

**THE EFFECTS OF FATHER
ABSENCE ON CHILD AND
FAMILY ADJUSTMENT**

by

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF FATHER ABSENCE ON CHILD AND FAMILY ADJUSTMENT

The aim of the study was to investigate the effects of father absence on child and family adjustment in relation to age, sex, maternal employment and education, family system and the degree of turbulence (i.e. the amount of conflict and physical abuse in the family). The sample consisted of 447 low SES Indian children (ranging in age from six to eighteen years) and 204 of their mothers from intact, widowed and divorced families.

The instruments used were: Child Behaviour Rating Scale (Cassel, 1962); Semantic Differential; Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith, 1967); Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations Questionnaire (HSRC, 1968); Family Environment Scale (Moos, 1986); Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation (Roth, 1961) and Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965).

The following significant results were obtained. Teachers' perceptions of adjustment were more positive for children from intact than father-absent families, for females than males, for children from secondary than primary schools, for children from nuclear than to extended family systems, for children whose mothers had secondary, compared to, primary school education and for children who experienced low, compared to high turbulence.

Children from the divorced, compared to the intact and widowed groups, perceived their fathers more negatively, and their teachers more positively. Females from intact and divorced families perceived their families and schools more positively than males, while the reverse applied to the widowed group. Fathers from low, compared to high, turbulence families were perceived more positively.

Adolescents from intact families indicated greater personal freedom than the divorced group. Those who experienced high, compared to low, turbulence had lower self-control, moral sense and personal freedom. Females from intact families were better adjusted on general sociability. This applied to males in both father-absent groups.

Married, compared to single mothers had more positive perceptions of self, family and mother-child relationships. These differences also applied to working mothers, compared to housewives, for mothers with secondary, compared to primary, school education and for mothers who experienced low, compared to high, turbulence.

The results were discussed with respect to their theoretical and practical implications for policy makers, mental health workers and educationists.

*I dedicate this dissertation
to my loving mother, Oomah
Budree for her inspiration and
encouragement.*

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SPECIAL NOTE

I hereby declare that this whole dissertation, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my original work, both in conception and in execution.

In view of the copyright on the Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations (PHSF) Questionnaire, Family Environment Scale (FES), Child Behaviour Rating Scale (CBRS) and the Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation (MCRE), it has not been possible to reproduce these tests in this dissertation. Information pertaining to the above tests may be directed to the sources given in the reference section.

CONTENTS

	Page
Acknowledgements	
Abstract	
CHAPTER ONE : STATEMENT OF PURPOSE	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 NEED FOR THE RESEARCH	2
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	5
1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH	7
1.5 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES	8
1.5.1 Hypotheses Related to Psychosocial Adjustment of Child and Adolescent	9
1.5.2 Hypotheses Related to Child's Perceptions of Self, Family and School	11
1.5.3 Hypotheses Related to Mother's Perceptions of Self, Family and Family Relationships	12
1.5.4 Hypotheses Related to the Interrela- tionships Between Children's, Mothers' and Teachers' Perceptions of Psycho- social Adjustment	14
1.6 DEFINITION OF TERMS	14
1.6.1 Psychosocial Adjustment	14
1.6.2 Degree of Turbulence	15
✓ 1.6.3 Self-Esteem	15
✓ 1.6.4 Social Support	16
1.6.5 Family Environment	17
✓ 1.6.6 Mother-Child Relationships	18
1.6.7 Family Structure	19

1.6.8	Family System	19
1.7	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	20
1.7.1	The Sample	20
1.7.2	Methodology	21
CHAPTER TWO	: LITERATURE REVIEW	23
2.1	INTRODUCTION	23
2.2	CHILD CHARACTERISTICS AND PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IN INTACT AND FATHER- ABSENT FAMILIES	26
2.2.1	Child's Age	26
2.2.2	Sex Differences	31
2.3	DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FAMILY AND PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IN INTACT AND FATHER-ABSENT FAMILIES	35
2.3.1	Family Size	35
2.3.2	Socio-Economic Status	38
2.3.3	Maternal Educational Level	41
2.3.4	Maternal Employment Status	42
2.4	SITUATIONAL FACTORS AND PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IN INTACT AND FATHER- ABSENT FAMILIES	44
2.4.1	Reasons for Father Absence	44
2.4.2	Parent-Child Relationships	55
2.4.3	Marital Conflict and Turbulence	61
2.4.4	Social Support Systems	63

2.5	CONCLUSION	67
CHAPTER THREE : METHODOLOGY		71
3.1	INTRODUCTION	71
3.2	SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE TO DEFINE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES	71
3.3	THE SAMPLE	73
3.4	THE INSTRUMENTS	79
3.4.1	The Biographical Inventory	79
3.4.2	The Child Behavior Rating Scale	80
3.4.3	Self-Esteem Inventory	82
3.4.4	Semantic Differential	82
3.4.5	The Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations Questionnaire	83
3.4.6	The Family Environment Scale	89
3.4.7	The Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation	92
3.4.8	Self-Esteem Scale	94
3.5	PROCEDURE	95
3.5.1	Data Collection from Teachers	95
3.5.2	Data Collection from Children	96
3.5.3	Data Collection from Mothers	97
3.6	CONCLUSION	98

CHAPTER FOUR : RESULTS	99
4.1 INTRODUCTION	99
4.2 TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT	100
4.2.1 The Influence of Sex, Age and Parents' Marital Status on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	100
4.2.2 The Influence of Parents' Marital Status and Family System on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	112
4.2.3 The Influence of Maternal Educational Level and Parents' Marital Status on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	115
4.2.4 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	118
4.2.5 The Influence of Child's Age at Marital Disruption and Family Size on Teacher's Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	119
4.3 TEACHERS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REMEDIAL EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGIST/SOCIAL WORKER INTERVENTION	120
4.4 CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, FAMILY AND SCHOOL	124
4.4.1 The Influence of Age and Parents' Marital Status on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School	125
4.4.2 The Influence of Sex and Parents' Marital Status on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School	132
4.4.3 The Influence of Family System and Parents' Marital Status on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School	138

4.4.4	The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School	142
4.4.5	The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School	143
4.5	ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF ADJUSTMENT	145
4.5.1	The Influence of Sex and Parents' Marital Status on Adolescents' Perceptions of Adjustment	145
4.5.2	The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Adolescents' Perceptions of Adjustment	150
4.5.3	The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Adolescents' Perceptions of Adjustment	152
4.6	MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS IN INTACT, WIDOWED AND DIVORCED FAMILIES	153
4.6.1	The Influence of Family System and Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members	154
4.6.2	The Influence of Employment Status on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members	159
4.6.3	The Influence of Educational Level on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members	162
4.6.4	The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members	163
4.7	MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT IN INTACT, WIDOWED AND DIVORCED FAMILIES	166
4.7.1	The Influence of Marital Status and Family System on Family Environment	166

4.7.2	The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Family Environment	171
4.7.3	The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Family Environment	171
4.7.4	The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Family Environment	173
4.8	MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS IN INTACT, WIDOWED AND DIVORCED FAMILIES	176
4.8.1	The Influence of Family System and Marital Status on Mother-Child Relationships	176
4.8.2	The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Mother-Child Relationships	180
4.8.3	The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Mother-Child Relationships	181
4.9	THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT, MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS, SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN	184
4.9.1	The Relationships between Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family and Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	186
4.9.2	The Relationships between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Family Environment	186
4.9.3	The Relationships between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Mother-Child Relationships	187
4.9.4	The Relationships between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Children's Perceptions of Self	188
4.10	THE INTERRELATIONS AMONG CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS	188

4.10.1	The Relationships between Children's and Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members.	190
4.10.2	The Relationships between Children's Perceptions of Self and Family and Maternal Perceptions of Family Environment and Mother-Child Relationships	191
4.11	THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG MOTHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS AND FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS	192
4.11.1	The Relationships between Maternal Self-Esteem and Perceptions of Self and Family Members	193
4.11.2	The Relationships between Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members and Family Environment	194
4.11.3	The Relationships between Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members and Mother-Child Relationships	196
4.12	THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS AND FAMILY ENVIRONMENT	196
4.13	THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONAL, HOME, SOCIAL AND FORMAL RELATIONS AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, FAMILY AND SCHOOL	198
4.14	ADDITIONAL FINDINGS	201
4.14.1	Demographic Variables	201
4.14.2	Variables Related to Mother and Child in the Family Situation	204
4.14.2.1	Problems Encountered by Single and Married Mothers	204
4.14.2.2	Maternal Reports on Problem-Solving Methods used in Relation to Marital Status	212

4.14.2.3	Relationships between Children and their Divorced Fathers	214
4.15	SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT RESULTS	216
4.15.1	Teachers' Perceptions of Self, Social and School Adjustment of Children	216
4.15.2	Teachers' Recommendations for Remedial Education and Psychologist/Social Worker Intervention	217
4.15.3	Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School	218
4.15.4	Adolescents' Perceptions of Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations	220
4.15.5	Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members	221
4.15.6	Maternal Perceptions of Family Environment	222
4.15.7	Maternal Perceptions of Mother-Child Relationships	223
4.15.8	The Interrelationships among Self-Esteem, Family Environment, Mother-Child Relationships, Perceptions of Family Members and Children's Psychosocial Adjustment	224
4.15.9	The Relationships between Adolescents' Perceptions of Self, Family and School and their Perceptions of Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations	227
CHAPTER FIVE	: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS	229
5.1	TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT	229
5.1.1	The Influence of Parents' Marital Status on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	229
5.1.2	The Influence of the Interaction between Parents' Marital Status and Age on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	232

5.1.3	The Influence of Sex on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	235
5.1.4	The Influence of the Interaction between Parents Marital Status and Sex on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	237
5.1.5	The Influence of Age on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	238
5.1.6	The Influence of the Interaction of Sex and Age on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	239
5.1.7	The Influence of Family System on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	240
5.1.8	The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	243
5.1.9	The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Teacher's Perceptions of Children's Adjustment	244
5.2	THE INFLUENCE OF SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON TEACHERS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REMEDIAL EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGIST/ SOCIAL WORKER INTERVENTION	246
5.3	CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, FAMILY AND SCHOOL	249
5.3.1	The Influence of Parents' Marital Status on Children's Perceptions of Father and Teacher	249
5.3.2	The Influence of Parents' Marital Status and Age on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School	251
5.3.3	The Influence of Parents' Marital Status and Sex on Children's Perceptions of Family, Teacher and School	254
5.3.4	The Influence of Family System on Children's Perceptions of Mother	256

5.3.5	The Influence of the Interaction of Parental Marital Status and Family System on Self-Esteem	256
5.3.6	The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Children's Perceptions of Father	257
5.3.7	The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Children's Perceptions of Father	259
5.4	ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONAL, HOME, SOCIAL AND FORMAL RELATIONS	260
5.4.1	The Influence of Parents' Marital Status on Adolescents' Perceptions of Personal Freedom	260
5.4.2	The Influence of Sex on Self-Esteem	261
5.4.3	The Influence of Sex on Moral Sense	264
5.4.4	The Influence of the Interaction of Parent's Marital Status and Sex on Sociability	264
5.4.5	The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Adolescents' Self-Control, Moral Sense and Personal Freedom	266
5.4.6	The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Adolescents' Self-Esteem and Health	268
5.5	MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS	269
5.5.1	The Influence of Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Self-Esteem	269
5.5.2	The Influence of Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Husband and Children	271
5.5.3	The Influence of Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Relatives/Friends	273

5.5.4	The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Self-Esteem	274
5.5.5	The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Perceptions of Husband and Children	275
5.5.6	The Influence of Maternal Educational Level of Self-Esteem	277
5.5.7	The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members	278
5.6	MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT	279
5.6.1	The Influence of Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Family Environment	279
5.6.2	The Influence of the Interaction of Family System and Marital Status on Family Environment	282
5.6.3	The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Perceptions of Family Environment	283
5.6.4	The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Family Environment	284
5.7	MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS	285
5.7.1	The Influence of Marital Status on Mother-Child Relationships	285
5.7.2	The Influence of the Interaction of Marital Status and Family System on Mother-Child Relationships	287
5.7.3	The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Mother-Child Relationships	290
5.7.4	The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Mother-Child Relationships	292

5.8	MATERNAL SELF-ESTEEM AND ITS RELATIONSHIPS TO PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT, MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS, FAMILY MEMBERS AND CHILDREN'S PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT	293
5.8.1	Maternal Self-Esteem and Its Relationships to Family Environment and Mother-Child Relationships	294
5.8.2	The Relationships between Maternal Self-Esteem and Perceptions of Self and Family Members	296
5.8.3	The Relationships between Maternal Self-Esteem and Children's Perceptions of Self and Family	297
5.8.4	The Relationships between Maternal Self-Esteem and Children's Adjustment as Perceived by Teachers	298
5.9	THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CHILDREN'S SELF-ESTEEM AND MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY MEMBERS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT, MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS AND CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT	299
5.9.1	The Relationships between Children's Self-Esteem and Maternal Perceptions of Family Members	299
5.9.2	The Relationships between Children's Self-Esteem, Family Environment and Mother-Child Relationships	301
5.9.3	The Relationships between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Children's Self-Esteem	303
5.10	THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT AND MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY MEMBERS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS	304
5.10.1	The Relationships between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Maternal Perceptions of Family Members	305

5.10.2	The Relationships between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Maternal Perceptions of Family Environment	306
5.10.3	The Relationships between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Mother-Child Relationships	307
5.11	THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS AND MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY MEMBERS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS	308
5.12	THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY MEMBERS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS	310
5.13	THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONS	312
5.14	THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ADOLESCENTS' ADJUSTMENT AND PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, FAMILY AND SCHOOL	314
5.15	CONCLUSION	318
CHAPTER SIX : CONCLUSION		322
6.1	METHODOLOGICAL CONTRIBUTIONS	322
6.2	CROSS-CULTURAL IMPLICATIONS	323
6.3	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCHERS	328
6.4	RECOMMENDATIONS	331
6.4.1	Practical Implications Suggested by the Study for Policy Makers and Mental Health Professionals	331

6.4.1.1	Implications for Government Policy Makers	332
6.4.1.2	Implications for Educational Policy Makers, School Psychologists and Teachers	335
6.4.1.3	Implications for Mental Health Professionals and Social Workers	339
6.4.2	Extensions from the Study : Implications for Public and Judicial Policy Makers	345
6.5	CONCLUSION	348
	REFERENCES	350
	APPENDICES	396

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
3.1	DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO SEX, PARENT'S MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM	73
3.2	DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ACCORDING TO DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES	75
4.1	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CBRS SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS	102
4.2	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON CBRS GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS BY AGE	104
4.3	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON SOCIAL AND SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT GROUPED ACCORDING TO SEX	107
4.4	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT GROUPED ACCORDING TO SEX AND AGE	109
4.5	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SELF AND SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO AGE	111
4.6	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CBRS SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO FAMILY SYSTEM AND MARITAL STATUS	113
4.7	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CBRS SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO MATERNAL EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND MARITAL STATUS	116

4.8	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE	119
4.9	TEACHERS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REMEDIAL EDUCATION BY CHILDREN'S SEX, AGE AND PARENTAL MARITAL STATUS	122
4.10	TEACHERS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PSYCHOLOGIST/SOCIAL WORKER INTERVENTION BY PARENTAL MARITAL STATUS	123
4.11	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES AND SD SCALES CONCEPTS AND SEI GROUPED ACCORDING TO AGE AND MARITAL STATUS	126
4.12	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON SD SCALE CONCEPTS AND SEI GROUPED ACCORDING TO SEX AND MARITAL STATUS	133
4.13	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SD SCALE CONCEPT, "MY MOTHER" AND SEI SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM	140
4.14	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SD AND SEI SCALE SCORES ON THE CONCEPT, "MY FATHER" GROUPED ACCORDING TO MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT STATUS	143
4.15	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SD SCALE SCORES ON THE CONCEPT, "MY FATHER" GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE	144
4.16	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON PHSF GROUPED ACCORDING TO SEX AND MARITAL STATUS	146

4.17	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON PHSF SUBSCALES : SELF-ESTEEM AND HEALTH GROUPED ACCORDING TO MATERNAL EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	152
4.18	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON PHSF SUBSCALES : SELF-CONTROL, MORAL SENSE AND PERSONAL FREEDOM GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE	153
4.19	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RSES AND SD SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM	156
4.20	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RSES AND SD SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO EMPLOYMENT STATUS	161
4.21	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RSES GROUPED ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	163
4.22	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RSES AND SD SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE	164
4.23	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FES SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM	167
4.24	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FES SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	172
4.25	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FES SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE	174

4.26	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MCRE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM	177
4.27	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MCRE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	180
4.28	CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MCRE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO EMPLOYMENT STATUS	182
4.29	CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' CBRS SCORES AND MOTHERS' SD SCALE, RSES, MCRE AND FES SCORES AND CHILDREN'S SEI AND SD SCALE SCORES	185
4.30	CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CHILDREN'S SD SCALE SCORES AND MOTHERS RSES, SD SCALE, FES AND MCRE SCORES	189
4.31	CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MATERNAL SD SCALE, RSES AND MCRE SCORES	193
4.32	CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MCRE AND FES SCORES OF MOTHERS	197
4.33	CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PHSF SUB-SCALES AND SD SCALE SCORES	199
4.34	TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES ACCORDING TO FAMILY STRUCTURE AND PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS OF CHILDREN FROM PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN CHATSWORTH	201a
4.35	PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES TO FINANCIAL PROBLEMS GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND DEGREE OF TURBULENCE	206

4.36	PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES TO HOUSING PROBLEMS GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE	207
4.37	PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES ON CHILD'S SCHOOL PERFORMANCE GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE	209
4.38	PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES ON CHILD DISCIPLINE GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS, FAMILY STRUCTURE AND THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE	211
4.39	PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES TO ILLNESS GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS (N = 186)	212
4.40	PERCENTAGES AND RANK ORDER OF MATERNAL REPORTS OF PROBLEM-SOLVING METHODS GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS	214
4.41	PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES TO PREVIOUS FATHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS	215

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		PAGE
4.1	INTERACTION BETWEEN MARITAL STATUS AND AGE ON CBRS SUBSCALE : SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT	105
4.2	INTERACTION BETWEEN MARITAL STATUS AND AGE ON THE CBRS SUBSCALE : SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT	106
4.3	INTERACTION BETWEEN AGE AND SEX ON THE CBRS SUBSCALE : SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT	110
4.4	INTERACTION BETWEEN AGE AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT, "MY FAMILY"	131
4.5	INTERACTION BETWEEN AGE AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT, "MY TEACHER"	131
4.6	INTERACTION BETWEEN SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT, "MY FAMILY"	136
4.7	INTERACTION BETWEEN SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT, "MY TEACHER"	137
4.8	INTERACTION BETWEEN SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT, "MY SCHOOL"	137
4.9	INTERACTION BETWEEN FAMILY SYSTEM AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE SELF-ESTEEM SCALE	141
4.10	INTERACTION BETWEEN SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE PHSF SUB- SCALE: SOCIABILITY (G)	150

4.11	INTERACTION BETWEEN MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM ON THE FES SUBSCALE : MORAL-RELIGIOUS	170
4.12	INTERACTION BETWEEN FAMILY SYSTEM AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE MCRE SUBSCALE : REJECTION	179a
4.13	INTERACTION BETWEEN FAMILY SYSTEM AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE MCRE SUBSCALE : OVERINDULGENCE	179a

APPENDICES

APPENDIX		Page
A	The Biographical Inventory for Parents	396
B	Letter to Parents	398
C	The Biographical Questionnaire for Mothers	399
D	The Self-Esteem Inventory	401
E	The Semantic Differential Scale for Children and Adolescents	402
F	The Semantic Differential Scale for Mothers	405
G	The Self-Esteem Scale for Mothers	407
I	Biographical Questionnaire to be Completed by Teachers	408
H	Interview Questions Regarding Family and Problems	409

CHAPTER ONE

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The aftermath of parental divorce has increasingly become a focus of study for a variety of professionals who serve the mental health needs of children, especially in the USA. However, there is a paucity of such research in South Africa which is running third in the world-wide divorce stakes against the USA and USSR.

The increase in divorce rates in South Africa is evident because according to Central Statistical Services (1984; 1987) the specific divorce rates in 1987 were : 15,8 (15,6 in 1984) per 1 000 White married couples, 10,7 (8,6 in 1984) per 1 000 Coloured married couples, and 5,9 (4,8 in 1984) per 1 000 Indian married couples. Although these figures indicate the lowest rates of divorce for Indians, there has been a steady increase since 1980 when 3,4 per 1 000 Indian married couples was recorded (Central Statistical Services, 1980a).

1.2 NEED FOR THE RESEARCH

A review of the literature concerning father absence during childhood has indicated that disruption of family life by either death, divorce, or separation has an adverse influence on the entire family system as well as on the functioning and interactions of its members. Studies in the USA and UK have indicated the following major trends.

- (a) Children from father-absent families exhibit a greater degree of maladaptive behaviours, particularly conduct disorders, aggressive behaviours, and delinquent and antisocial behaviours than those from intact homes (Kalter, 1977; and Touliatos & Lindholm, 1980).
- (b) Boys from father-absent homes have shown considerable deviation in sex-role identity, especially when they lose their fathers before the age of four to five years, before identification can be assumed to have been completed (Hetherington, 1966; Covell & Turnbull, 1982).
- (c) Children from father-absent families have higher failure rates, lower school grades, higher drop-out rates and poorer performance on cognitive tests than those from intact families (Rosenthal & Hansen, 1980; Shinn, 1978).

- (d) Absence or loss of one or both parents by death or separation before the age of five can have long-term detrimental psychological effects such as higher incidence of suicide (Dorpat, Jackson & Ripley, 1965), depression (Barnes & Prosen, 1985; Nelson, 1982) and psychosis (Hill & Price, 1967).
- (e) Males from father-absent families were more adversely affected than females (Ball, Newman & Scheuren, 1984; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1979). Further, girls demonstrate better postseparation emotional adjustment than boys, (Hess & Camara, 1979; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1982; Tschann, Johnston, Kline & Wallerstein, 1989).

However, researchers (Weinraub & Wolf, 1983) have indicated that father absence may contribute to maladjustment but appears to be far less critical than the other indirect factors related to it. Among the family circumstances that may be altered by father absence are socio-economic status,, family adjustment to increased social, emotional and financial stresses, and the functional roles of family members (mother, siblings and extended family members). These dynamics may have an effect on the mother-child relationship with subsequent effects on the child.

Further research into the coping/non-coping strategies related to father absence needs to be conducted. Such

research could influence decisions of policy-makers and educationists by sensitizing them to the needs and problems of single parents and their children. It could also be of value to psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers in counselling these families.

Another reason for undertaking further investigation is that much of the psychological research in this area has been confined to western samples. These findings may have limited relevance for non-western samples, such as the Indian community which has a different set of cultural norms, beliefs and attitudes. According to Kinard and Reinherz (1984), ethnicity is one of the important demographic variables in research on the effects of father absence. Further, there are important differences in the impact of divorce/separation, and single-parent living from one ethnic group to another, since a community in which the majority of families has been affected by divorce, for instance, may have a different set of attitudes and supportive services from one in which separation/divorce is uncommon (Nichols, 1984).

Previous literature has demonstrated the importance of socio-economic status as a mediating factor in assessing the effects of marital disruption (Bane, 1976; Levitin, 1979; Shinn, 1978). Decreased financial status in father-absent families increases the stress in such families and in turn adversely affects the psychological functioning of single

mothers and their children (Colletta, 1979; Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney & Hunt, 1979). It may be assumed that such effects would be even more problematic in low socio-economic status groups. Yet, there is very little research on the effects of father-absence in the low, compared to middle socio-economic status groups. Therefore, further research in this area using a sample from the former group is necessary.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The South African Indian family structure has been traditionally distinct from African and European family structures. Among the salient differences between the Indian family and families of the latter two groups are the greater strength of the joint family system and the small number of widowed, divorced or deserted women living alone with their unmarried children amongst Indians (Kuper, 1960).

In a study conducted in 1953 with 400 Indian families, Kuper reported that there were forty-two percent nuclear families in comparison to forty-eight percent joint-family households. Only six percent were single-parent units with one parent and the children only. The remaining consisted of isolated male individuals, families without children and two-wife families.

However, more recently the traditional family system seems to have undergone a change from the extended to the nuclear family system as a preferred mode of living (Jithoo, 1975; Schoombee & Manzaris, 1984).

A further aspect of the changing Indian family system is related to the changing patterns in marriage and divorce. Marriage has been regarded as sacred and divorce is not recognised by the orthodox South African Indian. When the infrequent separation or divorce did occur, the divorcee with her children often returned to her parents' home. In the case of father-absence due to death, the widow often moved to her own or husband's parents' home. Thus, previously, there were smaller number of female-headed households, compared to the present amongst the Indians.

In certain western countries, for example, the United States, father absence due to divorce is more common than father absence due to death (Glick, 1979). In a community such as the Indian community where marriage has generally been regarded as sacred and thus indissoluble (Khatri, 1975), it would be of interest to investigate the incidence of father absence due to divorce compared to death and the differential effects of each on psychosocial adjustment.

The focus of the present study is addressed to the question "What are the effects of father absence on child and family adjustment in relation to certain child and family

demographic and situational characteristics amongst Indians"? Child characteristics refer to the child's age and sex, demographic characteristics of the family refer to size, socio-economic status, maternal employment and educational level, and situational characteristics refer to the reason for family disruption, amount of conflict and cohesion, mother-child relationships and social support systems.

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The aims of the study are :

1. to investigate the influence of parental marital status, sex, age, family system, maternal educational level and occupational status, degree of turbulence, family size and child's age at marital disruption on children's
 - (i) psychosocial adjustment and
 - (ii) perceptions of self, family members and school.

2. to investigate the effect of sex and parents' marital status on the need for remedial education and psychological/social work services;

3. to investigate the influence of marital status, family system, maternal educational level and occupational status, degree of turbulence and family size on mother's
 - (i) perceptions of self, family members and social support
 - (ii) perceptions of family environment and
 - (iii) perceptions of mother-child relationships; and

4. to investigate the interrelationships among maternal perceptions of self, family environment and mother-child relationships and children's psychosocial adjustment and perceptions of family and school.

1.5 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

In order to execute the aims of the research, hypotheses derived from, and supported by, previous literature (see Chapter 2) were formulated. The literature review indicated that children from intact versus father-absent families, especially divorced families have poorer psychosocial adjustment and perceptions of self-esteem and family members. Further, it has also been shown that mothers from father-absent families, especially in the divorced groups have more negative perceptions of self, family members, family environment and mother-child relationships.

However, the literature review also indicates that it is not father-absence, per se, that is responsible, but also certain other mediating variables have also been shown to be of importance. These are sex, age, family system, degree of turbulence, size of family, maternal education and employment status. These hypotheses suggested by the literature will be presented in terms of the variables related to the child's psychosocial adjustment and perceptions of self, family and school, and the mother's perceptions of her family and family relationships.

1.5.1 Hypotheses Related to Psychosocial Adjustment of Child and Adolescent

1. Children from intact, compared to father-absent, families will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment.
2. Males compared to females, especially from father-absent families, will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment.
3. Primary school children, compared to high school children, especially from father-absent families will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment.

4. Children from extended, compared to nuclear families, especially from the father-absent group, will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment.
5. Children, especially from father-absent families, whose mothers have secondary, compared to primary school education, will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment.
6. Children who experience low, compared to high, turbulence will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment.
7. Children from large families, compared to small families, will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment.
8. Children who experienced parental marital disruption before the age of six years, compared to those who experienced this later, will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment.
9. Children with working mothers compared to mothers who are housewives, will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment.
10. Teachers' recommendations for remedial education and psychologist/social worker intervention will be more

frequent for boys, compared to girls, for primary school children compared, to secondary school children and for children from father-absent, compared to intact families.

11. Adolescents from father-absent, compared to intact, families will have more negative perceptions of adjustment.
12. Female, compared to male adolescents, from father-absent families will have more positive perceptions of adjustment.
13. Adolescents whose mothers have secondary school, compared to primary school, education will have more positive perceptions of adjustment.
14. Adolescents who experience low, compared to high turbulence will have more positive perceptions of adjustment.

1.5.2 Hypotheses Related to the Child's Perceptions of Self, Family and School

1. Children from intact and widowed families, compared to divorced families, will have more positive perceptions of self, family, teacher and school.

2. Males, compared to females, especially from father-absent families, will have more negative perceptions of self, family, teacher and school.
3. Primary, compared to secondary, school children will have more positive perceptions of self, family, teacher and school.
4. Children from nuclear, compared to extended, families will have more positive perceptions of their mothers.
5. Children from extended, compared to nuclear, father-absent families will have more positive perceptions of self and family.
6. Children whose mothers are working, compared to housewives, will have more negative perceptions of family.
7. Children who experience high, compared to low, turbulence will have more negative perceptions of self, family and school.

1.5.3 Hypotheses Related to Mother's Perceptions of Self, Family and Family Relationships

1. Married mothers will have more positive perceptions of

self, family members, relatives/friends, family environment and mother-child relationships than single mothers.

2. Divorced mothers will have more negative perceptions of family members, family environment and mother-child relationships than to married and widowed mothers.
3. Mothers from extended, compared to nuclear father-absent, families will have more positive perceptions of self, family members, relatives/friends, family environment and mother-child relationships.
4. Employed mothers, compared to housewives, will have more positive perceptions of self, family members, family environment and mother-child relationships.
5. Mothers who experience low, compared to high, turbulence will have more positive perceptions of self, family members and family environment.
6. Mothers with secondary school, compared to primary school education will have more positive perceptions of self, family environment and mother-child relationships.

1.5.4 Hypotheses related to the Interrelationships between Children, Mothers' and Teachers' Perceptions of Psychosocial Adjustment

1. There will be positive interrelationships among the following: maternal self-esteem, maternal perceptions of family environment, family members and mother-child relationships.
2. There will be positive interrelationships between children's psychosocial adjustment, perceptions of self and family members and mothers' perception of self, family and family relationships.

1.6 DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms will be defined with particular reference to their use in the current investigation.

1.6.1 Psychosocial Adjustment

Psychosocial adjustment may be defined as the dynamic process by which a person strives to satisfy his inner needs and at the same time strives to cope successfully with the demands of his social environment. Thus, he endeavours to

create a harmonious relationship between the self and the environment. The level of psychosocial adjustment is determined by the frequency with which his responses in relations within the self or with the social environment are mature or immature, efficient or inefficient.

In the present study, psychosocial adjustment will be used as a broad term to include variables such as self-esteem, self, social and school adjustment, personal, home, social and formal relations.

1.6.2 Degree of Turbulence

The degree of turbulence refers to the extent to which there is open aggression, hostility and conflict in the family based on the mother's report. High turbulence is characterized by physical abuse of mother and or children accompanied by swearing and abusive language by one or both parents. Low turbulence is characterized by arguments between spouses, with the absence of physical and verbal abuse.

1.6.3 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem refers to the evaluation which an individual

makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself : it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, indicating the extent to which the individual believes that he is capable, significant, successful and worthy (Coopersmith, 1967). It is a subjective experience which is conveyed to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behaviour.

Coopersmith (1967) found that self-esteem is significantly related to the individual's basic style of adapting to environmental demands. Some of the correlates of high self-esteem are higher independence in conformity-inducing situations, greater confidence, more popularity, and higher creativity, lack of self consciousness and preoccupation with personal problems.

