also in indeterminate initial intergroup differences.

Previous findings indicate that such initial intergroup differences are likely to favor the widowed group. Therefore, though it would appear acceptable to conclude that children in widowed families exhibit a better social adjustment than do children in the remainder of one parent families, it is not possible to conclude that the differences are entirely attributable to the one parent family experience in itself. Further research needs to be directed toward discovering the precise manner in which other factors mediate the overall effects.

Summary and Conclusions

Overall, the present research findings concerning the social adjustment of children in one parent families do not permit any firm conclusions. The findings on seven out of the eight components measured were non-significant. The data did show some interesting trends. Six out of the eight components measured yielded results which were in the predicted directions, while the remaining two components (peer relationships and enuresis) yielded non-significant findings running contrary to the predicted direction.

Of the components which tended to support the proposition, only one -- school adjustment -- reached significance. This was measured by three variables, and all three yielded significant differences between the groups, in the predicted directions. This supports the single hypothesis that children of one parent families exhibit poorer school adjustment than do children^f of two parent families. Of the other five components, which yielded non-significant findings in the predicted directions, none came very close to significance, thus they necessitate the conclusion that the hypotheses were not supported. Thus, overall, the general proposition that children of

one parent families would exhibit poorer social adjustment than children of two parent families cannot be accepted on the basis of these research findings.

The additional comparison of the children divided on the basis of sex also yielded inconclusive findings. Boys did not differ significantly from girls upon any of the dimensions measured, except in the area of school adjustment. Since school adjustment is an area in which boys have traditionally been shown to exhibit a poorer adjustment than girls, the findings concerning school adjustment are not deemed to constitute a valid basis for the hypothesis concerning sex differences. It must be concluded that boys in one parent families did not differ significantly from girls, in terms of their overall social adjustment.

The comparison of the children divided on the basis of "reason for one parent family status" revealed findings that were generally in line with the results of previous research on this area. Children of widowed one parent families showed significantly better adjustment on six of eleven variables, and the results were close to being significant on four more. It would appear acceptable to conclude, on the basis of these findings that, as predicted, the children of widows exhibit a better social

adjustment than other one parent family children. However, this is not considered to be primarily a result of the one parent family experience in itself. Rather, it reflects initial intergroup differences, along with differential societal interaction. Thus, while this finding is worthy of note, it does not permit conclusive inferences as to causation.

It should be noted that on virtually all of the dimensions measured, the vast majority of the children in all comparison groups, fell into the "normal" range of response categories. As such, the numbers of children who were reported as exhibiting "problem" behaviour on any of the dimensions tended to be in the vicinity of only 5 to 20 percent. This was fully in line with anticipated results. It is still quite acceptable to make overall comparisons between groups. The tests of the demographic data confirm that the groups were not significantly different either in terms of parents' or children's characteristics. Provided that this is the case, the relative scarcity of "problem" responses is not a threat to the validity of overall intergroup comparisons.

To sum up, the research findings do not support the proposition, that children of one parent families will exhibit poorer social adjustment than children in

two parent families, though some trends in this direction were shown. Only the measure of school adjustment yielded significant differences favoring the children of two parent families. Similarly, the hypothesis concerning sex differences was not supported either. Widow's children, as hypothesized, were found to exhibit better social adjustment than other one parent family children, but a conclusive causal relationship cannot be established.

Chapter 6

Conclusions

This study set out to explore the relationship between one parent family status and the social adjustment of children. A comprehensive review of the literature on the subject of children in one parent families did not allow for any completely confident conclusions at the outset, but did lead to the prediction that one parent family status likely affects children's social adjustment in an adverse manner. The problem was conceptualized in terms which viewed the child in the context of societal interaction. This view placed primary emphasis upon the manner in which actual and perceived changes in the nature of the child's interactions with others, as a result of living in a one parent family exert effects upon the way he defines his situation. Such changes in the child's definitions of the situation exert effects upon his adjustment to the society of which, by necessity, he is a member. Social adjustment was measured in terms of eight aspects of interpersonal functioning. Comparisons were made between random samples of one and two parent families.

The findings showed a slight tendency for children in one parent families to be less well-adjusted. However, only in the area of school adjustment were they shown to exhibit significantly poorer adjustment. It was therefore concluded that the present research did not conclusively support the proposition that children of one parent families would exhibit poorer social adjustment than children in two parent families. Further data analysis did support the conclusion that, within the one parent family group, children of widowed families showed significantly better overall social adjustment than all other one parent family children. This was as expected, but may not be attributable to the one parent family experience in itself.

Interpretation of the findings requires some caution. The study utilized a comparison between two random samples of one and two parent families. As such, it presented the opportunity to make overall intergroup comparisons of the two populations. What it did not do, because of the need to keep the sample size down to a manageable level, was to allow for extensive comparisons of sub-categories; nor did it control, except through the use of randomization, for the numerous intervening variables which are known to exert effects, to one degree or another, upon a problem as complex as that of one parent family

status. As a result, this study allows conclusions as to comparative manifestation of symptomatological differences between two groups, but does not permit extensive claims as to causation. Similarly, it does not permit the exploration of relationships among the numerous combinations of intervening variables. This is mainly due to small numbers of cases in the sub-category cells. Some further limits to generalizability of the findings are posed by the composition of the study population, which, though random, was representative of only one small urban region in Atlantic Canada. Generalizations to other types of areas and to other parts of the country, should be made only with caution. Bearing in mind the aforementioned reservations, some interpretations of the findings may be made.

