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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Carolyn Sue Henry entitled "Parents' Perceptions of their Adolescents' Social Competence as Predictors of Parental Satisfaction." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Home Economics.

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PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR ADOLESCENTS' SOCIAL COMPETENCE AS PREDICTORS OF PARENTAL SATISFACTION

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Carolyn Sue Henry

December 1984

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express appreciation to those who made important contributions to this dissertation. Gratitude is expressed to Dr. Gary W. Peterson, chair of the doctoral committee who served an excellent role model as well as a source of enouragement, knowledge, and insight throughout the graduate program. Dr. Jo Lynn Cunningham served both as a source of conceptual, methodological, and editorial contributions to the dissertation and encouragement throughout the graduate program. Dr. Thomas C. Hood provided enthusiastic contributions to the author's graduate experience that go far beyond those of a social-psychological nature. Dr. Priscilla White demonstrated the importance of integrating the human and theoretical sides of the research process.

Financial support for this study was provided by the Agricultural Experiment Station at The University of Tennessee. Recognition is given to Dr. Jay Stauss and the College of Home Economics for providing financial support and facilities (including the microcomputer laboratory) necessary to complete this dissertation. Appreciation is also extended to the other doctoral students and staff who assisted with the data gathering, coding, and analyses.

The family members and special friends who provided encouragement and support during all phases of the graduate experience are thanked for their important roles in the research process. Deepest gratitutde is expressed to the author's parents, Mr. and Mrs. Dwight Henry, for their continuting support and confidence. Finally, a special thanks to the author's sisters, Mary and Lora, who always provide support and encouragement.

ABSTRACT

Traditional studies of parent-child relationships have been focused on the impact of parental characteristics on various social and personality outcomes in children and adolescents. During the past two decades, a number of social scientists challenged this paradigm, suggesting that offspring can also have impact on their parents. Parents, for example, may report satisfaction from feelings of success in parental roles as evidenced by specific characteristics or resources of adolescents. In accordance with these ideas, the purpose of this study was to examine how parental perceptions of dimensions of adolescent social competence (i.e., companionship, independence, expert power, legitimate power, referent power, reward power, and coercive power) predicted the parents' satisfaction. The six sociodemographic control variables used for the study were father's occupational level, number of children, marital status, mother's employment status, gender of adolescent, and residential status.

This investigation was part of a larger research project on parent-adolescent relationships conducted during the winter of 1982. Questionnaire data were collected from parents of adolescents from a small community and the surrounding rural area in eastern Tennessee. Because of the small number of minority parents, the population for the present study includes only the white parents (316 mothers and 313 fathers). Operationalization of the measures for dimensions of adolescent social competence and parental satisfaction involved the construction of new items and scales. Separate internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) were computed for each dimension of social competence and parental

satisfaction. The control variables were father's occupational level, number of children, marital status, mother's employment status, gender of adolescent, and residential status.

The theoretical model developed for the study was tested through the use of multiple regression analysis. Separate regression models were used to analyze the mother-adolescent and father-adolescent dyads. Both models supported the predicted positive relationships between parental satisfaction and three predictor variables: (a) companionship, (b) referent power, and (c) reward power. Partial support was found for the predicted positive relationship between expert power and parental satisfaction. No support was found for the hypotheses pertaining to independence, legitimate power, or coercive power. The control variables receiving partial support were number of children and marital status. It was concluded that parental perceptions of several dimensions of adolescent social competence predicted parental satisfaction.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The dominant tradition in the study of parent-child relationships has been concern with the impact of parental characteristics on various social and personality outcomes in children and adolescents. From this perspective, parents are viewed as the primary social agents who are responsible for ensuring that their offspring acquire desirable social outcomes (Baumrind, 1966, 1978; Becker, 1964; Hoffman, 1970, 1980; Martin, 1975; Rollins & Thomas, 1975, 1979; Staub, 1979; Steinmetz, 1979; Thomas, Gecas, Weigert, & Rooney, 1974). Middle-class parents in America, for example, often socialize youth for such outcomes as compliance, achievement, independence, and moral behavior that are collectively referred to as social competence (Baumrind, 1978).

Over the past two decades a number of social scientists have challenged traditional (or unidirectional) paradigms of parent-child socialization by criticizing the assumption that parents "socially mold" (or shape) their young (Belsky, 1981; Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Garbarino, 1982; Hartup, 1978). Recognizing that the family is continually interacting with elements of the social environment at all levels of the social system, numerous scholars have expressed the need for parent-child research at the micro-level to recognize the bidirectional nature of family socialization (Anderson, 1981; Peterson & Rollins, in press; Walters & Walters, 1980). Although the study of parental effects on children and adolescents provides important information, there continues to be a shortage of information concerned with the effects of adolescents on their parents.

A few scholars, in turn, have focused on the opposite direction of the socialization process concerned with the influences of youth on the adult generation (Bell & Harper, 1977; Lerner & Spanier, 1978). Recent studies in the area of child abuse, for example, have provided evidence that particular characteristics or behaviors of children can serve as stimuli for abuse (Garbarino, 1976; Lamb, 1978a; Parke & Collmer, 1975). Investigators in this area have sought to identify the effects of offspring on the attitudes and behaviors of parents. Traditionally, adults are viewed as being socialized into parental identities through a number of socializing agents, including other parents, relatives, pediatricians, and parenting experts. More recently, social scientists also have recognized that children serve as socializing agents for their parents through parent-child interactions (Peterson & Rollins, in press). Consequently, a more complete understanding of parent-youth socialization requires that knowledge about the effects of offspring on parents be considered (Anderson, 1981; Pederson, 1980; Walters & Walters, 1980).

Beginning with the anticipatory socialization experienced by prospective parents and continuing throughout the family life cycle, children and adolescents help to shape the ways that adults enact parental and other family roles (Aldous, 1978). Adults who become parents experience self-concept changes as they identify with and respond to role expectations that are part of parental roles (LaRossa & LaRossa, 1981).

The literature on the transition to parenthood, for example, portrays the birth of the first child as a pivotal point in which adults experience some of the most dramatic role changes in their adult lives (Dyer, 1963; Entwisle & Doering, 1980; Hobbs & Cole, 1976; Jaffe & Viertel, 1979; Miller & Sollie, 1980; Russell, 1974; Rossi, 1968). Soon after the birth of the first

child, sequences of behavior between parents and infants begin to emerge as patterns of synchronous interaction. Synchronous interaction, in turn, refers to sequences of behaviors or "conversations of gestures" that are exchanged between parents and infants. As these conversations of gestures become increasingly sophisticated, infants have substantial impact on the behavior of parents (Brazelton, Koslowski, & Main, 1974; Lewis & Lee-Painter, 1974; Osofsky & Connors, 1979). Thus, in addition to traditional agents of socialization that facilitiate the assumption of parental identities (e.g., other parents, relatives), young infants function as socializing agents for parents as well.

The young socialize their parents not only during infancy but throughout the family life cycle. The presence of children and adolescents in the family influences parents both through direct and indirect interactions. Youth have the potential to influence how parents view themselves (i.e., the self) through specific social transactions with their parents. Furthermore, offspring provide indirect influences on their parents through social interactions with others in the social environments. For example, parents may be influenced by their adolescents indirectly as other parents in the community provide feedback on the adolescents' performance of roles in the community. The effects of children and youth on their parents may be expected to occur with respect to several aspects of life.

Research on the topic of marital quality, for example, demonstrates how the presence of children in the family is correlated with reports of lower levels of marital satisfaction by adults (Glenn & McLanahan, 1982). In general, marital satisfaction decreases when adults become parents and reaches its lowest point during the phase of childrearing when adolescents

are present in the home. Correspondingly, as offspring are launched from the family of origin, parents report increasing levels of marital satisfaction (Rollins & Cannon, 1974; Rollins & Galligan, 1978).

Although the existing literature provides insights into the relationship between children and marital satisfaction, little is known about the influence of children and adolescents on parental satisfaction. That is, the relationship between specific characteristics of children and adolescents and the level of satisfaction that parents report with parental roles remains to be investigated. The early research on the transition to parenthood, for example, presented the birth of the first child as a time of family "crisis" (LeMasters, 1957). Later research, however, has challenged this notion by identifying both the gratifications and difficulties encountered by parents (Russell, 1974). In addition, a study by Hoffman and Manis (1978) found that parents report both satisfactions and dissatisfactions with parental roles at each stage of the family life cycle.

Although previous research demonstrated that parents experience both gratifications (satisfactions) and frustrations (dissatisfactions) with respect to parental roles, the majority of studies emphasized the dissatisfactions, rather than the satisfactions. Little information concerned with the association between specific characteristics of youth and parental attitudes toward parenting is available. Furthermore, because researchers have focused on dissatisfactions with parental roles, little is known about variables that predict satisfaction in parental roles. Additional understanding of parental attitudes requires a systematic examination of the qualities of children and adolescents associated with parental satisfaction.

Based upon the social context of the parent-child relationship and personal values, parents have expectations for their offspring both in terms of desirable social qualities and specific behaviors (Rollins & Thomas, 1979). In accordance with Baumrind's (1978) conceptualization of social competence, parents in the America typically develop expectations for certain forms of social competence from their teenage offspring. For example, parents expect children and youth to become independent as they progress toward adulthood. Furthermore, adolescents often are perceived to be socially competent when they are viewed as acquiring interpersonal skills and power within the parent-adolescent relationship. The present study investigates the relationship between the parents' perceptions of their teenage offsprings' social competence and their own evaluations about the satisfaction they feel with parental roles.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine how parental perceptions of adolescent social competence predicted the degree of satisfaction that parents report in their relationships with adolescent offspring. The model consisted of seven predictor variables that are components of adolescent social competence from the perception of parents: adolescent companionship, adolescent independence, adolescent expert power, adolescent legitimate power, adolescent referent power, adolescent reward power, and adolescent coercive power. In addition, the following control variables were included in the model as predictor variables: father's occupational level (as an indicatior of family socioeconomic standing), number of children, marital status, mother's employment status, gender of adolescent, and residential status. The model

was examined seperately for mothers and fathers to determine gender of parent differences in the manner that dimensions of adolescent social competence might predict parental satisfaction.

Rationale

The adolescent-parent dyad has received considerable attention in relation to the manner that parents socialize youth for social competence. That is, previous studies on adolescent-parent socialization have sought to identify specific parental behaviors and characteristics that are correlated with socially competent or deviant outcomes in offspring (Rollins & Thomas, 1979; Thomas et al., 1974). Few, if any, studies have investigated the opposite direction of the relationship between the perceived attributes of adolescents and the attitudes of parents toward parental roles (Smith, in press a).

Examination of the literature on parent-child socialization demonstrates that youth have the potential to influence the lives of parents in a variety of ways. The socialization of parents in this manner by offspring is a relatively new area of study (Zigler & Casione, 1982). Furthermore, the majority of research on parent socialization by youth has focused on pre-adolescents.

The parent-adolescent relationship often has been characterized in the literature as conflict-habituated (Montemayer, 1983). More recently, however, social scientists have recognized that adolescents also have the potential to develop qualities that are congruent with the expectations of their parents (Smith, in press b). That is, it is also true that parents may perceive their young as developing highly valued qualities or resources. Thus, the perceived potential or actual ability of adolescents to meet parental expectations for

socially competent qualities may contribute to the satisfaction of parents with childrearing roles.

The limited information on the effects of children and adolescents provides an inadequate basis for understanding how the perceived qualities of youth influence the degree of parental satisfaction experienced by adults. For example, a national study on mental health among American adults reported that parental roles provided one of the most frequently cited sources of happiness in their lives (Gurin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960). "Having and raising children" has been identified by other researchers as either a major component in assessing the quality of life or to have inherent value for American adults (Flanagan, 1978; Moss & Abramowitz, 1982). Furthermore, Freudiger (1983) reported that the presence of teenagers is a positive influence in families of working and formerly working mothers. Despite the existence of this research, however, Atkinson and Gecas (1978) found few studies of family issues that addressed the effects of youth on parents in a review of publications in major sociological journals over a 10 year time span. Clearly, the effects of children and adolescents on parents requires further research attention.

To address this deficiency, the present study was designed to examine specific dimensions of adolescent social competence (i.e., independence, companionship, power) that were hypothesized to predict parental satisfaction. Previous studies of attitudes toward parental roles have focused on the dissatisfactions or conflicts parents encountered rather than sources of satisfaction with parental roles. For example, a review of the literature concerned with the effects of offspring on marital happiness concluded that the net effect of youth on marital happiness is a negative one (Glenn &

McLanahan, 1982). Furthermore, a long tradition of studies has indicated that declines in marital happiness occur with the birth of the first child and continue at lower levels throughout adolescence (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Rollins & Cannon, 1974; Rollins & Feldman, 1970). Even closer examination of the research on the relationship between the presence of youth and marital quality demonstrates a tendency to consider only the negative consequences. Snyder (1979), for example, constructed a multidimensional instrument composed of items asking parents to identify how children are sources of dissatisfaction and how they create conflict between spouses.

Given the minimal information on how children and adolescents influence satisfaction with aspects of family life, little is known regarding the specific sources of parental satisfaction. In a study on the quality of life among adults in the United States, however, it was reported that parenting provided a substantial source of life satisfaction for adults (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). An investigation by Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) also demonstrated how youth fulfill particular psychological needs for parents. Despite a limited number of investigations, however, social scientists have continued to neglect topics of research on the manner in which children and youth contribute to parental satisfaction.

A related issue is that family researchers have focused almost exclusively on marital satisfaction as the primary determinant of satisfaction with family life. Although marital satisfaction is certainly important, increased recognition of the multidimensional character of satisfaction with family life is needed. For example, parental satisfaction has not been adequately developed as another important dimension of satisfaction with family life.

Parental satisfaction is conceptualized as the feelings of gratification that parents experience from perfoming the child socializer and child care roles. One means of exploring levels of parental satisfaction is to investigate the level of social competence that parents perceive to be attributes and abilities of their offspring. That is, as children enter adolescence, parents make assessments as to whether their offspring acquire qualities and resources that are valued or devalued in our culture. If adolescents are perceived to have desirable qualities and abilities, then, parents may be expected to report feelings of satisfaction from the enactment of parental roles. Currently, studies are not available which investigate the relationship between parental satisfaction and the perceived attributes of offspring.

Given the gap in knowledge in this area, the present study focused on parental satisfaction as the criterion variable. Specifically, the primary concern of this investigation was the degree to which perceived dimensions of adolescent social competence predict satisfaction with parental roles. Because adolescents have the potential to influence their parents through the development of valued qualities and resources, the present study was designed to identify dimensions of social competence that may be predictive of parental satisfaction.

Conceptual Framework

The study of parental perceptions of dimensions of adolescent social competence that influence parental satisfaction can be conceptualized in terms of symbolic interaction concepts. The symbolic interaction orientation provides a framework for interpreting the meanings that parents assign to their social relationships with children and adolescents. Symbolic

interactionist thought encompasses several different approaches, and the version used here involves the integration of concepts from the structuralist and interactionist traditions (Burr, Leigh, Day, & Constantine, 1979; Nye, 1976; Stryker, 1980, 1981; Turner, 1970).

Symbolic interactionism builds on the writings of Mead (1934) and key concepts from the works of William James (1890), James Mark Baldwin (1906), John Dewey (1930), Charles Horton Cooley (1902), W. I. Thomas (1928), and Ralph Linton (1936). The fundamental assumptions of symbolic interactionist thought begin with the premise that individuals live in both a physical and social environment (Stryker, 1981). As individuals engage in social interactions with significant others in the social environment, complex sets of symbolic meanings are created. An understanding of human behavior, therefore, requires attention to symbolic meanings (Burr et al., 1979) and the fact that humans develop a sense of "self" through reflexive interactions in the social environment. Individuals come to view the "self" from their own perspectives and those of others (Blumer, 1969).

Based in part on the work of George Herbert Mead (1934), symbolic interactionists assume that individuals are born into an ongoing social process. As individuals enter social arenas, they begin to engage in interactions with significant others. Through these interactions, known as "social acts," actors engage in a reflexive process that eventually results in the shared meanings as significant symbols are exchanged. From a symbolic interactionist perspective, therefore, individuals are studied most appropriately as they interact with the their social environment (Blumer, 1969).

Because the individual develops a concept of "self" through reflexive processes with others, a person's attitudes about social situations are best

understood through symbolic meanings that are conveyed among actors within the social environment. Parental satisfaction is an example of a person's attitude toward a particular dimension of life situations. An understanding of parental satisfaction, therefore, requires that symbolic meanings in the parent-adolescent relationship be recognized as important. More specifically, family settings provide social environments in which mutual socialization occurs between parents and adolescents, resulting in the development of parental expectations for the performance of specific behaviors by offspring. According to this conception, the level of parental satisfaction will increase as the perceived discrepancy between expectations for enactment of parental roles and the actual performance of those roles decreases.

