5-1993

Perceived Parental Acceptance Related to Self-Esteem, GPA, Sex-Role Identity, and Substance Use of Adolescents from Intact and Reconstituted Families

Stephen B. Sniteman
Utah State University

PERCEIVED PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE RELATED TO SELF-ESTEEM, GPA, SEX-ROLE IDENTITY, AND SUBSTANCE USE OF ADOLESCENTS FROM INTACT AND RECONSTITUTED FAMILIES

by

Stephen B. Sniteman

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Family and Human Development

Approved:

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
Logan, Utah

1993

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This project was a labor of others, for without the assistance, encouragement, and support of countless folks, this dissertation would never have been completed.

My family (Maria, Heather, Clay, and Shane) provided the gift of patience while sharing time with a computer screen, never complained as revisions competed with their weekends and holidays, and suffered through countless deadlines while unfailingly extending their support. Only they know the depth of my appreciation and the love that I have for each of them. I am also indebted to an uncommon man, Jay Schvaneveldt: He gave me the chance to begin, the encouragement to finish, and the gift of friendship; to Randy Jones, who never failed to take the time, even when he didn't have it, and who truly became a white knight and a friend among friends; to Gerald Adams, who initially started the whole process and then provided encouragement all the way; to Dave Calhoun, who was there at the right time and gave assistance with no thought of pay back simply because of the man that he is; to Mike Toney, who is the type of committee person that everyone should have--an outstanding scholar, a man that is genuine to the core, a friend, and also a great fly fisherman; and to the rest of my committee, who were always helpful, never adversarial, and most importantly, outstanding gentlemen.

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

Perceived Parental Acceptance Related to Self-Esteem, GPA, Sex-Role Identity, and Substance Use of Adolescents from Intact and Reconstituted Families

by

Stephen B. Sniteman, Doctor of Philosophy

Utah State University, 1993

Major Professor: Dr. Jay Schvaneveldt
Department: Family and Human Development

This investigation assessed the relationship between adolescents of intact families and adolescents in reconstituted families with regard to the effects of perception of parental acceptance on the variables of self-esteem, academic performance, sex role identity, and use of substances. Observed differences between adolescents of intact and reconstituted families from a structural perspective, eliminating process variables, were also examined. Participants included two hundred fifty-six high school students in grades 9 through 12 in an overseas Department of Defense Dependent School (DoDDs). Questionnaires incorporated the measures of Perception of Parental Behavior Index; Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Survey; The

Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI); questions on substance use; and self-reported grade point averages (GPA).

Major findings include (1) Adolescents living in an intact family (process variables excluded) evidenced significantly higher GPA scores than adolescents residing in a reconstituted (stepfamily) situation. However, with regard to the use of substances, sex role identification, and self-esteem, no differences emerged. (2) When the effects of parental acceptance were assessed, differences among adolescents of intact families and adolescents of reconstituted families emerged among the variables of femininity, self-esteem, and substance. In contrast, sex role identification, masculinity, self-esteem, substance use, and GPA were not found to be mediated by perception of parental acceptance. The lack of significant differences in self-esteem and substance use contrasted sharply with the findings among adolescents within intact families. (3) When positive perception of parental acceptance was evidenced across eight distinct family compositions of intact and reconstituted families, as opposed to negative perception, self-esteem scores were highest, irrespective of family structure.

(115 pages)

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Adolescence

As the concluding stage of childhood (Erikson, 1979), adolescence has traditionally been viewed by theorists as a critical developmental stage. During this period, the so-called orderly and peaceful latency years are thrown into disarray (Blos, 1962) as adolescents contend with major emotional and physical upheavals. Social forces and maturational effects thrust adolescents into a world of expanded dimensions (Freud, 1952) where they must often cope with unstable self-images, timidity, feelings of inferiority, and loss of self-confidence (Chiam, 1987).

Divorce and Stepchildren

Divorce complicates this already difficult transitional period, because adolescents of divorce as well parents must contend with new familial structures and processes. With two thirds of first marriages likely to end in separation or divorce (Martin & Bumpass, 1989), the number of adolescents facing a parental divorce challenge is considerable. Bumpass (1984) speculated that among children born in 1980, almost half will experience a parental divorce; and if their mothers remarry, more than half of those same children will experience the disruption of another divorce before they

reach the age of 18, the effects of which may persist undiminished throughout life (Glenn & Kramer, 1985; Wallerstein, 1991). For many children and adolescents then, divorce itself is just the beginning of a series of challenges, for if parental remarriage occurs, which happens for 75% of divorced women and over 80% of divorced men (Demaris, 1984), the adolescent must further adapt to a stepfamily structure that may be radically different from biologically based families. The number of children facing this challenge is considerable, as approximately 6.7 million children, 0-17 years of age, lived in a stepparent family situation in 1988 (Dawson, 1991). In light of these statistics, the quantity of empirical research devoted to stepchildren is surprisingly small. Even less information is available on parent-stepparent-adolescent relationships.

In an exhaustive review of the empirical literature reported in books and journals prior to 1984, Ganong and Coleman (1984) found only 38 studies on stepchildren, 16 of which had specifically sampled adolescent stepchildren. Of those, only three had investigated stepparent-adolescent relationships. In the absence of other empirical data specifically addressing stepparent-adolescent relationships, the findings of Bowerman and Irish (1962) stand out. In their research involving 29,000 children in grades 7-12, they concluded that children with stepparents perceived that they were more rejected and discriminated against than

children from intact families, a finding that is disturbing since adolescent perceptions of parents have been shown to have a significant impact on self-concept (Parish & Copeland, 1979; Parish & Dostal, 1980; Parish & Kappes, 1980). While Ganong and Coleman (1984) disputed Bowerman and Irish's pessimistic findings as counter to the conclusions of stepfamily research as an aggregate, one must be cautious in discounting the Bowerman and Irish study due to the paucity of investigations dealing directly with stepadolescents' perceptions of parental acceptance/rejection. Clearly, a need exists for further research in this area.

Areas for Research Consideration

A review of the adolescent literature reveals that familial factors can significantly affect academic performance (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1984), substance use (Langhinrichsen et al., 1990; Ried, 1989; Ringwalt & Palmer, 1989); self-esteem and sex role identity (Cooper, Holman, & Braithwaite, 1983; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978) which are all variables that have been shown to be highly susceptible to the effects of divorce and particularly important to adolescent psychological and psychosocial development. These variables have therefore formed the foundation for this research project, in conjunction with another key element--adolescent perception of parental acceptance.

Research Format

The format for this research endeavor was evolutionary. First, specific goals were identified; then, research parameters were defined to establish boundaries for the investigation, and questions were constructed to logically and specifically build upon each other. These questions, in turn, generated corresponding hypotheses.

Purpose of the Research

The goals of this research were broad in scope, the first being to examine the relationship between adolescent perceptions of parental acceptance and adolescent self-esteem, academic performance, sex role identity, and use of substances. A secondary goal sought to expand the research of adolescent perception on parental acceptance to include consideration of the differences between adolescents from intact families and adolescents with stepparents in regard to the four dependent variables as explained in the next section.

Research Focus and Structure

Substance use, academic performance, sex role identity, and self-esteem were identified as the dependent variables. It is important to note that these four variables are not a homogeneous set. Two (academic performance and substance use) are more restrictive and empirical, lending themselves

to quantitative analysis, while the other two (self-esteem and sex role identity) are more complex, synthetic constructs that, while lending themselves more to relational comparison, can be quantified using well-established metrics. Although joining these factors as a set of dependent variables may appear to be a case of uneven yoking, unforeseen correlations were expected which would then be instrumental in identifying viable areas for further research.

The dimension of adolescent perception of parental acceptance comprised the independent variable and was defined as reflecting "perceptions of parents as being positively evaluating, affectionate, providing emotional support, and being equalitarian in their treatment versus perceptions of parents as being ignoring, neglecting, and rejecting" (Litovsky & Dusek, 1985, p. 376). In this investigation, it was necessary to restrict adolescent perception of parental acceptance to two different familial groups for practical considerations due to the myriad of possible family situations brought about by such circumstances as divorce, single parenting, illegitimate births, marital separations, and death of family members. The groups identified were (a) adolescents of intact families and (b) adolescents with a natural parent and a stepparent (reconstituted family situation). It is important for the reader to keep in mind that this research

sought to deal with *perception* of parental acceptance by adolescents and not parents' actual feelings. Perception is, of course, not simply a product of what the parent conveys, intentionally or unintentionally, in words and actions, but a translation of these processes through the adolescent's own subjective judgment, an evaluation subject to significant modification from a variety of factors.

Bearing these parameters in mind, a significant hurdle of this research effort was the establishment of a mechanism that facilitated comparisions among these variables in creating a flexible model of interrelationships. This obstacle was accomplished through a family structure/perception of parental acceptance/four-variable mechanism. An important feature of this model was its building block approach, which determined (a) if there was a correlation among the dependent variables; (b) if variability within dependent variables was attributable to living arrangements (i.e., intact versus reconstituted parental/adolescent arrangements); (c) if variability within dependent variables was attributable to perception of parental acceptance from natural parents; (d) if variability within dependent variables was attributable to perception of parental acceptance from stepparents; and (e) if variability within the dependent variables was attributable to perception of parental acceptance regardless of family

structure. Corresponding to the model, five guiding questions were formulated.

Questions

Question 1 (Q1)

Question 1 addressed relationships among the four dependent variables in this study (see Figure 1).

(Q1). Did a relationship exist among adolescent substance use, academic performance, sex role identity, and self-esteem?

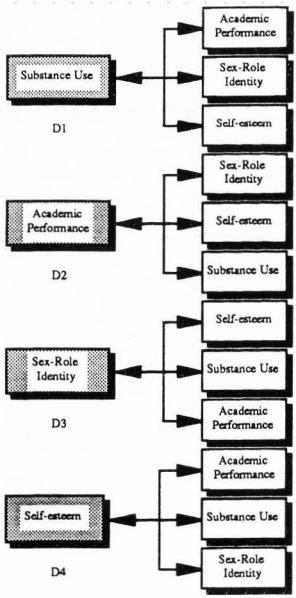


Figure 1. Relationship among the dependent variables.

It was found that the variables of adolescent substance use (D_1), academic performance (D_2), sex role identity (D_3), and self-esteem (D_4) had all been studied individually and in various combinations; however, a review of the literature failed to find any research where all four variables had been examined together. This investigation offered to extend the research and possibly provide additional support for the importance of parental acceptance to adolescent well-being.

Question 2 (Q2)

Question 2 addressed differences attrituable to family structure, that is, a comparison of adolescents who lived with both their natural parents versus adolescents who lived with a natural parent and stepparent (see Figure 2).

(Q2). Was there a difference in adolescent substance use (D_1), academic performance (D_2), sex role identity (D_3), and self-esteem (D_4) between adolescents who lived with both natural parents compared to those who lived in a reconstituted family consisting of a natural parent and a stepparent?

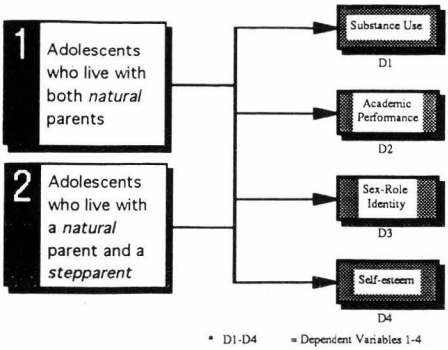


Figure 2. Living arrangements in relationship to the four dependent variables.

Question 3 (Q3)

Question 3 addressed the impact of perceived parental acceptance of *natural* parents upon adolescent substance use, academic performance, sex role identity, and self-esteem among adolescents (see Figure 3).

(Q3). Were there differences in adolescent substance use (D_1), academic performance (D_2), sex role identity (D_3), and self-esteem (D_4) that were attributable to positive versus negative perceived parental acceptance by natural parents?

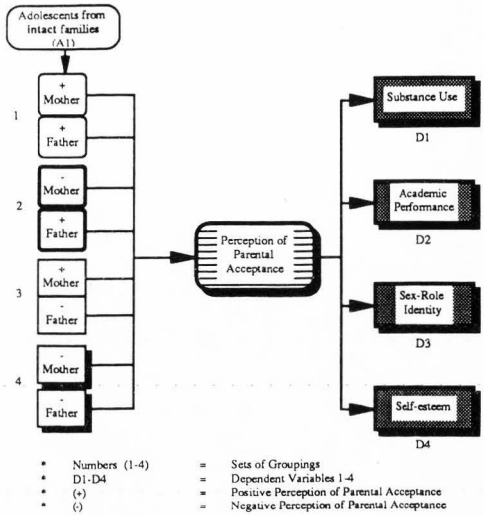


Figure 3. Four parental subgroups (intact family) in relation to the four dependent variables.

Question 4 (Q4)

Question 4 addressed the impact of perceived parental acceptance of a *natural* parent and *stepparent* (reconstituted family situation) upon adolescent substance use, academic performance, sex role identity, and self-esteem among adolescents (see Figure 4).

(Q4). Were there differences in adolescent substance use (D_1), academic performance (D_2), sex role identity (D_3), and self-esteem (D_4) which were attributable to positive

versus negative perceived parental acceptance by natural parents and stepparents (reconstituted family situation)?

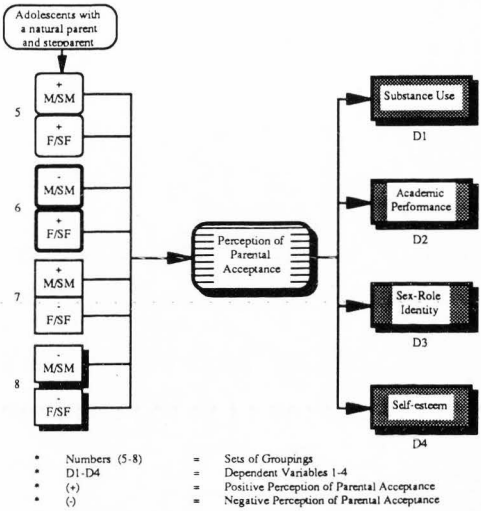


Figure 4. Four parental subgroups (adolescents with a natural parent and stepparent) in relation to the four dependent variables.

Question 5 (Q5)

Question 5 addressed adolescent perception of parental acceptance from a *relationship* perspective. By combining questions 3 and 4 above, two groups of familial relationships were identified--adolescents who rated parental acceptance for both natural parents, and adolescents who rated parental acceptance for one natural

parent and one stepparent. Limiting the scope to these two familial groups, eight parental subgroups, which comprised the possible parental structure combinations, were compared using each of the four dependent variables to determine if significant differences existed (see Figure 5).

