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Viewing the Parent as a Person:

An Individuation-Related Phenomenon

A Thesis

Presented to the

Department of Psychology

and the

Faculty of the Graduate College

University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

University of Nebraska at Omaha

by

Brian Andersen

May, 2000

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### THESIS ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance for the faculty of the Graduate College,
University of Nebraska, in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree Master of Arts
University of Nebraska at Omaha

Committee

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Date april 24, 2000

#### Abstract

When do adolescents start viewing the parent as a person, and what influence this process were the developmental research questions examined in this study. The participants were high school and college students, ranging in ages from 14 to 27 years, who completed three different scales: the Family Relationships Measure, the Psychological Separation Inventory, and the Emotional Autonomy Scale. Age differences were found for the Family Relationships Measure as well as the Psychological Separation Inventory. Individuation and viewing the parents as people were not related, but both measures appeared to tap separate processes that occur at similar times in development during adolescence and young adulthood. By age 21 individuals seem to have the ability to view their parents as people, and at this age individuation makes a dramatic increase.

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#### CHAPTER 1

### Statement of the Problem

The assumption that the adolescent can view the parent as a person is an issue that has received little attention in the literature. Research on parent-child relationships has focused on several issues concerning children's relationships with parents such as: parenting styles (Parish & McCluskey,1992), parental caring (Russek, & Schwartz, 1997), and parental love (Carmicle, 1995). However, one aspect of the child's perception of the parent has been largely ignored; namely children's perception of their parents as individuals or perception of the *parent as a person*.

Viewing the parent as a person implies that the child is able to take the role of the parent while gaining an in-depth psychological perspective on the parent. The child is able to see who the parent is, how the parent came to be this way, and how the world looks from the parent's perspective. The ability to see the parent as a person is often accompanied by positive affective bonds and interaction patterns that are like those of mature peers (White, Speisman, & Costos, 1989).

The development of perceiving a parent as a person occurs in six stages according to White et al. (1983):

- 1. Parent as a Person The child shows evidence of being able to put him/her self in his/her parents' shoes. In this stage the child can see things through his/her parents' eyes.
- 2. Separate Child The child has some idea (but not well articulated) that their parent is able to view the child as a separate individual.
- 3. Child as Caregiver The child has a much more well-developed perspective of how the parents view him/her as an individual. The parents now can accept the child as an advice giver and caregiver who has his/her own opinions. But the relationship is predominately that of parent/child, with no peer-type interactions.
- 4. Limited Peer The parent and child begin to be capable of acting like mature peers in certain situations.
- 5. Individuated Peer The parent and child view each other as individuated people. Peer-like interactions occur, but are confined to safe or superficial areas.
- 6. Equality as Person Full peer-like mutuality exists in which the parent and child view each other as equal individuals.

It is important to understand that the six steps are viewed as a dynamic, developmental process. In step 1, the individual is just *beginning* to view his/her parent as a person, while in step 6 the individual has *fully* achieved this ability to observe the parent as a person. These six steps are considered to be developmental stages in that each stage must be completed before the proceeding stage can develop. The parent also plays an integral, dynamic role in the development of these stages. For example, in the *Child* as *Caregiver* stage, the parent must change his/her views of the child as an advice giver and caregiver along with the changes that the child is making. Viewing the parent as an individual is a developmental trend that is influenced by numerous factors such as age, individuation, de-idealization, autonomy, and marital status.

Based on the limited research that is available, the major influence in the development of the child's ability to perceive the parent as a person seems to be the level of individuation attained by the child (White, et al., 1983). The goal of the study was to examine the role of individuation in perceiving parents as people.

#### Literature Review

#### Parent-Adolescent Relations

For the purpose of this study, individuation will be defined as the level at which an individual has intrapsychically separated from his/her parents. This definition is similar to Hoffman's (1984) psychological separation. According to Hoffman, in the course of attaining healthy psychological well-being as an adult the individual is dependent on his/her ability to "psychologically separate from the parents and gain a sense of identity as a separate individual" (p. 170). Hoffman partitioned psychological separation into four separate scales that measure factors which theoretically underlie individuation. Functional Independence refers to an adolescent's ability to manage his/her personal affairs without relying on outside help from his/her mother or father. Attitudinal Independence refers to an adolescent's ability to have his/her own beliefs and values. Emotional *Independence* is freedom from excessive need for: approval from one's parents, a feeling of closeness, and emotional support. Conflictual Independence describes the freedom that an individual experiences from guilt, anxiety, mistrust, responsibility, and anger towards one's mother and/or father. As the individual progresses to higher levels of psychological

separation in these areas, the view of his/her parents progressively changes and grows more mature. Therefore, higher levels of individuation may enable a more mature view of the parent as a person.

Steinberg and Silverberg (1986), using their Emotional Autonomy Scale (EAS), found that during adolescence individuals tended to transfer reliance for emotional support from their parents to friends. However, the children's' view of their "parents as people" remained relatively unchanged from fifth grade to ninth grade. Given this finding, it would appear that the typical fifth grade student does not consider his/her parent to be an individual. Children in the ninth grade were equally dismissive to the idea of parents as individuals. Conversely, during this time period the children in the Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) study showed a statistically significant increase in their perception of individuation from their parents. To summarize, Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) showed that from grades five to nine, adolescents become significantly more individuated from their parents, but this individuation does not change their view of their parents as people.

However, the validity of the Emotional Autonomy Scale has drawn numerous criticisms. Ryan and Lynch (1989) conducted a three part study which involved testing the validity of the EAS. Emotional autonomy, as

described by Steinberg and Silverberg, implies relinquishing childish dependencies on the parents. Ryan and Lynch felt that the emotional autonomy also includes not "merely a casting off of infantile ties but a more general reluctance to rely on the parents and a distancing of the adolescent from the parents" (p. 341). Ryan and Lynch stated that the EAS measured a type of detachment associated with adolescent's viewing their parents as "rejecting and unsupportive" (p. 341).

Ryan and Lynch (1989) found that scores from the Emotional Autonomy Scale were negatively correlated with security in the relationship with parents. Scores from the Emotional Autonomy Scale were negatively correlated with the adolescents' level of separation and individuation as measured by the Separation-Individuation Inventory (Christenson & Wilson, 1985). Viewing the parents as people was also negatively correlated with separation-individuation. Based on their findings, Ryan and Lynch contend that the Emotional Autonomy Scale is measuring emotional detachment, not autonomy.

Based on the Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) study, there is very little change occurring in the individuals' abilities to perceive their parents as people during mid-adolescence (ages 10 years to 16 years). According to

Ryan and Lynch, the scale is assessing detachment, but other explanations are possible. Perhaps a high level of individuation must be attained before the adolescent is able to advance to the stage of viewing his/her parent as a person. White et al. (1983) used the Family Relationships Interview to assess the developmental stage of an individual's relationship with his/her mother and father. They found that 22-year-olds gave evidence of individuation at the Parent as Person stage, thus displaying the ability to place themselves in their parents' shoes and to view things through their parents' eyes. That is, the 22-year-olds were able to see their parents as individuals. This perception of viewing the parent as a person became stronger for the 24- and 26-year-olds. Further, marriage (a phenomenon known to increase individuation level) tended to improve the individuals' ability to perceive parents as people.

Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) found that between the ages of 10 and 16 there is relatively little change in adolescents' view of their parents as people. White et al. (1983) concluded that individuals 22 years of age and older were able to view their parents as people. Therefore between the ages of 16 and 22 a change seems to occur which enables the individual to view his/her parents as individuals. This change may involve a developed stage

of individuation in which the individual is no longer concerned with his/her separation from the parent, and thus begins to view the parent as less of a threat to independence. When the parent is viewed from this perspective, the adolescent can perceive the parent as more of an equal, which facilitates viewing the parent as a person.

During adolescence, individuals begin to explore relationships outside of the primary relationship they have formed with their parents. Mazor and Enright (1988), using individuals ranging in ages from grade four to posthigh school (M = 20.7 years), developed four stages of individuation. During late childhood the child regards their own viewpoints as secondary to their parents. The child does not recognize a psychological separation from their parents. At stage 2, during adolescence, the individual begins to have a greater self-understanding. The parent is still perceived in the context of the parent-child relationship and continues to have power over the child's personal views. At stage three, the child begins to show the need to assert his/her individuality within the family. Self-reliance is strongly emphasized. The parental frame of reference for the adolescent is neglected and is considered to be secondary to personal needs. Finally, during stage four (late adolescence and early adulthood) the child is able to integrate the parental

perspective into their own perspectives. According to Mazor and Enright (1988), "The greater equality in the relationship enables individuals to recognize parental needs, such as reliance on their children" (p. 44).

Therefore, during late adolescence and early adulthood the child appears to be in the Parent as Person stage as described earlier.

Mazor and Enright (1988) have shown that during late adolescence and early adulthood, individuals are beginning to perceive their parents as individuals. According to the data presented by Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) and White et al. (1983), it is apparent that a strong sense of individuation is necessary for the child to view his/her parents as a separate person with their own ideas and beliefs. White et al. (1983) state that the achievement of individuation should facilitate more mutual (and what we call more mature) relationships with parents. By considering some of the processes that are occurring during individuation, one can gain a better understanding of *why* individuals must be highly individuated before they are able to view their parents as people.

#### **Individuation Process**

The individuation process involves successive changes in psychological separation from one's parents. Two major changes are

involved: (1) an increase in the behaviors, feelings, judgments and thoughts that are different from those of the parent; and (2) changes in the parent-child relationship that facilitate increased cooperation, equality and mutuality as the child's individuality within the family becomes apparent(Mazor & Enright, 1988). The process of individuation follows a developmental pathway. Through early stages of life, the parents sustain the individual. The child requires large amounts of both physical and emotional nurturing. Around three years of age, given that the developmental process has been successfully completed, the child is able to engage in self-representation and to experience both mother and self as separate individuals, thus the earliest stages of individuation have begun (Kroger, 1997).