"Role" is a fundamental concept from structuralist versions of symbolic interaction that refers to a set of behavioral expectations developed for a person in a social context. Such expectations are based upon interactions that occur between individuals and their environments (Biddle, 1979; Biddle & Thomas, 1966; Nye, 1976; Linton, 1936). Individuals, in turn, develop a number of "identities" corresponding to the various roles they assume at a given point in time (Biddle, 1979; McCall & Simmons, 1978). Roles, then, are sets of behavioral expectations associated with combinations of individual-other identities in specific social settings (Heiss, 1981). The same individual may identify with and perform a number of roles that are enacted in various social milieus.

The degree to which specific roles correspond to particular identities is related to "role consistency." Individuals have both a conception of attitudes and behaviors that comprise the "core self" and those that are associated with particular roles. The consistency between the view of self and the role

enactment is contingent upon the level of role-self merger. Individuals vary in the extent to which roles correspond to particular identities depending on the degree of consistency between the role and the view of self (Turner, 1978). That is, the degree to which a person designates particular roles as appropriate for a specific social context varies among individuals. The level to which a person incorporates behaviors associated with particular roles into a generalized concept of the self is described as the degree of "role-self merger" (Turner, 1978).

As adults begin to enact parental roles, they also develop identitites such as "mother" and "father." Depending upon their other identities (e.g., husband, wife, accountant, tennis player), parents may experience varying levels of "role-self merger" with parental roles. That is, during the transiton to parenthood, adults develop identities corresponding to the expectations for enactment of parental roles. As parents progress through the childrearing years, expectations for role behaviors corrresponding to parental identitites usually are important parts of the "self." Parental identities, then, help shape the expectations that adults have for themselves and youth. How well parents perform the behavior they expect of themselves provides a basis for the degree of satisfaction parents experience from enactment of parental roles.

When a child enters adolescence, parents and youth engage in numerous interactions that modify role expectations. Consistent with a symbolic interactionist perspective, the reflexive process between parents and adolescents results in a gradual reshaping of the desired enactment of parental and child roles. Parents, in turn, experience a modification of their identities, role expectations, and conceptions of reality for self and others as they interact with their adolescent offspring. For example, as youth begin part-time jobs,

parents may increasingly view their offspring as altering the family role structure by sharing the provider role through the acquisition of additional financial resources.

As the parent perceives the family role structure to change, various parental attitudes may be affected. For example, one result of a changing family role structure may be the parents' definition of their relationship with adolescents. Central to the symbolic interactionist perspective, the attitudinal response of an individual to social interactions is based on a subjective rather than objective reality. As succinctly stated by W. I. Thomas (1928), "if men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences." Parents often redefine the parent-youth relationship and attribute increased competence (i.e., power, abilities, resources) to their offspring. Furthermore, the parents who perceive (i.e., define the situation) the adolescents they have raised as having substantial social competence (i.e., power, resources, and abilities) might be expected to evaluate their own performance of parental roles in a positive manner. Conversely, parents who see their adolescent offspring as having little or no social competence might be expected to evaluate parental experience as less satisfying.

In addition, the degree of social competence that the parents attribute to adolescents helps to define the family role structure. One dimension of the family role structure is the family power structure that reflects the relative distribution of power among family members based on their perceived resources or competencies (Aldous, 1978). Although the family power structure is relational in nature, previous studies of social power have not been well conceptualized from a symbolic interaction perspective (Kanter, 1972; Meltzer, Petras, & Reynolds, 1975). However, a recent definition of power

from the interactionist perspective provides insight into the relationship between adolescent power and parental satisfaction. Luckenbill (1979), for example, defined power as the means by which one person derives compliance from another person through the manipulation of valued resources to overcome conflict in expectations.

In terms of adolescent social competence as presently conceptualized, the balance of power within the family and its role structure are modified as the parent perceives the adolescent to acquire increased resources. Furthermore, social competence is demonstrated by adolescents as they develop resources in terms of interpersonal skills (e.g., seen through companionship as a desirable resource) and independence. The present study was designed to investigate the attitudinal response of parents (i.e., parental satisfaction) to several dimensions of adolescent social competence.

Relative to their children, parents have greater resources than their offspring early in the childrearing years. Changes in the distribution of resources (i.e., the family role structure), however, occur across the family life cycle. As children enter adolescence, the family role structure moves toward a more equitable distribution of resources between parents and offspring. Thus, as parents perceive adolescents to be more competent (i.e., to have more resources, power, abilities), role expectations are modified in accordance with the perceived competence of youth. Perceived adolescent competence, in turn, is a valued resource for parents because it supports the parent's view of self as successful in parental roles. Greater parental satisfaction results when parents perceive their offspring as becoming more and more competent.

The symbolic interaction framework, therefore, was chosen for this study because it provides a basis for understanding the social-psychological nature of parental satisfaction. Parents who define their adolescent offspring as acquiring valued qualities, attributes, or resources (i.e., social competence) were expected to report high levels of satisfaction with their parental roles. Furthermore, parents who view their adolescent offspring as having low levels of resources and valued attributes were expected to report lower levels of satisfaction with parental roles.

Nominal Definitions

Parental satisfaction was defined as the subjective feelings of happiness, gratification, and pleasure that parents experience from their relationships with specific adolescent offspring. Parental satisfaction is a function of the congruence or discrepancy between the expectations and performance of parental and adolescent roles within their relationship with youth. For this study, the characteristics of adolescents associated with parental satisfaction were expected to result in various degrees of positive evaluations with parental roles.

Adolescent social competence refers to the acquisition of resources, abilities, qualities, and attributes by adolescents that are functional in the social milieu. Social competence is a multidimensional concept that includes both the potential of adolescents to influence others based on desired resources (i.e., social power) and perceived qualities such as independence and companionship. Dimensions of adolescent competence defined for the present study follow:

1. Adolescent companionship refers to the parent's perceptions of the amount and quality of time spent with their adolescent offspring.

2. Adolescent independence refers to the parent's perceptions of their adolescent's autonomy or individual interests.

3. Adolescent expert power was defined as the parent's perceptions of their adolescent's potential to influence others through knowledge, information, or expertise in a particular area.

4. Adolescent legitimate power was defined as the parent's perceptions of their adolescent's potential to influence others based on normative authority.

5. Adolescent referent power was defined as the parent's perceptions of their adolescent's potential to function as significant others and influence others based on particular positions or roles in social institutions.

6. Adolescent reward power was defined as the parent's perceptions of their adolescent's potential to influence others by providing rewards or gratifications.

7. Adolescent coercive power was defined as the parent's perceptions of their adolescent's potential to influence others by bringing about adverse consequences or making others feel bad.

Sociodemographic variables. In addition to the primary predictor variables, the following sociodemographic variables are included as control variables for the present study:

1. Family socioeconomic status referred to the achieved status of families within the social stratification system. The indicator of family socioeconomic status for the present study was the father's occupational level.

2. Number of children was an indicator of family size and referred to the number of offspring reported in the family units of the parents in the study.

3. Marital status was an indicator of the structure of the family units. The two categories for the present study were married and divorced parents.

4. Mother's employment status referred to the degree of time spent per week in employment away from the home by the mothers. The mothers were classified according to their full-time employment away from home, part-time employment away from home, or working within the home.

5. Residential status referred to whether the parents resided in a rural areas or a town.

6. Gender of adolescent referred to whether the adolescent offspring were male or female.

Assumptions

This study was based on an assumption that parents value adolescent social competence as defined by the larger culture. That is, the concept of social competence presented by Baumrind (1978) implies the characteristics of adolescents that parents value are consistent with those of other parents in the same socioeconomic status. For example, such traits as companionship, independence, or dimensions of power may be more important to middle-class American parents than to other socioeconomic levels (Kohn, 1977). For the present study, this fundamental assumption provides a basis for examination of the relationship between dimensions of adolescent social competence and parental satisfaction.

A second assumption was made concerning the appropriateness of using self-report measures within a symbolic interactionist framework. Throughout the history of symbolic interactionist thought, scholars have debated the most desirable measures of interactional phenomeon. On the one hand, the "Chicago school" recommends observational or qualitative methodologies suggesting that interactions cannot be accurately reported by individuals. In contrast, the "Iowa school" relies heavily upon self-report data seeking to determine individuals' perceptions of their social realities. Although both approaches have conceptual and methodological strengths and weakneses, family scholars generally acknowledge the importance of perceptual data as obtained through questionnnaires as an appropriate methodology within symbolic interactionism (Burr et al., 1979).

Another assumption was made concerning the formulation research hypotheses within the symbolic interactionist conceptual framework. Over the years, a broad range of versions of symbolic interaction have been presented. Consquently, a number of research traditions have evolved within specialized areas of study. An assumption of the present study was that the integration of concepts from role theory with symbolic interaction provides a rigorous conceptual base for the parent-adolescent relationships (Peterson & Rollins, in press). Thus, the present conceptualization of adolescent social competence in relation to parental satisfaction is founded in symbolic interaction as described by Burr et al. (1979).

Objectives

The overall purpose of the present study was to test a theoretical model concerned with the degree to which dimensions of adolescent social

competence predict parental satisfaction, while controlling for certain parental and family sociodemographic variables. More specifically, the primary objectives were to examine: (a) the degree to which the parents' perceptions of adolescent companionship predicted parental satisfaction, (b) the degree to which the parents' perceptions of adolescent independence predicted parental satisfaction, (c) the degree to which the parents' perceptions of adolescent expert power predicted parental satisfaction, (d), the degree to which the parents' perceptions of adolescent legitimate power predicted parental satisfaction, (e) the degree to which the parents' perceptions of adolescent referent power predicted parental satisfaction, (f) the degree to which the parents' perceptions of adolescent reward power predicted parental satisfaction, and (8) the degree to which the parents' perceptions of adolescent coercive power predicted parental satisfaction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

To provide a basis for understanding the relationship between adolescent social competence and parental satisfaction, a number of issues were reviewed. First, the chapter presents the conceptualization of parental satisfaction as a dimension of overall life satisfaction (Campbell et al., 1976). Secondly, specific characteristics of adolescent social competence are presented and hypotheses are introduced. This is followed by a review of six control variables that may affect the relationship between the primary predictor variables (i.e., dimensions of adolescent social competence) and parental satisfaction. Specifically, the control variables included in this study were the father's occupational level, number of children, marital status, mother's employment status, gender of the adolescents, and residential status.

Parental Satisfaction

Parental satisfaction has been studied as part of the existing literature on life satisfaction. Although the majority of parent-child research has focused on the effects of parents upon their children, a growing minority of researchers have argued that increased knowledge about the effects of children on parents is necessary to understand parent-child socialization more completely (Anderson, 1981; Bell & Harper, 1977; Peterson & Rollins, in press). Parents' attitudes toward their adolescents' social competence are based on the identities parents develop through enactment of parental roles,

which emerge from parent-adolescent interactions. To review the literature pertaining to parental satisfaction, this section summarizes previous work on life satisfaction, satisfaction with family life, marital satisfaction, and parental satisfaction.

Life Satisfaction

Prior to the late 1940s, research on the "quality of life" focused on the degree to which the physical needs of individuals and families were being met. Beginning in the late 1940s, however, the concept "quality of life" moved from an emphasis on meeting the physical survival needs of individuals toward an emphasis on psychological needs. Consequently, social scientists have initiated several projects to determine the correlates of life satisfaction.

Early studies on the quality of life were concerned with individual attitudinal responses to life situations focusing on the concept of "happiness." The distinction between the concepts happiness and life satisfaction is that the former refers to feelings or affect and the later refers to judgment. More recent studies have made use of the construct of life satisfaction rather than happiness.

A frequently cited national study on the quality of life by Campbell et al. (1976), for example, identified 17 domains accounting for 56% of the total variance in life satisfaction, including such issues as satisfaction with family life, marriage, financial situation, housing, job, friendships, community, health, national government, and religious faith. In general, the results of this study indicated that life satisfaction seems to increase with age.

Another study by Flanagan (1978) on the quality of life sought to identify the most satisfying experiences at different ages of adult life (i.e., 30, 50, 70) by asking subjects to report their most recent satisfying experiences. Based on the subjects' descriptions 15 life satisfaction variables contributed to the quality of life for over 85% of the interviewees, including such areas as health, work, recreation, and relations with family members. Specific family variables cited were "relations with spouse" (i.e., marital satisfaction), "having and raising children" (i.e., parental satisfaction), and "relations with parents, siblings, or other relatives."

Satisfaction with Family Life

Many studies of life satisfaction include dimensions of family life as major aspects of overall life satisfaction. Clemente and Sauer (1976), for example, defined life satisfaction as a four-dimensional construct, by asking questions regarding the place of residence, family life, friendships, and activities. Rather than relating family characteristics to life satisfaction, this tradition of studies tends to look at individual qualities and life circumstances as predictor variables. Clemente and Sauer (1976), for example, found race and quality of perceived health were the most salient predictors of life satisfaction.

Medley (1980) investigated the sources of life satisfaction across the life cycle by using multiple regression analysis with the data originally collected by Campbell et al. (1976). Satisfaction with family life and the standard of living were significant determinants of life satisfaction for both men and women at each of four stages of adult life: (1) early adulthood (ages 22-34), (2) early middle age (ages 35-44), (3) late middle age

(ages 45-64), (4) late adulthood (ages 65 and older). Although "social desirability" may have been a problem in this study, support was provided for the notion that satisfaction with family life serves as an important aspect of life satisfaction.

Further evidence of the importance of satisfaction with family life across the life cycle was provided in a follow-up to the classic study by Terman (1938) on the life satisfaction of gifted men. Measures of occupational satisfaction, satisfaction with family life, degree of work involvement, and stability of marriage were taken at age 62. For those participants with unbroken marriages, both family life satisfaction and success in marriage were best predicted by Terman's measure of marital happiness taken at age 30 (Sears, 1977). Specifically, a positive relationship was found between family life satisfaction and marital happiness.

Marital Satisfaction

An aspect of family life satisfaction that has received considerable attention by family scholars is marital quality. Marital quality is a multi-dimensional phenomena representing the subjective evaluation of the marital relationship by the couple and includes such concepts as adjustment, communication patterns, marital happiness, and marital satisfaction (Lewis & Spanier, 1979; Spanier & Lewis, 1980). Beginning with the seminal works of Burgess and Cottrell (1939) and Locke (1947, 1951), researchers have sought to identify the empirical correlates of marital happiness and stability using demographic, personality, and social variables (Hicks & Platt, 1970; Spanier & Lewis, 1980). By the 1970s, research on marital quality had three

major dimensions: (a) marital adjustment, (b) marital stability, and (c) marital satisfaction (Rollins & Galligan, 1978).

In a review of the research on marital quality during the 1970s, Spanier and Lewis (1980) identified the two major areas of research receiving the most attention as the marital career and the effects of children on marital quality. The majority of studies dealing with the stages of the family life cycle and marital quality or satisfaction were cross-sectional in design and subject to substantial criticism in terms of their validity (Spanier, Lewis, & Cole, 1975; Spanier, Lerner, & Aquilino, 1978). Methodological limitations in this tradition concerned the use of cross-sectional data, inadequate controls for cohort effects, social desirability, the attrition of unhappy marriages over time, and age-related effects (Spanier & Lewis, 1980; Spanier et al., 1975).

In general, studies of marital quality over the family life cycle were inconsistent and inconclusive prior to the 1970s. Since 1970, however, most studies report a U-shaped curve for marital satisfaction over the life span. Research by Rollins & Feldman (1970), for example, found a curvilinear pattern for marital satisfaction across the family life cycle in a probability sample of middle-class couples from upstate New York. Rollins and Cannon (1974), in turn, found the same pattern in a nonprobability sample of Morman families, as did Spanier et al. (1975) in a study of marital adjustment in working-class families from Ohio. Additional studies have supported this curvilinear pattern (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1975; Burr, 1970; Figley, 1973; Orthner, 1975; Smart & Smart, 1975) and the fact that marital satisfaction increases during the later stages of marriage (Axelson, 1960; Deutscher, 1964; Miller, 1976). However, the family life-cycle explained

only 4 to 8% of the variance in marital satisfaction (Rollins & Cannon, 1974; Rollins & Galligan, 1978), and probability samples in Iowa and Georgia did not support the curvilinear pattern (Spanier et al., 1975). This body of literature also was subject to methdological criticisms because linear statistical analyses were applied to draw conclusions about curvilinear phenomena (Spanier et al., 1975).

Because marital satisfaction appears to decrease somewhat with the presence of children in the home, some researchers have concluded that a causal relationship exists and pursued this idea in further studies. Reviews of research over the past two decades have lead to the conclusion that children tend to detract from feelings of satisfaction within the marital relationship (Hicks & Platt, 1970; Spanier & Lewis, 1980). For example, a number of studies have supported the concept that the first child's birth was associated with a decrease in marital satisfaction, especially for wives (Feldman, 2971; Luckey & Bain, 1970; Rollins & Galligan, 1978; Ryder, 1973). A decrease in marital satisfaction was a general finding, with the greatest declines occuring among those with the highest level of marital satisfaction prior to the birth of the first child (Feldman, 1971).