The findings did show a definite overall tendency, though not statistically significant in most cases, for one parent family children in general to be somewhat less well-adjusted than children in two parent families. This suggests fairly strongly that a relationship may exist between family status and social adjustment such that there is a tendency, as hypothesized, for one parent family status to affect social adjustment in a negative manner. Thus, if it were possible to use a much larger sample in

which sub-groups were large enough to allow effective analysis, it would likely be found that some groups of one parent family children do show very poor social adjustment. The findings concerning widows' children lend strong support to the notion that large, within-group differences may exist. If the effects of other factors often inherent in the one parent family situation, such as poverty, poor housing, interpersonal problems of family members, and inadequate services were controlled, they would, no doubt, account for much of the difference between one and two parent families. Of course, all these things considered, there is still a set of factors inherent in the one parent family experience itself which may produce effects. However, as demonstrated by the findings of this study, and numerous others (Ferri, 1976; Burchinal, 1964; Herzog and Sudia, 1968) concerning widows' families, there is strong evidence to suggest that the family often possesses enough resources to absorb the loss of a parent and spouse, and still achieve healthy and stable adjustment. Thus the major remaining factor to exert influence upon the manner in which one parent family status affects social adjustment concerns the way in which significant others in the society react to the one parent family.

Attitudes toward one parent families and how they

affect children are rooted in some of the most basic antecedents of social life. Virtually for as long as there have been families, there have been negative traits attributed to the "broken" family. No doubt, there is a factual basis for at least some of these. "Broken" families, by their very nature, would appear more likely to lack some of the resources of "normal" families and logically could be expected to exhibit some consequences of such deficiencies. However, the reasons for adverse attitudes toward one parent families go well beyond this fact. They have their roots in the society's sense of self-preservation, as it were. One parent families -- especially those which are a product of marital breakdown -- may be perceived as a threat to a society founded upon the family as the major unit of socialization and social control.

Society relies upon the family to perform a series of basic functions essential to society's survival (eg. child rearing, exercising control of individual behaviour, and acting as the basic economic unit). As a result, society provides incentives in the form of social acceptance of family roles, and certain sanctions which are designed to foster the formation and sustenance of stable family units. On the other hand, society also metes out certain

punishments to those persons who fail to, or choose not to, sustain the "whole" family. In other words, society punishes any socially deviant act which tends to undermine the family as a stable social unit.

Marital breakdown which causes the creation of one parent families is just such an act, and the persons concerned are subjected to social punishments as a result. Ample evidence of this can be found in the differential attitudes and treatment commonly directed toward widows and their families, as compared to other one parent families. Widows and their families are considered deserving of all of the sympathy and support which society can muster. This is not to say that they do not suffer any negative effects of one parent family status. On the contrary, it is obvious that they often suffer the effects of poverty, loneliness and the deprivation associated with the loss of a spouse and parent. However, their unmet needs are more a result of factors (eg. poverty) inherent in their situation, rather than to any social proscription.

This is not the case for other one parent families, such as those created by divorce, separation or non-marriage. Such families have traditionally been the subjects of a series of societal penalties which were consciously designed to discourage the proliferation of

one parent families. The parents, and as often as not, the children were subjected to these penalties, many of which are still reflected in the popular myths and assumptions which surround the one parent family. Undesirable traits were frequently attributed automatically to sole parents. These ranged from such relatively passive labels as "ineffective", "irresponsible", "unable to cope", etc., up to the other extreme wherein sole parents were labelled as immoral individuals lacking in personal strength. The children of such parents, though they received relatively more sympathy from the larger society, were often subjected to cruel and distressing treatment from peers who reflected the attitudes of their own parents.

In recent years much of this has changed. Considerable social normalization of the one parent family state has occurred. Modern society has created a milieu in which social forces mitigate to create more one parent families through such factors as the increased independence of women, the proliferation of stresses which cause marital breakdown, and the shifts in the social structure which make it possible that the one parent family can be a viable economic and social unit.

However, though some of the more obvious social penalties have softened, there is still considerable

misunderstanding of the nature of the one parent family. Widely held stereotyped assumptions still stand in the way of insight into the characteristics of the great variety of families who make up the one parent family population and into the real effects, in today's society, of living in a one parent family.

As the findings of this present research suggest, it is time to re-examine many of our assumptions and to move on to a new awareness of the needs of one parent families, who make up over one tenth of our population. This is obviously a crucial issue for social work and social policy. One parent families, because of their special needs, frequently are numbered among the clients of various kinds of social services. Through a lack of understanding of one parent families and adherence to many false assumptions, social agencies have often failed to meet their needs to an appropriate degree.

To remedy this, professionals and policymakers must first of all abandon the assumption that one parent families are, by their very nature, undesirable situations, both for children and adults. Much of the research, including the findings of this present study, suggest clearly that this is not always the case. What the research does indicate, and this too is particularly relevant both

for practitioners and policymakers, is that with the right kinds of support services, one parent families can function in a healthy and stable manner. One only has to look at the negative consequences for children who are displaced when families dissolve, in order to see the benefits of directing every appropriate effort toward strengthening and sustaining the natural family, whether it has one or two parents.

Translated into practical terms, there is a great need on the part of practitioners and policymakers to direct attention toward the special needs of one parent families in terms of such things as day care, financial assistance, housing and recreational services. Day care is considered, almost universally, to be the most crucial need of one parent families, and the one which is often the most neglected because of the reluctance of official agencies to become involved in it. Day care services need to be designed with an understanding of the child care needs of sole parents, to whom adequate day care often means the difference between supporting themselves, or being forced onto the welfare rolls.

Financial assistance programs need to be tailored to the special needs of one parent families. They should permit incentives to work, but should also allow the

parent, if he or she so chooses, to remain at home and care for the children. Income tax laws should amply provide exemptions for adequate child care services. The costs of such services are a direct employment cost and should **therefore** be totally deductible from net income.

One parent families are not as likely to own their own homes as are other families. (This study found that only 49 percent of one parent families had their own homes, compared to 89.7 percent of the two parent family comparison group). Therefore, greater emphasis needs to be placed upon the provision of low-cost, liveable accommodations which meet the social needs of parents and children. Housing programs should place emphasis upon providing opportunities for the purchase of houses by sole parents, as well as upon providing adequate rental units. At present, even those sole parents, especially the females, who can afford to purchase a home, encounter great obstacles from banks and mortgage companies who refuse to accept them on the basis that they may be "bad risks". Government guarantees could go a long way to alleviate this, and thereby provide an opportunity for one parent families to experience the personal and social benefits that come with the freedom to choose one's own home and neighbourhood.