(Q5). Did perception of parental acceptance, regardless of family structure, mediate adolescent substance use, academic performance, sex role identification, and self-esteem?

The eight familiar subgroups of questions 3 and 4 were combined into two similar relationship categories and then constrasted against each dependent variable, the goal being to determine if perception of parental acceptance would override the effects of family composition with regard to adolescent substance use (D_1), academic performance (D_2), sex role identity (D_3), and self-esteem (D_4).

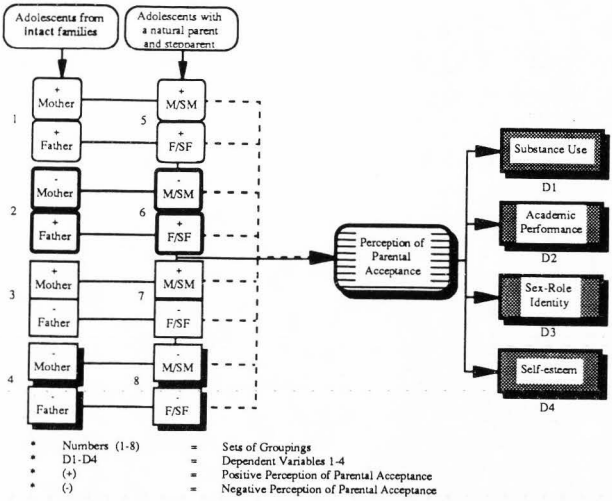


Figure 5. Eight parental subgroups (combination of intact and reconstituted) assigned to relationship categories and compared to the four dependent variables.

Additional Considerations

Adolescent perception of parental acceptance had been examined primarily in relation to its effects on adolescent self-esteem. A review of the literature failed to yield research that examined parental acceptance in relation to different types of constructs such as adolescent substance use, academic performance, and sex role identity. In addition, adolescent perception of parental acceptance had not been contrasted across adolescents from intact families

and adolescents of reconstituted families. Finally, research endeavors thus far had not attempted to aggregate findings into a familial structure or relationship context. Grouping findings into such categories therefore offered an opportunity for meaningful synthesis of findings.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Substance Use

Terminology

The term *drug* is often confusing and misleading. Drugs include such disparate substances as alcohol, the benzodiazepines, barbiturates, tobacco, the methlxanthines, psychomotor stimulants, opiates, antipsychotic drugs, antidepressants and antimanics, cannabis, and hallucinogens (McKim, 1991). The term can be restricted to refer to acceptable drugs (as in the case of caffeine), controlled drugs (such as heroin), and/or restricted drugs (e.g., alcohol) (White, 1991). Substance use in this investigation required clarification and was defined from a broad perspective and followed five guidelines: (a) the term *substance* was used in place of the word *drug* because of the latter's ambiguity; (b) unless it was deemed appropriate that a particular drug be referred to by name, the term substance was used as a generic label; (c) only those substances that had been shown to be regularly used by adolescents were addressed in the literature review; (d) the term *abuse* was avoided since any use, rather than degree, was the focus of this endeavor; (e) for this investigation, substance use was defined as any use of

tobacco, inhalants, alcohol, marijuana, cocaine/crack, amphetamines, barbiturates, or unprescribed medicines (used for other than their intended purpose).

Introduction

A review of the substance literature offered two major observations: (a) adolescent substance use spans all ethnic, geographic, gender, and social lines and (b) no single variable explains why adolescents choose to use substances. Rather, the reasons adolescents use substances and the effects that follow are often confounded, interrelated, and synergistic.

It was beyond the scope of this review to discuss all variables that impact substance use; however, since researchers had found that academic, family, and psychological factors were consistently important intervening variables in substance use, those areas were covered in detail.

Demographics of Adolescent Use

Substance use among adolescents is widespread and begins early. Mills and Noyes (1984) found that 57% of adolescents took their first drink by age twelve even though substantial levels of substance experimentation and usage have been found in the sixth grade (Grady, Gersick, Snow, & Kesson, 1986). By the seventh and eighth grades, harder drug use often occurs (Keyes & Block, 1984). Such early use

does not come without a price; Mills and Noyes (1984) found that substance use followed a stable, sequential, and cumulative hierarchy that continued throughout the school years.

Large urban areas, such as New York City, have long been viewed as having consistently higher rates of substance use than rural communities (Barnes & Welte, 1986a; 1986b). Although ghettos, reservations, and barrios continue to show high rates of substance use (Oetting & Beauvais, 1990), the gap between urban and rural communities may be decreasing (Gibbons, Wylie, Echterling, & French, 1986). While no one causal factor has been identified for increased substance use in rural areas, Gibbons et al. (1986) did find that age of first drink had decreased in rural areas corresponding to increased substance use over time.

Being white and middle or upper class appears to offer very little insulation from the hazards of substance abuse. While Barnes and Welte (1986a, 1986b) found that minority youths showed more drug and alcohol problems than whites, their findings have not been universally accepted. A later study (Oetting & Beauvais, 1990) found that minorities, except for Native Americans, actually had equal or less drug use than nonminorities. The important point to consider is that substance use by adolescents has been shown not simply to be a counterculture phenomenon but spans differing

socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds (Donovan & Jessor, 1985).

Substance Use and Academic Performance

A review of the research that has examined the relationship between substance use and academic performance leaves little doubt that substance use affects academic achievement in school (Donovan & Jessor, 1985; Fors & Rojek, 1983; Kahn & Kulick, 1975; Langhinrichsen et al., 1990; Mills & Noyes, 1984; Oetting & Beauvais, 1990). Interestingly, regardless of the type of substance used--solvents (Carlini-Cotrim & Carline, 1988; Chadwick, Yule, & Anderson, 1990), crack (Ringwalt & Palmer, 1989), hard drugs in general (Newcomb & Bentler, 1986), or alcohol (Marston, Jacobs, Singer, Widaman, & Little, 1988)--all yield similar results in terms of academic performance, although use of substances with a higher degree of illicity (Mensch & Kandel, 1988) and unacceptability (Weng, Newcomb, & Bentler, 1988) have resulted in increased high school dropout rates. What is unclear is which comes first: (a) substance use that results in a decrease in academic performance or (b) poor academic performance that leads to the decision to use and then abuse substances. While the research offers no definitive answer, it appears that from the studies of Johnston (1973) and Anker, Milman, Kahan, and Valenti (1971)

that poor academic performance precedes substance involvement for most adolescents.

Substance Use and Family Variables

Family variables have consistently been shown to affect adolescent substance use. Family disruption (Newcomb & Bentler, 1988), divorce (Freidman, Glickman, & Utada, 1985), and single parenting (Svobodny, 1982) versus well-adjusted, intact families have all been associated with increased substance use. The degree of closeness between adolescents and parents (Ried, 1989; Ringwalt & Palmer, 1989) and family cohesion (Langhinrichsen et al., 1990) have also proven to be important.

Parental modeling seems particularly influential in encouraging increased substance use. Numerous studies have found a relationship between parental use and adolescent alcohol (Barnes & Welte, 1986b), drug (Newcomb & Bentler, 1988), and tobacco use (Cohen, Sattler, Felix, & Brownell, 1987; Higgins, Whitley, & Dunn, 1984). Therefore, it was not unexpected to find that adolescents who showed more resistance to drug, alcohol, and nicotine involvement had been identified with families in which lower or no parental use existed (Marston et al., 1988).

Research indicates that parental modeling is not alone in affecting adolescent substance use. Peer pressure to conform also seems to be very influential (Barnes & Welte, 1986b; Brook, Whiteman, Gordon, & Nomura, 1986; Deilman,

1987; Dishion & Loeber, 1985; Fors & Rojek, 1983; Kaplan, Johnson, & Baily, 1988; Ried, 1989). Not unexpectantly, therefore, the decision to begin, continue, or quit may hinge on the degree of importance adolescents place on their peer group.

Substance Use and Psychological Variables

In identifying variables associated with adolescent substance use, complex psychological factors may play an extremely important role (Christiansen, Smith, & Roehling, (1989). Relationships have been found between (a) self-esteem of users and nonusers (Deilman, 1987; Kim, McLeod, & Palmgren, 1989); (b) adolescent low self-concept and substance use (Gold, 1978; Grimes & Swisher, 1989; Svobodny, 1982); (c) substance use and degree of stress (Lempers, Clark-Lempers, & Simons, 1989; Mitic, McGuire, & Neumann, 1987a; 1987b); and (d) identity and substance use (Christopherson, Jones, & Sales, 1988). Negative self-attitudes also have been shown to have a positive impact on the decision to use substances (Kaplan et al., 1988).

High-risk Adolescents

One of the more interesting findings dealing with adolescents who use substances is that individual factors appear to contribute to the disposition to use drugs (Grobe & Campell, 1990; Stein, Newcomb, & Bentler, 1987). Researchers found that some adolescents who are aware of the

detrimental effects of various drugs will nevertheless experiment, heedless of the consequences (Grobe & Campell, 1990). Others seem disposed to engage in drug abuse as other adolescents might involve themselves in deviant behavior (Kaplan et al., 1988). Donovan and Jessor (1985) described this tendency to enter into drinking, marijuana use, delinquent behavior, and sexual intercourse as a *syndrome* of problem behavior. Clearly, some adolescents who appear to gravitate toward high risk behavior for no discernible reason should still be considered when explaining variances among adolescents who use substances.

Regardless of the substances used, the practice of using multiple substances seems quite common (Donovan & Jessor, 1985; Gibbons et al., 1986; Jessor, Chase, & Donovan, 1980; Kandel, Treiman, Faust, & Single, 1976; Newcomb & Bentler, 1986; Potvin & Lee, 1980; Single, Kandel, & Faust, 1974; Weng et al., 1988). Interestingly, Mills and Noyes (1984) found that the use of alcohol, cigarettes, and marijuana formed a common set of variables that acted as a foundation for a predictable, sequential, and cumulative hierarchy of drug use in all school grades.

Summary and Conclusions

In summary, a vast body of literature indicates that adolescent substance use is widespread, spans all socioeconomic backgrounds, begins early and progresses, produces a series of negative effects, and is affected by

family factors and a myriad of psychological variables. Findings also suggest that certain adolescents use substances for no particular reason other than that they tend to gravitate toward high-risk behaviors. What is not clear is to what degree, if any, perception of parental acceptance by either natural parents or stepparents affects adolescent substance use. Neither is there an understanding of how substance use is affected by the interaction of an adolescent's sex role identification, self-esteem, and academic performance.

This study uses the myriad of previous research as a foundation from which to add the dimension of familial environmental situations while integrating substance use with the variables of school performance, sex role identity, and self-esteem. To date, this integration has not been attempted nor have the effects of multiple family situations been assessed.

Sex Role Identity

Introduction

The definition of and the acquisition of gender-appropriate behavior has consistently of interest to social scientists. The knowledge that a person "is male or female serves a psychological need in that the classification provides us with certain basic information, expectations, and shared cultural assumptions about that individual"

(Katz, 1979, p. 155). Unfortunately, little agreement exists concerning what constitutes gender-appropriate behaviors or what psychological or cultural components define an individual's sex role identity.

Traditional View

The traditional concept of sex role identity viewed "(a) masculinity and femininity [as] end-points of a single, bipolar dimension; (b) masculinity and femininity [as] correlated close to -1.0; and (c) more masculinity (femininity) implie[d] less femininity (masculinity)" (Marsh, 1987, p. 93). This bipolar concept was in concert with the theory that it was vitally important that individuals adopt sex roles according to their gender (Erikson, 1950; Erikson, 1968; Kagan, 1964; Kohlberg, 1966).

Paradigmatic Shift to Androgyny

With a shift in current occupational patterns in the United States, people began to question the traditional sex role paradigm. Sex roles were viewed as less rigidly bound to gender (Narus & Fisher, 1982), and the term *androgyny*, coming from the two Greek words *andros* (for male) and *gyne* (for female), became an important theoretical concept (Havighurst, 1983). The term androgyny implied that an individual could "be both masculine and feminine, both instrumental and expressive, both agentic and communal, depending upon the situation appropriateness of these

various modalities" (Bem, Martyna, & Watson, 1976, p. 1016). While heavily criticized from a theoretical basis (Locksley & Colten, 1979), androgyny nevertheless spurred renewed interest into the influence of sex roles on individual psychosocial and psychological development and resulted in considerable research.

The Androgyny Literature

In an attempt to quantify within-sex differences, Sandra Bem developed the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI), which categorized individuals by sex role traits into one of four groups: (a) androgynous (reflecting high masculine and high feminine scores); (b) masculine (reflecting high masculine scores and low feminine scores; (c) feminine (reflecting high feminine scores and low masculine scores); and (d) undifferentiated (reflecting low masculine and feminine scores).

The implication of identifying individuals along a sex role continuum was profound because traditional thought held that the degree to which one views himself or herself as masculine or feminine in fact established a person's sex role identity (Kagan, 1964). With the introduction of the BSRI, a mechanism existed to classify individuals according to degree, and the results were predictable. Researchers sought to determine what effects possessing predominately masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated characteristics would have on a person's psychosocial and

psychological well-being. Unfortunately, except for the case of undifferentiated individuals and feminine males who, as a group, have been found to experience considerable identity and psychosocial problems, many of the findings are disputed. For example, the desirability of males adopting highly masculine traits as opposed to androgynous traits is strongly debated. One body of research reflects a pro-masculine position (Massad, 1981; Narus & Fisher, 1982; Willemsen, 1987), another a pro-androgynous position (Avery, 1982; Bernard, Boyle, & Jackling, 1990; Lamke, 1982a; 1982b).

Definitive answers regarding females are also debated. Little evidence exists, for example, to support the premise that highly feminine traits are an asset to females, while considerable research supports the position that it is advantageous for females to exhibit androgynous traits (Hollinger, 1983; Massad, 1981; Wells, 1980). Complicating the issue further is an even larger body of research that has posited the desirability of females to possess masculine traits (Lamke, 1982b; Signorella & Wesley, 1986; Wells, 1980). While extremely controversial from a traditionalist's theoretical standpoint, "it may be that the reason masculinity and the masculine component of androgyny are found related to greater psychosocial well-being is that the psychological constructs typically studied in relation

to sex role orientation are reflective of masculine traits" (Markstrom-Adams, 1989, p. 338).

Limitations, Definition, and Goals

It is important to note that it was not the purpose of this investigation to dispute specific findings or enter into the androgyny debate; ample discussion already exists in this area (Marsh, 1987). Rather, this investigation intended to build upon the considerable findings in this field by introducing familial variables; by incorporating divorce and stepparenting effects; and by assessing the relationships of substance use, self-esteem, and academic performance to quantifiable sex role data obtained from the BSRI. To date, this had not been accomplished.