Glenn and McLanahan (1982) examined the relationship between the presence of children in the home and marital happiness and determined that a negative relationship existed. These investigators concluded that the negative effects of children in the home outweighed the positive effects. In addition, these results were generally consistent across gender, racial groups, religious preferences, employment statuses, and educational levels. Specific difficulties reported between spouses were: (a) reduced spontaneity of sexual relations and (b) competition for time, energy, and economic

resources (Rollins & Galligan, 1978; Rosenblatt, 1974; Ryder, 1973; Schvanevelt, 1971). Although these results are generally interpreted as indications of the overall negative influence of children on family life satisfaction, an alternative explanation was that these results are simply a reflection of having more persons in the family relationship.

Studies of marital satisfaction often include relations with children as an aspect of marital satisfaction. For example, Snyder (1979) included items in his multidimensional marital satisfaction instrument that measured parental perceptions of conflict arising between the spouses over children. Thus, an inherent conclusion when using this instrument was that a negative relationship exists between the presence of children and marital satisfaction because of the lack of items regarding the positive aspects of children. By definition, therefore, children were considered to be sources of marital dissatisfaction rather than marital satisfaction.

Family life satisfaction (e.g., marital satisfaction, parental satisfaction) is a subjective phenomenon that can be studied in terms of the positive or satisfying experiences as well as the dissatisfactions or conflicts that parents must face. A number of studies support this positive orientation to the effects of children on their parents (Campbell et al., 1976; Chilman, 1980; Gurin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960; Hoffman & Manis, 1978). Consideration should be given to both the satisfactions and dissatisfactions that parents experience to investigate both the positive and negative influences of children.

Satisfaction with Parental Roles

Given the extensive research on various aspects of life quality, parental satisfaction is another dimension that requires substantial attention. For example, in a 1971 national probability sample of the population of adults in the United States, satisfaction with dimensions of family life (e.g., marriage and children) contributed more to overall life satisfaction than such other variables as satisfaction with jobs, friends, community involvements, health, national government, religion, and financial situation (Campbell et al., 1976). In addition, the literature on the transition to parenthood supports the notion that the assumption of parental roles is associated with the formation of identities to a greater extent than either marriage or entrance into a career (Rogers, 1982). Becoming a parent, therefore, often serves as an important source of adult development (Lowenthal, Thurnher, Chirboga, & Associates, 1975; Okun, 1984). In order to provide a background for understanding how children serve as sources of satisfaction for their parents, the literature on the value of children and parental satisfaction were reviewed.

The Value of Offspring

During the late 1960s and 1970s, a body of literature emerged that attempted to identify the values and costs of offspring that motivated or discouraged adults from having children (Espenshade, 1977; Fawcett, 1976; Fawcett & Arnold, 1973; Hoffman & Hoffman, 1973; Hoffman, Thornton, & Manis, 1973; Pohlman, 1969). This tradition of theory and research was primarily directed toward determining how to discourage population growth through alternative means of satisfactions than those typically associated

with parenthood. That is, to decrease population growth, social scientists sought to identify the rewards associated with offspring and replace them with alternative sources of gratification. Although the fundamental assumptions of these studies differ from the present study, this tradition does provide support for the idea that children and adolescents serve as significant sources of life satisfaction for their parents.

Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) proposed a frequently cited model pertaining to the value of offspring in which childbearing decisions are a product of the perceived values and costs of children and adolescents. Five basic sets of variables comprise the model, including the values of offspring, alternative sources of values, the costs of offspring, barriers to having children, and factors that encourage having children. To understand the value of children and adolescents to parents, one may look at the value of a particular child, an additional, child or all the offspring in family.

Although the original model presented nine values attributed to children and adolescents by parents (adults), a modified version is used in more recent research because of the low number of parents who cited "social comparison" and "power" (defined differently from in the present study) as values of children and adolescents (Callan, 1980, 1982; Hoffman & Manis, 1979). A modified version of the Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) model identifies the seven psychological needs or functions served by offspring as the following: (a) achievement of adult status and social identity, (b) expansion of the self or a tie to "immortality", (c) meeting expectations for morality, (d) primary group ties or affiliation, (e) stimulation, fun, novelty, (f) creativity, competence, accomplishment, and (g) economic utility.

A series of studies, known as the "Value of Children Project," investigated the value of offspring in a number of cultural contexts (Arnold et al., 1975). These studies were designed to investigate the psychological needs that children and adolescents fulfill for their parents. In the first phase of the project, pilot investigations were conducted in the Phillipines (Bulato, 1975), Hawaii (Arnold & Fawcett, 1975), Japan (Iritani, 1975), Taiwan (Wu, 1977), and Korea (Lee, 1978). Generally, the cross-national comparisons demonstrated variation in patterns and strengths of motivations across nationalities, socioeconomic levels, and gender groups. Urban parents emphasized the emotional and psychological advantages of interacting with offspring and rural respondants emphasized the economic and pragmatic benefits (Arnold & Fawcett, 1975). In summarizing the first phase of the project, Fawcett (1976) argued for further research to assess more fully the roles of social class, gender, and related variables in shaping adult perceptions of the values of children and adolescents in various cultural contexts. Although the Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) study investigates the specific ways that children and youth meet the psychological needs of their parents, the present study was concerned with satisfaction with parental roles as a general construct.

Another study concerned with the values of offspring for parents examined concepts more closely related to the concept of parental satisfaction (Yankelovich, Skelly, & White, 1976). In a national study of the views of parents and offspring toward life in a changing American society, two approaches to parental roles were identified: (a) the traditionalists and (b) a "new breed." Although the traditionalists described the values of children in terms that are highly compatible with the Hoffman and Hoffman

(1973) model, the "new breed" of parents tended to emphasize such values as self-actualization and personal development for themselves and their offspring. In this study, as with the Value of Children Project, support was provided for the notion that parents value their children and adolescents for a variety of reasons. Consequently, an assumption of the present study was that youth are potential sources of life satisfaction for parents, in part related to the "intrinsic value" of children and adolescents for parents (Moss & Abramowitz, 1982).

Sources of Parental Satisfaction

Another study based on the original Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) model concerned with the values of children attempted to identify empirically the sources of parental satisfactions and dissatisfactions across the family life cycle (Hoffman & Manis, 1978). Parents reported satisfactions derived from the love and feelings of being a member of a family, as well as from the stimulation of childrearing. Sources of satisfactions and dissatisfactions varied somewhat across the childrearing years. For example, although teenagers had significant potential to provide parents with adult companionship and conversation, preschoolers provided satisfaction through caretaking and recreational roles. Furthermore, Hoffman and Manis (1978) concluded that parental satisfaction should be studied with respect to particular children because the levels of satisfaction may differ for the same parent with respect to different children. Consequently, parents who perceive their teenage sons or daughters as socially competent will have a more positive view of the parenting process than parents who perceive their teenagers as incompetent and low in resources.

A second major study on parental satisfactions and concerns found few differences between mothers and fathers with respect to values, goals, and overall satisfaction with parental roles (Chilman, 1980). In responding to forced choice questionnaires, mothers and fathers reported that "watching children grow and develop" and "companionship" were their major sources of parental satisfaction. Environmental factors such as income, employment, and education demonstrated little relationship to parental perceptions of satisfaction with parental roles.

Adolescent Social Competence

Many of these ideas about parental satisfaction as a dimension of overall life satisfaction may be conceptualized in terms of parental attitudes toward the social competence of adolescent offspring. Perceived social competence is the overall assessment by parents of the ability of children and adolescents to function effectively in reciprocal role relationships within the parent-youth dyad (Peterson & Rollins, in press). In "mainstream" American culture, social competence is defined as behaviors and attitudes which are both "socially responsible" and "independent" according to prevelant social norms (Baumrind, 1978). A major component of social competence is responsibility in reference to others, consisting of such behaviors and attitudes as sociability and cooperation. In addition, social competence includes independence, which refers to characteristics such as boldness, achievement orientation, initiative, and confidence (Baumrind, 1972). In general, as children and youth mature, increases in socially competent or socially incompetent behavior occurs.

Parents who see their adolescents as increasing in social competence, in turn, often define the outcomes of their parenting efforts to be successful. The result of seeing themselves as successful in these roles may lead parents to report greater satisfaction with the parent-youth relationship. Accordingly, the primary predictor variables for this study are several dimensions of adolescent social competence as perceived by parents.

During the adolescent years, parents are faced with the challenge of encouraging greater independence in adolescents (a component of social competence), while retaining moderate levels of control over the adolescents' activities (Montemayor, 1983). In addition, parents of teenagers find the family power structure undergoing change to the extent that adolescents acquire greater power (or perceived resources) in relation to parents (Baumrind, 1978; Peterson, 1977; Smith, in press; Stewart & Zaengleiner-Senger, 1982). This increase in power for adolescents is a demonstration of increased social competence. Furthermore, parents who perceive their offspring as developing desirable social skills also may desire to spend more positive time with them (companionship).

Parents who perceive the emerging social competence of their offspring are likely to define their parental experiences in a positive manner (i.e., report high levels of parental satisfaction). Along these same lines, specific hypotheses were developed from the existing literature relating to adolescent independence, adolescent companionship, and adolescent power.

Adolescent Companionship

The study of parent-adolescent relationships is often characterized by an emphasis on the existence of conflict between generations (Rice, 1981). As children enter adolescence, a certain degree of testing parental values and expecations occurs as youth seek to develop personal values and expectations. At the same time, adolescents often begin to demonstrate social competence through such qualities as sociability and cooperation, creating the potential to provide enjoyable companionship for their parents (Hoffman & Manis, 1978).

A study by Schvaneveldt (1971), for example, identified seven areas in which parents reported approval of their offspring: (a) good character, (b) growing up to be worthwhile, (c) trying to do what is right, (d) talking to parents freely, (e) being dependable, (f) being fun to have around, and (g) forgiving parental shortcomings. Clearly, these results support the notion that parents report satisfaction with adolescents who demonstrate socially competent attitudes and behaviors. Considering these characteristics, it appears that when parents report pleasure resulting from the presence of adolescents, it might be argued that they enjoy their adolescents' companionship.

Hoffman and Manis (1978) suggest that the sources of satisfaction from parental roles may be different across the family life span. That is, both the dependency of preschool children and adolescent companionship can provide sources of parental satisfaction (Chilman, 1980). Consequently, Hypothesis 1 specified that a posititve relationship would exist between the perceived level of companionship with adolesents and the perceived level of parental satisfaction (see Figure 1).

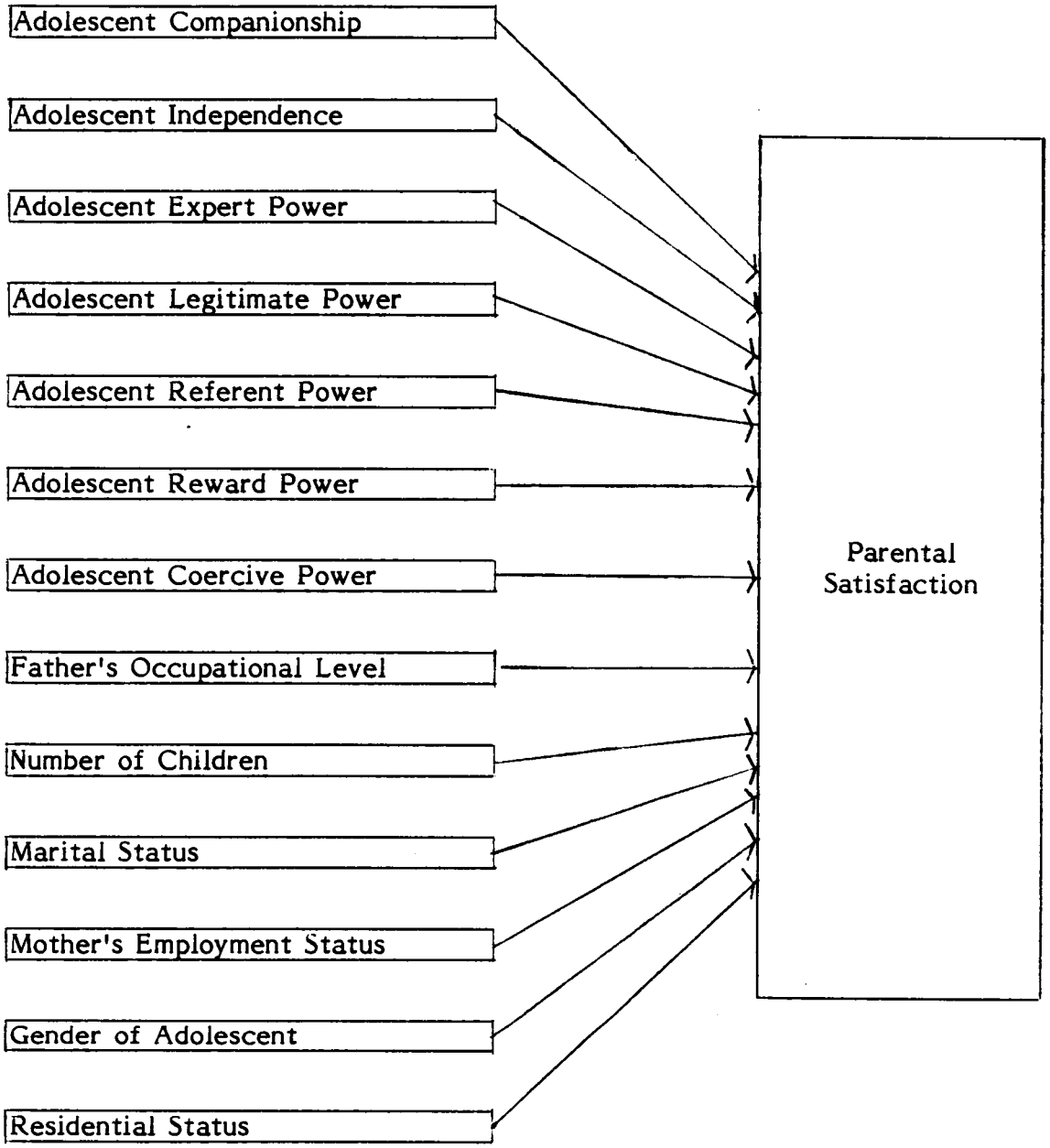


Figure 1. Parents' Perceptions of their Adolescents Social Competence as Predictors of Parental Satisfaction: A Theoretical Model

Adolescent Independence

A second aspect of adolescent social competence that recurrs in the parent-adolescent literature is the development of adolescent independence. A review of current textbooks on adolescent development demonstrates a substantial emphasis on independence (Manaster, 1977; Rice, 1981). A fundamental principle in the area of adolescent independence is that the more power an individual has in relation to others, the greater the independence for that person (Manaster, 1977). Furthermore, in order to function in society, adolescents and adults are expected to retain a balance between being responsible for themselves (i.e., independent) and responsible to society. As the primary socialization agents for their young, parents become a basic social institution through which adolescents develop power to gain independence.

Independence, however, need not be characterized primarily by conflict between parents and adolescents. For example, Chickering (1967) describes three major dimensions of independence: (a) emotional independence, (b) instrumental independence, and (c) the recognition of interdependence. In developing social competence, then, adolescents acquire a sense of personal identity without rejecting the parents and their values. Parents, in turn, who perceive independence in their adolescents may be expected to define their performance of parental roles as successful and feel increased satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 specified that a positive relationship would exist between the perceived level of adolescent independence and the perceived level of parental satisfaction (see Figure 1).

Social Power

A third major component of adolescent social competence is conceptualized here as "power" and refers to the potential to exert influence with respect to others (Baumrind, 1978). The concept of adolescent power is derived from the vast body of social psychological literature known as "social power theory." Consequently, a brief review of social power theory precedes the discussion of adolescent power as a dimension of family power.

Social power theory. Examination of the social psychological literature on social power demonstrates a lack of consensus on the conceptualization of social power. In general, social power is a construct used to explain changes in the cognitions, emotions, or behavior of one party that are interpreted as being induced by another party (Henderson, 1981). Beyond this definition, there tends to be considerable ambiguity in terminology regarding social power. For example, terms such as "authority," "influence," "control," "persuasion," "force," "dominance," "dependence," and "threat" are both equated and contrasted with power (Olson & Cromwell, 1975). In addition to a multiplicity of terms, scholars have developed numerous definitions and conceptualizations of social power (e.g., Cartwright, 1959, 1965; Collins & Raven, 1969; French & Raven, 1959; Kornberg & Perry, 1966; Pollard & Mitchell, 1972; Shaw & Costanzo, 1970; Tedeschi, 1974; Thibault & Kelly, 1959).

Historically, the study of social power may be traced to the writings of Max Weber, who described power as part of most social relationships. More specifically, power is "the possibility of imposing one's will upon the

behavior of other persons" (Weber, 1954). According to Weber, "power" can be distinguished from "dominance" because the former relates to influence and the later relates to exacting obedience from another person (Emerson, 1981). Weber preferred to examine the topic of domination in depth and did not fully develop the concept of power.

A number of scholars have taken Weber's work on domination as a foundation for relating power to concepts such as social organization and authority. Bierstedt (1970, p. 352), for example, introduced the notion of power as potential by stating that "power symbolizes the force that may be applied in any social situation and supports the authority that is applied." Elaborating on this statement, power is portrayed as a "latent force," whereas, force is "manifest power," and institutionalized power is "authority" (Bierstedt, 1970). Authority, therefore, is a specific type of power that is sanctioned in accordance with the norms of a particular social organization.