Individuals with low self-esteem lack trust in themselves and are apprehensive about expressing unpopular or unusual ideas, marked self-consciousness and preoccupation with inner problems and anxiety. Self-esteem, thus, appears to have ramifying consequences that vitally affect the manner in which an individual responds to himself and the outside world.

1.6.4 Social Support

Social support emphasizes the availability and quality of relationships with others who provide resources in times of

need. Supportive others provide concrete services and information which lead to an individuals feelings of being loved, esteemed, valued and part of a network of communication and mutual obligation. Social support may be emotional or instrumental (Gottlieb, 1983; Rook and Dooley, 1985). While the former takes the form of encouragement, warmth and compassion, the latter takes the form of practical assistance such as financial, housing, etc.

Rallying social support often buffers one against the adverse effects of stress, but it can also be a stressor itself. According to Rook (1984), having intimates in a social network can give grief as well as support - especially if they are critical and intrusive.

1.6.5 Family Environment

Family environment refers to the perception of interpersonal atmosphere and characteristics of families. It is expressed in the types of relationships among family members : the degree of commitment, help and support which family members provide for each other, the extent to which they are encouraged to express their feelings and the amount of anger, aggression and conflict expressed. It is also expressed in terms of the extent to which the family enhances personal growth (for example, the degree of emphasis on ethical and religious issues and values).

Another aspect of family environment is the extent to which the family system is maintained (for example, the degree of organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibility).

1.6.6 Mother-Child Relationships

Mother child relationships refer to attitudes by which mothers relate to their children. These attitudes are considered to be the intervening variables which mediate between the manner a mother relates to the child and the present and previous experiences leading to the psychodynamics of the mother. The child is the stimulus which sets off the mother's behaviour.

The attitudes, according to Roth (1961), may be expressed as rejection (denial of love and expression of hate towards a child in terms of neglect, harshness, severity, brutality and strictness), overindulgence (excessive gratification together with lack of parental control), overprotection (prolonged infantile care and prevention of the development of independence) and acceptance (sincerity of affect expression, interest in child's pleasures, activities and development and perception of the child as a good child).

1.6.7 Family Structure

Family structure refers to the marital status of parents in the following families:

- (i) Intact family refers to two married, biological parents and their children.
- (ii) Divorced family is one where the biological mother is divorced or permanently separated from her husband, is not remarried and is the custodial parent.
- (iii) Widowed family is one where the biological father is deceased and the children are living with their biological mother who is not remarried.

1.6.8 Family System

Family system refers to the following family compositions :

- (i) Nuclear family comprises a family unit with one or two natural parents and their children.
- (ii) Extended family comprises a family unit with one or two natural parents and their children and the presence of an additional adult or adults in the household.

- (iii) Nuclear-intact family consists of both natural parents and their children.
- (iv) Extended-intact family consists of both natural parents and their children, in addition to one or more adults in the household.
- (v) Nuclear-divorced and nuclear-widowed families consist of the natural unremarried, divorced or widowed mother and her children.
- (vi) Extended divorced and extended-widowed family consists of the natural, unremarried, divorced or widowed mother, her children and an additional adult or adults.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1.7.1 Sample

The present investigation was conducted on a sample of lower-class Indian subjects from a selected suburb of Durban. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to other ethnic groups or socio-economic status groups. Subjects from the low socio-economic status were used in the research since a large proportion of Indian families belongs to this group.

The subjects were school-aged children and their mothers in father-absent families. The current investigation excluded preschool and younger children who may encounter differential effects of father-absence. Further, it did not consider the effects of mother absence on children and their interactions with their single fathers. The present study did not take into account the effects of the non-custodial father on psychosocial adjustment of children from divorced families.

The present investigation focussed on the long-term effects of father absence since the subjects were those who experienced family disruption for two years or more. Thus, the study excluded the effects immediately preceding or following the physical separation which has shown been to be the most difficult period with a variety of psychophysiological symptoms reported.

1.7.2 Methodology

The method of data collection in the present investigation was based on measures of teacher-reports on children and measures of self-reports of children and their mothers and not on actual observed behaviours of the subjects. Thus, the results will be given in terms of the subjects' perceptions and attitudes, rather than on how they actually function in naturalistic settings.

However, it is feasible to use the former method in such an investigation since research has shown that reported attitudes and behaviours correlate with actual behaviours. For example, Kochanska, Kuczynski and Radke-Yarrow (1989) found that child-rearing attitudes endorsed by mothers were related to their actual child management strategies assessed naturalistically by trained observers.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In understanding the impact of father absence on children, it is useful to review, from a theoretical perspective, the father's role and his contribution to the growth and development of his children. The presentation of theory is important when it is considered a tentative way of explaining observations. It can also lead to the development of many useful hypotheses which provide fruitful areas of research. A theory may, however, prove totally invalid over time and in the light of accumulated evidence (Lynn, 1974).

Much research has been conducted based on the hypotheses generated by the psychoanalytic and social learning theories which place emphasis on the father's role as a source of identification and role model in child development. Studies conducted during the 1950's and 1960's were based on the premise that father absence was inherently detrimental to children's adjustment (Brandwein, Brown & Fox, 1974; Herzog & Sudia, 1973; Levitin, 1979).

Lynn (1974 : 279) asserted that "The research on the relationship between father absence and the general level of the child's adjustment reveals that the loss of a father for any reason is associated with poor adjustment, but that absence because of separation, divorce, or desertion may have especially detrimental effects". Further, Anthony (1974) predicted that children who lose a parent through separation, divorce, or desertion will be vulnerable to acute psychiatric disturbance during both childhood and adult life; to avoidance of marriage, to divorce, and to various psychiatric disorders. Hence, the equation of the child reared in a father-absent home with a risk for maladjustment is consistent with the traditional theoretical orientations. However, close examination of the research reveals a number of methodological flaws which limit their interpretation and generalization.

A major problem characteristic of many studies has been the tendency to treat children from father-absent families as if they were a homogeneous group. They have since been criticized for failing to take into account the characteristics of the child, the family and the situation, and the reasons for father absence that might influence the impact of marital disruption on children (Bane, 1976; Hetherington & Martin, 1979; Levitin, 1979; Shinn, 1978).

More recent investigations have shown that the type, severity and persistence of problems manifested by children

experiencing marital disruption may be mediated by a number of demographic and situational factors (Kinard & Reinherz, 1984). These intervening factors include characteristics of the child (age and sex), of the demographic characteristics of the family (size, ethnicity, socio-economic status, maternal employment and educational level) and of the situation (reason for family disruption, amount of conflict in the family before and after the disruption, length of time since the disruption, relationships between parents and children and social support systems).

Although more recent studies have not entirely overcome all the methodological problems, their findings demonstrate the importance of examining the effects of marital disruption in terms of family situations and characteristics (Kinard & Reinherz, 1984). However, since no single study, including the present one, has been able to assess each of these intervening factors, the review of literature regarding the influence of child, family and situational characteristics will be limited to those most relevant to the present study.

2.2 CHILD CHARACTERISTICS AND PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IN INTACT AND FATHER-ABSENT FAMILIES

2.2.1 Child's Age

A review of the literature concerning the timing and onset of parental disruption, reveals three distinguishable perspectives. Kalter and Rembar (1981) label these as cumulative effect hypothesis, the critical stage hypothesis and the recency hypothesis. Proponents of the cumulative effect hypothesis maintain that the earlier the parental separation occurs in the child's life, the more profound will be its impact (Gardner, 1976). Evidence in support of this statement is given by Hetherington (1966;1972), who found that young children lack the capacity to mourn effectively. Thus when they are confronted with the loss of a parent, this difficulty is propounded and regarded as potentially leading to serious long-term problems.

The critical stage hypothesis is supported mainly by those with a psychoanalytic viewpoint. Such psychologists believe that in the period between ages three to five, during the Oedipal period, divorce can be particularly devastating. This has been supported by Neubauer (1960) and McDermott (1968).

The recency position is taken by those who see parental absence as a traumatic experience, yet one that can be overcome relatively quickly. This has been supported by a majority of studies in which children are directly observed at the time of parental disruption. All children, regardless of their age, react with pain and distress (Hetherington, Cox & Cox 1976; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; McDermott, 1968; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974; 1975 and 1976).

Kalter and Rembar (1981), in a sample of 500 children of an out-patient clinic found that divorce timing was unrelated to overall level of adjustment, but was significantly associated with different constellations of emotional-behavioural difficulties. Of the three hypotheses, only the cumulative deficit view received even minimal support with respect to degree of disturbance. Separation and subsequent divorce during the child's earliest years were associated with significantly higher incidence of nonaggressive disturbances in the parent-child relationship in both male and female latency-age groups.

There were several findings relating to marital dissolutions which occurred during the adolescent years. Among the adolescent girls who experienced father absence during the Oedipal years, there were higher rates of occurrence of academic problems and aggression towards both parents and peers, when compared to adolescent girls whose parents' marriages dissolved earlier or later than the Oedipal phase.

This was not so for boys. These findings are particularly interesting because so much of the literature has emphasized the negative effects of father absence on boys rather than on girls.

Latency-aged girls who experienced parental marital dissolution during the Oedipal years were not significantly different from other latency girls, but boys in this group had a significantly higher rate of school behaviour problems in conjunction with a higher rate of subjective psychological symptoms.

These findings suggest that the timing of marital dissolution, particularly, its occurrence during the child's early or Oedipal years may have differential effects on children. These effects can be reliably detected during latency and even far later during adolescence.

Kinard and Reinherz (1984) researched the effects of marital disruption at various ages on behavioural and emotional functioning of third grade school children. There were 74 children from divorced and 320 children from intact working-class, white families. Data were collected at three time periods from multiple sources. Teacher questionnaires were administered at kindergarten and third grade. Parent questionnaires were completed at preschool screening, kindergarten and third grade. The children themselves were tested at third grade.

The effects of marital disruption on behavioural and emotional adjustment in children were assessed by comparing children who experienced disruption before they entered school and during the early school years, and children in two-parent families. The results indicated that those children who experienced the disruption during the early school years were likely to have more problems in certain areas of behavioural and emotional adjustment and were likely to receive more school-based guidance services than children in either earlier-disrupted or never-disrupted families.

The researchers advance two reasons for these findings : the effects of parental divorce on children diminish over time, as indicated by Hetherington, Cox and Cox, (1979), and Kelly and Wallerstein, (1976). These children may have shown no more problems than children in two-parent families because more than two years had elapsed since the disruption. The other explanation is that the impact of marital disruption is less severe for preschool-aged children than for school-aged children.

However, it has yet been neither determined whether a particular age at which marital disruption occurs is critical for child development, nor have the responses of children, as a function of age, been addressed in a systematic fashion (Hodges & Bloom, 1984). Research on the variable of sex of the child as a predictor of adjustment to

marital separation has been done in the way of systematic evaluation over the full age span of childhood. Such information on age is essential to establish a rational approach to prevention as well has important theoretical implications in terms of child development.

Hodges and Bloom (1984) attempted to provide a cross sectional analysis of effects of divorce on children over time as a function of age and sex of the child with a nonclinical population. The subjects were 153 separated parents who were interviewed about information on parenting and administered a Child Behaviour Checklist. Initially there were 131 children under 18 years of age, but by 18 months there were complete data on 113 children.

For the 0 to 3 year-age and the 4 to 7 year-age groups significant changes were obtained on the scales of depression, disruptive behaviour and total maladjustment scores. For these age groups all significant changes were in the direction of more reported problems at 18 months than initially. For the older groups, no significant findings over time were obtained.

Boys were described as having more problems than girls on all scales at the initial interview and on all scales except depression at 6 and 18 months.

Thus, results of this study indicated that there were no general maladjustment differences at long-term follow-up which supports Hetherington's (1979) and Wallerstein and Kelly's (1980) data. These results also support Hetherington's (1979) contention that the pattern of adjustment, not the severity, was affected by age of the child. Younger children showed more acting out, older children more depression.

2.2.2 Sex Differences

There is considerable recent evidence that suggests that marital disruption has a greater effect on boys than on girls (Cadoret & Cain, 1980; Hess & Camara, 1979; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1978; McDermott, 1968; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). In addition to the expected differences between the sexes in terms of conflict responses, there may be a second effect to being in the custody of the opposite-sex parent (Emery, 1982). Santrock and Warsack (1979) found that both boys and girls of divorced families had more behaviour problems when the opposite-sex parent had custody than when the same-sex parent had custody. Because divorced mothers have over 90% child custody (Glick, 1979), boys will be expected to have more post divorce - adjustment problems than would girls. Thus, it appears that boys whose parents divorce and whose mothers have custody have a dual risk of developing behaviour problems.

A review of the literature has shown that divorce is more strongly related to boys' than to girls' maladaptive behaviour. Important factors to consider in this context are post-divorce settling effects, form of the response, sampling and custody arrangements. Further, it could be that the effects on girls may be delayed and, as found in the study by Hetherington (1972), that these appear prominently in subsequent relations with the opposite sex during adolescence. Girls may be likely to be just as troubled by divorce as boys are, but they may demonstrate their feelings in a more sex-appropriate fashion, namely, by becoming anxious and withdrawn or very well behaved (Emery, 1982).

Santrock and Warsack (1979) investigated, among other factors, how sex differences affect children's social development. The researchers hypothesized that children with the same-sex custodial parent will fare better than children with the opposite-sex custodial parent. The sample consisted of 60 white middle-class families with children ranging in age from 6 to 11 years. Thirty three were boys and twenty seven were girls. One-third of the children came from families with father custody, one-third from mother custody and one-third from intact families. The subjects were matched for age, family size and socio-economic status. Families with histories of remarriage or having children with an emotional disorder were excluded.

A multimethod approach to studying family interaction was followed. Parents and children were observed interacting in a laboratory situation and given structured interviews and self-report scales. Projective tasks were also administered to parents and children.

The results indicate that father-custody boys performed in a much more socially competent manner in the laboratory interactions than did intact-family boys. They were warmer, had higher self-esteem and behaved more independently with their fathers than boys from intact families. Girls under father custody, were less warm, showed lower self-esteem, were more demanding and less mature, acted less conforming and independent with their fathers than girls from intact families did with their fathers.

Few significant differences occurred between mother-custody families versus intact families. Boys in father-custody families expressed more competent social development than girls in such families. Girls fared better than boys in mother-custody homes. These comparisons provide support for the importance of the same-sex parent in the child's life.

Hess and Camara (1979) attempted to compare the social and school behaviour of boys and girls from divorced and intact families. The subjects were nine- to eleven- year olds from 16 mother-custody families and 16 intact families. They had Caucasian parents with two years of college education.

There were equal numbers of boys and girls. The divorced parents had been separated for two to three years.

Children, parents and teachers were interviewed with the purpose of assessing family interactions in several areas. Children's behaviour checklists describing aspects as sociability, independence and symptoms of stress, were completed by parents. Information about school performance was obtained from school records and teacher ratings. Data from the interviews and checklists were summarized in independent ratings of two teams of three persons. Children with divorced versus married parents showed greater stress and aggression and less productive work style. These differences were greater for boys than for girls.

In a more recent study, similar sex differences were also found on the variables of depression/withdrawal and antisocial behaviour (Peterson and Zill, 1986). The researchers used data from the National Surveys of Children in the United States. The sample comprised 12 to 16 year-old children.

The results indicated that children were least depressed and withdrawn and antisocial when they lived with both parents rather than with the biological mother only. When they lived with their fathers, boys fared as well as boys from intact families, whereas girls were even more depressed, withdrawn and antisocial than those living with their

mothers only. Among children living with their biological mothers (separated, divorced or never married), the depression and withdrawal scores were higher for boys than for girls. These findings are consistent with previous research findings on the greater vulnerability of boys with mother custody to marital disruption.

2.3 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FAMILY AND PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IN INTACT AND FATHER-ABSENT FAMILIES

2.3.1 Family Size

Researchers have paid little attention to the impact of the number of children in the family. The importance of this variable was evident in research by Bronfenbrenner, Avgar and Henderson (1977) who found that two or more children in the family created higher stress in parental roles. These findings were consistent with later research (Mohan, 1981; Mohan & Baldwin, 1985) which revealed that mothers in high child-density families evidenced higher manifest rejection (minimal contact with children, imposition of harsh disciplinary standards and general punitive attitudes towards children) compared to low child-density families.

Wagner, Schubert and Schubert (1984), having reviewed the literature in this area, concluded that child rearing practices characterized by restrictiveness, criticism and control found in larger families result in poorer development of inductive reasoning, poorer self-esteem, less differentiation and low ego identity. Hence it seems reasonable to expect that the amount of stress and conflict experienced by single parents would increase with the number of children in the family, resulting in increased behavioural and emotional problems in children (Kinard & Reinherz, 1984).

Colletta (1979) researched a sample of 72 White, working-class mothers with preschool children. They were matched for education, occupation and religious backgrounds. She found that marital status did not solely affect child-rearing practices. Only when the number of children in the family and the interaction effects were considered, were significant relationships found.

Married and divorced mothers reported significantly different responses to their children's attention demands depending on whether they had one or two children. The latter tended to respond more irritably and to let the children's demands wait, while the former were more likely to involve their children in whatever they were doing, satisfying both the mother's need to complete her task, and the child's need for attention. There was also a tendency

for divorced mothers to feel that their children's self-care was necessary and they were more likely to use more restrictive child techniques if they had two children.

Using a predominantly black sample, Kellam, Ensminger and Turner (1977), found no relationship between family type, family size and teachers' ratings of children's school adjustment. However, Lindblad-Goldberg and Dukes (1985) found contrary results. They used a sample of 50 clinic-referred and 76 nonclinic, black, low-income, single-parent families. Clinic mothers tended to have more children than nonclinic mothers.

According to Propst, Pardington, Ostrom and Watkins (1986), the inconsistent results in this area could be due to their finding that the total number of children was not a predictor of poor coping, but that the number of children under the age of ten years living with the divorced mother was a highly significant predictor of mother's anxiety and depression. Women who had more children in this age group were most stressed. Conversely, women who had more adolescents at home rather than younger children were coping better as indicated by all measures of the dependent variables. Having more adolescents at home, for example, was actually a significant predictor of lower depression. Thus, it appears that the age of children, rather than their numbers, may be the significant predictor of coping for single mothers.

2.3.2 Socio-Economic Status

A further major difficulty in research on father-absent families is the lack of control over socio-economic status (SES). Many studies which have compared the incomes of one- and two-parent families have documented the observation that one consequence of father absence is reduced income. According to Herzog and Sudia (1973:158), "There is abundant evidence that one-parent families and black families are, on the whole, less prosperous than two-parent families and white families. A rough three-way breakdown into low-, middle- and high- income groups may fail to adequately control for SES because black and female-headed families tend to cluster at the lower layer of each level..."

Therefore, it is necessary to investigate whether it is the father-absent family, per se, or the lower SES and income related to single parenting that has greater negative impact on children. Studies focussing specifically on families in poverty, show a strong connection between low income and child-rearing practices (Chilman, 1966; Waters and Crandall, 1964). Kriesberg (1970) suggested that a similar relationship might exist between low income and child-rearing in one-parent families. He reported that problems associated with maintaining a household and raising a family increase with the loss of income in one-parent families. Goode (1956) noted that in such families, economic strain

may be displaced into noneconomic relationships, specifically those between mother and child.

Colletta (1979) investigated whether differences in the child-rearing practices of divorced and married mothers are related to the father's absence, or if they are largely related to low income which so often occurs with divorce. The sample consisted of 72 white, working-class families with preschool children. They were matched for education, occupational income, ethnic and religious group backgrounds. The sample was divided into three groups: Moderate Income One-parent Families; Low Income One-parent Families and Moderate Income Two-parent Families.

The child-rearing interview was based on a interview schedule which measured eight variables. The eight variables assessed were: Child's Self-care, Mother's Attitude toward Self-care, Mother's Response Demands, Protectiveness, Restrictiveness, Child's Jobs, Obedience Standards and Punishment.

Analyses of the data revealed a consistent tendency for low income divorced mothers to make more demands on their children. The demands were two-fold: the children were expected to help care for themselves and to obey their mothers. These mothers were less likely to help their children with tasks such as dressing, and they enforced self-help if necessary. They also enforced more household

tasks on their children and expected more immediate obedience from their children.

Reseachers have found or implied that related to father absence are overprotective mothers and over-dependent children (Biller, 1971; Bronfenbrenner, 1961; Stendler, 1952). Coletta's (1979) study has found contrary results in that when the incomes of divorced mothers were low, and they were employed, children were less dependent. The majority did not demand frequent attention and helped with simple chores on a regular basis.

Rather than being related to father absence, protectiveness was related to the type of neighbourhood. Overprotective mothers tended to live in neighbourhoods where play areas were unsafe or where gangs of older children were a problem.

Goode (1956) has taken the position that the relationship between discipline and divorce may be spurious in that authoritarianism has also been associated with poverty and poverty is a frequent result of divorce. This point of view was supported in Colletta's (1979) study in that two disciplinary practices, restrictiveness and obedience standards, were significantly stronger only in the low-economic, one-parent families.

Thus, the results of this study support the often cited, but seldom researched idea that the consequences of divorce are

more strongly related to depressed income than to father absence. When one- and two-parent families are compared, the results show that, when families differ only in father absence, there are no significant differences in child-rearing practices.

2.3.3 Maternal Educational Level

There has been a paucity of literature in the area of the role of maternal educational level in single parenting. Propst et al. (1986) investigated the predictors of coping in a sample of 78 divorced, single mothers from the middle-class group. They found that a highly consistent predictor of adjustment was the subjects level of education. Higher education was a significant predictor of both less anxiety and a subjective perception of more optimal coping. It was a marginally significant predictor of less depression. In all analyses, better adjusted women were more likely to have completed college. The researchers suggest that this variable may be a significant factor because of the obvious increased financial security that increased education may bring.

These findings were consistent with results obtained from the analyses of interview data from 125 divorced spouses where mothers were the custodial parents (Buehler, Hogan, Robinson and Levy, 1986). They investigated the

relationship between divorced-related stressors and post-divorce well-being. Divorced-related stressors included economic, housing and legal problems, parent-child relationships and former spouse components. Well-being included self-esteem, parenting satisfaction and economic well-being. Economic well-being correlated significantly with maternal educational level and employment, among other variables. Self-esteem correlated significantly positively with education, indicating that women with more education reported higher levels of self-esteem than less educated women. These findings were explained in terms of higher levels of resources available to mothers with higher education, compared to those with lower education.

2.3.4 Maternal Employment Status

Maternal employment has been expected to have the most negative consequences on father-absent children. However, countless studies and a number of literature reviews have concluded that existing research has not demonstrated that mothers' employment, per se, has consistent effects on children's development and educational outcomes (Bianchi & Spain, 1986; Hayes & Kamerman, 1983). This is not surprising when one considers the multitude of situations being grouped into one category of mother's employment.

Hoffman (1987) emphasizes possible psychological processes, including role modelling, mother's emotional state, child-rearing practices, the extent of supervision and possible feelings of deprivation experienced by the child. An employed mother is also likely to have higher family income and more liberal sex-role attitudes.

However, there is very sketchy and inadequate research concerning the effects of maternal employment in single-parent families. The results of whatever research is available are inconsistent. Kinard and Reinherz (1984), in a study reported previously, found that marital disruption and maternal employment had a significant joint effect on third-grade teacher ratings of productivity and withdrawal indicating more problems for children in recently disrupted families if their mothers were not employed. Teacher perceptions did not differ for children from intact families whose mothers were employed.

These results of maternal employment in single-parent homes suggest that negative consequences for children stem from having unemployed rather than employed mothers. For single-mother families who had recently experienced disruption, these negative effects may represent financial stress due to the loss of the families' usual source of support. Lack of job skills or inability to find day care may, for single mothers, lead to frustration or depression, which in turn, may affect their children's psychological well-being.

These findings are inconsistent with previous researches which show that maternal employment following family disruption has negative effects on children's behaviour (Hetherington & Martin, 1979). Further, Zimmerman and Bernstein (1983) found that children of single mothers who worked in the first four years of the child's life had significantly more often described the maternal figure as unsupportive than did those that stayed at home with their children. Only when results for children of working mothers at preschool period (4 to 6 years) were considered did the differences fail to reach significance. Thus, further research using more rigid control of variables relevant to maternal employment in single-parent families is warranted.

2.4 SITUATIONAL FACTORS AND PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT IN INTACT AND FATHER-ABSENT FAMILIES

2.4.1 Reasons for Father Absence

(a) The importance of establishing reasons for father absence

Much of the literature on the topic of father absence has not differentiated subject groups on the basis of the

reasons for father absence. The reasons for father loss are diverse: death, divorce, separation, desertion, illegitimacy, employment, etc. Some researchers have recognized these differences and have included in their studies only subjects who have experienced the most common forms of parental absence, viz., death, separation and divorce.

According to Herzog and Sudia (1973), despite exceptions, the prevailing conclusion is that continuing father absence is less strongly associated with adverse effects when the absence is caused by death than when it is caused by voluntary separation of two living parents. They cite the following explanations for the existence of this pattern:

- (1) It is more likely for father absence to be caused by death when the child is older, compared to through divorce, separation or desertion which are likely to occur in younger children (Monahan, 1957). The latter will have less opportunity to receive paternal supervision and control than the former.
- (2) If the father's role as a model and source of identification is assumed, then the deceased father has a better chance to be regarded as a paragon and is more often idealized than the father perceived as deserting his family. Although very young children may perceive

a father's death as desertion by him, as they grow older, this perception will change. There is a far less likelihood that a child who has lost a father through death will grow up cherishing a conscious bitterness against his father for deserting him, and a conception of himself as a rejected son of an unworthy father. Although children may tend to blame themselves for any type of parent loss, such thoughts may seem more logical when a parent's leaving is through voluntary separation.

- (3) It may not to be the father's absence itself, but rather the friction and disorganization that often precedes voluntary separation that produce the adverse effects. Usually, a father's death would not be preceded by a period of friction and stress, except in the case of terminal illness which is probably infrequent in fathers of young children.

In addition to the above reasons advanced for the more adverse effects of father absence due to divorce, compared to death, is the explanation given in relation to the distinct significance in the contexts of both society and the family concerning death and divorce. The way in which others behave toward children from divorced compared to widowed homes and their expectations of the behaviour of children from such homes may differ. In support of this explanation, Mahabeer (1986) found that student teachers

had more positive expectations of children from widowed versus divorced families on self, home, school and social adjustment.

According to Berlinsky and Biller (1982), members of society are likely to behave in a sympathetic manner toward bereaved children, a response that may persist for many years after death. Depression may be expected of bereaved children and such an expectation may become a self-fulfilling prophesy. In general, others may be willing to excuse maladaptive behaviour in children who have lost a parent through death, attributing such behaviour to the children's presumably traumatic experience.

The response accorded to children of divorce may be quite different. The social stigma attached to divorce may be reflected in the reactions of others toward the children of divorced parents. They are less often expected to mourn the loss of a parent. Their behaviour may be seen as consistent with their negative family backgrounds. The attribution of blame for behaviour problems may be more of an issue in the divorced than widowed situation and, while the parents are likely to be the recipients of such attitudes, the children will inevitably be affected.

Similar differences in behaviours and attitudes specific to the reason for parent absence may be manifested within the family. It has been the consensus of many authors who have

reviewed the literature on father absence that loss of a husband through death is less damaging to a woman's self-esteem than is divorce, and that a mother's treatment of her children will vary accordingly (Benson, 1968; Biller, 1971, 1981; Kitson, Lopata & Meyering, 1980; Lynn, 1974). A divorced mother is more likely to speak disparagingly about the father of her children and such attitudes have been associated with poor self-concept and acting out behaviour in boys (Benson, 1968; Lynn, 1974). According to these authors, mothers find death easier to explain than divorce, and that young children find death less difficult to understand and accept.

According to Lamb (1976), it is unfortunate that most of the research has not differentiated between family dissolution due to death of a spouse, and due to divorce. These two are very different social phenomena; the former is a discrete event, whereas the latter is a dynamic, protracted process. Therefore, it would be expected that their consequences might be very different.

In reviewing the empirical evidence, most of the relevant studies have been dealing with the effects of divorce and not the effects of death. A reason for this, advanced by Lamb (1976), is that among younger families with children, family break-ups due to divorce are considerably more common than dissolutions due to death. This may be particularly so in western cultures to which such studies are confined.

(b) Studies concerned with effects of father absence due to death versus divorce

Hetherington (1972) explored the effects of death and divorce on the behaviour of father-absent adolescent girls. The subjects were three groups of 24 lower- and lower-middle-class, first born, adolescent, white girls, ranging in age from 13 to 17 years. None of the subjects had male siblings. The three groups of subjects were from intact, widowed and divorced families. The groups were matched for age, education, as well as education and age of mothers or fathers, maternal employment, religious affiliation and number of siblings.

The data were obtained from interview ratings and the following instruments: The California Personality Inventory; Femininity Scale (Gough, 1957), the Internal-External Control Scale (Rotter, 1966), the short form of the Manifest Anxiety Scale (Bendig, 1956), and the Draw-a-Person Test for mothers and daughters (Machover, 1957).

The results suggest that the effects of father absence on daughters appear during adolescence and are manifested mainly as an inability to interact appropriately with males rather than as other deviations from appropriate sex-typing or in interaction with females. Daughters of divorced families showed greater receptiveness to males and reported earlier and more dating and sexual intercourse, in contrast

to daughters of widows. The latter were more reserved and withdrawn in male company and reported starting to date late and being sexually inhibited.

In both father-absent groups, there was a general feeling of anxiety and powerlessness which was also reflected in relatively high scores on the Manifest Anxiety Scale and relatively low scores on the factor dealing with a sense of personal control over the course of one's life on the Internal-External Control Scale. This may be intensified in daughters of divorced parents who may have low self-esteem.

According to Hetherington (1972), it seems likely that differences in the behaviour of the divorced and widowed mothers may have mediated differences in their daughters' behaviours. In relationships with their daughters, widows, divorcees and mothers from intact families were similar in many ways. However, it seems mainly in attitudes toward herself, her marriage, and her life that the divorcee differed from the widow. The former is anxious and unhappy, having negative and hostile attitudes towards her husband, marriage and social support. These attitudes are reflected in the critical attitude of her daughter toward the divorced father. This is in contrast to the positive attitudes of the widows towards marriage, their deceased husbands, and the emotional support of friends and family. These attitudes are reflected in the happy memories their daughters have of their fathers.

Hetherington offers a speculative explanation of the relationships between these maternal behaviours and the daughters' behaviour in interacting with males. It is possible that daughters of divorcees view their mothers' separated lives as unsatisfying, and feel that for happiness it is essential to secure a man. Their lack of experience in interacting with a loving father and their hostile memories of their father may cause them to be particularly apprehensive and inept in their pursuit of this goal. As a defense to being inept, these girls become precociously skillful and provocative in their relationships with men.

Further, it may be that life with a dissatisfied, anxious mother may cause their daughters to be more eager to leave home than daughters of widows living with relatively happy, secure mothers with support from the extended family. Daughters of widows may have an aggrandized image of their fathers and may feel that other males cannot compare favourably with their deceased fathers. Therefore, it is apparent that that reasons for father absence is an important factor which must be considered in future investigations of this problem.

Felner, Stolberg and Cowen (1975) investigated the impact of two types of potential crisis-producing experiences on the referral patterns of maladaptive primary-grade school children: parental separation/divorce and parental death.

Two sets of subjects (ranging in age from five years to ten years) were used in two studies.

In the first study teachers identified 108 children with a history of parental separation or divorce and 32 others with a history of parental death. These two crisis subgroups were matched for sex, school grade, school location and socio-economic-status with separate control groups (who were referred, but without crisis histories) of 93 and 30 subjects, respectively.