The provision of recreational services and opportunities for single parents and their families to take part in normal community activities is an area of critical concern. One of the most frequent problems reported by sole parents is the difficulty they and their children experience in taking part in community activities, which are almost always geared to "normal" two parent families. Recreational activities provide an important opportunity for enrichment of family life. For the one parent family they could represent a vital means of compensation for deficiencies in the family milieu caused by the absence of a parent.

Social workers can and should play an important role in facilitating improvements in all of these areas. As well, much more effort could be directed into family counselling services to one parent families, directed particularly toward aiding the family to reach a stable initial adjustment to its situation, toward providing sole parents with support and assistance in improving parenting skills, and toward providing parents and their children with assistance in dealing with problems that arise. Since the one parent family will never disappear, and in fact is likely to become even more common, social workers and policymakers must play a part in ensuring

that such families provide as good an atmosphere as possible for children and their parents.

This study has identified some major characteristics of children in one parent families, though further study, both among urban and rural populations, needs to be conducted to verify the extent to which the results can be generalized. The present findings suggest some interesting probable relationships concerning the social adjustment of children in one parent families which would appear to warrant further research. The effects of poverty, neighbourhood, parental functioning and individual psychopathology are good examples. Perhaps, the most interesting area though, is that of the part played by societal reaction, both conscious and unconscious, and whether in the form of formalized social penalties or informal actions by individual others. More than anything else, this area determines the nature and quality of the person's entire subjective atmosphere, and thus his perception of himself and his place in the societal context. f

As in the case of policy formulation, great care needs to be taken in terms of the kinds of assumptions upon which future research is based. Present findings suggest that the inaccuracy of traditional assumptions may pose obstacles to further knowledge. Only an open-

mind ed approach, which is willing to acknowledge the potential strengths and viability of the one parent family as a social unit, while possessing an understanding of the real potential for problems which it can pose, can hope to achieve significant gains in knowledge. Considerable research effort must be directed toward discovering the subtle effects of interactions among factors inherent in the one parent family experience.

In conclusion, it must be stressed that, though considerable normalization has occurred in societal attitudes toward one parent families, and though it is a fact that one parent families, in many cases, offer the possibility of a satisfactory life experience for their members, it would be wrong to underestimate their potential for problems. One parent families frequently emerge out of a situation fraught with serious emotional trauma, whether it be due to the pain of bereavement or to the upheaval caused by marital conflict. They are plunged into a new and equally traumatic situation for which they may be totally unprepared. The achievement of a satisfactory adjustment often hinges on the way the family copes with this initial transitional period. At all times, though, the one parent family experience can present on-going stresses and problem situations which tax the coping

abilities of even the strongest families. It is vital, therefore, that social policies and services reflect a clear understanding of and commitment to the special needs of the one parent family.

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APPENDIX "A"

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

"A STUDY OF FAMILIES"

A STUDY OF FAMILIES



Memorial University of Newfoundland

St. John's

1978

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in our study. The questions are concerned with things that usually happen in all families.

The first set of questions is concerned with your contact with your relatives. (Please circle your answer).

First think about the relatives on your side of the family. Whom do you consider as your closest relatives? _____

1. How often do you visit your relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

2. How often do your relatives visit you?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

3. How often do you talk on the phone with your relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

4. How often do you write letters to your relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

5. How often do you receive letters from your relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

6. How often do you receive financial assistance from your relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

Now think about the relatives on your spouses' side of the family. Whom do you consider as spouse's family? _____

7. How often do you visit your spouse's relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

8. How often do your spouse's relatives visit you?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

9. How often do you phone your spouse's relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

10. How often do you write letters to your spouse's relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

11. How often do you receive letters from your spouse's relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

12. How often do you receive financial assistance from your spouse's relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

13. Whom do you consider as relatives? (In addition to closest relatives mentioned above)

14. How often do you visit these relatives?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER OTHER _____

Next we would like you to think about some of the different roles that you usually have to fulfill in the family. (Please circle your answer).

15. During the last six months who earned the family income?

HUSBAND MUCH MORE THAN WIFE	HUSBAND MORE THAN WIFE	HUSBAND AND WIFE EQUALLY	WIFE MORE THAN HUSBAND	WIFE MUCH MORE THAN HUSBAND	OTHE _____
-----------------------------------	---------------------------	-----------------------------	------------------------------	-----------------------------------	---------------

16. How satisfied did you feel with this arrangement?

VERY SATISFIED	SOMEWHAT SATISFIED	NOT SATISFIED	VERY UNSATISFIED
-------------------	-----------------------	------------------	---------------------

17. Do you feel that the amount of money available is adequate for your family's basic needs?

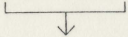
VERY ADEQUATE	SOMEWHAT ADEQUATE	NOT ADEQUATE	NOT AT ALL ADEQUATE
------------------	----------------------	-----------------	------------------------

18. How satisfied are you with the way your housework is done?

VERY SATISFIED	SOMEWHAT SATISFIED	NOT SATISFIED	VERY UNSATISFIED
-------------------	-----------------------	------------------	---------------------

19. Who cares for the physical needs of your child (children)?

MYSELF ALWAYS	MYSELF USUALLY	DUTIES SHARED WITH OTHERS	OTHERS SOMETIMES	OTHERS ALWAYS
------------------	-------------------	------------------------------	---------------------	------------------



20. If your answer to question 19 was "MYSELF ALWAYS" or "MYSELF USUALLY", how satisfied are you with yourself in the way you care for the physical needs of your child (children)?

VERY SATISFIED	SOMEWHAT SATISFIED	NOT SATISFIED	VERY UNSATISFIED
-------------------	-----------------------	------------------	---------------------

21. How satisfied are you with the overall arrangements for caring for the physical needs of your child (children)?

VERY		SOMEWHAT	NOT	VERY
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED

22. Who teaches and disciplines your child (children)?

MYSELF	MYSELF	DUTIES SHARED	HUSBAND OR	HUSBAND OR
ALWAYS	USUALLY	WITH HUSBAND	OTHERS SOMETIMES	OTHERS ALWAYS
└──────────┘		OR OTHERS		



23. If your answer to question 22 was "MYSELF ALWAYS" OR "MYSELF USUALLY", how satisfied are you with yourself in the way you teach and discipline your child (children)?

