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ADOLESCENT PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTAL BEHAVIOR,
PARENTAL POWER, AND SELF-ESTEEM

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ABSTRACT

This investigation examined the extent to which certain perceived parental child-rearing behaviors predicted the self-esteem of adolescents. It focused on the predictive capacity of parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal on adolescent self-esteem, while controlling and testing for father's education (a measure of socioeconomic status) and family size. It further proposed to determine if parental behaviors predicted adolescent self-esteem differently depending on whether the parent was perceived by the adolescent as having low or high levels of parental reward power. The final purpose was to determine whether there were gender of parent/gender of adolescent differences in the predictive capacity of parental behaviors and reward power in relation to adolescent self-esteem.

Adolescents' perceptions of parental behaviors, reward power, and self-esteem as well as demographic and family data were gathered by a questionnaire completed by 522 high school students from intact families in a small, semi-rural community. Multiple regression analyses were used to examine the relationship between perceived parental behaviors and adolescent self-esteem. The analyses were also executed under conditions of low and high parental power to determine the impact of reward power on parental behaviors in relation to adolescent self-esteem.

In general, partial support and some gender differences were found for the relationships involving parental support, induction, and love withdrawal as predictors of adolescent self-esteem. No significant relationships were found between parental coercion and adolescent self-esteem.

When parental reward power was added to the analyses, several relationships involving parental behaviors as predictors of adolescent self-esteem were significant under the conditions of high parental reward power. Gender differences emerged in these relationships. Specifically, parental support manifested a significant positive relationship with adolescent self-esteem in all of the high parental reward power models except the father/daughter model. A significant negative relationship was found between coercion and adolescent self-esteem for the mother/daughter dyad and the father/daughter dyad under the conditions of high reward power. Parental induction manifested a significant positive relationship with adolescent self-esteem in the mother/son and father/son dyad. Finally, love withdrawal demonstrated a negative relationship to adolescent self-esteem for all models except the father/daughter model under conditions of high reward power. The present study, therefore, begins to clarify that parental reward power does enhance the effects of parental behaviors on adolescents' self-esteem.

A major implication of the study was that parents can positively impact their youth's self-esteem by using parental behaviors like support and induction which have positive implications for the

self-esteem and resisting the use of behaviors like coercion and love withdrawal which have negative implications for the self-esteem. Further, parents who were perceived by their adolescents as competent (having high levels of reward power) were more likely to impact the self-esteem of their adolescents. Future research should focus on developing strategies for increasing the use of child-rearing behaviors which have positive impact for adolescent self-esteem, further delineation of the parental behaviors which impact the self-esteem of children and youth, and exploration of strategies for increasing adolescent perceptions of parental reward power (or competence).

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As children and youth become increasingly socialized, they develop complex thoughts and evaluations about themselves as objects. The totality of such thoughts and feelings that individuals have about themselves has been referred to as the self-concept (Rosenberg, 1979; Wells & Marwell, 1976; Wylie, 1979). An important aspect of the self-concept, in turn, is an evaluative component referred to as the self-esteem which signifies a positive or negative orientation toward the self as an object. Individuals who have favorable self-attitudes are designated as having a positive self-esteem, while individuals having unfavorable self-attitudes are referred to as having a negative self-esteem.

Research efforts during the 1960's and 1970's have identified numerous social and behavioral consequences from having a positive or negative self-esteem (Bachman, 1970; Baumrind, 1978, 1980; Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1979). For example, children and youth with a positive self-esteem often develop greater confidence in the accuracy of their perceptions and the capacities they have to affect the outcome of events. Such characteristics of children and adolescents as independence, creativity, expressiveness, and a lack of unfavorable self-evaluations tend to predict higher levels of educational achievement, better occupational attainment, lower

tendencies to commit delinquent acts, and psychological well-being (Fitts, 1972; Rosenberg, 1979; Wylie, 1979). Children and youth with a negative self-esteem, on the other hand, tend to be less assertive, less expressive, more preoccupied with personal problems, and more hesitant about their ability to affect the world around them (Coopersmith, 1967). Negative self-attitudes also contribute to high levels of anxiety, lower achievement, and less effective social competence (Baumrind, 1972; Wylie, 1979). Research evidence of this kind highlights the importance of fostering a positive self-esteem in children and youth as they are socialized by parents and other social agents.

Although a variety of social, environmental, and biological factors influence the development of self-esteem in children and adolescents during the socialization process, a generally accepted premise is that the family plays a significant role in the child's development of self-evaluations. For example, the size, organization, and value structure of families are a few of the factors that have been associated with the emergence of children's self-esteem (Wylie, 1979). Of particular interest has been the impact of specific child-rearing behaviors on the level of self-esteem that children and youth develop (Bachman, 1970; Coopersmith, 1967; Gecas, 1971; Openshaw, 1978; Peterson, Southworth, & Peters, 1983; Rosenberg, 1979). From these research efforts, an interest in assisting parents to develop behaviors which produce high or positive self-evaluations in children and youth has become an important focus of

parent education. This interest can be seen in the abundance of parent education materials and parenting programs that have become available and have been discussed in the literature (Fine, 1980).

Although varying tremendously in format and implementation, many parenting programs attempt to impart information, awareness, and/or skills to participants about various kinds of parenting behavior and how those behaviors impact the self-esteem and other characteristics of children and youth. Parent effectiveness training (Gordon, 1975), Systematic training for effective parenting (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976), Children, the challenge (Dreikurs & Stoltz, 1964), and Between parent and teenager (Ginott, 1969) are but a few examples of programs and books that focus on developing such skills as accepting children's feelings, using encouragement, and giving children and youth opportunities to be successful as techniques for increasing the positive self-evaluations that children and adolescents make about themselves. In light of this educational and empirical interest, attempts to further delineate parental child-rearing behaviors and their impact on the self-esteem of children and youth continues to be an important area of research.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this investigation was to examine the extent to which certain perceived parental child-rearing behaviors predicted adolescent self-esteem. More specifically, it focused on the

predictive capacity of perceived parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal on the self-esteem of adolescents. It also attempted to determine if adolescent self-esteem was predicted by father's education (a measure of socioeconomic status) or family size. It further proposed to determine if perceived parental behaviors (support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal) predicted adolescent self-esteem differently depending on whether the parent was perceived by the adolescent as having low or high levels of parental reward power (or low or high levels of potential ability to reward as perceived by the adolescent). The final purpose was to determine whether there were gender of parent/gender of adolescent differences in the predictive capacity of perceived parental behaviors and perceived parental reward power in relation to the self-esteem of adolescents.

Rationale

Although social scientists increasingly argue that socialization is more than a unidirectional process (Bell, 1968; Martin, 1975), in most cases parents are the primary socializing agents for their children (Baumrind, 1978; Kamerman & Kahn, 1978; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Sussman, 1974). Research relating to the child-rearing behaviors of parents has provided a substantial amount of information about the impact of specific parental behaviors on the socialization of children and youth. One of these behaviors, parental support, has been extensively examined and found to demonstrate positive

relationships with children's self-esteem, academic achievement, creativity, and conformity (Rollins & Thomas, 1979). According to current research, supportive parental behaviors like the use of praise, encouragement, physical affection, and approval are crucial for the development of several outcomes in children and youth, including their self-esteem (Gecas, 1971; Peterson & Rollins, in press; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Thomas, Gecas, Weigert, & Rooney, 1974). Most of these efforts, however, have examined relationships between only one dependent and one independent variable (bivariate correlations). In contrast, multivariate models were employed in this study as a means of examining whether parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal predict the self-esteem of adolescents.

Compared to the findings for parental support, however, results have not revealed the same consistency for correlations between parental control attempts and adolescent self-esteem. One reason for this inconsistency has been the nature of the construct. Rollins and Thomas (1979), for example, have argued that "control attempts" are multidimensional in character and consist of three unique kinds of control--induction, coercion, and love withdrawal. Given that much of the previous research has conceptualized control attempts as a unitary variable rather than recognizing its' multidimensional character, the presence of inconsistent results is not surprising.

Each control attempt dimension, in turn, may have different implications for the self-esteem of children and youth. For

example, there is evidence in the existing literature that parental induction is positively related to children's self-esteem, while parental coercion and love withdrawal are negatively related to children's self-esteem (Baumrind, 1972; Coopersmith, 1967; Peterson, Southworth, & Peters, 1983). Thus, the present study was designed to further clarify the nature of three relationships between dimensions of perceived parental control attempts (induction, coercion, and love withdrawal) and the self-esteem of adolescents using a multivariate model.

Although parental behaviors and their relationship to adolescent self-esteem have been of interest to researchers, several problems in these investigations have been noted. One problem relates to the disproportionate representation of subjects from middle class backgrounds and urban areas. Because Wylie (1979) and others (Maccoby, 1980) have indicated that parents from different socioeconomic levels may hold distinctive child-rearing values and use different child-rearing practices, it is possible that such variations in perceived parental behaviors may have different implications for the self-esteem of children and youth. In the present study, therefore, the involvement of rural subjects, both from low and middle income backgrounds, is especially important because earlier research has focused on samples from a more restricted socioeconomic range from urban backgrounds. The control of such factors in a multivariate model will allow a more precise examination of the relationships between parental behaviors and the self-esteem of adolescents.

Another problem with the current research is that most of the studies dealing with parental child-rearing behaviors and children's self-esteem have restricted their attention to behaviors that mothers direct at their children (Coopersmith, 1967; Gecas, 1971, 1972; Peterson, Southworth, & Peters, 1983; Rosenberg, 1979). Although the effect of maternal child-rearing behaviors is certainly important, additional research was needed that examines the effects of both paternal and maternal behaviors on children's self-esteem. The present study, therefore, sought to examine the relationship between parental behaviors of mothers and fathers on the self-esteem of adolescents.

Another research tradition in the parent-child area which may have implications for this study has focused on bases of parental power (French & Raven, 1959). These social bases of power, in turn, are concerned with children's perceptions of their parents' potential ability to exercise influence or be perceived as competent within the parent-youth relationship. One possibility is that parental power may also influence adolescents by intensifying the effect that parental behaviors have on the self-esteem of youth. Simply stated, as parents are perceived by adolescents as being increasingly competent (or as having "resources"), it is more likely that their child-rearing behaviors will have a greater impact on the self-esteem of adolescents. This interaction or intensifying effect has not been addressed in previous research literature and may further increase

our understanding of the relationships between parental behaviors and the self-esteem of adolescents.