Individuation continues into adolescence, when changes also occur in parent-child relationships. During adolescence the child begins to loosen ties to his or her parents who previously sustained the child through earlier stages of development. Such changes seem counterproductive when considering that the child has been nourished by his or her parents to this time. Relationships outside of those provided by the parents facilitate these changes. The adolescent is now faced with new friends in school and a new

found interest in the opposite sex. The adolescent is therefore confronted with the contradicting lifestyle views of parents and of friends. A change in the form of the relationship with parents facilitates a disengagement from the internalized (infantile) view of the parent, in order to establish new attachments outside of those created within the family (Kroger, 1997).

After the adolescent has individuated sufficiently, he/she can begin to return to the parents with a more mature view of the parent. This process is called *reproachment*. Only after the adolescent has successfully gained the knowledge and independence associated with higher levels of individuation, can the adolescent view the parent as a person.

To summarize, the child begins life very dependent on his/her parents. As development proceeds to adolescence, the child finds that he/she must make changes in the relationship with his/her parents in order to accommodate a new reliance on friends outside of the family. After this disruptive period when the adolescent separates from the parent, the child progresses to a point where he/she is ready to form a new relationship with the parents. This re-formed relationship enables the child to view the parents as people.

#### Individuation and Families

Individuation, like viewing the parent as a person, is a dynamic process that involves the parents. Bartle, Anderson, and Sabatelli (1989) conducted a study on the relationships between the style of parental interactions and adolescent individuation using 10 to 19 year olds (M = 15.8). They found that scores on individuation suggested that adolescents perceived themselves to be individuated from one parental unit rather than from their mother and their father separately. Neither parent's style of interaction was related to adolescent males' level of individuation, but mothers' and fathers' parenting styles were correlated with individuation with female adolescents.

Frank, Pirsch, and Wright (1990a) examined the interrelationships among deidealization of parents, relatedness, autonomy, and insecurity in late adolescents' relationships with their parents. Frank et al. reported that 77% of their adolescent sample described themselves as having a high degree of closeness in relation to their parents. Those adolescents who viewed their mothers and fathers as more fallible, were less intensely tied to their parents. Greater individuation produced both positive and negative effects. Disengagement from parents led to feelings of greater separateness

and self-directedness, but greater disengagement was related to increased insecurity.

#### **Deidealization of Parents**

Another aspect of developmental change associated with individuation and viewing the parent as a person is *deidealization of parents*. This developmental phenomenon has been described as the most difficult problem that adolescents will face (Blos, 1967). Deidealization of parents refers to an individual's ability to remove the childish representations of an "omnipotent all-knowing parent and a questioning of previously accepted parental values and standards" (Frank, Pirsch, & Wright, 1990b p. 6). In their review of the autonomy and individuation literature, Hill and Holmbeck (1986) state that deidealization, like individuation, provides the individual with an opportunity for the development of greater separateness and self-directedness.

Frank et al. (1990b) in their study of deidealization and its relation with autonomy, relatedness, and insecurity in the parent-adolescent relationship found that among college undergraduates, deidealization predicted greater autonomy, less relatedness, and greater insecurity in their relations with their parents.

Deidealization of parents was one of the subscales in Steinberg and Silverberg's (1986) Emotional Autonomy Scale. Significant age differences occurred between grades 5 and 9 in this variable. Deidealization was the only subscale that displayed a gender difference, with girls scoring higher than boys. Steinberg and Silverberg found that the pattern of change for deidealization was similar to that for individuation and nondependency (all three increased significantly between grades 5 and 9). However, parents as people remained relatively unchanged.

Deidealization seems to be quite similar to viewing the parent as a person, although two major differences are present. 1) In viewing the parent as a person the individual must deidealize the parent, but also return to the parent for social interaction much like interaction between friends. 2) Viewing the parents as people is a dynamic process which also involves a change in the parents' relationship with the child. The parent must become more willing to accept advice, and to view the adolescent in terms of a more mature, friend-like relationship. It would appear that deidealization, like individuation, is associated with viewing parents as people.

## Current Study

The aim of this study was to identify the age at which children begin to view their parents as people, and to identify the processes which enable the adolescent to make this transition.

The following hypotheses are based on the previous discussion. (1) Individuals who see their parents as people will be more individuated than those individuals who are unable to view their parents in this way. (2) Controlling for age, the level of individuation will be a significant predictor of the level of parents as people. (3) The critical point in the individuation level during which one can see the parents as people occurs between the ages of 16 and 22.

#### CHAPTER 2

#### Method

## **Participants**

The high school age sample consisted of 33 students (14 girls and 19 boys) in grade 9 (age range = 14 and 15 years), and 34 students (19 girls and 15 boys) in grade 11 (age range = 16 and 17 years). Participants were selected from study hall classes in a metropolitan high school. The college age sample was 118 students (71 females and 47 males) ranging in age from 18 to 27 years ( $\underline{M} = 22$ ). Table 1 shows a breakdown of the number of participants at each age. High school students were eligible for a prize drawing for participating. College participants received research points for participation. These age groups were selected to span the gap in the current research literature for viewing parents as people based on the studies of Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) and the research of White, et al. (1983).

# <u>Measures</u>

<u>Demographic Questionnaire</u> – This questionnaire assessed the following information: Age, gender, marital status, adults in household, parents' marital status, and race.

Table I
Frequencies of Ages and Marital Statuses

Age	Frequency	Number of Married	Percentage Married
14	15	0	0%
15	18	0	0
16	21	0	0
17	13	0	0
18	19	0	0
19	19	1	5
20	19	0	0
21	11	1	9
22	9	0	0
23	9	0	0
24	10	1	10
25	10	3	30
26	6	2	33
27	6	3	50

Emotional Autonomy Scale (EAS) – This measure (see appendix A) of emotional autonomy developed by Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) uses a pool of 20 Likert-Scale structured items that assess four aspects of emotional autonomy: perceives parent as person, parental deidealization, nondependency on parents, and individuation. Perceives parent as a person refers to the child's ability to put him/herself in the role of the parent, while gaining an in-depth psychological perspective on the parent. Parental deidealization refers to the diminishing of childish representations of an allknowing parent, as well as a questioning of previously accepted parental values (Blos, 1967). Nondependency on parents refers to a separation from the necessity for physical and emotional support from one's parents (Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986). Individuation refers to the act of relinquishing childish dependencies from parents.

The items were presented as declarative statements which are answered on a four-point scale that ranges from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The items were constructed so that for 50% of the terms a "strongly agree" response indicates more emotional autonomy, while for the other 50% of the terms "strongly agree" reflects less emotional autonomy.

Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) report that the reliability of the entire scale using Cronbach's alpha was .75. Reliabilities for each subscale were: parents as people (six items, alpha = 61); parental deidealization (five items, alpha = .63); nondependency on parents (four items, alpha = .51); and individuation (five items, alpha = .60).

The reliability (alpha value) for the emotional autonomy scale (college sample) for the current study was .78. The subscale reliabilities were .77 for deidealization of parents, .28 for nondependency on parents, .59 for parents as people, and .49 for individuation.

A modified version of the EAS was also used for the high school students. It included the parents as people and individuation subscales. The correlation between the full scale used with college students and the reduced version was  $\underline{r} = .59$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ). The reliability (alpha value) for the modified version was .64.

The reliability levels for the subscales of the EAS appear to be low. One explanation for the low reliability is the likelihood that the EAS is measuring emotional detachment as described by Ryan and Lynch (1989). It is also possible that the low reliabilities are an artifact of the small number of items in each subscale. The parents as people subscale has 6 items,

deidealization has 5 items, non-dependency on parents has 4 items, and individuation has 5 items.

An item-total correlation was done, and it was found that items 16 (parents as people), 17 (individuation) and 20 (parents as people) all had very low correlations with the total,  $\underline{r}$ 's = .03, .002, and .08. When these items were removed, the reliabilities were changed slightly.

Psychological Separation Inventory (PSI) – This measure (see
Appendix B) developed by Hoffman (1984) assesses various aspects of
psychological separation or individuation. The inventory consists of four
scales. Functional Independence (the ability of the adolescent to manage
and direct his/her personal affairs), Emotional Independence (the freedom
that an adolescent gains from excessive need for approval, closeness,
togetherness and emotional support from one's parents), Conflictual
Independence (a freedom from excessive guilt, anxiety, mistrust, resentment
and anger towards one's parents), and Attitudinal Independence (the child's
ability to have his/her own beliefs and image separate from one's parents).

The participant rated how accurately a statement describes him or her, using a Likert-type format ranging from "not at all true of me" to "very true of me". The scales are scored by adding the ratings for each scale, and then

subtracting this number from the total number possible for each scale. A higher score reflects greater psychological separation.

In the Hoffman study (1984) the measure showed good internal consistency (coefficient alpha) across subscales (range = .84 - .92) and test – retest stability (.69 - .96). Validity was established with the Personal Adjustment Subscale of the Adjective Checklist (Gough & Heilbrun, 1980).

Due to time constraints for high school students, all of the scales had to be modified in a way to decrease the time for completing the scale. This modification was accomplished by using only the functional independence and emotional independence scales. These subscales were chosen because they appear to be indicative of the key individuation processes that occur during adolescence. All scales were given to the college students.