VERY		SOMEWHAT	NOT	VERY
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	UNSATISFIED

24. How satisfied are you with the overall teaching and disciplining of your child (children)?

VERY		SOMEWHAT	NOT	VERY
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	UNSATISFIED

25. Who organizes the family's recreation?

MYSELF	MYSELF	DUTIES SHARED	HUSBAND OR	HUSBAND OR
ALWAYS	USUALLY	WITH HUSBAND	OTHERS SOMETIMES	OTHERS ALWAYS
└──────────┘		OR OTHERS		



26. If your answer to question 25 was "MYSELF ALWAYS" or "MYSELF USUALLY", how satisfied are you with yourself in the way you organize the family's recreational activities?

VERY		SOMEWHAT	NOT	VERY
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	UNSATISFIED

27. How satisfied are you generally with the organization of the family's recreational activities?

VERY		SOMEWHAT	NOT	VERY
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	UNSATISFIED

28. How satisfied are you with the way you fulfill your sexual role?

VERY		SOMEWHAT	NOT	VERY	NOT
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	UNSATISFIED	APPLICABLE

29. How satisfied are you with your ability to listen to and help your husband with his problems? (If no husband is present, answer this question thinking of some other man with whom you have a deep personal relationship.)

VERY		SOMEWHAT	NOT	VERY	NOT
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	UNSATISFIED	APPLICABLE

30. How satisfied are you with your husband's ability to listen to and help with your problems? (If no husband is present, answer this question thinking of some other man with whom you have a deep personal relationship.)

VERY		SOMEWHAT	NOT	VERY	NOT
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	UNSATISFIED	APPLICABLE

31. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life generally?

VERY		SOMEWHAT	NOT	VERY
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	UNSATISFIED

We are also interested in gathering some general information about children. Please think of your oldest child who is still in school and answer the following questions. We are not interested in knowing the name of the child, but it is important for you to concentrate on this one child when answering this next set of questions.

Age of child: _____

Sex of child: F _____ M _____

Birth order: oldest _____ youngest _____ middle _____

School Grade: _____

32. How many clubs, organizations or leagues does your child belong to?

SIX OR MORE FIVE FOUR THREE TWO ONE NONE

33. Please describe up to three of these (for example, Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, Sports leagues, hobby groups, etc.)

34. Whose idea is it for he/she to join such activities?

HIS/HER OWN

BROTHERS OR SISTERS

FRIENDS

TEACHER

YOURSELF

OTHER _____

35. How often does he/she stay in these clubs after joining?

ALWAYS	USUALLY	IT	USUALLY	ALWAYS
STAYS	STAYS	DEPENDS	QUITS	QUITS

36. At what level is your child in his/her class?

TOP	AVERAGE	LOWER	REMEDIAL	SPECIAL	OTHER (please specify)
GROUP	GROUP	GROUP		EDUCATION	<hr/>

37. How often does he/she have special problems in doing school work?

NEVER	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	VERY OFTEN
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------

38. How often does he/she receive special awards or prizes either in school or in other activities?

VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
------------	-------	-----------	--------	-------

39. Frequently, children will have periods when they don't want to go to school. How often have you had trouble getting your child to go to school?

NEVER	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	VERY OFTEN
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------

40. Does your child ever have discipline problems at school?

NEVER	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	VERY OFTEN
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------

41. How many friends does your child normally have?

VERY MANY	A GOOD MANY	ENOUGH	NOT VERY MANY	VERY FEW	NONE
-----------	-------------	--------	---------------	----------	------

42. How well does he/she usually get along with friends?

VERY WELL	FAIRLY WELL	AVERAGE	NOT VERY WELL	NOT AT ALL WELL
-----------	-------------	---------	---------------	-----------------

43. How easily does he/she make new friends?

VERY EASILY FAIRLY EASILY AVERAGE NOT VERY EASILY NOT AT ALL EASILY

44. How many of your child's friends are:

A. In his/her class at school?	ALL	MOST	SOME	VERY FEW	NONE
B. In your immediate neighbourhood?	ALL	MOST	SOME	VERY FEW	NONE
C. Considerably older than him/her?	ALL	MOST	SOME	VERY FEW	NONE
D. Considerably younger than him/her?	ALL	MOST	SOME	VERY FEW	NONE
E. Of the opposite sex?	ALL	MOST	SOME	VERY FEW	NONE

45. How popular do you think your child feels with his/her friends and classmates?

VERY	FAIRLY	AVERAGE	NOT VERY	NOT AT ALL
POPULAR	POPULAR		POPULAR	POPULAR

46. Do you ever worry about his/her popularity?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER

47. In your opinion, how often does your child worry about his/her popularity?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER

48. Does your child have a problem with bedwetting?

YES _____ NO _____

49. How often has your child wet the bed in the past year?

NOT AT ALL 1-5 TIMES 5-25 TIMES 25-50 TIMES 50-100 TIMES MORE

50. How often does your child help out at home?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER

51. How often does your child present a discipline problem at home?

NEVER SELDOM SOMETIMES OFTEN VERY OFTEN

52. How many times has your child ever received professional help for an emotional problem?

NEVER ONCE 2-5 TIMES 6-10 TIMES MORE THAN 10 TIMES

53. What type of helping person did your child see?

NOT APPLICABLE

PSYCHIATRIST

PSYCHOLOGIST

SOCIAL WORKER

GUIDANCE COUNSELLOR

OTHER (specify) _____

54. How often were visits made?

NOT APPLICABLE

MORE THAN ONCE A WEEK

WEEKLY

BI-WEEKLY

MONTHLY

LESS THAN MONTHLY

ONLY ONE VISIT MADE

55. How often has your child been questioned by the police?

NEVER ONCE TWICE THREE OR FOUR TIMES FIVE OR MORE TIMES

56. How often have the police ever questioned you about your child?

NEVER ONCE TWICE THREE OR FOUR TIMES FIVE OR MORE TIMES

57. How often do you feel you have reason to worry about your child getting into legal trouble?

NEVER SELDOM SOMETIMES OFTEN VERY OFTEN

Finally, we would like to ask a few questions about yourself to help with the data analysis. Please circle your answer to each of the following questions:

58. Sex: MALE FEMALE

59. What is your age? 1. 20 AND UNDER
 2. 21 TO 25
 3. 26 TO 30
 4. 31 TO 35
 5. 36 TO 40
 6. 41 TO 50
 7. 50 AND OVER

60. Marital Status: 1. MARRIED
 2. DIVORCED
 3. WIDOWED
 4. SEPARATED
 5. DESERTED
 6. NEVER MARRIED

61. Your religion is:
1. ROMAN CATHOLIC
 2. ANGLICAN
 3. UNITED CHURCH
 4. SALVATION ARMY
 5. OTHER (specify) _____
 6. NONE

62. During the last year, how often did you attend church?

1. NOT AT ALL
2. A FEW TIMES
3. ABOUT ONCE A MONTH
4. TWO OR THREE TIMES A MONTH
5. ABOUT ONCE A WEEK OR MORE

63. How much schooling did you complete?

1. GRADE EIGHT OR LESS
 2. SOME HIGH SCHOOL
 3. HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE
 4. TRADES TRAINING
 5. SOME UNIVERSITY
 6. UNIVERSITY GRADUATE
 7. OTHER TRAINING OR EDUCATION (please specify)
-

Wife's Occupation

64. Are you employed outside the home?

1. FULL TIME
2. PART TIME
3. NOT AT ALL
4. IF UNEMPLOYED, WHEN DID YOU LAST WORK? _____

(64-A). Please describe your usual occupation: (If not presently employed, please describe your last job.)

TITLE: _____

KIND OF WORK YOU DO: _____

Husband's Occupation

65. Employment status:

1. FULL TIME
2. PART TIME
3. NOT AT ALL
4. IF UNEMPLOYED, HOW LONG? _____

(65-A). Please describe usual occupation of husband: (If unemployed, please describe last job.)

TITLE: _____

KIND OF WORK DONE: _____

66. Are you and your children presently living as a single parent family unit (for example, without a fairly permanent partner)?

YES _____ NO _____

If you answered "NO" to this question, please go on to question #69.

67. If spouse is absent, please indicate how long:

1. NEVER LIVED TOGETHER
2. 1 YEAR OR LESS
3. 2 YEARS TO 3 YEARS
4. 4 YEARS TO 5 YEARS
5. 6 YEARS TO 10 YEARS
6. 11 YEARS TO 15 YEARS
7. MORE THAN 15 YEARS

68. If spouse is absent, please indicate how long you lived together before the relationship ended:

1. NEVER LIVED TOGETHER
2. 1 YEAR OR LESS
3. 2 YEARS TO 3 YEARS
4. 4 YEARS TO 5 YEARS
5. 6 YEARS TO 10 YEARS
6. 11 YEARS TO 15 YEARS
7. MORE THAN 15 YEARS

69. What are your present housing arrangements?

1. OWN HOME
2. RENTED PUBLIC HOUSING
3. OTHER RENTED ACCOMODATIONS
4. LIVING WITH RELATIVES
5. OTHER (please specify) _____

70. How long have you lived in St. John's?

1. 6 MONTHS OR LESS
2. 1 TO 2 YEARS
3. 3 TO 5 YEARS
4. 6 TO 10 YEARS
5. OVER 10 YEARS

71. Length of time at present address:

1. 6 MONTHS OR LESS
2. 1 TO 2 YEARS
3. 3 TO 5 YEARS
4. 6 TO 10 YEARS
5. OVER 10 YEARS

72. How satisfied are you with your present accomodation?

VERY	SOMEWHAT		NOT VERY	NOT AT ALL
SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SATISFIED

73. How many children do you have? _____

74. How many of your children were planned?

ALL SOME NONE

75. How old are your children?
Please state ages.

BOYS GIRLS

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Thank you very much for your participation in this study. If you would like to receive a copy of the results of the study, please write your name and address on the back of the enclosed return envelope.

APPENDIX "B"

EXPLANATORY LETTER TO ACCOMPANY QUESTIONNAIRE



MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND
St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada A1B 3X8

General Office
Education Building

Telex: 016-4101
Telephone: (709) 753-1

Thank you for agreeing to participate in our study, which will help identify some of the important characteristics of families and contribute to improving services to families in our community. As we indicated when we talked with you on the phone, we want mothers only to complete the enclosed questionnaire. The questionnaire is being mailed to a small, but representative sample of people. Therefore, it is extremely important that everyone who receives a questionnaire fill it out and return it to us within one week if possible.

As we are interested in discovering general trends, and not individual characteristics, your name is not on the questionnaire, nor will it be placed there. There is a serial number on each questionnaire which makes it possible to know who has returned the questionnaire and to remove that name from the mailing list. The study is entirely confidential. We hope that you will find it interesting.

Should you require further information please contact us at 753-1200, ext. 2165 (daytime) or 722-1218 (evenings). In closing we would again like to thank you for your assistance in our study.

Sincerely,

Helen Handrigan

Helen Handrigan

Betty Newlands

Betty Newlands

Bryan Purcell

Bryan Purcell
Research Directors

APPENDIX "C"

(1) Referral Request

Now that you have completed the questionnaire yourself, as a final favor, we are wondering if you could help us a little further by naming two more families whom you think fit our requirements, and who might help us by completing a questionnaire. If possible, we would like to get the names of: a. one family in which both parents are present; and b. one family in which the mother is the only parent present.

A. Name: _____

B. Name: _____

Address: _____

Address: _____

(11) Reminder Postcard

A Study of Families

Last week a questionnaire concerning families and how they function was mailed to you.