They were assessed on the Teacher Referral Form (TRF) developed by Clarfield (1974). It included 37 behavioural items describing various school adaptation problems. The three stable TRF factors were : Acting Out (A), Moodiness (M) and Learning Problems (L). A second instrument, (AML) is an 11-item quick-screen device for early school maladaptation. It covers the same stable factors as the TRF.

Children with a history of parental separation/divorce had significantly higher acting-out scores than their controls on the AML. By contrast, children with a history of parental death had significantly higher shy-anxious scores than their controls on the AML.

Because of the history of earlier conflicting findings and because significant group differences were found on only one

of the two referral instruments, the researchers considered it important to repeat the study with comparable, new independent groups.

The subjects were selected in a similar way as the initial sample with 188 subjects with separation/divorce and 38 with parental death histories, and 950 without crisis histories. In the final comparison, the 38 subjects with parental death histories were matched on the control variables noted above with a subgroup of 38 subjects with parental separation/divorce histories.

Children with parental histories of separation/divorce had significantly higher overall maladjustment scores than their controls on both measures, as well as on the A-factor. Children with parental death histories also had both significantly higher total and M-factor maladjustment scores than their controls on both measures. There were no significant overall group maladjustment differences between the subjects with parental histories of separation/divorce versus death. However, the former had significantly higher A scores than the latter, with the reverse holding true on the M-measures.

Thus, both groups of children with histories of parental separation/divorce and death showed greater school maladjustment than demographically comparable referral children without such histories. These overall differences

may reflect the change, with subsequent pressures, precipitated in children by these crisis events (McDermott, 1968) and exacerbated by a shift in family equilibrium as a result of the "separation" experience (Birtchnell, 1969). Thus, both separation and death can cause significant change in the surviving parent and in the parent-child interaction (Hilgard, Newman & Fisk, 1960; Rosenbaum, 1963).

The most important findings, however, are those identifying differential referral patterns in the two crisis groups. Whereas children who have experienced parental death manifested heightened shyness, timidity and withdrawal, those with histories of parent separation or divorce had elevated acting-out and aggressive referral patterns. These results are seen to have implications for early detection and preventive efforts.

A limitation of the research is the biased sample. Subjects were identified as having significant early school adjustment problems, and hence were eligible for referral to a school mental health program. The generalizability of the findings to children without such referrals is questionable. Further, some subjects were defined according to "death of a parent" which could be either mother or father. It is possible that the study could yield different results if the sex of the deceased parent were controlled.

2.4.2 Parent-Child Relationships

According to Fine, Moreland and Schwebel (1983), much of the literature on the effects of divorce on parent-child relationships is composed of conceptual articles based on the clinicians' impressions formed from their professional experience. There is a general emphasis on the negative outcomes of divorce on children's relationships with their parents. Some of the suggestions are that the custodial mother may displace anger from conflicts with her ex-spouse onto her children (Anthony, 1974; Klatskin, 1972; McDermott, 1970; Westman, 1972); that children may experience decreased trust in their parents (Toomin, 1974; Westman, 1972); and that children may be angry at their parents (McDermott, 1968; Salk, 1979; Westman, 1972). Some exceptions to these suggestions are those by Steinzor (1969) and Grollman (1969) who suggested that divorce may be a healthier resolution of marital conflict than is the continuation of conflict within the marriage.

Empirical investigations using non-clinical populations of divorced families have demonstrated that many parent-child relationships are adversely affected by the divorce experience (Goode, 1956; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1976; Landis, 1960; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; Weiss, 1975).

Wallerstein and Kelly (1976) investigated the impact of divorce on 31 children in later latency (age range between

nine and ten years). They were observed shortly after the initial parental separation and one year later. The subjects belonged to 28 divorcing families referred for anticipatory guidance and planning for their children.

The researchers maintain that divorce could have the potential to adversely affect the psychosocial functioning and parent-child relationships of the latency child. Alternatively, it could also promote development with more gratifying post-divorce relationships within the family structure. The new parent-child configurations that emerge after divorce constitute a significant component of children's total response in this age group. These could result in a variety of effects, from precocious, adolescent or pseudo-adolescent behaviours to the development of empathic responsiveness or alignment (playing one parent against the other).

One of the attributes of the parent-child relationship at this age is the interdependence of parent and child. This can become enhanced at the time of divorce. The child thus has a significant role of restoring or further diminishing the self-esteem of the parent.

Among the 31 children, eight (26%) formed a relationship with one parent and specifically aimed to exclude or reject the other. This was often initiated by the embattled parent who felt aggrieved, deserted or betrayed. The anger of the

parent and child became organized strategies aimed at hurting the former spouse. None of these children had previously rejected the parent who therefore felt even more bewildered and humiliated.

Several children displayed heightened empathic response to one or both distressed parents and siblings. This was attributed in several children to a specific consequence of the separation and the ensuing divorce. Parents responded to this sensitivity and consideration with great appreciation. Some of these children, especially the girls worried about their fathers and were concerned about the particulars of where they were eating and sleeping. Sometimes, the children took on responsibility for younger children, as well as important routines in the household. Many mothers, in return, relied on the emotional and physical support of their children as they had no other adult relationship to rely on.

A first follow-up after a year showed that about half of the children (15 of the 29 seen at follow-up) had completely overcome the turbulent responses to the divorce. But even these maintained anger and hostility toward the non-custodial parent. Although some of these children who were doing well continued to harbour reconciliation wishes, most had come to accept the divorce with sad finality.

By contrast, the other half (14) gave evidence of troubled and conflicted depressive behaviour patterns. Half of these showed more open distress and disturbance than at the initial visit. A significant component in this now chronic maladjustment, was continuing depression and low self-esteem, together with school and social difficulties. Phobic reactions in one had worsened and spread. Delinquent behaviour such as truancy and petty stealing remained unchanged while those who had become isolated and withdrawn were even more so after a year.

A new configuration that emerged was a precocious thrust into adolescence, preoccupation with sexuality and assertiveness, with all the detrimental potential of such phase-inappropriate behaviour. In both groups with better and poorer outcomes, relatively few were able to maintain good relationships with both parents.

The most important contribution of this study is that it reveals that not all children of divorce suffer from long-term detrimental effects. While in half of the subjects the negative responses of divorce were muted over a year, the other half showed maladaptive patterns of behaviour. However, being such a qualitative study it lacks rigid empiricism. More empirically based research in the area would be necessary to substantiate these results. Post-divorce conditions such as the involvement of father and increased stresses in the household, support systems etc.

need to be investigated in relation to perceived quality of current parent-child relationships.

Fine, Moreland and Schwebel (1983) investigated the long-term effects of divorce on college subjects' perceptions of their relationships with their parents. They hypothesized that children from divorced families will perceive their relationships with their mothers and fathers less positively than those from intact families. This effect will be greater in sons than in daughters of divorced families.

The subjects were enrolled in an introductory psychology course. The experimental group consisted of 11 males and 56 females who experienced parental divorce before the age of 11 years. Of these, 39 males and 47 females lived with their mothers, 3 males and 5 females with their fathers and 2 males and 4 females with other relatives. The control group consisted of 56 male and 85 female students from continuously intact families. The mean age was 19,6 years. All groups were matched on age and socio-economic status.

The data were obtained from demographic questionnaires, Modified Life Interpersonal History Enquiry (LIPHE Schutz, 1980), Parent Evaluation Scale (Cooper, 1966), Parent-Child Relationship Survey (Fine et al., 1983) and Experience of Divorce Questionnaire.

The results showed that mother-child, and father-child relationships of subjects from divorced families, as contrasted with those from intact families, are characterized as having greater distance, poorer communication, less affection and warmth and less positive feelings in general. Thus, this study demonstrated that the long-term effects of divorce on perceived parent-child relationships are similar to the short- and medium-term effects described by other researchers (Goode, 1956; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1976; Landis, 1960; Toomin, 1974; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; Weiss, 1975; Westman, 1972). This is a particularly important finding because it was one of the first studies which has used such a long post-divorce interval.

There were also some meaningful individual differences. A number of subjects from divorced families perceived their relationships more positively than the control groups. This may be explained in terms of personality differences of parents, since Hetherington et al. (1976) suggest that parents who cope more effectively with the stresses of divorce have healthier relationships with their children. Other factors which seemed to lessen the potentially negative impact of divorce were perceptions of positive predivorce family life, a higher quality predivorce parent-child relationships, parents who have more frequent contact with each other, and higher socio-economic status.

The findings suggest that the total subjects perceived their father-child relationships more positively than their mother-child relationships. Also male and female subjects from divorced families perceived their relationships with their fathers equally negatively whereas female subjects had more positive perceptions of their relationships with their mothers than did their male counterparts. Further investigation is warranted to clarify these differences.

2.4.3 Marital Conflict and Turbulence

A substantial body of evidence suggests that there may be a relationship between discord and the existence of behaviour problems in children (Johnson & Lobitz, 1974; Porter & O'Leary, 1980; Ulmanns, Broderick & O'Leary, 1977). These studies have shown that marital discord in general, often leads to maladjustment in the child. However, the effects of exposure to marital conflict and violence are not so well documented (Rosenbaum & O'Leary, 1981).

Ellison (1983) attempted to clarify the concept of parental harmony and its relationship to the psychosocial adjustment of school-aged children from married and divorced families. The sample consisted of mothers, fathers and children in 20 families matched for education, income and family composition. The data were obtained from interviews with

parents and children and the Children's Psychosocial Adjustment Scale.

The results indicated significant positive correlations between the divorced parents', but not married parents', assessment of parental harmony and their children's assessment of their own psychosocial adjustment. According to the researcher, this result is particularly striking, since the data were generated from two completely independent sources, the parents and the children. Thus, these results suggest that the construct of parental harmony has predictive significance for the effect of marital disruption on children.

Dancy and Handal (1984) examined two contrasting views of divorce and its effect on the adjustment of children. The physical wholeness position maintains that divorce itself adversely affects children by physical dissolution of the family, while the psychological wholeness position maintains that conflict is the critical variable which influences adjustment regardless of parental marital status.

The subjects comprised 80 adolescents (between 12 to 17 years of age) from black, working, lower class married and divorced families. The data were based on the Family Environment Scale, Peer Relationship Scale and a demographic questionnaire.

Analysis of the data failed to support the physical wholeness position; parental marital status, divorce timing and sex were not significantly related to family climate, psychological adjustment, grade point average, or peer relationships. However, results provided strong support for the psychological wholeness position since adolescents' perception of family climate, psychological adjustment and peer relationships were all significantly related to level of perceived conflict in the family. These results support those reported by Nye (1957), Kelly and Berg (1978) and Dancy and Handal (1980) who found that perceived conflict in the home was a significant variable in child development.

2.4.4 Social Support Systems

A review of the more recent literature suggests the need for the creation of a support system in cases of father absence. This could have a buffering effect on the negative aspects of father absence. According to Jauch (1977) many single parents respond to such dilemmas by creating a support system which performs in many ways like an extended family. A network of relationships provides emotional support and practical assistance for the whole family. Further, it may also mitigate some of the negative social stigma which is usually associated with single parenting (Smith, 1980).

Mahabeer (1987) found that boys from father-absent extended families were viewed more positively than boys from father-absent nuclear families on self and social adjustment scales. This was in accordance with Barry (1979) who found that all 25 single parent subjects in his study indicated the great importance of supportive social contacts and listed their extended family (parents, brothers, sisters, grandparents, uncles, aunts) as major sources of moral support and practical help.

Smith (1980) found that single-parent families were making greater use of shared living arrangements than intact families. Twenty-three percent of single parents, compared to nine percent of intact families had another adult (usually a relative) living in the household. It may, therefore, be necessary to examine the quality of the social network that determines the effectiveness of a family's functioning within the network (Lindblad-Goldberg and Dukes, 1985).

Dornbusch, Carlsmith, Bushwall, Ritter, Liederman, Hastorf and Gross (1985) investigated the interrelationships among family structure, patterns of family decision-making and deviant behaviour among adolescents. They hypothesized that single-parent households will differ from two-parent households in their ability to control adolescents. Further, they hypothesized that the presence of an additional adult in a single-parent household will increase

control over adolescent decision making and reduce various forms of deviance.

A nation-wide probability sample was drawn from the population of 23 million noninstitutionalized youth, ranging in age from 12 to 17 years. The subjects were matched for social class (assessed by income and parental education). The total sample consisted of adolescents from all ethnic groups. Mother-only families were compared with families containing both the biological mother and the biological father. Within the mother-only families, the impact of the presence of an additional adult was also examined. Families headed by a single father, or where a step-father was present, were excluded.

Data were collected on each adolescent by a trained interviewer who obtained detailed information on the subjects, their parents and school officials and school records. The measures of deviance were contact with the law, arrests, runaway, smoking, truancy and school discipline. There was a total deviance score ranging from 0 to 12 points.

The results revealed that, with no exceptions, the proportion of deviants among mother-only households is greater than the proportion of deviants among households with two natural parents. On control for family income, no comparisons were possible within the high income group

because of the limited number of mother-only households with high incomes. Social class (for low- and middle-income groups) and parental education did not affect the consistent relationship between mother-only households and higher rates of adolescent deviance. Further, the pattern of differences in rates of adolescent deviance between mother-only households and households of two natural parents was similar among males and females.

Extended households among mother-only groups were shown to have lower rates of adolescent deviance. There were no exceptions to the presence of an additional adult being associated with a lower rate of adolescent deviance. Clausen (1966) suggested the importance of grandparents and other relatives in the households, but he could report little empirical evidence concerning their impact.

Kellam et al. (1977) showed that the presence of a grandmother assisted the social adaptation in single-mother families. Single-parent households were perceived as more likely to make decisions without direct parental input than two-natural-parent households. This also applied when social class was controlled. The single mother was faced with the problem of controlling an adolescent without input from the youth. This made it more likely for the adolescent to make decisions independently. This trend was reversed in the extended households, even when social class was controlled. The presence of an additional adult appeared to

establish a level of parental control that was similar to the control of adolescents in two-parent households.

This study has thrown additional light on the importance of family support especially in a father-absent family. Although the study controlled for variables of sex and social class, the reason for father absence was not indicated.

2.5 CONCLUSION

For four decades research disputing the null hypothesis of no differences between children reared by one or two parents has appeared, but methodological flaws invalidating or restricting the validity of these findings abound. The principal difficulty in attempts to reject the null hypothesis is that the independent subject variables, number of parents and cause of parent absence are entangled with a profusion of conditions known to influence child development (Blechman, 1982).

A major problem characteristic of many studies is the tendency to treat all those who lost a father during childhood as if they were a homogeneous group (Biller, 1971, 1974, 1981; Gregory, 1958; Herzog & Sudia, 1973). Samples have tended to be poorly defined, without consideration for

the reasons for father absence, socio-economic status, family structure, sex or age at the time of parental loss, and the quality of parent-child relationships and the availability of family support systems. All of these variables would be related to differences in behaviour, and, therefore, they need to be accounted for in any interpretation of results.

Among the crucial changes in family circumstances after death or divorce of parents are the emotional and physical availability of the remaining parent due to increased responsibilities, stress level within the family, employment status of the mother, functional roles played by other family members (siblings, grandparents and other extended family members), and the introduction of parent substitutes (Berlinsky & Biller, 1982).

The limited research in which these variables are accounted for show that they do indeed make a difference to the child's subsequent functioning. It is, therefore, quite surprising that most studies ignore differences in subjects on these variables.

Researchers in this field have also criticized other aspects of sample selection. Shinn (1978) has argued that samples in many studies are either too small or too restricted to lead to a meaningful conclusion. They were often over-represented by clinic, psychiatric and other emotionally

disturbed or behaviourally disordered populations. Findings from such samples would be naturally biased towards results showing some form of maladjustment in subjects, whether normal or disturbed subjects are used as comparison groups. The problem becomes more serious when unwarranted generalizations to other groups are made.

Another problem prevalent in the literature is the failure to equate groups on significant variables for valid comparisons. Ideally, matching of groups should be done on all of the variables discussed other than merely father absence and the reason for father absence during childhood.

Much of the earlier researches on the effects of father absence were based on the assumptions of the psychoanalytic and social-learning theories. They looked systematically at the mother-father, father-child and mother-child relationships, as well as the internal processes of each family member. However, they have not adequately examined the reciprocal interaction effects of family members, since changes in one family member's role affects those of others in the family. Thus in conducting research in this area, it is necessary to take cognizance of this fact as far as it is possible.

Taking into account the above methodological limitations, the present investigation attempted to overcome the most salient of these. It was decided to use a large sample size

from a non-clinic population from a similar socio-economic status background. In addition to subject characteristics (child's sex, present age and age at marital disruption), other family and situational variables which have been shown to be partial in mediating the effects of father absence were also considered. These were reasons for father absence, presence of extended family members, maternal educational level and employment status, size of family and degree of turbulence. The collection of data from multidimensional sources was also regarded as an added advantage in providing validity and therefore credibility to the results obtained in the present investigation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

It seemed necessary to initially establish the incidence of father absence due to divorce/separation and widowhood and to obtain information on the living arrangements of school children. Thereafter, from extensive data collected on demographic variables of school children, a sample which met the criteria relevant for the study was chosen. Details of the sample selection and procedure involved in the investigation follows.

3.2 SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE TO DEFINE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Permission was obtained from the Executive Director, House of Delegates, Department of Education and Culture to use Indian school pupils in the study. It was decided to use school children from the suburb of Chatsworth which houses a large proportion of the Indian population in South Africa (149,941; 18,26% of the total of 821,361 according to Central Statistical Services, 1985). Another reason for choosing this area is the confinement of the study to the

lower socio-economic status group. A large proportion of the residents living in this area belonged to this group. The schools utilized were from the neighbouring districts of Westcliff and Moorton with four primary schools (N = 1,658) and two secondary schools (N = 1250) in Westcliff and two primary schools (N = 836) and one secondary school (N = 646) in Moorton.

Demographic questionnaires (see Appendix A) and a covering letter (see Appendix B) requesting parents to fill in the questionnaires and informing them about the nature and aims of the research were issued to pupils from class one to standard ten. Of the 4,534 questionnaires circulated, 4,390 questionnaires were used for the initial analysis. The remainder were either incomplete or not returned. From the analysis of the data obtained therefrom, the demographic variables concerning the incidence of father absence due to divorce and widowhood and the living arrangements of school children were defined. Further, the final sample that met the criteria relevant to the present study was selected.

From the respondents of the initial analysis, 600 subjects comprising 100 males and 100 females from intact, widowed and divorced families were selected. They were further divided into groups of 50 each from nuclear and extended families. (See Table 3.1). However, only 447 questionnaires were used for further statistical analyses, since the

incomplete questionnaires and those where the teacher indicated not knowing the child well enough were excluded.

TABLE 3.1
DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS ACCORDING TO SEX, PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM

	Males		Females		Total
	Nuclear	Extended	Nuclear	Extended	
Intact	50	50	50	50	200
Widowed	50	50	50	50	200
Divorced	50	50	50	50	200
TOTAL	150	150	150	150	600

3.3 THE SAMPLE:

A sample of children consisting of 447 Indian males and females was used. The subjects ranged in age from 6 years to 18 years. They belonged to the low socio-economic status group which was determined by three factors: residential area, parents' educational level and occupation. The area chosen for the study houses mainly residents of a lower

income group. The parents' educational level did not exceed standard ten.

The occupation of the breadwinner or the last occupation of the breadwinner was assumed as the most important, single indicator of socio-economic status. This index was used very successfully in research among the Indian community by Ramfol (1960) and Hurbans (1979). The present investigation included only "blue-collar" workers who were classified into the "low" category. It included all types of unskilled workers such as labourers, gardeners, factory workers, shop assistants, etc.

Details of the demographic distribution appears in Table 3.2

TABLE 3.2
DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE ACCORDING TO DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

	Sex		Age			MARITAL STATUS			FAMILY SYSTEM		RELIGION		
	MALE	FEMALE	6-9	10-12	13-18	MARRIED	WIDOWED	DIVORCED	NUCLEAR	EXTENDED	HINDU	CHRISTIAN	MUSLIM
N	229	218	74	172	201	151	131	162	262	174	286	111	46
%	51.2	48.8	16.6	38.5	45.0	34.0	29.5	36.5	58.6	38.9	64.6	25.1	10.4

	Maternal Occupation		Maternal Educational Level		Mother's Age		
	HOUSEWIFE	WORKING	PRIMARY	SECONDARY	20-29	30-39	OVER 40
	N	339	101	244	177	61	243
%	77	23	57.9	42.0	14.0	55.9	30.1

	No of Children			Child's Age at Marital Disruption			Degree of Turbulence	
	1	2-3	4+	0-2	3-6	7+	HIGH	LOW
N	24	111	70	38	51	51	85	119
%	11.7	54.1	34.1	27.1	36.4	36.4	41.7	58.3

The subjects were divided into three groups: intact, widowed and divorced groups. The first group comprised subjects with both married, biological parents with no history of marital separation. In the other two groups, only subjects whose fathers were absent, but not replaced by stepfathers, were included. The reasons for father absence were restricted to death and permanent separation (lasting for over two years) or divorce. In the latter groups, only those subjects whose mothers were the custodial parents were chosen.

The father-absent groups included all subjects who experienced father loss for a period of two years or more. This is of particular interest and had to be controlled because of the suggestion that the first two years after separation comprise the period of maximum disequilibrium. Thereafter, the severity of problems tends to diminish over time (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1979; Kelly & Wallerstein, 1976; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1976).

In order to assess the relationship between the age of the child and severity of the problems, the experimental groups were divided into three age groups: younger primary school children (6 to 9 years); older primary school children (10 to 12 years) and secondary school children (13 to 18 years).

To study the effect of family system on psychosocial adjustment of children, the subjects were divided into nuclear and extended family systems.

The subjects represented Hindu, Christian and Muslim religious groups. According to the 1980 figures (Central Statistical Services, 1980b), the distribution of Asians according to religion for the Republic of South Africa was 66,30% Hindus, 20,95% Muslims and 12,75% Christians. These figures are similar for Hindus in the present study, but not so for the latter two groups. The lower representation of Muslims in the present sample could be explained by the higher numbers of Muslims represented in the middle- and upper- classes of Indians. Hence, the religious distribution of the present subjects may be assumed to be representative of this particular area.

From the sample of children, 204 of their mothers who volunteered to participate in the research were chosen as subjects. They consisted of 64 from intact, 68 from widowed and 72 from divorced families. Of these mothers 63,6% had primary school education and 36,4% had secondary school education; 72,4% were housewives and 27,6% were employed; 49,2% were from nuclear compared to 50,8% from extended families.

For mothers living in the extended households, those who lived with their own parents were 9,1% for married, 22,7% for widowed and 74,4% for divorced groups. Those who lived with parents-in-law were 63,6% for married, 22,7% for widowed and 0% for divorced groups. The remaining mothers lived with other relatives (for example, married children, siblings, uncles, aunts or friends).

Of 41,8 % of mothers who reported experiencing high turbulence, 3,5% were from married, 13,2% were from widowed and 25,1% were from divorced families. Of the 58.1% of mothers who reported experiencing low levels of turbulence, 28,1% were from married, 20,2% were from widowed and 9,9% were from divorced families.

The major causes for the husband's death was attributed to illness (71,7%), accident (16,4%), murder (7,5%) and suicide (4,5%). The major causes for divorce were physical and drug abuse and infidelity (62,1%). Other reasons were lack of support (12,6%), desertion (11,7%), incompatibility (8,1%), bigamy (3,6%) and conflict with in-laws (1,8%). Many of the divorced mothers gave more than one reason for the divorce

and all of them attributed complete blame onto their husbands.

3.4 THE INSTRUMENTS

Instruments were chosen on the basis of their applicability and relevance to the variables currently under study, the sample characteristics (for example, age), previous use in research and appropriate psychometric properties, such as, reliability and validity. However, since there is a paucity of measures designed for the particular ethnic and cultural group under study, the researcher had to make use of instruments used with other population groups. Cognisance was taken of this limitation and an effort was made, where necessary, to modify some of the terminology used in the psychometric tests, without changing the meaning of the content.

3.4.1 The Biographical Inventory

The biographical inventory (see Appendix A) was constructed by the researcher to ascertain relevant demographic information such as age, sex, parental marital status, family system etc. It was distributed to all parents of the school children in the initial sample. From these

respondents, the final sample was selected. Details of the specific selection criteria employed are given in the procedure section.

Mothers were also administered a biographical inventory (see Appendix C) to ascertain information on demographic variables such as years of marriage, number and ages of children, other adults living in the home, educational level and occupational status.

3.4.2 The Child Behaviour Rating Scale (CBRS; Cassel, 1962)

The CBRS was administered to school teachers in order to assess the psychosocial adjustment of children. Although it was developed and standardized for use with primary school children, the present researcher considered most of the items to be relevant for older children as well. However, a few items such as, "Often cries, with little or no reason" which were considered irrelevant for older children, were eliminated.

Since the CBRS is used only by raters who have observed or known well the behaviour of the child to be rated, those questionnaires where teachers indicated not knowing the child well were excluded from the analysis.

The subscales selected for the present study were as follows:

- 1) Self Adjustment consisting of 22 items;
- 2) Social Adjustment consisting of 19 items and
- 3) School Adjustment consisting of 13 items.

The subscale for Home Adjustment was excluded, since it was considered by the researcher that teachers may have inadequate or unreliable perceptions of children's home adjustment. Each item was rated on a four-point scale. It was scored according to the scoring procedures given in the CBRS manual (Cassel, 1962).

Adequate reliability and validity was established for the CBRS. Since all the items were directly obtained from summary case reports made by highly trained persons in different disciplines dealing with child behaviour, the CBRS is presumed to have high face validity (Cassel, 1962). To establish the construct validity, the scores on the CBRS were highly statistically significant when related to school achievement test scores, intelligence quotients and social development. Pearson r ratings between mothers and fathers were 0,65. Using the Spearman - Brown formula on odd - even CBRS items, indices of reliability were computed. On a sample of 800 typical children, the resulting r was 0,87; on a sample of 200 maladjusted children the r was 0,59.

3.4.3 Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI; Coopersmith, 1967)

The SEI (see Appendix D) was administered to primary and secondary school children. The full form of the SEI contains 58 items which can be divided into four subscales, viz, social, peers, parents and academic. However, for the present study, a shortened version of 25 items which correlates 0,86 with the full version (Argyle & Lee, 1972), was used in the present investigation to assess the self-esteem of children. This two-point rating scale, suitable for use in the age range 10- to 16- year olds, was devised for a research study (Coopersmith, 1967).

The statements tap a wide area of self-conception and are written in positive and negative forms to obviate the acquiescence response set. The subjects are requested to tick each statement either as "Like me" or "Unlike me". High scores indicate high self-esteem, while low scores indicate low self-esteem.

The full form of the scale has a test-retest reliability over a five-week period with 10 year-old, white children of 0,88, and over a three-year interval with a different sample of 55 students, a reliability of 0,70 was recorded.

In an analysis of the SEI, Edgar, Powell, Watkins, Moore and Zakharov (1974), using 816 12 to 14 year-old children, found

the subscales to be internally consistent (alpha coefficients ranging from 0,58 to 0,89). A factor analysis revealed one dominant factor which suggests that a global self-esteem measure can be obtained quite validly from the inventory.

3.4.4 Semantic Differential (S.D.; Osgood and Tannebaum, 1957)

The SD was administered to children (see Appendix E) and their mothers (see Appendix F) to assess their perceptions of self and family members. In the case of children, it was also used to assess their perceptions of school and teacher.

The semantic differential is an extremely flexible technique, rather than a particular scale (Burns, 1979). It was originally developed to measure the meaning systems of individuals, essentially connotative meaning. Since it is a very economical method of assessing attitudes to objects, it was used in the present study to assess the subjects' self and person perception.

Factor analysis has generally revealed three distinct orthogonal factors, namely, evaluation, potency and activity, of which evaluation is the dominant one. This led Osgood and Tannebaum to believe that the attitudinal

variable in human thinking is primary. Consequently, they claimed that the semantic differential could be employed as an attitude - measuring device provided only scales loaded on the evaluation dimension were used.

A further advantage of this technique is that Osgood (1959) testifies to its validity as a cross-cultural technique when he demonstrates that the visual-verbal synesthetic relationships characteristic of one language and culture - community are shared by peoples with different language and culture. He supposes that there is a world-view that is relatively stable despite differences in both language and culture. This is particularly beneficial for the current research dealing with subjects of varying cultural and religious backgrounds.

Basically, the method involves sets of polar adjectives, e.g. good-bad, happy-sad, reliable-unreliable listed down and headed with a stimulus word or phrase, for example, "Myself", "My Mother".

The pairs of adjectives are listed as endpoints of a continuum divided into an uneven number (five was chosen in the current research) of response gradations. Subjects were requested to consider the stimulus in terms of each of the scales, and place a check-mark in one of the divisions on

the continuum to indicate the relative applicability of the polar terms.

The reliability and validity of the SD is well documented (Warr & Knapper, 1968). High test and retest reliability coefficients have been reported, generally of the order of between 0,83 and 0,90 (Jenkins, Russel & Suci, 1958; Osgood & Tannebaum, 1957).

Marais (1967) points out that investigators using the SD are usually satisfied with its face validity. Alternatively, the high correlation coefficients between the SD and other attitude scales are accepted as being indicative of its validity.

3.4.5 The Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations Questionnaire (PHSF; Human Sciences Research Council, 1968)

The PHSF was administered to adolescents in the sample. The purpose of the PHSF Relations Questionnaire is to measure the personal, home, social and formal relations of adolescents and adults, in order to determine the level of adjustment. The level of adjustment of a person, for each of the various components of adjustment, is determined by the frequency with which his responses, in relations within the

self or with the environment, are mature or immature, efficient or inefficient. Rather than being concerned with the measurement of personality traits as such, it is concerned with the expression and dynamics of these traits in the person's striving for harmony within the self and between the self and the environment.

The PHSF measures the following 11 components of adjustments which are divided into four main adjustment areas. It also includes a Desirability Scale. The description of the subscales are provided in the Manual (Human Sciences Research Council, 1968) as follows:

- 1) Personal Relations (P) refers to the intra-personal relations which are of primary importance in adjustment. It comprises the following:
 - i) Self-Confidence refers to the degree to which a person has confidence in his ability, real or fancied to be successful.
 - ii) Self-Esteem refers to the inner appraisal based on evaluation and acceptance of real or fancied personality characteristics, abilities and defects.
 - iii) Self-Control refers to the degree to which a person succeeds in controlling and channelling his

emotions and needs in accordance with his principles and judgement.

- iv) Nervousness refers to the extent of the presence of symptoms of nervousness as expressed by anxious, purposeless, repetitive behaviour.
- v) Health refers to the preoccupation with the physical condition.

2) Home Relations (H)

This concerns the relations experienced by the respondent as a dependant within the family and the home environment. It comprises the following:

- vi) Family Influences refers to the degree to which a person as a dependant in a home is influenced by factors such as his position in the family, family togetherness, relationship between the parents and socio-economic conditions.
- vii) Personal Freedom refers to the degree to which a person feels that he is not restricted by his parents.

(3) Social Relations (S)

This refers to the manner in which a person engages in harmonious and informal relations within the social environment. It comprises the following aspects:

- viii) Sociability - G
This is the degree to which a person has a need for and spontaneously participates in social group interaction (extrovert) in comparison with the degree to which a person is averse to social group interaction (introvert).
- ix) Sociability - S
This is the degree to which a person has a need for social interaction with a specific person of the opposite sex.
- x) Moral Sense
Refers to the degree to which a person feels that his behaviour corresponds to the accepted norms of society.
- 4) Formal Relations refers to the relations occurring in formal situations in the school, college, university or occupation.
- xi) Formal relations is the degree to which a person is successful with his colleagues as well as figures of authority and supervisors in the learning/work situation.