Theoretical Framework

An important idea from the symbolic interaction framework is that human beings live in both a symbolic and physical world. According to this perspective, individuals have the capacity to learn, remember, and communicate symbolically. As they interact, humans communicate about the physical, biological, and social environments in which they live and classify those interactions into complex sets of symbols which carry meaning. In the social environment, this meaning is derived primarily from observing and/or participating in the process of symbolic interaction (Burr, Leigh, Day, & Constantine, 1979; Stryker, 1980).

As symbols become more complex and organized, expectations for human behaviors are communicated among the participants of interaction. That is, individuals in various settings become aware of how they should or should not behave based on expectations that emerge during social interactions. As expectations for behavior become shared by the participants of the interaction, individuals recognize themselves and others as occupants of roles which are more or less integrated sets of social norms which specify how one should or should not behave in any given setting (Burr et al., 1979; Peterson & Rollins, in press). Who and what individuals perceive themselves to be in terms of the roles with which they identify and perform

become a part of the emerging self (Stryker, 1980). The self, in turn, is a process of defining and becoming aware of one's self that changes as a person develops (Burr et al., 1979).

Both George Herbert Mead (1934) and William James (1890), for example, conceptualized the self to be a multidimensional construct. James (1890) saw the self as involving both the knower and the known and as being divided into the "spiritual me," the "material me," and the "social me." Further, he saw the social me as the most interesting part of the self. Mead (1934), on the other hand, saw the self as consisting of the "Me" or social self that developed in relation to society and the "I" as the unpredictable, spontaneous, or unique part of the self. Both of these conceptualizations of the self recognize that humans can and do develop attitudes toward and feelings about themselves (Stryker, 1980). It is from these evaluative feelings and attitudes that the self and the self-esteem emerge.

The development of symbols and the emergence of the self occur primarily through social interaction. According to this perspective, early interaction is the primary means through which the social world in which a person lives becomes organized and classified. Subsequently, individuals develop the capacity to perform appropriate role behaviors and to evaluate their actions accordingly. In family settings, the meanings conveyed by significant symbols allow family members to communicate with one another and to share experiences. This results in an intense social process from which the ability to share common meanings and to role-take each other is developed

(Peterson & Rollins, in press; Stryker, 1980). The process of role taking, in turn, involves the ability to view both the social world and one's self from the perspectives of others and to anticipate their responses (Burr et al., 1979; Peterson & Rollins, in press; Stryker, 1980). As individuals experience the process of role-taking, they increasingly evaluate their own abilities and role enactments from the perspective of others. If these reflexive views provide evidence of personal competence in performing roles, the result is usually an affirmation of the emerging self. On the other hand, if the role-taking process provides evidence of inferior role behavior and performance, an adverse definition may be assigned to the emerging self.

Within the parent-youth relationship, roles that parents take on in relation to their offspring govern the behaviors they direct at their children and have influence on the self-esteem of children and adolescents. For example, most parents respond to societal expectations for providing comfort, nurturance, and encouragement to their children. In addition, they often use certain child-rearing techniques that are consistent with social expectations to control the behavior and attitudes of children and youth.

According to the symbolic interaction perspective, when parents use such behavior, they are fulfilling the child socializer role. Behavioral dimensions of the child socializer role, in turn, have consequences for the self-esteem of adolescents as youth become

responsive to parental behavior that communicates expectations and norms for their behavior.

During social interaction with parents, children and youth also occupy and perform the child socializee role as parents attempt to influence their self-conceptions, their role expectations, and their role behavior. If the child socializee role is enacted successfully, children and youth will adjust their role behavior within the constraints communicated to them by their parents.

Success in fulfilling the child socializee role also may have significant consequences for the self-esteem of children and youth. If parental expectations for the behavior of youth are met, it is likely that positive feelings about the self will result. On the other hand, if children and adolescents are unsuccessful in adjusting their behavior to conform with parental expectations, negative feelings about themselves may result.

Finally, from a symbolic interactionist perspective, parental power is viewed as resulting from the complex history of the parent-child relationship as perceived by children and youth. That is, within the parent-child relationship, children and youth define the nature of interactive situations, assess their parents' competence, and develop (or fail to develop) a willingness to be influenced by parents. It is such "a definition of the situation" by youth that may affect the parents' ability to influence their offspring's behavior. Thus, adolescents are most likely to be responsive to the behaviors and expectations of parents who are viewed by their children

and youth as having a substantial level of competence or resources (i.e., reward power). Conversely, adolescents are less likely to be affected by parents who are perceived as having a lower level of competence or resources.

Nominal Definitions

Parental support is defined as parental behavior such as praise and encouragement which communicates that a child's self and his/her actions are valued by parents (Peterson & Rollins, in press; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). Behavior of this kind also conveys acceptance and love within the parent-child relationship. Children and youth learn to depend on expressions of approval as a stable base from which to expand into the social environment.

Parental induction is defined as a control attempt used by parents that places rational maturity demands on children and youth, includes explanations, and makes children and adolescents aware that their actions have consequences for themselves and others (Openshaw, 1978; Peterson & Rollins, in press; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). Parental induction involves sharing with children the reasons behind decisions. Parental behaviors such as giving instructions, making rules, and providing explanations for restrictions are types of inductive parental behavior. For example, parents who explain to adolescent children the potential consequences of driving under the influence of alcohol are using an inductive approach as a means of influencing the youth's behavior.

Parental coercion is defined as a control attempt used by parents that involves the application of force to children in an arbitrary manner (Peterson & Rollins, in press; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). Parental coercion usually includes the message that parents are stronger and more powerful than children and youth. For example, parents who use arbitrary commands and physical punishment are using coercive techniques to attempt to control their youth's behavior.

Parental love withdrawal is defined as parental behavior which threatens the continuation of the relationship between parents and children as a means of influencing their offsprings' behavior (Peterson, Rollins, Thomas, & Ellis, 1980; Peterson & Rollins, in press). Love withdrawal has a highly punitive quality that poses no immediate physical threat to children, but threatens abandonment or separation instead (Hoffman, 1980).

Self-esteem is defined as the evaluations individuals make and maintain about themselves as objects (Coopersmith, 1967; Peterson & Rollins, in press; Rosenberg, 1979). If an individual consistently thinks of him/herself as successful, his/her self-esteem is likely to be positive. On the other hand, if his/her evaluations of self are predominantly unfavorable, he/she is likely to have a negative self-esteem.

Parental reward power is defined as the adolescent's perception of his/her parents' potential to provide or fail to provide rewards for behavior (Rollins & Thomas, 1979). Parental reward power is characterized by a perception on the part of children or youth

that parents are resourceful, competent, and able to provide or withhold rewards as a result of the youth's behavior. Parental reward power is particularly salient to the self-esteem when parents are ascribed substantial ability to reward or compensate particular behaviors that children and adolescents exhibit. The presence or absence of the ability to reward may increase or eliminate behaviors children and youth display.

Objectives

The major objective of this study was to test a theoretical model concerning the relationship among adolescent self-esteem, perceived parental reward power, and four parental children-rearing behaviors (parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal). A further objective was to examine whether these relationships were affected by varying levels of perceived parental reward power. The specific objectives were:

- a. to determine whether there is a relationship between the amount of parental support perceived by adolescents and their self-esteem.
- b. to determine whether there is a relationship between the amount of parental induction perceived by adolescents and their self-esteem.
- c. to determine whether there is a relationship between the amount of parental coercion perceived by adolescents and their self-esteem.

d. to determine whether there is a relationship between the amount of parental love withdrawal perceived by adolescents and their self-esteem.

e. to determine whether these relationships between parental behaviors and adolescent self-esteem are impacted by the level of reward power attributed to parents by adolescents.

f. to examine the above objectives while testing or controlling for relationships between father's education, gender of parent, gender of child, family size, and the self-esteem of adolescents.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Self-esteem is a social psychological construct that has received considerable attention in the literature. This construct refers to evaluations of the self which are reflexive in nature and focus on the thoughts, feelings, and actions for which the individual is both agent and object (Wells & Marwell, 1976; Wylie, 1979). This self-evaluative process has been considered to be a key element in the relationship between individual behavior and the social organization of which one is a part (Coopersmith, 1967; Wells & Marwell, 1976). Because parents play a central role in effecting the self-evaluations of their children and youth, this literature review focuses on the impact of parental child-rearing behaviors on the self-esteem of adolescents.

The review begins with a discussion of the nature of self-esteem and is followed by separate sections on each parental behavior (parental support, parental induction, parental coercion, and parental love withdrawal) and its impact on self-esteem. Subsequently, the influence of parental reward power on the relationships between different dimensions of parental behavior and the self-esteem of adolescents is discussed. Each of these sections concludes with the relevant research hypothesis. Control variables including father's education, family size, gender of parents, and gender of adolescents are then discussed.

The research hypotheses are as follows:

1. Parental support is positively related to the self-esteem of adolescents.
2. Parental induction is positively related to the self-esteem of adolescents.
3. Parental coercion is negatively related to the self-esteem of adolescents.
4. Parental love withdrawal is negatively related to the self-esteem of adolescents.
5. The impact of parental behaviors on adolescent self-esteem increases under conditions of high parental reward power and decreases under conditions of low parental reward power.

The Nature of Self-esteem

Most descriptions of the self-esteem include the idea that an optimal level of self-esteem exists and is important for social and psychological well-being. High or positive self-esteem has been reported to be a functional and healthy condition in most of the theoretical and empirical literature referring to this construct. Negative or low self-esteem, on the other hand, has been reported to have a wide variety of adverse consequences for individuals having this kind of self-evaluation (Wylie, 1979).

Perhaps the most widely referenced research dealing with the self-esteem is Coopersmith's (1967) study of pre-adolescent boys. Although the findings were not always detailed in a careful manner,

Coopersmith's research indicated that persons who differed in self-esteem (from low to high) have "pervasive and significant differences in experiential worlds and social behaviors." Persons with high self-esteem were reported to be happier and more effective in meeting environmental demands than persons with low self-esteem. Associated descriptors of individuals having high self-esteem included confident, worthwhile, creative, independent, and assertive. In contrast, descriptors of individuals with low self-esteem included apprehensive, withdrawn, self-conscious, and preoccupied with personal problems. Coopersmith (1967) further reported that persons with high self-esteem were likely to assume an active role in social groups and express their views effectively. Compared to individuals with negative self-images, persons with high self-esteem apparently move more directly and realistically toward personal goals. Individuals with high self-evaluations also were reported as being less troubled by fears of ambivalence and less burdened by self-doubt (Wylie, 1979).

Self-esteem has been reported to be a product of reflexive activity or the ability to view ones "self" and ones' behavior as an observer. An important aspect of this process is the ability to stand outside social interaction and evaluate one's role performance as or soon after it occurs (Gecas, 1982). This is a particularly human process that has not been observed in non-human life forms (James, 1890). Involved in this reflexive process is the ability to anticipate the actions of other social interactants.