Power, then, is a generalized construct that may be described as a dimension of all social interactions (Secord & Backman, 1974). By defining social power in this manner, social psychologists identify aspects of social power that are distinct characteristcs of social relationships. Four major dimensions of social power are general components of the major theoretical conceptualizations of power: (a) dependence, (b) intentionality, (c) equity, and (d) role structure (Henderson, 1981).

Various typologies of social power have been applied to the study of political, business, and social relationships. In a review of the major contributions to the study of social power, Henderson (1981) distinguished among three conceptual approaches to social power as involving:

(a) sources, (b) processes, and (c) mediating factors which affect social power processes.

Discussions of the "sources of social power" focus primarily on the resources of a particular social agent (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955; French & Raven, 1959). For example, King (1975) suggested that a number of resources, including both subjective and objective elements (e.g., biological, psychological, situational, sociological, and cultural factors), interact to determine a person's social power. Other descriptions of the sources of social power focus on a particular category of factors as multidimensional power bases (e.g., French & Raven, 1959).

Models oriented toward the "processes of social power" attempt to identify the methods or "mediating activities" used by agents of influence to elicit a desired response in a target (Cartwright, 1959, 1965; Gamson, 1968; Harsanyi, 1962; Michener & Suchner, 1972; Rogers, 1974; Secord & Backman, 1974; Tedeschi & Lindskold, 1976). Tedeschi, Schlenker, and Lindskold (1972) have presented a model of social power as the processes of interactions among influencing agents, persons or groups being influenced, and third parties.

The final method of conceptualization attempts to distinguish between primary and intermediary social power processes (Argyle, 1977; Kipnis, 1976; Shaver, 1977; Tedeschi & Lindskold, 1976). According to these models, the dynamics of social power include not only the primary power processes but also a set of contingent variables that may influence the primary processes. The influencing agent, for example, may have particular personality charactistics that affect the power dynamics (Kipnis, 1976).

Family power. The study of power in families has received considerable research attention over the past 25 years. Prior to Blood and Wolfe's (1960) presentation of a "resource theory of family power," the study of social power in relation to the family was minimal. In the subsequent years, a number of conceptual models of power have been applied to the study of family power (McDonald, 1980a; Safilios-Rothschild, 1970).

The conceptualization of social power most commonly applied to the study of parent-youth relations has been concerned with the study of the potential sources of influence (i.e., power) that exist (McDonald, 1980a; Smith, in press a). In the study of parental power as a subcomponent of social power, social scientists have primarily studied the sources or "bases" of social power within the family unit using a modified version of the typology developed by French and Raven (1959) (Cartwright, 1965; McDonald, 1977; Smith, 1970a, 1970b, 1977, in press a, in press b).

In their original model, French and Raven (1959) sought to identify and systematically outline the major sources of power in relation to the types of targeted changes the influencing agent desired to produce. In any relationship where more than one agent has resources (e.g., money, property, knowledge, skill, competence, natural resources) in a social relationship, a power structure exists (Bierstedt, 1970). Based on the level of resources one individual perceives in relation to the other agent (or significant other), different sources of power are identified (French & Raven, 1959).

The first of the five bases of social power described by French and Raven (1959) is expert power, which exists as one individual or agent attributes knowledge to another, allowing the potential for the former to

be influenced by the perception of power in the latter. A second base of power, legitmate power, emerges as one agent perceives that another has a "right" to prescribe behavior or attitudes based on group norms. A third source of power, referent power, derives from the identification of one agent with a significant other who is perceived as having valued resources. The fourth source of power, reward power, exists as one agent perceives the potential of another to mediate rewards for desired behaviors or attitudes. Finally, coercive power exists as one person is perceived as having the ability to mediate punishments or aversive consequences with respect to another person.

As the study of parent-adolescent power has developed, a modification of the French and Raven model has been adapted in the field of family studies which describes power as the potential to influence others (McDonald, 1977; Peterson & Rollins, in press; Smith, 1970a, 1970b, in press a, in press b). That is, power in the parent-adolescent relationship is identified as the potential of one family member to influence another and distinguished from the actual influence attempts that may be observed in the relationship (Smith, in press a).

Interest in the study of family power in relation to parent-youth relationships has focused primarily on the bases (or sources) of power that parents have in relation to their offspring. In a recent survey of the literature on family power during the 1970s, McDonald (1980a) stated that family power was primarily represented in the research literature by studies of conjugal power and parental power. Yet, family power represents a broader range of role relationships, including kinship (McDonald, 1980a),

sibling (Schvenevelt & Ihinger, 1979), and offspring power (McDonald, 1980a).

A major collection of works on family power by Cromwell and Olson (1975) presented the concept of family power as a major component of the family as a social unit. That is, the family power structure is a "generic construct" with numerous dimensions determining the ability of one or more family members to change the behavior of others. For example, the modified French and Raven (1959) model was applied to the study of conjugal power (Raven, Centers, & Rodrigues, 1975) and to parental power as a means of obtaining child compliance (Rollins & Thomas, 1979).

Parental power. Clarifying the types of parental power that predict conformity of adolescents to their parents has been a major focus of the literature on parental power (Acock & Yang, 1984; McDonald, 1980a). Rollins and Thomas (1975, 1979), for example, developed theoretical propositions concerning the relationship between parental power and the conformity of youth to the expectations of their parents. The typology of power used in this work was derived from the French and Raven (1959) model emphasizing the potential to influence, rather than actual influence attempts. Four of the five parental power dimensions (i.e., expert power, legitimate power, referent power, and reward power) were expected to demonstrate positive relationships with adolescent conformity to parental expectations. Coercive power, on the other hand, was expected to demonstrate a negative relationship with adolescent conformity to parents.

Smith (1970a, 1970b) also sought to determine the types of parental power that predicted conformity to parental expectations. These

investigations made the assumption that parental power and conflict simultaneously coexist in families with adolescents. The study of dimensions of parental power, therefore, was hypothesized to be an important explanatory variable with respect to parent-adolescent relationships. The modified French and Raven (1959) model was applied to developing a questionnaire measuring the potential paternal and maternal influence on the educational and personal decisions. The findings demonstrated that legitimate, expert, and referent parental powers were more influential with respect to adolescents than outcome-control power (i.e., reward and coercive powers).

More recently, Smith (in press b) has refined his conceptualization of parental power as a dimension of "parental influence." In this theoretical paper, Smith argued that the potential to influence is positively related to desired outcomes in adolescents, but actual parental power assertion is negatively related to such outcomes. Furthermore, theoretical support is presented for the bidirectional nature of parent-adolescent power based on the concordance of power perceptions between parents and adolescents.

In a series of studies, McDonald (1977, 1979, 1980, 1982) pursued the idea that parental power was an important explanatory variable with respect to important child outcomes. Definitions of parental power were considered to be important in the development of attitides toward "the normative power structure of contemporary families" (McDonald, 1982). In this tradition of studies, parental power was defined as the potential of a parent to influence the adolescent (Smith, 1970a). Four dimensions of parental power were studied in relation to adolescent identification with parents: (a) parental outcome-control power (i.e., reward and coercive

power), (b) parental legitimate power, (c) parental referent power, and (d) parental expert power.

Adolescent power. Studies of power within the parent-youth relationship have been directed toward determining how dimensions of parental power relate to specific outcomes in adolescents. In contrast, a similar conceptualization of offspring power would be expected to predict specific outcomes in parents (McDonald, 1980a; Smith, in press a). Adolescent power, therefore, is defined as the potential of adolescents to influence parents based on the definitions that parents assign to parent-adolescent relationships and attribute to their teenage offspring. The adaptation of the family power structure to the changing resources (i.e., types of power) among adolescents and parents was expected to relate to the satisfaction that parents report with respect to specific offspring in the present study.

The levels of parental satisfaction reported may differ according to the types of adolescent power perceived by the parents. That is, the expectations for social competence that parents have for their adolescents include demonstrations of the potential to influence based on expert, legitimate, referent, and reward powers. On the other hand, parents may perceive adolescent coercive power as a form of social competence that is undesirable becuase of the the potential for negative consequences. Thus, parental satisfaction is expected to increase with perceived adolescent expert, legitimate, referent, and reward powers and to decrease with perceived adolescent coercive power.

Because the family socialization processes are bidirectional in nature, power should be studied from both sides of the parent-adolescent

relationship (Anderson, 1981; Peterson & Rollins, in press). Adolescent power is a part of the family power structure that has theoretical support but lacks empirical studies (Peterson, 1977; Smith, in press a, in press b). Baumrind (1975), for example, describes family power distribution as asymmetric in the early stages of the family life cycle as parents tend to control the majority of valued resources in the family. As children enter adolescence, however, the asymmetry becomes minimized as youth gain resources in the form of greater social competence. Thus, the family power structure moves toward a state of greater mutual dependence (Emerson, 1962; Okun, 1984).

Given that the family power structure has both parental power and offspring power as dimensions, it is logical that adolescent power may be studied according to the same theoretical model as parental power (Smith, in press a). Consequently, the present study applied the modified French and Raven (1959) model to the concept of adolescent power to examine dimensions of adolescent social competence in relation to parental satisfaction.

1. Adolescent expert power. An important developmental phenomeon is that young people increasingly gain specialized knowledge as they mature. The experiences and information that youth acquire through formal educational programs and informal avenues (e.g., hobbies, interactions with others) provide a basis for parents to perceive their offspring as having increased informational competence. Parents who become aware of this new resource may develop a positive evaluation of the parental role (i.e., parental satisfaction). Consequently, Hypothesis 3 specified that a positive

relationship would exist between the perceived level of adolescent expert power and the perceived level of parental satisfaction (see Figure 1, p. 34).

2. Adolescent legitimate power. An additional aspect of adolescent power can be conceptualized as legitimate power. Legitimate power is perceived by a parent when he or she recognizes the "right" of adolescents to control their own lives and exercise influence based on social norms that specify what adolescents "should" be allowed to do (e.g., date, wear clothing styles of their choice). As parents acknowledge the rights for their offspring to as providing the potential to exercise influence and control aspects of their own lives, they may demonstrate greater satisfaction with the adolescents developing social competence. Consequently, Hypothesis 4 specified, therefore, that a positive relationship would exist between the perceived level of adolescent legitimate power and the perceived level of parental satisfaction (see Figure 1, p. 34).

3. Adolescent referent power. Parents also may perceive their adolescents as having referent power. That is, increased social competence may be further demonstrated when parents identify with certain aspects of the roles their teenage offpsring perform in the family, school, community or work. As adolescents are perceived to accept responsibilities in important social institutions and to be identification objects, parents are expected to define such activity as evidence of increased social competence on the part of their offspring. Such a perception by parents may favorably affect the parents attitude toward the parental roles they occupy. Thus, Hypothesis 5 specified that a positive relationship would exist between the

perceived level of adolescent referent power and the perceived level of parental satisfaction (see Figure 1, p. 34).

4. Adolescent reward power. A fourth type of adolescent power is reward power, or the adolescents' ability to mediate rewards to parents. That is, reward power exists to the extent that adolescents are perceived to have attributes that parents value (e.g., ability to give affection). Parents who perceive their adolescents as having this ability to provide such desired rewards, therefore, are expected to define this resource as increased social competence on the part of their offspring. Furthermore, performance of the parental role is likely to be viewed more positively when performed in relation to an adolescent who is perceived to have high levels of reward power. Thus, Hypothesis 6 specified that a positive relationship would exist between the perceived level of adolescent reward power and the perceived level of parental satisfaction (see Figure 1, p. 34).

5. Adolescent coercive power. A fifth type of adolescent power is coercive power, or the adolescents' ability to mediate aversive consequences or punishments toward parents. That is, adolescents are perceived as developing resources that might be used to bring about negative consequences for parents. Adolescent coercive power functions as a perceived form of competence because it is a potential resource that adolescents draw upon. Although parents may recognize that coercive power is a demonstration of increased resources (or competence) in their adolescents, they also may develop negative attitudes toward adolescents who are viewed as having the potential to bring about adverse conseqences. Thus, based on the potential negative consequences of this resource,

adolescent coercive power is a form of social competence that is expected to be inversely related to parental satisfaction. Consequently, Hypothesis 7 specified that a negative relationship would exist between the perceived level of adolescent coercive power and the perceived level of parental satisfaction (see Figure 1, p. 34).

Sociodemographic Variables

In addition to dimensions of adolescent social competence, a number of other factors might affect the prediction of parental satisfaction. For example, research on parent-youth relationships consistently supports the notion that parental expectations for their offspring may vary with the socioeconomic status of the family (Gecas, 1979; Hoffman, 1970, 1980; Peterson & Rollins, in press). Parents from lower socioeconomic levels generally place greater emphasis on obedience, respect, and conformity to parental expectations than do middle-class parents (Kohn, 1977). Likewise, it might be the case that parental definitions of social competence and success in the performance of parental roles may vary according to a particular family's socioeconomic status.

Further, the larger the number of children, the less satisfaction that parents may experience with reference to a particular child (Rollins & Galligan, 1978). Larger numbers of children might contribute to parental perceptions of greater demands for the performance of parental roles (Peterson & Rollins, in press). The degree of parental satisfaction resulting from the enactment of parental roles, in turn, were expected to be inversely related to overall parental satisfaction.

Parental marital status also was expected to predict parental perceptions of satisfaction with parental roles in the present study. The attitudes of parents toward their marital relationships have been found to predict satisfaction with aspects of family life (Campbell et al., 1976). Parents who are divorced have reported greater role strain from the combination of roles (e.g., provider roles, nurturant roles, emotional support roles) when children or adolescents are present (Burr et al, 1979). Furthermore, parents who are divorced and live away from their children were expected to experience lower levels of life satisfaction (or parental satisfaction) from parental roles. Consequently, married parents were expected to have greater parental satisfaction than divorced parents.

Given that parental satisfaction is a dimension of overall life satisfaction, it is also important to consider that various aspects of life satisfaction may be more salient to employed mothers than to mothers who work in the home. Previous research on the employment status of mothers has been conducted with respect to the value that parents place on children and youth (Beckman, 1978). The importance of children and adolescents as sources of life satisfaction, in turn, may be greater for parents who define home responsibilities as more important (Hoffman, 1979). Consequently, parental satisfaction was expected to vary according to the mother's employment status.

In a study about the value of children for parents, the type of residential status was found to be significant in some cultural environments (Arnold & Fawcett, 1975). The norms and role expectations for family members vary somewhat according to the type of community in which the family resides. Research of this kind indicates that the social norms and

expectations for parental roles differ between rural and town environments. Consequently, the residential status of the family was examined in relation to parental satisfaction.

The research literature on the expectations of parents for male and female children supports the concept that differential expectations are developed for children and youth based on gender of the young (Biller, 1981; McDonald, 1977). In addition, evidence supports the concept that parents have different types of social interactions with male and female offspring (Baumrind, 1980; Lamb, 1977; Peterson, Rollins, Thomas & Heaps, 1982; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). Such research emphasizes the importance of examining the gender of adolescents variable in relation to parental satisfaction.

The value that parents place on children as sources of life satisfaction differs with respect to the gender of the parent (Hoffman & Hoffman, 1973; Pohlman, 1969). Traditionally, gender of family members has served as a significant source of determining role definitions and expectations for family members (Block, 1980; Rollins & Thomas, 1979). The possible relationship between parental satisfaction of mothers and fathers gender of parents was examineded.

Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature relating to parental satisfaction and aspects of adolescent social competence (i.e., companionship, independence, expert power, legitimate power, referent power, reward power, and coercive power). Although little research was found on either parental satisfaction or dimensions of adolescent social

competence, the theoretical basis was provided to develop hypotheses predicting levels of parental satisfaction from dimensions of adolescent social competence. The literature pertaining to selected control variables (i.e., father's occupational level, number of children, marital status, mother's employment status, gender of adolescent, and residential status) also was reviewed.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

This investigation was part of a larger research project on the parent-adolescent relationship conducted during the winter of 1982. The larger project, funded by the Agricultural Experiment Station at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, acquired self-report questionnaire data from a nonprobability sample of high school students and their parents. Using an ex post facto, cross-sectional design, the present study examined how dimensions of adolescent social competence predicted parental satisfaction. The seven dimensions of adolescent social competence used as predictor variables were companionship, independence, expert power, legitmate power, referent power, reward power, and coercive power. The six sociodemographic control variables used for the study were father's occupational level, number of children, marital status, mother's employment status, gender of adolescent, and residential status.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of parents whose sons or daughters attended the only public senior high school in a small, rural community in eastern Tennessee. The Tennessee Statistical Abstracts were consulted to select a school for the larger project based on two factors: (a) the nonmetropolitan nature of the community and (b) the wide range of socioeconomic levels represented in the school district. Although substantial variability in socioeconomic levels existed, many of the parents were white, lower

middle-class, and Protestant. Based upon the limited number of minority respondents, a subsample of white parents was selected for the present study.

Initially, the parents of all the high school students enrolled in the selected high school were identified as the total population for the present study. The total student enrollment of the high school consisted of 956 sophomores, juniors, and seniors. From that total, 657 students (69%) participated in the larger project, with 369 being from rural areas and 279 living within the city limits of a small community. A total of 822 parents responded to the project questionnaire (377 fathers and 445 mothers).