The Desirability Scale indicates the honesty with which the person answers the questionnaire.

Each of the above subscales consists of 15 items which are scored on a four-point scale. Subjects indicated how often they experienced certain relations or situations by choosing Almost always/Always, Often, Sometimes, Rarely/Never. A high score indicates good adjustment and a low score indicates maladjustment. The scoring procedures given in the manual were followed.

The reliability of the PHSF was calculated according to the split-half method yielding correlations ranging from 0,63 to 0,94 for all subscales with high school males and females. From factor analyses on the PHSF and the Adjustment Questionnaire (National Bureau of Educational and Social Research, 1951) it appeared that the PHSF has a high degree of construct validity. It was also found to discriminate relatively consistently between the norm groups and the group of deviate boys and girls. The latter group showed poorer adjustment on all the subscales of the PHSF.

3.4.6 The Family Environment Scale (FES; Moos, 1986)

The FES measures the social-environmental characteristics of all types of families. The Real Form (Form R) which

measures people's perceptions of their conjugal or nuclear family environments was administered to the mothers in the present sample. It consists of ten subscales which assess three underlying domains, or sets of dimensions. These are described in the Manual (Moos, 1986) as follows:

- 1) The Relationship dimensions are measured by the Cohesion, Expressiveness and Conflict subscales. These subscales assess the degree of commitment, help and support family members provide for one another; the extent to which family members are encouraged to act openly and to express their feeling directly; and the amount of openly expressed anger, aggression and conflict among family members.

- 2) The Personal Growth, or goal orientation dimensions are measured by the Independence, Achievement Orientation, Intellectual-Cultural Orientation, Active-Recreational Orientation and Moral-Religious subscales. These assess the extent to which family members are assertive and make their own decisions; the extent to which activities are cast into an achievement-oriented or competitive framework; the degree of interest in political, social, intellectual and cultural and recreational activities; and the degree of emphasis on ethical and religious issues and values.

- 3) The System Maintenance dimensions are measured by the Organization and Control subscales. These subscales assess the degree of importance of clear organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibilities and the extent to which set rules and procedures are used to run family life.

For the present study, it was decided to choose only subscales considered to be of the greatest relevance for the present sample and purpose of the study. Thus the following subscales were chosen: Cohesion, Expressiveness and Conflict (all measures of the Relationship dimension); Moral-Religious Emphasis (Personal Growth dimension) and Organization (System Maintenance dimension).

Each of the above subscales consist of 15 true/false items. The higher the score the greater the degree of the particular component for each of the subscales. The scoring procedures given in the FES Manual (Moos, 1986) were used.

The internal consistencies ranged from 0,69 to 0,78; while the 12-month test, retest ranged from 0,63 to 0,89 for the subscales used for the current research. Several studies support the construct validity of the FES. Sandler and Barrera (1984) found that those who perceived their family as more cohesive reported receiving more socially supportive behaviours from family members. Brown, Yelsma and Keller

(1981) found that those who handled conflict constructively were likely to report low conflict at home.

3.4.7 The Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation (MCRE;
Roth, 1961)

The MCRE was used to determine the attitudes by which mothers relate to their children. It provides an objective estimate of a mother's relationship to her child based on a five-point attitude profile. The following four subscales used in the present research are described in the Manual (Roth, 1961) as follows:

1. Overprotection is an expression of prenatal anxiety in terms of prolonged infantile care, prevention of development of independent behaviour and an excess of control. It may be expressed as constant concern over the child's health, fear of neglect, fear that the child is not accepted by peers and help with homework.
2. Overindulgence is expressed in excessive gratification, together with the lack of parental control. It is shown in oversolicitousness and excessive contact, overdoing activities with the child, yielding to the child's demands and defending the child from attacks by others.

3. Rejection is the denial of love for the child in terms of neglect, harshness, severity, brutality and strictness. It is expressed by separation, denial of the child, punishment or maltreatment, use of threats and humiliation.
4. Acceptance is an expression of an adequate mother-child relationship in terms of sincerity of affect expression, interest in child's pleasures, activities, development, and the perception of the child as a good child. It is expressed by identification with the child, loving and affectionate mother-child relationships, firmness and nondestructive controls, consistency of discipline, order and routine in daily living and making reasonable demands of the child.

Each of the above scales have a total of 12 items and are scored on a five-point scale according to the procedures outlined in the Manual (Roth, 1961). A high score indicates higher components of a particular subscale and vice-versa.

To establish the reliability, correlations were applied to first half versus second-half scale scores. The reliability coefficients ranged from 0,41 to 0,57. The validity was established by the high negative correlation between the Acceptance and the Nonacceptance scales (-0,55).

3.4.8 Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965)

The RSES (see Appendix G) was used to assess the self-esteem of mothers. Although the scale was specifically designed by the author for a study with adolescents and students, it has thereafter been used quite successfully by other researchers using older subjects, for example, Small (1988) used the RSES with mothers.

The scale consists of 10 items, 5 of which are phrased in a positive direction with the other 5 in a negative direction to control for acquiescence. These are rated on a four-point scale ranging from strongly agree, to strongly disagree. In general terms, items score if positive ones are disagreed with and negative ones agreed with, so that high scores reflect low self-esteem. The scoring was based on procedures outlined by Rosenberg (1965).

According to Burns (1979) this scale has the merits of ease and economy of time which derive from administering a short scale. He states that the scale is worthy of high recommendation in view of its very acceptable reliability coefficients derived on only 10 items. There is also considerable evidence for its construct validity derived from the many theoretical relationships studied and shown to be significant in Rosenberg's (1965) study.

3.5 PROCEDURE

The data of the present study involved multidimensional assessments provided by teachers, children and their mothers. Therefore, the data collection which occurred in stages from different sources, will be discussed accordingly.

3.5.1 Data Collection From Teachers

The class teacher of each child in the sample was approached individually by the researcher. The purpose of the research was described to the teachers of the identified pupils as an investigation of psychosocial adjustment of children. They were not informed about its focus on the effects of father absence. Although many teachers might have been aware of the parental marital status of children in their classes, this information did not appear on the questionnaire so as to reduce stereotype or bias against such children.

The teachers were given questionnaires (see Appendix I) which contained identification and biographical information on pupils in their classes. They were asked to complete the CBRS according to the instructions provided on the test booklet. In addition they were asked to supply information on how well they knew the child and whether or not they

would recommend remedial education or psychologist/social worker intervention for the child.

From the completed questionnaires returned by the teachers, those which indicated that the child was transferred to another school, or that the teacher did not know the child well were excluded from the study. Other incomplete questionnaires were also eliminated, yielding a total of 447 out of 600.

3.5.2 Data Collection from Children

Primary school children in the age group 10 to 12 years (N = 107) and secondary school children in the age group 13 to 18 years (N = 133) were given the SD Scale and the SEI. In addition, the latter group was given the PHSF. These questionnaires were administered in groups of about 15 to 20 by the present researcher, together with a research assistant.

The instructions for test administration that appeared in the manual of the PHSF and Appendices D & E were read to the groups. Further individual assistance was rendered, whenever necessary, to the subjects in completing the questionnaires.

3.5.3 Data Collection from Mothers

A random selection of mothers of child subjects was made within each of the family structures and family systems in an attempt to equalize the numbers in each subgroup. The mothers were then contacted by telephone or by home visits (where telephones were not available) to ask them to volunteer in the research project. The aim of the study described to mothers were the same as those for teachers, except that the term "psychosocial" was explained in terms of how the children were getting along at home and at school. Appointments were set for those mothers who agreed to participate. The total number of the sample of mothers was 204.

The interviews were conducted in their homes by the present researcher, as well as five other post-graduate psychology students. To ensure standardization of interviewing procedures, the research assistants were given training and practice in a group to familiarize them with the procedures to be followed during the interview. Particular emphasis was given to the establishment of rapport during the interview.

The following instruments compiled in a booklet form were completed by the mothers with the assistance of the interviewers:

- 1) Biographical Inventory
- 2) The SD Scale
- 3) FES
- 4) MCRS
- 5) RSES

In addition to the above scales, the interviews included open and closed ended questions to ascertain information on certain aspects, such as, the degree of turbulence, reasons for divorce, cause of husband's death, relationships among family members, feelings about reconciliation, problems experienced and problem-solving devices used (see Appendix H).

3.6 CONCLUSION

The raw data yielded from the responses on the questionnaires, by means of the procedure outlined above, were then subjected to statistical analyses. Details of statistical analyses and results of the analyses are presented in the following chapter.

C H A P T E R 4

R E S U L T S

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In terms of the objectives and hypotheses formulated for testing in this study, various psychological measures were administered to:

- (1) twenty-four groups ($2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$) of primary and secondary school males and females from nuclear and extended intact, widowed and divorced families; and
- (2) six groups (2×3) of mothers from nuclear and extended intact, widowed and divorced families.

Raw data yielded by the various psychometric instruments were subjected to computer analysis. The statistics computed therefrom included SPSS multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVAS) and analyses of variance (ANOVAS), chi-square techniques, and Pearson correlation coefficients. A series of MANOVAS were designed to test the hypotheses on the linear combination of the dependent measures. To specify more precisely the areas of differences, a series of ANOVAS were subsequently computed. Post-hoc Scheffé Tests (Downie & Heath, 1974) were used to indicate significant differences between means, wherever necessary.

4.2 TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT

Teachers' perceptions of psychosocial adjustment of children (N = 446) were measured on Self, Social and School Adjustment. These sub-scales were derived from the Child Behaviour Rating Scale (CBRS; Cassel, 1962). The number of items were 22 for Self Adjustment, 19 for Social Adjustment and 13 for School Adjustment. The items were rated on a four-point scale, yielding total scores from 22 to 88; 19 to 76 and 13 to 52, respectively. Higher scores indicated more positive perceptions, whilst lower scores indicated more negative perceptions of adjustment on each of the sub-scales.

4.2.1 The Influence of Sex, Age and Parents' Marital Status on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

A 2x2x3 (Sex x Age x Marital Status) between subjects MANOVA was performed on the three dependent variables: Self, Social and School Adjustment. The independent variables were Sex (male and female), Age (primary and secondary school) and Parents' Marital Status (married, widowed and divorced).

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by the main effect of Marital Status [$F(6,864) = 6,07; p < 0,001$] and the interaction of Marital Status by Age [$F(6,864) = 2,29; p < 0,05$]. This implies that there were differences in teachers' overall perceptions of self, social and school adjustment between children from primary and high school, depending on whether they belonged to intact, widowed or divorced families.

Subsequently, univariate F tests located the areas of significant differences. Significant effects of Marital Status were obtained for the following dependent variables:

Self Adjustment [$F(2,43) = 15,04; p < 0,001$];

Social Adjustment [$F(2,43) = 17,22; p < 0,001$] and

School Adjustment [$F(2,43) = 14,28; p < 0,001$].

To clarify these differences, mean scores on Self, Social and School Adjustment for each of the groups are given in Table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CBRS SCORES
GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF ADJUSTMENT</u>			
Married	82,33	8,39	154
Widowed	76,99	11,95	129
Divorced	75,85	12,89	163
TOTAL	78,41	11,58	446
<u>SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT</u>			
Married	72,49	6,30	154
Widowed	67,99	10,04	129
Divorced	66,39	11,73	163
TOTAL	68,96	9,99	446
<u>SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT</u>			
Married	47,56	6,90	154
Widowed	43,56	8,90	129
Divorced	42,54	10,39	163
TOTAL	44,57	9,16	446

Results of the analysis in Table 4.1 indicates that teachers' perceptions of children's self, social and school adjustment were significantly affected by parents' marital status. Examination of the means (Table 4.1) indicates that the married group were perceived most positively on all

three adjustment scales, followed by the widowed and finally the divorced group. Further analysis of the data using the Scheffé' Test, to clarify the significance of these differences, revealed that on all three adjustment scales teachers' perceptions of children from intact families were significantly more positive than the widowed group ($p < 0,01$), and the divorced group ($p < 0,01$). Therefore, the hypothesis that children from intact families will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment than those from father-absent families, is strongly supported by these results. Although the means for the widowed group was higher than for the divorced group, this difference did not reach significance.

The univariate Fs for the following dependent variables yielded significant interaction effects of Marital Status by Age on Self Adjustment [$F(2,43) = 3,17; p < 0,05$] and School Adjustment [$F(2,43) = 4,10; p < 0,05$]. This indicates that there were significant differences in teachers' perceptions of children's self and school adjustment between primary and secondary school children depending on whether they belonged to intact, widowed or divorced families.

To clarify these differences, mean scores on Self Adjustment and School Adjustment for each of the groups are given in Table 4.2.

TABLE 4.2

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON CBRS
GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS BY AGE

		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF ADJUSTMENT</u>				
MARRIED:	Primary	82,86	7,40	84
	Secondary	81,69	9,45	70
WIDOWED:	Primary	75,31	12,85	65
	Secondary	78,69	10,81	64
DIVORCED:	Primary	73,72	13,87	96
	Secondary	78,90	10,71	67
TOTAL		78,41	11,58	446
<u>SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT</u>				
MARRIED:	Primary	48,00	6,65	84
	Secondary	47,04	7,19	70
WIDOWED:	Primary	42,82	8,61	65
	Secondary	44,31	9,38	64
DIVORCED:	Primary	40,54	11,42	96
	Secondary	45,40	7,95	67
TOTAL		44,57	9,16	446

Examination of the means (see Table 4.2) indicates that secondary school children from both father-absent groups were perceived more positively than primary school children from father-absent groups on self and school adjustment. This difference was greater for the divorced compared to the widowed groups. There were no significant differences between primary and secondary school children from intact families (see Figures 4.1 and 4.2). These results support the hypothesis that primary school children, compared to high school children, especially from father-absent families will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment.

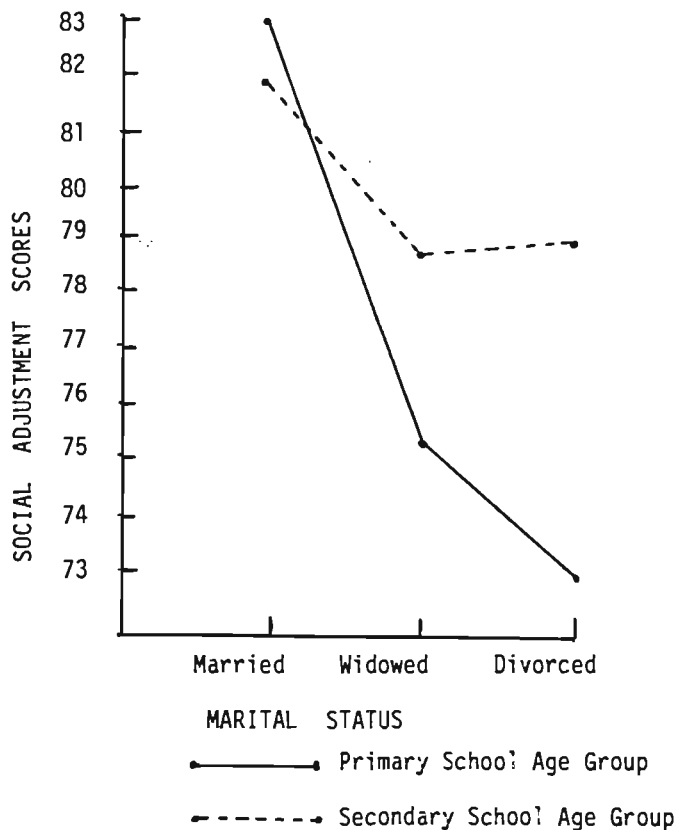


FIGURE 4.1 : INTERACTION BETWEEN MARITAL STATUS AND AGE ON CBRS SUBSCALE: SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

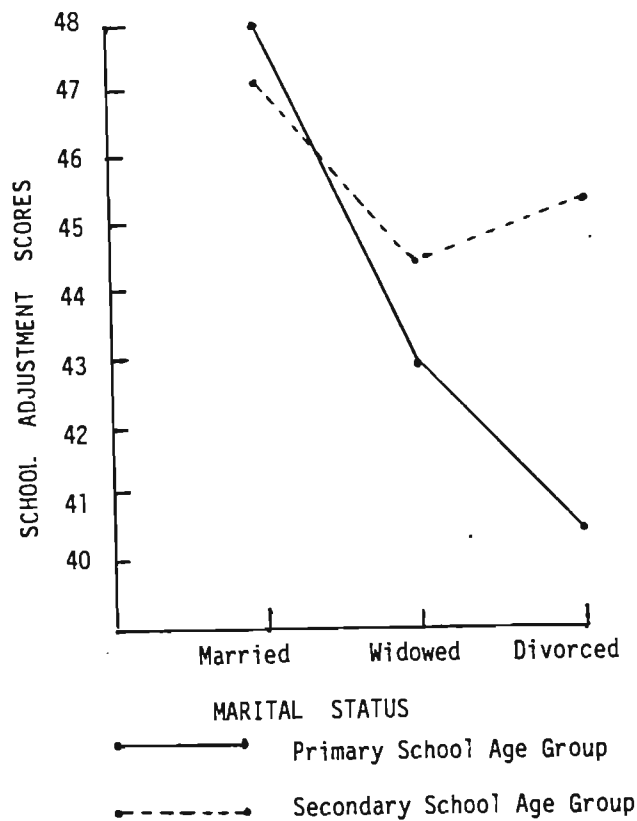


FIGURE 4.2 : INTERACTION BETWEEN MARITAL STATUS AND AGE ON CBRS SUBSCALE: SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT

Wilks' criterion also indicated that the combined DVs were significantly affected by the main effect of Sex [$F(3,432) = 3,19; p < 0,05$] and the interaction effect of Sex by Age [$F(3,432) = 2,77; p < 0,05$]. This implies that there were overall differences in teachers' perceptions of self, social and school adjustment between boys and girls. This difference depended on whether they were in primary or secondary schools.

Subsequent univariate F tests yielded significant main effects of Sex on:

Social Adjustment [$F(1,43) = 5,94; p < 0,05$] and
 School Adjustment [$F(1,43) = 8,35; p < 0,001$].

To clarify these differences, mean scores on social and school adjustment for each of the treatment groups are given in Table 4.3.

TABLE 4.3

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON SOCIAL AND SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT GROUPED ACCORDING TO SEX

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT</u>			
Males	67,90	10,68	229
Females	70,08	9,09	217
TOTAL	68,96	9,99	446
<u>SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT</u>			
Males	43,42	9,94	229
Females	45,78	8,10	217
TOTAL	44,57	9,16	446

Examination of the means in the Table 4.3 indicates that males compared to females were viewed more negatively on social and school adjustment. This supports the hypothesis that males, compared to females, will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment. However, the

hypothesis, that males, compared to females, from father-absent families will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment, is not supported, because these differences were also found in the intact group.

Further, the univariate F for Social Adjustment showed a significant interaction effect of Sex by Age [$F(1,43) = 6,10; p < 0,01$]. This shows that teachers' perceptions of children's social adjustment differed significantly for males and females depending on whether they were in primary or secondary school.

To clarify these differences, mean scores on Social Adjustment for each of the groups are given in Table 4.4

TABLE 4.4

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON
SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT GROUPED ACCORDING TO SEX AND AGE

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT			
	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>MALE</u>			
Primary	67,96	10,65	132
Secondary	67,83	10,77	97
<u>FEMALE</u>			
Primary	68,22	10,76	113
Secondary	72,10	6,29	104
TOTAL	68,96	9,99	446

Examination of the means indicates that females from secondary schools were perceived more positively on social adjustment than females from primary schools. This difference was not found for males (see Figure 4.3). Thus, there was no difference between primary and secondary school males on social adjustment.

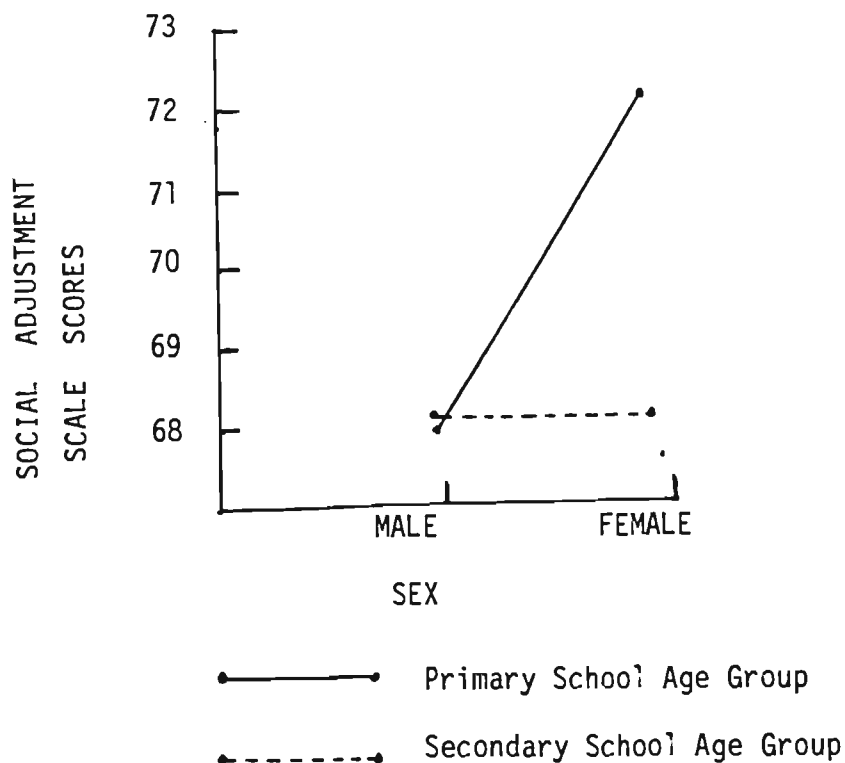


FIGURE 4.3 : INTERACTION BETWEEN AGE AND SEX ON THE
CBRS SUBSCALE: SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

Although there were no combined effects on the DVs by the main effect of Age, univariate Fs for the following dependent variables yielded significance:

Self Adjustment [$F(1,43) = 4,91; p < 0,05$] and

School Adjustment [$F(1,43) = 4,30; p < 0,05$].

To clarify these differences for each of the groups, Table 4.5 contains the mean scores on Self Adjustment and School Adjustment.

TABLE 4.5

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SELF AND SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO AGE

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF ADJUSTMENT</u>			
Primary	77,27	12,39	245
Secondary	79,55	10,96	202
TOTAL	78,30	11,81	447
<u>SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT</u>			
Primary	43,70	9,78	245
Secondary	45,72	8,31	202
TOTAL	44,61	9,19	447

Examination of the means in Table 4.5 reveals that younger children were viewed more negatively than older children on self and school adjustment. This supports the hypothesis that children from primary, compared to secondary, school will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment.

4.2.2 The Influence of Parents' Marital Status and Family System on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

A 2x3 (Marital Status x Family System) between subjects MANOVA was performed on the three dependent variables: Self, Social and School Adjustment. The independent variables were Marital Status (married, widowed and divorced) and Family System (nuclear and extended). The cell means and standard deviations of each groups scores are presented in Table 4.6.

TABLE 4.6

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CBRS SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO FAMILY SYSTEM AND MARITAL STATUS

			MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF ADJUSTMENT</u>					
NUCLEAR	:	Married	82,58	8,52	101
	:	Widowed	77,22	11,56	73
	:	Divorced	77,36	12,29	72
EXTENDED	:	Married	81,83	8,17	53
	:	Widowed	76,67	12,55	56
	:	Divorced	74,51	13,30	90
FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE			78,39	11,58	445
<u>SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT</u>					
NUCLEAR	:	Married	72,65	6,37	101
	:	Widowed	68,41	9,55	73
	:	Divorced	67,96	10,60	72
EXTENDED	:	Married	72,19	6,21	53
	:	Widowed	67,43	10,70	56
	:	Divorced	65,03	12,49	90
FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE			68,94	9,99	445
<u>SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT</u>					
NUCLEAR	:	Married	47,81	7,02	101
	:	Widowed	2,68	9,63	73
	:	Divorced	43,96	9,59	72
EXTENDED	:	Married	47,08	6,69	53
	:	Widowed	44,69	8,04	56
	:	Divorced	41,30	10,90	90
FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE			44,55	9,16	445

Use of Wilks' criterion showed that the combined DVs were significantly affected by the main effect of Marital Status [$F(6,874) = 5,34; p < 0,001$] (refer to previous results on the effect of Marital Status given on page 101).

The combined DVs were not significantly affected by Family System ($F(3,437) = 2,42; p > 0,05$) indicating that there were no significant overall effects on teachers' perceptions of self, social and school adjustment of children from nuclear and extended families. However, subsequent univariate F tests yielded significant effects of Family System on:

Self Adjustment [$F(1,44) = 4,99; p < 0,05$] and

Social Adjustment [$F(1,44) = 6,86; p < 0,01$].

To clarify these differences, examination of the mean scores (see Table 4.6) reveal that children from nuclear families were viewed more positively by teachers than those from extended families on self and social adjustment. These results do not support the hypothesis that father-absent children from extended, compared to nuclear families, will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment.

4.2.3 The Influence of Maternal Educational Level and Parents' Marital Status on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

A two-way between-subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables: Self, Social and School Adjustment. The independent variables were Maternal Educational Level (primary and secondary) and Parents' Marital Status (married, widowed and divorced). The cell means and standard deviations of each groups scores are presented in Table 4.7.

Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were significantly affected by the main effects of:

Maternal Educational Level [$F(3,41) = 2,59; p < 0,05$] and
 Marital Status [$F(6,824) = 4,68; p < 0,001$],

but not by their interaction [$F(6,824) = 1,49; p > 0,05$].

These results indicate that there were overall differences in teachers' perceptions of psychosocial adjustment of children from intact, widowed and divorced families (see page 101). Further, teachers' overall perceptions of psychosocial adjustment differed for children whose mothers have primary school education, compared to secondary school education.

TABLE 4.7

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF CBRS SCALE
SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO MATERNAL EDUCATIONAL LEVEL
AND MARITAL STATUS

			MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF ADJUSTMENT</u>					
PRIMARY	:	Married	82,08	7,46	77
	:	Widowed	77,77	12,10	82
	:	Divorced	73,90	14,45	84
SECONDARY	:	Married	82,32	9,53	72
	:	Widowed	79,09	9,27	35
	:	Divorced	78,84	9,72	70
TOTAL			78,86	11,26	420
<u>SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT</u>					
PRIMARY	:	Married	71,86	6,43	77
	:	Widowed	68,79	9,90	82
	:	Divorced	64,65	13,15	84
SECONDARY	:	Married	72,96	6,32	72
	:	Widowed	69,34	9,11	35
	:	Divorced	69,03	9,14	70
TOTAL			69,33	9,79	420
<u>SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT</u>					
PRIMARY	:	Married	46,43	7,61	77
	:	Widowed	43,88	8,75	82
	:	Divorced	41,80	10,48	84
EXTENDED	:	Married	48,56	6,10	72
	:	Widowed	45,51	8,26	35
	:	Divorced	44,31	9,58	70
TOTAL			44,94	8,88	420

Subsequent F-test analysis located the areas of significant differences. There were significant effects of Maternal Education Level on the following:

Self Adjustment [$F(1,41) = 5,40; p < 0,05$];

Social Adjustment [$F(1,41) = 6,38; p < 0,05$] and

School Adjustment [$F(1,41) = 7,30; p < 0,01$].

To clarify these differences, examination of the means (see Table 4.7) indicates that children whose mothers had secondary school education were viewed more positively than children whose mothers had primary school education on all three adjustment scales. Therefore, the hypothesis that children whose mothers have secondary compared to primary school education will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment is strongly supported. However, the hypothesis that children from father-absent families whose mothers have secondary compared to primary school education will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment is not supported, since there were neither significant interaction effects of marital status by mother's educational level on a linear combination of the dependent variables, nor on univariate tests of each of the subscales.

4.2.4 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

A one-way between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables: Self, Social and School Adjustment. The independent variable was Degree of Turbulence (high and low).

Wilks' criterion yielded no significant effects of the Degree of Turbulence on the combined DVs [$F(3,200) = 1,72; p > 0,05$]. These results indicate that there were no overall differences in teachers' perceptions of children from high and low turbulence families on self, social and school adjustment. Subsequent F-test analysis located the area of significance for the effect of Degree of Turbulence on School Adjustment [$F(1,202) = 4,46; p < 0,05$].

Examination of the means (See Table 4.8) reveal that children from low-turbulence families were viewed more positively by teachers than those from high-turbulence families on school adjustment. Thus, the hypothesis that children who experienced low, compared high, turbulence will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment is partially supported.

TABLE 4.8

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCHOOL
ADJUSTMENT SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE
DEGREE OF TURBULENCE

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT</u>			
High	42,56	9,75	85
Low	45,29	8,55	119
TOTAL	44,15	9,14	204

4.2.5 The Influence of Child's Age at Marital Disruption
and Family Size on Teachers' Perceptions of
Children's Adjustment

Two one-way between-subjects MANOVAS were performed on the dependent variables: Self, Social and School Adjustment. The independent variables were (a) Child's Age at Marital Disruption (0 to 2 years; 3 to 6 years; 7 years and over). (b) Family Size (one child; two to three children, over three children).

Wilks' criterion yielded neither significant effects of Child's Age at Marital Disruption [$F(6,272) = 0,31; p > 0,05$], nor for Family Size [$F(6,400) = 0,62; p > 0,05$].

Subsequent F-test analysis also yielded insignificant results on all subscales. Therefore, the hypothesis that children who experienced parental marital disruption before the age of six years, compared to those who experienced this later will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment, was not supported. There was also no support for the hypothesis that children from large families, compared to small families, will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment.

4.3 TEACHERS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REMEDIAL EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGIST / SOCIAL WORKER INTERVENTION

Teachers were asked to respond either "yes" or "no" to the following questions concerning pupils from their classrooms:

- (i) Would you anticipate the need for remedial instruction or special education for this child?
- (ii) Would you anticipate the need to refer this child to a psychologist, student counsellor or social worker?

The responses obtained therein were then compared with regard to differences in some demographic variables of children. These variables were as follows: .

Sex (male and female)

Age (6 to 9 years; 10 to 12 years and 13 to 18 years)

Parents' Marital Status (married, widowed and divorced)

A series of Chi-Square analyses were performed using the SPSSX program to investigate the influence of the above variables on teachers' recommendation for:

(i) Remedial Education and

(ii) Psychologist/Social Worker

The following significant results were obtained for recommendations for remedial education:

Sex [$\chi^2(1, N = 445) = 4,29; p < 0,05$]

Age [$\chi^2(2, N = 446) = 8,53; p < 0,01$]

Parents' Marital Status [$\chi^2(2, N = 445) = 14,90; p < 0,01$]

The above results are presented in Table 4.9.