The reliability for the Psychological Separation Inventory (full scale with the college students) within the current study using Cronbach's alpha was .94. The subscales reliabilities were: Functional Independence from mother .88; Emotional Independence from mother .90; Conflictual independence from mother .92; and attitudinal independence from mother .89. Functional independence from the father .91; emotional independence from father .91; conflictual independence from father .89; and attitudinal

independence from father .91 (alpha).

The reduced version of the PSI (functional and emotional independence) were significantly correlated with the full version,  $\underline{r} = .89$  ( $\underline{p}$  < .01). Reliability (alpha value) for the modified scale was .96.

Family Relationships Measure (FRM) – The Family Relationships Measure (see Appendix C) is a scale adapted from the Family Relationships Interview (FRI) (White et al., 1983). The FRM was developed for the purpose of this study by extracting elements of the Family Relationships Interview that were indicative of viewing the parents as people. The measure focuses on three areas of adolescents' relations with their parents: current interaction style, communication style, and caring/concern for parents. The scale is composed of two parts that measure the three areas. Part I was adapted from the original interview form, and cast into narrative form. The second part, the scale section, uses a five point Likert-type scale with statements that are descriptive of the adolescent's relationship with his/her parents. The scale section is made up of portions of the original interview that were not included in the narrative section. The participant's answers range from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

The narrative is scored 1 to 6 on each question. The scoring system

was based on the six stages described earlier (White et al., 1989). A score of 1 means that the adolescent is functioning at a very immature stage of viewing their parents as people. At this stage the child has interactions that are sought for benefit of the child. Good interactions are typically neutral and superficial. The parents are often either "loved" or "hated". The adolescent feels that the parent has any needs. Fear for loss of love or parental disapproval is often apparent.

A score of 2 means that the child is more mature than 1 in viewing their relationship with their parents, but is still unable to view their parents as people. At this stage the parent is seen as a source for egocentric gains. A strong emphasis is given to the separateness of self from parents.

Communication is avoided whenever a difference of opinion is present. The adolescent is beginning to think about his/her own thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in communication processes. Also, they realize that the parents are trying to keep the best interests of the respondent in mind.

A score of 3 is equivalent to the Parent as Person Stage. A score of 4 is equivalent to the Child as Caregiver stage. A score of 5 is comparable to the individuated peer stage. A score of 6 is representative of the Equality as Person stage. For scoring purposes a detailed description of several

characteristics that are representative for each of the six possible stages, and a corresponding score were constructed to insure consistency (see appendix D). Inter-rater reliability (using two raters) across 30 participants in a pilot-study was .82 (p < .01) (Pearson Correlation).

The Family Relationships Measure narrative section also had to be modified to accommodate for the time frame allotted to the high school students. This reduction involved using only the current interaction and the caring/concern scales (while omitting the communication style section). These two subscales were chosen because it was felt that communication style would be evident within these two areas.

The reliability analysis for the narrative section of the Family Relationships Measure administered to the college sample was Cronbach's alpha = .88. The modified version of the narrative section administered to the high school sample consisted of the current interaction and caring/concern sections. The reliability for this measure was .60 (alpha). The correlation between the modified version and the total narrative used with the college students was  $\underline{r} = .94$ ,  $\underline{p} < .01$ .

The Family Relationships Measure scale section had a reliability of .65 (alpha). The inter-correlation between the FRM scale and narrative was

 $\underline{r}$  = .24 ( $\underline{p}$  < .01). Outliers may have been the cause for the low correlation between the scale and the narrative. There were four extreme outliers in the correlation between these two measures. When the outliers were removed, the correlation increased slightly,  $\underline{r}$  = .27 ( $\underline{p}$  < .01).

The correlation between the narrative subscales used in the modified version (caring/concern and current interaction) was  $\underline{r} = .32$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ). The correlation between the two subscales (caring/concern and current interactions) on the scale section of the Family Relationship Scale was  $\underline{r} = .42$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ).

Scale Modification – The Emotional Autonomy Scale was modified for the high school population so that only the Individuation and Parents as People subscales were included. The college sample completed those two subscales plus the Deidealization, and the Nondependency on Parents subscales. The reliability for the modified version of the EAS was Cronbach's alpha = .64.

The Psychological Separation Inventory was modified for the high school students so that only the Functional Independence and the Emotional Independence subscales were included. The college sample also completed the Attitudinal Independence and the Conflictual Independence subscales.

The reliability for the modified PSI was Cronbach's alpha = .96.

The narrative section of the Family Relationships Measure was modified for the high school students. They only completed the Caring/Concern and Current Interactions subscales. College students completed those two subscales plus the Communication Style subscale. The modified FRM narrative section had a reliability of .60 (Cronbach's alpha). The scale version of the Family Relationships Measure was not modified.

When comparisons for the entire population (college and high school) are made, the modified versions of the scales are used.

## **Procedure**

The questionnaire data was collected from the high school students in a classroom setting. The college students were administered the measures in small volunteer groups (8-10 participants). The questionnaires included a brief demographic questionnaire, and the three measures: individuation, autonomy and viewing the parent as a person. The participants were instructed to complete all of the questionnaires. They were informed of the confidentiality of the study, and were encouraged to ask questions when necessary.

# Independent and Dependent Variables

Age, gender, race, parent or other adult presently living with, and parents marital status were used as classification variables. The dependent variables consisted of: 1) Scores from the *Emotional Autonomy Scale's* four subscales: de-idealization of parents, nondependency on parents, parents as people, and individuation. 2) Scores for each of the subscales from the *Psychological Separation Inventory* representing individuation from the mother or the father. Separate scores for the mother and the father were used for each subscale. 3) Family Relationships Measure scores from the narrative form and the scale.

### CHAPTER 3

#### Results

# Correlational Analyses for the Four Scales

The means and standard deviations for the Family Relationships Measure (narrative and scale), Psychological Separation Inventory, and the Emotional Autonomy Scales can be found in Table 2. The correlations between the full and modified versions of the Family Relationships Measure narrative, Psychological Separation Inventory, and the Emotional Autonomy Scale can be found in Table 3. The modified version and the full version of the narrative section of the Family Relations Measure are correlated at a level at which each scale seems to be measuring the same factors, r = .94. The correlation, r = .89, between the adjusted and full versions of the Psychological Separation Inventory shows that the modified version is reliably measuring individuation. The adjusted and full versions of the Emotional Autonomy Scale are moderately correlated, r = .59. The low correlation may be the result of the low reliability within the subscales.

The inter-correlations between the subscales of the modified narrative section and the scale section of the Family Relationships Measure can be found in Table 4. Non-significant correlations are present between the

Table II

Means and Standard Deviations for Full and Adjusted Levels of the

Individuation and Parents as People Scales.

	Mean	S.D.
Family Relations Measure- Narrative (Full Version)	21.11	7.24
Family Relations Measure- Narrative (Modified Version)	11.25	3.78
Family Relations Measure- Scale (Full Version)	66.12	6.65
Emotional Autonomy Scale - Modified Version	29.03	4.09
Emotional Autonomy Scale - Full Version	47.14	5.98
Psychological Separation Inventory - Modified Version	163.8	40.98
Psychological Separation Inventory - Full Version	386.52	58.76

Note. The scores for the non-adjusted scales represent the college student sample only. The adjusted scores represent the entire population.

Table III

Correlations Between Full Scales and Adjusted Scales Within the College

Sample.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Scale						
1. Emotional Autonomy						
Scale (adjusted)		23 (.05)	.04	.59 (.01)	17	12
2. Family Relations Scale -						
Narrative (adjusted)			.10	.03	.94 (.00)	.21 (.03)
3. Psychological Separation						
Inventory (adjusted)				37 (.00)	.06	.89 (.00)
4. Emotional Autonomy						
Scale					.05	39 (.00)
<ol><li>Family Relations Scale - Narrative</li></ol>						.13
6. Psychological Separation Inventory						

Note. The values representing correlation between full and modified versions of the scales are in bold. Numbers in parentheses indicate p-value for significant correlations.

Caring/Concern subscales of the narrative and the scale portion. One would expect significant correlations, but the two scales are not measuring identical portions of each construct. Rather, each scale seems to be measuring distinct features of viewing parents as people. The correlation between the Current Interactions subscale of the narrative and the scale was marginally significant,  $\underline{r} = .13$  ( $\underline{p} < .09$ ). Also, the correlation between the Communication Style subscale of the narrative and the scale were significant,  $\underline{r} = .23$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ).

The inter-correlations among the subscales of the Psychological Separation Inventory can be found in Table 5. Correlations between the mother and the father for the same subscale are all significant (p < .01).

The inter-correlations among the subscales of the Emotional Autonomy Scale appear in Table 6. In order to include all four subscales, these correlations are for the full version which was given only to the college sample. Individuation and Parents as People are correlated  $\underline{r} = .31$ . Deidealization of Parents is correlated with Nondependency on Parents  $\underline{r} = .31$ .

The correlational data from the Emotional Autonomy Scale generally agree with the findings of Ryan and Lynch (1989) who reported finding

Table IV

Intercorrelations Between Subscales for the Family Relationship Scale

Narrative and Scale Sections

Subscale	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Caring/Concern - Narrative		.32 (.00)	.68 (.00)	.07	.32 (.00)	.32 (.00)
2. Current Interactions - Narrative			.56 (.00)	03	.13 (.09)	.03
3. Communication Style - Narrative				.02	.26 (.01)	.23 (.01)
4. Caring Concern - Scale					.42 (.00)	.03
5. Current Interactions - Scale						03
6. Communication Style - Scale						

Note. The values representing correlation between same subscales in the narrative and scale are in bold. Numbers in parentheses indicate p-values for significant correlations.