A self-evaluative process of this kind is not seen as an objective one. Gecas (1982), for example, has argued that self-evaluations rarely agree with how others actually view us. Instead, self-esteem seems to be a function of the manner that individuals think others are perceiving them to be (Gecas, 1982).

Franks and Marolla (1976) concluded that self-esteem was influenced from two major sources--inner sources of self-esteem and outer sources of self-esteem. According to this perspective, inner sources of self-esteem are the results of experiences of self as an active, reflexive agent who can make things happen in the social environment. If individuals feel they can make things happen, succeed when making new attempts, and surmount obstacles which arise from the impartial world, the likely result will be a positive orientation to self-evaluation (Franks & Marolla, 1976). Furthermore, if individuals believe they are competent, they are likely to act in such a manner, whereas individuals who think of themselves as incompetent are likely to behave accordingly.

Outer sources of self-esteem, on the other hand, have been reported to consist of the kinds and degrees of social support received from significant others (Franks & Marolla, 1976). These sources of self-esteem are based on the evidence of self-worth that individuals receive from the external social environment in general and the important people in their lives in particular. Parents, teachers, peers, siblings, and numerous other participants in social

interaction are all seen as outer sources of potential influence on self-esteem.

Consistent with these ideas, Rosenberg (1979) has identified certain dispositions and physical traits as inner sources of self-esteem. Dispositions are abstract categories of attitudes, attributes, values, and habits which reflect information about individuals to themselves and others. That is, individuals come to consider themselves as kind, tall, brave, skilled at teaching, anxious optimistic, or beautiful. Furthermore, they actively respond to how they classify and evaluate these dispositions and traits.

Self-esteem also seems to have a certain enduring quality. Although one's self-esteem seems to be sensitive to changes, it is not infinitely flexible or constantly changing (Coopersmith, 1967; Webster & Sobrieszak, 1974; Wylie, 1979). It is apparently the case that sometime prior to the middle school years, individuals arrive at a general appraisal of their social worth that tends to remain stable over time (Coopersmith, 1967). Because the self-esteem has certain components that are relatively constant, researchers, parents, teachers, and counselors should be interested in how the self-esteem becomes defined in positive or negative terms.

Parental Support and Self-esteem

For an extended period, parental support has been considered by investigators to be an important variable that has implications for a variety of child social and personality characteristics,

including the self-esteem of youth (Baumrind, 1966; Becker, 1964; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Schaefer, 1959; Staub, 1981). Although labeled differently in the empirical research (i.e., parental warmth, nurturance, acceptance), the definitions and connotations attached to supportive dimensions have been similar (Rollins & Thomas, 1979). Generally, parental supportive behaviors have been referred to as parental sentiments, attitudes of love, and expressions of approval that parents direct at their children which function as positive indications from parents of security and stability within the parent-child relationship. Parental behaviors such as praising, encouraging, approving, expressing endearment, and physical affection are considered to be indicators of parental support (Baumrind, 1966; Gecas, 1971; Parsons & Bales, 1955; Rollins & Thomas, 1979).

Because the self-evaluative process involves assessing the reactions of others, it seems logical that parental supportive behaviors could have significant implications for the self-evaluations of children and youth. That is, parents may use supportive behaviors as a means of assigning significance to certain behaviors they want their offspring to exhibit. In doing so, they encourage behavioral responses from children and adolescents which are consistent with parental expectations and augment the self-evaluations of youth. Because they confirm to adolescents that they are valued and approved by parents, supportive behaviors have the potential for enhancing the self-esteem of youth.

Of the variables in the present research model, parental support has been a frequent subject of research on parental behavior and the self-esteem of youth (Bachman, 1970; Coopersmith, 1967; Gecas, 1971; Martin, 1975; Peterson, Southworth, & Peters, 1983; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Rosenberg, 1979; Schaefer, 1959). In general, these studies have demonstrated that positive relationships exist between parental support and the self-esteem of children and youth across gender of parent/gender of child and age of child comparisons (Rollins & Thomas, 1979). For example, Coopersmith (1967), who studied pre-adolescent males, concluded that parental acceptance was associated with the development of a positive self-esteem in youth. In a study of both male and female adolescents, on the other hand, Gecas (1971) reported that parental support was strongly and consistently related to the positive self-esteem of youth. Furthermore, Rollins & Thomas (1979), in developing a middle range theory of parental support and other child-rearing techniques, cited eight studies which consistently reported positive correlations between parental support and the self-esteem of children and youth. Consistent with this research evidence, therefore, the first hypothesis of this research model proposed that parental support is positively related to the self-esteem of adolescents (see Figure 1).

Parental Induction and Self-esteem

Another child-rearing behavior that influences the self-esteem of youth is parental induction. Although referred to by a variety of

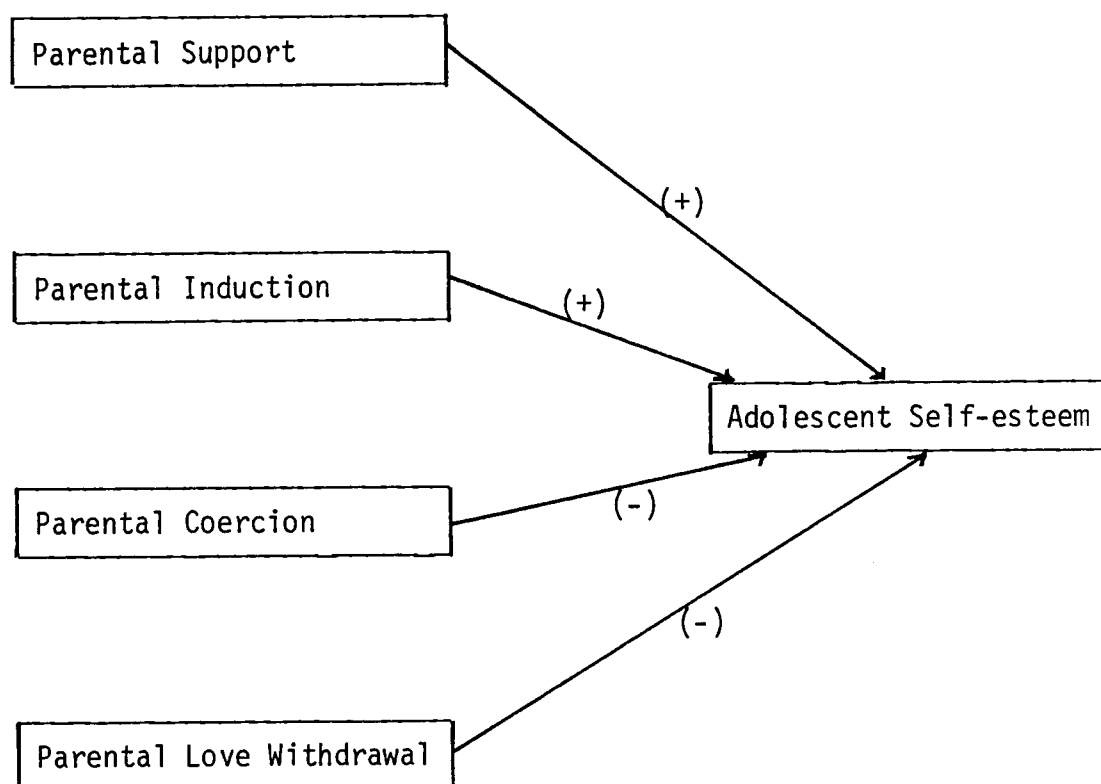


Figure 1. The relationship between parental behavior and adolescent self-esteem.

labels (i.e., reasoning, demanding, or authoritative parental behavior), most of these terms designate parental behaviors that seek voluntary compliance from youth by using explanations and/or pointing out the consequences of the offspring's behavior for themselves and other participants of social interaction (Hoffman, 1970, 1980).

Parental inductive behaviors communicate confidence that youth have the ability to understand the consequences of their actions and cope successfully with the challenges they encounter. Inductive behavior can be reflective of the parent's belief in and approval of the child's problem-solving capacity. Rational control of this kind has implications for the self-esteem of youth by allowing them to make and evaluate their own choices. Consequently, children and youth often develop greater confidence in the decisions they have made about their own behavior. Because the rationale for desired behaviors is made explicit by parents, induction also encourages the internalization of parental expectations by children and youth. Through this process of internalization, children and youth develop considerable insight and ability to guide their own behavior in future situations.

Attention to the multidimensional nature of parental control as well as the relationship between parental induction and self-esteem has been limited. Nevertheless, a few studies have reported relationships between parental induction and self-esteem in children and adolescents. Coopersmith (1967), for example, found that high or positive self-esteem was related to clearly defined and enforced

limits coupled with respect and latitude for individual action within defined limits. Baumrind (1967) also confirmed the relationship between parental inductive behaviors and "social competence"--a complex of prosocial behaviors consisting of conformity, achievement, cognitive behavior, and self-esteem. Another research study by Peterson, Southworth, and Peters (1983) cited similar results using a conceptually similar variable labeled "demanding behavior." Finally, in one of the few studies to use a multivariate model to examine the relationships between self-esteem and parental behaviors, Openshaw (1978) reported that parental induction was positively and significantly related to adolescent self-esteem. Therefore, the second hypothesis in this research model proposed that parental induction is positively related to adolescent self-esteem (see Figure 1).

Parental Coercion and Self-esteem

In contrast to parental induction, it has been reported frequently that coercive parental behavior is detrimental to the development of a positive self-esteem in children and adolescents (Baumrind, 1966, 1978; Hoffman, 1980; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Thomas et al., 1974). Coercion or coercive behaviors are control attempts used by parents that involve the application of force in an arbitrary manner. Control of this kind usually involves the message that parents are stronger and more powerful than children and youth. Coercive parental behaviors do not provide any justification or

rationale for parental demands and children and youth do not develop insight into the logic underlying parental expectations. Physical punishment, the direct application of verbal force, and the implicit or explicit threat to use force or physical punishment all are considered to be coercive parental behaviors (Hoffman, 1970).

A strong negative relationship has been reported between parental coercion and a variety of adolescent outcomes, including the self-esteem of youth (Baumrind, 1966, 1978; Hoffman, 1980; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Thomas et al., 1974). Logically, parental coercion communicates rejection of children as well as indicating a low valuation by parents of the child or youth's "self," including his/her ability to determine appropriate behaviors for different settings (Peterson & Rollins, in press). Consequently, the implications of coercion for the developing self-esteem in children and youth are likely to be negative. As a result, a third hypothesis proposed that parental coercion is negatively related to adolescent self-esteem (see Figure 1).