For the purpose of this investigation, it was apparent that a restrictive definition of sex role be presented. Masculine sex role identification was therefore defined as obtaining masculinity scores that were equal to or higher than femininity scores while feminine sex role identification was defined as obtaining femininity scores that were equal to or higher than masculinity scores. In addition, the term *appropriate* sex role identification was incorporated to faciliate the discussion and was defined as males obtaining a pro-masculine and females obtaining a pro-feminine sex role identification.

Self-Esteem

Terminology

The subject of adolescent self-esteem has been extensively researched, even though the construct *self-esteem* conveys different meanings to different researchers. Self-esteem and self-concept have often been used interchangeably. Kawash (1982) viewed self-esteem as a component of self-concept; similarly, Fleming and Courtney (1984) saw self-esteem as subsumed under the larger construct of self-concept. Perhaps Lerner and Sorell (1981) provide the clearest definition: "Self-concept is a term denoting the set of cognitions one holds toward the self while self-esteem pertains to the evaluative connotations of these cognitions" (p. 5).

Lacking a universally accepted definition, self-esteem in this research project incorporated the following dimensions:

1. Self-esteem would refer to the evaluative aspect of the self-concept (Fleming & Courtney, 1984) and describe a general feeling of an adolescent's self-worth versus feeling of self-deprecation (Kawash, 1982).

2. Self-esteem would be viewed from a global perspective, incorporating interrelated but often diverse variables with varying degrees of strength (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1979).

3. Self-esteem, as a broad construct, would be based on constituent qualities of a person that count (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1979).

Importance of Self-Esteem

To successfully meet the challenges of adolescence, a healthy self-esteem has always been considered extremely vital. Rosenberg, Schooler, and Schoenbach (1989) stated that "the core proposition of self-esteem theory is that self-esteem is a fundamental human motive [that]...has been identified by Maslow (1970) as one of the *prepotent* human needs" (p. 1006).

Because of the importance of self-esteem, the variables that have been shown to affect adolescent self-esteem were extensively reviewed in this investigation, with specific emphasis directed to the independent and dependent variables employed in this research project.

Family Impact

Parental support. The degree of respectful, accepting, and concerned treatment obtained from the significant others in life was thought by Coopersmith (1967) to be essential to a person's emotional well-being (Cooper et al., 1983). Not surprisingly, family cohesion and supportive home environments (Cooper et al., 1983); parental expressions of love and support (Gfellner, 1986); and parental encouragement and granting of autonomy (Adams, 1985) have

all been found to impact self-esteem and ego states of children and adolescents. Adolescent perception of parental unhappiness (Long, 1986) and the effects of anxiety produced in the home (Kawash, 1982) also have been viewed as affecting self-esteem. From a negative perspective, however, researchers have found family conflict to be particularly damaging to children's self-esteem (Amato, 1986; Cooper et al., 1983; Enos & Handal, 1986; Long, 1986; Long, Forehand, Fauber, & Brody, 1987; Raschke & Raschke, 1979; Rosenberg, 1965; Slater & Haber, 1984). The indirect effects of conflict may also play a key role in the reduction of self-esteem as conflict has been found to reduce school grades and cognitive skills, elements that in themselves have been linked to a reduction of self-esteem (Cooper et al., 1983; Long et al., 1987; Rutter, 1979; Wierson, Forehand, & McCombs, 1988).

Divorce. Numerous studies have addressed the question of whether children of divorce manifest lower self-esteem than children from intact families. Reviewing that literature, Zaslow (1989) reported that the belief that divorce negatively affects self-esteem primarily stemmed from the research of Hetherington's 1972 study of 13- to 17-year-old girls and from three research reports by Santrock, Warshak, Lindbergh, and Meadows (1982), dealing with girls in fathers' custody. However, in 9 of 14 related investigations (Fry & Scher, 1984; Hammond, 1979; Kalter,

Riemer, Brickman, & Chen, 1985; Kinard & Reinherz, 1984; Rosen, 1979), Zaslow found no group differences among children of intact versus divorced families. Given such differing opinions, the findings from this study are expected to be particularly important.

Academic Performance

Rosenberg et al. (1989) stated that a person's self-esteem was highly dependent on the reflected appraisals, social comparisons, and self-attributions of others. Since school grades invite frequent comparisons of cognitive skills, it was not surprising that Rosenberg et al. (1989) concluded that the impact of school grades had far-reaching effects on self-esteem. Mann (1981) supported this outlook by positing that the relationship between formal school experience and self-esteem was synergistic; that is, low grades would result in a loss of self-esteem that would in turn lead to delinquent behavior.

Additional Comments

While the literature consistently highlights family influences and academic performance as particularly important to an adolescent's self-esteem, a host of other diverse variables have also been found to affect adolescent self-esteem. Peer group influences (Brown & Lohr, 1987; Wylie, 1979) and related crowd status (Newman & Newman, 1976), the effects of early social dating (Simmons, Blyth,

Van Cleave, & Bush, 1979; Van Cleave & Bush, 1979), dating frequency (Samet & Kelly, 1987), physical appearance (Levinson, Powell, & Steelman, 1986; McCaulay, Mintz, & Glenn, 1988; Nottelmann, 1987), and the association with delinquency (Kaplan, 1975; Kaplan et al., 1988) have also been shown to affect adolescent self-esteem.

Research Direction

A review of the literature leaves little doubt that self-esteem is affected by many variables; however, to what degree one variable affects another or affects the interrelationship of variables has not been sufficiently addressed. Combining the variables of parental acceptance, substance use, sex role, and academic performance into one research project offers new insight into the role that self-esteem may play in adolescent development.

Hypotheses

Based upon this review of literature, the following null hypotheses were derived corresponding to previously presented questions.

HO 1

No correlation exists among adolescent substance use, academic performance, sex role identity, and self-esteem.

HO 2

No difference exists between adolescents residing with both natural parents (intact) and adolescents residing with a natural parent and stepparent (reconstituted), when compared to the dependent variables of substance use, GPA, sex role identification, and self-esteem.

HO 3

Adolescents who perceive positive acceptance by both natural parents will not manifest lower substance use, higher GPA, more appropriate sex role identification, or higher self-esteem compared to those adolescents who perceive negative acceptance from both parents.

HO 4

Adolescents who perceive positive acceptance by both the natural parent and the stepparent will not manifest lower substance use, higher GPA, more appropriate sex role identification, or higher self-esteem when compared to those adolescents who perceive negative acceptance by both the natural parent and the stepparent.

HO 5

When the eight distinct family compositions are aggregated into similar acceptance groupings, each will show no differences among the individual dependent variables. Where there is perceived positive acceptance, regardless of the family structure (either natural or reconstituted), the

result will be lower substance use, higher GPA, a more positive sex role identification, and higher self-esteem as compared with perceived negative acceptance.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Sample Description

High school students in grades 9 through 12 in an overseas Department of Defense Dependent School (DoDDs) comprised the population for this study. Student composition consisted primarily of military dependents of the United States Navy; however, all branches of the military services were represented along with adolescents of civilian parents. Most students had attended the school for less than 3 years due to a 3-year rotational policy employed by the military services.

Considerable effort was made to obtain a representative cross-sectional student sample of grades 9 through 12 consisting of a total populaton 315 students. Two hundred fifty-six students were surveyed, which accounted for 80% of the total school population. Tables 1-7 describe the sample demographic characteristics.

Table 1

Age of Participants (Yrs)

Years	Frequency	%
Unknown	1	.4
13	3	1.2
14	61	23.8
15	64	25.0
16	49	19.1
17	54	21.1
18	22	8.6
19	2	.8
Total	256	100.0

Table 2

Sex of Participants

Sex	Frequency	%
Unknown	2	.8
Male	113	44.1
Female	141	55.1
Total	256	100.0

Table 3

Grade of Participants

Grade	Frequency	%	# of Students	% Sampled
Unknown	7	2.7	0	0.0
9	73	28.5	91	80.2
10	64	25.0	85	75.2
11	58	22.7	67	86.5
12	54	21.1	72	75.0
Total	256	100.0	315	81.0

Table 4

Ethnicity of Participants

Ethnicity	Frequency	%
Unknown	8	3.1
Anglo	137	53.5
Black	27	10.5
Oriental	10	3.9
Hispanic	11	4.3
Indian	10	3.9
Other	53	20.7
Total	256	100.0

Table 5

Residence of Participants

Residence	Frequency	%
Unknown	1	0.4
Natural Mother & Father	180	70.3
Natural Parent & Stepparent	53	21.0
Natural Mother Only	14	5.5
Natural Mother & Other	2	0.8
Natural Father	2	0.8
Stepmother Only	1	0.4
Stepfather Only	1	0.4
Stepparent & Companion	1	0.4
Total	256	100.0

Table 6

Participants Who Previously Lived in the United States

U.S	Frequency	%
Yes	241	94.1
No	15	5.9
Total	256	100.0

Table 7

Participants' Self-Reported GPA

GPA	Frequency	%
Unknown	15	5.9
.67-1.5	5	2.0
+1.5-2.0	24	9.0
+2.0-2.5	36	14.1
+2.5-3.0	72	28.1
+3.0-3.5	48	18.8
+3.5-4.0	53	21.0
+4.0-4.5	3	1.2
Total	256	100.0

Measures

A questionnaire consisting of 119 items was constructed incorporating five measures: (a) Perception of Parental Behavior Index; (b) Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale; (c) The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI); (d) substance use questions; and (e) self-reported grade point average (GPA). A pretest indicated that 20-30 minutes were needed to complete the questionnaire.

Descriptions of Measures

Parental Acceptance and Rejection

The Acceptance/Rejection factor from The Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) was used to measure the construct of parental acceptance. Acceptance on the CRPBI denotes such traits as parental emotional support, caring, and fair treatment, while the bipolar dimension of

rejection reflects traits such as parental detachment, rejection, and parental criticism.

The original CRPBI contained 26 10-item scales to measure three orthogonal factors of children's perception of parental behavior: (a) acceptance versus rejection, (b) psychological autonomy versus psychological control, and (c) firm control versus lax control (Schaefer, 1965). The large number of questions in the original version made the scale impractical for most research projects; consequently, numerous shortened versions have been constructed. For this research project, the 72-item version (18 scales of 4 questions per scale) by Kawash and Clewes (1987) was chosen.

Only the acceptance/rejection factor of the CRPBI was used, rather than the entire instrument, since parental acceptance was the desired construct. Only one modification to the acceptance/rejection portion was necessary; the possessiveness scale, consisting of four questions, was eliminated due to several age-inappropriate questions.

Since its introduction, the CRPBI has been successfully replicated across cultures to include Czech, French, Italian, and Polish versions.

Previous studies using the CRPBI (female college students) yielded coefficients .97 for the acceptance-rejection measure (Southworth & Schwarz, 1987). In addition, in a 1-week retest of 6th grade students, the reliability coefficient for perception of maternal

acceptance was .88 and for paternal acceptance .89. A 5-week retest yielded reliability coefficients of .79 for maternal acceptance and .79 for paternal acceptance (Margolies & Weintraub, 1977).

Self-Esteem

Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) (Rosenberg, 1965) was used to measure global self-esteem, which Rosenberg identified as a "feeling of self-acceptance, self-respect, and generally positive self-evaluation" (Rosenberg et al., 1989, p. 1008). The RSE, which is widely used by social scientists, consists of only ten questions, and scores easily. Response formats range from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Methodological discussions indicate high reliability and validity (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Rosenberg, 1986; Rosenberg et al., 1989; Wylie, 1974).

Previous use of RSE has yielded Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .73 to .82. Using a high school sample (7th-12th grades), Bronfenbrenner (1977) and Brown and Lohr (1987) reported .82; 6th grade students, .73. Jones, Hartman, Grochowski, and Glider (1989) and Jones and Hartman (1988) reported correlations ranging from .74 and .77 for 8th grade students in a 1-year retest.

Sex Role Identity

The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) was selected to measure sex-role identification (Bem, 1979). Sixty items

reflecting personality characteristics comprise the Bem scale. Twenty characteristics represent typical feminine characteristics, 20 characteristics represent typical masculine characteristics, and 20 characteristics are filler items. Two methods of scoring have been used: (a) a ratio of the differences between the total points scored for the feminine and masculine attributes dicotimizing scores into a masculinity or femininity dimension and, (b) a conversion to standardized T-scores allowing for four distinct groups (feminine, masculine, androgynous, and undifferentiated). It should be noted that while the original scoring system identifying only the two dimensions of masculinity and femininty was modified in response to criticism from Spense, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) and Strahan (1975), it was not a purpose of this investigation to enter into the androgyny debate, but rather to draw on the extensive findings of the BSRI as a frame of reference in viewing sex role identification. Therefore, for the purpose of this investigation, only the dimensions of masculinity and feminintiy were considered.

Using male and female university students, Bem reported alpha coefficient's for the BSRI questionnaire (60 items) of .75 for females on the femininity score and .78 for the masculinity score. Male estimates were .87 (femininity items) and .86 (masculinity items). Combining both the masculinity and femininity items (femininity-minus-

masculinity), alpha coefficients were .78 (females) to .84 (males). In a similar study by Bem in 1978, the alpha coefficients were .78 (females reporting femininity scores) and .86 (females reporting masculinity scores). Males achieved .78 on the femininity scale and .87 on the masculinity scale. Femininity-minus-masculinity differences yeilded .78 for females and .82 for males (Bem, 1974; Bem, 1981). Hyde and Phillips (1979) also reported high internal consistency estimates for adults, .98 and .97 on the masculinity and femininity scales, respectively.

Substance Use

Substance use questions were obtained from a pool used on more than 60,000 adolescents attending Arizona schools with the purpose of providing a comprehensive view of the frequencies and types of substances used by adolescents. Responses were self-reported. In several studies (e.g., Jones & Hartmann, 1988; Jones, Hartman, Grochowski, & Glider, 1989) self-report questions were found to be acceptable. Respondents in this study were assured anonymity, which has been shown to enhance the validity of self-report measures, particularly when dealing with personal and/or sensitive issues.

For the purpose of this study, substance use was defined as any use of tobacco, inhalants, alcohol, marijuana, cocaine/crack, amphetamines, barbituates, and

unprescribed medicines (other than what they were intended for).

School Performance

Previous semester's self-reported grade point average (GPA) was used to measure school performance because research findings indicate self-reported GPA can adequately represent student academic performance (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987). While the original intent was to obtain a cumulative GPA for all students, that goal was modified since the high school only reported cumulative GPA for senior students; therefore, it was decided to use the previous semester's GPA for all grades. For the 15 questionnaires that failed to include GPA, the unknowns were recoded to reflect the mean of the sample of 2.984.