Table V

Inter-correlations Among the Subscales of the Psychological Separation Inventory.

Subscale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Attitudinal Independence from Father		28 (.01)	.55 (.00)	.61 (.00)	.55 (.00)	11	.29 (.01)	.33 (.00)
2. Conflictual Independence from Father			04	07	11	.44 (.00)	.13	.08
3. Emotional Independence from Father				.77 (.00)	.14	.07	.62 (.00)	.47 (.00)
4. Functional Independence from Father					.31 (.01)	.04	.49 (.00)	.60 (.00)
5. Attitudinal Independence from Mother						23 (.01)	.46 (.00)	.60 (.00)
6. Conflictual Independence from Mother							01	.02
7. Emotional Independence from Mother								.73 (.00)
8. Function Independence from Mother								

Note. Numbers in parentheses represent p-values of significant correlations.

Table VI

Inter-correlations Among the Subscales of the Emotional Autonomy Scale. 

1

Subscale	1	2	3	4
1. Deidealization of Parents	+-	24 (.01)	.34 (.00)	.12
2. Individuation			.05	.31 (.00)
3. Nondependency on Parents				.08
4. Parents as People				

Note. The significance levels for each significant correlation are given in parentheses.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Correlations are for the college sample only.

negative correlations between scores from the EAS: security in relationships, separation and individuation. Using the modified EAS, emotional autonomy was negatively correlated  $\underline{r} = -.23$  ( $\underline{p} < .005$ ) with the narrative section of the modified Family Relationships Measure (parents as people), negatively correlated  $\underline{r} = -.14$  ( $\underline{p} < .06$ ) with the scale section of the FRM, and the correlation with the adjusted PSI Scale for individuation was non-significant  $\underline{r} = .04$  ( $\underline{p} < .20$ ) (See Table 7).

The Individuation subscale of the Emotional Autonomy Scale was positively correlated with the modified Psychological Separation Inventory,  $\underline{r} = .13$  ( $\underline{p} < .06$ ). It was negatively correlated with viewing parents as people for both the scale,  $\underline{r} = -.20$ ,  $\underline{p} < .01$ , and narrative section,  $\underline{r} = -.22$ ,  $\underline{p} < .01$ , of the Family Relationship Measure. In support of Ryan and Lynch (1989), the Individuation subscale was negatively correlated,  $\underline{r} = -.37$ ,  $\underline{p} < .01$ , with age. Gender Differences

Independent sample  $\underline{t}$ -tests were used to analyze gender differences. No gender differences were found for any of the scales ( $\underline{p}$ 's < .10) (see Table 8).

Table VII

Correlations Among the Parents as People Scales and the Individuation

Scales.

Subscale	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Emotional Autonomy		0.04	.14	23	.80	34
Scale - modified			(.05)	(.005)	(.00)	(.00)
2. Psychological Separation Inventory - modified			.10	.10	.13 (.06)	.23 (.00
3. Family Relationship Measure (FRM) Scale				0.24 (.001)	20 (.01)	.30 (.00)
4. FRM Narrative - Modified					22 (.01)	.30 (.00)
5. Emotional Autonomy Scale - Individuation						37
6. Age						(.00)

Note. The sigificance levels for each significant correlation are given in parentheses.

Table VIII

Means and Standard Deviations for All Scales by Gender.

	Males		Fe	emales	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	t
PSI - modified	163.59	40.52	164.05	41.85	.07
PSI	385.63	65.02	387.11	54.69	.13
FRS - Narrative (modified)	10.74	3.48	11.65	3.97	1.64
FRS - Narrative	21.04	6.04	21.15	7.71	.08
FRS - Scale	65.88	6.27	66.31	6.95	.44
EAS - modified	29.05	4.13	29.01	4.07	.07
EAS	47.17	5.46	47.11	6.34	.05

Note. For full versions CV(t) < .05 = 1.98. For Modified versions CV(t) < .05 = 1.70.

## Racial Differences

One way ANOVAs were used to test for racial differences. No differences were found for any of the scales (p < .10) (see Table 9).

### **Marital Status**

Independent sample <u>t</u>-tests were used to analyze for marital status differences. The number of married students can be found in Table 1. As noted in Table 1, eleven percent of the college students were married. Married students scored higher ( $\underline{M} = 26.36$ ) than unmarried people ( $\underline{M} = 20.06$ ) on the full narrative section of the FRM, t(1, 112) = .62, (p < .05) and the scale section, t(1, 112) = .27, (p < .05) of the FRM ( $\underline{M} = 71.27$  and  $\underline{M} = 67.07$ ). This analysis was only done with the college population, because marital status was not a factor for high school students.

# **Individuation**

The first hypothesis, that individuals who see their parents as people will be more individuated was evaluated by performing two separate hierarchical regression analyses. Tables 10 and 11 show these analysis summaries. In the first analysis, the parents as people score from the

Table IX

Means for all Races by Each Scale.

Subscale	Caucasian	African- American	Hispanic	Asian- American	Native American	F
FRS Narrative Reduced	11.32	11.40	9.00	10.00	11.50	.42
FRS Narrative	21.42	20.20	17.00	19.40	21.00	.39
FRS Scale	66.24	64.70	60.33	65.40	74.00	1.43
PSI - Reduced	162.93	156.50	215.00	186.11	139.50	1.85
PSI	386.07	368.40	460.00	404.80	343.50	1,85
EAS - Reduced	29.24	27.00	26.33	27.80	28.50	1.18
EAS	47.33	48.10	42.33	43.40	49.50	1.14

Note. CV(F, 4, 188) p < .05 = 5.63.

Table X

Regression Summary for Individuation as Predictor of Parents as People

Using the Modified Family Relationships Measure Narrative as the

Dependent Variable.

Variable Step 1	<u>r</u>	В	SE B	Beta	t	Sig T.
Psychological Separation Inventory(Modified)	.10	.01	.006	.10	1.83	.18
Step 2						
Psychological Separation Inventory (Modified)	.10	.012	.006	.13	1.81	.07
Emotional Autonomy Scale - Individuation	23	37	.11	25	-3.4	.01

Note.  $R^2$  = for Step 1 = .01, (NS).  $R^2$  for Step 2 = .06, (NS). Change in  $R^2$  = .05 for Step 2.

Table XI

Regression Summary for Individuation as Predictor of Parents as People

Using the Parents as People Subscale from Emotional Autonomy Scale as the

Dependent Variable.

Variable Step 1	<u>r</u>	В	SE B	Beta	t	Sig T.
Psychological Separation Inventory(Modified)	.06	.004	.004	06	90	.37
Step 2						
Psychological Separation Inventory (Modified)	.06	.004	.006	11	-1.57	.11
Emotional Autonomy Scale - Individuation	.32	.34	.07	.33	4.7	.00

Note.  $R^2$  = for Step 1 = .01, (NS).  $R^2$  for Step 2 = .11, (p = .00). Change in  $R^2$  = .10 for Step 2.

modified narrative was used as the dependent variable. The modified Psychological Separation Inventory score and the individuation subscale of the Emotional Autonomy Scale were used as the independent variables for individuation. These two scores were used in combination because they seemed to represent two different aspects of individuation. The correlation between the Psychological Separation Inventory and the individuation subscale of the Emotional Autonomy Scale was significant, r = .13 (p < .06) The subscale from the EAS appears to be tapping into the autonomy aspect of individuation, whereas the PSI is measuring functional and emotional independence. A hierarchical regression analysis was used to determine if one factor was a stronger predictor than the other. Individuation was a not a significant predictor of the level of Parents as People (See Table 10). Although the R<sup>2</sup> was not significant, the Beta value for the emotional autonomy scale was significant and negative. This value could be caused by the reliability and validity problems within the Emotional Autonomy Scale. In the second analysis (See Table 11) the Parents as People subscale from the Emotional Autonomy Scale was used as the dependent variable, and the modified Psychological Separation Inventory score and the Individuation subscale of the Emotional Autonomy Scale were the independent variables.

In this analysis individuation was a significant predictor of parents as people (p < .01).

The second hypothesis stated that individuation would be a significant predictor of the level of parents as a person, while controlling for age. A hierarchical regression analysis was used to examine the contribution of individuation above and beyond age. The modified FRM score was used as the measure for Parents as People score. Age was entered in the first step, while the modified PSI score and the individuation subscale from the Emotional Autonomy Scale were entered in the next steps. The regression summary appears in Table 12. In this analysis it appears that when controlling for age, individuation is not a significant predictor of parents as people. A second hierarchical regression analysis was done using the Parents as People subscale of the Emotional Autonomy Scale as the dependent variable. Age was entered in the first step, and the Psychological Separation Inventory and the individuation subscale from the Emotional Autonomy Scale were entered next. The regression summary appears in Table 13. In this analysis, with age controlled, individuation from the PSI is not a significant predictor of the level at which one views his/her parents as people. Individuation from the Emotional Autonomy Scale was significant

Table XII

Regression Summary for Individuation as Predictor of Parents as People

Using the Modified Family Relationships Measure Narrative as the

Dependent Variable (Controlling for Age).

Variable	r	В	SE B	Beta	t	Sig T.
Step 1	<u></u>		OL D	Dota	<u></u>	<del></del>
Age	.53	.57	.07	.54	8.60	.00
Step 2						
Age	.53	.56	.08	.53	7.48	.00
PSI - Modified	.10	01	.01	02	40	.69
Step 3						
Age	.53	.56	.08	.53	7.48	.00
PSI - Modified	.10	.00	.01	02	28	.78
EAS - Individuation	23	04	11	03	41	.68

Note.  $R^2 = .29$  for Step 1; Change in  $R^2 = .00$  for Step 2 (p > .20).  $R^2 = .29$  for Step 2; Change in  $R^2 = .00$  for Step 3.  $R^2 = .29$  for Step 3.