TABLE 4.9

TEACHERS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REMEDIAL EDUCATION BY CHILDREN'S SEX, AGE AND PARENTAL MARITAL STATUS

	Total	"YES" RESPONSE		"NO" RESPONSE	
		N	%	N	%
<u>SEX</u>					
Male	228	37	16,2	191	83,8
Female	217	20	9,2	197	90,8
TOTAL	445	57	12,8	388	87,2
<u>AGE</u>					
6 - 9 years	74	12	16,2	62	83,8
10 - 12 years	170	30	17,6	140	82,4
13 - 18 years	202	16	7,9	186	92,1
TOTAL	446	58	13,0	388	87,0
<u>PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS</u>					
Married	154	7	4,5	147	95,5
Widowed	128	20	15,6	108	84,4
Divorced	163	30	18,4	133	81,6
TOTAL	445	57	13,1	388	86,9

Results in Table 4.9 indicate that teachers recommend remedial education more often for males, compared to females, primary school children, compared to secondary school children and children from father-absent families, compared to intact families. There is also a difference

between the two father-absent groups, with recommendations for remedial education being more frequent for the divorced than the widowed group. These findings support the hypothesis that teachers' recommendations for remedial education will be more frequent for boys, compared to girls, for primary, compared to secondary school children and for children from father-absent, compared to intact, families.

The following significant results were obtained for recommendations for psychologist/social worker intervention. Parents' Marital Status [χ^2 (2,N = 446) = 17,02; $p < 0,001$]

The above results are presented in Table 4.10.

TABLE 4.10

TEACHERS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PSYCHOLOGIST/SOCIAL WORKER INTERVENTION BY PARENTAL MARITAL STATUS

VARIABLE	N	"YES" RESPONSE		"NO" RESPONSE	
		N	%	N	%
<u>PARENTS MARITAL STATUS</u>					
Married	154	11	7,1	143	92,9
Widowed	129	26	20,2	103	79,8
Divorced	163	39	23,9	124	76,1
TOTAL	446	76	17,0	370	83,0

Results in Table 4.10 reveal that teachers' recommendations for psychologist/social worker intervention was recommended more frequently for children from father-absent families than for those from intact families. It was recommended more often in divorced than in widowed groups. These results support the hypothesis that teachers' recommendations for psychologist/social worker intervention will be more frequent for children from father-absent, compared to intact families. However, they did not support the hypothesis that this recommendation will be more frequent for males, compared to females, and for younger, compared to older children.

4.4 CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, FAMILY AND SCHOOL

Children's perceptions of self, family and school were measured by the semantic differential scale (SD; Osgood & Tannebaum, 1957). These were represented by concepts, "Myself", "My Family", "My Father", "My Mother", "My Teacher" and "My School". The concept, "Myself" contained 13 dimensions, while the remaining concepts contained 10 dimensions each. Each dimension was scored on a five-point scale. Thus, the scores ranged from 13 to 65 for the concept, "Myself" and from 10 to 50 for the other concepts.

In addition, the subscale of general self-esteem (consisting of 25 items) from Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI; Coopersmith, 1967) was also used. The scores ranged from 0 to 25. For all of the above scales, higher scores indicated more positive perceptions and attitudes, whereas lower scores indicated more negative perceptions and attitudes.

4.4.1 The Influence of Age and Parents' Marital Status on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School

A 2x3 (Age and Marital Status) between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables: (SD scale concepts and Self-Esteem). Independent variables were Age (primary and secondary school) and Marital Status (married, widowed and intact). The cell means and standard deviations of each group's scores are presented in Table 4.11.

TABLE 4.11

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON SD
 SCALES AND SEI GROUPED ACCORDING TO AGE AND MARITAL
 STATUS

			MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>CONCEPT MYSELF</u>					
MARRIED	:	Primary	57,88	8,51	24
	:	Secondary	54,40	10,28	45
WIDOWED	:	Primary	58,11	5,77	28
	:	Secondary	52,83	7,11	42
DIVORCED	:	Primary	55,55	7,59	55
	:	Secondary	52,95	7,32	46
TOTAL			54,89	8,11	240
<u>CONCEPT MY FAMILY</u>					
MARRIED	:	Primary	49,33	1,66	24
	:	Secondary	45,20	4,66	45
WIDOWED	:	Primary	47,79	3,44	28
	:	Secondary	44,29	5,53	42
DIVORCED	:	Primary	46,47	5,18	55
	:	Secondary	45,58	4,18	46
TOTAL			46,12	4,73	240
<u>CONCEPT MY FATHER</u>					
MARRIED	:	Primary	48,92	1,72	24
	:	Secondary	45,58	4,45	45
WIDOWED	:	Primary	46,46	7,74	28
	:	Secondary	44,71	5,84	42
DIVORCED	:	Primary	39,35	10,71	55
	:	Secondary	39,91	8,38	46
TOTAL			43,35	8,20	240

CONCEPT MY MOTHER

MARRIED	:	Primary	49,13	2,47	24
	:	Secondary	46,73	4,00	45
WIDOWED	:	Primary	47,57	3,24	28
	:	Secondary	46,55	4,40	42
DIVORCED	:	Primary	46,98	4,97	55
	:	Secondary	47,28	3,91	46
TOTAL			47,20	4,13	240

CONCEPT MY TEACHER

MARRIED	:	Primary	48,46	5,04	24
	:	Secondary	40,13	9,07	45
WIDOWED	:	Primary	47,61	3,86	28
	:	Secondary	42,88	6,27	42
DIVORCED	:	Primary	46,95	4,98	55
	:	Secondary	44,28	5,38	46
TOTAL			44,67	6,72	240

CONCEPT MY SCHOOL

MARRIED	:	Primary	49,54	1,32	24
	:	Secondary	42,51	7,62	45
WIDOWED	:	Primary	46,14	7,41	28
	:	Secondary	40,88	7,26	42
DIVORCED	:	Primary	46,04	5,50	55
	:	Secondary	43,76	5,82	46
TOTAL			44,40	6,77	240

SELF-ESTEEM

MARRIED	:	Primary	14,08	4,03	24
	:	Secondary	16,18	4,69	45
WIDOWED	:	Primary	14,57	3,32	28
	:	Secondary	15,02	5,00	42
DIVORCED	:	Primary	15,20	4,63	55
	:	Secondary	15,48	4,93	46
TOTAL			15,22	4,58	240

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by the main effects of Marital Status [$F(14,456) = 5,64; p < 0,001$] and Age [$F(7,228) = 9,52; p < 0,001$], but not by their interaction [$F(14,456) = 1,17; p > 0,05$].

This indicates that there were overall differences among children from intact, widowed and divorced families and between primary and high school children in their perceptions of self, family and school.

Subsequently, further univariate F tests located the areas of significant differences. The univariate Fs indicated significance of Marital Status on the following concepts:

My Father [$F(2,234) = 22,04; p < 0,001$] and

My Teacher [$F(2,234) = 3,97; p < 0,05$].

These results suggest that children from intact, widowed and divorced families viewed their fathers and teachers differently.

To clarify these differences, further analysis of the data using the Scheffé Test showed that children from both intact and widowed families viewed their fathers significantly more positively ($p < 0,01$), than those from divorced families. These results support the hypothesis that children from intact and widowed families, compared to those

from divorced families, will have more positive perceptions of their family members. Although children from divorced families perceived their fathers more negatively than those from intact and widowed families, no significant differences were found for perceptions of self, family or mother.

As far as their perceptions of teachers were concerned, analysis of the means using the Scheffe Test indicated that children from divorced families viewed their teachers significantly ($p < 0,05$) more positively than those from intact families. These results are contrary to the hypothesis that children from divorced families will perceive their teachers more negatively than those from intact and widowed families.

The specific areas of age effects on the dependent variables were located by subsequent F tests which indicated significant main effects of Age on the following concepts:

Myself [$F(1,234) = 11,87; p < 0,001$];

My Family [$F(1,234) = 17,89; p < 0,001$];

My Teacher [$F(1,234) = 35,11; p < 0,001$] and

My School [$F(1,234) = 28,27; p < 0,001$]

To clarify these effects, examination of the means (see Table 4.11) indicated that primary school children perceived all of the above variables more positively than secondary

school children. Thus the hypotheses that primary, compared to secondary, school children will perceive the self, family, teacher and school more positively is strongly supported.

Although the combined DVs yielded no significant interaction effects of age by marital status, subsequent univariate F tests located specific areas of significant differences. The univariate Fs for the following variables showed significant interaction effects of age by marital status on the following concepts:

My Family [$F(2,234) = 3,00; p < 0,05$] and

My Teacher [$F(2,234) = 4,08; p < 0,05$].

To clarify these differences examination of the means (Table 4.11) reveal that primary school children from intact, widowed and divorced families were significantly more positive toward their families (see Figure 4.4), and teachers (see Figure 4.5), than secondary school children. This difference was greatest for the intact, followed by the widowed group and finally the divorced group. This implies that in the intact group, primary school children, compared to secondary school children, were more positive toward authority figures, whereas in the divorced group this difference was not distinct.

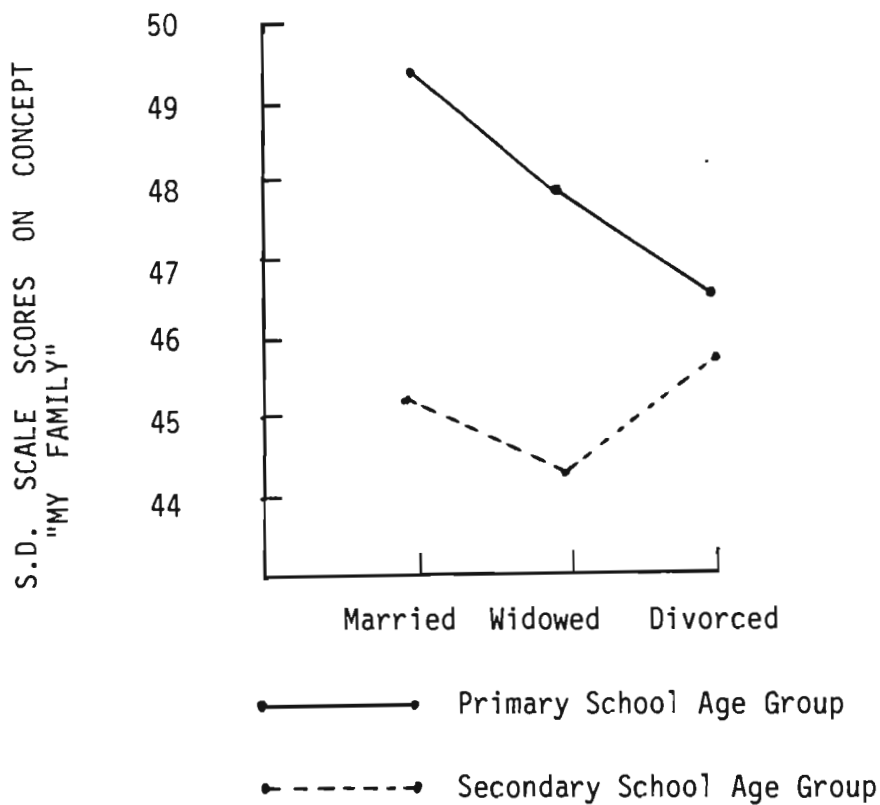


FIGURE 4.4 : INTERACTION BETWEEN AGE AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT, "MY FAMILY"

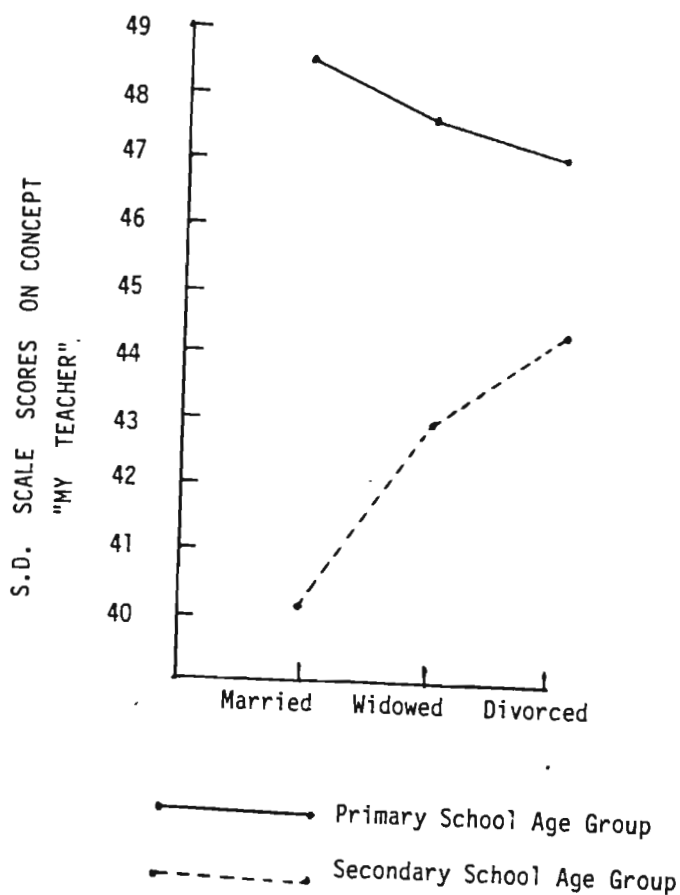


FIGURE 4.5 : INTERACTION BETWEEN AGE AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT "MY TEACHER"

4.4.2 The Influence of Sex and Parents' Marital Status on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School

A 2x3 (Sex and Marital Status) between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (SD scale concepts and Self-Esteem). Independent variables were Sex (male and female) and Marital Status (married, widowed and intact). The cell means and standard deviations of each group's scores are presented in Table 4.12

TABLE 4.12

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON SD
SCALE CONCEPTS GROUPED ACCORDING TO SEX AND MARITAL
STATUS

			MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>CONCEPT MYSELF</u>					
MALE	:	Married	55,00	8,06	37
	:	Widowed	54,41	6,93	34
		Divorced	53,57	8,32	49
FEMALE	:	Married	56,31	11,55	32
	:	Widowed	55,67	7,05	39
		Divorced	55,12	6,73	52
TOTAL			54,93	8,07	243
<u>CONCEPT MY FAMILY</u>					
MALE	:	Married	45,54	5,09	37
	:	Widowed	46,59	4,02	34
		Divorced	45,22	5,52	49
FEMALE	:	Married	47,91	2,89	32
	:	Widowed	45,05	5,66	39
		Divorced	46,87	3,78	52
TOTAL			46,14	4,71	243
<u>CONCEPT MY FATHER</u>					
MALE	:	Married	45.70	4.57	37
	:	Widowed	45.32	7.32	34
		Divorced	40.08	8.95	49
FEMALE	:	Married	47.94	3.00	32
	:	Widowed	45.74	5.94	39
		Divorced	39.15	10.38	52
TOTAL			43.42	8.17	243

CONCEPT MY MOTHER

MALE	:	Married	47,00	4,31	37
	:	Widowed	47,24	3,74	34
		Divorce	46,53	5,18	49
FEMALE	:	Married	48,22	2,78	32
	:	Widowed	46,79	4,10	39
		Divorced	47,67	3,72	52
TOTAL			47,21	4,11	243

CONCEPT MY TEACHER

MALE	:	Married	40,65	10,14	37
	:	Widowed	45,24	5,68	34
		Divorced	45,04	5,83	49
FEMALE	:	Married	45,78	6,06	32
	:	Widowed	44,38	5,91	39
		Divorced	46,38	4,72	52
TOTAL			44,67	6,68	243

CONCEPT MY SCHOOL

MALE	:	Married	43,24	8,26	37
	:	Widowed	44,18	7,20	34
		Divorced	44,57	6,81	49
FEMALE	:	Married	46,94	4,68	32
	:	Widowed	42,13	7,87	39
		Divorced	45,40	4,53	52
TOTAL			44,41	6,74	243

SELF ESTEEM

MALE	:	Married	16,22	5,01	37
	:	Widowed	14,38	3,91	34
		Divorced	15,80	4,97	49
FEMALE	:	Married	14,56	3,85	32
	:	Widowed	15,08	4,68	39
		Divorced	14,88	4,53	52
TOTAL			15,19	4,56	243

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by the main effect of Marital Status [$F(14,462) = 5,64$; $p < 0,001$], but neither by the main effect of Sex [$F(7,231) = 1,22$; $p > 0,05$], nor by the interaction effect of Sex by Marital Status [$F(14,462) = 1,54$; $p > 0,05$] (refer to results on the effects of Marital Status on page 128). Further, there were no overall differences between males and females from intact, widowed and divorced families in their perceptions of self, family and school.

Use of the univariate F tests indicated significant main effects of sex on the concept, "My Teacher" [$F(1,237) = 4,94$; $p < 0,05$]. To clarify these differences, examination of the means (see Table 4.12) reveals that females, compared to males, perceived their teachers more positively. These results support the hypothesis that females, compared to males, will have more positive perceptions of their teachers.

Although there were no significant interaction effects of Sex by Marital Status on the combined DVs, subsequent univariate F tests indicated significant interaction effects on the concepts:

My Family [$F(2,237) = 3,66; p < 0,05$],
 My Teacher [$F(2,237) = 3,83; p < 0,05$] and
 My School [$F(2,237) = 3,30; p < 0,05$].

Examination of the means (see Table 4.12) indicate that females, compared to males from intact and divorced homes perceived their families, teachers and school more positively than males. However, in the widowed homes, males, compared to females, perceived their families, teachers and school more positively (see Figures 4.6 to 4.8). Thus, the hypotheses that males compared to females, especially from father-absent families, will have more negative perceptions of self, family and school, are not supported.



FIGURE 4.6 : INTERACTION BETWEEN SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT, "MY FAMILY"

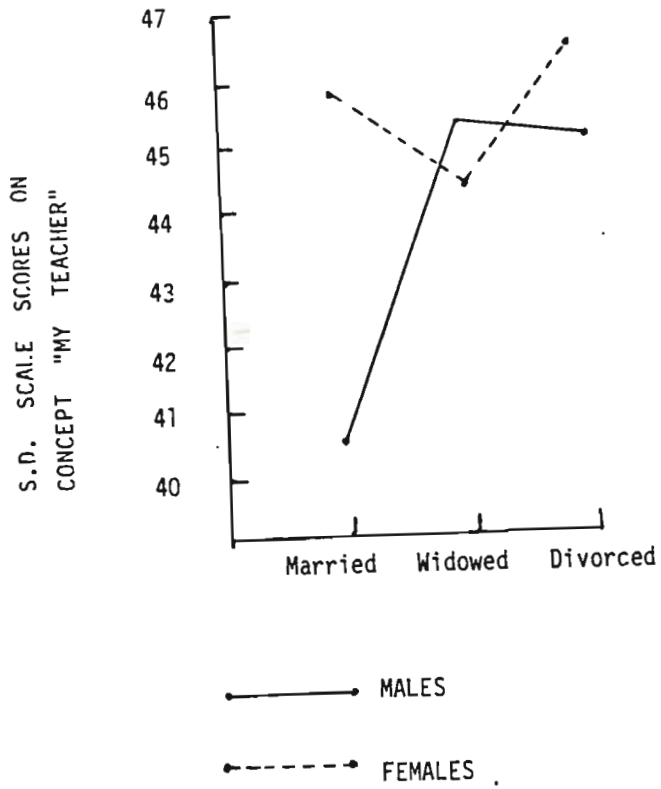


FIGURE 4.7 : INTERACTION BETWEEN SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT, "MY TEACHER"

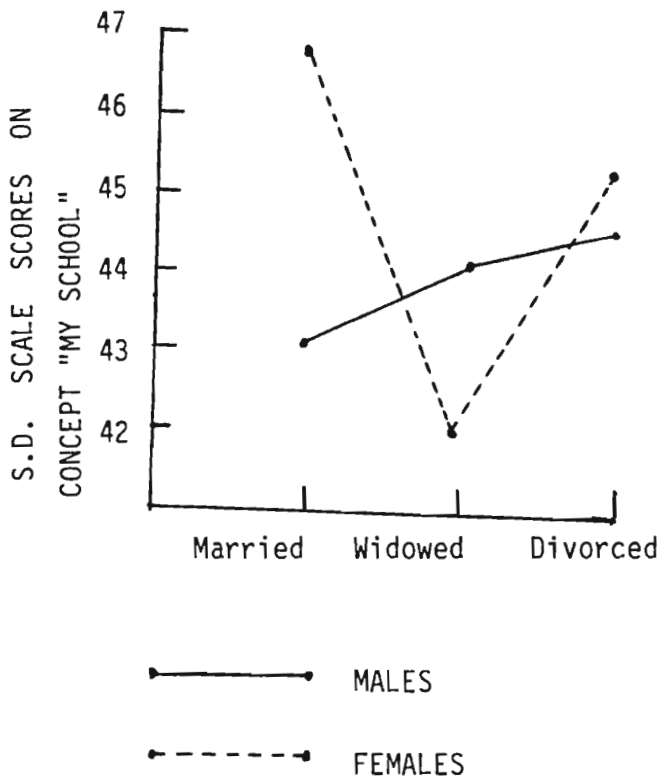


FIGURE 4.8 : INTERACTION BETWEEN SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE CONCEPT "MY SCHOOL"

4.4.3 The Influence of Family System and Parents' Marital Status on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School

A 2x3 (Family System by Marital Status) between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (SD scale concepts and Self-Esteem). Independent variables were Family System (nuclear and extended) and Marital Status (married, widowed and divorced).

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were neither significantly affected by the interaction effects of Family System by Marital Status [$F(14,46) = 1,43; p > 0,05$], nor by the main effect of Family System [$F(7,230) = 1,53; p > 0,05$]. These results indicate that there were no significant overall differences in perceptions of self, family and school of children from intact, widowed and divorced families, depending on whether they belonged to the nuclear or extended family systems.

Use of Wilks' criterion indicated only significant main effects of Marital Status on the combined DVs [$F(14,460) = 5,52; p < 0,001$] (see results on page 128). Subsequent univariate F tests indicated significant main effects of Family System on the concept, "My Mother" [$F(1,236) = 4,48; p < 0,05$].

To clarify this difference, examination of the means (see Table 4.13) show that mothers in nuclear families were viewed more positively by their children than those from extended families. This finding supports the hypothesis that children from nuclear, compared to extended, family systems will have more positive perceptions of their mothers.

TABLE 4.13

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SD SCALE
 CONCEPT, "MY MOTHER" AND SEI SCORES GROUPED
 ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM

			MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>CONCEPT "MY MOTHER"</u>					
NUCLEAR	:	Married	47,39	3,70	44
	:	Widowed	47,29	3,90	41
		Divorced	48,38	2,69	47
EXTENDED	:	Married	47,88	3,78	25
	:	Widowed	46,63	3,97	32
		Divorced	45,98	5,46	53
TOTAL			47,21	4,11	242
<u>SELF ESTEEM</u>					
NUCLEAR	:	Married	15,52	4,99	44
	:	Widowed	13,44	4,01	41
		Divorced	15,57	4,84	47
EXTENDED	:	Married	15,32	3,77	25
	:	Widowed	16,44	4,18	32
		Divorced	15,06	4,73	53
TOTAL			15,18	4,57	242

Although the combined DVs yielded no significant interaction effects of Family System by Marital Status, subsequent univariate F test located the area of significant

difference. The univariate F for Self-Esteem showed a significant interaction effect of Family System by Marital Status [$F(2,236) = 3,53; p < 0,05$].

Examination of the means (see Table 4.13) indicates that children in the widowed group had higher self-esteem if they belonged to extended than to nuclear families. This difference did not apply to the intact and divorced groups. These results partially support the hypothesis that children from extended, compared to nuclear, father-absent families will have higher self-esteem, since these findings apply to widowed, but not to the divorced group (see Figure 4.9).

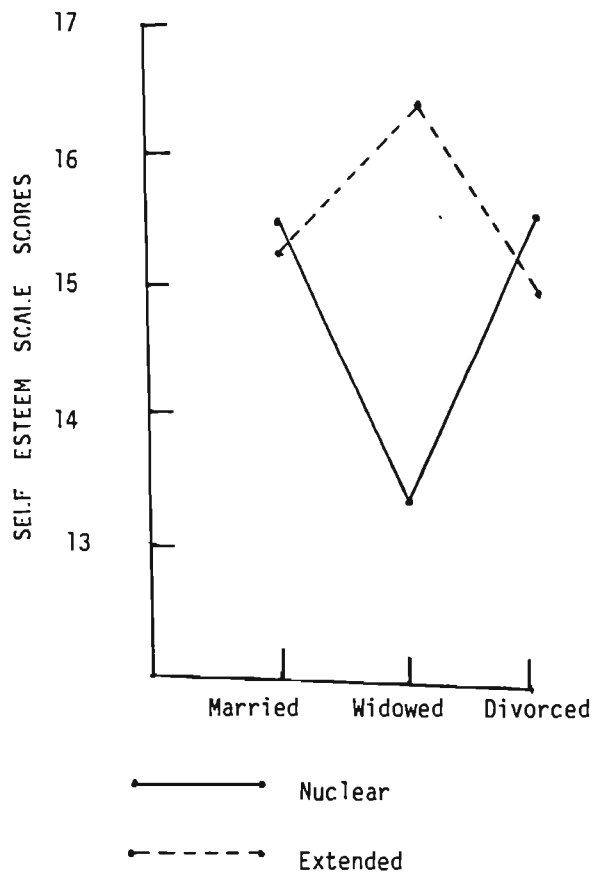


FIGURE 4.9 : INTERACTION BETWEEN FAMILY SYSTEM AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

4.4.4 The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School

A one-way between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (SD scale concepts and Self-Esteem). The dependent variable was Maternal Employment Status (housewife and working). Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were not significantly affected by Maternal Employment Status [$F(7,232) = 1,16; p > 0,05$]. These results indicate that there were no significant overall differences between children with mothers who are housewives and those with working mothers in their perceptions of self, family and school.

Although Maternal Employment Status did not significantly affect the combined DVs, subsequent F - test analyses located an area of significant difference on the concept, "My Father" [$F(1,238) = 5,02; p < 0,05$].

Examination of the means (Table 4.14) reveals that children whose mothers are housewives perceived their fathers more positively than those with working mothers. These results partially support the hypothesis that children whose mothers are housewives, will perceive their family members more positively, compared to children whose mothers are employed.

TABLE 4.14

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SD SEI SCALE SCORES ON THE CONCEPT, "MY FATHER" GROUPED ACCORDING TO MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT STATUS

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>MOTHER'S EMPLOYMENT STATUS</u>			
Housewife	44,03	7,98	186
Working	41,22	8,61	54
TOTAL	43,40	8,19	240

4.4.5 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School

A one-way between - subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (SD scale concepts and SEI). The independent variable was Degree of Turbulence (high and low).

Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were not significantly affected by the Degree of Turbulence [$F(7,120) = 2,02; p > 0,05$]. These results indicate that there were no significant overall differences between children who experience high, compared to low, turbulence in

perceptions of self, family and school. Although the Degree of Turbulence did not significantly affect the combined DVs, subsequent F - test analyses located an area of significant difference on the concept, "My Father" [$F(1,13) = 5,01$; $p < 0,05$].

TABLE 4.15

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SD SCALE SCORES ON CONCEPT, "MY FATHER" GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
High Turbulence	41,93	10,53	63
Low Turbulence	45,27	5,71	65
TOTAL	43,63	8,57	128

Examination of the means (Table 4.15) indicate that fathers were viewed more positively in homes where there was low turbulence, compared to homes with high turbulence. These results partially support the hypothesis that children who experience low compared to high, turbulence will have more positive perceptions of family members.

4.5 ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF ADJUSTMENT

Adolescents' perceptions of their adjustment were measured by the Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations Questionnaire (PHSF; HSRC, 1978). It comprised 12 subscales (with 15 items each), namely, Self-Confidence, Self-Esteem, Self-Control, Nervousness, Health, Family Influences, Personal Freedom, Sociability G, Sociability S, Moral Sense, Formal Relations and Desirability. A four-point scale was used, with higher scores indicating positive adjustment and lower scores indicating lower adjustment. The scores ranged from 15 to 60 for each of the subscales.

4.5.1 The Influence of Sex and Parents' Marital Status on Adolescents' Perception of Adjustment

A 2x3 (Sex and Marital Status) between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (PHSF Relations Questionnaire Subscales). The independent variables were Sex (male and female) and Marital Status (intact, widowed and divorced). The cell means and standard deviations of each group's scores are presented in Table 4.16.

TABLE 4.16

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF PHSF SUBSCALE SCORES GROUPE
 ACCORDING TO PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS AND SEX

	Married (N=27)		Widowed (N=17)		Divorced (N=22)		Total (138)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Self Confidence							27.40	4.93
Male	26.85	4.37	27.41	4.78	27.95	5.03		
Female	28.63	5.82	27.81	5.17	26.15	4.66		
Self Esteem							23.29	5.61
Male	24.07	4.45	24.82	4.22	24.09	4.70		
Female	23.05	6.28	22.63	6.13	21.65	6.93		
Self Control							24.75	4.84
Male	25.56	4.41	23.71	4.28	26.64	5.93		
Female	25.63	4.42	23.59	4.99	23.54	4.33		
Nervousness							25.01	5.69
Male	25.07	5.48	26.29	6.25	25.86	4.94		
Female	26.74	6.06	23.30	6.01	23.92	5.33		
Health							28.40	5.31
Male	29.00	5.77	28.41	4.21	29.18	5.44		
Female	30.68	5.57	27.19	5.38	26.69	4.65		
Family Influences							28.59	6.69
Male	29.93	6.75	28.71	4.67	29.59	5.81		
Female	28.63	7.14	28.81	7.79	26.00	6.81		

Personal Freedom							28.36	7.03
Male	29.70	5.80	31.41	4.70	26.68	5.65		
Female	29.47	7.14	28.15	7.54	25.77	8.95		
Sociolbility-G							25.99	6.15
Male	24.78	4.77	27.71	3.98	28.73	6.05		
Female	27.32	7.82	24.56	6.36	24.35	6.31		
Sociability-S							22.49	9.02
Male	25.41	8.21	27.18	8.49	27.77	7.70		
Female	17.89	10.05	21.56	8.35	16.19	5.25		
Moral Sense							30.16	5.33
Male	28.26	5.01	28.88	5.52	29.55	5.08		
Female	33.95	5.22	29.96	4.76	30.92	5.32		
Formal Relations							27.65	5.92
Male	26.37	5.49	26.88	6.87	27.41	5.35		
Female	29.47	6.54	28.30	5.99	27.69	5.77		
Desirability							19.44	4.27
Male	19.33	4.42	19.29	4.43	20.00	3.59		
Female	18.37	4.36	20.89	4.13	18.46	4.51		

Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were significantly affected by the interaction of Sex by Marital Status [$F(24,242) = 1,61; p < 0,05$] and the main effect of Sex [$F(12,121) = 6,36; p < 0,001$], but not by the main effect of Marital Status [$F(24,242) = 0,92; p > 0,05$].

These results indicate that males differed from females in overall personal, home, social and formal adjustment. However, these differences depended on whether they belonged to intact, widowed or divorced families.

Further analysis using univariate F tests indicated significant main effects of Sex on the following variables:

Self-Esteem [$F(1,132) = 3,88; p < 0,05$];

Sociability S [$F(1,132) = 34,33; p < 0,001$] and

Moral Sense [$F(1,132) = 8,27; p < 0,01$]

Examination of the means (Table 4.16) shows that males had indicated higher self-esteem and general sociability than females. However, females indicated higher moral sense than males. These results do not support the hypothesis that female compared to male, adolescents, from father-absent families will have more positive perceptions of adjustment, since these findings applied to all three marital groups.

Although the main effect of Marital Status did not have significance on the combined DVs, univariate F - tests indicated significant effect on Personal Freedom [$F(2,132) =$

3,53; $p < 0,05$]. Further analysis of the data, using the Scheffé Test revealed that adolescents from intact families had higher scores on personal freedom than those from divorced families ($p < 0,05$). There were no significant differences between the widowed group and the other two groups. These results lend only partial support for the hypothesis that adolescents from intact compared to father-absent families will have more positive perceptions of adjustment.