If you have already completed and returned it to us please accept our sincere thanks. If you have not already mailed our questionnaire, could you please do so today. Because the questionnaire has been sent to only a small, but representative sample of people, it is extremely important that yours also be included in the study if the results are to be accurate.

If you have any questions, or if you did not receive the questionnaire, or it got misplaced, please call us now at 753-1200 ext. 2165 (daytime) or 722-1218 (evenings).

Sincerely,
Helen Handrigan
Betty Newlands
Bryan Purcell
Research Directors

APPENDIX "D"

STATISTICAL TABLES

GROUP 1 - VAR097		E0		1. ONE PARENT		2. TWO PARENT		T E S T		P O O L E D		V A R I A N C E E S T I M A T E		S E P A R A T E		V A R I A N C E E S T I M A T E	
GROUP 2 - VAR097		E0															
VARIABLE		NUMBER OF CASES		MEAN		STANDARD DEVIATION		STANDARD ERROR		T-VALUE		2-TAIL PROB.		P O O L E D		V A R I A N C E E S T I M A T E	
VAR005		GETTING ALONG WITH FRIENDS															
GROUP 1		91		1.7053		0.610		0.085		1.10		0.344		1.49		291	
GROUP 2		202		1.5594		0.746		0.052								0.138	
VAR006		AGE IN 1960															
GROUP 1		90		1.911		0.907		0.096		1.12		0.560		-0.70		208	
GROUP 2		200		1.9950		0.959		0.068								0.484	
VAR007		FRIENDS IN CLASS															
GROUP 1		88		2.9773		0.857		0.091		1.00		0.963		1.94		276	
GROUP 2		190		2.7632		0.856		0.062								0.053	
VAR008		FRIENDS IN NEIGHBORHOOD															
GROUP 1		88		2.8830		0.949		0.101		1.00		0.964		0.97		279	
GROUP 2		188		2.7447		0.947		0.069								0.332	
VAR009		FRIENDS ORDER															
GROUP 1		86		4.0698		0.809		0.087		1.09		0.628		-0.74		262	
GROUP 2		178		4.1461		0.775		0.058								0.460	
VAR010		FRIENDS YOUNGER															
GROUP 1		86		4.1512		0.819		0.088		1.01		0.949		-0.62		263	
GROUP 2		179		4.2179		0.816		0.061								0.534	
VAR011		FRIENDS OF OPPOSITE SEX															
GROUP 1		88		3.5114		0.838		0.089		1.37		0.083		0.34		268	
GROUP 2		182		3.4780		0.711		0.053								0.731	

FREQUENCY TABLES ON ALL VARIABLES
 PLAN, 5 BP - TESTS (CREATION DATE = 06/16/78)

06/20/78

PAGE 101

GROUP 1 - VARIABLE		GROUP 2 - VARIABLE		1. ONE PARENT		2. TWO PARENT		P O O L E D		V A R I A N C E		E S T I M A T E		S E P A R A T E		V A R I A N C E		E S T I M A T E	
VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	F VALUE	2-TAIL PROB.	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROB.	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROB.	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROB.	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROB.	T VALUE
----- T E S T -----																			
VAR072 GROUP 1	199	2.5444	0.752	0.079	1.12	0.506	0.46	287	0.648	0.45	163.26	0.656							
GROUP 2	199	2.5025	0.710	0.050															

VAR073 GROUP 1	91	4.2410	0.950	0.100	1.07	0.733	0.17	208	0.868	0.17	179.88	0.866							
GROUP 2	199	4.2211	0.991	0.070															

VAR074 GROUP 1	98	4.8770	0.997	0.105	1.01	0.927	0.17	265	0.862	0.17	171.57	0.863							
GROUP 2	197	4.0558	0.991	0.071															

VAR076 GROUP 1	107	1.0020	0.473	0.051	1.34	0.130	-0.61	272	0.541	-0.65	191.85	0.519							
GROUP 2	187	1.1337	0.507	0.040															

VAR077 GROUP 1	92	2.6522	0.031	0.007	1.02	0.920	-0.12	290	0.903	-0.12	178.65	0.903							
GROUP 2	200	2.6650	0.040	0.059															

VAR078 GROUP 1	92	2.2191	0.942	0.098	1.15	0.422	0.46	280	0.645	0.45	166.86	0.654							
GROUP 2	198	2.1869	0.879	0.062															

VAR079 GROUP 1	92	1.6283	0.697	0.073	1.48	0.023	0.60	289	0.499	0.63	149.87	0.530							
GROUP 2	199	1.1759	0.572	0.041															

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GROUP 1 - VAR007		ED	1. WIDOWED FAMILIES		2. OTHER ONE PARENT FAMILIES		P.O.O.D. VARIANCE ESTIMATE		SEPARATE VARIANCE ESTIMATE			
GROUP 2 - VAR007		ED	1. WIDOWED FAMILIES		2. OTHER ONE PARENT FAMILIES		P.O.O.D. VARIANCE ESTIMATE		SEPARATE VARIANCE ESTIMATE			
VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	F VALUE	2-TAIL PROB.	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROB.	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROB.
VAR067 FRIENDS IN CLASS												
GROUP 1	35	2.0000	0.668	0.147								
GROUP 2	53	3.0943	0.838	0.115	1.07	0.808	-1.59	86	0.116	-1.58	71.14	0.119
VAR068 FRIENDS IN NEIGHBORHOOD												
GROUP 1	34	3.0568	0.736	0.126								
GROUP 2	54	2.7407	1.049	0.143	2.03	0.032	1.54	86	0.127	1.67	84.92	0.099
VAR069 FRIENDS OLDER												
GROUP 1	33	3.9091	0.805	0.140								
GROUP 2	53	4.1698	0.802	0.110	1.01	0.964	-1.46	84	0.147	-1.46	67.86	0.148
VAR070 FRIENDS YOUNGER												
GROUP 1	33	4.2727	0.761	0.133								
GROUP 2	53	4.0755	0.851	0.117	1.25	0.504	1.09	84	0.200	1.12	73.73	0.268
VAR071 FRIENDS OF OPPOSITE SEX												
GROUP 1	34	3.3508	0.894	0.153								
GROUP 2	54	3.4815	0.795	0.106	1.27	0.437	0.42	86	0.673	0.41	64.12	0.682
VAR072 PERCEIVED POPULARITY												
GROUP 1	35	2.3143	0.758	0.128								
GROUP 2	55	2.6909	0.717	0.097	1.12	0.700	-2.38	88	0.020	-2.35	69.52	0.022
VAR073 PERCEIVED CONCERN OVER CHILD'S POPULARITY												
GROUP 1	36	4.4722	0.845	0.141								
GROUP 2	55	4.0909	1.005	0.136	1.42	0.277	1.08	89	0.063	1.95	83.47	0.058