Table XIII

Regression Summary for Individuation as Predictor of Parents as People

Using the Emotional Autonomy Scale's Parents as People Subscale as

Dependent Variable(Controlling for Age).

Variable	r	В	SE B	Beta t	Sig T.
Step 1					
Age	14	14	.05	18 -2.61	.01
Step 2					
Age	14	04	.06	0566	.51
PSI - Modified	.13	.00	.01	0233	.74
Step 3					
Age	14	04	.06	0566	.51
PSI - Modified	.13	01	.00	10 -1.29	.20
EAS - Individuation  Note $R^2 = 04$ for Step	.32	.32	.08	$\frac{.31}{R^2} = 04 \text{ for}$	.00

Note.  $R^2 = .04$  for Step 1; Change in  $R^2 = .00$  for Step 2.  $R^2 = .04$  for Step 2; Change in  $R^2 = .06$  for Step 3.  $R^2 = .10$  for Step 3.

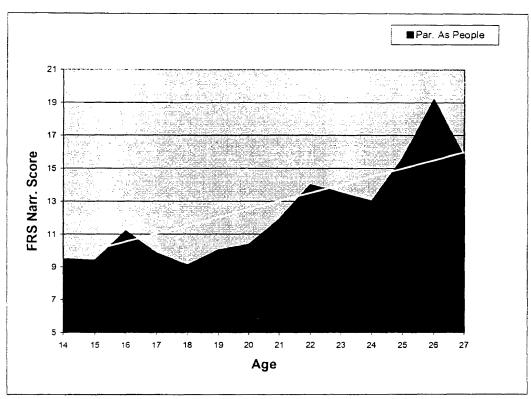
 $(\beta = .31, p < .00)$ . When adding the individuation scales, age became non-significant. These discrepant findings reflect the reliability and validity problems that were present within the Emotional Autonomy Scale.

# **Developmental Analyses**

# Parents as People

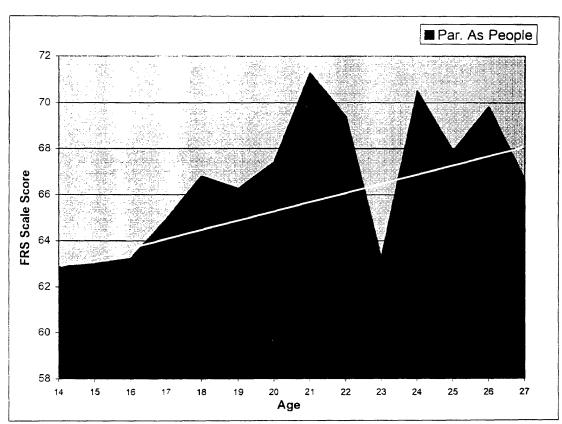
The third hypothesis predicted that a critical age between 16 and 22 could be identified when individuals began to see their parents as people. A one-way ANOVA, using age as the independent variable, and parents as people scores from the FRM narrative sections, showed a significant age difference F (13, 171) = 9.15 (p < .01). The ANOVA was used to identify the ages at which significant increases in viewing the parents as people were present. Mean comparisons using Tukey B revealed age significant increases from the preceding age in the score on the FRM narrative at ages 21 (p < .05), 22 (p < .001), 25 (p < .01), and 26 (p < .01) (see Figures 1 and 2) the scores were greater than at the preceding age. The score at age 21 was greater than 20, the score at age 22 was greater than 21, the score at age 25 was greater than at age 24, and the score at age 26 was greater than at 25.

A significant correlation was found between age and parents as people for both the narrative section of the Family Relationships Measure ( $\underline{r} = .54$ ,  $\underline{p}$ 



<u>Figure 1.</u> Overall Modified Family Relations Measure Narrative score as a function of age.

Note. The white line represents the estimate of a best fitting regression line



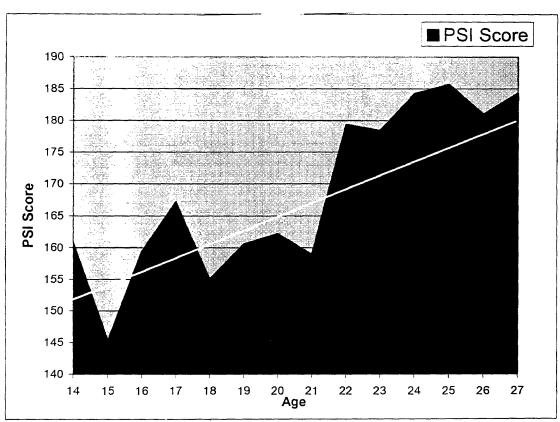
<u>Figure 2</u>. Overall Family Relations Measure Scale Score as a function of age.

Note. The white line represents the estimate of a best fitting regression line

< .01) (see Figure 1), and the scale ( $\underline{r}$  = .30,  $\underline{p}$  < .01) (see Figure 2).

Among the subscales for the narrative section of the Family Relationships Measure the Caring/Concern Scale,  $\underline{r} = .61$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ), and the Current Interaction Style  $\underline{r} = .28$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ) were correlated with age. For the scale section of the Family Relationships Measure the correlation between Current Interaction Style and age was  $\underline{r} = .34$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ).

The adjusted PSI score was correlated with age,  $\underline{r} = .23$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ) (see Figure 3). Also the subscales of Functional Independence from Mother,  $\underline{r} = .34$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ) and Conflictual Independence from Mother  $\underline{r} = .24$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ) were correlated with age. Functional Independence from Father,  $\underline{r} = .26$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ), and Conflictual Independence from Father,  $\underline{r} = .20$  ( $\underline{p} < .05$ ) were correlated with age.



<u>Figure 3.</u> Overall Psychological Separation Inventory score as a function of age. <u>Note.</u> The white line represents the estimate of a best fitting regression line.

#### CHAPTER 4

# Discussion

If the Parents as People subscale of the Emotional Autonomy Scale is used as the dependent variable, individuation measured by the individuation subscale of the EAS and the PSI is a predictor of parents as people. When using the narrative section of the Family Relationships Scale as the dependent variable, and the same predictors for individuation, then individuation is no longer a predictor of children viewing parents as people. There are three possible reasons for this discrepancy.

First, as described by Ryan and Lynch (1989), it appears that the Emotional Autonomy Scale is measuring emotional detachment, and not autonomy. Negative correlations were found in the current study between Parents as People from the EAS and individuation as measured by the Psychological Separation inventory. Also, there was a negative correlation between Parents as People as measured by the Family Relationship Measure narrative and individuation as measured by the Emotional Autonomy Scale. This pattern is similar to the findings of Ryan and Lynch, who reported that there were negative correlations between the Emotional Autonomy Scale and scales for individuation, and negative correlations between the Parents

as People subscale and individuation.

Secondly, it appears that individuation and viewing parents as people are related, but they are also developmental processes that are both associated with age. This relational pattern is seen in the low correlation,  $\underline{r} = .10$ ,  $\underline{p} < .15$ , between individuation and parents as people, using the FRM narrative and the PSI, and the high correlation between these scales and age. Santrock (1999) describes how age affects viewing parents differently. He states that during the time of early adulthood a mutual respect develops between parent and child. In this new relationship the young adult learns to appreciate parents as they are.

Third, the Emotional Autonomy Scale showed questionable reliability and validity. The scale seems to be measuring emotional detachment — which is the opposite role of autonomy and attachment. Therefore, the predictability of parents as people from individuation using the Emotional Autonomy Scale is also questionable.

When age is controlled, individuation is not a predictor of the level of viewing parents as people. Age was highly correlated with both individuation (PSI) and with viewing the parents as people (FRS). The age analysis showed that around age 21 the individual begins to view his/her

parents as people. Why is 21 an age when individuals begin to view their parents as people? First, by age 21 most of the participants in the study were well into their college years. Santrock (1999) describes the importance of college life in forming new views of the parents. The young adults start to feel more "grown up", and they have more adult-like views of their parents. Also, by age 21 many individuals are starting to hold down steady jobs. In joining the workforce, these individuals begin to share similarities with their parents that may not have been present previously. Marriage is also a factor that can facilitate viewing one's parents as people, as observed in this study. At age 21 many young adults are planning or in a marriage. In the current study 17 percent of the students older than 21 years were married. According to Santrock (1999), marriage creates a new system, the marital pair. The marital pair is a union not of two people, but a union of two family systems. Developing a new family system, which is different from the parent-child system of which the young adult was a member, enables the young adult to develop insights about parents that were not previously accessible.

# **Individuation**

The reproachment phase of individuation is that point when the individual can begin to return to his/her parents with a more mature view of

them. The reproachment phase in this study appeared to occur at about age 21 (See Figure 3). At this age a dramatic increase occurred in the ability of individuals to view their parents as people.

The level of individuation remained relatively stable across the high school sample, with the exception of a decrease at age 15. Individuation is more apparent at age 21. This pattern appears to be similar to the view of Kroger (1997) who stated that individuation is a process that occurs in late adolescence/early adulthood. Kroger felt that individuals are *beginning* to form new attachments outside of the family at this time.

### Developmental Pattern for Parents as People

The present data on viewing parents as people is consistent with the findings of White, et al. (1983) and Steinberg and Silverberg (1986).