A total of 344 mothers and 335 fathers were married at the time of assessment and 31 fathers and 59 mothers were divorced. The mean level of formal education by parents was 11.5 years for mothers and 11.8 years for fathers. The standard deviations for mothers' and fathers' educational levels were 2.4 and 3.2, respectively. There were 329 fathers and 233 mothers who were employed. The mean age of the parents was 44.3 years for fathers and 41.4 years for mothers. Respective standard deviations for the fathers' and mothers' ages were 7.6 and 6.5. There were 301 mothers and 256 fathers who had been born in Tennessee. One hundred twenty-one (121) fathers and 144 mothers were originally from other geographical locations. The number of children and adolescents in the participating families ranged from 1 to 12, with a median of 2.5.

Procedure

Permission to conduct this study was acquired from school officials several months in advance of the assessment. In order to provide access to

the entire student population of the high school, initial contact with students and administration of the adolescents' questionnaires occurred in the youth's English classes. About three weeks prior to the student assessment date, the project director and four trained researchers met with the students of each English class to inform the students about the general objectives of the study, the types of questions to be asked, and other details about the assessment process. Parents' informed consent forms were obtained by having the adolescents deliver the forms and return them on the student assessment day.

In order to obtain data for the total project, both the students and their parents completed separate questionnaires regarding aspects of the parent-adolescent relationship. On the day of student assessment, the Survey of High School Students (SHSS) was distributed and completed in English classes by the students who volunteered to participate. The student questionnaires were administered by trained investigators and the project director, who gave directions and answered questions during the assessment. The Survey for Parents of High School Students (SPHSS), from which the data for the present study were obtained, was sent home to the parents. Parents received packets containing descriptions of the study and two parental questionnaires that were to be completed about a particular adolescent. Upon completing the questionnaires, the parents were requested to mail them back to the project director in a self-addressed, stamped envelope. Both the parent and adolescent questionnaires were assigned the same family number to facilitate later matching of parent and adolescent responses. Students who completed a questionnaire and whose parent(s)

completed and mailed back their questionnaires received a high school t-shirt.

Measurement

Separate self-report questionnaires concerning aspects of the parent-adolescent relationship were administered to both parents and their adolescent offspring. Data for the predictor and criterion variables in this study were obtained from the parents' questionnaire, the SPHSS. This instrument consisted of 92 items concerned with the parents' reports of family socio-demographics, parental satisfaction, adolescent companionship, adolescent independence, adolescent power, adolescent autonomy, adolescent conformity to parents' expectations, gender-role attitudes, familism, locus of control, and child-rearing behaviors.

Operationalization of the measures involved the construction of new items and scales for the larger project. The primary predictor (dimensions of adolescent social competence) and criterion (parental satisfaction) variables for this study were components of the SPHSS, while the control variables were components of the SHSS. Separate internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) were computed for each of the seven aspects of social competence and the measure of parental satisfaction.

Operational Definitions

Parental satisfaction. The criterion variable for this study was the level of parental satisfaction reported by fathers and mothers with respect to the relationship with adolescent offspring. The items assessing parental

satisfaction were developed specifically for this project. Parents were asked to assess the level of overall parental satisfaction they experienced with respect to a specific teenage daughter or son (see Appendix A, Section 1). The 2 Likert-type items asked parents to respond to one of four response categories (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree). Internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) for the two items were .84 for fathers and .88 for mothers.

Adolescent companionship. To assess the parents' perceptions of the degree and quality of companionship provided by their adolescent, two items were developed specifically for the larger project (see Appendix A, Section 2). Two Likert-type items asked parents to respond to one of four response categories (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree). Internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) for the scale were .72 for mothers and .81 for fathers.

Adolescent independence. Assessment of the parents' perceptions of their adolescents' independence level was provided through a 9 item scale developed specifically for this project (see Appendix A, Section 3). Nine Likert-type items asked parents to respond to one of four categories (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree). Internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) for the scale were .81 for fathers and .83 for mothers.

Adolescent power. Construction of the instrument measuring parental perceptions of adolescent power was accomplished specifically for this project. An initial set of 35 items was constructed for the scale. Further

examination of the items by social scientists for content validity resulted in the elimination of 8 items. Separate principal components factor analyses were then conducted on the remaining 27 items for the responses of both mothers and fathers. Six items resulted in factor loadings less than .40 and were dropped from the scale. Principal components factor analyses using varimax rotations were conducted on the remaining 21 items for the responses of fathers and mothers (see Tables 1-5). Five factor solutions for the 21 adolescent power items for expert, legitimate, referent, reward, and coercive powers were essentially the same for mothers and fathers. For the present study, these 21 items representing five dimensions of adolescent power were used. Separate internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) were calculated for each of the five power dimensions.

1. Adolescent expert power. Parents responded to four Likert-type items measuring their perceptions of their adolescents' ability to provide information concerning important life issues (i.e., career possibilities, educational planning, dating partners, choice of friends). The parents rated each item (see Appendix A, Section 4) according to four response categories (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) that were assigned numerical values from 1 to 4. The summation of the numerical values on the four items resulted in a total score for the parents' perceptions of adolescent expert power. The internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) for this scale were .86 for fathers and .84 for mothers.

Table 1

Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings for the Items Pertaining to Mothers' and Fathers' Perceptions of Adolescent Expert Power

Items	Factor loading for mothers	Factor loading for fathers
This teenager knows a great deal about future career possibilities.	.86	.81
This teenager knows a great deal about how to get a good education.	.81	.82
This teengaer knows a great deal about how to choose the right kind of dating partner.	.70	.80
This teenager knows a great deal about how to choose the right kind of friends.	.61	.68

Table 2

Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings for the Items Pertaining to Mothers' and Fathers' Perceptions of Adolescent Legitimate Power

Items	Factor loading for mothers	Factor loading for fathers
This teenager has the right to choose his/her own occupational goals.	.49	.83
This teenager has the right to choose his/her own educational goals.	.55	.83
This teengaer has a right to choose his/her own dating partners.	.82	.42
This teenager has a right to choose his/her own friends.	.78	.53

Table 3

Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings for the Items Pertaining to Mothers' and Fathers' Perceptions of Adolescent Referent Power

Items	Factor loading for mothers	Factor loading for fathers
This teenager's wishes should be given a great deal of importance when it comes to making decisions about his/her relationships with members of the opposite sex.	.62	.59
This teenager's opinions should be given much weight when it comes to making decisions about his/her education.	.85	.81
This teengaer's opinions should be given a great deal of importance when it comes to choosing his/her occupational goals.	.83	.84

Table 4

Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings for the Items Pertaining to Mothers' and Fathers' Perceptions of Adolescent Reward Power

Items	Factor loading for mothers	Factor loading for fathers
This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel very good by choosing the right kind of friends.	.78	.76
This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel very good by choosing the right kind of educational goals.	:85	.88
This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel very good by choosing the right kind of occupational goals.	.83	.88
This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel good by choosing the right kind of dating partner.	.83	.85

Table 5

Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings for the Items Pertaining to Mothers' and Fathers' Perceptions of Adolescent Coercive Power

Items	Factor loading for mothers	Factor loading for fathers
This teenager is the kind of person who can make me feel bad when we have a hard time talking about important family matters.	.72	.74
This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel bad by choosing the wrong kind of friends.	.86	.83
This teengaer is the kind of person who could make me feel bad by choosing the wrong kind of educational goals.	.90	.88
This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel bad by choosing the wrong kind of occupational goals.	.85	.83

2. Adolescent legitimate power. Parents responded to four Likert-type items measuring their perceptions of their adolescents' "right" to make choices and influence others on several issues (i.e., regarding occupational goals, educational goals, dating partners, and choice of friends). The parents rated each item (see Appendix A, Section 5) according to four response categories (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) that were assigned numerical values from 1 to 4. The summation of the numerical values resulted in a total score for parental perceptions of adolescent legitimate power. The internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) for this scale were .81 for mothers and .77 for fathers.

3. Adolescent referent power. Parents responded to four Likert-type items measuring their perceptions of their adolescents' potential to serve as a "significant other" or identification object for the parent in important decision-making areas (i.e., dating partners for the adolescents, educational decisions for the adolescents, occupational plans for the adolescents). The parents rated each item (see Appendix A, Section 6) according to four response categories (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) that were assigned numerical values of 1 to 4. The summation of the numerical values resulted in a total score for parental perceptions of adolescent referent power. Internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) for this scale were .77 for both fathers and mothers.

4. Adolescent reward power. Parents responded to four Likert-type items measuring their perceptions of their adolescents' ability to mediate rewards and make others feel good in a variety of situations (i.e., through the adolescents' choice of friends, educational goals, occupational goals,

dating partners). The parents rated each item (see Appendix A, Section 7) according to four response categories (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) that were assigned numerical values from 1 to 4. The summation of the numerical values on the four items resulted in a total score for parental perceptions of their adolescents' reward power. The internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) for this scale were .91 for mothers and .92 for fathers.

5. Adolescent coercive power. Parents responded to six Likert-type items on coercive power measuring their perceptions of their adolescents' ability to bring about adverse consequences or make the parent feel bad in a variety of situations (i.e., family discussions, choosing friends, selecting educational and occupational goals, dating, and compliance with parental expectations). Parents rated each item (see Appendix A, Section 8) according to four response categories (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) that were assigned numerical values from 1 to 4. The summation of numerical values on the six items resulted in a total score for this variable. The internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) for this scale were .90 for fathers and .92 for mothers.

Sociodemographic variables. The sociodemographic variables for the total project were measured by items on the adolescents' questionnaires.

1. Father's occupational level served as the indicator of family socio-economic status and was determined by responses to an item asking the father's job descriptions and titles (see Appendix A, Section 9). Responses were coded according to the occupational prestige scores for Duncan's Socioeconomic Index (Duncan, 1961).

2. The number of children in families was measured by an item asking the number and gender of children or teenagers in the family (see Appendix A, Section 10).

3. The parent's marital status was determined by the responses to an item asking their current marital status (see Appendix A, Section 11).

4. The mother's employment status was determined by the responses to an item asking whether the mothers worked outside the home (see Appendix A, Section 12).

5. The gender of adolescent by the responses to an item asking whether the adolescents were male or female (see Appendix A, Section 13). The parent's residential status was determined by the responses to an item asking whether the parents lived in a rural area or a town (see Appendix A, Section 14).

Data Reduction and Transformation

Upon completion of the data collection, the parents' questionnaires were matched with their adolescents' questionnaires and ordered by number for the larger project. A code book was developed recording the items, variable names and scoring systems for each variable. The sociodemographic data and the values for each item on the scales were transferred to coding sheets by two trained coders. Subsequently, the data were keypunched on cards and transferred to a magnetic computer tape and disk. Computer printouts were used to check the accuracy of the data on the magnetic tape and disk. The magnetic tape and disk were prepared for the use of programs from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Steinbrenner, & Bant, 1975) and SPSS-X (SPSS, Inc., 1983).

Data Analysis

The theoretical model developed for the present study was tested through the use of multiple regression analysis. Because multiple regression analyzes the degree of relationship between a set of predictor variables and a criterion variable, this procedure was selected to test the hypotheses for the present study (Tabachnick & Fidel, 1983). Separate regression models were used to analyze the mother-adolescent and father-adolescent dyads using programs from SPSS and SPSS-X. The criterion for significance used in the analyses was $p < .05$. Hiearchical regression was employed to test for the possible interactions between the gender of the adolescents and the relationships between the primary predictor and criterion variables. That is, step one of the regression analysis entered the seven primary predictor varibles (i.e., adolescent companionship, independence, expert power, legitimate power, referent power, reward power, and coercive power) and the six control variables (i.e., father's occupational level, number of children, marital status, mother's employment status, gender of adolescent, and residential status) in relation to parental satisfaction, the criterion variable.

The second step to the hierarchical regression was conducted to determine whether gender of adolescent differences existed in the relationships between the adolescent social competence variables (or primary predictor variables) and parental satisfaction. For example, inclusion of the adolescent companionship by gender of adolescent interaction term as a predictor variable tested whether relationships between adolescent companionship and parental satisfaction were different

for male and female adolescents. Thus, step two of the hierarchical regression included the primary predictor and control variables plus a set of variables testing for interaction between the primary predictor variables and parental satisfaction (i.e., companionship by gender of adolescent, independence by gender of adolescent, expert power by gender of adolescent, referent power by gender of adolescent, reward power by gender of adolescent, and coercive power by gender of adolescent with parental satisfaction). However, none of these terms were included in the equation because none were significant ($p < .05$).

Scatterplots and histograms were analyzed to check for the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Descriptive statistics (means, frequencies, and standard deviations) were calculated for each variable.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The ability of dimensions of adolescent social competence (companionship, independence, expert power, legitimate power, referent power, reward power, and coercive power) to predict parental satisfaction were examined separately for mothers and fathers using hiearachical multiple regression analyses. In the initial step of the multiple regression analysis, the relationships between dimensions of social competence and parental satisfaction were examined. The second set multiple regressions tested for gender of adolescent differences for each hypothesis and none were found. Therefore, only the results for the first step of the hiearachical regression are presented in this chapter. The descriptive statistics for the predictor and criterion variables are reported in Appendix B (see Tables A-1 and A-2).

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis, that proposed perceived adolescent companionship would be positively related to parental satisfaction, was supported within both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models. Perceived companionship manifested significant standardized betas of .27 (see Table 6) and .26 (see Table 7) for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models respectively.

Table 6

Multiple Regression Analysis of Dimensions of Perceived Adolescent Social Competence and Control Variables to Mothers' Parental Satisfaction

Predictor variable	r	Beta	Standard error	F	Overall Model: Multiple R	R^2	F
Companionship	.37	.27	.04	29.98***			
Independence	.24	.00	.01	0.00			
Expert power	.36	.14	.03	5.55*			
Legitimate power	.31	.04	.04	0.34			
Referent power	.31	.14	.04	6.23*			
Reward power	.34	.17	.03	8.73*			
Coercive power	-.06	-.01	.01	0.05			
Father's occupational level	-.02	-.07	.00	2.02			
Number of children	-.18	-.15	.03	9.78**			
Marital status	-.06	.00	.13	0.09			
Mother's employment status	.02	.04	.10	0.60			
Gender of adolescent	-.02	.02	.10	0.11			
Residential status	.02	-.01	.09	0.10			
					.54	.29	10.40**

*p < .05 **p < .005 ***p < .001

Table 7

Multiple Regression Analysis of Dimensions of Perceived Adolescent Social Competence and Control Variables to Fathers' Parental Satisfaction

Predictor variables	r	Beta	Standard error	F	Overall Model: Multiple R	R^2	F
Companionship	.41	.26	.05	29.48**			
Independence	.24	-.03	.02	0:34			
Expert power	.38	.06	.03	1.03*			
Legitimate power	.37	.09	.04	1.96			
Referent power	.44	.23	.04	16.94**			
Reward power	.43	.22	.03	15.23**			
Coercive power	-.10	-.06	.02	1.55			
Father's occupational level	.07	.06	.00	1.43			
Number of children	-.18	-.08	.03	3.34			
Marital status	-.16	-.10	.18	4.84*			
Mother's employment status	-.02	-.02	.10	0.20			
Gender of adolescent	-.13	-.03	.10	0.48			
Residential status	.06	.04	.09	0.78			
					.63	.40	15.45**

*p < .05 **p < .0001

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis proposed that perceived adolescent independence would be positively related to parental satisfaction within the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models. No support was found for this hypothesis because the results failed to yield significant betas for either model. The non significant betas for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models were .00 (see Table 6) and -.03 (see Table 7) respectively.

Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis proposed that perceived adolescent expert power would be positively related to parental satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported with respect to the mother-adolescent model. Perceived adolescent expert power manifested a significant beta of .14 in the mother-adolescent dyad (see Table 6). In contrast, the father-adolescent model yielded a non significant standardized beta of .06 (see Table 7) and did not support the hypothesis.

Hypothesis Four

The fourth hypothesis proposed that perceived adolescent legitimate power would be positively related to parental satisfaction within the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models. No support was found for this hypothesis because the results failed to yield significant betas for either model. The non significant betas for the mother-adolescent and the

father-adolescent models were .04 (see Table 6) and .09 (see Table 7) respectively.

Hypothesis Five

The fifth hypothesis, which proposed that perceived adolescent referent power would be positively related to parental satisfaction, was supported within both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models. Perceived referent power manifested significant standardized betas of .14 (see Table 6) and .23 (see Table 7) for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models respectively.

Hypothesis Six

The sixth hypothesis, which proposed that perceived adolescent reward power would be positively related to parental satisfaction, was supported within both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models. Perceived reward power manifested significant standardized betas of .17 (see Table 6) and .22 (see Table 7) for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models respectively.

Hypothesis Seven

The seventh hypothesis proposed that perceived adolescent coercive power would be negatively related to parental satisfaction within the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models. No support was found for this hypothesis because the results failed to yield significant betas for either model. The non significant betas for the mother-adolescent and the

father-adolescent models were -.01 (see Table 6) and -.06 (see Table 7) respectively.