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GROUP 1 - VARIOUS GROUP 2 - VARIOUS		1. WIDOWED FAMILIES 2. OTHER ONE PARENT FAMILIES		T-TEST		POOLED VARIANCE ESTIMATE		SEPARATE VARIANCE ESTIMATE	
VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	VALUE	2-TAIL PROB.	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM
VAR006 POLICE CONTACT WITH CHILD	35	1.145	0.323	0.055	1.23	0.409	91	0.94	66.15
GROUP 1	35	1.0517	0.292	0.036					
GROUP 2	56								
VAR004 PARENTAL CONCERN OVER DELINQUENCY	35	1.591	0.517	0.136	2.55	0.002	91	2.08	50.30
GROUP 1	35	1.591	0.517	0.136					
GROUP 2	56	1.1379	0.511	0.067					

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GROUP 1 - VAR050	EQ	1. GIRLS		T E S T				POOLED VARIANCE ESTIMATE		SEPARATE VARIANCE ESTIMATE	
GROUP 2 - VAR050	EQ	2. BOYS									
VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	F VALUE	2-TAIL PROB.	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM	2-TAIL PROB.	T VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM
VAR060	ACADEMIC PROBLEMS	1.9000	0.643	0.119	1.84	0.045	-2.84	87	0.006	-2.74	67.62
GROUP 1	100										
GROUP 2	21	2.5185	1.184	0.183							
VAR061	ACADEMIC REWARDS	3.2800	1.126	0.159	1.31	0.394	-0.43	85	0.672	-0.43	82.64
GROUP 1	50										
GROUP 2	37	3.3784	0.982	0.161							
VAR062	ATTENDANCE PROBLEMS	1.5000	0.639	0.119	1.08	0.196	-2.02	87	0.047	-1.97	72.91
GROUP 1	50										
GROUP 2	39	1.6974	1.021	0.163							
VAR063	DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS	1.2200	0.616	0.087	1.63	0.110	-2.76	86	0.007	-2.67	60.36
GROUP 1	50										
GROUP 2	38	1.6316	0.786	0.127							
VAR064	NUMBER OF FRIENDS	2.1200	0.799	0.113	1.03	0.087	-0.94	87	0.349	-0.91	67.80
GROUP 1	50										
GROUP 2	39	2.3077	1.080	0.173							
VAR065	GETTING ALONG WITH FRIENDS	1.7059	0.607	0.113	1.05	0.073	-0.07	88	0.945	-0.07	80.99
GROUP 1	51										
GROUP 2	39	1.7179	0.826	0.132							
VAR066	EASE IN MAKING FRIENDS	1.0039	0.649	0.119	1.31	0.369	-1.15	87	0.254	-1.13	73.44
GROUP 1	51										
GROUP 2	38	2.0263	0.972	0.158							

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GROUP 1 - VAR059
GROUP 2 - VAR058

1. GIRLS
2. BOYS

VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR	F-VALUE	2-TAIL PROB.	POOLED T-VALUE	VARIANCE ESTIMATE	SEPARATE T-VALUE	VARIANCE ESTIMATE
VAR067	50	2.6000	0.633	0.110	1.05	0.859	-2.26	85	0.025	76.62
GROUP 1	50	2.6000	0.633	0.110						
GROUP 2	37	3.2162	0.854	0.140					-2.27	76.62
VAR066	50	2.9600	0.966	0.137	1.08	0.823	1.11	85	0.268	79.28
GROUP 1	50	2.9600	0.966	0.137						
GROUP 2	37	2.7297	0.932	0.153					1.12	79.28
VAR069	50	4.1600	0.866	0.122	1.50	0.215	1.06	83	0.290	80.97
GROUP 1	50	4.1600	0.866	0.122						
GROUP 2	35	3.9714	0.707	0.119					1.10	80.97
VAR070	50	4.1600	0.869	0.126	1.07	0.240	0.09	83	0.925	80.68
GROUP 1	50	4.1600	0.869	0.126						
GROUP 2	35	4.1429	0.733	0.124					0.10	80.68
VAR071	49	3.6316	0.808	0.120	1.05	0.886	-1.24	85	0.217	80.60
GROUP 1	49	3.6316	0.808	0.120						
GROUP 2	38	3.6316	0.819	0.133					-1.25	80.60
VAR072	51	2.4706	0.731	0.102	1.16	0.627	-1.00	87	0.322	76.54
GROUP 1	51	2.4706	0.731	0.102						
GROUP 2	38	2.6316	0.766	0.127					-0.98	76.54
VAR073	51	4.2785	0.878	0.122	1.34	0.333	-0.07	87	0.941	72.92
GROUP 1	51	4.2785	0.878	0.122						
GROUP 2	38	4.2695	1.011	0.164					-0.07	72.92

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GROUP 1 -	VAR050	ED	1: GIRLS
GROUP 2 -	VAR050	ED	2: BOYS
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VARIABLE	NUMBER OF CASES	MEAN SCORE
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VAR003 POLICE CONTACT-PARENTS RE CH

GROUP 2	40	1.0750
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VAR084 PARENTAL CONCERN OVER DELINQ

GROUP 2 40 1.4250

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APPENDIX "E"

SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM: A CONTEMPORARY FORMULATION

Stryker gives a contemporary formulation of Symbolic Interactionist theory from the social psychological perspective, delineating the essential assumptions and presenting the major concepts in sequence.