Parental Love Withdrawal and Self-esteem

Love withdrawal, another control attempt variable, refers to parental behavior threatening the continuation of the parent-child relationship until problematic behaviors are changed (Peterson, Rollins, Thomas, & Ellis, 1980; Peterson & Rollins, in press). Love withdrawal has a highly punitive quality that poses no immediate physical threat, but threatens abandonment or separation from

parental affection and support (Hoffman, 1980). It includes such parental behaviors as ignoring or isolating children and youth, implicit or explicit indication of rejection or disappointment, and cold, aloof responses to children's or adolescents' behaviors.

Like parental coercion, parental love withdrawal has been reported to have a negative influence on the development of self-esteem in youth (Hoffman, 1980). This control attempt gives no information about the nature of the inappropriate responses or cues as to how to correct the problematic behavior. Love withdrawal combines rejection of the youth's behavior with rejection of the "self" and communicates to youth that both are devalued. The extent to which children and youth are devalued in this manner, negative self-evaluative feelings seem likely to occur. If frequent and persistent, the use of love withdrawal by parents may produce negative orientations to the self by youth. Therefore, a fourth hypothesis proposed that parental love withdrawal is negatively related to adolescent self-esteem (see Figure 1).

Parental Power and Self-esteem

Parental power has been described as the potential an individual has for compelling a person to act in ways contrary to their own desires (Hoffman, 1970; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). A critical part of this definition lies in the idea that the potential rather than the actual power of the individual is of central concern. Particularly in parent-child relationships, youths' perceptions of their

parents' potential power to affect them (or perceived parental competence) has been reported as being as important as the actual exercise of that ability in the form of parental behavior (Rollins & Bahr, 1976).

A particularly important power issue in the parent-youth relationship is the parents' perceived ability to bring resources to bear in terms of rewarding the behaviors and actions of youth. If parents are perceived by their offspring as having the potential to distribute rewards differentially, children and youth are likely to align their behaviors and actions to meet parental expectations. Furthermore, if parents are perceived as having substantial competence in withdrawing or removing rewards, children and youth are likely to be affected when parents attempt to influence them by using rewarding behavior.

In light of this consideration, it seems that parental reward power may intensify the effect of parental behavior on the self-esteem of adolescents. As a result, a fifth hypothesis proposed that the relationship between parental behaviors on adolescent self-esteem is greater under conditions of high parental reward power and diminishes under conditions of low parental reward power (see Figure 2).

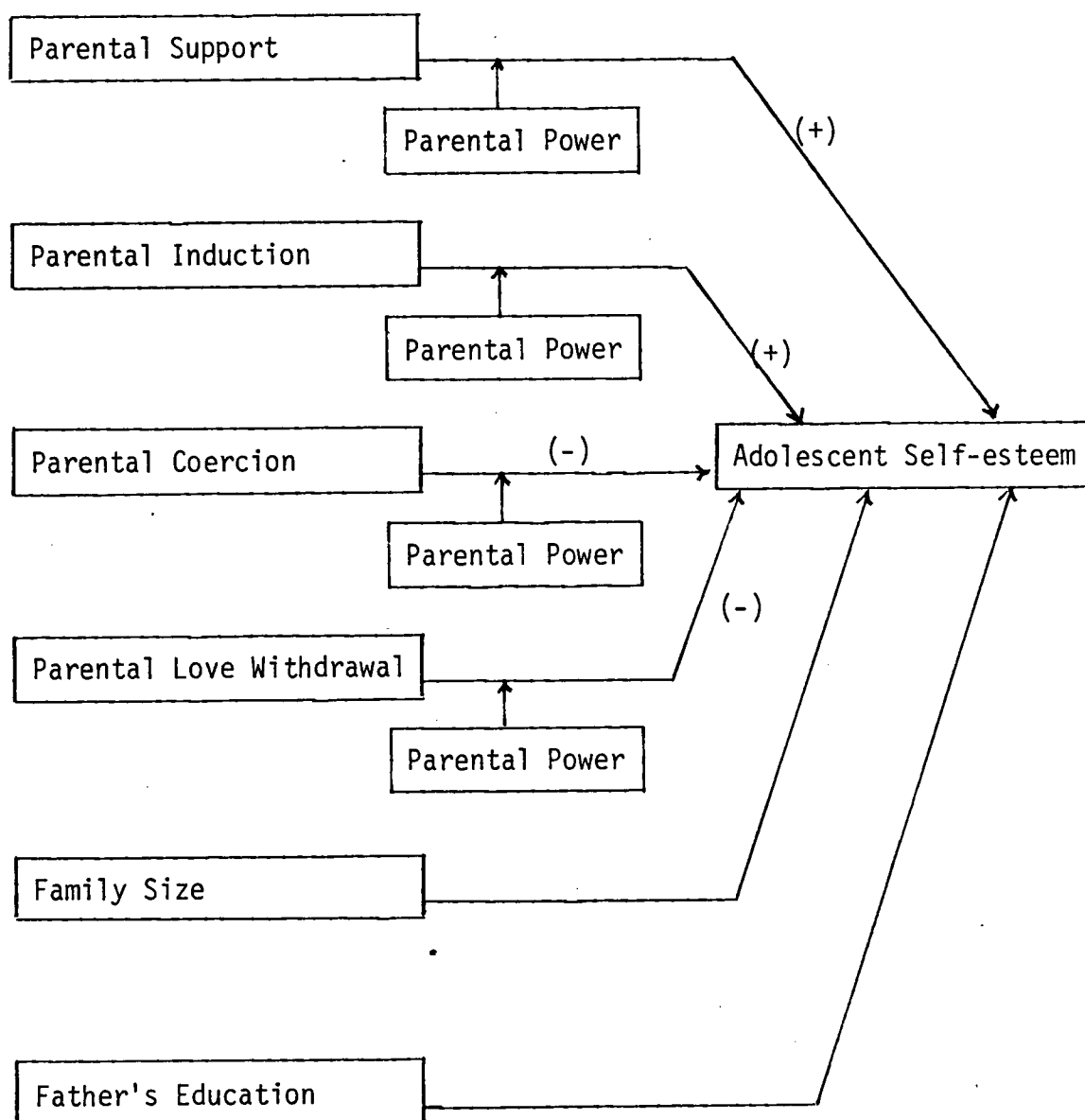


Figure 2. Relationships between perceived parental behaviors, perceived parental power, and adolescent self-esteem.*

*Separate models were analyzed for each parent/adolescent dyad.

Other Variables in the Research Model

Father's Education

Research reports on parent-child relations have consistently indicated that occupational prestige or socioeconomic status may affect the experiences of parents and subsequently the child-rearing behaviors that parents use with their offspring (Gecas, 1979; Kohn, 1977; Maccoby, 1980; Martin, 1975; Peterson & Rollins, in press; Scheck & Emerick, 1976). Frequently, it has been reported that lower class parents are more likely than middle class parents to want their children to be obedient, respectful, and to stay out of trouble.

Middle class parents, on the other hand, tend to emphasize happiness, creativity, ambition, achievement, independence, and self control (Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Bayley & Schaefer, 1960). Maccoby (1980), for example, suggests that a particular parental behavior such as physical punishment or coercion may have a different impact on children as a function of their socioeconomic status. If the meanings and consequences of parental behaviors vary as a result of socioeconomic status or occupational prestige, it is important to control for these variables in models in which child-rearing behaviors are included (see Figure 2).

Family Size

Peterson & Rollins (in press) reported that family role systems may be influenced substantially as sibling number increases.

Variables that are potentially affected by increased sibling numbers include parental child-rearing behaviors. For example, parental control attempts may be affected by changes in family size. That is, parents having greater numbers of children may tend to use more control attempts, higher levels of physical punishment, and more authoritarian child-rearing techniques than do parents having fewer children (Peterson & Rollins, in press). A possible outcome might be that parents having greater numbers of youth may use high levels of parental behaviors that are detrimental to adolescent self-esteem. Ideas such as these emphasize the importance of controlling for family size in the present research study (see Figure 2).

Gender of Parent

Gender differences also have been reported to effect parental behaviors (Johnson, 1963; Parsons & Bales, 1955). Parents of different genders seem to behave differently. Males in our society have traditionally been viewed as the primary occupants of instrumental roles characterized by competence, control, and mastery (Johnson, 1963; Harrington, Block, & Block, 1975; Parsons & Bales, 1955; Weinraub, 1978). Females, on the other hand, are viewed most commonly as fulfilling expressive roles which are characterized by nurturing, affectionate, warm, and emotionally supportive behaviors. As a result, it might be the case that maternal and paternal child-rearing behaviors have different consequences for the self-esteem of adolescents. To determine if such gender differences exist, separate multivariate analyses were conducted for mothers and fathers.

Gender of Adolescent

Several studies were found that reported gender of child (adolescent) differences in a wide variety of parent-child issues. For example, Wolk and Brannon (1977) reported that males required higher levels of authority and supportive behaviors from fathers than from mothers for satisfactory development. Females, on the other hand, were reported to suffer from too much parental control and restrictiveness (Wolk & Brannon, 1977). Along the same lines, Gecas (1971) reported that parents act differently toward their children depending upon the gender of the child. Gecas (1971) further reported that parental supportive behaviors have the greatest impact on youth of the same gender as the parents (i.e., father to son, mother to daughter). Results like this emphasize the importance of conducting separate analyses for male and female adolescents to determine the relationships between parental behaviors and adolescent self-esteem.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

This research project focused on the extent to which parental child-rearing behaviors predicted adolescent self-esteem. The research design was an ex-post facto survey design using adolescent self-esteem as a dependent variable and parental support, induction, coercion, love withdrawal, and level of perceived parental power as independent variables.

Sample

The sample for this study was derived from a larger research project funded by the Agricultural Experiment Station (AES) at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. It consisted of a nonprobability sample derived from the only public senior high school located in an area of East Tennessee. Tennessee Statistical Abstracts were consulted to locate a small, rural community in the vicinity of a larger metropolitan area in which a wide distribution of socioeconomic groups were represented. Nine hundred fifty-six high school students were available as a possible population for this study. Of this total, 657 or 69% were assessed. The subjects were between the ages of 15 and 20 years of age with a mean age of 16.3 years.

The sample tended to be composed of predominantly white, Protestant, lower middle class adolescents. There were 276 males and 381 females who completed the questionnaire. The mean

educational attainment for the fathers of these adolescents was 12.01 years and 11.94 years for the mothers. Since the present study was concerned with the adolescents' perceptions of their parents' (both mothers and fathers) behaviors, only those students from intact families were used. Therefore, the sample size for this study was 522 adolescents or 79.5% of the adolescents who were assessed. In this sample, 52 adolescents had one parent who was a step-parent. The remainder lived with their natural parents.