According to Steinberg and Silverberg, the level at which an adolescent views his/her parents as people remains relatively low and unchanged during the high school years (late adolescence). The age data in this study support that assertion. By age 21 the young adults' ability to view their parents as people begins an upward trend. Individuation does appear to be a predictor of level of parents as people, but only when age effects are not controlled. It appears likely that these two developmental processes share a similar

ontological mechanism. This view is supported by the finding that both individuation and parents as people are significantly correlated with age, but not highly correlated with each other.

Moore (1987) examined the construct of individuation in late adolescents. Some of these constructs may be important in viewing parents as people. Moore identified eight factors that early adult college students considered to be important in their separation from their parents: self-governance, emotional detachment, financial independence, separate residence, disengagement, school affiliation, starting a family, and graduation. Students identified self-governance, and separate residence as the most important of these factors. Self-governance is important because of the child gains the ability to rely on him/herself to regulate his/her behaviors and actions. A separate residence is important because the child gets away from the parents' physical environment and is able to look at the parents' home with new insight.

Consistent with White et al. (1983) the data showed that at age 21 individuals' ability to view their parents as people increases significantly.

Individuation also increases significantly at this age (see figure 3). Married young adults tend to score higher than their unmarried cohorts on the Family

Relationships Measure. White et al. argue that different socialization milestones, such as marriage, make the understanding of others' perspectives a more valued achievement. For example, once a child gets married, then he/she is able to look at his own parents in a different way because of they have now shared similar milestones.

## Family Relationships Measure

Some problems seem to be present with the scale section of the Family Relationships Measure. The scale section was correlated  $\underline{r} = .24$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ) with the narrative section. After removing the extreme outliers, the correlation between the scale section and the narrative section was  $\underline{r} = .27$  ( $\underline{p} < .01$ ). Although the two measures are significantly correlated, one would expect higher correlations. One possible explanation for the low correlation is that the scales were not measuring the same information. Each scale was developed from different sections of the Family Relations Interview (White et al., 1983), which may be a factor. Given the concerns about the scale, more confidence can be placed in the scores from the narrative section because this measure had higher reliability (alpha = .88) than the scale (alpha = .65).

# Strengths of the Study

The most obvious strength of the current study is the contribution that it gives to the developmental literature. It was found that at age 21 the ability to view one's parents as people begins to increase significantly.

The concerns with the Emotional Autonomy Scale could be viewed as a strength or a limitation. The scale has received scrutiny in other research (ex. Ryan and Lynch, 1989). The current study shows further evidence that the EAS may not be a reliable or valid measure for autonomy.

Lastly, the research presents findings regarding the relation between individuation and viewing the parents as people. Although, when using individuation, the predictability of viewing parents as people was low. There appears to be a developmental relationship between the two factors.

# **Limitations**

One problem that arose during the study was the lack of reliability for the subscales of the Emotional Autonomy Scale. The validity of these subscales is also questionable when compared to the Psychological Separation Inventory and the Family Relations Measure. The reliability and apparent validity problems support the argument of Ryan and Lynch (1989) that the Emotional Autonomy Scale is measuring detachment. Therefore one

would expect that the Emotional Autonomy Scale would be negatively correlated with parents as people and individuation if these processes occur in normally functioning families. Because questions of validity and reliability were present, most analyses using the Emotional Autonomy Scale were avoided.

A second limitation relates to the high school sample. The sample was from a parochial high school. This sample may be somewhat unrepresentative of the general population for this grade.

### Directions for Future Research

Future research should focus on some of the underlying factors that influence both viewing parents as people and individuation. The present study supports the idea that some factors are common to both. These factors may include: de-idealization of parents, marriage, employment and age.

Also future research should focus on the Emotional Autonomy Scale and the problems that have been associated with it. Ryan and Lynch (1989) found similar problems with this scale. If problems are consistent it is possible that the EAS should not be considered a valid scale for Emotional Autonomy.

# Conclusion

Individuation and viewing parents as people seem to be related developmental processes which do not necessarily predict each other.

Developmentally, milestones such as marriage and attending college seem to lead to changes in both individuation (Santrock, 1999) and parents as people. The present study showed that at age 21 large changes in both individuation and viewing the parents as people occur. Little research has been done regarding the phenomena of viewing the parents as people. This study has introduced some areas for future research.

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#### **EAS**

INSTRUCTIONS: The following list of statements describes different aspects of students' relationship with their parents. Imagine a scale ranging from 1 to 4 that tells how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement. In the space next to the statement, please enter a number from "1" (strongly agree) to "4" (stronglydisagree). Please be completely honest. Your answers are entirely confidential and will be useful only if they accurately describe you.

Strongly Agree 1	Moderately Agree 2	Moderately Disagree 3	Strongly Disagree 4
1. My parents	and I agree on everythin	ng. (- D)	
2. I go to my	parents for help before tr	rying to solve a problem my	rself. (- N)
3. I have ofter	n wondered how my pare	ents act when I'm not aroun	d. (+ P)
4. Even when	my parents and I disagre	ee, my parents are always ri	ght. (- D)
5. It's better for some things		t friend than to their parents	for advice on
6. When I've out for me.	<u> </u>	I depend on my parents to s	traighten things
7. There are se	ome things about me tha	t my parents don't know. (+	- I)
8. My parents they do at h		ey are with their own parents	s from the way
9. My parents	know everything there i	s to know about me. (- I)	
10. I might be	surprised to see how my	parents act at a party. (+ P)	)
ll. I try to have	e the same opinions as r	my parents. (- D)	
	are at work, my parents thome. (- P)	act pretty much the same w	vay they do when
	ving a problem with one father before deciding w	of my friends, I would disc hat to do about it. (- N)	cuss it with my
14. My parent	s would be surprised to k	cnow what I'm like when I'	m not with

Strongly Agree 1	Moderately Agre	e Moderately Disagree 3	Strongly Disagree 4
	ecome a parent, I'm garents have treated m	going to treat my children exe e. (- D)	actly the same way
	ts probably talk abou about when I'm not a	t different things when I am round. (+ P)	around from what
	things that I will do parent. (+ I)	differently from my mother a	and father when I
18. My paren	ts hardly ever make 1	nistakes. (- D)	
19. I wish my	parents would under	rstand who I really am. (+ I)	
	ts act pretty much the hen they are at home	e same way when they are with me. (- P)	th their friends as
P = Perceives Pare	ents as People D	= Parent Deidealization	
N = Nondependen	cy on Parents I	= Individuation	

INSTRUCTIONS: The following list of statements describes different aspects of students' relationship with both their mother and father. Imagine a scale ranging from 1 to 5 that tells how well each statement applies to you. In the space next to the statement, please enter a number from "1" (Not at all true of me) to "5" (Very true of me). If the statement does not apply enter "1". Please be completely honest. Your answers are entirely confidential and will be useful only if they accurately describe you.

Not at all Moderately Ouite a bit Very

Not at all true of me 1	A little bit true of me 2	Moderately true of me 3	Quite a bit true of me 4	Very true of me 5
1.	I like to show my frie	nds pictures of my moth	her. (E)	
2.	Sometimes my mothe	r is a burden to me. (C)		
3.	I feel longing if I am	away from my mother to	oo long. (E)	
4.	My ideas regarding ra	cial equality are similar	r to my mother's. (A)	
5.	My mother's wishes h	ave influenced my sele	ection of friends. (F)	
6.	I feel like I am consta	ntly at war with my mo	ther. (C)	
7.	I blame my mother fo	r many of the problems	I have. (C)	
8.	I wish I could trust my	y mother more. (C)		
9.	When I am in difficul	ty I usually call upon m	y mother to help me o	ut of trouble. (A)
10.	When I am in difficul	ty I usually call upon m	y mother to help me o	ut of trouble. (F)
11.	My mother is the mos	t important person in th	e world to me. (E)	
12.	I have to be careful no	ot to hurt my mother's f	eelings. (C)	
13.	I wish that my mother	lived nearer so I could	visit her more frequen	itly. (E)
14.	My opinions regardin	g the role of women are	similar to my mother	's. (A)
15.	I often ask my mother	to assist me in solving	my personal problems	. (F)
16.	I sometimes feel like	I'm being punished by r	my mother. (C)	
17.	Being away from my	mother makes me feel l	onely. (E)	
18.	I wish my mother was	n't so overprotective. (	C)	
19.	My opinions regardin	g the role of men are sin	milar to my mother's.	(A)
20.	I wouldn't make a ma	jor purchase without m	y mother's approval. (	F)
21.	I wish my mother wor	ıldn't try to manipulate	me. (C)	
22.	I wish my mother wor	ıldn't try to make fun o	f me. (C)	
23.	I sometimes call home	e just to hear my mother	r's voice. (E)	
24.	My religious beliefs a	re similar to my mother	r's. (A)	
25.	My mother's wishes h	nave influenced my cho	ice of major at school.	(F)