Symbolic Interaction is seen as a social psychological theory which concerns itself with the general relationship between the person and society; as such it addresses itself to the dual questions of the problem of socialization and the problem of personality organization. With socialization, the emphasis is on development, i.e. that which happens to the individual neophyte over time. Whereas, early Symbolic Interactionists tended to see the larger society as socializing agent, current workers focus on the impact upon the person of a variety of smaller units which, taken together, constitute a society.

With personality organization, it is the task of the social psychologist to demonstrate how organization occurs as a result of social relationships. It is noted that Symbolic Interactionism usually focuses upon the "normal"; however, as such researchers as Becker and Lindesmith have shown, Symbolic Interactionism has equal ability to explore personal disorganization; it can predict both sides without invoking concepts external to the theory.

Assumptions

Some important assumptions underlying Symbolic Interactionist theory are as follows. First, that certain important aspects of human behaviour differ both qualitatively and quantitatively from the continuum of animal behaviour, and that, to this extent, it is necessary to separate and focus upon these aspects (this is what Symbolic Interactionism proposes to do). Second, while not committing itself to a cultural determinism, Symbolic Interactionist theory does assume that it is through an analysis of society that the most fruitful approach to man's behaviour is to be found. Symbolic Interactionism bypasses the unresolved argument as to whether the "individual" or "society" takes precedence; rather, Symbolic Interactionism begins its analysis with the social act from which both the individual and society are derived. Third, Symbolic Interactionism sees the human being as actor as well as reactor. As such, the human being mediates, selects and contributes to the external environment; thus, his reactions are to a symbolic environment which he himself partially defines and which in fact can be an internalized environment. The capacity for language is central here since it is through language that man is enabled to symbolize and

thus internalize. Fourth, there is the assumption that the new-born infant is neither social nor anti-social; rather he is seen as asocial (i.e. apart from a few vital "impulses", the infant possesses nothing but the potential for human development). Finally, Symbolic Interactionist theory deals in terms of "everyday life". It acknowledges the subjective nature of human interaction. It avoids abstraction and both takes its observations, and further develops the theory, on the basis of everyday life.

Major Concepts

Man's capacity for symbolization is a central fact. Language is the mode of symbolization which has been given the most attention. However, while this fact is stressed, we must not overlook other modes of symbolic interaction.

The starting point is with the act: behaviour stemming from an impulse and requiring some adjustment to objects in the external world. Sociologists are concerned with social acts: those in which the relevant objects are other individuals; in this case, the other individuals are not static and are in turn acting with reference to the initial actors. Thus every social act implies at least

two individuals interacting.

Since social acts occur over time, they have a history; within this history certain preliminary segments of the social act acquire significance to the actors such that these segments predict what is to come. These are called gestures and, as Mead saw it, the complex interactions that develop, are in most cases acted out, partially at least, in a conversation of gestures.

Some gestures acquire an additional property in that they come to mean the same thing to all the actors. When this happens, the gesture becomes a significant symbol. Language, among other things, is a system of significant symbols. Since such symbols come to "mean" an anticipated behaviour, they allow a plan of action prior to the actual behaviour.

When some symbols come to represent generalizations of behaviour toward objects, enabling the actor to react to class terms, rather than to each individual object, these symbols become categories. Categories are in fact essential to activity because they enable us to anticipate necessary behavioural reactions, and because they organize behaviour. Humans respond to a classified world in which salient objects are named and placed into categories, indicating their significance; in other words, again,

humans respond to a symbolic environment.

Since the person must frequently enter new, uncategorized situations in which ambiguity exists as to prescribed action, before he can act in any kind of appropriate manner he must represent the situation to himself in symbolic terms. (i.e. "define it"). The products of this process are called definitions of the situation. Such definitions do not exist adequately in the initial stages of entry, and so as more information presents itself within the situation, such definitions are continually tested and re-defined, (this is not to discount the existence of the process of preparation prior to entry, in which sometimes elaborate definitions are formulated). Reactions of others serve partially to validate or refute definitions of the situation, and thus cause either their acceptance or re-definition.

A very important kind of category is that which is called position. Positions are socially recognized categories of actors (eg. father, sergeant, divorcee, black sheep). Their special significance is that they serve as cues for the future behaviour of persons so categorized and they organize behaviour toward these persons (i.e. we come to expect certain behaviours from these people, and we behave toward them on the basis of these

expectations). The behavioural expectations attached to positions are called roles. Roles are social in that the ultimate meaning of the positions to which they apply is shared behaviour and in that a position can only be seen in terms of other positions. Thus every position assumes some counter-position and every role assumes some counter-role. It is to be noted here that persons regularly occupy numerous positions and that both ambiguous and contradictory cues are frequent.

Just as the occupant of a position responds to external others, and they to him in the context of mutual definition, so each actor, in a similar way, defines himself in terms of categories and positional attributes. To do this is to have a self. Though the self is an essential concept, there has been some difference over the years in its definition. Currently, the self is defined as the way one describes to himself his relationship to others in a social process. As one achieves this self-awareness through viewing himself as others see him, he is engaging in role-taking (i.e. taking the role of the other), which enables the anticipation of the responses of some other person through viewing the self, literally through the eyes of the other. Degree of role-taking ability is equated to the degree to which one possesses a fully developed "self". Frequently, since one's inter-

action is likely to be with multiple others, he is anticipating the responses of the generalized other (i.e. he is viewing his own behaviour in the context of a system of related roles). The concept of reference group is seen as being synonomous with generalized other.

Finally, the concept of significant other is postulated as an important component of Symbolic Interactionist theory. This concept denotes the use, of necessity in a fragmented world, of a ranking of others in order of importance to the person. Significant others are then, those others whose perspective is given the most weight by the person, in the process of defining the situation.