Sociodemographic Variables

Father's Occupational Level

Results revealed no significant relationships between the father's occupational level (the indicator of socioeconomic status) and parental satisfaction. Non significant betas of -.07 (see Table 6) and .06 (see Table 7) were manifested for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models respectively.

Number of Children

Results revealed a significant relationship between the number of children in the family and parental satisfaction with respect to the mother-adolescent model. Specifically, the number of children variable manifested a significant beta of -.15 (see Table 6) in the mother-adolescent dyad. In contrast, the father-adolescent model yielded a non significant beta of -.08 (see Table 7).

Marital Status

Results revealed a significant relationship between the marital status of the parent and parental satisfaction with respect to the father-adolescent model. Marital status manifested a significant beta of -.10 (see Table 7) in the father-adolescent dyad. In contrast, the mother-adolescent model yielded a non significant beta of .00 (see Table 6).

Mother's Employment Status

Results revealed no significant relationships between the mother's employment status and parental satisfaction. Non significant betas of .04 (see Table 6) and -.02 (see Table 7) were manifested for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models respectively.

Gender of Adolescent

Results revealed no significant relationships between the gender of the adolescents and parental satisfaction. Non significant betas of .02 (see Table 6) and -.03 (see Table 7) were manifested for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models respectively.

Residential Status

Results revealed no significant relationships between the residential status and parental satisfaction. Non significant betas of -.01 (see Table 6) and .04 (see Table 7) were manifested for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models respectively.

Tests for the Appropriateness of Multiple Regression

Although both models tested in the present study explain significant amounts of variance, regression analysis is not an appropriate statistical tool unless the data meet the fundamental assumptions of the least squares theory (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Residual analysis, normal probability plots, and frequency histograms were used to test for the appropriateness of multiple regression for the data in this study (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1983; Younger, 1979). Specifically, three assumptions of regression were

examined: (a) normality, (b) linearity, and (c) homoscedasticity. In addition, the possible existence of outliers was examined.

The first step in detecting flagrant violations of the basic assumptions was to examine a scatterplot (produced using SPSS-X programs) of the residuals verses the predicted values for parental satisfaction (see Appendix C, Figures A-1 and A-2). When the basic assumptions of regression are met without qualification, the scatterplot is rectangular in shape with the majority of scores concentrated along zero (Tabachnick & Fidel, 1983). In general, formal statistical tests are merited only when substantial deviations from this shape are detected from the scatterplots (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). That is, regression is robust to minor violations of the assumptions. Only obvious violations require transformations of the data to meet the assumptions of multiple regression (Chatterjee & Price, 1977).

The Assumption of Normality

Normality occurs when the distribution of errors of prediction are normally and independently distributed at all levels of the predicted criterion variable (Younger, 1979). When the data are normally distributed, the residual scatterplot will show a centralization of residual scores near zero for each level of the predicted criterion variable score (Tabachnick & Fidel, 1983). An absence of normality may exist if the scores concentrate either above or below the zero level for residual scores. Although the distribution of residual scores in the father-adolescent model appeared to meet the criteria for normality on the scatterplot (see Appendix C, Figure A-2), the mother-adolescent model (see Appendix C, Figure A-1) data appeared to be mildly skewed.

Two additional plots were examined to test for normality in the present data. First, a normal probability plot of the observed values verses the predicted values of parental satisfaction were examined (see Appendix C, Figures A-3 and A-4). When a normal distribution of data is present, the points form a straight line that runs from the lower-left hand corner of the graph to the upper right-hand corner. Examination of the normal probability plots supported the normality of the data in the father-adolescent model and the minor deviation in the mother-adolescent model. Further support for this conclusion was found through visual inspection of frequency histograms (see Appendix C, Figures A-5 and A-6).

In summary, the residual scatterplots, normal probability plots, and frequency histograms consistently demonstrate no major violations of the assumption of normality. Although a minor deviation was found in the mother-adolescent model, no data transformations were necessary because of the robust nature of regression analysis and the large sample size (Tabachnick & Fidel, 1983).

The Assumption of Linearity

When linearity exists, the scatterplots (see Appendix C, Figures A-1 and A-2) present a fairly uniform band of positive and negative residual scores across the range of predicted criterion variable scores. If curvilinearity exists, the overall shape of the plot will show a curved shape rather than a rectangular shape. No obvious curved shape was apparent on the scatterplot for either model.

The Assumption of Homoscedasticity

The constancy of error variance, or homoscedasticity, is an underlying assumption of least squares theory (Chatterjee & Price, 1977). That is, the predictive power of multiple regression analysis is based on the premise that the standard deviations of the errors of predication are the same for each predictor variable in the model.

Flagrant violations of the assumption of homoscedasticity may be visually detected through inspection of the scatterplots of the residual scores verses the predicted values for parental satisfaction (see Appendix C, Figures A-1 and A-2). When the band enclosing the residual scores is approximately equal in width across all values of the predicted criterion variable scores on the residual scatterplot, the assumption of homoscedasticity is met (Neter, Wasserman, & Kunter, 1983). No major violations of the assumption were detected. However, in both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models, there may be some minor problems with the assumptions of homoscedasticity. The general shape of the scatterplots indicates a slight decrease in residual scores for higher values of the predicted parental satisfaction scores. Data transformations were not attempted because the deviations were minor and difficulty in interpretation would occur should transformations be attempted (Tabachnick & Fidel, 1983).

Outliers

Outliers are data observations that demonstrate extreme variation from other scores. Using the residual scatterplots (see Appendix C, Figures A-1 and A-2), outliers may be detected by locating residual scores that are

at least three units from zero (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). In both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models, one residual occurs slightly outside this range. The potential influence of such points on the overall analysis is that outliers make a relatively large contribution to the variance, consequently reducing the R^2. The researcher is required to make judgments about the residual values that constitute outliers. In the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models, the relatively large sample sizes minimize the influence of the outliers. Thus, a decision was made to retain all data points.

Summary

The analyses conducted for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models demonstrated the following significant relationships:

1. Perceived adolescent companionship was positively related to parental satisfaction in both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models.

2. Perceived adolescent expert power was positively related to parental satisfaction in the mother-adolescent model.

3. Perceived adolescent referent power was positively related to parental satisfaction in both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models.

4. Perceived adolescent reward power was positively related to parental satisfaction in both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models.

5. The number of children was negatively related to parental satisfaction in the mother-adolescent model.

6. Married fathers reported higher levels of parental satisfaction than divorced fathers.

The combined effects of the predictor variables in both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models explained a substantial portion of the variance in the criterion variable. The R^2 values for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models were .29 and .40 respectively (see Tables 6 and 7). Furthermore, the overall predictive capacities of the models were significant at the .005 and .0001 probability levels for the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models respectively.

The residual analyses, normal probability plots, and frequency histograms demonstrated no flagrant violations of the assumptions of least squares theory. Further, the occurence of outliers was tested and determined to be of minimal consequence in either the mother-adolescent or the father-adolescent models.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The objective of this study was to examine the predictive capacity of dimensions of adolescent social competence (i.e., companionship, independence, expert power, legitimate power, referent power, reward power, and coercive power) with respect to parental satisfaction, while controlling and testing for several sociodemographic variables. The control variables were father's occupational level (a measure of socioeconomic status), number of children, marital status, mother's employment status, and residential status. In addition, analyses were conducted to determine whether gender of adolescent differences existed in the predictive capacity of aspects of adolescent social competence on parental satisfaction.

Discussion of the Results

Adolescent Companionship

Perceived adolescent companionship was expected to predict parental satisfaction in a positive manner. This hypothesis was supported in both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models. Results of this kind are consistent with previous studies indicating that adolescent companionship is associated with positive attitudes toward parental roles (Hoffman & Manis, 1978; Schvaneveldt, 1971).

In the present study, parents with adolescent offspring appeared to value the companionship of their adolescents. During their early 40s, adults often re-evaluate their personal identities with respect to past role

performances and future role expectations (Okun, 1984). Frequently, families have adolescents in the home at the same time that parents are experiencing their mid life transitions. As children become adolescents, they are able to act more like adults. Consequently, parents are able to find satisfaction from spending time with teenagers, who can now provide more adult-like companionship. Parents who attribute socially desirable qualities, characteristics, or resources to their teenagers may desire to spend time with their offspring and feel satisfied with their parental roles. In contrast, parents who do not spend time with their teenagers are likely to feel less satisfied with their performance of parental roles.

Adolescent Independence

Perceived adolescent independence was expected to be positively related to parental satisfaction. Although previous literature indicates that parents develop expectations for independence in their adolescent offspring (Manaster, 1977; Rice, 1981), no support was provided for this hypothesis.

One explanation for these results might be that parents view adolescent independence as a challenge to their own child rearing roles. When the young enter adolescence, they begin to gain resources that provide a basis for differentiation from their families of origin (Richer, 1968). Parents, in turn, perceive these resources (or qualities) in their adolescents to be indicators of independence and evaluate them as desirable (e.g., the ability to drive) or undesirable (e.g., income from selling drugs). Consequently, parents may simultaneously perceive their offsprings' independence both as evidence of success in and a challenge to parental roles.

The parents of adolescents are faced with the task of encouraging a balance between conformity to parental expectations and the development of independence in their adolescents (Peterson & Rollins, in press). This task is may be met with ambivalent feelings by parents. Although they often have positive evaluations toward the dimensions of social competence (e.g., independence) demonstrated by their offspring, the loss of parental responsibility conflicts with the identities they have formed earlier in the parent-child relationship. Thus, parents may need to alter their expectations for the performance of both parental and adolescent roles in order to perceive adolescent independence as evidence of success in parental roles. Additional research is necessary to specify the evaluations that parents make regarding adolescent independence in relation to the performance of child socialization roles.

Adolescent Expert Power

Perceived adolescent expert power was expected to demonstrate a positive relationship with parental satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported within the mother-adolescent dyad, indicating that mothers became more satisfied with parental roles to the extent that they perceived adolescent offspring as having informational resources.

Results of this kind are consistent with Smith's (in press a) theoretical presentation of adolescent expert power. When adolescents develop expertise in specific areas (e.g., jobs, hobbies, school, athletics), their mothers recognize this form of social competence, turn to them for advice, and become increasingly satisfied with parental roles. Mothers also may view this "success" as evidence of their own success (as parents) or enjoy the

accomplishments vicariously. Mothers, for example, may ask their teenage offspring for advice regarding new fashion trends or for specialized knowledge about the computer science skills that youth have acquired in school.

In contrast, this hypothesis was not supported in the father-adolescent model, perhaps indicating that fathers experience role conflict when their adolescents demonstrate expert power (or specialized knowledge) in specific areas. That is, fathers frequently perform family roles requiring specialized knowledge and receive positive feedback from significant others (e.g., family members, other parents, community members). By adhering to traditional sex-role expectations for the enactment of parental roles (Lamb 1978a), fathers often expect to provide specialized information and knowledge within family life to their offspring. Further, fathers may have less emotional investment in the success of their young (e.g., less likely to live vicariously through them). Consequently, fathers who define their role expectations to include high levels of specialized knowledge may feel challenged by adolescents who have the capacity to provide informational resources. That is, success and satisfaction in parental roles may not be recognized if fathers have not yet redefined their role expectations to accommodate greater social competence and expertise by adolescents. Further research is necessary to understand more effectively the relationship between adolescent expert power and parental satisfaction.

Adolescent Legitimate Power

Perceived adolescent legitimate power was expected to be related to parental satisfaction in a positive manner. Despite theoretical conceptions

that the parent-adolescent power structure often includes the potential "right" of adolescents to influence others (Smith, in press a; Peterson, 1977), no support was provided for this hypothesis.

One explanation for this finding pertains to the concept of parental authority in the family. Traditionally, cultural norms provide parents with legitmate authority or power over the young (Bierstedt, 1970). The parent-adolescent literature suggests that parents often perceive their adolescents to be challenging the authority or "rights" of parents as one means of influencing family matters (Montemayer, 1983; Stewart & Zaenglein-Senger, 1982). According to this viewpoint, therefore, success in parental roles requires that the parents of adolescents recognize that youthful offspring have the "right" to serve as sources of influence within the family (i.e., parental acknowledgement of adolescent legitimate power).

When parents perceive their offspring to have legitimate power, they must simultaneously acknowledge this form of adolescent social competence while relinquishing some of their own influence. Social norms, on the one hand, provide parents with the expectations that their adolescents "should" acquire a level of legitimate power. Parents of adolescents, however, also recognize that social norms require parents to retain a significant level of responsibility for and control over their offspring. Such apparent contradictions in social norms may prevent parents from recognizing the rights of their adolescents as being a factor that influences their own satisfaction with parenting.

Adolescent Referent Power

Perceived adolescent referent power was expected to predict parental satisfaction in a positive manner. This hypothesis was supported in both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models. The extent to which parents view their adolescent offspring as significant others who have the potential to provide guidance in important areas has been conceptualized as adolescent referent power (McDonald, 1979).

These findings provided empirical support for previous conceptualizations of adolescent referent power (Peterson, 1977; Smith, in press a). For parents, an important part of their own identities may consist of expectations for the performance of parental roles. Parents who perceive their adolescents to be significant others because they demonstrate social competence through positions and roles in social instituitions are attributing referent power to youth. For example, adolescents who assume leadership positions in school activities may serve as significant others to their parents who become aware of the adolescents' increased competence. Parents may also relive some of their own successes and failures during adolescence by identifying with the experiences of teenage offspring. The resulting bond that develops may enhance the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship and provide the parent with feelings of satisfaction.

Adolescent Reward Power

Perceived adolescent reward power was expected to predict parental satisfaction in a positive manner. This hypothesis was strongly supported in both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models. These findings provided additional support for existing conceptualizations of

reward power (McDonald, 1977; Peterson, 1977; Peterson & Rollins, in press; Smith, 1970a, 1970b, in press a). By definiton, reward power is the perceived ability of one person to mediate desired resources for another person. Consequently, parents attribute reward power to adolescents who can provide them with positive experiences.

Socially competent adolescents are perceived as having valued resources and are capable of providing a wide range of rewards to their parents. For example, adolescents can provide support in times of crisis as part of the therapeutic role (Nye, 1976). Adolescent reward power exists to the extent that parents perceive their adolescents as having valued attributes that can make them feel good.

Adolescent reward power, therefore, can potentially provide parents with feedback concerning their performance of parental roles. Adolescent offspring who have the ability to mediate rewards to their parents often are perceived as meeting parental expectations for an important dimension of social competence. Parents, in turn who perceive adolescent reward power often evaluate their parenting experiences as successful and satisfying. Further research is necessary to identify the specific types of rewards that adolescents are capable of providing to their parents.

Adolescent Coercive Power

Perceived adolescent coercive power was expected to be negatively related to parental satisfaction. When adolescents were perceived as having the resources to mediate negative consequences toward their parents, lower levels of parental satisfaction were expected. Despite theoretical support

for this relationship (Smith, in press b), no support was found for the hypothesis in either the mother-adolescent or the father-adolescent models.

It is possible that the potential of adolescents to make their parents feel bad by mediating negative consequences may be insufficient to have an inverse relationship with parental satisfaction. Parents who perceived coercive power in their adolescents were expected both to recognize that potential as a form of social competence and have negative attitudes toward the possibility that their adolescents might actually use this resource. In contrast, no relationship was evident between coercive power and parental satisfaction.

One explanation for this lack of relationship is provided by Goode (1972), who suggested that potential influence must be distinguished from actual influence. Simply because adolescents have the ability (or potential) to mediate negative consequences does not mean that they are perceived as actually exercizing this ability very often. Thus, the potential ability of the adolescent to be coercive is not a factor in determining the parent's level of satisfaction within the parent-youth relationship. However, further research on the effects of the actual use of coercion is required.

Sociodemographic Variables

Father's occupational level. Although previous literature suggested that parental expectations for the qualities and characteristics of youth often vary according to the family's socioeconomic status (Gecas, 1979; Hoffman, 1970; 1980; Kohn, 1977), the results of the present study indicated that the father's occupational level (an indicator of socioeconomic status) did not predict parental satisfaction. Given the conceptual support for such

a relationship, the current findings may result from methodological issues. For example, the diversity in family socioeconomic status among families was not evenly distributed since the sample was biased towards lower-middle class status. Future studies might measure socioeconomic standing by a different measure such as parent's educational level. Additional resesarch is necessary to determine if other indicators of socioeconomic status predict parental satisfaction.

Number of children. A negative relationship was found between the number of children in the family and mothers' parental satisfaction but the number of children did not predict fathers' parental satisfaction. These results were consistent with previous literature suggesting that mothers have the primary responsibilities for child socialization roles (Hoffman, 1978). Consequently, when the number of children and adolescents in the family increases, the role demands for the mother's perfomance of child socialization roles increases. Mothers who reported less satisfaction with parental roles tended to have larger numbers of children but those with fewer children reported greater satisfaction with parental roles.

Marital status. Marital status predicted parental satisfaction for fathers but not for mothers. Married fathers reported higher levels of parental satisfaction than did divorced fathers. A possible explanation for this finding is that divorced fathers often have a diminished role in the socialization of their children compared to married fathers (Hetherington, 1979; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1976).