Not at all true of me 1	A little bit true of me 2	Moderately true of me 3	Quite a bit true of me 4	Very true of me 5
26.	I feel that I have obligate	tions to my mother that	I wish I didn't have. (	(C)
27.	My mother expects too	much from me. (C)		
28.	I wish I could stop lying	g to my mother. (C)		
29.	My beliefs regarding ho	ow to raise children are	similar to my mother'	s. (A)
30.	My mother helps me to	make my budget. (F)		
31.	While I am home on a v	acation I like to spend	most of my time with	my mother. (E)
32.	I often wish that my mo	other would treat me mo	ore like an adult. (C)	
33.	After being with my mo	other for a vacation, I fi	and it difficult to leave	her. (E)
34.	My values regarding ho	nesty are similar to my	mother's (A)	
35.	I generally consult with	my mother when I ma	ke plans for an out of t	town weekend. (F)
36.	I am often angry at my	mother. (C)		
37.	I like to hug and kiss m	y mother. (E)		
38.	I hate it when my mother	er makes suggestions al	bout what I do. (C)	
39.	My attitudes about solit	ude are similar to my n	nother's. (A)	
40.	I consult with my mother	er when deciding about	part-time employmen	t. (F)
41.	I decide what to do acco	ording to whether my n	nother will approve it.	(E)
42.	Even when my mother l	has a good idea I refuse	e to listen to it because	she made it. (C)
43.	When I do poorly in sch	nool I feel I'm letting m	ry mother down. (E)	
44.	My attitudes regarding	environmental protection	on are similar to my m	other's. (A)
45.	I ask my mother what to	o do when I get into a to	ough situation. (F)	
46.	I wish my mother would	dn't try to get me to tak	te sides with her. (C)	
47.	My mother is my best fi	riend. (E)		
48.	I argue with my mother	over little things. (C)		
49.	My beliefs about how the	he world began are sim	ilar to my mother's. (A	<b>A</b> )
50.	I do what my mother de	ecides on most question	is that come up. (F)	

Very

Not at all

A little bit

true of me	true of me	true of me	true of me	true of me
1	2	3	4	5
51.	I seem to be closer to m	ny mother than most pe	eople my age. (E)	
52.	My mother is sometime	es a source of embarras	ssment to me. (C)	
53.	Sometimes I think I am	too dependent on my	mother. (E)	
54.	My beliefs about what l	happens to people whe	en they die are similar t	to my mother's. (A)
55.	I ask for my mother's a	dvise when I am plann	ing my vacation time.	(F)
56.	I am sometimes ashame	ed of my mother. (C)		
57.	I care too much about n	ny mother's reactions.	(E)	
58.	I get angry when my me	other criticizes me. (C)	)	
59.	My attitudes regarding	sex are similar to my n	nother's. (A)	
60.	I like to have my mothe	er help me pick out the	clothing I buy for spec	cial occasions. (F)
61.	I sometimes feel like an	extension of my moth	ner. (E)	
62.	When I don't write my	mother often enough I	feel guilty. (C)	
63.	I feel uncomfortable ke	eping things from my	mother. (C)	
64.	My attitudes regarding	national defense are si	milar to my mother's.	(A)
65.	I call my mother whene	ver anything goes wro	ng. (F)	
66.	I often have to make de	cisions for my mother.	. (C)	
67.	I'm not sure I could ma	ke it in life without my	y mother. (E)	
68.	I sometimes resent it wh	hen my mother tells m	e what to do. (C)	
69.	My attitude regarding n	nentally ill people are s	similar to my mother's	. (A)
70.	I like to show my friend	ls pictures of my father	r. (E)	
71.	Sometimes my father is	a burden to me. (C)		
72.	I feel longing if I am av	vay from my father too	long. (E)	
73.	My ideas regarding raci	al equality are similar	to my father's (A)	
74.	My father's wishes have	e influenced my select	ion of friends. (F)	
75.	I feel like I am constant	ly at war with my fath	er. (C)	

Moderately

Quite a bit

Not at all true of me 1	A little bit true of me	Moderately true of me 3	Quite a bit true of me 4	Very true of me 5
76.	I blame my father for n	nany of the problems I h	nave. (C)	
77.	I wish I could trust my	father more. (C)		
78.	When I am in difficulty	/ I usually call upon my	father to help me out	trouble. (A)
79.	When I am in difficulty	/ I usually call upon my	father to help me out	of trouble. (F)
80.	My father is the most in	mportant person in the v	world to me. (E)	
81.	I have to be careful not	to hurt my father's feel	lings. (C)	
82.	I wish that my father li	ved nearer so I could vi	sit her more frequently	r. (E)
83.	My opinions regarding	the role of women are s	similar to my father's.	(A)
84.	I often ask my father to	assist me in solving m	y personal problems. (l	F)
85.	I sometimes feel like I'	m being punished by m	y father. (C)	
86.	Being away from my fa	ather makes me feel lon	ely. (E)	
87.	I wish my father wasn'	t so overprotective. (C)		
88.	My opinions regarding	the role of men are sim	ilar to my father's. (A)	•
89.	I wouldn't make a majo	or purchase without my	father's approval. (F)	
90.	I wish my father would	n't try to manipulate me	e. (C)	
91.	I wish my father would	n't try to make fun of n	ne. (C)	
92.	I sometimes call home	just to hear my father's	voice. (E)	
93.	My religious beliefs are	e similar to my father's.	(A)	
94.	My father's wishes have	e influenced my choice	of major at school. (F	)
95.	I feel that I have obliga	tions to my father that I	wish I didn't have. (C	)
96.	My father expects too r	nuch from me. (C)		
97.	I wish I could stop lyin	g to my father. (C)		
98.	My beliefs regarding he	ow to raise children are	similar to my father's.	(A)
99.	My father helps me to	make my budget. (F)		
100.	While I am home on a	vacation I like to spend	most of my time with	my father. (E)

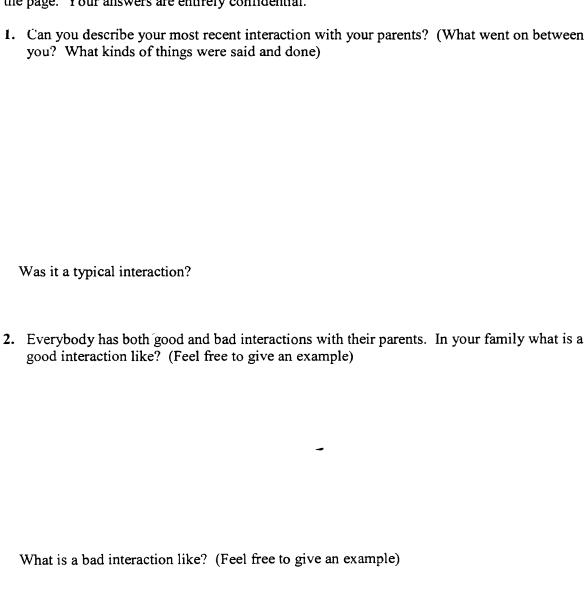
Not at all true of me 1	A little bit true of me 2	Moderately true of me 3	Quite a bit true of me 4	Very true of me 5
101.	I often wish that my fath	er would treat me mo	re like an adult. (C)	
102.	After being with my fath	er for a vacation, I fin	d it difficult to leave h	er. (E)
103.	My values regarding hor	esty are similar to my	father's (A)	
104.	I generally consult with	my father when I mak	e plans for an out of to	wn weekend. (F)
105.	I am often angry at my fa	ather. (C)		
106.	I like to hug and kiss my	father. (E)		
107.	I hate it when my father	makes suggestions abo	out what I do. (C)	
108.	My attitudes about solitu	de are similar to my f	ather's. (A)	
109.	I consult with my father	when deciding about p	part-time employment.	(F)
110.	I decide what to do accor	rding to whether my fa	ather will approve it. (I	Ξ)
111.	Even when my father has	s a good idea I refuse	to listen to it because s	he made it. (C)
112.	When I do poorly in scho	ool I feel I'm letting m	y father down. (E)	
113.	My attitudes regarding en	nvironmental protection	on are similar to my fat	ther's. (A)
114.	I ask my father what to d	lo when I get into a to	ugh situation. (F)	
115.	I wish my father wouldn	't try to get me to take	sides with her. (C)	
116.	My father is my best frie	nd. (E)		
117.	I argue with my father ov	ver little things. (C)		
118.	My beliefs about how the	e world began are sim	ilar to my father's. (A)	
119.	I do what my father decid	des on most questions	that come up. (F)	
120.	I seem to be closer to my	father than most peop	ple my age. (E)	
121.	My father is sometimes a	a source of embarrassr	ment to me. (C)	
122.	Sometimes I think I am t	oo dependent on my f	ather. (E)	
123.	My beliefs about what ha	appens to people wher	they die are similar to	my father's. (A)
124.	I ask for my father's adv	ise when I am plannin	g my vacation time. (F	")
125.	I am sometimes ashamed	of my father. (C)		

71

Not at all true of me 1	A little bit true of me 2	true	erately of me 3	Quite a true of 4		Very true of me 5
126.	I care too much abo	ut my father's	reactions. (E)			
127.	I get angry when my	y father criticiz	es me. (C)			
128.	My attitudes regardi	ing sex are sim	ilar to my fath	er's. (A)		
129.	I like to have my fat	her help me pi	ck out the clot	hing I buy	for special oc	casions. (F)
130.	I sometimes feel like	e an extension	of my father. (	(E)		
131.	When I don't write	my father often	enough I feel	guilty. (C)	)	
132.	I feel uncomfortable	keeping thing	s from my fath	ner. (C)		
133.	My attitudes regardi	ng national de	fense are simil	ar to my fa	ther's. (A)	
134.	I call my father whe	never anything	goes wrong.	(F)		
135.	I often have to make	decisions for	my father. (C)			
136.	I'm not sure I could	make it in life	without my fa	ther. (E)		
137.	I sometimes resent i	t when my fath	er tells me wh	at to do. (0	C)	
138.	My attitude regardir	ig mentally ill	people are sim	ilar to my	father's. (A)	
F = Functiona	ıl Independence	E = Emotiona	al Independen	ce :	Mother Scales	s = 1 - 69
C = Conflictu	al Independence	A = Attitudir	nal Independen	ice :	Father Scales	= 70 - 138
Total Scores I	Possible: F = 65	E = 85	C = 125	A = 70		

# Family Relationship Measure

<u>INSTRUCTIONS</u>: The following questions assess various aspects of students' relationship with their parents. Answer these questions in as much detail as possible, but do not feel as though you must fill all space provided. If you run out of room, continue writing on the back of the page. Your answers are entirely confidential.