Reliability and Validity of Measures

Cronbach's coefficient alpha was generated for each scale as follows: Bem masculinity scale (20 items) .86; Bem femininity scale (20 items) .81; Rosenberg's self-esteem (10 items) .86; perception of parental acceptance (natural father - 20 items) .95); perception of parental acceptance (natural mother - 20 items) .94; perception of parental acceptance (stepfather - 20 items) .96; perception of parental acceptance (stepmother - 20 items) .96; and substance use (9 items) .67. These estimates were deemed

appropriate, even impressive, for testing hypotheses posed in this study because in most cases they met or exceeded previous findings.

Procedures

Prior to collecting data, an administrator with the Department of Defense Dependent Schools in Washington D.C. was contacted for initial approval. Final approval was obtained from the local high school principal. Two weeks before the questionnaire was given, parents were sent a letter detailing the purpose of the study and instructions that participation was strictly voluntary. The letter stressed that no names would be taken. In addition, this researcher's home telephone number was made available for questions or concerns. Only one student of the 256 scheduled participants declined to take the questionnaire.

All questionnaires and directions were personally distributed by the investigator to minimize internal validity concerns. When completed, all questionnaires were immediately collected.

Sample Characteristics

The student sample consisted primarily of students with military parents and was obtained solely from an overseas Department of Defense High School in Italy. Inherent strengths within this type of sample include a widely diverse student population as slightly less than half of the

students did not consider themselves Anglo. Most students had lived in a variety of locations, yet only 5.9% had not lived in the United States. In addition, over 80% of the entire student body were sampled.

The sample also had limitations, principally the reliance on students with military parents. In addition, an Italian law that required an international driver's license to operate an automobile meant that virtually none of the adolescents owned or drove automobiles.

Data Analyses

Prior to hypothesis testing, a series of psychometric analyses was conducted to ensure the appropriateness of selected measures for this sample. Specifically, Cronbach's alphas (Cronbach, 1951) were calculated for the Bem masculinity and femininity scales, the measure of perception of parental acceptance, and the scale for substance use. All selected measures demonstrated adequate psychometric properties. Hypotheses tested were as follows.

HO 1. No correlation exists among adolescent substance use, academic performance, sex role identity, and self-esteem.

To examine relationships among the four dependent variables, Pearson correlation coefficients were generated for each and all scales.

HO 2. No difference exists between adolescents residing with both natural parents (intact) and adolescents residing with a natural parent and stepparent (reconstituted), when compared to the dependent variables of substance use, GPA, sex role identification, and self-esteem.

To test this hypothesis, one-way analysis of variance was employed in which living arrangements (with both natural parents versus with reconstituted families) constituted the independent variable (two levels); each of the four dependent variables (substance use, academic performance, sex role identity, and self-esteem) was entered separately in each of four identical analyses. Since the independent variable had only two levels, post hoc comparisons were not required.

HO 3. Adolescents who perceive positive acceptance by both natural parents do not manifest lower substance use, higher GPA, more appropriate sex role identification, or higher self-esteem as compared to those adolescents who perceive negative acceptance from both parents.

For HO 3, parental acceptance constituted the independent variable. In order to identify respondent perceptions of high versus low acceptance, score distributions for natural mother and natural father acceptance were generated, and groups were formed based on a median split. Four combinations resulted: high mother,

high father (++); low mother, high father (-+); high mother, low father (+-); and low mother, low father (--). For example, individuals who scored above the median on both mother and father acceptance formed one group. The high/low and low/high combinations formed the second and third groups. Individuals who scored below the median on both formed the fourth group. Those groups comprised the four levels of the independent variable. Again, one-way analyses of variance were employed to examine differences relating to each of the four dependent variables. Where significant differences emerged, Tukey HSD comparisons were generated to isolate differences among the four groups.

HO 4. Adolescents who perceive positive acceptance by both the natural parent and the stepparent do not manifest lower substance use, higher GPA, more appropriate sex role identification, or higher self-esteem when compared to those adolescents who perceive negative acceptance by both the natural parent and the stepparent.

HO 4 essentially mirrors HO 3 except that stepfather was transposed for father, and stepmother was transposed for mother. For HO 4, parental acceptance constituted the independent variable. In order to identify respondent perceptions of high versus low acceptance, scored distributions for stepmother and stepfather acceptance scores were generated, and groups were formed based on a median split. Four combinations resulted: high

mother/stepmother, high father/stepfather (++); low mother/stepmother, high father/stepfather (-+); high mother/stepmother, low father/stepfather (+-); and low mother/stepmother, low father/stepfather (--). These groups formed the four levels of the independent variable. Again, one-way analyses of variance were employed to examine differences relating to each of the four dependent variables. Where significant differences emerged, Tukey HSD comparisons were generated to isolate differences between the four groups.

HO 5. When the eight distinct family compositions are aggregated into similar acceptance groupings, each will show no differences among the individual dependent variables. Where there is perceived positive acceptance, regardless of the family structure (either natural or reconstituted), the result is not lower substance use, higher GPA, more appropriate sex role identification, or higher self-esteem as compared with perceived negative acceptance.

All eight groups that comprised the independent variables for HO 3 and HO 4 were combined. This resulted in eight groups consisting of various combinations of high and low perception of parental acceptance for both natural parents and stepparents. This procedure was undertaken in order to make comparisons between stepparents/natural parents and the various combinations of perceived parental

acceptance. Once again, significant differences were isolated by using the Tukey HSD comparisons.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This chapter summarizes findings from the methods and procedures described in Chapter III.

Hypothesis Testing

HO 1

No correlation exists among adolescent substance use, academic performance, sex role identity, and self-esteem.

In order to examine relationships between the dependent variables employed in this study, Pearson correlation coefficients were generated between each and all scales. Results from these analyses are summarized in Table 8. As shown, a significant relationship emerged for masculinity with self-esteem ($r = .41$; $r^2 = 16\%$), and also between substance use and GPA ($r = -.24$; $r^2 = 5\%$). With the exception of these relationships, no other correlations were found to be statistically significant. It is interesting to note, however, that substance use correlated negatively, albeit weakly, with all other scales; masculinity and femininity correlated positively with all scales (except substance use). All in all, the data in Table 8 indicated more uniqueness than similarity among the dependent measures in this study. The most similar measures were self-esteem and masculinity, sharing 16% common variance, leaving 84%

unique. Hence, in line with the previously stated hypothesis, each dependent variable could be treated as a unique construct in the following analysis. In summary, the data did not permit the rejection of HO1.

Table 8

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Dependent Variables

	Masculinity	Femininity	Self-Esteem	Substance Use	GPA
Masculinity	----	.07	.41**	-.01	.03
Femininity		----	.12	-.13	.01
Self-Esteem			----	-.14	.10
Substance Use				----	-.24**
GPA					----

Note. df. = 1, 237; ** $p < .001$

HO 2

No difference exists between adolescents residing with both natural parents (intact) and adolescents residing with a natural parent and stepparent (reconstituted), when compared across the dependent variables of substance use, GPA, sex role identification, and self-esteem.

To test for differences in the dependent variables attributable to living arrangement, one-way analyses of variance were calculated to compare scores across the two

groups. For each of the six analyses, respondents were grouped according to their self-reported living arrangements. Respondents who reported living with both natural parents formed one group (intact), while those who reported living with at least one stepparent formed the other (reconstituted). Results from these analyses are summarized in Table 9 below. As shown, all but one of the comparisons yielded nonsignificant differences across the two groups. The lone exception indicated that respondents living in intact environments reported higher GPAs than did peers living in reconstituted families; hence, HO2 can be rejected even though partial support for the hypothesis does exist. Examination of cell means revealed that the former (mean GPA = 3.05) obtained grades that were .32 higher than the latter (mean GPA = 2.73; F (1, 231) = 10.15; $p < .001$). All other comparisons evidenced similarity across the groups.

Table 9

Analyses of Variance for Dependent Variables Attributable to Living Arrangement

	Intact		Reconstituted		
	$\bar{X}$	sd	$\bar{X}$	sd	*F*
Sex Role	.40	1.08	.38	1.13	.01
Masculinity	4.99	.91	5.14	.78	1.08
Femininity	4.73	.76	4.67	.89	.19
Self-Esteem	30.32	5.27	29.90	5.45	.20
Substance Use	61%	49%	62%	49%	.05
GPA	3.05	.64	2.73	.70	**10.15** ***

Note. For all analyses, df. = 1, 231; *** $p < .001$.)

HO 3

Adolescents who perceive positive acceptance by both natural parents do not manifest lower substance use, higher GPA, more appropriate sex role identification, or higher self-esteem compared to those adolescents who perceive negative acceptance from both parents.

For HO 3, parental acceptance constituted the independent variable. In order to identify respondent perceptions of high versus low acceptance, distributions for mother and father acceptance scores were generated, and groups were formed based on a median split. Four

combinations resulted: high mother, high father (++); low mother, high father (-+); high mother, low father (+-); and low mother, low father (--). These groups formed four levels of the independent variable. One-way analyses of variance were employed to examine differences on each of the four dependent variables. Where significant differences emerged, Tukey HSD comparisons were generated to isolate differences among the four groups. Results from these analyses are summarized in Table 10.

Examination of Table 10 indicates that sex role, masculinity, and GPA were not mediated by perceptions of parental acceptance (natural parents). Significant differences were observed for the remaining variables of femininity, self-esteem, and substance use, with the strongest being self-esteem.

As shown in Table 10, femininity scores were highest among respondents in the (++) group (mean = 4.90), followed by (--) (mean = 4.64), (-+) (mean = 4.52), and (+-) (mean = 4.48). The mean comparison yielded an $F = 3.14$; $p < .05$. Tukey post hoc comparisons did not isolate any specific differences and, hence, the only conclusion that could be drawn from this analysis was that the (++) group scored significantly higher than the (+-) group.

For self-esteem, the highest levels were observed among (++) respondents (32.25), followed by the (+-) respondents (30.65), (-+) respondents (30.14), and (--) respondents

(27.14). The *F* ratio for this analysis was 9.98 ($p < .001$). Post hoc comparisons indicate that the (++) group scored significantly higher than the (--) group (about 15% higher), as did the (-+) group (10% higher).

For substance use, the *F* ratio for this analysis was 2.59 ($p < .05$). Examination of group means revealed that 52% of the (++) respondents reported some substance use, while 65% (-+), 71% (+-), and 76% (--) reported substance use. Post hoc comparisons revealed that the (++) group reported less substance use than did the (--) group (a 24% difference).

Table 10

Analyses of Variance for Dependent Variables and Levels of Perceived Acceptance Scores (Intact Family Situation)

	Group 1 +M/+F		Group 2 -M/+F		Group 3 +M/-F		Group 4 -M/-F		
	$\bar{X}$	sd	$\bar{X}$	sd	$\bar{X}$	sd	$\bar{X}$	sd	*F*
Sex role	.51	1.06	.29	.98	.17	1.50	.35	1.08	.60
Masculinity	5.09	.87	5.01	.87	5.35	.78	4.75	.97	1.97
Femininity	4.90	.74	4.52	.55	4.48	.95	4.64	.80	**3.14***
Self-Esteem	32.25	4.70	30.14	4.25	30.65	4.80	27.14	6.12	**9.98*****
Substance Use	52%	.50	64%	.49	71%	.47	76%	.43	**2.59***
GPA	3.15	.61	3.12	.65	2.82	.58	2.95	.67	1.91

Note 1. df = 3, 173; * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$.
Note 2. ‹ Positive Acceptance (+); Negative Acceptance (-)
‹ Mother (M); Father (F)

HO 4

Adolescents who perceive positive acceptance by both the natural parent and the stepparent do not manifest lower substance use, higher GPA, more appropriate sex role identification, or higher self-esteem when compared to those adolescents who perceive negative acceptance by both the natural parent and the stepparent.

HO 4 essentially mirrors HO 3 except that stepfather was transposed for father, and stepmother was transposed for

mother. For HO 4, parental acceptance constituted the independent variable. Again, in order to identify respondent perceptions of high versus low acceptance, distributions for mother/stepmother and father/stepfather acceptance scores were generated, and groups were formed based on a median split. Four combinations resulted: high mother/stepmother, high father/stepfather (++); low mother/stepmother, high father/stepfather (-+); and high mother/stepmother, low father/stepfather (+-); and low mother/stepmother, low father/stepfather (--). These groups formed four levels of the independent variable. One-way analyses of variance were also employed to examine differences on each of the four dependent variables. Where significant differences emerged, Tukey HSD comparisons were generated to isolate differences among the four groups.

Results from these analyses are summarized in Table 11. Examination of the table indicates that sex role identification, masculinity, self-esteem, substance use, and GPA were not mediated by perceptions of parental acceptance (reconstituted families). A significant difference was observed for the variable of femininity. The lack of significant differences in self-esteem and substance use sharply contrasted with the findings among adolescents within intact families.

As shown in Table 11, femininity scores among the (++) and (+-) groups were identical (5.02), while the (-+) and

(--) were similar (4.40 and 4.50, respectively) as well. The mean comparison yielded a $F = 2.84$; $p < .05$. Tukey post hoc comparisons did not isolate any additional differences, hence, the main conclusion drawn from this analysis was that the (++) and (+-) groups scored significantly higher than the (-+) group.

Table 11

Analyses of Variance for Dependent Variables and Levels of Perceived Acceptance Scores (Reconstituted Family Situation)

	Group 5 +M/+F		Group 6 -M/+F		Group 7 +M/-F		Group 8 -M/-F		
	$\bar{X}$	sd	$\bar{X}$	sd	$\bar{X}$	sd	$\bar{X}$	sd	*F*
Sex role	.46	1.02	.45	1.25	.86	.80	.26	1.16	.65
Masculinity	5.30	.58	4.78	.89	5.21	.72	4.91	.99	1.58
Femininity	5.02	.72	4.40	.74	5.02	.77	4.50	.91	**2.83***
Self-Esteem	31.30	5.11	30.25	5.61	28.20	4.92	28.24	5.33	1.80
Substance Use	56%	.51	50%	.52	50%	.53	68%	.48	.54
GPA	2.82	.66	2.82	.79	2.36	.57	2.89	.60	1.70

Note 1. df. = 3, 66; * $p < .05$).
Note 2. ‹ Positive Acceptance (+); Negative Acceptance (-)
‹ Mother (M); Father (F)

HO 5

When the 8 distinct family compositions are aggregated into similar acceptance groupings, each shows no differences

among the individual dependent variables. Where there is perceived positive acceptance, regardless of the family structure (either natural or reconstituted), the result is not lower substance use, higher GPA, more appropriate sex role identification, or higher self-esteem as compared with perceived negative acceptance.