The fathers' parental role performance often differs according to their marital status (Aldous, 1978). Married fathers, for example, often have

frequent parental role involvements that make parental role expectations a regular dimension of their identity. Divorced fathers, on the other hand, generally have less contact with their offspring or difficulty with the mothers over discharging parental roles and therefore have fewer parental role expectations as part of their identities. Consequently, divorced fathers are less likely to view their child rearing experiences as satisfying.

Mother's employment status. In recent years, considerable attention has been given to the relationship between mother's employment status and family roles (Beckman, 1978). The present study, however, yielded no relationship between the mother's employment status and parental satisfaction for either the mother-adolescent or the father-adolescent models. These results are consistent with Gove and Peterson's (1980) conception of a balance between the advantages and disadvantages of maternal employment. That is, although maternal employment places additional role demands on the family, the emotional and financial benefits of these combined roles provide satisfaction. The mother's employment status, therefore, did not predict parental satisfaction for the present sample.

Residential status. In contrast to previous literature suggesting that parents have different expectations for offspring depending upon whether they reside in towns or rural areas (Arnold & Fawcett, 1975), no relationship was found between residential status and parental satisfaction. It is possible that the cultural norms and role expectations for family members were similar for the present sample in both the small town and surrounding rural area. Additional research is necessary to determine if residential

status predicts different levels of parental satisfaction when selecting samples from a more divergent geographic spectrum.

Gender of adolescent. No differences were found between the gender of adolescents and parental satisfaction in either the mother-adolescent or the father-adolescent models. That is, the levels of parental satisfaction did not vary with the gender of the adolescents for either mothers or fathers. Consequently, no evidence is provided to support the notion that parents in this sample have differential role expectations for the social competence of their adolescents. It is possible that parents have similar expectations in terms of desired characteristics of their adolescents for both sons and daughters but different expectations concerning how those characteristics are demonstrated. For example, companionship from daughters might be of a different nature than that of sons. Additional research is necessary to determine if parents derive the same or different levels of satisfaction from daughters and sons.

Theoretical and Research Implications

The results of this study indicated that several dimensions of adolescent social competence (companionship, expert power, referent power, and reward power) were related to parental satisfaction. Previous theoretical conceptualizations have suggested that the qualities of children and adolescents have the potential to influence their parents (Anderson, 1981; Bell, 1978; Peterson & Rollins, in press; Walters & Walters, 1980). Much of the parent-adolescent research, however, has focused on the opposite direction of influence--or the potential or actual abilitiy of parents to

influence outcomes in children and youth. In contrast, the present study provides evidence that the characteristics of adolescents, specifically, dimensions of social competence, are related to parental satisfaction. Correspondingly, four theoretical and research implications follow:

Parent-Adolescent Relations as Symbolic Interaction

According to symbolic interactionist thought, individuals come to understand themselves (i.e., the self) through their perceptions of their own behaviors and interactions with others. The present study provides empirical support for this conceptualization using the criterion variable of parental satisfaction.

By the time youth enter the period of adolescence, parents and their offspring have had a continuing series of social interactions. Throughout this process, parents have developed role expectations for their offspring. For example, parents in the United States often expect that their teenage offspring will demonstrate social competentce by functioning as effective companions. Therefore, parents who perceive their offspring as socially competent often evaluate their adolescents as successfully meeting role expectations for adolescent qualities and characteristics. Consequently, parents evaluate their performance of the child socialization roles as being successful role performance of their offspring.

Adolescent Social Competence and the Parent-Adolescent Role Structure

Dimensions of adolescent social competence are theoretically linked to the ongoing changes in the parent-youth role structure and accompanying role expectations. From an interactionist perspective, the family is a system of interacting positions, roles, and expectations (Aldous, 1978). Because

family interaction is dynamic rather than static in nature, the family role structure changes over time. For example, as adolescents demonstrate increased social competence to parents, the role expectations between parents and adolescents shift in the direction of greater influence by youth within the family.

Research and the Dynamics of the Parent-Adolescent Relaionships

An important theoretical contribution of the present study is the investigation of parental perceptions of their relationship with adolescents. Previous research on the parent-adolescent relationship have focused on adolescents' perceptions of parental qualities and resources (Rollins & Thomas, 1975, 1979). In contrast, the present study provides insights into the parents' perceptions of the parent-youth relationship. That is, it appears that parents' perceptions of adolescent characteristics may be related to parental satisfaction. Additional research is necessary to refine theoretical conceptions of the other aspects of parent-youth relations (e.g., adolescent behaviors, the similarity between parental and adolescent perceptions of their relationships) that are associated with parental satisfaction.

Research on Parental Satisfaction

The literature relating to parental satisfaction is very limited. Given the strong relationships found in this study between specific dimensions of adolescent social competence and parental satisfaction, it appears that the construct of parental satisfaction needs additional attention by investigators. Many questions remain unanswered regarding the factors that are associated with parental satisfaction. The qualities and characteristics of

youth related to parental satisfaction, for example, may vary according to the age of youth. For example, although adolescents often provide desirable companionship to their parents, preschool children often provide parental satisfaction by providing opportunities for parents to perform nurturant roles (Hoffman & Manis, 1978). Considerable refinement of the measures and conceptualization of parental satisfaction is needed to develop a middle-range theory of the attributes of children and youth as predictors of parental satisfaction.

Implications for Practioners

The major focus of this study was the examination of the relationship between dimensions of perceived adolescent social competence and parental satisfaction. These findings have importance for adolescents, parents, family life specialists, educators, counselors, family therapists, and other professionals who are concerned with intervention in family life. Three major implications of this study have been identified for practioners:

Parental Satisfaction as a Component of Life Satisfaction

Specific dimensions of social competence that parents attribute to their adolescents are imporant for evaluating the quality of their parental experience. Furthermore, parental satisfaction seems to be a major component of life satisfaction (Campbell et al., 1976). A recent conceptualization of adult development during midlife focuses on three major issues: (a) personal devleopment, (b) family development, and (c) career development (Okun, 1984). That is, the potential sources of life satisfaction during midlife pertain to these three major arenas of life.

Parents, then, who view their offspring as socially competent often experience satisfaction in one of the most important dimensions of their lives--parental roles. When parents perceive their teenage offspring as having desirable social and personal characteristics, they evaluate themselves as having effectively enacted their child socialization roles. Consequently, parents who see their adolescents as being socially competent have succeeded in an important aspect of family development that contributes to parents' evaluations of their overall life satisfaction.

In the last several years, social scientitists and journalists have become interested in the successful progression of adults through the life stages (Gould, 1979; Levinsion, 1978; Sheehy, 1976). In general, this literature portrays middle adulthood as a period characterized by a process of questioning one's performance of important life roles. During this time, men who have emphasized work roles often turn toward family roles and women who emphasized family roles begin to look toward work roles as sources of life satisfaction (Okun, 1984). During these transitions, mothers and fathers continue to derive satisfaction from their previous home or work roles. Thus, parental satisfaction provides potenitial life satisfaction for both fathers and mothers during midlife.

Correspondingly, parents who feel successful in their parental roles are likely to progress through midlife with less difficulty because they are making positive evaluations of their past performance of important roles. That is, parents who perceive their adolescents to be socially competent often make positivite evaluations of past parental role performances and report parental satisfaction. In contrast, parents who see their adolescents as demonstrating low levels of social competence may evaluate negatively

their past performance of parental roles. In order to have high levels of life satisfaction, therefore, parents in midlife may need to perceive their offspring as being socially competent.

Adolescent Social Competence and Parent-Adolescent Conflict

Conflict is a common theme found throughout the literature on parent-adolescent relationships (Montemayer, 1983). Recent conceptualizations by Smith (in press b), however, suggest that adolescents also have the potential to develop qualities that are compatible with parental expectations. The present study supports the idea that adolescents who meet their parents' expectations on dimensions of social competence can contribute to the quality of their parents' lives.

A fundamental issue in understanding parent-adolescent conflict is the discrepancy between parental expectations and perceived adolescent qualities (Stewart & Zaengleiner-Senger, 1982). Throughout the adolescent development literature, emphasis is placed on the importance of developing aspects of social competence (Montemayer, in press). In general, adolescents begin to test their abilities for enacting important life roles. For example, adolescents who are capable of driving a family car often seek to demonstrate their social competence through opportunities to drive to events such as the high school football game. Parents, however, may have alternative plans for the family car and perceive this demonstration of expert power as a possible source of confict. Parents, then, often re-evaluate their expectations for performance of parental and adolescent roles to acknowledge the emerging competence of their offspring.

Professionals who deal with parent-adolescent conflict (e.g., educators, counselors, therapists, ministers) can encourage parental satisfaction by assisting parents of adolescents to distinguish between conflict based on social competenece from that based on the lack of social competence. That is, when parents perceive conflict associated with valued qualities (i.e., those meeting the parent's expectations for adolescent roles), satisfaction may result from parental evaluations of success in parental roles. On the other hand, lower levels of parental satisfaction may emerge from perceptions of parent-adolescent conflict related to adolescent qualities that demonstrate minimal adolescent social competence (i.e., as parents evaluate their success in parenting in a negative manner). Therapists and other professionals, then, can assist parents in distinguishing between desired outcomes in adolescents and undesired outcomes that result in conflict.

The Rewards of Parent-Adolescent Relationships

The potential ability of adolescents to provide rewards for their parents is an aspect of family life that has received minimal attention. An emphasis upon the negative effects of children and adolescents on their parents (e.g., Glenn & McLanahan, 1982) has overshadowed the positive aspects of the parent-youth relationship. In attempts to reduce or resolve parent-adolescent conflicts, minimal attention has been given to the resources and qualities of adolescents that contribute to parental satisfaction.

In contrast, the present study supports the notion that adolescent reward power is related to parental satisfaction. Family therapists, for example, may seek to identify specific sources of rewards that adolescents

have with respect to their parents. For example, a therapist or family life specialist may enhance the parent-adolescent relationship by assisting parents in identifying specific qualities of the adolescent that provide the potential for contributing to positive evaluations of the parent-youth relationship. That is, adolescents might provide satisfaction for their parents through such "rewards" as providing emotional support or helping with daily chores. Parental and adolescent roles expectations often can be altered to provide potentially desirable outlets for the rewards.

A second point relating to adolescent social competence and rewards for parents is the finding that adolescent companionship positively predicted parental satisfaction. The present study found that parents who reported spending positive time with their adolescents perceived greater satisfaction with their parental roles. Interventionists who work with parents and adolescents, therefore, might encourage parents and adolescents to spend more positive time with each other.

Professionals concerned with parent-adolescent relationships can convey information, develop programs, and provide services that emphasize the potential of adolescents to provide rewards and companionship for parents. Family life specialists, for example, could write articles for extension and popular magazines that parallel materials about young children (e.g., titles such as "Enjoying your Teenager"). The perception of parent-adolescent relationships might be reframed from a conflict orientation to a reward orientation by presenting the potential of adolescents to enhance the lives of adults.

Limitations

Four methodological considerations were identified that may have influenced the findings of the present study. These factors, pertain to the sampling and instrumentation procedures of the study.

Nature of the Sample

Because of the nature of the sample, the generalization of these results to parents with a more diverse demographic, socioeconomic, or religious profile may be difficult. The subjects who participated tended to be white, lower middle class, and Protestant. Although the sample contained parents from both towns and rural areas, none of the participants were from large urban areas. Further, the sample population resided in a specific geographic lociation in eastern Tennessee which may have specific values or expectations regarding parent-adolescent relationships.

Correlational Nature of the Data Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the relationships between the predictor and criterion variables. However, although associations were found between dimensions of adolescent social competence and parental satisfaction, it is not appropriate to conclude that such variables "influence" or "precede" parental satisfaction. That is, correlational results do not specify causality or the direction of influence.

Social Desirability

A major limitation of self-report questionnaires is that subjects tend to respond with attitudes that conform to the prescriptions of social norms rather than actual perceptions or feelings. For example, within the United

States, norms prescribe that parents should derive satisfaction from their parental roles. Consequently, questionnaire data may be effected by the tendency for parents to respond in a socially desirable manner consistent with social norms.

Validity

As with many social science measurements, there was a lack of previously validated measures for the variables examined in this study. The power scales that were used in this evaluation, for example, have received limited evaluation for validity. Previous scales of parental satisfaction were not available, making the construction of valid items more difficult.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the predictive capacity of dimensions of perceived adolescent social competence (companionship, independence, expert power, legitimate power, referent power, reward power, and coercive power) on parental satisfaction. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine relationships between the predictor and criterion variables in the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent dyads.

Both the mother-adolescent and the father-adolescent models demonstrated significant results from the regression analyses. Support was found for the predicted positive relationships between companionship, referent power, and reward power and parental satisfaction in both models. Partial support was found for the predicted positive relationship between expert power and parental satisfaction. No support was found for the

hypotheses pertaining to independence, legitimate power, or coercive power. Predictions for the number of children in the family and marital status (two control variables) received partial support. No support, however, was found for such predictor variables as father's occupational level, mother's employment status, gender of adolescent, or residential status.

Results varied somewhat between the fathers' model and the mothers' model. Although companionship, referent power, and reward power were positively related to both mothers' and fathers' parental satisfaction, expert power was related only to mothers' parental satisfaction. The number of children variable demonstrated a negative relationship as a predictor of parental satisfaction in the mother-adolescent model. Married fathers reported higher levels of parental satisfaction than divorced fathers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

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Section 1. Items related to parental satisfaction (from SPHSS)

a. Overall, I am satisfied being the parent of this teenager.

b. Generally speaking, being the parent of this teengaer has been one of the best things in my life.

Section 2. Items related to adolescent companionship (from SPHSS)

a. As a parent I enjoy doing things with this teenager.

b. As a parent I share many activities with this teenager.

Section 3. Items related to adolescent independence (from SPHSS)

a. I believe that this teenager has enough freedom.

b. This teenager chooses his/her own friends quite often without my control.

c. This teenager decides what is right and wrong quite often without my control.

d. This teenager decides what clothes s/he should wear quite often without my control.

e. This teenager chooses the person that s/he should date quite often without my control.

f. I have confidence in this teenager's ability to make enough of his/her own decisions.

g. This teenager is often very helpful by contributing to decisions about family matters.

h. This teenager makes enough decisions on his/her own about career goals.

i. This teenager makes many decisions on his/her own about educational goals.

j. Quite often this teenager is his/her "own person."

Section 4. Items related to adolescent expert power (from SPHSS)

a. This teenager knows a great deal about future career possibilities.

b. This teenager knows a great deal about how to get a good education.

c. This teenager knows a great deal about how to choose the right kind of dating partner.

d. This teenager knows a great deal about how to choose the right kind of friends.

Section 5. Items related to adolescent legitimate power (from SPHSS)

a. This teenager has a right to choose his/her own occupational goals.

b. This teenager has a right to choose his/her own educational goals.

c. This teenager has a right to choose his/her own dating partners.

d. This teenager has a right to choose his/her own friends.

Section 6. Items related to adolescent referent power (from SPHSS)

a. This teenager's wishes should be given a great deal of importance when it comes to making decisions about his/her relationships with members of the opposite sex.

b. This teenager's opinions should be given much weight when it comes to making decisions about his/her education.

c. This teenager's opinions should be given a great deal of importance when it comes to choosing his/her occupational goals.

Section 7. Items related to adolescent reward power (from SPHSS)

a. This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel very good by choosing the right kind of friends.

b. This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel very good by choosing the right kind of educational goals.

c. This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel very good by chooding the right kind of occupational goals.

d. This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel good by choosing the right kind of dating partner.

Section 8. Items related to adolescent coercive power (from SPHSS)

a. This teenager is the kind of person who can make me feel bad when we have a hard time talking about important family matters.

b. This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel bad by choosing the wrong kind of friends.

c. This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel bad by choosing the wrong kind of educational goals.

d. This teenager is the kind of person who could make me feel bad by choosing the wrong kind of occupational goals.

e. This teenager is the kind of person who could make me suffer by choosing the wrong kind of dating partners.

f. This teenager is the kind of person who could make me suffer by not doing what I tell him/her to do.

Section 9. Items related to father's occupational level (from SHSS)

a. If your father (male guardian) is employed, what is his job title? Please be specific.

_____

_____

b. What does your father (male guardian) do? Please give a full descripstion such as: "is an assembly line worker in a large factory" or "oversees a sales force of 10 people."

_____

_____

Section 10. Item related number of children (from SHSS)

a. How many children and teenagers are there in your family?

_____

Section 11. Item related to marital status (from SHSS)

a. Are your parents:

Circle your answer

6 Married

5 Divorced

4 Separated

3 Widowed

2 Single

1 Other, please explain _____

_____

Section 12. Items related to mother's employment status (from SHSS)

a. Is your mother (female guardian) presently employed outside the home? Circle your answer.

1 Yes

2 No

3 She is retired from employment

Section 13. Item related to gender of adolescent (from SHSS)

a. What is your sex? Circle your answer.