Subsequent univariate F test indicated significant interaction effects of Sex by Marital Status on the variable Sociability-G [$F(2,132) = 4,27$; $p < 0,05$]. These results indicate that males differed from females on sociability, depending on whether they belonged to intact, widowed or divorced families. Examination of the means (see Table 4.16) reveal that females, rather than males, from intact families were better adjusted on general sociability, whereas the reverse applied to the widowed and divorced groups (see Figure 4.10). These results do not support the hypothesis that adolescent males, compared to females, from father-absent families will have more negative perceptions adjustment.

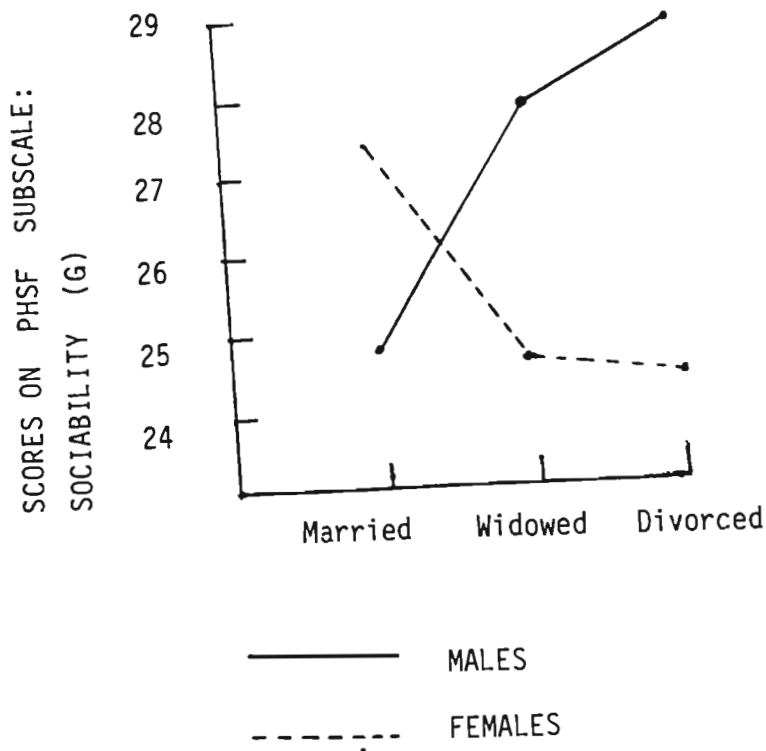


FIGURE 4.10 : INTERACTION BETWEEN SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE PHSF SUBSCALE: SOCIABILITY (G)

4.5.2 The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Adolescents' Perceptions of Adjustment

A one-way between-subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (PHSF Relations Questionnaire Subscales). The independent variable was Maternal Educational Level (primary and secondary).

Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were not significantly affected by Maternal Educational Level [$F(12,119) = 1.09$; $p > 0.05$]. Subsequent F - test analyses located the areas of significant differences. Univariate F tests indicated significant effects of Maternal Educational

Level on the following subscales:

Self-Esteem [$F(1,13) = 5,06; p < 0,05$] and

Health [$F(1,13) = 5,73; p < 0,05$].

Examination of the means (presented in Table 4.17) indicate that adolescents whose mothers had primary, compared to secondary, school education indicated lower self-esteem and greater concern about physical health. These results partially support the hypothesis that adolescents whose mothers have secondary, compared to primary, school education will have more positive perceptions of adjustment.

TABLE 4.17

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON
PHSF SUBSCALES : SELF-ESTEEM AND HEALTH GROUPED
ACCORDING TO MATERNAL EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF-ESTEEM</u>			
Primary School	22,44	6,10	75
Secondary School	24,63	4,70	57
TOTAL	23,39	5,63	132
<u>HEALTH</u>			
Primary School	27,52	4,93	75
Secondary School	29,74	5,69	57
TOTAL	28,48	5,34	132

4.5.3 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Adolescents' Perceptions of Adjustment

A one-way between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (PHSF Relations Questionnaire Subscales). The independent variable was Degree of Turbulence (high and low). Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were not significantly affected by the Degree of Turbulence [$F(12,54) = 1,26; p > 0,05$]. This indicates that there were no significant overall

differences between adolescents who experienced high, compared to low, turbulence on their perceptions adjustment.

Subsequent univariate F tests indicated significant effects for the Degree of Turbulence on the following subscales:

Self-Control [$F(1,65) = 4,66; p < 0,05$];

Moral Sense [$F(1,65) = 5,41; p < 0,05$] and

Personal Freedom [$F(1,65) = 3,84; p < 0,05$].

TABLE 4.18

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON PHSF SUBSCALES: SELF CONTROL, MORAL SENSE AND PERSONAL FREEDOM GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF-CONTROL</u>			
High Turbulence	23,32	4,92	28
Low Turbulence	25,92	4,82	39
TOTAL	24,84	5,00	67
<u>MORAL SENSE</u>			
High Turbulence	27,93	5,16	28
Low Turbulence	30,59	5,70	39
TOTAL	29,48	5,60	67
<u>PERSONAL FREEDOM</u>			
High Turbulence	25,68	4,98	28
Low Turbulence	29,41	7,35	39
TOTAL	27,85	6,69	67

Examination of the means (see Table 4.18) reveals that adolescents who experienced high turbulence had lower adjustment scores on self-control, moral sense and personal freedom than those who experienced low turbulence. These results partially support the hypothesis that adolescents who experience low, compared to high, turbulence will have more positive perceptions of adjustment.

4.6 MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS IN INTACT, WIDOWED AND DIVORCED FAMILIES

Maternal perceptions of self, family and relatives/friends were measured by the semantic differential scale (SD; Osgood and Tannebaum, 1957). The concepts were "Myself", "My Children", "My Husband" and "My Relatives/Friends". The concept, "Myself" contained 12 dimensions, while the remaining concepts contained 10 dimensions each. Each dimension was scored on a five-point scale. Thus, the scores ranged from 12 to 60 for the concept, "Myself" and from 10 to 50 for the other concepts. Higher scores indicated positive perceptions, whereas, lower scores indicated negative perceptions.

Mothers' evaluations of themselves were assessed by Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; 1965). The scores

ranged from 0 to 6 with high scores indicating low self-esteem and low scores high self-esteem.

4.6.1 The Influence of Family System and Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members

A 3 x 2 (Marital Status and Family System) between-subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (Self-Esteem and SD scale concepts). The independent variables were Marital Status (married, widowed and divorced) and Family System (nuclear and extended). The cell means and standard deviations for each group's scores are presented in Table 4.19.

TABLE 4.19

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RSES AND SD
SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND
FAMILY SYSTEM

		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF ESTEEM</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	0,96	0,98	27
	: Extended	0,95	1,00	37
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	2,15	1,53	40
	: Extended	1,86	1,53	28
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	2,36	1,69	33
	: Extended	2,57	1,91	37
TOTAL		1,84	1,61	202
<u>MYSELF</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	56,67	3,17	27
	: Extended	57,35	2,24	37
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	53,68	4,86	40
	: Extended	52,57	4,95	28
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	50,91	8,91	33
	: Extended	51,35	6,94	37
TOTAL		53,71	6,12	202
<u>MY CHILDREN</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	49,00	1,41	27
	: Extended	47,89	2,88	37
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	47,58	2,72	40
	: Extended	46,61	4,16	28
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	45,82	4,63	33
	: Extended	46,24	3,71	37
TOTAL		47,16	3,53	202

MY HUSBAND

MARRIED	:	Nuclear	47,89	3,38	27
	:	Extended	48,38	2,56	37
WIDOWED	:	Nuclear	43,95	9,47	40
	:	Extended	45,57	7,14	28
DIVORCED	:	Nuclear	26,70	12,48	33
	:	Extended	25,03	12,62	37
TOTAL			39,23	13,37	202

MY RELATIVES/FRIENDS

MARRIED	:	Nuclear	45,70	6,87	27
	:	Extended	46,41	4,23	37
WIDOWED	:	Nuclear	40,18	10,33	40
	:	Extended	43,07	7,17	28
DIVORCED	:	Nuclear	43,73	6,79	33
	:	Extended	42,59	7,37	37
TOTAL			43,48	7,65	202

Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were significantly affected by the main effect of Marital Status [$F(10,384) = 24,13$; $p < 0,001$], but neither by the main effect of Family System [$F(5,192) = 0,54$; $p > 0,05$], nor by the interaction effects of the two independent variables [$F(10,384) = 1,01$; $p > 0,05$]. These results indicate that there were significant overall differences between married, widowed and divorced mothers in their perceptions of self and family members. However, there were no significant overall differences between married and single mothers from nuclear and extended family systems.

Subsequent univariate F tests located areas of significant differences. The main effect of Marital Status yielded significance on the following variables:

Self-Esteem [F(2,196) = 18,05; $p < 0,001$], and the concepts,

Myself [F(2,196) = 18,61; $p < 0,001$]

My Children [F(2,196) = 7,70; $p < 0,001$]

My Husband [F(2,196) = 119,69; $p < 0,001$]

My Relatives/Friends [F(2,196) = 6,82; $p < 0,001$]

These results indicate that mothers from intact, widowed and divorced families differed in self-esteem, as well as in their perceptions of self, children, husband, and relatives/friends. Further analysis of the data using the Scheffé Test clarified these differences.

On the RSES scores, it was found that married mothers had significantly higher self-esteem than those from the widowed ($p < 0,01$), and divorced groups ($p < 0,01$). These results were substantiated by analysis of the scores on the concept, "Myself", where mothers from intact families perceived themselves significantly ($p < 0,01$) more positively than those from the other two groups, in both comparisons. There were no significant differences between widowed and divorced groups on self-esteem, as well as, on perceptions of self. These results strongly support the hypothesis that married,

compared to single mothers, will have more positive self-esteem and perceptions of self.

Divorced mothers perceived their husbands significantly more negatively than married mothers ($p < 0,01$), as well as widowed mothers ($p < 0,01$). They also perceived their children more negatively than married and widowed mothers at the 0,01 level of significance in both analyses. These results strongly support the hypothesis that divorced mothers will perceive their family members more negatively than married and widowed mothers.

Married mothers perceived their relatives and friends more positively than widowed mothers, at the 0,01 level of significance. Although married mothers had higher scores than divorced mothers on this concept, the difference did not reach significance. There were also no significant differences between the divorced and widowed groups. These results support the hypothesis that married mothers will have more positive perceptions of relatives/friends than single mothers. However, the above results provided no support for the hypotheses that single mothers from extended, compared to nuclear, families will have more positive perceptions of self, family, relatives/friends.

4.6.2 The Influence of Employment Status on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members

A one-way between-subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (Self-Esteem and SD scale concepts). The dependent variable was Maternal Employment Status (housewife and working). Cell means and standard deviations of each group's scores are presented in Table 4.20.

Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were significantly affected by Employment Status [$F(5,197) = 7,84; p < 0,001$]. These results indicate that there were significant overall differences between mothers who are working, compared to housewives, in their perceptions of self and family members.

Subsequent univariate F tests indicated significance for the effect of Employment Status on the following:

Self Esteem [$F(1,201) = 5,24; p < 0,05$],

My Children [$F(1,201) = 16,42; p < 0,001$] and

My Husband [$F(1,201) = 8,62; p < 0,01$].

Examination of the means (Table 4.20) indicates that working mothers had higher self-esteem than housewives. This is consistent with the hypothesis that employed mothers, compared to housewives, will have more positive perceptions of self. However, it was also found that working mothers,

compared to housewives, viewed their children and husbands more negatively. The latter findings are contrary to the hypothesis that working mothers, compared to housewives, will have more positive perceptions of their family members.

TABLE 4.20

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RSES AND SD SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO EMPLOYMENT STATUS

		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF-ESTEEM</u>				
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	: Housewife	2,00	1,61	147
	Working	1,43	1,54	56
	Total	1,84	1,61	203
<u>MYSELF</u>				
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	: Housewife	54,03	6,16	147
	Working	52,88	5,95	56
	Total	53,71	6,11	203
<u>MY CHILDREN</u>				
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	: Housewife	47,72	3,16	147
	Working	45,55	4,02	56
	Total	47,13	3,55	203
<u>MY HUSBAND</u>				
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	: Housewife	40,89	12,93	147
	Working	34,86	13,49	56
	Total	39,23	13,33	203
<u>MY RELATIVES/FRIENDS</u>				
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	: Housewife	44,08	8,05	147
	Working	41,91	6,19	56
	Total	43,48	7,63	203

4.6.3 The Influence of Educational Level on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members

A one-way between-subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (Self-Esteem and SD scale concepts). The independent variable was Educational Level (primary and secondary). Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were not significantly affected by Educational Level [$F(5,192) = 1,74; p > 0,05$]. These results indicate that there were no overall differences between mothers with primary, compared to secondary, school education in their perceptions of self and family members.

Although the multivariate analysis did not yield significance on the combined effects of the dependent variables, subsequent F tests indicated significance for the effect of Educational Level on Self-Esteem [$F(1,196) = 5,26; p < 0,05$].

Examination of the means in Table 4.21 indicates that mothers with secondary school education had significantly higher self-esteem than those with primary school education. These results are consistent with the hypothesis that mothers with secondary school, compared to primary school, education will have more positive perceptions of self.

TABLE 4.21

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RSES SCALE
SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
Primary	2,05	1,65	126
Secondary	1,51	1,50	72
TOTAL	1,85	1,61	198

4.6.4 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on
Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family members

A one-way between-subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (Self-Esteem and SD scale concepts). The independent variable was Degree of Turbulence (high and low). Cell means and standard deviations of each groups scores are presented in Table 4.22.

TABLE 4.22

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF RSES AND SD
SCALE SCORES GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF
TURBULENCE

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>SELF-ESTEEM</u>			
HIGH	2,36	1,72	85
LOW	1,46	1,41	119
TOTAL	1,83	1,60	204
<u>MYSELF</u>			
HIGH	51,69	6,36	85
LOW	55,20	5,50	119
TOTAL	53,74	6,11	204
<u>MY CHILDREN</u>			
HIGH	46,07	3,95	85
LOW	47,91	3,01	119
TOTAL	47,14	3,54	204
<u>MY HUSBAND</u>			
HIGH	32,15	14,25	85
LOW	44,29	9,89	119
TOTAL	39,24	13,30	204
<u>MY RELATIVES/FRIENDS</u>			
HIGH	41,14	8,44	85
LOW	45,21	6,52	119
TOTAL	43,51	7,63	204

Use of Wilks' criterion indicated that the combined DVs were significantly affected by the Degree of Turbulence [$F(5,198) = 13,66; p < 0,001$]. These results indicate that there were significant overall differences between mothers who experienced high, compared to low, turbulence in their perceptions of self and family members.

Subsequent F test analysis located the areas of significant differences. Univariate F tests indicated significance for the effect of Degree of Turbulence on the following variables:

Self-Esteem [$F(1,202) = 16,95; p < 0,001$]; and the concepts

Myself [$F(1,202) = 17,70; p < 0,001$];

My Children [$F(1,202) = 14,20; p < 0,001$];

My Husband [$F(1,202) = 51,62; p < 0,001$];

My Relatives/Friends [$F(1,202) = 15,09; p < 0,001$].

To clarify these differences, examination of the mean scores (see Table 4.22) reveals that mothers who experienced high turbulence had lower self-esteem and lower perceptions of self, children, husband and relatives/friends than those who experienced low turbulence in the family. These results provide strong support for the hypotheses that mother who experienced low, compared to high, turbulence will have more positive perceptions of self and family members.

4.7 MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT IN INTACT, WIDOWED AND DIVORCED FAMILIES

Maternal perceptions of family environment were measured on five subscales of the Family Environment Scale (FES; Moos, 1986): Cohesion, Expressiveness, Conflict, Moral-Religious and Organization. Each subscale comprised 18 True/False items, ranging from 0 to 18. Higher scores indicated more positive perceptions and lower scores indicated more negative perceptions.

4.7.1 The Influence of Marital Status and Family System on Family Environment

A 3x2 (Marital Status x Marital Status) between-subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables which were subscales. The independent variables were Marital Status (married, widowed and divorced) and Family System (nuclear and extended). The cell means and standard deviations of each group's scores are presented in Table 4.23.

TABLE 4.23

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FES SCORES
GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM

		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>COHESION</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	8,07	1,11	27
	: Extended	8,03	0,90	37
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	7,30	1,54	40
	: Extended	7,18	2,14	28
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	6,53	2,02	34
	: Extended	6,24	2,51	37
TOTAL		7,20	1,91	203
<u>EXPRESSIVENESS</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	5,22	1,60	27
	: Extended	4,86	1,67	37
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	4,85	1,49	40
	: Extended	5,18	2,25	28
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	5,00	1,94	34
	: Extended	4,68	1,99	37
TOTAL		4,94	1,81	203
<u>CONFLICT</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	1,63	1,11	27
	: Extended	1,19	0,97	37
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	1,40	1,10	40
	: Extended	1,79	1,87	28
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	2,50	2,23	34
	: Extended	2,16	2,52	37
TOTAL		1,76	1,79	203

MORAL-RELIGIOUS

MARRIED	:	Nuclear	6,59	1,37	27
	:	Extended	7,57	0,90	37
WIDOWED	:	Nuclear	7,05	1,72	40
	:	Extended	6,46	1,79	28
DIVORCED	:	Nuclear	6,88	1,53	34
	:	Extended	6,54	2,19	37
TOTAL			6,88	1,66	203

ORGANIZATION

MARRIED	:	Nuclear	7,19	1,36	27
	:	Extended	7,84	1,59	37
WIDOWED	:	Nuclear	6,85	1,72	40
	:	Extended	6,39	2,22	28
DIVORCED	:	Nuclear	6,68	1,82	34
	:	Extended	5,97	2,32	37
TOTAL			6,82	1,94	203

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the interaction effect of Marital Status by Family System, as well as the main effect of Marital Status, were significant: $[F(10,386) = 1,85; p < 0,05]$ and $[F(10,386) = 3,49; p < 0,001]$, respectively. The main effect of Family System was not significant $[F(5,193) = 0,421; p > 0,05]$.

These results indicate that there were significant overall differences in family environment among intact, widowed and divorced families, depending on whether they belonged to nuclear or extended families. However, there were no significant overall differences between mothers from nuclear

and extended families in their perceptions of family environment.

Subsequent univariate F tests showed significant effects of Marital Status on the following subscales:

Cohesion [$F(2,197) = 14,46; p < 0,001$],
Conflict [$F(2,197) = 5,70; p < 0,01$] and
Organization [$F(2,197) = 7,93; p < 0,001$].

These results indicate that there were significant differences in cohesion, organization and conflict amongst intact, widowed and divorced families.

Further analysis of the data, using the Scheffé Test, indicated that divorced mothers perceived their families as being significantly lower on cohesion than intact families ($p < 0,01$), and widowed families ($p < 0,05$). They also perceived their families as having significantly higher conflict than married mothers ($p < 0,05$). These results support the hypothesis that divorced mothers will have more negative perceptions of family environment than married and widowed mothers

The degree of organization was perceived to be significantly higher for intact versus widowed groups ($p < 0,05$), and intact versus divorced groups ($p < 0,01$). These results support the hypothesis that mothers from intact families

will perceive their family environments more positively than those from father-absent families.

Subsequent univariate F test for the subscale, Moral-Religious showed a significant interaction effect of Family System by Marital Status: [$F(2,197) = 4,18; p < 0,05$]. These results indicate that there were differences in Moral-Religious emphasis among intact, widowed and divorced households, but these differences were related to whether they belonged to nuclear or extended family systems. Examination of the means (Table 4.23) indicate that for the intact group, the extended families were higher on moral-religious emphasis than were the nuclear families. In both father-absent households, moral-religious emphasis was higher for the nuclear than the extended family systems (see Fig 4.11). Hence the hypothesis that mothers from extended, compared to nuclear father-absent, families will have more positive perceptions of family environment was not supported.

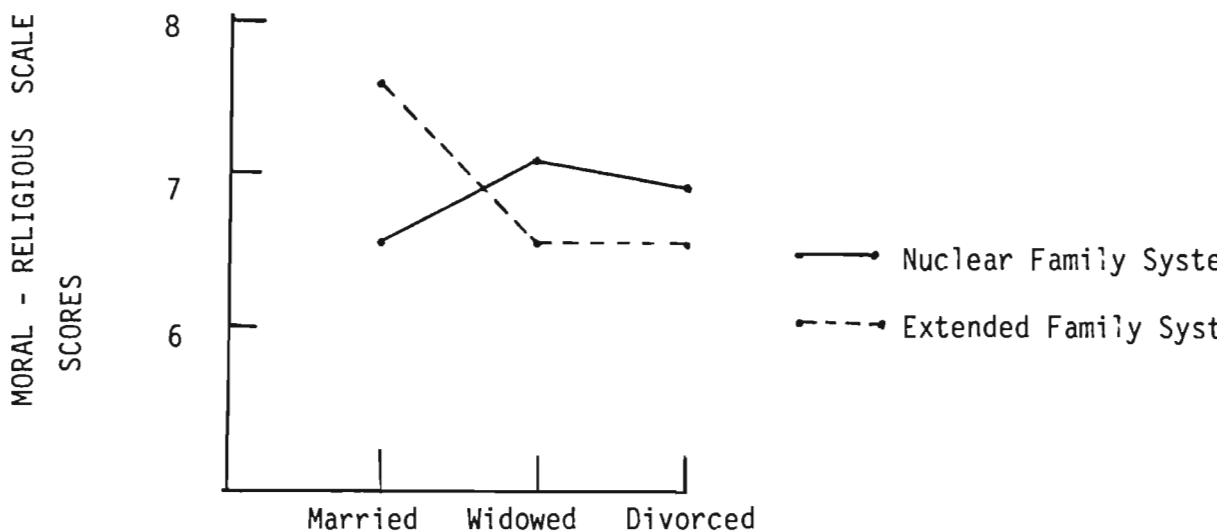


FIGURE 4.11 : INTERACTION BETWEEN MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM ON THE FES SUBSCALE : MORAL-RELIGIOUS

4.7.2 The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Family Environment

A one-way between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (Subscales of the FES). The independent variable was Maternal Employment Status (working and housewife). With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by Mothers' Occupation [$F(5,198) = 2,29; p < 0,05$].

Although there were significant overall differences between families with working mothers and housewives, regarding the degree of cohesion, expressiveness, conflict, moral-religious emphasis and organization, subsequent F - test analysis indicated insignificant differences for each of the dependent variables. Thus, the hypothesis that working mothers will have more positive perceptions of family environment is not clearly supported.

4.7.3 The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Family Environment

A one-way between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (Subscales of the FES). The independent variable was Maternal Educational Level (primary and

secondary). Cell means and standard deviations of each group's scores are given in Table 4.24.

TABLE 2.24

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FES SCORES
GROUPED ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>COHESION</u>			
EDUCATIONAL : Primary	7,03	2,08	126
LEVEL : Secondary	7,41	1,57	73
TOTAL	7,17	1,92	199
<u>EXPRESSIVENESS</u>			
EDUCATIONAL : Primary	4,89	1,83	126
LEVEL : Secondary	5,10	1,78	73
TOTAL	4,96	1,81	199
<u>CONFLICT</u>			
EDUCATIONAL : Primary	1,67	1,77	126
LEVEL : Secondary	1,89	1,83	73
TOTAL	1,75	1,79	199
<u>MORAL RELIGIOUS</u>			
EDUCATIONAL : Primary	6,77	1,76	126
LEVEL : Secondary	7,03	1,46	73
TOTAL	6,86	1,66	199
<u>ORGANIZATION</u>			
EDUCATIONAL : Primary	6,56	2,05	126
LEVEL : Secondary	7,26	1,71	73
TOTAL	6,81	1,96	199

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by Maternal Educational Level [$F(5,193) = 2,61; p < 0,05$]. These results indicate that there were significant overall differences for mothers with primary, compared to secondary, school education in their perceptions of family environment. Subsequent F tests indicated significance for the effect of Maternal Educational Level on the subscale: Organization [$F(1,197) = 6,13; p < 0,01$]. Examination of the means (Table 4.24) reveals that mothers with secondary, compared to primary, school education perceived their families as being more highly organized. These results support the hypothesis that mothers with secondary, compared to primary, school education will perceive their family environments more positively.

4.7.4 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Family Environment

A one-way between-subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (Subscales of the FES). The independent variable was Degree of Turbulence (high and low). Cell means and standard deviations of each group's scores are given in Table 4.25.

TABLE 4.25

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FES SCORES
GROUPED ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>COHESION</u>			
HIGH	6,66	2,20	85
LOW	7,61	1,56	119
TOTAL	7,21	1,91	204
<u>EXPRESSIVENESS</u>			
HIGH	4,72	1,88	85
LOW	5,12	1,75	119
TOTAL	4,95	1,81	204
<u>CONFLICT</u>			
HIGH	2,24	2,05	85
LOW	1,43	1,49	119
TOTAL	1,76	1,78	204
<u>MORAL RELIGIOUS</u>			
HIGH	6,81	1,76	85
LOW	6,97	1,59	119
TOTAL	6,90	1,66	204
<u>ORGANIZATION</u>			
HIGH	6,41	2,07	85
LOW	7,13	1,78	119
TOTAL	6,83	1,94	204

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by the Degree of Turbulence [$F(5,198) = 3,52; p < 0,01$]. This indicates that there were overall differences in maternal perceptions of family environment, depending on whether they experienced high or low turbulence at home.

Subsequent univariate F tests indicated significance for the effect of the Degree of Turbulence on the following subscales:

Cohesion [$F(1,202) = 12,93; p < 0,001$],

Conflict [$F(1,202) = 10,64; p < 0.001$] and

Organization [$F(1,202) = 7,06; p < 0,01$].

Examination of the means (Table 4.25) reveals that mothers who experienced low turbulence, perceived their families to be higher in cohesion and organization, and lower in conflict than those who experienced high turbulence in their homes. These results provide strong support for the hypothesis that mothers who experienced high turbulence, compared to low turbulence will perceive their family environments more negatively.

4.8 MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS IN INTACT, WIDOWED AND DIVORCED FAMILIES

Attitudes of mothers (N = 191) towards relating to their children, were measured by the Mother-Child Relationship Evaluation (MCRE; Roth, 1961). The subscales were: Overprotection, Rejection, Overindulgence and Acceptance. Each sub-scale consisted of 12 items. Each item was scored on a five-point scale, giving a total score of 12 to 60 for each subscale. The higher the scale score, the greater was the amount of the attitude; the lower the scale score, the lesser was the amount of the attitude.

4.8.1 The Influence of Family System and Marital Status on Mother-Child Relationships

A 2x3 (Family System and Marital Status) between-subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (Subscales of the MCRE). The independent variables were Family System (intact and nuclear) and Marital Status (married, widowed and divorced). Cell means and standard deviations of each group's scores are presented in Table 4.26.

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by the interaction effects of Family System by Marital Status [$F(8,364) = 2,61; p < 0,01$] and by

TABLE 4.26

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MCRE SCORES
GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND FAMILY SYSTEM

		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>OVERPROTECTION</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	40,74	5,27	27
	: Extended	41,47	3,93	36
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	44,89	5,47	36
	: Extended	44,33	6,22	27
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	44,84	5,29	31
	: Extended	43,82	5,16	34
TOTAL		43,38	5,40	191
<u>REJECTION</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	38,48	4,56	27
	: Extended	35,22	3,22	36
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	38,42	3,15	36
	: Extended	38,70	4,84	27
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	38,71	5,34	31
	: Extended	39,18	4,78	34
TOTAL		38,05	4,50	191
<u>OVERINDULGENCE</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	37,22	6,14	27
	: Extended	39,11	4,22	36
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	40,47	6,30	36
	: Extended	37,26	6,56	27
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	39,00	5,84	31
	: Extended	39,58	6,00	34
TOTAL		38,90	5,88	191
<u>ACCEPTANCE</u>				
MARRIED	: Nuclear	30,11	5,05	27
	: Extended	29,64	5,58	36
WIDOWED	: Nuclear	29,61	4,95	36
	: Extended	30,19	4,12	27
DIVORCED	: Nuclear	29,16	6,06	31
	: Extended	30,85	5,08	34
TOTAL		29,92	5,16	191

the main effect of Marital Status [$F(8,364) = 2,70$; $p < 0,01$]. The main effect of Family System was not significant [$F(4,182) = 0,56$; $p > 0,05$].

These results indicate that mother-child relationships differed significantly in intact, widowed and divorced families, depending on whether they were in nuclear or extended family systems. However, there were no significant overall differences in mother-child relationships between mothers who belonged to nuclear and extended family systems.

Further univariate F tests yielded significance for the main effect of Marital Status on the following variables:

Overprotection [$F(2,185) = 8,61$; $p < 0,001$] and
Rejection [$F(2,185) = 5,23$; $p < 0,01$].

These results indicate that mothers from intact, widowed and divorced families differed significantly on overprotection and rejection. To clarify these differences, further analysis using the Scheffé' Test revealed that married mothers showed significantly less overprotection than widowed ($p < 0,05$), and divorced mothers ($p < 0,05$). Further, married mothers showed significantly lower rejection than divorced mothers ($p < 0,05$). There were no significant differences in rejection between married and widowed mothers. Thus, the hypothesis that married mothers

will perceive their mother-child relationships more positively than single mothers, is supported.

The univariate Fs also indicated significant interaction effects of Family System by Marital Status on the following variables:

Rejection [$F(2,185) = 3,65; p < 0,05$] and

Overindulgence [$F(2,185) = 3,18; p < 0,05$].

To clarify these differences, examination of the mean scores (see Table 4.26) indicates that mothers from intact families expressed attitudes of higher rejection of their children if they belonged to the nuclear family systems than if they belonged to extended family systems. This difference did not apply to the two father-absent groups (see Figure 4.12). The results indicated no differences for single-mothers from the nuclear and extended family systems.

Further, widowed mothers had attitudes of higher overindulgence if they belonged to nuclear families than to extended families. The reverse applied to the intact families, where married mothers showed higher overindulgence in the extended than in the nuclear family system. This difference did not appear for the divorced families (see Figure 4.13). Thus, the hypothesis that mothers from extended, compared to nuclear, father-absent families will perceive their mother-child relationships more positively is

only partially supported, since this difference was found for the widowed group, but not for the divorced group.