Procedure

Permission was acquired from school officials to conduct the study several months in advance of the assessment. Arrangements were made to assess the students in their English classes because this provided access to the entire student population.

Three weeks prior to the assessment dates, four trained staff and the project director explained the general purpose of the project to the students in their English classes at the high school. This explanation included a general orientation regarding the types of questions that would be asked and approximately how long it would take to fill out the questionnaire.

The Survey of High School Students was distributed to all students who were present on the day of assessment. Only those students who had returned a signed parental consent form completed the questionnaire. Four trained staff and the project director were

present to give directions on completing the questionnaire and to answer any questions.

Measurement

A questionnaire entitled Survey of High School Students (SHSS) was used to collect data from the adolescents (see Appendix A). The adolescents' questionnaire consisted of 146 items and was designed to be completed within a 55-minute class period. The instrument contained items on family sociodemographic information, adolescent independence from parents, parental power, personal power, adolescent's conformity to parents, adolescent perception of parents' self-esteem, adolescent self-esteem, gender-role attitudes, familism, locus of control, autonomy, significant others, educational planning, and parental behaviors. Parental reward power, adolescent self-esteem, and parental behaviors were the variables used in the present study.

Some of the categories in the questionnaire were taken from pre-existing scales, while others were constructed by the project director and project assistants. The questionnaires were pilot tested for completion time and difficulty in comprehension.

Demographic Data

The Survey of High School Students included several demographic items including questions about (a) personal data (i.e., age, gender, grade, residency, etc.), (b) educational and

occupational status of both mothers and fathers, (c) family composition (i.e., number of children, age, and gender of siblings), and religious preference. For this study, the pertinent items assessed were gender, family composition (intact), and the educational status of both parents (see Appendix A).

Adolescent Self-esteem

Adolescent self-esteem was measured by eight items from the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (1965) which assessed global self-esteem using a Likert-type scale that varies from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Items referred to the adolescent's feelings about him/herself in a general evaluative sense. Some of these items were phrased from the positive perspective (I feel I am a person of worth . . .) while others were phrased from the negative perspective (I feel useless at times). These items yielded an internal consistency reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) of .83.

Parental Behavior Variables

Parental behaviors including support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal were measured by several items from a 24-item Parental Behavior Scale on the SHSS. This instrument was composed of items which had the highest loadings in a factor analytic study by Peterson (1978). The Peterson (1978) study was based on an instrument developed for another investigation consisting of 80 items obtained through several pilot studies and factor analyses. Of the 80 items, 55 had been derived from Schaefer's original 192 item

Parent Behavior Inventory (1959). An additional nine items measuring parental support were derived from the Heilbrun (1964) and the Cornell (Bronfenbrenner, 1958, 1961) measures of parental support (Ellis, Thomas, & Rollins, 1976). Nine more items were taken from another series of pilot studies on a set of 64 items designed to measure parental induction (Peterson, 1978).

Of the 24-item Parental Behavior Scale on the SHSS, four items measured parental support, five measured parental induction, six measured parental coercion, and two measured parental love withdrawal. The internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) for parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal were .82, .87, .79, and .80, respectively. Internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) for maternal behaviors were .80, .84, .80, and .76 for support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal, respectively.

Parental Power

Parental power items were based on the types of power bases identified by French and Raven (1959). These items were adapted from research by McDonald (1977, 1979) and Smith (1970). Items were concerned with an adolescent's perception of parental power in heterosexual, educational, and occupational areas of life. There were nine items measuring expert power, six measuring legitimate power, six measuring coercive power, three measuring reward power, and three measuring referent power. The internal consistency

reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha) for each power dimension were .79, .79, .79, .72, and .69 for maternal expert, legitimate, coercive, reward, and referent power respectively. The same values for fathers were .79, .84, .80, .73, and .74 for expert, legitimate, coercive, reward, and referent power respectively. For this research project, only those items related to parental reward power were used.

Operational Definitions

Adolescent Self-esteem

Adolescent self-esteem was measured by items 1-8 on section II of the Survey of High School Students (SHSS) (see Appendix A). These items were taken from the Rosenberg Scale (1965) and concerned feelings of usefulness, personal satisfaction, ability, attitude, worth, and self-evaluation. The responses by adolescents were recorded as Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. Items were scored as 1, 2, 3, or 4 depending on the adolescent's response. A score was obtained by summing the responses to each item.

Parental Support

Maternal and paternal support were measured by items 1-4 on section III of the SHSS (see Appendix A). The items concerned parental (maternal and paternal) responses like approval, dependability, and affection. Students indicated if the behaviors were similar to those exhibited by their mothers and fathers by choosing one of the following responses: Not Like Him (Her), Somewhat Like

Him (Her), or Very Much Like Him (Her). Adolescent perception of parental support scores were obtained by summing the weighted responses on these four items.

Parental Induction

Maternal and paternal induction were measured by items 1-5 on section IV of the SHSS (see Appendix A). These items concerned parental (maternal and paternal) behaviors like explaining the way adolescents should feel when they share or do what is considered right within the family setting. Students indicated if the behaviors were similar to those exhibited by their mothers and fathers by choosing one of the following responses: Not Like Him (Her), or Very Much Like Him (Her). Adolescent perceptions of parent induction scores were obtained by summing the weighted responses of these nine items.

Parental Coercion

Parental coercion was measured by items 1-6 on section V of the SHSS (see Appendix A). These items concerned parental (maternal and paternal) responses to adolescents like complaining, deprivation of privileges, physical punishment, and punishment by isolation. Students indicated if the behaviors were similar to those exhibited by their mothers and fathers by choosing one of the following responses: Not Like Him (Her), Somewhat Like Him (Her), or Very Much Like Him (Her). Adolescent perception of parental coercion scores were obtained by summing the weighted responses to these six items.

Parental Love Withdrawal

Parental love withdrawal was measured by items 1-2 on section VI of the SHSS (see Appendix A). These items concerned parental (maternal and paternal) responses to adolescents like withdrawing affection or avoiding contact. Students indicated if the behaviors were similar to those exhibited by their mothers and fathers by choosing one of the following responses: Not Like Him (Her), Somewhat Like Him (Her), or Very Much Like Him (Her). Adolescent perception of parental love withdrawal scores were obtained by summing the weighted responses to these two items.

Parental Power

Parental power was measured by three items on section VII of the SHSS (see Appendix A). These items concerned perceived parental ability to reward and make adolescents feel good. The responses by adolescents were recorded as Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. A score was obtained by summing the responses to each item. A perceived parental reward power score was considered high if the score fell above the median and low if it fell at or below the median score (see Appendix C).

Data Reduction and Transformation

The data gathered by the questionnaires were transferred to coding sheets by two trained coders. Subsequently, the data were key punched on computer cards and verified by the key punch

operators. From computer cards, the data were transferred to a magnetic computer tape and a disk. A code book was then developed and each variable was labeled on the tape and the disk for use with two programs, Statistical Analysis System (Helwig & Council, 1979) and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975). Means, frequencies, and standard deviations were then calculated for all of the variables (see Appendix B).

Plan of Analysis

The model from this study was tested through the use of multiple regression. Multiple regression is a general statistical technique that analyzes the relationship between a dependent variable and a set of independent variables (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975). It focuses on the evaluation and measurement of the overall dependence of a particular variable on set of other variables. This model was analyzed for gender of parent/gender of adolescent differences by examining four variations; that is, mother/daughter, mother/son, father/daughter, and father/son models. To examine the enhancing effects of parental power, reward power scores were dichotomized as high or low levels and separate regression analyses (involving parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal as predictors of adolescent self-esteem) were conducted for each level of parental reward power.

The .05 level of significance was used for reporting all results except when the models for each level of parental reward power were conducted. Because of the exploratory nature of the models involving parental reward power, .10 was used as the confidence level for determining statistical significance.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The ability of parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal to predict adolescent self-esteem was examined within each gender of parent/gender of adolescent dyad. In addition, the impact of levels of perceived parental reward power on the relationships between perceived parental behaviors and self-esteem was examined. Descriptive statistics for the dependent and independent variables in the research model are reported in Appendix B.

Principal Data Analysis

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis proposed that perceived parental support would be positively related to adolescent self-esteem. This hypothesis was supported with respect to mother/daughter, mother/son, and father/son dyads. Perceived parental support manifested significant standardized regression coefficients of .17 (see Table 1), .17 (see Table 2), and .22 (see page 48) for the mother/daughter, mother/son, and father/son dyads respectively. For the father/daughter dyad, the results yielded a non-significant standardized regression coefficient of .03 (see Table 3), and did not support the hypothesis.

TABLE 1

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED MATERNAL BEHAVIORS IN RELATION
TO FEMALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.31	.17	.08	2.13**				
Induction	.23	.07	.07	.99				
Coercion	-.28	-.09	.08	-1.15				
Love withdrawal	-.30	-.18	.07	-2.66**				
Family size	.04	.04	.06	.73				
Father's education	.05	.00	.06	.07				
					.39	.15	7.4**	.13

**p = .05.

TABLE 2

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED MATERNAL BEHAVIORS IN RELATION
TO MALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.31	.17	.08	2.07**				
Induction	.28	.22	.08	2.77**				
Coercion	-.10	.03	.08	.32				
Love withdrawal	-.19	-.20	.08	-2.63**				
Family size	-.14	-.08	.07	-1.53				
Father's education	.04	.05	.07	.73				
					.40	.16	6.02**	.14

**p = .05.

TABLE 3

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED PATERNAL BEHAVIORS IN RELATION
TO FEMALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.25	.03	.09	.345				
Induction	.25	.17	.08	2.19**				
Coercion	.23	.10	.07	1.64				
Love withdrawal	-.21	-.12	.07	-1.67				
Family size	.01	.01	.06	.179				
Father's education	.18	.10	.06	1.64				
					.34	.12	5.48**	.095

**p = .05.

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis proposed that perceived parental induction would be positively related to adolescent self-esteem. This hypothesis was supported with respect to mother/son and father/daughter dyads. Perceived parental induction manifested significant standardized regression coefficients of .22 (see Table 2) and .17 (see Table 3) for mother/son and father/daughter dyads respectively. Mother/daughter and father/son dyads yielded non-significant standardized regression coefficients of .07 (see Table 1) and .11 (see Table 4) respectively, and did not support the hypothesis.

Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis proposed that perceived parental coercion would be negatively related to adolescent self-esteem. No support was found for this hypothesis because non-significant standardized regression coefficients of $-.09$ (see Table 1), $.03$ (see Table 2), $.10$ (see Table 3), and $-.03$ (see Table 4) were manifested for the mother/daughter, mother/son, father/daughter, and father/son dyads respectively.

Hypothesis Four

The fourth hypothesis proposed that perceived parental love withdrawal would be negatively related to adolescent self-esteem. The hypothesis was supported with respect to the mother/daughter and mother/son dyads. Perceived parental love withdrawal manifested significant standardized regression coefficients of $-.18$ (see Table

TABLE 4

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED PATERNAL BEHAVIORS IN RELATION
TO MALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.33	.22	.10	2.26**				
Induction	.25	.11	.09	1.26				
Coercion	-.17	-.03	.09	-.29				
Love withdrawal	-.17	-.09	.08	-1.05				
Family size	-.14	-.08	.07	-1.10				
Father's education	.14	.12	.07	1.75				
					.38	.15	5.28**	.12

**p = .05.

1) and $-.20$ (see Table 2) for the mother/daughter and mother/son dyads respectively. For the father/daughter and father/son dyads, the results yielded non-significant standardized regression coefficients of $-.12$ (see Table 3) and $-.09$ (see Table 4) respectively, and did not support the hypothesis.

Other Variables in the Model

Family Size

Results for this variable revealed no significant relationships between family size and adolescent self-esteem. Mother/daughter dyads manifested a non-significant beta of $.04$ (see Table 1), while the non-significant beta for mother/son dyads was $-.08$ (see Table 2). Non-significant betas for family size in relation to self-esteem for the father/daughter and father/son dyads were $.01$ (see Table 3) and $-.08$ (see Table 4) respectively.

Father's Education

Results revealed no significant relationships between father's education and adolescent self-esteem. Non-significant betas of $.00$ (see Table 1), $.05$ (see Table 2), $.10$ (see Table 3), and $.12$ (see Table 4) were manifested for the mother/daughter, mother/son, father/daughter, and father/son dyads respectively.

Parental Behaviors and Reward Power

Further analyses consisted of multiple regression analyses using perceived parental power scores to divide the sample. A frequency distribution of perceived reward power scores was used to dichotomize the sample into low reward power and high reward power (see Appendix C). Regression analyses were then conducted on each parent/adolescent dyad and each level of reward power using parental support, induction, coercion, love withdrawal, family size, and father's education as predictors of adolescent self-esteem.

Mother/Daughter Dyads in Terms of Power Level

Low ascribed parental reward power. Results for conditions of low ascribed parental reward power in the mother/daughter dyad yielded no significant relationships between the independent variables of perceived parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal and the dependent variable, adolescent self-esteem (see Table 5).

High scribed parental reward power. Results yielded one relationship for the mother/daughter dyad which demonstrated significance at the .05 level and two which demonstrated significance at the .10 level. Parental love withdrawal manifested a significant relationship to adolescent self-esteem at the .05 level as did parental support and coercion at the .10 level. The standardized

TABLE 5

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED MATERNAL BEHAVIORS AS PREDICTORS
OF FEMALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM UNDER CONDITIONS OF LOW REWARD POWER

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.35	.34	.21	1.61				
Induction	.21	-.02	.18	.14				
Coercion	.24	.08	.18	.45				
Love withdrawal	-.28	-.20	.15	-1.29				
Family size	.04	-.02	.13	-.18				
Father's education	-.03	-.05	.12	-.37				
					.39	.15	1.72	.06

*p = .10.

**p = .05.

regression coefficient for parental love withdrawal under conditions of high ascribed reward power was $-.18$, whereas parental support and coercion manifested betas of $.14$ and $-.13$ respectively (see Table 6). A non-significant standardized regression coefficient of $.08$ was manifested for parental induction (see Table 6).

Mother/Son Dyads in Terms of Power Level

Low ascribed parental reward power. Results for conditions of low ascribed parental power in the mother/son dyad yielded no significant relationships between the independent variables of perceived parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal and the dependent variable, adolescent self-esteem (see Table 7).

High ascribed parental reward power. Results for conditions of high ascribed parental reward power in the mother/son dyad yielded two relationships that reached significance at the $.05$ level and one that reached significance at the $.10$ level. Both parental induction, love withdrawal, and support manifested significant relationships with the self-esteem of adolescents (see Table 8). Under the conditions of high power, parental induction demonstrated a standardized regression coefficient of $.22$. For love withdrawal, the beta was $-.27$, while support manifested a beta of $.19$. The non-significant standardized regression coefficient for parental coercion under conditions of high power was $.07$ (see Table 8).

TABLE 6

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED MATERNAL BEHAVIORS AS PREDICTORS
OF FEMALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM UNDER CONDITIONS OF HIGH REWARD POWER

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.27	.14	.09	1.70*				
Induction	.20	.08	.08	1.07				
Coercion	-.28	-.13	.08	-1.65*				
Love withdrawal	-.29	-.18	.08	-2.31**				
Family size	.06	.08	.07	1.15				
Father's education	.07	.03	.07	.37				
					.39	.15	5.53**	.12

*p = .10.

**p = .05.

TABLE 7

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED MATERNAL BEHAVIORS AS PREDICTORS
OF MALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM UNDER CONDITIONS OF LOW REWARD POWER

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.20	.20	.14	1.49				
Induction	.17	.11	.13	.89				
Coercion	-.03	.01	.13	.06				
Love withdrawal	-.07	-.05	.13	-.40				
Family size	.02	.12	.12	.95				
Father's education	.07	.10	.12	.86				
					.27	.07	.97	-.003

*p = .10.

**p = .05.

TABLE 8

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED MATERNAL BEHAVIORS AS PREDICTORS
OF MALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM UNDER CONDITIONS OF HIGH REWARD POWER

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.33	.19	.10	1.85*				
Induction	.29	.22	.10	2.29**				
Coercion	-.13	.07	.10	.75				
Love withdrawal	-.25	-.27	.09	-2.86**				
Family size	-.26	-.25	.09	2.80				
Father's education	.05	-.002	.09	-.03				
					.50	.25	5.81**	.20

*p = .10.

**p = .05.

Father/Daughter Dyads in Terms of Power Level

Low ascribed parental reward power. Under conditions of low ascribed parental reward power in the father/daughter dyad, no significant results were demonstrated for parental support, induction, coercion, love withdrawal as predictors of adolescent self-esteem (see Table 9).

High ascribed parental reward power. Results yielded one relationship in the father/daughter dyad which demonstrated significance at the .05 level and one that demonstrated significance at the .10 level. Parental coercion demonstrated a significant relationship to adolescent self-esteem with a negative regression coefficient of $-.16$ while parental induction demonstrated a beta of $.17$. Non-significant betas for parental support and love withdrawal were $.05$ and $-.12$ respectively (see Table 10).

Father/Son Dyads in Terms of Power Level

Low ascribed parental reward power. Under conditions of low ascribed parental power in the father/son dyads, no significant relationships were realized between parental support, induction, coercion, love withdrawal, and adolescent self-esteem (see Table 11).

High ascribed parental reward power. Results for conditions of high ascribed parental reward power in father/son dyads yielded two relationships that reached significance at the .05 level and

TABLE 9

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED PATERNAL BEHAVIORS AS PREDICTORS
OF FEMALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM UNDER CONDITIONS OF LOW REWARD POWER

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.18	.01	.19	.06				
Induction	.19	.16	.15	1.03				
Coercion	-.16	-.04	.16	-.25				
Love withdrawal	-.15	-.10	.13	-.78				
Family size	.00	-.01	.12	-.11				
Father's education	.07	.03	.12	.25				
					.23	.06	.75	-.02

*p = .10.

**p = .05.

TABLE 10

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED PATERNAL BEHAVIORS AS PREDICTORS
OF FEMALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM UNDER CONDITIONS OF HIGH REWARD POWER

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.25	.05	.07	.53				
Induction	.23	.17	.09	1.89*				
Coercion	-.25	-.16	.08	-1.95**				
Love withdrawal	-.21	-.12	.08	-1.50				
Family size	.04	.02	.07	.30				
Father's education	.20	.14	.07	1.89				
					.38	.14	4.67**	.11

*p = .10.

**p = .05.

TABLE 11

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED PATERNAL BEHAVIORS AS PREDICTORS
OF MALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM UNDER CONDITIONS OF LOW REWARD POWER

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.19	.29	.18	1.60				
Induction	.13	-.06	.17	-.37				
Coercion	.01	.02	.14	.15				
Love withdrawal	.06	.13	.14	.93				
Family size	-.03	.04	.12	.32				
Father's education	.14	.16	.12	1.41				
					.27	.07	.97	-.002

*p = .10.

**p = .05.

one at the .10 level. Love withdrawal, support, and induction demonstrated significant relationships with adolescent self-esteem.

Parental support demonstrated a significant standardized regression coefficient of .23, whereas love withdrawal manifested a significant beta of $-.22$ (see Table 12). Parental induction yielded a standardized regression coefficient of .18. The non-significant beta for coercion was $-.05$ (see Table 12).

TABLE 12

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED PATERNAL BEHAVIOR AS PREDICTORS
OF MALE ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM UNDER CONDITIONS OF HIGH REWARD POWER

Independent Variables	r	Beta	Standard Error	T	Multiple R	R ²	F	Adj. R ²
Support	.40	.23	.10	2.20**				
Induction	.26	.18	.10	1.78*				
Coercion	-.23	-.05	.11	-.49				
Love withdrawal	-.31	-.22	.10	-2.15**				
Family size	-.25	-.14	.09	-1.58				
Father's education	.13	.08	.09	.90	.51	.26	6.13**	.22

*p = .10.

**p = .05.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the predictive capacity of parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal on the self-esteem of adolescents, while controlling and testing for the effects of father's education (a measure of socioeconomic status) and family size. Another purpose was to determine if particular parental behaviors would predict adolescent self-esteem differently depending upon the level of reward power that was attributed to parents. A final purpose was to determine whether gender of parent/gender of adolescent differences existed in the predictive capacity of parental behaviors on adolescent self-esteem. The results of these analyses are summarized and discussed in this chapter.

Discussion of the Results

The first hypothesis proposed that perceived parental support would relate positively to the self-esteem of adolescents. This relationship was supported and reached significance for all of the parent/adolescent dyads, except the father/daughter combination. Findings for this hypothesis, therefore, provided additional evidence indicating that support enhanced the self-esteem of youth (Bachman, 1970; Coopersmith, 1967; Gecas, 1971; Peterson, Southworth,

& Peters, 1983; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Rosenberg, 1979). Parental support seemed to communicate to children and youth that they were valued and approved by the most significant adults in their lives (i.e., their parents). Supportive behavior may have been used by parents as a means of assigning significance to specific behaviors and internal states of children and youth. Parental support often may have functioned to encourage behavior from youth that was consistent with parental expectations, solidified the parent-youth relationship, and enhanced the self-concepts of adolescents. As a result, adolescents may have considered the parent-youth relationship to be a stable base from which to expand outward into the social world. Parental support enhanced adolescent self-esteem because it communicated that behaviors of youth were consistent with parental expectations.