1 Male

2 Female

Section 14. Item related to residential status (from SHSS)

a. Do you live in: Circle your answer:

1 A town or city

2 A rural area

APPENDIX B

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Table A-1

Descriptive Statistics for the Mother-Adolescent Model

	Mean	Standard deviation	Number of cases
PREDICTOR VARIABLES			
Companionship	4.77	1.16	313
Independence	28.10	3.36	313
Expert power	11.71	2.04	313
Legitimate power	12.55	1.59	313
Referent power	9.51	1.34	313
Reward power	12.56	1.59	313
Coercive power	15.17	3.52	313
Father's occupational level	39.85	23.32	313
Number of children	3.07	1.64	313
Marital status	0.09	0.28	313
Mother's employment status	0.49	0.50	313
Gender of adolescent	0.61	0.49	313
Residential status	0.58	0.50	313
CRITERION VARIABLE			
Parental satisfaction	6.87	1.10	313

Table A-2

Descriptive Statistics for the Father-Adolescent Model

	Mean	Standard deviation	Number of cases
PREDICTOR VARIABLES			
Companionship	4.78	1.16	316
Independence	28.09	3.35	316
Expert power	11.72	2.04	316
Legitimate power	12.54	1.58	316
Referent power	9.51	1.34	316
Reward power	12.57	1.85	316
Coercive power	15.14	3.51	316
Father's occupational level	40.07	23.36	316
Number of children	3.07	1.64	316
Marital status	0.08	0.28	316
Mother's employment status	0.49	0.50	316
Gender of adolescent	0.61	0.49	316
Residential status	0.58	0.50	316
CRITERION VARIABLE			
Parental satisfaction	6.60	1.10	316

APPENDIX C

SCATTERPLOTS FROM RESIDUAL ANALYSES

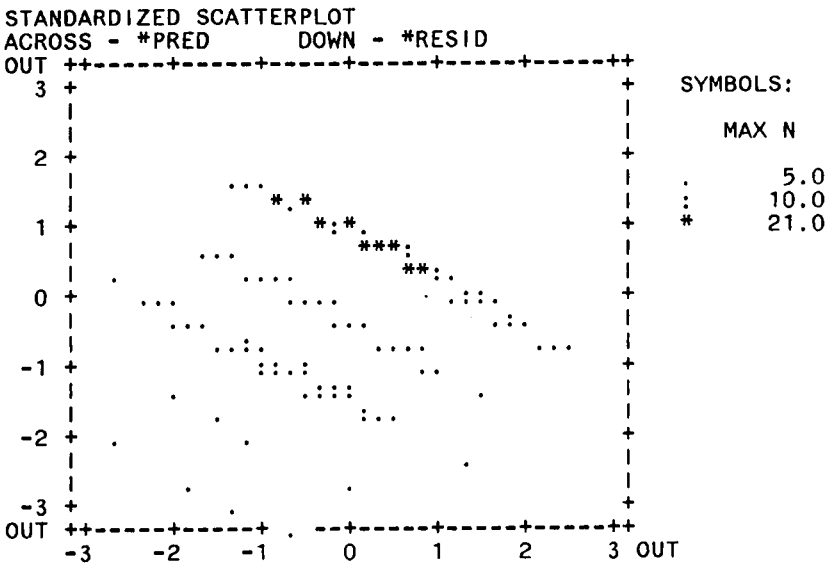


Figure A-1. Residual Scatterplot for the Mother-Adolescent Model

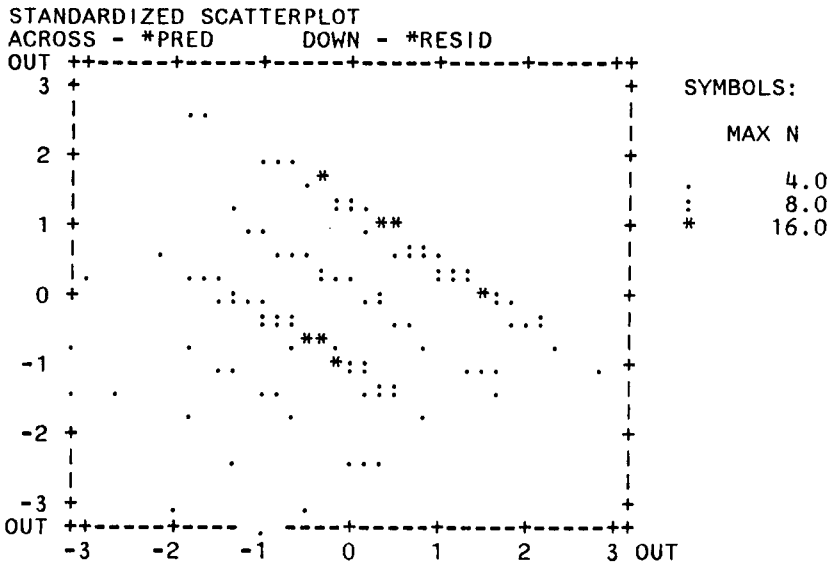


Figure A-2. Residual Scatterplot for the Father-Adolescent Model

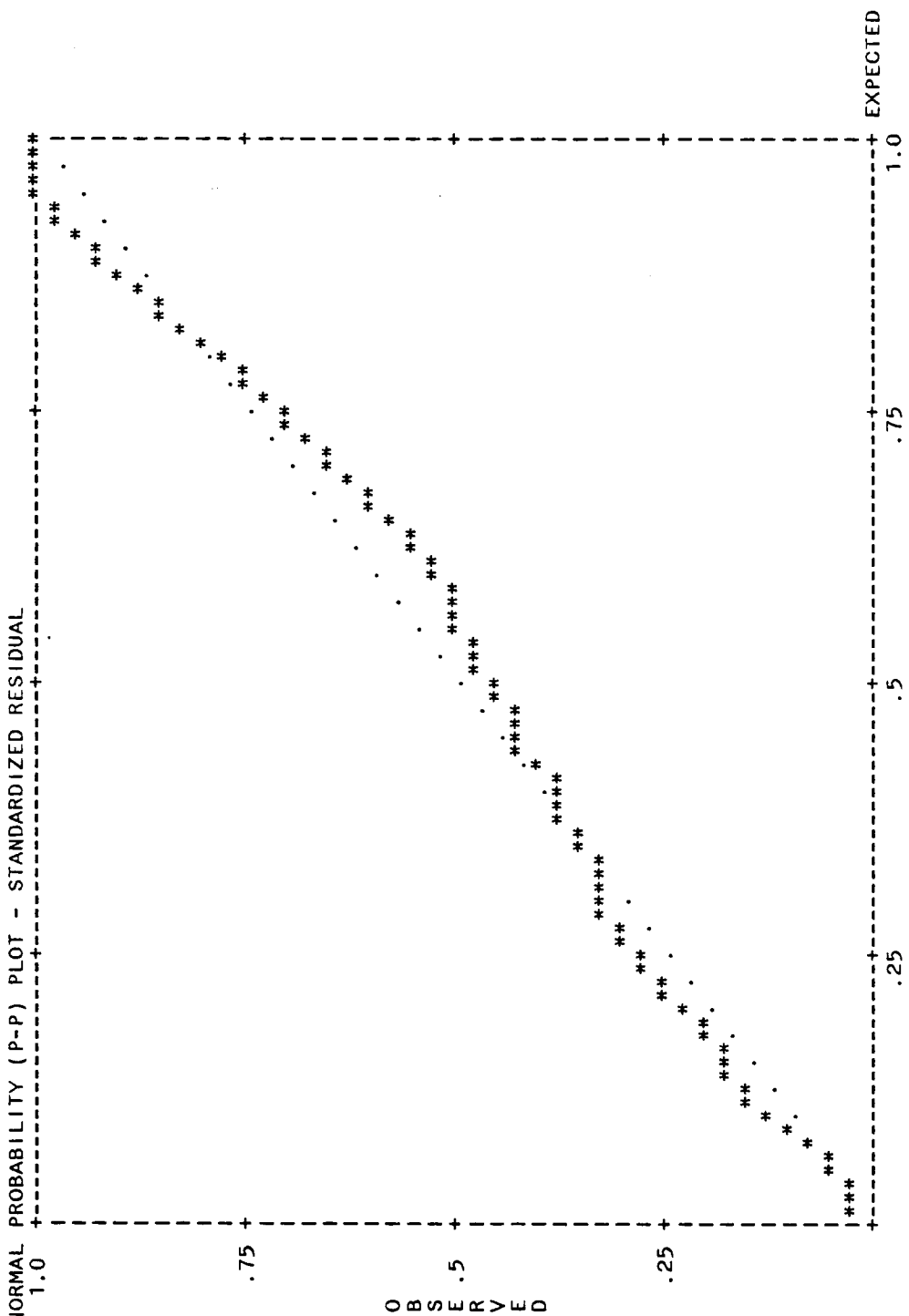


Figure A-3. Normal Probability Plot for the Mother-Adolescent Model

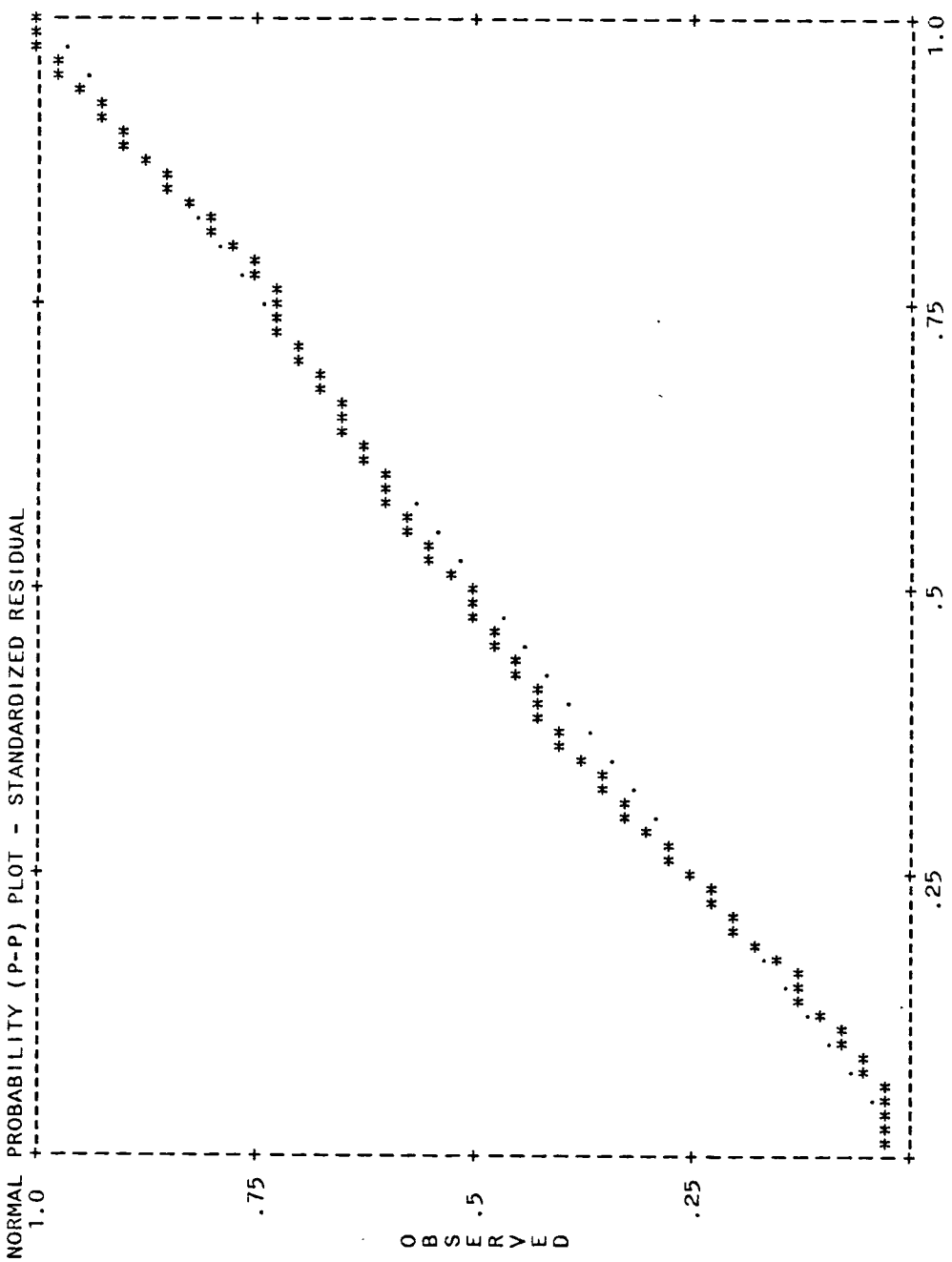


Figure A-4. Normal Probability Plot for the Father-Adolescent Model

MPASATRS

COUNT	MIDPOINT	ONE SYMBOL EQUALS APPROXIMATELY 1.00 OCCURRENCE
1	-3.30	*
1	-3.05	*
0	-2.80	
2	-2.55	**
1	-2.30	*
1	-2.05	*
5	-1.80	*****
16	-1.55	****************
24	-1.30	************************
16	-1.05	****************
29	-.80	*****************************
20	-.55	********************
26	-.30	**************************
24	-.05	************************
22	.20	**********************
41	.45	***
37	.70	*************************************
35	.95	***********************************
25	1.20	*************************
12	1.45	************
8	1.70	********

```
I....+....I....+....I....+....I....+....I....+....I....+....I
0         10        20        30        40        50
          HISTOGRAM FREQUENCY
```

VALID CASES 346 MISSING CASES 43

Figure A-5. Normality Histogram for the Mother-Adolescent Model

FPASATRS

COUNT	MIDPOINT	ONE SYMBOL EQUALS APPROXIMATELY 1.00 OCCURRENCE
1	-3.733	*
0	-3.400	
1	-3.067	*
1	-2.733	*
3	-2.400	***
1	-2.067	*
3	-1.733	***
13	-1.400	*************
34	-1.067	**********************************
39	-.733	***
38	-.400	**
41	-.067	***
35	.267	**********************************
27	.600	***************************
37	.933	**************************************
20	1.267	********************
15	1.600	***************
4	1.933	****
1	2.267	*
1	2.600	*
1	2.933	*

```
I....+....I....+....I....+....I....+....I....+....I....+....I
0         10        20        30        40        50
          HISTOGRAM FREQUENCY
```

VALID CASES 316 MISSING CASES 36

Figure A-6. Normality Histogram for the Father-Adolescent Model

VITA

Carolyn Sue Henry was born in Newton, Kansas, on January 31, 1955. Shortly thereafter, her family moved to Wichita, Kansas, where she resided until graduating from Wichita Southeast High School in May 1973. Ms. Henry graduated magna cum laude from Oklahoma Christian College in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma where she majored in Social Studies and graduated with a Bachelor of Science degree in April 1976. As a student at Oklahoma Christian College, she was actively involved in student government, residence hall council, and social service organizations, holding leadership positions in each.

Ms. Henry studied counseling and student personnel administration at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, Oklahoma, completing a Master of Science degree in July 1977. Upon completing the program requirements and internships in student services, she accepted a position as Director of Career Planning and Placement at Pepperdine University in Malibu, California.

During her 3 years at Pepperdine (1977-80), she became active in the Western College Placement Council and received training in Career/Life Planning with the National Career Development Project. Ms. Henry also completed graduate work in counseling, research methodology, and statistics at the University of California, Los Angeles.

In the fall of 1980, Ms. Henry returned to full-time graduate study at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, where she received a Master of Science degree in August 1981, majoring in Child and Family Studies. She worked as a graduate teaching assistant in both the Child and Family

Studies Department and in the College of Home Economics. In addition to teaching undergradute courses, she coordinated the undergraduate Child and Family Studies field placement program, served as a research assistant, consulted in the microcomputer lab, and worked with the administrative functions of the College. Presently, Ms. Henry is the research coordinator for a study of parent adolescent communications.

Ms. Henry served as an officer of the Child and Family Studies Graduate Student Organizaiton for three years and as a representative to the Graduate Student Council. Ms. Henry served as graduate student representative to the Strategic Planning Task Force, appointed by the Dean to determine future directions for the College of Home Economics. Other committee appointments were with the Graduate Council, the Academic Policy Committee, and the Curriculum Committee.

During the course of her academic career, Ms. Henry received a number of awards. As an undergradute she was on the Dean's List and was invited to join two honor societies: Alpha Chi and Phi Alpha Theta. In addition to serving as president of the Oklahoma Christian College Chapter of Phi Alpha Theta, she received the chapter award for Outstanding History Student of the Year in 1975-76. While at the University of Tennessee, Ms. Henry was invited to join two additional honor societies: Phi Kappa Phi and Omicron Nu. In 1983, she recieved a Women of Achievement Award from The Univeristy of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Ms. Henry has been involved in several professional organizations: the National Vocational Guidance Assocaition, the Oklahoma Personnel and Guidance Association, the Oklahoma College Personnel Assocaition, and the Western College Placement Association, and the Tennessee Council on

Family Relations (treasurer, 1984). She presented papers at conferences of the American Personnel and Guidance Assocaition, the American College Personnel Association, the Western College Placement Association, the National Council on Family Relations, the Popular Culture Assocaition, and the Popular Culture Association in the South.

The current areas of specialization for Ms. Henry are parent-adolescent interactions, family theory, human development, individual/family advocacy, career development, program evaluation, and microcomputer applications in human services.