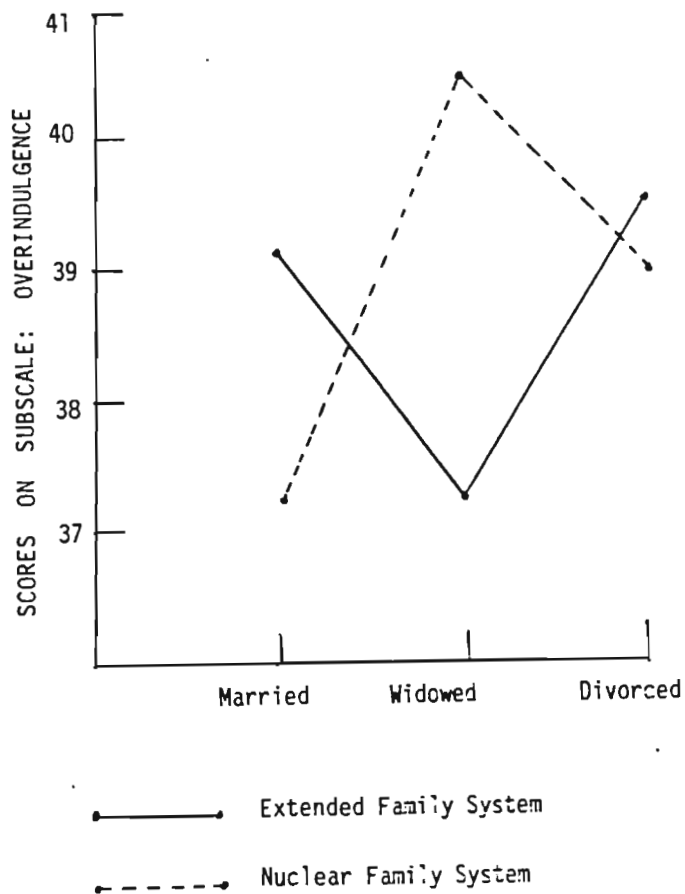


FIGURE 4.12 : INTERACTION BETWEEN FAMILY SYSTEM AND MARITAL STATUS ON MCRE SUBSCALE: OVERINDULGENCE

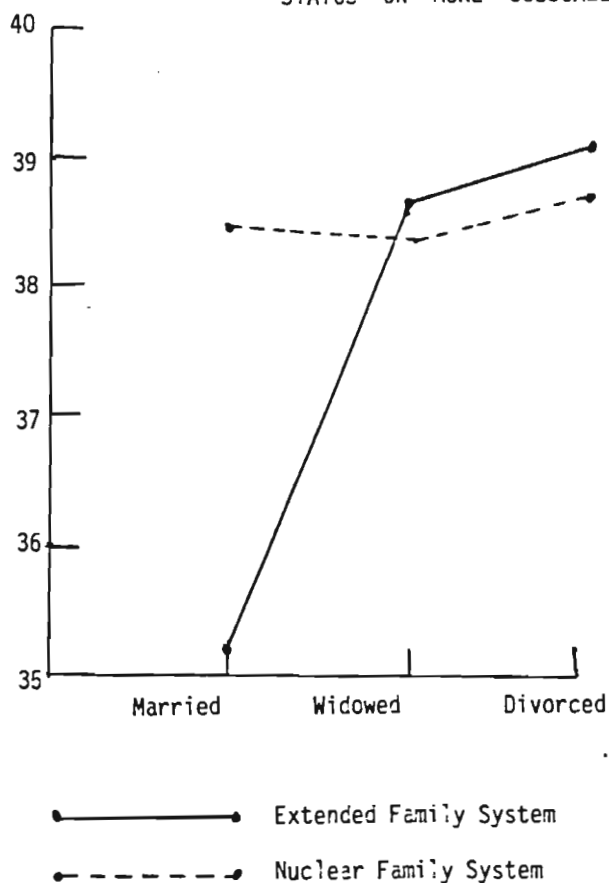


FIGURE 4.13 : INTERACTION BETWEEN FAMILY SYSTEM AND MARITAL STATUS

4.8.2 The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on
Mother-Child Relationships

A one-way between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (Subscales of the MCRE). The independent variable was Maternal Educational Level (primary and secondary). The cell means and standard deviations of each group's score are presented in Table 4.27.

TABLE 4.27

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MCRE SCORES
GROUPED ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N
<u>OVERPROTECTION</u>			
PRIMARY	43,84	5,60	118
SECONDARY	42,51	5,07	69
TOTAL	43,35	5,43	187
<u>REJECTION</u>			
PRIMARY	38,12	4,35	118
SECONDARY	37,84	4,75	69
TOTAL	38,02	4,49	187
<u>OVERINDULGENCE</u>			
PRIMARY	39,63	5,59	118
SECONDARY	37,62	6,34	69
TOTAL	38,89	5,94	187
<u>ACCEPTANCE</u>			
PRIMARY	30,31	4,85	118
SECONDARY	29,19	5,64	69
TOTAL	29,89	5,17	187

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by Maternal Educational Level [$F(4,182) = 2,42; p < 0,05$].

Subsequent univariate F - test analysis yielded significance for the effect of Maternal Educational Level on Overindulgence [$F(1,185) = 5,06; p < 0,05$]. Examination of the means (see Table 4.27), indicates that mothers with secondary school versus primary school education showed less overindulgence. Thus, the hypothesis that mothers with secondary, compared to primary, school education have more positive perceptions of mother-child relationships is supported.

4.8.3 The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Mother-Child Relationships

A one-way between subjects MANOVA was performed on the dependent variables (subscales of the MCRE). The independent variable was Maternal Employment Status (housewife and working). The cell means and standard deviations of each groups scores are presented in Table 4.28.

TABLE 4.28

CELL MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MCRE SCORES
GROUPED ACCORDING TO EMPLOYMENT STATUS

		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	N	
<u>OVERPROTECTION</u>					
MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT					
STATUS	:	Housewife	44,09	5,77	136
	:	Working	41,59	3,82	56
		TOTAL	43,36	5,39	192
<u>REJECTION</u>					
MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT					
STATUS	:	Housewife	38,21	4,32	136
	:	Working	37,64	4,89	56
		TOTAL	38,04	4,49	192
<u>OVERINDULGENCE</u>					
MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT					
STATUS	:	Housewife	39,93	5,37	136
	:	Working	36,41	6,32	56
		TOTAL	38,90	5,87	192
<u>ACCEPTANCE</u>					
MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT					
STATUS	:	Housewife	29,41	5,48	136
	:	Working	31,18	4,04	56
		TOTAL	29,93	5,15	192

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by Maternal Employment Status [(4,187) = 5,24; $p < 0,001$]. This implies that there are overall differences between working mothers and housewives in their perceptions of mother-child relationships.

Subsequent univariate F - test analyses located the areas of significance for the effect of Maternal Employment Status on Mother-Child Relationships on the following subscales:

Overprotection [F(1,19) = 8,88; $p < 0,01$];

Overindulgence [F(1,19) = 15,30; $p < 0,001$] and

Acceptance [F(1,19) = 4,76; $p < 0,05$].

To clarify these differences, examination of the means (Table 4.28) reveal that working mothers showed less overprotection and overindulgence, but more acceptance than mothers who were housewives. Thus, the hypothesis that employed mothers, versus housewives, will perceive their mother-child relationships more positively is supported.

4.9 THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS
OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT, MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS,
SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS
OF CHILDREN

To investigate the interrelationships among children's adjustment and mothers' perceptions of family environments, mother-child relationships, self and family members, a series of Pearson rs were computed on the CBRS, FES, MCRE subscales, the RSES and SD scale concepts on self and family.

For all of the above variables, except for RSES, higher scores indicated higher degree of the variable, and vice-versa. The reverse applied to the RSES, where higher scores indicated lower self-esteem and vice-versa. The significant results of these analyses are presented in Table 4.29. These results are consistent with the hypotheses (see page 14).

TABLE 4.29

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS CBRS SCORES AND MOTHERS' SD SCALE, RSES, MCRE AND FES SCORES AND CHILDREN'S SEI AND SD SCALE SCORES

		TEACHERS' SCALE		
		Self	Social	School
		Adjustment	Adjustment	Adjustment
	N			
<u>MOTHERS' SCALE</u>				
Self-Esteem	204	-.19**	-.19**	-.23***
My Children	204	.18**	.21***	.22***
My Relatives/ Friends	204	.12*	.28**	.17**
Cohesion	205		.22***	.24**
Conflict	205		-.12*	
Overprotection	193	-.19**	-.15*	-.16**
Overindulgence	193	-.21**	-.19**	-.22***
Acceptance	193	.12*		
<u>CHILDRENS' SCALE</u>				
Myself	265			.15**
Self-Esteem	268			.18**

* p < 0,05 ** p < 0,01 *** p < 0,001

4.9.1 The Relationships Between Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family and Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

As indicated in Table 4.29, there were significant negative correlations between self, social and school adjustment subscale scores and RSES. This implies that the more positive were teacher-ratings on children's adjustment, the higher was the self-esteem of their mothers. Further, there were significant positive correlations between all the adjustment subscales scores and the scores on the concepts, "My Children" and "My Relatives/Friends". This implies that the higher the teachers' ratings on children's adjustment, the more positive were their mothers' perceptions of their children and relatives/friends.

4.9.2 The Relationships Between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Family Environment

As indicated in Table 4.29, there were significant positive correlations between social adjustment, school adjustment and cohesion. This implies that the higher the teachers rated children on social and school adjustment, the greater was the degree of cohesion in the family, as reported by their mothers.

Further, there were significant negative correlations between the social adjustment subscale scores and conflict. This implies that the higher the children were rated by teachers on social adjustment, the lower were the conflict levels in their families, as reported by their mothers.

4.9.3 The Relationships Between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Mother-Child Relationships

As indicated in Table 4.29, there were significant negative correlations between all the CRBS adjustment subscales and the MCRE scores on overprotection and overindulgence. This implies that the higher the children were rated on self, social and school adjustment by their teachers, the lower were the degrees of overprotection and overindulgence in mother-child relationships as reported by the mothers.

Further, the significant positive correlations between self adjustment and acceptance, implies that the higher the teachers' rating on children's self adjustment, the greater was the degree of acceptance in the mother-child relationships.

4.9.4 The Relationships Between Teacher's Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Children's Perceptions of Self

As indicated in Table 4.29, there were significant positive correlations between School Adjustment scores and scores on the concept, "Myself" and SEI scores. This implies that the more positive were teachers' perceptions of children's school adjustment, the more positive the children's perceptions of self, and higher were their self-esteem.

4.10 THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

To investigate the interrelationships among children's perceptions of self and family members and their mothers' perceptions of self and family members, family environment and mother-child relationships, a series of Pearson r s were computed.

The variables for children were SD scale concepts on self and family and SEI. The variables for mothers were RSES, subscales of the FES and MCRE and SD scale concepts on self and family. The significant results of these analysis are presented in Table 4.30. These results are consistent with the hypotheses (see page 14).

TABLE 4.30

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CHILDREN'S SD SCALE SCORES AND
MOTHERS' RSES, SD SCALE, FES AND MCRE SCORES

CHILDREN'S SCALES						
	Myself	My Family	My Father	My Mother	Self Esteem (SEI)	N
<u>MOTHERS' SCALES</u>						
Self-Esteem		-.15*	-.14*	-.15*		137
My Children			.25**			137
My Relatives/ Friends	.20**				.19**	137
Expressiveness	.14*				.22**	137
Conflict			-.18*			137
Moral/Religious Rejection		-.13*			-.15*	129
Overindulgence	.14*					129
Acceptance		.17*				129

4.10.1 The Relationships Between Children's and Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members

Results in Table 4.30 reveal that there were significant correlations between children's scores on the concept, "Myself" and SEI scores and their mothers' scores on the concept, "My Relatives/Friends". This implies that the more positive the children's perceptions of themselves, and the higher their self-esteem, the more positive were their mothers' perceptions of relatives/friends.

There were significant negative correlations between children's scores on the concepts, "My Family", "My Father" and "My Mother" and mother's RSES scores. This indicates that the more positive the children's perceptions of their families, fathers and mothers, the higher was the self esteem of their mothers.

Significant positive correlations were obtained for the children's scores on the concept, "My Father" and mother's scores on the concept, "My Children". This implies that the more positive the children's perceptions of their fathers, the more positive were their mother's perception of their children.

4.10.2 The Relationships Between Children's Perceptions of Self and Family and Maternal Perceptions of Family Environment and Mother-Child Relationships

As indicated in Table 4.30, significant positive correlations were obtained between children's SEI scores and scores on the concept, "Myself" and their mother's FES scores on the subscale, Expressiveness. These results indicate that the more positive the children's self-esteem and perceptions of self, the greater was the degree of expressiveness in their families.

There were significant negative correlations between the scores on the concept, "My Father" and the FES scores on the Conflict subscale. This implies that the more positive the children's perceptions of their fathers, the lower was the degree of conflict in their families, as reported by their mothers.

As indicated in Table 4.30, there were significant positive correlations between the children's scores on the concept, "Myself" and MCRE scores on the subscale Overindulgence. This implies that the more positive the child's perception of self, the higher was the degree of overindulgence in the mother-child relationship.

Significant positive correlations were found between children's scores on the concept "My Family", and the MCRE scores on the subscale, Acceptance. This indicates that the more positive the child's perception of his family, the greater was the degree of acceptance in the mother-child relationship.

There were significant negative correlations between children's SEI Scale scores and mothers' MCRE scores on the subscale Rejection. This finding indicates that the higher the self-esteem of the child, the lower was the degree of rejection in the mother-child relationship.

4.11 THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG MOTHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS AND FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

To investigate the interrelationships among mother's perceptions of self and family members and family environment and mother-child relationships, a series of Pearson r s were computed.

The variables were the RSES, FES and MCRE subscales and SD scale concepts of self and family members. The significant results of these analyses are presented in Table 4.31. These results support the hypotheses (see page 14).

TABLE 4.31
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MATERNAL SD SCALE, RSES AND MCRE SCORES

	Myself	My Husband	My Children	My Relatives Friends	Self Esteem	N
Self-Esteem	-.58***	-.17**	-.30***	-.25***		204
Cohesion	.40***	-.24***	.32***	.21***	-.50***	204
Expressiveness	-.16**		.13*	.30***	-.19**	204
Conflict	-.38***		-.20**	-.18**	.42***	204
Moral Religious Organization	.16**				-.19**	204
Organization	.34***		.27***	.13*	-.45***	204
Overproduction					.15*	192
Rejection			-.21**		.15*	192

8 p < 0,05 **p < 0,01 ***p < 0,001

4.11.1 The Relationships Between Maternal Self-Esteem and Perceptions of Self and Family Members

As indicated in Table 4.31, significant negative correlations were obtained between RSES scores and the

scores on the SD Scale concepts. This implies that the higher the mother's self-esteem, the more positively did she perceive herself, her husband, her children and her relatives/friends.

4.11.2 The Relationships Between Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members and Family Environment

As indicated in Table 4.31, there were significant negative correlations between mother's RSES scores and the FES subscales of Cohesion, Expressiveness, Moral-Religious and Organization. This implies that the higher the mother's self-esteem, the greater were the degrees of cohesion, expressiveness, moral-religious emphasis and organization in the family.

There were significant positive correlations between RSES scores and the FES subscale of Conflict, indicating that the higher the mother's self-esteem, the lower was the degree of conflict in the family.

These correlations were also significant between the concept, "Myself" and all the FES subscales. This implies that the higher the maternal perceptions of self, the greater were the degrees of cohesion, expressiveness,

moral-religious emphasis and organization and the lower was the degree of conflict in the family.

There were significant positive correlations between scores on the SD Scale concept, "My Husband" and the FES subscale Cohesion. This implies that the more positive the mother's perception of her husband, the greater was the degree of cohesion in her family.

There were significant positive correlations between scores on the concepts, "My Children" and "My Relatives/Friends" and FES subscales: Cohesion, Expressiveness and Organization. This implies that the more positive the mothers' perceptions of their children and relatives/friends the greater were the degrees of cohesion, expressiveness and organization in their family environments. The significant negative correlation of these concepts with the FES subscale, Conflict implies that the more positive the maternal perceptions of children and relatives/friends, the lower was the degree of conflict in the family.

4.11.3 The Relationships Between Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members and Mother-Child Relationships

As indicated in Table 4.31 there were significant positive correlations between RSES scores and MCRE scores on subscales, Overprotection and Rejection. This implies that the higher the mother's self-esteem, the lower were the degrees of overprotection and rejection in her relationship with her children.

There were significant positive correlations between the concept, "My Children" and MCRE scores on the subscale, Rejection. These results indicate that the more negative the mother's perceptions of her children, the higher was the degree of rejection in mother-child relationships.

4.12 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS AND FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

Pearson r_s were computed for the MCRE and FES subscale scores to investigate the relationships between mother-child relationships and family environment. Significant results of these analysis are presented in Table 4.32. These results are consistent with the hypotheses (see page 14).

TABLE 4.32
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MCRE AND FES SCORES OF MOTHERS

MCRE	FES			
	Express-iveness	Conflict	Moral Religious	Organiza-tion
Overprotection		.14*		
Rejection	-.15*	.20**		-.17**
Acceptance			.12*	
N	193	193	193	193

* $p < 0,05$; ** $p < 0,01$

As indicated in Table 4.32, significant positive correlations were obtained between scores of the MCRE subscale Overprotection and FES subscale, Conflict. These results indicate that the higher the degree of overprotection, the higher was the degree of conflict in the family.

There were significant negative correlations between scores of the MCRE subscale Rejection, and FES subscales, Expressiveness and Organization. These results show that the higher the degree of rejection in mother-child relationships, the lower were the degrees of expressiveness and organization in the family. The significant positive

correlation between the MCRE subscale, Rejection and the FES subscale, Conflict implies that the higher the degree of rejection in the mother-child relationship, the higher was the level of conflict in the family.

Significant positive correlations were obtained between scores on the MCRE subscale Acceptance and FES subscale, Moral-Religious. This implies that the higher the degree of acceptance in mother-child relationships, the higher was the level of moral-religious orientation in the family.

4.13 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONAL, HOME, SOCIAL AND FORMAL RELATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, FAMILY AND SCHOOL

To examine the interrelationships between adolescents' perceptions of their adjustment and self, family and school, a series of Pearson r s were computed. Correlations were performed between each subscale of the PHSF Relations Questionnaire (Self-Confidence, Self-Esteem, Self-Control, Nervousness, Health, Family Influences, Personal Freedom, Sociability G, Sociability S, Moral Sense, Formal Relations) and SD Scale concepts on self, family and school and the SEI. Higher scores indicated more positive adjustment on each of the subscales. The significant results of these analysis are summarized in Table 4.33. These results support the hypotheses (see p 14).

TABLE 4.33

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PHSF SUB-SCALES AND SD SCALE SCORES

PHSF	Myself	Family	Father	Mother	Teacher	School	SEI
Self Confidence		.25**					.37**
Self-Esteem	.37**	.34***	.36***	.24**	.18*	.14*	.52***
Self Control	.23**						.35***
Nervousness	.22**	.20**	.18**		.20**		.23**
Family Influence	.21**	.20**	.19**	.25**			.55**
Personal Freedom						.16*	.30***
Sociability		.19**					
Moral Sense	.20**	.18**		.31***	.35***	.16*	.18*
Formal Relations	.29***	.18*	.21*	.22**	.35***	.23**	.43***

As indicated in Table 4.33, scores on the concept, "Myself" as well as the SEI scores yielded significant positive correlations with PHSF subscales: Self Confidence, Self Esteem, Self-Control, Nervousness, Family Influences, Moral Sense and Formal Relations. These results imply that the more positive the adolescent's perception of self and higher the self-esteem, the higher were the levels of adjustment with regard to the above variables. There were also positive correlations between the concept, "Myself" and Self-Esteem, Self-Control, Nervousness, Family Influences, Moral Sense and Formal Relations.

Significant positive correlations were obtained between the scores on the concept, "My Family" and PHSF subscale scores on Self-Confidence, Self-Esteem, Self-Control, Nervousness, Family Influences, Sociability G, Moral Sense and Formal Relations. These results indicate that the more positive the adolescent's perception of his family, the higher was the adjustment on the variables measured by these subscales.

Significant positive correlations were obtained between scores on the concept, "My Father" and PHSF subscales, Self-Esteem, Nervousness, Family Influences and Formal Relations. These results indicate that the more positive the adolescents' perceptions of their fathers, the higher was the adjustment of adolescents on factors measured by these subscales.

Significant positive relationships were obtained between the concept, "My Teacher" and PHSF scores on the subscales Self-Esteem, Nervousness, Moral Sense and Formal Relations. This implies that the higher the adolescent's perception of his teacher, the higher was the adjustment on the factors measured by these subscales.

There were positive significant relationships between the concept, "My School" and PHSF scores on the subscales Self-Esteem, Personal Freedom, Moral Sense and Formal Relations. This implies that the higher the adolescent's perception of his teacher, the higher was his adjustment on the factors measured by these subscales.

There were no significant correlations between the SD scale concepts and the PHSF subscale, Sociability S.

4.14 ADDITIONAL FINDINGS

4.14.1. Demographic Variables:

One of the aims of the research was to define demographic variables of Indian school children from the lower SES group. Analysis of the results in Table 4.34 indicate that 80,6% of the children belonged to families with both

TABLE 4.34

TOTAL AND PERCENTAGES ACCORDING TO FAMILY STRUCTURE AND PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS OF CHILDREN IN CERTAIN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN CHATSWORTH

Marital Status	Family Structure	Primary Schools		Secondary Schools		Participants	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Married	Nuclear	1 248	59,8	1 050	72,3	2 298	65
	Extended	838	40,2	402	27,7	1 240	35
	Total	2 086		1 452		3 538	
	Total %						80,6
Single	Nuclear	24	57,1	12	48,0	36	53,7
	Extended	18	42,9	13	52	31	46,3
	Total	42		25		67	
	Total %						1,5
Divorced/ Separated	Nuclear	67	42,4	45	53,6	112	46,3
	Extended	91	57,6	39	46,4	130	53,7
	Total	158		84		242	
	Total %						5,5
Widowed	Nuclear	91	56,5	142	61,5	233	59,4
	Extended	70	43,5	89	38,5	159	40,6
	Total	161		231		392	
	Total %						8,9
Children living with Guardian	Nuclear	20	42,6	32	30,8	52	34,4
	Extended	27	57,4	72	69,2	99	65,6
	Total	47		104		151	
	Total %						3,5
						4 390	

parents, 15,9% belonged to father-absent families and 3,4% of the children lived with guardians.

In comparison, figures estimated for the United States of America is that by 1990, 50% of all children, as opposed to 27% in 1960 and 37% in 1980, will reside in single-parent families (Glick, 1979). Estimates for black children range as high as 75% (Bumpass and Rindfuss, 1979). Thus, although there seems to be an increase in single-parent families in the Indian community, since Hilda Kuper's (1960) study, the proportion of single-parent families is still fairly low when compared to American statistics.

The greater proportion of the total subjects lived in nuclear (62,2%) compared to extended (37,8%) families. Although Hilda Kuper's study indicated that majority of Indians live in extended families, the change in family structure could possibly be explained in terms of the intensive political and ideological shifts which have greatly affected the structure of the Indian South African family (Schoombee and Manzaris, 1984). Certain politico-ideological steps, such as the Group Area Act, have had significant effects on the decrease of the traditional, extended family (Jithoo, 1975). This resulted in Indian families being moved from their original homes to smaller accommodations in housing schemes which did not cater for large, extended families. The increase in occupational

mobility and industrialization in South Africa has led to the decrease in the proportion of Indians involved in traditional patterns of agriculture. Thus, there is greater urbanization which is less conducive to extended family systems.

Further, western education has led the younger generations to educational mobility, changes in status, westernization and changing attitudes towards life, marriage and the family. Schoombee and Manzaris (1984) have demonstrated that the younger generations of Indians showed a stronger wish to live in a nuclear family, than the older.

Although the majority of the children from the total sample lived in nuclear family systems, the greater percentage was represented by secondary (67,6%), compared to primary school children (58%). This trend could possibly be explained in terms of the varying needs of families in the different stages of development. It is likely that families with younger children are in greater need of social support systems provided by the extended family. However, further research into the area of the functions and support offered by each type of family structure is necessary.

While the greater percentage of the total group of children live in nuclear families, majority of children with divorced parents tended to belong to extended (53,7%) compared to

nuclear (46,3%) families. This may suggest that the divorced parents could have a greater need for the social, financial and emotional support offered by the extended family system especially in low socio-economic status groups.

The most common reason for father absence in the Indian community is widowhood (8,9% of the total sample) compared to divorce and separation (5,5% of the total sample). This finding is contrary to some western communities, for example, the United States where the major reason for father-absence is divorce (Dornbusch, Carlsmith, Bushwall, Ritter, Liederman, Hastorf and Gross, 1985; Glick, 1979). There is a lag in societal legitimization of the divorce role as suggested by Everly (1977). However, the stigmatized status of divorce may be especially relevant in a culture, such as, the Indian culture in which these effects are more prominent.

4.14.2 Variables Related to Mother and Child in the Family Situation

4.14.2.1 Problems Encountered by Single and Married Mothers

A series of Chi-square analyses were performed using the

SPSSX program to investigate the influence of marital status, family system and degree of turbulence on the following problems:

- (1) Financial
- (2) Housing
- (3) Child discipline ✓
- (4) Children's school performance
- (5) Maternal illnesses

The following significant results were obtained for the effects of:

Marital Status [χ^2 (6, N = 193) = 51,86; $p < 0,001$] and Degree of Turbulence [χ^2 (3, N = 189) = 30,07; $p < 0,001$] on financial problems. Examination of the results in Table 4.35 indicates that while majority of married mothers reported experiencing slight to no financial problems, the majority of single mothers reported slight to severe financial problems. Further, the results indicate that mothers who reported high levels of turbulence also experienced more financial difficulties.

TABLE 4.35

PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES TO FINANCIAL PROBLEMS GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND DEGREE OF TURBULENCE

	Marital Status (N = 193)			Degree of Turbulence	
	Married (N = 61)	Widowed (N = 59)	Divorced (N = 73)	High Turbulence (N = 82)	Low Turbulence (N = 107)
None	63,9	22,0	21,9	15,9	49,5
Slight	27,9	27,1	24,7	28,0	26,2
Severe	8,2	50,9	53,4	56,1	24,3

Significant results were obtained on the effects of:

Marital Status [X^2 (4, N = 185) = 36,05; $p < 0,001$] and

Degree of Turbulence [X^2 (2, N = 181) = 19,80; $p < 0,001$] on

housing problems. Examination of results in Table 4.36

indicates that more married mothers reported having adequate

housing facilities compared to single mothers, with divorced

mothers being worse off than widowed mothers.

In addition, there is an indication that mothers who reported

high turbulence in the family were also likely to report

having inadequate housing facilities, compared to those who reported low turbulence.

TABLE 4.36

PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES TO HOUSING PROBLEMS GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE

	Marital Status (N = 185)			Degree of Turbulence (N =181)	
	Married (N = 62)	Widowed (N = 51)	Divorced (N = 72)	High Turbulence (N = 77)	Low Turbulence (N = 104)
Adequate	90,3	68,6	41,7	49,4	77,9
Inadequate	9,7	31,4	58,3	50,6	22,1

The following significant results were obtained on the effects of:

Marital status [χ^2 (8, N = 188) = 20,84; $p < 0,01$] and Degree of Turbulence [χ^2 (4, N = 184) = 10,93; $p < 0,05$] on maternal responses on children's school performance. Results in Table 4.37 indicate that children from intact families experienced the least deterioration in school performance. There was a slight deterioration for children from widowed families, while the greatest deterioration was reported by divorced mothers.

TABLE 4.37

PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES ON CHILD'S SCHOOL PERFORMANCE GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE

	Marital Status (N = 188)			Degree of Turbulence (N = 184)	
	Married (N = 62)	Widowed (N = 54)	Divorced (N = 72)	High Turbulence (N = 75)	Low Turbulence (N = 109)
Unaffected	98,4	85,2	72,2	76,0	90,8
Better	0,0	3,7	2,8	1,3	2,8
Worse	1,6	11,1	25,0	22,7	6,4

The following significant results were obtained for the effects of:

Marital Status [χ^2 (4, N = 188) = 12,28; $p < 0,05$]

Family System [χ^2 (2, N = 187) = 6,74; $p < 0,05$]

Degree of Turbulence [χ^2 (2, N = 184) = 16,95; $p < 0,001$] on

maternal reports on child discipline. According to the results in Table 4.38, single mothers reported greater problems with children's discipline than married mothers. Mothers in nuclear family systems reported greater problems in children's behaviour than those in extended families. Mothers who experienced high turbulence reported severe discipline problems more often than those who experienced low turbulence.

TABLE 4.38

PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES ON CHILD DISCIPLINE GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS, FAMILY STRUCTURE AND THE DEGREE OF TURBULENCE

	Marital Status (N = 188)			Family System (N = 187)		Degree of Turbulence (N = 184)	
	Married (N=62)	Widowed (N=53)	Divorced (N=73)	Nuclear (N=93)	Extended (N=94)	High (N=76)	Low (N=108)
None	98,4	79,2	79,5	81,7	89,4	73,7	93,5
Slight	0,0	3,8	4,1	1,1	4,3	2,6	2,8
Severe	1,6	17,0	16,4	17,2	6,4	23,7	3,7

Significant effect of marital status was obtained on maternal illness [χ^2 16, (N = 186) = 33.14; $p < 0,01$]. According to Table 4.39, married mothers indicated the lowest incidence of illnesses compared to single mothers. In the latter group, while widowed mothers indicated more physical illness,

divorced mothers indicated problems related to anxiety and depression.

TABLE 4.39
PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES TO ILLNESS GROUPED
ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS (N = 186)

	Married (N = 61)	Widowed (N = 53)	Divorced (N = 72)
None	90,2	62,3	79,2
Headaches	0,0	7,5	6,9
Depression/Anxiety	1,6	3,8	8,4
Menstrual	0,0	3,8	0,0
Arthritis	0,0	9,4	1,4
diabetes	1,6	3,8	0,0
Jaundice	1,6	0,0	0,0
Other	4,9	9,4	4,2

4.14.2.2 Maternal Reports on Problem-Solving Methods Used in Relation to Marital Status

✓ Table 4.40 indicates that the most commonly used problem-solving device used by single mothers was to turn to family

support systems. Further, more divorced mothers tried problem-solving methods compared to married and widowed mothers, with married mothers using the least, presumably, since they experience the least number of problems. Prayers and religious activities were ranked highly for widowed mothers, while involvement in employment was ranked highly by divorced mothers. Socializing as a problem-solving method was also more important for the divorced versus the other two groups.

TABLE 4.40
 PERCENTAGES AND RANK ORDER OF MATERNAL REPORTS OF
 PROBLEM-SOLVING METHODS GROUPED ACCORDING TO MARITAL
 STATUS

	Married (N=49)		Widowed (N=60)		Divorced (N=71)		Total (N=180)	
	%	Rank Order	%	Rank Order	%	Rank Order	%	Rank Order
None	55,1	1	28,3	2	14,1	5	30,0	2
Family Support	32,7	2	45,0	1	53,5	1	45,0	1
Prayers	12,2	3	16,7	3	16,9	4	15,6	3
Involvement								
in Employment	2,0	5	15,0	4	23,9	2	15,0	3
Socializing	0,0	6	15,0	4	19,7	3	12,8	5
Change in								
Religion	12,2	3	,0	8	4,2	6	5,0	6
Self Support	0,0	6	13,3	6	1,4	8	5,0	6
Medication	0,0	6	3,4	7	4,2	6	1,7	8

4.14.2.3 Relationships Between Children and Their Divorced Fathers

The results indicate that majority of children spent little or no time with their divorced fathers (63,5% spending no

time and 4.1% spending time occasionally). About one third of the children had regular contact with 23,0% on a monthly, 4.1% on a weekly and 5,4% on a daily basis. Therefore, it is not surprising that only about one third (30,8%) had positive feelings about a reconciliation whereas, 52,6% had negative feelings and 16,6% were indifferent.

Chi-square analysis (See Table 4.41) indicated that divorced mothers compared to widowed and married mothers reported unfavourable father-child relationships before the disruption more often [$X^2 (8, N = 181) = 65,21; p < 0,001$].