The two groups (four subgroups each) that comprised the independent variables of HO 3 and HO 4 were combined. This resulted in eight groups consisting of various combinations of high and low perception of parental acceptance for both natural parents and stepparents. This procedure was undertaken in order to make comparisons between stepparents/natural parents and the various combinations of perceived parental acceptance. Once again, significant differences were isolated using the Tukey HSD comparisons.

To test for differences in the dependent variables across respondents in intact families and respondents in reconstituted families, one-way analyses of variance were calculated to compare scores across the eight groups. For each (of six) analysis, respondents were grouped according to perceptions of parental acceptance whether they reported an intact or reconstituted family situation, i.e., regardless of living arrangement. Respondents who reported an intact family situation (Intact = 1) formed four groups (++, +-, -+, --), while those who reported at least one stepparent (Reconstituted = R) formed the other (++, +-, -+,

--). Results from these analyses are summarized in Table 12 below. As depicted in Table 12, three dependent variables (i.e., masculinity, self-esteem, and substance use) yielded nonsignificant differences across the eight groups.

For self-esteem, the highest levels were observed among (++I) and (++R), the lowest (--I). Nonsignificant differences were found among (-+I), (-+R), (+-I), and (+-R). The *F*-ratio for this analysis was 5.12 ($p < .001$). Post hoc comparisons indicated that the (++I) and (++R) groups scored significantly higher than the (--I) group on self-esteem. In addition, (++I) scored significantly higher than (--R), again, on self-esteem.

For GPA, the (++I) group obtained the highest mean (3.15), with the (-+I) group closely following (3.12). The *F* ratio was 3.03 ($p < .05$). Identical means were obtained for (+-I), (++R), and (-+R). Post hoc comparisons indicated that two groups (++I and -+I) scored significantly higher than the (+-R) group.

Femininity scores were highest in the (+-R) and (++R) and groups (5.02). The reconstituted group also had the lowest score (-+R) on this variable. The *F*-ratio comparison was 2.64 ($p < .05$). Tukey post hoc comparisons did not isolate any specific differences other than these. Therefore, the main conclusion to be drawn was that the (++R) and (+-R) groups scored significantly higher than the (-+R) group.

Table 12

Analyses of Variance for Dependent Variables and Levels of Perceived Acceptance Scores (Intact Vs. Reconstituted--Aggregated)

	Intact		Intact		Reconstituted		Reconstituted		
	Group 1 +M/+F	Group 2 -M/+F	Group 3 +M/-F	Group 4 -M/-F	Group 5 +M/+F	Group 6 -M/+F	Group 7 +M/-F	Group 8 -M/-F	*F*
Sex- Role	.51	.29	.17	.35	.46	.45	.86	.26	.55
Masculinity	5.09	5.01	5.35	4.75	5.30	4.78	5.21	4.91	1.50
Femininity	4.90	4.52	4.48	4.64	5.02	4.40	5.02	4.50	**2.64***
Self-Esteem	32.25	30.14	30.65	27.14	31.30	30.25	28.20	28.24	**5.12*****
Substance Use	52%	64%	71%	76%	56%	50%	50%	68%	1.38
GPA	3.15	3.12	2.82	2.95	2.82	2.82	2.36	2.89	**3.03****

Note 1. df. = 3, 66; * $p < .05$.
Note 2. ‹ Positive Acceptance (+); Negative Acceptance (-)
‹ Mother (M); Father (F)

Additional Analyses

Additional analyses, to further illuminate the relationships tested in this investigation, consisted of generating Pearson correlation coefficients between natural father, natural mother, stepfather, stepmother, perception of parental acceptance, and the dependent measures used in this study. Results from these analyses are summarized in Table 13. As depicted, a positive correlation was found between natural father, perceived acceptance, and self-

esteem ($r = .33$, $r^2 = 11\%$) and between natural father and femininity on the Bem Scales ($r = .17$, $r^2 = 3\%$). A positive correlation was found between natural mother and self-esteem ($r = .44$, $r^2 = 19\%$), femininity of the Bem Scales (.19, $r^2 = 4\%$), and substance use ($r = -.16$, $r^2 = 3\%$). Interestingly, the correlation between stepfather with self-esteem ($r = .31$, $r^2 = 10\%$) was almost identical to the correlation found between natural father and self-esteem. This similarity did not hold for natural mother/stepmother and self-esteem as no significant correlation was found between stepmother and self-esteem. Stepmother did, however, correlate positively with masculinity on the Bem Scales ($r = .35$, $r^2 = 12\%$; $p < .01$).

Table 13

Correlations Between the Perception of Parental Acceptance by Each Parent (Natural and Stepparent) and the Dependent Measures

	Substance Use	Self-Esteem	Masculinity	Femininity	GPA
Natural Father	-.08	.33**	.12	.17*	.11
Natural Mother	-.16*	.44**	.14	.19*	.12
Stepfather	-.09	.31*	.13	.11	.20
Stepmother	.15	-.07	.35*	.30	-.06

Note. ** $p < .001$; * $p < .01$

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Summary

The objectives of this research were broad in scope, the first being to examine the relationship between the independent variable of adolescent perceptions of parental acceptance and the dependent variables of adolescent self-esteem, academic performance, sex role identity, and use of substances. A secondary goal was to determine if living arrangements (intact versus reconstituted family situation) were systematically related to differences among the dependent measures. The third and fourth objectives sought to ascertain the effects of parental acceptance, specifically, to determine if positive parental acceptance resulted in differences on the dependent variables among adolescents with intact families and adolescents with stepparents. The final aim was to determine the effects of combining responses from those with intact and reconstituted family situations into similar acceptance groupings to establish if differences existed when contrasted against each dependent variable.

To accomplish these objectives, questionnaires were given to 256 high school students in Grades 9 through 12 in an overseas Department of Defense Dependent School (DoDDs).

Questionnaires consisted of 119 items incorporating the measures of Perception of Parental Behavior Index; Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale; The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI); questions on substance use; and self-reported grade point averages (GPA). Of the 256 initial respondents, 233 students met the criterion of the two categories under investigation: adolescents of intact families (N,180) and adolescents with a natural parent and a stepparent (N,53).

A flexible model of interrelationships was established through a family structure/perception of parental acceptance/four-variable mechanism. From the model, five hypotheses were derived to determine if correlations existed among the dependent variables; if variability within dependent variables was attributable to living arrangements (i.e., intact versus reconstituted parental/adolescent arrangements); if variability within dependent variables was attributable to perception of parental acceptance from natural parents; if variability within dependent variables was attributable to perception of parental acceptance from stepparents; and if variability within the dependent variables was attributable to perception of parental acceptance regardless of family structure.

A review of the literature indicated that parental acceptance had not been fully examined in relation to adolescent substance use, academic performance, and sex role identity. In addition, adolescent perception of parental

acceptance had not been contrasted across adolescents from intact families and adolescents of reconstituted families, nor had there been an attempt to aggregate findings into a familial structure or relationship context. Considerable research had been conducted on each variable (parental acceptance, sex role identity, self-esteem, substance use, and academic performance), but it was the blending of the variables within one investigation and then further compartmentalizing the findings into a familial structure and relationship context that offered the prospect of extending the research along a broad continuum.

Major findings indicated that among the dependent variables, each could be treated as unique constructs. Self-esteem and masculinity, for example, were the only variables that obtained 16% shared variance. Among adolescents residing with both natural parents and adolescents residing in a reconstituted family situation, no differences were found when compared on the dependent variables of substance use, sex role identification, and self-esteem. However, it was found that adolescents living within intact families demonstrated significantly higher grade point averages than adolescents living in reconstituted families.

When the effects of perceived positive acceptance among adolescents living with both natural parents were assessed, significant differences emerged among the variables of

femininity, self-esteem, and substance use. By contrast, adolescents in a reconstituted family situation who perceived positive acceptance by both their natural parent and stepparent indicated that sex role identification, masculinity, self-esteem, substance use, and GPA were not mediated by perceptions of parental acceptance. However, a significant difference did emerge for the variable of femininity. The lack of significant differences in self-esteem and substance use contrasted sharply with the findings among adolescents within intact families.

When the eight distinct family compositions were aggregated into similar acceptance groupings where perceived acceptance was positive (either by the adolescent's natural parents or by a natural parent and a stepparent), self-esteem scores were highest, irrespective of family structure.

Discussion

The findings from this investigation indicated that many of the expected results were not confirmed. The following discussion amplifies the overall finding.

Relationships among Dependent Variables (HO 1)

In assessing relationships among the dependent variables, the correlation between substance use and GPA was in line with previous studies that linked substance use to

school performance (Donovan & Jessor, 1985; Fors & Rojek, 1983; Kahn & Kulick, 1975; Langhinrichsen et al., 1990; Mills & Noyes, 1984; Oetting & Beauvais, 1990). The significant correlation between masculinity on the Bem Scale and the self-esteem measure was also not surprising, since that too had been previously found (Massad, 1981; Narus & Fisher, 1982; Willemsen, 1987). However, the lack of other correlations among the dependent variables was unexpected. Previous research had indicated that school performance and self-esteem were closely associated (Cooper et al., 1983; Long et al., 1987; LoSciuto & Ausetts, 1988; Wierson et al., 1988). A relationship between substance use and self-esteem had also been found (Darden & Zimmerman, 1992; Deilman, 1987; Grady et al., 1986; Grimes & Swisher, 1989; Kim et al., 1989; Svobodny, 1982; Taylor & Hall, 1982). The present research, however, did not evidence such relationships; in fact, the dependent variables appeared to be more different than similar.

Living Arrangements (HO 2)

The findings stemming from the importance of living arrangements indicated that living arrangements per se (living in an intact home versus reconstituted family) apparently had little effect on adolescent self-esteem, sex role identification, and adolescent use of substances. GPA was the sole exception as adolescents living within intact families enjoyed significantly higher grade point averages

than did those adolescents living in reconstituted family situations. While adolescents living in intact families had been shown to achieve higher GPAs than adolescents of divorce living in single parent families (Svobodny, 1982; Taylor & Hall, 1982), this research extends the findings to two-parent reconstituted families derived from all circumstances. The lack of other relations attributed to family structure, i.e., living arrangements, was surprising. The finding does, however, argue the position that living arrangement (e.g., family structure) in and of itself cannot be separated from family processes. As Kelly (1988) affirmed, there is a critical need for a better understanding of family processes.

Perception of Parental Acceptance (HO 3 & HO4)

In reference to the fourth and fifth objectives dealing with differences between positive and negative perception of parental acceptance, statistical results indicated that perception of parental acceptance is indeed an important mediator. This is true even though the importance of positive acceptance was not found to be universally strong across all dependent variables, nor even among family situations. Positive perception of parental acceptance among adolescents in an intact family situation was associated with greater self-esteem and femininity, and less substance use when compared with negative acceptance. The

same findings did not hold true for adolescents in a reconstituted family situation; only the femininity variable seemed to be affected by positive versus negative perception of parental acceptance.

The association of positive perception of parental acceptance with self-esteem in an intact family situation substantiates previous research that had stressed the importance of family relationship variables in the home (Adams, 1985; Cooper et al., 1983; Gfellner, 1986; Hess & Camara, 1979; Kurdek, 1988; Kurdek & Sinclair, 1988). Similar findings for stepparent families had also been found (Kurdek & Sinclair, 1988). Litovsky and Dusek (1985), using the CRPBI, also found a strong relation between self-esteem and parental acceptance, while Parish and Copeland (1979) and Parish and Wigle (1985) had linked evaluations of parents of children of both college and school age children to self-concept. It appeared, therefore, that parental acceptance would extend universally to parents (i.e., to stepparents and natural parents). Consequently, the absence of a similar association with a natural parent and stepparent (reconstituted family situation) was surprising, especially since self-esteem and parental acceptance yielded significant associations with both intact and reconstituted situations when all eight family situations were grouped together (in HO 5). Given the lack of association of perception of parental acceptance and self-esteem in

reconstituted families, one may speculate that an otherwise positive reconstituted family situation may well be ameliorated or even negated by divorce, underscoring the extensive research on the adverse effects of divorce (Glenn & Kramer, 1985; Glenn & Kramer, 1987; Hetherington, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1976; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1985; Wallerstein, 1983; Wallerstein, 1985; Wallerstein, 1987; Wallerstein, 1991).

The relationship between positive perception of parental acceptance and substance use, which was found in the intact family, corresponded to previous research associating family closeness and cohesion and children's well-being (Langhinrichsen et al., 1990; Ried, 1989; Ringwalt & Palmer, 1989; Rosen, 1979). Given those findings, however, it was expected that adolescents with stepparents would mirror similar findings of adolescents from intact families; such was not the case, as no relation was found between substance use and perception of parental acceptance in a reconstituted family situation. Again, one may speculate that divorce may well subvert the effects of a positive perception of parental acceptance.

Higher femininity scores associated with positive perception of parental acceptance in both intact and reconstituted family situations were also mildly surprising. Little evidence in the sex role literature had supported positive support for feminine traits outside of the findings

by Marsh (1987) who found support of feminine traits for females only; rather, most research had found androgynous (Hollinger, 1983; Massad, 1981; Wells, 1980) or masculine traits to be advantageous for females (Lamke, 1982b; Signorella & Wesley, 1986; Silber & Tippett, 1965; Wells, 1980). Additionally, Sexton, Hingst, and Regan (1985) reported that androgynous-identified females from intact families perceived greater father care than feminine or undifferentiated females from divorced families. Conversely, feminine-identified females from intact families reported greater levels of combined mother and father overprotection scores. Yet this investigation showed that positive perception of parental acceptance, regardless of family situation, evidenced an advantageous relationship of high femininity results.

Acceptance Groupings (HO 5)

Aggregating the intact and reconstituted family situations into acceptance groupings, the final objective of this investigation, yielded perhaps the most interesting findings. Previous research had indicated that children of divorce and children from intact families perceived themselves to be equally accepted by their mothers and fathers (Teleki, Powell, & Claypool, 1984). Results of this investigation showed that adolescents who perceived that they were positively accepted (either by natural parents or by a natural parent and a stepparent) evidenced the highest

and, incidentally, almost similar self-esteem scores. While this finding could be used to further the often argued position that family processes are more important than family structure, one must be cautious in overextending such conclusions. A more prudent interpretation for this finding may be that an intact family situation per se does not necessarily guarantee positive self-esteem especially if parents in intact families are perceived as unaccepting. This is especially true when one notes that the lowest levels of self-esteem were evident in adolescents from intact homes who perceived that they were negatively accepted by both parents.