Within the father/daughter dyad, however, support did not significantly relate either positively or negatively to the self-esteem of female adolescents. A possible explanation is that as females mature physically, girls may alter their perceptions of the importance of paternal support. That is, when adolescent females begin to mature physically, they may perceive their fathers as changing the pattern of responses they use with female offspring to accommodate new social meanings ascribed to the physiological changes their daughters are experiencing. Social norms may limit or even proscribe behaviors between fathers and adolescent daughters which are overly affectionate or intimate.

Lamb (1978) and his associates (Lamb, Owen, & Chase-Lansdale, 1979) offer another explanation for this finding which has its origin in developmental periods prior to adolescence. These authors reported that from the second year of life, fathers actually become closer to their sons and withdraw from intimate relationships with their daughters. Fathers perceived this withdrawal as allowing mothers to become the salient role model for daughters.

Weinraub (1978) presented some ideas which may also explain why no relationship was found between paternal supportive behaviors and the self-esteem of daughters. Traditionally, females are viewed most commonly as fulfilling expressive roles which are characterized by nurturance, affection, and emotional support. Males, on the other hand, have been viewed as primary occupants of instrumental roles characterized by such behaviors as mastery and control (Harrington, Block, & Block, 1975; Johnson, 1963; Parsons & Bales, 1955; Weinraub, 1978). Because of these gender-role relationships in the father/daughter dyad, adolescent females may not expect their fathers to respond affectionately or supportively. That is, as daughters mature, they may not attribute as much significance to the supportive behaviors of fathers as they do to the supportive behaviors of mothers. As a result, paternal support may have little impact on daughters' self-esteem.

Weinraub (1978) further suggested that fathers begin to act in ways which encourage role complementarity. That is, as fathers increasingly fulfill and enact instrumental roles, daughters quickly

discover that expressive role behavior complements paternal instrumental behavior. Daughters are thereby encouraged to fulfill the expectations of their fathers by perfecting feminine expressive role behavior. Because fathers are comfortable with this complementarity, their daughters' behavior is reinforced as they work to develop complementary responses.

The second hypothesis specified that perceived parental induction would positively relate to adolescent self-esteem. This relationship was supported and reached significance within the cross gender dyads (mother/son, father/daughter). That is, mothers' inductive behaviors predicted the self-esteem of sons, while fathers' inductive behavior significantly related to the self-esteem of daughters.

Results of this kind are consistent with the findings of previous investigators who concluded that parental induction does have positive implications for the self-esteem of children and youth (Baumrind, 1967; Coopersmith, 1967; Peterson, Southworth, & Peters, 1983). What seems to occur when parents use inductive behavior is that they communicated expectations about appropriate behavior to children and youth. Furthermore, induction made implicit the significance assigned to specific behaviors of youth. Information of this kind may have solidified the parent-youth relationship, and clarified the behavioral responses that parents expected from youth. Because their compliance is voluntary, children and youth developed greater confidence in their abilities to solve problems and make

decisions about their own behavior. Although previous research has cited adolescents' reports that the same gender parent is the principle child-rearing decision maker and the dominant, controlling parent (Lynn, 1974), the findings for the present study contradict the existing research.

The third hypothesis proposed that perceived parental coercion would be negatively related to adolescent self-esteem. Contrary to previous research citing negative relationships between coercion and the self-esteem of adolescents (Baumrind, 1966; Hoffman, 1980; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Thomas et al., 1974), non-significant relationships were evident, and no support was provided for hypothesis three.

One explanation for this finding may be a function of the sample examined in this study. Much of the research on parental coercion and self-esteem has been conducted with younger children, often in preschool or nursery school. Parents may direct substantially more coercive behaviors at children in much earlier stages of development. By adolescence, however, youth are more independent and more likely to be responsible for their own behavior in social contexts. As a result, youth may attribute less efficacy in terms of the impact on self-esteem to the coercion that parents do direct at them. Control attempts during adolescence are more likely to consist of withdrawal of privileges than the use of physical punishment or arbitrary force. Ideas of this kind suggest that the

developmental level of the child or adolescent may be a salient variable in research concerning parental behaviors.

The fourth hypothesis proposed that parental love withdrawal was negatively related to adolescent self-esteem. This relationship was supported and reached significance for mother/daughter and mother/son dyads. Previous research regarding this variable has reported similar results (Baumrind, 1966; Hoffman, 1980; Peterson, Rollins, Thomas, & Ellis, 1980; Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Thomas et al., 1974). Because mothers are traditionally considered to be more expressive than fathers, maternal threats to withdraw nurturance and support are more likely to be perceived as punitive by the offspring (Hoffman, 1980). The message of maternal love withdrawal is that both the behavior of the youth and their "self" have been devalued and rejected.

Fathers, however, were not perceived by their adolescents as likely to direct love withdrawal at their youth. Once again, issues concerned with gender-role socialization may provide insight into such results. Because daughters often assume expressive roles, they are less likely to define interactive situations where fathers use love withdrawal as salient to their self-esteem.

The fifth hypothesis proposed that relationships between parental behaviors and adolescent self-esteem would be greater under conditions of high reward power and would diminish under conditions of low parental reward power. When parental reward power was added to the multiple regression equation, significant results were

realized only for high power parents in all parent/adolescent dyads. On the other hand, none of the relationships between parental behaviors and adolescent self-esteem were significant when parents were perceived as having low reward power. Compared to low power parents, high power parents were more likely to effect their daughters' self-esteem adversely when they used coercion. In addition, when high power parents used love withdrawal with their sons, they were more likely than low power parents to effect adversely the self-esteem of their male youth. High power parents, in turn, were more likely than low power parents to enhance the self-esteem of their sons when they used support and induction.

Findings of this kind highlight an important dynamic within the parent-child relationship that has not been addressed in the previous research on child-rearing practices. Empirical support for the idea that parental power may influence relationships between parental behavior and adolescent outcomes has been unavailable (Peterson & Rollins, in press; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). The present study, however, begins to clarify that parental reward power does enhance the impact of parental behavior on the self-esteem of youth.

Such results may not be surprising because children and adolescents define interactive situations and perceive their parents as "significant others" (Mead, 1934). The extent to which parents are perceived in this manner by their adolescents is a reflection of the degree of power or resources ascribed to them by their offspring. Fathers and mothers who are perceived as having substantial reward

power seemed to demonstrate behavior that had greater impact on the self-esteem of youth. In both parent/adolescent dyads, parental reward power enhanced the impact of parental behaviors (support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal) on the self-esteem of adolescents.

Theoretical Implications

The results of this study indicated the following: (1) certain parental behaviors influenced adolescent self-esteem; (2) parental reward power enhanced the impact of parental behaviors on the self-esteem of adolescents; and (3) the gender of parents and adolescents influenced the relationships between parental behaviors and adolescent self-esteem. Each of these results can be conceptualized in terms of concepts from the symbolic interaction perspective.

Symbolic interactionists have proposed that expectations for behavior are communicated between parents and adolescents as they interact (Stryker, 1980). This is the case because parents are usually perceived by their offspring as significant others. Children and youth attempt to modify their behavior within the constraints communicated to them by their parents. To do so corresponds with expectations for the child socializee role. Success in fulfilling the child socializee role, in turn, has consequences for the self-esteem of children and youth. If responses from children and youth are consistent with parental expectations, it is likely that

the self-esteem would be enhanced. Conversely, if children and adolescents are unsuccessful in adjusting their behavior to conform to parental expectations negative self-evaluations may result (Peterson & Rollins, in press).

The use of parental support seems to be a particularly salient parental behavior that is part of the child socializer role. Through supportive behavior, parents communicate to youth that the self has worth. As parents take on the child socializer role which nurtures, encourages, and supports their youth, a likely result will be positive impact on the self-esteem of adolescents.

In the parent-child relationship, parental expectations are shared with children by making the rationales for desired behavior clear to children and youth (Peterson & Rollins, in press). The use of induction (explanations or reasoning) provides children and youth with considerable insight into their parents' expectations which, in turn, serves to guide their behavior in future situations. If youth understand parental expectations and respond accordingly, a likely result should be positive self-evaluations. Thus, the use of inductive behaviors appears to be an effective way of enacting the child socializer role which has positive impact on adolescent self-esteem.

In contrast to the use of parental support and induction, parental love withdrawal does not appear to be a useful way of enacting the child socializer role. This was the case because love withdrawal behaviors communicated rejection of the child's "self." Furthermore, love withdrawal failed to provide youth with information

about the nature of their inappropriate responses and how their behavior might be corrected. Consequently, adverse implications for the self-esteem of adolescents were a probable result of using love withdrawal.

Finally, because parents are perceived by their youth as having the potential to provide or withdraw rewards, adolescents often attempt to align their behavior with parental expectations. According to the symbolic interaction viewpoint, parents who are perceived as having high reward power are significant others whose support and affection have substantial effects on children and youth. Parents who are perceived as having high reward power (or competence) tend to be successful when they attempt to influence the behavior of their youth. Perceptions of parental competence (reward power) in enacting the child socializer role may intensify the impact of certain child-rearing behaviors (like support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal) on the self-esteem of adolescents. Perceptions of incompetence, on the other hand, are likely to diminish the impact of parental behavior on the self-esteem of youth.

Limitations

Three factors may have influenced the findings in this study including the nature of the sample, socially desirable response patterns, and the cross-sectional nature of the data. The first factor, the nature of the sample, may have reduced the generalizability of these results. The subjects and their families tended

to be predominantly white, Protestant, and lower middle class with a mean educational attainment of 12.01 for fathers and 11.94 for mothers. These characteristics limited the generalizability of the results to subjects with other demographic, educational, and socioeconomic characteristics.

The second factor, the tendency to give socially desirable responses on self-report measures refers to the tendency for respondents to provide answers to questionnaire items reflecting conventional norms of society. In any self-report situation, particularly in attempting to elicit responses regarding coercive parental behaviors, getting responses that are "accurate" rather than socially desirable may present a problem. Socially desirable responses may, therefore, affect the quality of the data and make the results more difficult to interpret.