3.	It is not unusual for people to have differences of opinion. Frequently there are differences of opinion over many issues within families. Please relate any issues about which you and your parents <u>currently have differences of opinion</u> ?
4.	What kinds of issues did you differ over in the past?
In ;	general, how did these past differences get dealt with?
5.	In general how do you handle your <u>current differences of opinion</u> ?

6.	Why do you deal with differences of opinion the way you described?
7.	How do you respond to getting advice from your parents? (Give an example if possible)
	Why do you respond in this manner?
8.	How do your parents respond to getting advice from you? (Give an example if possible)
Wł	ny do you think they respond in this manner?

Strongly Disagree

5

Strongly Agree

1

<u>INSTRUCTIONS</u>: The following list of statements describes different aspects of your relationship with your parents. Imagine a scale ranging from 1 to 5 that tells how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement. In the space next to the statement, please enter a number from "1" if you Strongly Agree to "5" if you Strongly Disagree.

Undecided

3

Disagree

4

Agree

 1.	My interactions with my parents have changed over time.
 2.	My parents are accepting of the advice that I give.
 3.	There are differences between my mother and father and the kinds of differences of opinion I have with them and the way these get handled.
 4.	I play a major role in the caretaking process.
 5.	When there are differences of opinion, I feel that my parents are accepting of my ideas.
 6.	The caretaking situation has changed so that my parents now take greater care of me than in the past.
 7.	I do more caretaking for my parents than they do for me.
 8.	Over time, my parents' view of me has changed.
 9.	When there are differences of opinion, I am accepting of my parents' ideas.
 10.	My parents give me advice frequently.
 11.	My parents give me more advice than they did in the past.
 12.	I think my parents do a good job of taking care of me.
 13.	There have been specific events such as divorce, marriage, birth or death in my family that have changed the nature of my interactions with my parents.
 14.	I am accepting of the advice that my parents give.
 15.	When there are differences of opinion, my feelings can be seen in my behavior towards my parents.
16.	Over time, my view of my parents has changed.

 17. I give my parents advice frequently.
 18. In the future, I feel that my parents will play less of a role as caretaker.
 19. Over time, the advice-giving situation between my parents and me has changed.
20. In my relationship with my parents, I take care of my parents.

## SCORING GUIDE FOR FAMILY RELATIONSHIP MEASURE

#### **Current Interaction Style**

#### College Sample Questions 1, 2a, and 2b

H.S. Sample Questions 1, 2a, 2b

- 1 = affect parents are loved or hated
  - = emotional simple, rather than complex. Immediate and reactive rather than mediated.
  - = behaviors interactions are sought for benefit.
  - = Good interactions are typically superficial and neutral or fun.
  - = Bad interaction come when parents criticize or try to dominate the child, or fail to behave as desired.
- 2 = parent is seen as a source for egocentric gains.
  - = strong emphasis given to separeteness of self from parents
  - = strong focus given to the fact that the child is "grown up"
  - = many "I" statements.
  - = interactions show behavioral conflicts
  - = words such as "respect" and "empathy" are used or implied.
- 3 = increased focus on own contribution to parent-child relationship
  - = no perspective on parents as separate adult.
  - = adult-like relationship, but can't see parent as person
  - = change of opinion is apparent about a stance that was taken at a younger age.
  - = often gives attention to parents' child-rearing practices
  - = shows ability to understand the parents' position
- 4 = superficial ability to see parent as people (lives of their own, mistakes, problems)
  - = psychological view of the parents beyond psychological or affective description
  - = able to look back in time to view the parent in his/her parent role
- 5 = can put him/herself in the parents' shoes and see things through their eyes
  - = a clear change is observed in how the respondent viewed the parent over time
  - = human aspect of parent is described in more complexity than stage 4.
  - = able to empathize with current life situations of parents.
  - = acknowledgment of earlier self-focused orientation.
- 6 = acknowledgment of the interactive quality of the relationship
  - = insight into how the parent's personality has influenced the relationship
  - = accepts the parents' faults, and expects the parents to accept the child's shortcomings.

## **Differences of Opinion**

# **Communication Style**

## College Sample Questions 3, 4, 5, 6

H.S. Sample Questions 3,4

- 1 = very protective may not admit to existence of differences of opinion
- = describe themselves as not listening to parents and parents as not listening to them
- = some may be very vocal in their opinions, but won't listen to parents
- = communication is not valued as a relationship process for mutual understanding
- = communication is often characterized by arguments and frustration or anger
- = respondent's self-focus dominates the communicative goals
- = respondent avoids discussing differences of opinions on a wide range of areas in order to protect his/herself.
- = respondent feels that the parent has little worth value to communicate
- = little concern is given to the needs of the parent as a listener
- = fear for loss of love or parental disapproval may be apparent
- 2 = communication is limited and avoided whenever a difference of opinion is present
- = respondent is preoccupied with proving that he/she has a mind of his/her own
- = beginning to think about their own thoughts, feelings and behaviors in communication process.
- = still overwhelmed by impatience and frustration when they can't have their way, but show greater tolerance than stage 1.
- = beginning to recognize that parents are trying to keep the best interests of the respondent in mind.
- = lack of adult-like mutuality is evident and often attributed to parent behavior, but a sense of regret for this mutuality is often expressed.
- 3 = value is placed on talking about things, but discussions are limited to civil exchanges
  - = heated arguments are avoided because the respondent thinks the parent will not change his or her point of view.
  - = are generally free of a win-loss approach to communication.
  - = tolerate differences of opinion and the offering of advice on some occasions.
  - = acknowledge that they were formerly more set on demonstrating their own independence.
  - = actively involved in understanding "where their parents are coming from".
  - = greater tolerance of parental opinions than previous levels, and little concern for proving the parent wrong, but a dismissing of parental values.
  - = behavior may be guided by role expectations.
- 4 = the relationship is examined in terms of listening and responding
  - = the respondent talks in terms of roles and statuses with an emphasis on his/her grown up status.

- = emphasis is placed on the newness of the type of communication, but still aware of the reality of the parent-child relationship.
- 5 = parents are treated like individuals in their own right, and are worthy of the consideration that goes with mature talking and listening.
  - = awareness of the parent-child relationship intrudes less on the communication process
  - = conversations sound more like mature peers than family members
- 6 = communications reflect a balance of talking, listening, initiating, and responding sensitively even in regard to very intimate issues.
  - = real willingness exists to deal with differences of opinion
  - = faith in the fact that dealing with differences of opinion will strengthen the relationship

## **Advice Giving**

## Caring/Concern

## College Sample Questions 7, 8

H.S. Sample Questions 5, 6

- 1 = a lack of acknowledgment that the parent is a relationship partner, or the child is so fused with the parent that there is no capacity to see the self as separate
  - = no recognition of the possible interactive quality of caring
  - = show a lack of affective quality in their relationship with their parents
  - = dismissal of the existence of a caring relationship with the parents
  - = emphasizing how independent everyone in the family is
  - = tend to take caring by the parents for granted (ex. giving money)
  - = the lack of ability to convey thoughts, behaviors, and feelings that characterize it
- 2 = individual makes a little more of an effort to understand how caretaking is expressed with the parents.
  - = an acknowledgment of the interactive quality of the caretaking
  - = still a negative flavor to the response, reflecting limited caring and concern
  - = the caretaking that goes on between parent and respondent is often deliberately limited by the young adult.
  - = beginning to understand that they need less caring in their relationship and gaining in more positive ways.
  - = understand the need to be more independent, but still show strong positive affect
  - = caretaking does not include discussion of psychological dimensions
  - = the individual shows some evidence of moving towards greater tolerance of parental caretaking behavior and some reciprocation
  - = feels that starting one's own home means a reduction in emotional expressions of care
  - = claims that he or his parents behave in ways that show concern
  - = show conventional ways of showing caring/concern (ex. writing home, phoning)

- 3 = responses tend to reflect roles that are expected of daughters or sons
  - = separation/individuation themes are strong
  - = tend to think that there is not much caretaking going on in either direction
  - = generally make positive statements about the emotional aspects of caring
  - = indicate that they can give, as well as receive
  - = will not go out of way to care for parents, but will conform to expectations
  - = respondents are quite aware of the individuation/separation process that they have been experiencing
- 4 = care is governed by roles and generalized role expectations
  - = individual may reach out to parents to offer assistance, but not accompanied by feelings of warmth and affection
  - = often mention role reversal, but not a sense that it is welcome
  - = feel obligated to care for parents
  - = future roles regarding caretaking are more clear, but lack a sense of the parent's particular needs as an individual
  - = real forgiveness is found for parents who were seen as not loving or nurturant, as well as an understanding of why the parents were like this
- 5 = caring that is expressed is linked to specific characteristics and perceived needs of parents
  - = the individual may articulate ways that caring is shown in order to deal with the parents' particular circumstances
- 6 = communications reflect a advice giving
  - = the parent is as willing to take advice from the child as the child is from the parent shows equality.
  - = real willingness exists to equally give and share advice
  - = faith in the fact that dealing appropriate advice will strengthen the relationship

# Scoring Second part of White Scale

## Current interaction Style (5 possible)

keep score the same for:

reverse the score for: 1, 8, 13, 14, 16

#### Communication Style (7 possible)

keep score the same for:

3, 11, 15

reverse the score for:

2, 5, 9, 10

# <u>Caretaking/Concern</u> (8 possible) keep score the same for:

keep score the same for 6 reverse the score for:

4, 7, 12, 17, 18, 19, 20