Positive acceptance from natural parents in an intact family situation resulted in higher grade point averages. However, closely following GPA and acceptance by both natural parents were those of positive acceptance by natural fathers (but not natural mothers) in an intact family. The finding linking GPA to father acceptance, while not demonstrating the same strength relation with natural mothers, was particularly interesting in that previous research had also found that GPA may be substantially affected by the father/adolescent relationship (Ershler, Leventhal, Fleming, & Glynn, 1989; Forehand, Long, Brody, & Fauber, 1986). All in all, these results clearly demonstrate that when related to academic school

performance, the intact home is a significantly better place for adolescents to be.

Parent Variables with Dependent Measures

Finally, even though ascertaining relationships between natural father, natural mother, stepfather, stepmother, perception of parental acceptance, and the dependent measures was not an original goal of this research endeavor, during the course of this investigation it appeared that such an analysis would provide an illuminating view of the relationship of parental effects. Results provided significant correlations among natural fathers, natural mothers, and stepfathers, and adolescent self-esteem. These findings were particularly interesting since previous research had concluded that children of divorce evaluated parents (including their natural parents and stepfathers-of-divorce) more negatively than adolescents of intact families (Parish & Copeland, 1979). Interestingly, stepmothers appeared not to have the same effect on adolescent self-esteem, as no correlation was found between stepmother and self-esteem. This anomaly in the data is fertile ground for further research, as to my knowledge, stepmother impact on adolescent self-esteem has not be examined. Obscured in the larger context of this investigation was that the male figure (father or stepfather) proved to be a central figure in adolescent self-esteem and GPA. This finding bears

further investigation since Kurdek (1986), in a review of several studies of the father's influence on children, found no significant relationship between the father's involvement and the well-being of children. However, as Kurdek (1988) posited, paternal influence may be important, but not in traditional ways.

Limitations and Recommendations

1. Sampling. The sample consisted of adolescents attending a Department of Defense Dependent School (DoDDs) high school in an overseas location. As a result, parents were almost exclusively military service members. School circumstances were also rather unusual. Major discipline problems in the high school were rare, due partially to the fact that incidents within the school environment could result in parents being counseled and even disciplined by military superiors. Also, the school was located adjacent to a large metropolitan city. National driving licensing laws, the high cost of automobile insurance, and foreign car permit regulations all combined to insure that few high school adolescents could drive, much less own a car. Adolescents were therefore dependent on supervised school buses, parents, or in rare cases local nationals to attend school and extracurricular events that resulted in increased adult supervision.

Given greater supervision by parents and authorities, it was expected that substance use would possibly be lower than national estimates. That expectation was realized even though causality could not be determined with certainty.

While the preceding discussion evidences a rather unique high school population, one word of caution is in order to those who may deny the representativeness of this "military dependent" sample. Except for a few students, the sample population had spent most of their lives attending civilian schools in the U.S. and was ethnically diverse.

2. Use of cross-sectional data. Data were collected over a 3 day period during the first week in December 1991. To minimize the negative effects of a "one-time" shot, the date was chosen to minimize particularly turbulent times (e.g., the beginning of school) and allow new students the opportunity to acclimate to new surroundings.

3. Combining the use of substances (regardless of type) into one broad substance use category. As stated in Chapter II, substance use was defined as the "use of any illegal substance or using a substance (such as cough syrup) other than for its intended purpose." Combining all substances into one category fulfilled the purpose of this investigation, to identify substance use on a broad basis; however, future investigations may consider identifying actual substances used, their frequency, and amount consumed, to yield a more detailed analysis and provide

additional pertinent information. However, given that this particular sample did not evidence a great deal of variability for the reasons previously identified, it is speculated that a more refined analysis of substance use would result in greater dividends with a U.S. high school sample.

4. Combining perception of parental acceptance into two groups (positive and negative) versus refining the categories into four groups (highly positive, positive, negative, strongly negative. Refining "acceptance" into four groups would allow a closer inspection of the variable which in turn might offer additional insight into the role a "strongly positive/strongly negative" perception of acceptance would have on an adolescents well-being. However insufficient "N's" among the four groups precluded this procedure.

5. Reactivity, especially in relation to the questions of substance use. Even though self-reporting measures of substance use have been found to be reasonably truthful and accurate (Oetting & Beauvais, 1990), reactivity was a major concern of this researcher, especially as the sample consisted of military dependents for whom revelation of substance use could mean more severe repercussions than may normally result. Respondent anonymity was therefore repeatedly stressed; for example, this researcher did not

wear a uniform while discussing the questionnaire, nor was military rank even mentioned.

6. The necessity to reduce the original design of the investigation. Originally, the various parental combinations were to be divided into 12 subgroups providing for a more precise and refined inspection into all possible family structure combinations relating to perception of parental acceptance (see Figure 6). In addition, further design goals were to aggregate the 12 subgroups identifying specific family relationships, and provide an in-depth view of each of the 12 parental subgroups from a family structure and relationship perspective. (See Figures 7 and 8, respectively.) Unfortunately, after a preliminary statistical analysis, the "N" required for such an in-depth examination was simply not sufficient. It was therefore necessary to collapse the 12 subgroupings into more manageable categories.

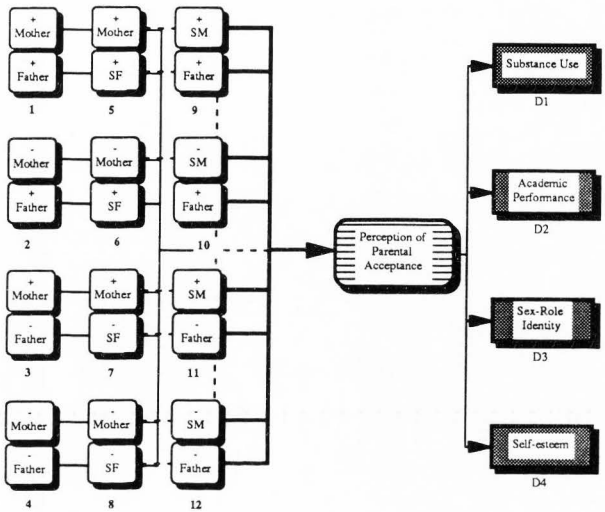


Figure 6. Model depicting twelve parental subgroups.

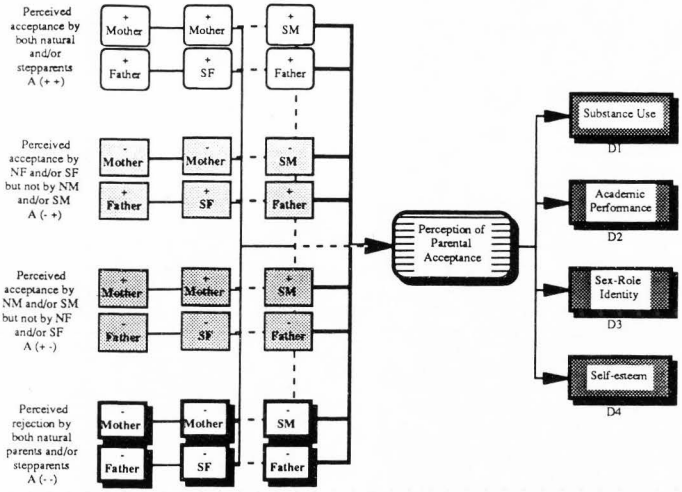


Figure 7. Model depicting families from a relationship perspective.

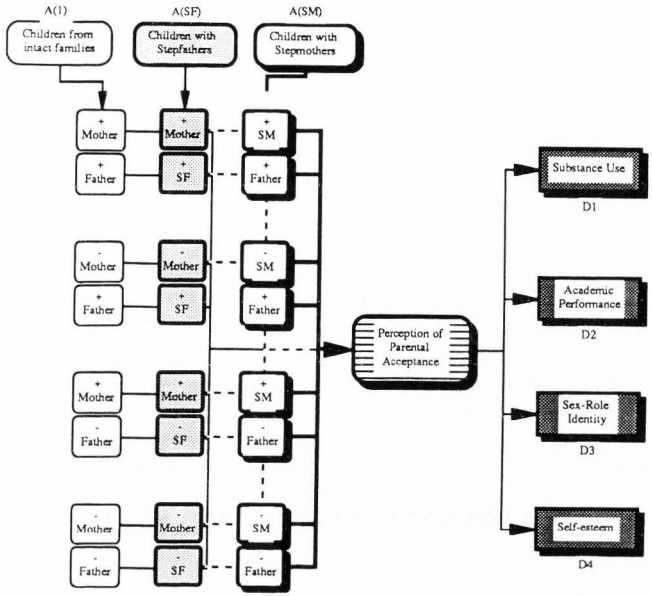


Figure 8. Model showing families from a structural perspective.

Strengths

Care was taken to insure subject representativeness. Consequently, the sample was ethnically diverse, spanned a wide range of classes in the school, and consisted of over 80% of the student body population.

Recommendations

Corresponding to limitations previously presented,

1. It is recommended that this study be replicated in various stateside locations for external validity considerations.

2. Even though a great deal of care was taken to minimize the effects inherent in obtaining cross-sectional data, a longitudinal follow-up is strongly recommended.

3. Given the widespread concern of the effects of different substances, further studies may wish to explore in detail the actual substances used and their frequency.

4. Due to the sample size, a refinement of perception of parental acceptance was not possible. Future investigations should attempt to further segment acceptance into a 4-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

5. While this researcher does not believe that reactivity was a major problem given the sensitivity in which the issue was addressed and the tendency for teenagers to be honest when anonymity is confirmed, this issue still should be closely monitored in future studies to strengthen validity.

6. It is believed this investigation has made an important contribution to the understanding of how family structure and inter-familiar relationships affect adolescents; however, it is highly recommended that this

investigation be completed following the original design to further refine the data presented. By identifying exactly what parent (on the individual level) is perceived to be accepting versus rejecting, valuable insight may be gained in understanding what role, and to what degree, family structure and family environment contribute to the emotional well-being of adolescents.

Final Comments

This investigator began this research and completed it with the deep conviction that when adolescents are required to adapt to a reconstituted family situation due to parental divorce, an emotional upheaval follows which is profound and life changing. However, this investigation has made it clear that the issues of *how* and *to what degree* divorce impacts children are not always readily apparent. As Kelly (1988) stated:

> We have barely scratched the surface in our understanding of the overlapping and unique contributions of the mother and father, of the importance of variations in parental and sibling relationships, and of the relevance of the family's place in the larger world to the child's developmental and psychological well-being. It is hardly surprising that we have yet to comprehend the respective

contributions of these and other variables after divorce. (p. 160)

A valuable byproduct of this investigation is the realization that there are no easy or simple answers to the complex questions dealing with family structure and processes. However, with divorce striking increasing numbers of children, it is incumbent that a better understanding of the effects of divorce be pursued vigorously with the principal goal of providing parents, teachers, and clinicians information to assist children in one of the most significant transitions they will face during their lives.

REFERENCES

Adams, G. R. (1985). Family correlates of female adolescents' ego-identity development. Journal of Adolescence, 8, 69-82.

Amato, P. R. (1986). Martial conflict, the parent-child relationship and child self-esteem. Family Relations, 35, 403-410.

Anker, J. L., Milman, D. H., Kahan, S. A., & Valenti, C. (1971). Drug usage and related patterns of behavior in university students: 1. General survey and marijuana use. Journal of the American College Health Association, 19, 178-186.

Avery, A. W. (1982). Escaping loneliness in adolescence: The case for androgyny. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 11(6), 451-459.

Barnes, G. M., & Welte, J. W. (1986a). Adolescent alcohol abuse: Subgroup differences and relationships to other problem behaviors. Journal of Adolescent Research, 1(1), 79-94.

Barnes, G. M., & Welte, J. W. (1986b). Patterns and predictors of alcohol use among 7-12th grade students in New York State. Journal of Studies on Alcohol, 47(1), 53-62.

Bem, S. L. (1974). The measurement of psychological androgyny. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 42(2), 155-162.

Bem, S. L. (1979). Theory and measurement of androgyny: A reply to the Pedhazur-Tetenbaum and Locksley-Colten critiques. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37(6), 1047-1054.

Bem, S. L. (1981). Bem sex-role inventory: Professional manual. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Bem, S. L., Martyna, W., & Watson, C. (1976). Sex typing and androgyny: Further explorations of the expressive domain. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34(5), 1016-1023.

Bernard, M. E., Boyle, G. J., & Jackling, B. F. (1990). Sex-role identity and mental ability. Personality Individual Differences, 11(3), 213-217.

Blos, P. (1962). On adolescence. New York: The Free Press.

Bowerman, C., & Irish, D. (1962). Some relationships of stepchildren to their parents. Marriage and Family Living, 24, 113-121.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1977). Toward an experimental ecology of human development. American Psychologist, 32, 513-531.

Brook, J. S., Whiteman, M., Gordon, A. S., & Nomura, C. (1986). Onset of adolescent drinking: A longitudinal study on interpersonal and interpersonal antecedents. Advances in Alcohol and Substance Abuse, 5(3), 91-110.

Brown, B. B., & Lohr, M. J. (1987). Peer-group affiliation and adolescent self-esteem: An integration of ego-identity and symbolic-interaction theories. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52(1), 47-55.

Bumpass, L. (1984). Children and marital disruption: A replication and update. Demography, 21, 71-82.

Carlini-Cotrim, B., & Carline, E. A. (1988). The use of solvents and other drugs among children and adolescents from a low socioeconomic background: A study in Sao Paulo, Brazil. International Journal of the Addictions, 23(11), 1145-1156.

Carmines, E. G., & Zeller, R. A. (1979). Reliability and Validity Assessment. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Chadwick, O., Yule, W., & Anderson, R. (1990). The examination attainments of secondary school pupils who abuse solvents. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 60(2), 180-191.

Chiam, H. (1987). Change in self-concept during adolescence. Adolescence, 22(85), 69-76.

Christiansen, B. A., Smith, G. T., & Roehling, P. V. (1989). Using alcohol expectancies to predict adolescent drinking behavior after one year. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 57(1), 93-99.

Christopherson, B. B., Jones, R. M., & Sales, A. P. (1988). Diversity in reported motivations for substance use as a function of ego-identity development. Journal of Adolescent Research, 3(2), 141-152.

Cohen, R. Y., Sattler, J., Felix, M. R. J., & Brownell, K. D. (1987). Experimentation with smokeless tobacco and cigarettes by children and adolescents: Relationship to beliefs, peer use, and parent use. American Journal of Public Health, 77, 1454-1456.

Cooper, J. E., Holman, J., & Braithwaite, V. A. (1983). Self-esteem and family cohesion: The child's perspective and adjustment. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 45, 153-159.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco, CA: Freeman.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. Psychometrika, 16, 297-334.

Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Larson, R. (1984). Being adolescent. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Darden, E. C., & Zimmerman, T. S. (1992). Blended families: A decade review, 1979 to 1990. Family Therapy, 19(1), 25-31.

Dawson, D. A. (1991). Family structure and children's health and well-being: Data from the 1988 national health interview survey on child health. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 53, 573-584.

Deilman, T. E. (1987). Susceptibility to peer pressure, self-esteem, and health locus of control as correlates of adolescent substance abuse. Health Education Quarterly, 14, 207-21.

Demaris, A. (1984). A comparison of remarriages with first marriages on satisfaction in marriage and its relationship to prior cohabitation. Family Relations, 33, 443-448.

Dishion, T. J., & Loeber, R. (1985). Adolescent marijuana and alcohol use: The role of parents and peers revisited. American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, 11(1-2), 11-25.

Donovan, J. E., & Jessor, R. (1985). Structure of problem behavior in adolescence and young adulthood. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 53(6), 890-904.

Dornbusch, S. M., Ritter, P. L., Leiderman, P. H., Roberts, D. F., & Fraleigh, M. J. (1987). The relation of parenting style to adolescent school performance. Child Development, 58, 1244-1257.

Enos, D. M., & Handal, P. J. (1986). The relation of parental marital status and perceived family conflict to adjustment in white adolescents. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 54(6), 820-824.

Erikson, E. H. (1950). Childhood and society. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Erikson, E. H. (1968). Identity: Youth and crisis. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Erikson, E. H. (1979). Identity and the life cycle. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Ershler, J., Leventhal, H., Fleming, R., & Glynn, K. (1989). The quitting experience for smokers in sixth through twelfth grades. Addictive Behaviors, 14, 365-378.

Fleming, J. S., & Courtney, B. E. (1984). The dimensionality of self-esteem: II. Hierarchical facet model for revised measurement scales. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46(2), 404-421.

Forehand, R., Long, N., Brody, G. H., & Fauber, R. (1986). Home predictors of young adolescents' school behavior and academic performance. Child Development, 57, 1528-1533.

Fors, S. W., & Rojek, D. G. (1983). The social and demographic correlates of adolescent drug use patterns. Journal of Drug Education, 13(3), 205-222.

Freidman, A. F., Glickman, N., & Utada, A. (1985). Does drug and alcohol use lead to failure to graduate from high school. Journal of Drug Education, 15, 353-364.

Freud, A. (1952). Adolescence. Psychoanalytic Studies Child, 13, 255-278.

Fry, P. S., & Scher, A. (1984). The effects of father absence on children's achievement motivation, ego-strength, and locus-of-control orientation: A five year longitudinal assessment. British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 2, 167-178.

Ganong, L. H., & Coleman, M. (1984). The effects of remarriage on children: A review of the empirical literature. Family Relations, 33, 389-406.

Gfellner, B. M. (1986). Changes in ego and moral development in adolescents: A longitudinal study. Journal of Adolescence, 9, 281-302.

Gibbons, S., Wylie, M. L., Echterling, L., & French, J. (1986). Patterns of alcohol use among rural and small-town adolescents. Adolescence, 21(84), 887-900.

Glenn, N. D., & Kramer, K. B. (1985). The psychological well-being of adult children of divorce. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 47, 905-912.

Glenn, N. D., & Kramer, K. B. (1987). The marriages and divorces of the children of divorce. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 49, 811-825.

Gold, M. (1978). Scholastic experiences, self-esteem, and delinquent behavior: A theory for alternative schools. Crime and Delinquency, 24(3), 290-308.

Grady, K., Gersick, K. E., Snow, D. L., & Kesson, M. (1986). The emergence of adolescent substance abuse. Journal of Drug Education, 16(3), 203-220.

Grimes, J. D., & Swisher, J. D. (1989). Educational factors influencing adolescent decision making regarding use of alcohol and drugs. Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 35, 1-15.

Grobe, C., & Campell, E. (1990). Who is using what in the public schools: The interrelationships among alcohol, drug and tobacco use by adolescents in New Brunswick classrooms. Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 35(3), 1-11.

Hammond, J. M. (1979). Children of divorce: Implications for counselors. The School Counselor, 27, 7-14.

Havighurst, R. J. (1983). Sex role development. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 16(2), 60-65.

Hess, R. D., & Camara, K. A. (1979). Post-divorce family relationships as mediating factors in the consequences of divorce for children. Journal of Social Issues, 35, 79-96.

Hetherington, E. M. (1979). Divorce: A child's perspective. American Psychologist, 34(10), 851-858.

Hetherington, E. M., Cox, M., & Cox, R. (1976). Divorced fathers. Family Coordinator, 25, 417-428.

Hetherington, E. M., Cox, M., & Cox, R. (1978). Mother-child, father-child relations. In J.M. Stevens & M. Mathews (Eds.), The aftermath of divorce (pp. 110-115). Washington, DC: NAEYC.

Hetherington, E. M., Cox, M., & Cox, R. (1985). Long-term effects of divorce and remarriage on the adjustment of children. Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry, 24, 518-530.

Higgins, C. W., Whitley, K. N., & Dunn, J. D. (1984). A comparison of smoking related attitudes and behaviors among Kentucky public school children whose families are and are not involved in tobacco production. Journal of School Health, 54(5), 185-187.

Hollinger, C. L. (1983). Counseling the gifted and talented female adolescent: The relationship between social self-esteem and traits of instrumentality and expressiveness. Gifted Child Quarterly, 27(4), 157-161.

Hyde, J., & Phillips, D. (1979). Androgyny across the lifespan. Developmental Psychology, 15, 334-336.

Jessor, R., Chase, J. A., & Donovan, J. E. (1980). Psychosocial correlates of marijuana use and problem drinking in a national sample of adolescents. American Journal of Public Health, 70, 604-613.

Johnston, L. (1973). Drugs and American youth. Ann Arbor, MI: The Institute for Social Research.

Jones, R. M., & Hartmann, B. R. (1988). Ego identity: Developmental differences and experimental substance use among adolescents. Journal of Adolescence, 11, 347-360.

Jones, R. M., Hartman, B. R., Grochowski, C. O., & Glider, P. (1989). Ego identity and substance abuse: A comparison of adolescents in residential treatment with adolescents in school. Personality and Individual Differences, 10(6), 625-631.

Jones, R. M., & Thornburg, H. D. (1985). The experience of school transfer: Does previous relocation facilitate transition from elementary to middle-level educational environments? Journal of Early Adolescence, 5, 229-237.

Kagan, J. (1964). Acquisition and significance of sex-typing and sex-role identity. In M. L. Hoffman & L. W. Hoffman (Eds.), Review of child development research (pp. 137-167). New York: Russell Sage.

Kahn, M., & Kulick, F. (1975). Relationship of drug involvement to dropping out of college. Psychological Report, 37, 1095-1098.

Kalter, N., Riemer, B., Brickman, A., & Chen, J. W. (1985). Implications of divorce for female development. Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry, 24, 538-544.

Kandel, D. B., Treiman, D., Faust, R., & Single, E. (1976). Adolescent involvement in legal and illegal drug use: A multiple classification analysis. Social Forces, 55, 438-458.

Kaplan, H. B. (1975). Increases in self-rejection as an antecedent of deviant response. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 4, 281-292.

Kaplan, H. B., Johnson, R. J., & Baily, C. A. (1988). Explaining adolescent drug use: An elaboration strategy for structural equations modeling. Psychiatry, 51(2), 142-163.

Katz, P. A. (1979). The development of female identity. Sex Roles, 5(2), 155-178.

Kawash, G. F. (1982). A structural analysis of self-esteem from pre-adolescence through young adulthood anxiety and extraversion as agents in the development of self-esteem. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 38(2), 301-311.

Kawash, G. F., & Clewes, J. L. (1988). A factor analysis of a short form of the CRPBI: Are children's perceptions of control and discipline multidimensional? The Journal of Psychology, 122(1), 57-67.

Kelly, J. B. (1988). Further thoughts and longer-term adjustment in children of divorce. Journal of Family Psychology, 2(2), 159-163.

Keyes, S., & Block, J. (1984). Prevalence and patterns of substance use among early adolescents. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 13(1), 1-14.

Kim, S., McLeod, J., & Palmgren, C. L. (1989). The impact of the ""I'm Special" program on student substance abuse and other related student problem behavior. Journal of Drug Education, 19(1), 83-95.

Kinard, E. M., & Reinherz, H. (1984). Marital disruption: Effects on behavioral and emotional functioning in children. Journal of Family Issues, 5, 90-115.

Kohlberg, L. A. (1966). A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex-role concepts and attitudes. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.), The development of sex differences (pp. 82-173). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Kurdek, L. A. (1986). Custodial mothers' perceptions of visitation and payment of child support by noncustodial fathers in families with low and high levels of preseparation interparent conflict. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 7, 307-323.

Kurdek, L. A. (1988). Issues in the study of children and divorce. Journal of Family Psychology, 2(2), 150-153.

Kurdek, L. A., & Sinclair, R. J. (1988). Adjustment of young adolescents in two-parent nuclear, stepparent, and mother-custody families. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 56, 91-96.

Lamke, L. K. (1982a). Adjustment and sex-role orientation in adolescence. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 11, 247-259.

Lamke, L. K. (1982b). The impact of sex-role orientation on self-esteem in early adolescence. Child Development, 53(6), 1530-1535.

Langhinrichsen, J., Lichtenstein, E., Seeley, J. R., Hops, H., Ary, D. V., Tildesley, E., & Andrews, J. (1990). Parent-adolescent congruence for adolescent substance use. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 19(6), 623-635.

Lempers, J. D., Clark-Lempers, D., & Simons, R. L. (1989). Economic hardship, parenting, and distress in adolescence. Child Development, 60, 25-40.

Lerner, R. M., & Sorell, G. T. (1981). Sex differences in self-concept and self-esteem of late adolescents: A time-lag analysis. Sex Roles, 7(7), 709-722.

Levinson, R., Powell, B., & Steelman, L. C. (1986). Social location, significant others and body image among adolescents. Social Psychology Quarterly, 49(4), 330-337.

Litovsky, V. G., & Dusek, J. B. (1985). Perceptions of child rearing and self-concept development during the early adolescent years. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 14(5), 373-387.

Locksley, A., & Colten, M. E. (1979). Psychological androgyny: A case of mistaken identity? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37(6), 1017-1031.

Long, B. H. (1986). Parental discord vs. family structure: Effects of divorce on the self-esteem of daughters. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 15(1), 19-27.

Long, N., Forehand, R., Fauber, R., & Brody, G. H. (1987). Self-perceived and independently observed competence of young adolescents as a function of parental marital conflict and recent divorce. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 15(1), 15-27.

LoSciuto, L., & Ausetts, M. A. (1988). Evaluation of a drug abuse prevention program: A field experiment. Addictive Behaviors, 13, 337-351.

Mann, D. W. (1981). Age and differential predictability of delinquent behavior. Social Forces, 60(1), 97-111.

Margolies, P. J., & Weintraub, S. (1977). The revised 56-item CRPBI as a research instrument: Reliability and factor structure. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 33(2), 472-475.

Markstrom-Adams, C. (1989). Androgyny and its relation to adolescent psychosocial well-being: A review of the literature. Sex Roles, 21(5/6), 325-340.

Marsh, H. W. (1987). Masculinity, femininity and androgyny: Their relations with multiple dimensions of self-concept. Multivariate Behavioral Research, 22, 91-118.

Martin, T. C., & Bumpass, L. L. (1989). Recent trends in marital disruption. Demography, 26(1), 37-51.

Marston, A. R., Jacobs, D. F., Singer, R. D., Widaman, D. F., & Little, T. D. (1988). Adolescents who apparently are invulnerable to drug, alcohol, and nicotine use. Adolescence, 23(91), 593-598.

Maslow, A. (1970). Motivation and personality (2nd ed.). New York: Harper.

Massad, C. (1981). Sex role identity and adjustment during adolescence. Child Development, 52, 1290-1298.

McCaulay, M., Mintz, L., & Glenn, A. A. (1988). Body image, self-esteem, and depression-proneness: Closing the gender gap. Sex Roles, 18(7/8), 381-391.

McKim, W. A. (1991). Drugs and behavior: An introduction to behavioral pharmacology. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Mensch, B. S., & Kandel, D. B. (1988). Dropping out of high school and drug involvement. Sociology of Education, 61, 95-113.

Mills, C. J., & Noyes, H. L. (1984). Patterns and correlates of initial and subsequent drug use among adolescents. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 52(2), 231-243.

Mitic, W. R., McGuire, D. P., & Neumann, B. (1987a). Adolescent inhalant use and perceived stress. Journal of Drug Education, 17(2), 113-121.

Mitic, W. R., McGuire, D. P., & Neumann, B. (1987b). Adolescent problem drinking and perceived stress. Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 33(1), 45-54.

Narus, L. R. J., & Fisher, J. L. (1982). Strong but not silent: A reexamination of expressivity in the relationships of men. Sex Roles, 8(2), 159-168.

Newcomb, M. D., & Bentler, P. M. (1986). Cocaine use among adolescents: Longitudinal associations with social context, psychopathology, and use of other substances. Addictive Behaviors, 11, 263-273.

Newcomb, M. D., & Bentler, P. M. (1988). The impact of family context, deviant attitudes, and emotional distress on adolescent drug use: Longitudinal latent-variable analyses of mothers and their children. Journal of Research In Personality, 22(2), 154-176.

Newman, P. R., & Newman, B. M. (1976). Early adolescence and its conflict: Group identity vs. alienation. Adolescence, 11, 261-274.

Nottelmann, E. D. (1987). Competence and self-esteem during transition from childhood to adolescence. Developmental Psychology, 23(3), 441-450.

Oetting, E. R., & Beauvais, F. (1990). Adolescent drug use: Findings of national and local surveys. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 58(4), 385-394.

Parish, T., & Copeland, T. (1979). The relationship between self-concepts and evaluations of parents and stepfathers. Journal of Psychology, 101, 135-138.

Parish, T., & Dostal, J. (1980). Relationships between evaluations of self and parents by children from intact and divorced families. The Journal of Psychology, 104, 35-38.

Parish, T., & Kappes, B. (1980). Impact of father loss on the family. Psychology and Human Development: An International Journal, 8, 107-112.

Parish, T. S., & Wigle, S. E. (1985). A longitudinal study of the impact of parental divorce on adolescents' evaluations of self and parents. Adolescence, 20(77), 239-244.

Potvin, R. H., & Lee, C. (1980). Multistage path models of adolescent alcohol use: Age variations. Journal of Studies on Alcohol, 1980(41), 531-542.