Another limitation is concerned with the cross-sectional and correlational nature of the data. The techniques used to analyze the data for this study do not necessarily establish that parental behaviors "precede" or "influence" the self-esteem of adolescents. It might also be possible, for example, that the self-esteem of children and youth may elicit certain parental behaviors. That is, children and youth who demonstrate a high self-esteem may elicit the use of supportive, inductive, and non-coercive behaviors from parents. If children and youth, on the other hand, demonstrate behaviors associated with low self-esteem (such as preoccupation with personal problems or lack of confidence), they may elicit

responses from parents that are coercive in nature and frustrate parental efforts to impact the behavior of their youth. As a result, examination of the bidirectionality of relationships in future research on parent-youth relations is necessary.

Practical Implications

The relationships between parental behaviors and the self-esteem of adolescents was the major focus of this study. The relationships between parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal and the self-esteem of adolescents are important results for educators and family life specialists concerned with the effective socialization of children in family settings. Descriptors like confident, independent, and creative have been associated with persons having a high self-esteem. Most educators and parents value characteristics of children and youth like those associated with high self-esteem and desire to enhance their development.

A major implication of this study is that parents can have a positive impact on their youth's self-esteem by using parental behaviors like support and induction which enhance the self-esteem of adolescents. Furthermore, if parents use behaviors like coercion and love withdrawal, they can adversely effect the self-esteem of youth. A key question which emerges is "how can parents learn to understand and use parental behaviors to positively influence the self-esteem of their children and youth?" An obvious answer is that parents can practice and learn to use behaviors which have positive

impact on their youth's self-esteem. Currently, several education programs are available which include the understanding and use of child-rearing practices similar to supportive and inductive behaviors in their intervention strategies. Programs like Parent effectiveness training (Gordon, 1975), Systematic training for effective parenting (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976), Children, the challenge (Dreikurs & Stoltz, 1964), and How to discipline without feeling guilty (Silberman & Wheelan, 1980) are examples. Each of these programs has components which explain the importance of parent supportive behaviors and help participants practice skills that communicate support. In doing so, these parent education programs can have a positive impact on the self-esteem of children and youth.

Another implication for parent education programs is the importance of parental power in the parent-youth relationship. Depending upon the level of perceived parental power, the present study found differences in the influence of parental behaviors on adolescent self-esteem. This finding, in turn, may explain why parent education programs may fail to be effective with certain parents. This is the case because levels of parental power either enhance or diminish the relationships between parental behaviors and adolescent self-esteem. That is, if parents are perceived as having low levels of power, the influence of the child-rearing behaviors they are taught in parent education programs may be less effective. Specifically, what this means is that the amount of support (or induction, coercion, or love withdrawal) directed at children and youth may be

less critical than the perceived competence (power) of the parent using the behavior. If this is so, parent education programs must be designed which include strategies for increasing children and adolescents' perception of parental power (or competence).

A further implication of this study for parent education programs relates to the use of inductive behaviors. It seems that assisting parents with developing inductive skills should be an important goal of any parent education program. Although several programs include some information and skill development similar to induction, the approaches taken in the STEP (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976) and How to discipline without feeling guilty (Silberman & Wheelan, 1980) appear particularly effective. In both of these approaches, the development of self-responsibility on the part of children and youth and the willingness to absorb natural and logical consequences are a focus. Parents are encouraged to express directly and clearly what they want from their children and youth, to convey freely the reasons for these expectations, and to demonstrate interest in the point of view of youth. Development of these skills on the part of parents can have important implications for the self-esteem of children and youth.

The final implication for parent education programs from this research project relates to gender differences which were revealed. Specifically, mothers may need greater assistance in using inductive behaviors with their daughters, while fathers may need greater skill in using supportive behaviors with their daughters. Because the

impact of parental behaviors seem to vary with gender of parent and adolescent, awareness of this issue is an important component of any parent education program.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the predictive capacity of parental support, induction, coercion, and love withdrawal on the self-esteem of adolescents. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the relationships between dependent and independent variables within the same gender and cross gender dyads.

In general, partial support was found for the predicted relationships between parental support, induction, and love withdrawal and adolescent self-esteem. No relationships were found between parental coercion and adolescent self-esteem.

Gender differences emerged in these relationships. Parental support was positively related to adolescent self-esteem in three parent/adolescent dyads (mother/daughter, mother/son, and father/son). A positive relationship was found between maternal induction and the self-esteem of sons. A similar positive relationship was found for fathers' induction and daughters' self-esteem. Significant negative relationships were found between maternal love withdrawal and both sons' and daughters' self-esteem.

The results of this study indicated that no relationships existed between parental behaviors (support, induction, coercion,

and love withdrawal) and adolescent self-esteem under conditions of low parental reward power. However, significant relationships did emerge between some of the parental behaviors and the self-esteem of adolescents under conditions of high parental reward power.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SURVEY OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Section I. Sociodemographic items

1. Is your father (male guardian) employed? Yes No
2. If your father (male guardian) is employed, what is his job title? Be specific.
3. What does your father (male guardian) do? Please give a full description such as "is an assembly line worker in a large factory" or "oversees a sales force of 10 people."
4. Circle the highest grade in school that your father (male guardian) completed.

Grade School

College

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

5. Are your parents: married, divorced, separated, widowed, single, other (please explain)? Circle your answer.
6. How many children are there in your family? ____
7. What is your sex? Male Female Circle your answer.

Section II. Items measuring adolescent self-esteem

1. I certainly feel useless at times.
2. At times I think I am no good at all.
3. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
6. I feel I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
7. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
8. I feel I have a number of good qualities.

Section III. Items measuring parental support

1. This parent tells me how much he/she loves me.
2. This parent has made me feel that he/she would be there if I needed him/her.
3. This parent says nice things about me.
4. This parent seems to approve of me and the things I do.

Section IV. Items measuring parental induction

1. Over the past several years, this parent explains to me how good I should feel when I shared something with other family members.
2. This parent explains to me how good I should feel when I do what is right.
3. This parent explains to me that when I share things with other family members, that I am liked by other family members.
4. This parent tells me how good others feel when I do what is right.
5. This parent tells me that I will be sorry that I wasn't better behaved.

Section V. Items measuring parental coercion

1. This parent is always finding fault with me.
2. This parent complains about my behavior.
3. This parent punishes me by sending me out of the room.
4. This parent punishes me by not letting me do things with other teenagers.
5. This parent spansks or hits me.
6. This parent punishes me by not letting me do things that I really enjoy.

Section VI. Items measuring parental love withdrawal

1. This parent will not talk to me when I displease him/her.
2. This parent avoids looking at me when I have disappointed him/her.

Section VII. Items measuring parental reward power

1. This parent is the kind of person who could make me feel very good if I followed his/her advice about studying and getting good grades.
2. This parent is the kind of person who could make me feel very good if I followed his/her advice about preparing for an occupation.
3. This parent is the kind of person who could make me feel very good if I followed his/her advice about my relationships with the opposite sex.

APPENDIX B

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PARENTAL SUPPORT, INDUCTION, COERCION, LOVE WITHDRAWAL, AND ADOLESCENT SELF-ESTEEM

TABLE 13

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PARENTAL SUPPORT, INDUCTION, COERCION, LOVE WITHDRAWAL, AND ADOLESCENT SELF-ESTEEM

Variables		n	Mean	SD ^a	Range
<u>Independent Variables</u>					
Support	m/d ^b	258	10.11	2.07	1-12
	m/s ^c	194	9.92	1.90	1-12
	f/d ^d	256	9.23	2.37	1-12
	f/s ^e	190	9.12	2.25	1-12
Induction	m/d	258	11.01	2.92	1-15
	m/s	194	10.84	2.60	1-15
	f/d	256	10.17	3.16	1-15
	f/s	190	10.37	2.74	1-15
Coercion	m/d	258	9.98	3.24	1-18
	m/s	194	10.84	2.60	1-18
	f/d	256	9.62	3.17	1-18
	f/s	190	10.08	3.05	1-18
Love withdrawal	m/d	258	2.88	1.20	1-6
	m/s	194	3.01	1.26	1-6
	f/d	256	2.88	1.21	1-6
	f/s	190	3.05	1.35	1-6
<u>Dependent Variable</u>					
Self-esteem	m/d	258	23.64	4.18	1-32
	m/s	194	24.36	3.42	1-32
	f/d	256	24.48	4.02	1-32
	f/s	190	24.93	3.52	1-32

TABLE 13 (Continued)

^aStandard Deviation.

^bMother/daughter.

^cMother/son.

^dFather/daughter

^eFather/son.

APPENDIX C

FREQUENCIES OF TOTAL POWER SCORES

For Mother/Daughter Dyads

<u>Score</u>	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	
3	1	.4	.4	
5	5	1.8	2.2	
6	15	5.4	7.6	
7	15	5.4	13.0	
8	33	11.8	24.0	LOW
9	97	35.1	60.1	HIGH
10	53	18.9	79.3	
11	28	10.0	89.5	
12	29	10.4	100.0	
missing	4	missing	100.0	

For Mother/Son Dyads

<u>Score</u>	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	
3	4	1.9	1.9	
4	3	1.4	3.4	
5	7	3.3	6.7	
6	14	6.5	13.5	
7	24	11.7	22.5	
8	34	15.9	41.8	LOW
9	64	29.9	72.6	HIGH
10	24	11.2	84.1	
11	21	9.8	94.1	
12	6	5.6	100.0	
missing	0	missing	100.0	

For Father/Daughter Dyads

<u>Score</u>	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	
2	3	1.1	1.1	
4	1	.4	1.5	
5	8	2.9	4.4	
6	17	6.1	10.7	
7	20	7.1	17.8	
8	41	14.6	33.1	LOW
9	87	32.1	65.1	HIGH
10	50	18.4	83.5	
11	23	8.5	91.9	
12	22	8.1	100.0	
missing	8	missing	100.0	

For Father/Son Dyads

<u>Score</u>	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	
3	3	1.4	1.4	
4	1	.5	1.9	
5	10	4.8	6.7	
6	16	7.7	14.4	
7	27	13.0	27.4	
8	32	15.4	42.8	LOW
9	70	33.7	76.4	HIGH
10	21	10.1	86.5	
11	17	8.2	94.7	
12	11	5.3	100.0	
missing	6	missing	100.0	

VITA

Kay Montgomery Albrecht was born in Lafayette, Louisiana on January 29, 1949. She attended elementary schools in that city and was graduated from Lafayette High School in May 1967. The following September she entered the University of Southwestern Louisiana, and in January 1971 she received a Bachelor of Science in Early Childhood Education/Elementary Education. In the spring of 1971, she began study toward a Master's degree in Child Development and Family Relationships. This degree was awarded in June 1972.

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