Raschke, H. L., & Raschke, V. (1979). Family conflict And children's self-concepts: A comparison of intact and single parent families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 41, 367-374.

Ried, L. D. (1989). A path analytic examination of differential social control theory. Journal of Drug Education, 19(2), 139-156.

Ringwalt, C. L., & Palmer, J. H. (1989). Cocaine and crack users compared. Adolescence, 24, 851-859.

Rosen, R. (1979). Some crucial issues concerning children of divorce. Journal of Divorce, 3, 19-25.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). Society and the adolescent self-image. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosenberg, M. (1979). Conceiving the self. New York: Basic Books.

Rosenberg, M. (1986). Conceiving the Self (Reprint ed.). Melbourne, FL: Krieger.

Rosenberg, M., Schooler, C., & Schoenbach, C. (1989). Self-esteem and adolescent problems: Modeling reciprocal effects*. American Sociological Review, 54, 1004-1018.

Rutter, M. (1979). Maternal deprivation, 1972-1978: New findings, new concepts, new approaches. Child Development, 50, 283-305.

Samet, N., & Kelly, E. W., Jr. (1987). The relationship of steady dating to self-esteem and sex role identity among adolescents. Adolescence, 22(85), 231-245.

Santrock, J. W., Warshak, R., Lindbergh, C., & Meadows, L. (1982). Children's and parents' observed social behavior in stepfather families. Child Development, 53, 472-480.

Schaefer, E. S. (1965). Children's report of parental behavior: An inventory. Child Development, 36, 413-423.

Sexton, T. L., Hingst, A. G., & Regan, K. R. (1985). The effect of divorce on the relationship between parental bonding and sexrole identification of adult males. Journal of Divorce, 9(1), 17-31.

Signorella, M. L., & Wesley, J. (1986). Masculinity, femininity, androgyny, and cognitive performance: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 100(2), 207-228.

Silber, E., & Tippett, J. (1965). Self-esteem: Clinical assessment and measurement validation. Psychological Reports, 16, 1017-1071.

Simmons, R. G., Blyth, D. A., Van Cleave, E. F., & Bush, D. M. (1979). Entry into early adolescence: The impact of school structure, puberty, and early dating on self-esteem. American Sociological Review, 38, 553-568.

Single, E., Kandel, D. B., & Faust, R. (1974). Patterns of multiple drug use in high school. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 15, 344-357.

Slater, E. J., & Haber, J. D. (1984). Adolescent adjustment following divorce as a function of familial conflict. Journal Of Consulting Clinical Psychology, 52, 920-921.

Southworth, S., & Schwarz, J. C. (1987). Post-divorce contact, relationship with father, and heterosexual trust in female college students. American Orthopsychiatric Association, Inc., 57(3), 371-382.

Stein, J. A., Newcomb, M. D., & Bentler, P. M. (1987). Personality and drug use: Reciprocal effects across four years. Personality and Individual Differences, 8(3), 419-430.

Strahan, F. (1975). Remarks on Bem's measurement of psychological androgyny: Alternative methods and a supplemental analysis. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 43, 568-571.

Svobodny, L. A. (1982). Biographical, self-concept and educational factors among chemically dependent adolescents. Adolescence, 17(68), 847-853.

Taylor, M. C., & Hall, J. A. (1982). Psychological androgyny: Theories, methods, and conclusions. Psychological Bulletin, 92(2), 347-366.

Teleki, J. K., Powell, J. A., & Claypool, P. L. (1984). Parental child-rearing behavior perceived by parents and school-age children in divorced and married families. Home Economics Research Journal, 13, 41-51.

Van Cleave, E. F., & Bush, D. M. (1979). Entry into early adolescence: The impact of school structure, puberty, and early dating on self-esteem. American Sociological Review, 44, 948-967.

Wallerstein, J. S. (1983). Children of divorce: The psychological tasks of the child. American Journal Orthopsychiatry, 53(2), 230-243.

Wallerstein, J. S. (1985). The overburden child: Some long-term consequences of divorce. Journal of the National Association of Social Workers, 30(2), 116-123.

Wallerstein, J. S. (1987). Children of divorce: Report of a ten-year follow-up of early latency-age children. American Journal Orthopsychiatry, 57(2), 199-211.

Wallerstein, J. S. (1991). The long-term effects of divorce on children: A review. Journal of American Academy of Child Adolescence Psychiatry, 30(3), 349-360.

Wells, K. (1980). Gender-role identity and psychological adjustment in adolescence. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 9, 59-73.

Weng, L.-J., Newcomb, M. D., & Bentler, P. M. (1988). Factors influencing noncompletion of high school: A comparison of methodologies. Educational Research Quarterly, 12(2), 8-22.

White, J. M. (1991). Drug dependence. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Wierson, M., Forehand, R., & McCombs, A. (1988). The relationship of early adolescent functioning to parent-reported and adolescent-perceived interparental conflict. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 16(6), 707-718.

Willemsen, E. W. (1987). Sex-role orientation, self-esteem, and uniqueness: An exploration of the undifferentiated category. Psychological Reports, 60, 859-866.

Wylie, R. C. (1974). The Self-concept. A review of methodological considerations and measuring instruments (Vol. 1. rev. ed.). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Wylie, R. C. (1979). The self-concept. Theory and research on selected topics (Vol 2. rev ed.). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Zaslow, M. J. (1989). Sex differences in children's response to parental divorce: 2. Samples, variables, ages, and sources. American Journal Orthopsychiatry, 59, 118-141.

APPENDIX

Questionnaire Distributed

Note: Formatting altered and questionnaire reduced to accommodate dissertation requirements.

Adolescent Survey

Please **do not write your name** on this questionnaire!

We are *interested in your opinions , not your identity*; so please, do not put any identifying marks on the questionnaire. Thank you.

1- Date of Birth? **Month** ____ **Day** ____ **Year** ____

2- Age: ____

3- Are you a **male** or **female**? ____

4- What is your **grade level**? ____

5- What is your ethnicity? Circle correct response.

1- **Anglo**	4- **Hispanic**
2- **Black**	5- **Native American (Indian)**
3- **Oriental**	6- **Other**

6- If your parents are divorced, how **old were you when the divorced occurred**? _____

7- If your parents are separated, **how old were you when they separated**? _____

8- Who are you living with **now**? *Put a check by the family situation that applies.*

1	Natural mother and natural father	_____
2.	Natural mother only	_____
3.	Natural mother and stepfather	_____
4.	Natural mother and other	_____

5.	Natural father only	_____
6.	Natural father and stepmother	_____
7.	Natural father and other	_____
8.	Stepmother only	_____
9.	Stepfather only	_____
10.	Parent & their companion	_____

11.	Other: (Explain briefly your family situation if different than #1-10). _____ _____ _____ _____

9- How long have you attended this school? _____Months _____Years

10- What was your last semester's **GPA?** _____

11- What is your high school **cumulative GPA**? _____

Directions

The next ten questions deal with how you feel about various things. Answer each question to the best of your ability. There are no right or wrong answers. **Circle the number that applies to you.**

12-	I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree	1 2 3 4
13-	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree	1 2 3 4
14-	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree	1 2 3 4
15-	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree	1 2 3 4
16-	I am able to do things as well as most people.	Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree	1 2 3 4
17-	All in all, I am inclined to feel I am a failure.	Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree	1 2 3 4
18-	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree	1 2 3 4
19-	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree	1 2 3 4
20-	I certainly feel useless at times.	Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree	1 2 3 4

21- At times I think I am no good at all.

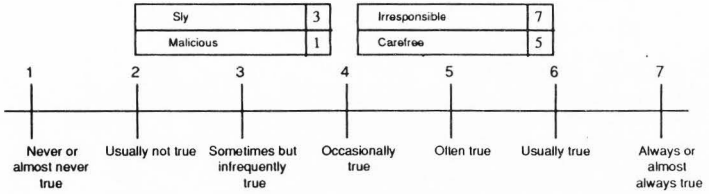
Strongly disagree	1
Disagree	2
Agree	3
Strongly agree	4

You will find a number of personality characteristics below. We would like you to use those characteristics to describe yourself, that is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you each of these characteristics is. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

Example: sly

Write a 1 if it is	**never or almost never true** that you are sly.
Write a 2 if it is	**usually not true** that you are sly.
Write a 3 if it is	**sometimes but infrequently true** that you are sly.
Write a 4 if it is	**occasionally true** that you are sly.
Write a 5 if it is	**often true** that you are sly.
Write a 6 if it is	**usually true** that you are sly.
Write a 7 if it is	**always or almost always true** that you are sly.

Thus, if you feel it is **sometimes but infrequently true** that you are "sly," **never or almost never true** that you are "malicious," **always or almost always true** that you are "irresponsible," and **often true** that you are "carefree," then you would rate these characteristics as follows:



22	Defend my own beliefs	
23	Affectionate	
24	Conscientious	
25	Independent	
26	Sympathetic	
27	Moody	
28	Assertive	
29	Sensitive to needs of others	
30	Reliable	
31	Strong Personality	
32	Understanding	
33	Jealous	
34	Forceful	
35	Compassionate	
36	Truthful	
37	Have leadership abilities	
38	Eager to soothe hurt feelings	
39	Secretive	
40	Willing to take risks	
41	Warm	

42	Adaptable	
43	Dominant	
44	Tender	
45	Conceited	
46	Willing to take a stand	
47	Love children	
48	Tactful	
49	Aggressive	
50	Gentle	
51	Conventional	
52	Self-reliant	
53	Yielding	
54	Helpful	
55	Athletic	
56	Cheerful	
57	Unsystematic	
58	Analytical	
59	Shy	
60	Inefficient	
61	Make decisions easily	

62	Flatterable	
63	Theatrical	
64	Self-sufficient	
65	Loyal	
66	Happy	
67	Individualistic	
68	Soft-spoken	
69	Unpredictable	
70	Masculine	
71	Gullible	
72	Solemn	
73	Competitive	
74	Childlike	
75	Likable	
76	Ambitious	
77	Do not use harsh language	
78	Sincere	
79	Act as a leader	
80	Feminine	
81	Friendly	

The next 12 questions are about how <u>you think</u> a family member feels about you. There are four responses:

1- Strongly Agree (SA),
2- Agree (A),
3- Disagree (D)
4- Strongly Disagree (SD).

Circle the response that most fits your personal situation.

Example :

Lets assume that your *natural parents are divorced and have remarried.* If this was your family situation, you would circle a response for <u>Father</u>, <u>Mother</u>, <u>Stepfather</u>, <u>Stepmother</u>.

		Father				Mother				Stepfather				Stepmother				Parent's Companion			
00	*This family member* is concerned if I am happy or sad.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD

(In this case, you said that you *Disagree* that your father is concerned, you *Strongly Agree* that your mother is concerned, you *Strongly Disagree* that your stepfather is concerned and you *Strongly Agree* that your stepmother is concerned).

There are no right or wrong answers. Make sure you answer for each applicable person. Answer questions 82-93.

		Father				Mother				Stepfather				Stepmother				Parent's Companion			
82	*This family member* almost always speaks to me with a warm and friendly voice.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
83	*This family member* smiles at me very often.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
84	*This family member* is able to make me feel better when I am upset.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
85	*This family member* seems proud of the things I do.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD

86	*This family member* believes in showing her/his love for me.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
87	*This family member* often praises me.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
88	*This family member* is happy to see me when I come home from school.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
89	*This family member* is very interested in what I am learning at school.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
90	*This family member* allows me to tell her/him if I think my ideas are better than hers/his.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
91	*This family member* lets me help to decide how to do things we're working on.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
92	*This family member* tries to understand how I see things.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
93	*This family member* gives me the choice of what to do whenever possible.	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD

Questions 94 - 111 deal with substance usage.

94- Have you ever tried smoking *cigarettes*? (Circle one.)

1- **NO** 2- **YES**

95- Have you ever tried *smokeless tobacco* (e.g., "chew" "snuff")?

1-**NO** 2-**YES**

96- Have you ever 'sniffed' anything to get high (*e.g.,hair spray, paint, glue, gasoline*)?

I- **NO** 2- **YES**

97- Have you ever tried *alcohol*? (e.g., beer, wine, liquor)

I- **NO** 2-**YES**

98- Have you ever tried *marijuana*?

I-**NO** 2-**YES**

99- Have you ever tried *cocaine/crack*?

I-**NO** 2-**YES**

100- Amphetamines (speed)

1-**NO** 2-**YES**

101- Barbiturates (downers)

I-**NO** 2-**YES**

102- Have you ever tried *unprescribed medicines* (e.g.pain killers, sleeping pills, tranquilizers, cough syrups), *other then for what they were intended?*

I- **NO** 2- **YES**

Use the following scale to indicate *about how much you used each substance last last month.* ***Circle the correct response.***

A- None

B- Less than weekly

C- One to three days per week

D- Four to six days per week

		None	*Less than weekly*	1-3 times per week	4-6 days per week
103-	Cigarettes	A	*B*	C	D
104-	Smokeless Tobacco	A	*B*	C	D
105-	Sniffing substances (e.g., hair spray, paint glue, gasoline)	A	*B*	C	D
106-	Alcohol	A	*B*	C	D
107-	Marijuana	A	*B*	C	D
108-	Cocaine/Crack	A	*B*	C	D
109-	Amphetamines (speed)	A	*B*	C	D
110-	Barbiturate (downers)	A	*B*	C	D
111-	Unprescribed medicines (e.g., pain killers, sleeping pills, tranquilizers, cough syrups) other than what they were intended to be used for?	A	*B*	C	D

Please wait until all the other participants finish their questions. At that time, turn in your booklet to the monitor. *Thank you for your participation.*

VITA

Stephen Bruce Sniteman

Candidate For The Degree Of

Doctor Of Philosophy

Dissertation: Perceived Parental Acceptance Related to Self-Esteem, GPA, Sex-Role Identity, and Substance Use of Adolescents from Intact and Reconstituted Families

Major Field: Family and Human Development

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Raised in Staunton, Va., son of Clay and Isabelle Sniteman; married Maria R. Sniteman; children--Heather, Clay and Shane.

Education: Received the Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology at East Carolina University, in 1967; received the Master of Science in Business Administration at Troy State University, in 1977; received the Master of Science degree in Military Science, Command and General Staff College, Leavenworth, Kansas in 1980; in 1993 completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Family and Human Development from Utah State University in Logan, Utah.

Professional Experience: Completed a career as an Air Force Officer retiring as a Colonel. Served as a fighter pilot (F-16, F-4), staff officer, AFROTC Detachment Commander and Aide de Camp to CINC NORAD; lived and traveled throughout the United States, Europe, and Southeast Asia; attended numerous service schools to include the NATO Defense College in Rome, Italy.