TABLE 4.41

PERCENTAGES OF MATERNAL RESPONSES TO PREVIOUS FATHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

	Married (N = 61)	Widowed (N = 60)	Divorced (N = 60)
Good	78,7	81,7	26,7
Bad	1,6	8,3	23,3
Fair	6,6	5,0	20,0
Too Strict	11,5	1,7	5,0
No Time	1,6	3,3	25,0

4.15 SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT RESULTS

4.15.1 Teachers' Perceptions of Self, Social and School Adjustment of Children

1. On all three adjusted scales, children from intact families were perceived more positively by their teachers than those from widowed and divorced families.
2. Secondary school children were perceived more positively than primary school children in both father-absent groups on self and school adjustment, with the difference for the divorced being greater than for the widowed groups.
3. Females, compared to males, were perceived more positively on social and school adjustment.
4. Children from secondary schools were viewed more positively than those from primary schools on self and school adjustment.
5. Females from secondary schools, compared to females from primary schools, were viewed more positively on social adjustment.

6. Children from nuclear families were perceived more positively than those from extended families on self and social adjustment.
7. Children with mothers who had secondary school education were perceived more positively on self, social and school adjustment than those with mothers who had primary school education.
8. Children from low-turbulence families were viewed more positively on school adjustment, compared to those from high-turbulence families.

4.15.2 Teachers' Recommendations for Remedial Education and Psychologist/Student Counsellor or Social Worker Intervention

1. Remedial education was recommended more frequently for:
 - (i) males compared to females;
 - (ii) children from father-absent families, compared to those from intact families and
 - (iii) children from divorced, compared to those from widowed families.

2. Psychologist/Social Worker intervention was recommended more frequently for:
 - (i) children from father-absent, than to those from intact families and
 - (ii) children from divorced, than to those from to widowed families.

4.15.3 Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School

1. Children from intact and widowed families viewed their fathers more positively than those from divorced families.
2. Children from divorced families perceived their teachers more positively than those from intact families.
3. Primary school children had more positive attitudes towards themselves, families, teachers and schools, compared to secondary school children.
4. The above difference in attitudes between primary and secondary school children towards their families and teachers were greatest for the intact and smallest for the divorced groups.

5. Females perceived their teachers more positively than males.
6. Females from intact and divorced families perceived their families, teachers and schools more positively than males, while the reverse effects applied to the widowed group.
7. Children from nuclear families perceived their mothers more positively than those from extended families.
8. Children from widowed families had higher self-esteem if they belonged to the extended, rather than the nuclear family system.
9. Children whose mothers were housewives perceived their fathers more positively than children whose mothers were working.
10. Fathers from low-turbulence families were perceived more positively by their children, compared to those from high-turbulence families.

4.15.4 Adolescents' Perceptions of Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations

1. Males, compared to females, had higher self-esteem and were better adjusted on general sociability.
2. Females, compared to males, indicated higher moral sense.
3. Adolescents from intact families indicated greater personal freedom than those from divorced families.
4. While females compared to males from intact families were better adjusted on general sociability, the reverse applied to the widowed and divorced groups.
5. Adolescents with mothers who had primary school education had lower self-esteem and greater concern about physical health than those whose mothers had secondary school education.
6. Adolescents who experienced high turbulence had lower adjustment scores on self-control, moral sense and personal freedom than those who experienced low turbulence.

4.15.5 Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members

1. Married mothers had higher self-esteem and perceived themselves more positively than widowed and divorced mothers.
2. Divorced mothers perceived their husbands and children more negatively than married and widowed mothers.
3. Widowed mothers perceived their relatives/friends more negatively than married mothers.
4. Mothers with secondary school education had higher self-esteem than mothers with primary school education.
5. Working mothers had higher self-esteem than mothers who were housewives.
6. Working mothers, compared to housewives, viewed their children and husbands more negatively.
7. Mothers who experienced high turbulence had lower self-esteem and more negative perceptions of self, children, husband and relatives/friends than those who experienced low turbulence in the family.

4.15.6 Maternal Perceptions of Family Environment

1. Divorced mothers perceived their families as being lower on cohesion than married and widowed mothers.
2. Divorced mothers perceived their families as having higher conflict than married mothers.
3. Married mothers perceived their families as having higher degree of organization than widowed and divorced mothers.
4. For the intact group moral-religious emphasis was higher for the extended, compared to nuclear families, while for the father-absent groups, moral religious emphasis was higher for nuclear, compared to extended families.
5. Mothers with secondary school education perceived their families as being more highly organized than mothers with primary school education.
6. Mothers who experienced low turbulence perceived their families to be higher on cohesion and organization and lower on conflict than those who experienced high turbulence in their homes.

4.15.7 Maternal Perceptions of Mother-Child Relationships

1. Married mothers showed significantly less overprotection than widowed and divorced mothers.
2. Married mothers showed lower rejection than divorced mothers.
3. Married mothers from nuclear families expressed higher rejection of their children than those from extended families.
4. For widowed mothers, there was higher overindulgence in the nuclear families than in the extended families, while for the intact groups, there was higher overindulgence in the extended, compared to nuclear, families.
5. Mothers with secondary school education showed less overindulgence than those with primary school education.
6. Employed, versus unemployed, mothers showed less overprotection and overindulgence, but more acceptance.

4.15.8 The Interrelationships among Self-Esteem, Family Environment, Mother-Child Relationships, Perceptions of Family Members and Children's Psychosocial Adjustment

1. The higher the maternal self-esteem:
 - (a) the higher were the degrees of cohesion, expressiveness, moral-religious emphasis and organization, and the lower were the degrees of conflict, overprotection and rejection in the family;
 - (b) the more positive were perceptions of self, husband, children and relatives/friends;
 - (c) the more positive were children's perceptions of their families, fathers and mothers and
 - (d) the more positive were teachers' perceptions of self, social and school adjustment of children.

2. The higher the children's self-esteem:
 - (a) the more positive were maternal perceptions of relatives/friends;
 - (b) the higher was the degree of expressiveness in family environment;
 - (c) the lower was the degree of rejection in mother-child relationships and

- (d) the more positive were teachers' perceptions of children's school adjustment.
3. The more positive the children's perceptions of their father:
- (a) the more positive were maternal perceptions of their children and
 - (b) the lower was the degree of conflict in the family environment.
4. The more positive the children's perceptions of their families:
- (a) the higher was the degree of moral-religious orientation and
 - (b) the greater was the degree of acceptance in mother-child relationships.
5. The more positive the teachers' perceptions of children's adjustment:
- (a) the more positive were maternal perceptions of children and relatives/friends;
 - (b) the higher was the degree of cohesion in the family;
 - (c) the lower was the degree of conflict and

- (d) the lower were the degrees of overprotection and overindulgence and higher was the degree of acceptance in mother-child relationships.
6. The higher the degree of cohesion, the more positive were maternal perceptions of husband, children and relatives/friends.
7. The more positive the maternal perceptions of children and relatives/friends the higher were the degrees of expressiveness, and organization and the lower was the degree of conflict in the family.
8. The more positive the maternal perceptions of children, the lower was the degree of rejection in mother-child relationships.
9. The higher the level of rejection in mother-child relationships,
- (a) the lower was the degree of expressiveness and
(b) the lower was the degree of organization.
10. The higher the level of acceptance, the higher was the degree of moral-religious emphasis.

11. The higher the degree of conflict, the higher were the levels of overprotection and rejection in mother-child relationships.

4.15.9 The Relationships Between Adolescents' Perceptions of Self, Family and School and their Perceptions of Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations

1. The higher the adolescent's self-esteem,
 - (a) the more positive was the adjustment on self-confidence, self-control, nervousness, family influences, personal freedom, moral sense and formal relations and
 - (b) the more positive were the perceptions of family, mother, father, teacher and school.
2. The more positive the adolescent's perceptions of family, father and teacher, the lower was the level of nervousness.
3. The more positive the adolescent's perceptions of family, mother and father the better was the adjustment on family influences.

4. The more positive the adolescent's perceptions of school, the higher was the level of personal freedom.
5. The more positive the adolescent's perception of family, the better was the adjustment on sociability.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The results obtained and presented in the previous chapter will be discussed in relation to the aims and hypotheses which motivated this study.

5.1 TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT

5.1.1 The Influence of Parents' Marital Status on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

It was hypothesized that children from intact, compared to father-absent, families will be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment. This was strongly supported by the present results which indicated that children from intact families were perceived more positively on self, social and school adjustment than those from widowed and divorced families.

The finding that children from father-absent homes were viewed more negatively than those from intact families also supports existing literature in this area. According to Blechman (1982), child rearing by a single parent being

equated with risk for maladjustment, regardless of the cause, is consistent with some of the major theories of child development. The Freudian assumption is that presence of both parents during childhood is the minimum necessity for appropriate sex-typed identification and normal child development (Freud, 1950; 1961). It is also consistent with the viewpoints of anthropologists (Burton & Whiting, 1961), sociologists (Parsons & Bales, 1955) and social learning theorists (Bandura & Walters, 1963; Miller & Dollard, 1941). All these theorists concur that the presence of a father as a role model during childhood is a necessary condition for future adjustment (Blechman, 1982).

There is ample evidence which supports these theoretical assumptions that father absence may have adverse consequences on child development (as discussed in the literature review). Children from father-absent families have been shown to exhibit a greater degree of maladaptive behaviours, particularly conduct disorders, aggressive behaviours and delinquent and antisocial behaviours than those from intact families (Kalter, 1977; Touliatos & Lindholm, 1980).

The reason for the negative effects of father absence advanced by Wallerstein (1983) is that loss of a father through divorce or death strikes at and disrupts close family relationships. It weakens the protection given by

the intact family, replacing it by a weakened and more vulnerable family structure. The loss begins with an acute, time-limited crisis which is followed by an extended period of disequilibrium which persists for several years after the event. The readjustments, according to Wallerstein, stretch over the years of childhood and adolescence.

These readjustments may create new and differing roles for family members after the disruption, which may include taking on more parental responsibilities by the children, for example, domestic and child-care responsibilities and part-time work. According to Hetherington, Camara and Featherman (1983), these burdens result in greater absenteeism, tardiness, and truancy among children in single-parent households. The combination of changing roles and emotional and behavioural problems such as aggression, distractibility, dependency, anxiety and withdrawal (Hess & Camara, 1979; Kinard & Reinherz, 1984) could interfere with their study patterns. Furstenberg and Nord (1985) found that, because of demanding schedules of single parents, they were much less likely than parents in intact families to help with homework. These factors may help to explain problems in psychosocial and school adjustment, and the inclination of teachers to label and stereotype children from single-parent families.

5.1.2 The Influence of the Interaction Between Parents' Marital Status and Age on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

The findings of more positive perceptions on self and school adjustment for high school versus primary school children, from father-absent families, support the hypothesis that primary school children, compared to high school children from father-absent families will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment. It was also found that primary school children from divorced families were perceived more negatively than primary school children from widowed families. These results are consistent with previous literature and research findings.

The overall pattern of empirical findings suggests negative effects of parental divorce on children's adjustment. These effects are found to be most common amongst younger children (Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney & Hunt, 1979; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1979; Kurdek, Blisk & Siesky, 1981; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1975; 1980). Kurdek and Siesky (1980) suggest that older children adjust more adequately than younger ones, because they are more likely to discuss their situation with peers, to understand that they are not personally responsible, to recognise the finality of the situation, to appreciate each parent's positive qualities, and to

recognise beneficial consequences of being free from conflict and turbulence present prior to the divorce.

By contrast, younger children have lower cognitive and emotional maturity. Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) have suggested that early school-aged children respond to divorce with sadness and fewer defenses than later school-aged children who are more likely to express anger, but who use defenses of denial and avoidance more effectively.

Gardner (1976) asserted that the younger the child, the more adverse the impact of divorce. To investigate this premise, Hodges and Bloom (1984) studied the effects of age on parental separation on children from one to 18 years of age. They found that younger children were reported to exhibit more acting out and disruptive behaviours than older children. However, older children showed more depression. Thus, it was found that younger children were perceived as having lower self and school adjustment because acting out behaviours are more obvious and overt, whereas depression in older children may be more likely to be masked.

The finding that primary school children from widowed families were perceived more positively than those from divorced families on self and school adjustment could be linked to past literature emphasising the differential effects on psychosocial adjustment based on the reasons for

father absence. Herzog and Sudia (1973), having reviewed the literature in the area, concluded that continuing father absence is more strongly associated with adverse effects when the absence is caused by voluntary separation of two living parents than when it is caused by death.

This could result from the greater degree of friction and disorganisation that precedes divorce, exacerbates the adverse effects. Further, although both father-absent families lack physical role models, the deceased father has a better chance to be regarded as a paragon, whereas the divorced father may be regarded as rejecting his children. Thus, the latter being regarded with more bitterness, is less likely to be idealized or emulated as a role model than the former.

In addition, there are distinct differences in societal expectations and attitudes. There is greater social stigma attached to divorce, whereas there is greater sympathy reflected in the case of death which is regarded as an act of God and not as a matter of personal choice. In support of this viewpoint, Mahabeer (1986) found that student teachers held more positive expectations of children from widowed versus divorced families on psychosocial adjustment. It is therefore likely that children may be influenced into roles expected of them by their teachers and significant others around them.

Empirical studies comparing the differential effects of father absence on account of death, separation or divorce have been conducted on children. Felner, Stolberg and Cowan (1975) found that latency-age children with parental histories of separation, divorce or death had significantly higher overall maladjustment scores than their controls. However, whereas children who had experienced parental death manifested heightened shyness, timidity and withdrawal, those with histories of parental separation and divorce had elevated acting-out and aggressive behaviours which made their maladjustment more overt and obvious to teachers.

5.1.3 The Influence of Sex on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

The results indicate that males were viewed more negatively than females on both social and school adjustment. These findings support the hypothesis that males, compared to females will be perceived more negatively on psychosocial adjustment. These results are also consistent with existing research findings.

According to Adams (1978; 1982), the sex of the child is an important characteristic that can affect teacher-student interactions and expectations. Brophy and Good (1974)

stated that whenever a sex difference is discovered in teachers' ratings for boys and girls, the latter tend to be rated more favourably. To validate this assumption, Kenealy, Frude and Shaw (1988) found that girls were judged as significantly higher than boys on academic brightness, sociability and confidence. This lends support to the present study where females were viewed more positively than males on social and school adjustment which could be related, to some extent, to the factors mentioned above.

Further, there is evidence that teachers viewed males as having more serious behavioural problems than females, particularly aggression and overactivity (Eme, 1979; Kelly, Bullock & Dykes, 1977; Rubin & Balow, 1978) and were also more likely to refer males for treatment (Kelly et al., 1977; Rosen, 1979). These differential reactions may be based on valid assumptions rather than on bias. Walker, Bettis and Ceci (1984) found that, although teachers were more likely to target males as the more problematic children, they were not negatively biased in their evaluations of boys' behaviour problems. Thus, the higher referral rate observed for males would appear to be a result of their exhibiting higher incidence of problems that teachers view as most serious - namely, aggression and hyperactivity (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1981).

5.1.4 The Influence of the Interaction Between Parents' Marital Status and Sex on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

The hypothesis that males, compared to females, from father-absent families will be perceived more negatively was not supported in the current study. Thus, the results of the present study differ from previous studies using western samples in the lack of support for the theoretical assumptions based on the psychoanalytic and social learning approaches. These assumptions are that males compared to females from father-absent families, are more negatively affected in psychosocial adjustment.

The present results are also inconsistent with the conclusion based on literature reviews (Demo & Acock's 1988; Zaslow, 1989) in which it is reported that boys respond more negatively to parental divorce, both immediately and over a period of years, if they were living with an unmarried mother. The results of this study reinforce the recommendation of Zaslow (1989), that future studies examining the effects of parental divorce in boys and girls in non-white samples should be conducted to expand the data base in this area.

Although the reasons for sex differences are critical, they have not been adequately investigated. Kelly and

Wallerstein (1976) suggest that boys are developmentally more vulnerable to stresses such as divorce. Warsack and Santrock (1983), using the sex-role modelling explanation, attribute sex differences to the typical mother custody for children. This places boys at a disadvantage because they are brought up by the opposite-sex parent. Hetherington (1979) suggests that there may be sex differences in parenting styles, with custodial parents providing less emotional support for boys than for girls. However, it appears that these explanations may not apply to the present sample. The divergent results of the present investigation could possibly be explained in terms of the differential parenting styles and attitudes towards their children of Indian mothers.

5.1.5 The Influence of Age on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

In keeping with the hypothesis (see page 9) children from secondary schools were perceived more positively by their teachers than primary school children on self and school adjustment. A possible explanation for these findings could be the fact that adolescents face the major task of establishing a role in society, with a stable sense of well-being, contentment with the physical self, and an optimistic outlook (Roediger, Ruston, Capaldi & Paris, 1984). School

in particular, affords an opportunity to reflect on life, values and the future. The achievement of a satisfying identity is positively related to increasing age and education. Thus, the adolescent is more likely to present himself favourably to other significant adults, as well as to peers.

5.1.6 The Influence of the Interaction of Sex and Age on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

Females from secondary schools compared to females from primary schools, were viewed more positively on social adjustment. This finding is consistent with those reported in the literature. Clancy and Gove (1975) state that females, compared to males, score higher on scales that measure the need for social approval or the desire to respond in culturally sanctioned ways.

The sex difference may be particularly striking during adolescence (Hoyenga & Hoyenga, 1979). This assertion was previously researched by Simmons and Rosenberg (1975) who found that adolescent females, compared to males, more often valued popularity and more of them worried about what other people thought of them and about being well-liked. Thus, the emphasis especially for female adolescents is more

likely to be on social adjustment, as discovered in the present study.

5.1.7 The Influence of Family System on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

Children from nuclear family systems were viewed more positively than those from extended family systems on self and social adjustment. This finding is inconsistent with the hypothesis that children from extended, compared to nuclear families (especially in the case of father absence), would be perceived more positively on psychosocial adjustment because of the support system offered by the members of the extended family.

These results are also inconsistent with previous research evidence in the area. According to Jauch (1977) and Smith (1980), the support system provided by the extended family mitigates some of the negative effects of father absence. However, Lindblad-Goldberg and Dukes (1985) advocated that it is necessary to examine the quality of the social network that determines the effectiveness of a family's functioning within the network.

Studies reporting extended households as having buffering effects on single parenting have been limited to middle-

class subjects (Dornbusch et al., 1985; Kellam et al., 1977; Smith, 1980). But, Lindblad-Goldberg and Dukes (1985), investigating the effects of social support in black, low-income single-parent families, found that there were significantly more people living in the homes of clinic, versus non-clinic, families.

In low socio-economic status samples, as used in the present study, it seems that the reasons for single mothers moving in with the family (or for married couples living with parents) are more often a matter of economical and practical necessity. In higher income groups, emotional and moral support are more important, since financial needs are not as problematic as in the former group.

Colletta (1979) found that over four-fifths of low income mothers received assistance with child care mainly from their families of origin and 29% received financial help. According to Brown (1982), the effect of providing this sort of help would be a sacrifice for most relatives and may create economical and physical strain, as well as resentment especially for lower socio-economic status individuals who already have financial burdens.

Colletta (1979) reports that living in the parents' household is an uncomfortable situation with 86% of subjects in her study being displaced and worried about the tension

caused. When this arrangement lasts more than a few weeks, it results in conflict (Weiss, 1975). This problem could be compounded, as in the present study, where families were forced to live with other married siblings who also had their own growing children.

In addition to these negative effects of living in the extended family, the sample of the present study was also faced with the problem of severe overcrowding. Their homes in Chatsworth were far too small and inadequate to house extended families.

Stokols (1972) observed that crowding is stressful and can result in a number of negative effects on performance, social interaction and personal behaviour. Further, others (Baron & Rodin, 1978; Cohen & Sherrod, 1978; Rodin, 1976 & Rodin & Baum, 1978) suggested that high-density situations cause individuals to lose control over social interaction.

Thus, the findings of the present research that children in extended families are viewed more negatively on self and social adjustment because of crowding effects are consistent with previous studies in this area. According to Blau (1981), crowding, with lack of special space for each child, leads to tension, nervousness and hypertension.

5.1.8 The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

The results strongly support the hypothesis that children whose mothers had secondary school education, compared to primary school education, will be viewed more positively on psychosocial adjustment. Children from the former group were perceived more positively on all three adjustment scales; self, social and school adjustment. This finding does not apply to the father-absent groups.

These results imply that a mother with higher education, irrespective of marital status, may be better equipped and more qualified to minister to the needs of her family, than a mother with lower educational level. The former is more likely to have greater exposure to literature, as well as, richer social interactions and experience which would create a more conducive family environment for fostering better adjustment in her children. Other results of the present study (reported on pages 268, 243, 227, 292, 283) support this aspect. Mothers with secondary school education have higher self-esteem as well as family environments which are characterized by higher degree of clear organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibilities, when compared to mothers with primary school education.

Further, it has been shown that educational levels also affect certain personality characteristics of mothers. Propst et al. (1986) discovered that a highly consistent predictor of adjustment was the subject's level of education. Higher educational level was a significant predictor of both lower anxiety and a subjective perception of more optimal coping. It was also a significant predictor of less depression. In all analyses, it was found that better adjusted women were more likely to have completed college. The researchers suggested that this variable may be significant because of the obvious increase in financial security that higher education might bring. Thus, if educational level is correlated to personality adjustment and coping strategies of mothers, these factors would inevitably affect the well-being and adjustment of her children.

5.1.9 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment

The finding that children from high-turbulence homes were perceived more negatively on school adjustment compared to those from low-turbulence homes partially supports the hypothesis (see page 10) and the existing research. Investigators have found a correlation between discord in both intact and father-absent families and the severity or

frequency of behaviour problems in children. This finding remains consistent across countries as the United States (Emery & O'Leary 1982, Oltmanns et al., 1977, Porter & O'Leary, 1980), England (Rutter, 1971, 1979), India (Chawla & Gupt, 1979) and Canada (Rosen, 1979). Explanations advanced for the relation between marital and child problems are that parents involved in conflict with each other are probably poorer models, are more inconsistent in their discipline and place more stress on their children (Emery, 1982).

Further Emery (1982 : 314) stated that "Both the amount and type of interparental conflict to which the child is exposed would seem to be important determinants of the effect of that conflict on the child". The higher the degree of turbulence, the higher the likelihood of maladjustment in children. He also reported that there was a stronger relation between the child's problems and unhappy marriages characterized by quarrelsomeness, than between child problems and unhappy marriages characterized by apathy.

Porter and O'Leary (1980) also found that a self-report measure of open marital conflict was a superior predictor of children's problems in comparison with a general index of marital satisfaction. Thus, the above findings and explanations are consistent with those of the present findings that the high degree of open hostility and

turbulence is associated with poorer school adjustment of children.

5.2 THE INFLUENCE OF SEX AND MARITAL STATUS ON TEACHERS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REMEDIAL EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGIST/SOCIAL WORKER INTERVENTION

Teachers recommended remedial education more often for males than for females. They recommended remedial education and psychologist/social worker intervention more often for children from father-absent compared to intact families (especially for the divorced, compared to widowed groups). Further, teachers' recommended remedial education more frequently for primary than secondary school children. These findings are consistent with the hypotheses that teachers' recommendations for remedial education and psychologist/social worker intervention will be more frequent for boys, compared to girls, and for children from father-absent, compared to intact, families. Although remedial education was recommended more often for primary than secondary school children, this age difference did not appear for recommendations for psychologist/social worker intervention.

The finding that teachers recommended remedial education more often for males, versus females, could be related to the implication that teachers are more likely to overrate the intelligence and academic potential of girls, compared to boys (Doyle, Hancock & Kifer, 1972; Palardy, 1969).

The finding that remedial education is recommended more often for children from father-absent, versus intact, families could be explained in terms of the confluence theory (Zajonc & Markus, 1975). It has been used to predict the intellectual inferiority of children from single-parent families, since such households are regarded as providing inferior intellectual environments.

Although Herzog and Sudia (1973), having reviewed the literature, concluded that children's school achievement is not affected by father absence, Shinn (1978) produced different conclusions. Based on the findings of 30 studies with reasonable methodological criteria, she concluded that father absence has many detrimental effects on children's intellectual performance. Shinn (1978 : 316) reported that "financial hardship, high levels of anxiety and, in particular, low levels of parent-child interaction are important causes of poor performance among children in single - parent families. Thus, there is a combination of physical and psychological handicaps that could result in poor school performance".

In support of these conclusions, later studies found that family conflict and disruption were associated with inhibited cognitive functioning (Hess & Camara, 1979; Kinard & Reinherz, 1986; Kurdek, 1981; Radin, 1981). Since family conflict is more likely to be higher in divorced than in widowed and intact families, the former may perform more poorly than the latter groups in intellectual achievement, which suffers because of emotional problems related to the voluntary separation of parents from children, as in the case of divorce.

Further, the results of the present study (reported on page 271) indicated that mothers from divorced versus widowed and intact families perceived their children more negatively. In relating this finding to Shinn's (1978) reference to the negative effects of poor mother-child relationships on intellectual performance, these effects could be expected in divorced families.

Thus, a variety of personal, family and school processes operate to the detriment of academic performance among children of divorced parents (Demo & Acock, 1988). It was found that both remedial education as well as psychological or social welfare services were most highly recommended by teachers for children from divorced families followed by children from widowed families, and finally for those from intact families.

5.3 CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, FAMILY AND SCHOOL

5.3.1 The Influence of Parents' Marital Status on Children's Perceptions of Father and Teacher

The finding that children from divorced families perceived their fathers more negatively than those from intact and widowed families, supports the hypothesis of the present study that children from divorced families will perceive their fathers more negatively than those from intact and widowed families. However, the results do not indicate support for the hypotheses that children from divorced families will have more negative perceptions of self, other family members and school, compared to children from intact and widowed families. It would seem that although negative effects still apply to perceptions of divorced fathers, they may be less relevant to the other variables after a period of two years.

It has been shown that children in single-parent families perceived their fathers as less loving than children with both parents (Rosenthal, 1978). Similar results were found with undergraduate students (Fine et al., 1983). Further, Ambert and Saucier (1983) found that adolescents perceived their separated or divorced fathers the most negatively and their widowed or still-married fathers the most positively.

Similar results were obtained by Parish and Osterberg (1986) with undergraduate students.

The rationale advanced for the negative perceptions of divorced, versus widowed, fathers could be that in the case of the former, the father may represent an element of rejection and of failure of parental responsibility, whereas in the latter, the deceased father would be idealized (Ambert & Saucier, 1983), since his departure may be perceived as an act of God.

Another possibility could be the turmoil and family discord that usually accompanies the divorce process, together with the bitterness of the mother (who is the custodial parent in the present research) against the father, would have added adverse effects upon the child's attitude towards the father.

It was found that children of divorced families perceived their teachers more positively than children from intact and widowed families. This finding is inconsistent with the hypothesis that children from intact and widowed families, compared to divorced families, will have more positive perceptions of their teachers. However, this could be explained in terms of social learning theorists' (Bandura & Walters, 1963; Miller & Dollard, 1941; Sears, 1951) assertion that a necessary condition for adjustment is the

presence of a father whose behaviour can be imitated. If the father is absent, then significant other adults become role models for the child.

In the divorced group, where the father is absent and perceived negatively by the children (see discussion on page 214) and their mothers (see discussion on page 271), it is likely for children to seek role models in significant others outside the family - in this case the teacher. In the widowed groups, although the father is physically absent, children and their mothers tend to idealize their deceased fathers (as discussed on page 46) and deceased husbands (as discussed on page 51). Thus, children of widowed families, are still provided with a psychological role model with whom to identify. In response to the needs of children from divorced families to regard their teachers as role models, and their positive perceptions of them, it seems that the teachers provide these children with social support (Kurdek, 1981).

5.3.2 The Influence of Parents' Marital Status and Age on Children's Perceptions of Self, Family and School

Primary school children perceived the concepts of self, family, teacher and school more positively than secondary

school children. These findings are consistent with the hypotheses that primary, compared to secondary, school children will have more positive perceptions of self, family, teacher and school. They are consistent with existing literature.

Eisenberg, Lennon and Roth (1983), reported that younger children's judgements reflects approval-orientated considerations and the desire to behave in stereotypically "good ways", whereas high school students verbalize reasoning which reflects abstract principles, internalized affective reactions that relate to living up to one's principles. Further, the developmental tasks central to adolescence include de-idealization of parents, a new integration of the sense of self as emotionally separate from parents and a renewed investment in intimate, enduring relationships with peers (Blos, 1962).

Rigby and Rump (1981 : 111), having reviewed the literature, concluded that "the evidence points to a tendency for attitudes towards both parents and institutional authorities to become less favourable with age, at least during the early years of adolescence." Thus, younger children compared to adolescents, will be more likely to manifest responses that would be met with approval by parents and other significant authority figures.

The finding that children had similar perceptions of family, teachers and school is consistent with previous research in U.S.A. and U.K. Tuma and Livson (1960) found that attitudes to authority at home were positively correlated with attitudes towards authority at school in the U.S.A. Wright (1962), in support found that English students approval of both parents correlated with their approval of teachers.

The interaction effects of marital status by age on attitudes towards families and teachers suggest that adolescents from intact, compared to divorced, families had lower need for idealization of parental and other institutional authority. It seems that in the intact group, adolescents, compared to primary school children, were more successful in developing independent principles and a sense of self which is emotionally separate from family and other significant adults. However, in the divorced group, this difference was not distinct since both adolescents and primary school children had a greater need for social support by affiliating to other significant adults (as discussed on page 251), and were less independent in this respect compared to adolescents from intact families. Thus, it would appear that adolescents from divorced families experience some developmental lag with regard to independence from authority figures or other significant adults. This finding could also be linked to the discussion of results (see page 260) where adolescents from divorced

families reported lower personal freedom than those from intact families. Further, single mothers reported being more overprotective than married mothers in mother-child relationships (see page 285).

5.3.3. The Influence of Parents' Marital Status and Sex on Children's Perceptions of Family, Teacher and School

The finding that females, compared to males, perceived their teachers more positively supports the hypothesis (see page 12). However, these differences were not found in their perceptions of self, family and school. The existing research indicates that, for females there is greater dependency, social passivity, and conformity, than in males for all ages (Mischel, 1970; Sherman, 1971).

However, both Deaux (1976) and Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) concluded that females are not necessarily more compliant, suggestible, or submissive than males, but that girls are more inclined to comply with an adult's directions than are boys. Thus, they are more likely than boys to perceive authority figures, for example, teachers, more positively. There seems to be a reciprocal relationship between teacher's and pupil's perceptions of each other, since this finding is also related to a previous discussion (page 235),

where teachers perceived girls more favourably than boys on social and school adjustment.

In addition, it was found that females from intact and divorced families perceived their families, teachers and schools more positively than males. However, in the widowed group males, compared to females, perceived their families, teachers and schools more positively. A possible reason for this finding could be related to the idealized image of the deceased father as portrayed by the mother and her attitude towards her son.

Ambert and Saucier (1983) found that in three groups of girls and boys from intact, widowed and divorced families, the most favourable score given to parents was by boys who gave the highest score to their fathers who were deceased. These feelings may be reinforced by the widowed mother of the son who regards him as a replacement for her deceased husband. It is likely that she attributes qualities and expectations that would fit the father. Thus, males from widowed homes may have greater need to appear "good" and to be more compliant and positive in their relationships with their families and other authority figures, in accordance with their mothers expectations.

5.3.4 The Influence of Family System on Children's Perceptions of Mother

The finding that children from nuclear families perceived their mothers more positively than those from extended families supports the hypothesis of the present study. In Indian families, the extended family members, especially grandparents, share and often take over the maternal responsibilities of child care. The mother is expected to manage more of the household chores. Also children in Indian extended families often refer to their aunts as "big" or "small" mother, relative to their chronological ages. Thus, it is not surprising for mothers from extended, versus nuclear, families to be perceived less positively by their children, since their roles as expressive and emotional care-givers are shared by others.

5.3.5 The Influence of the Interaction of Parental Marital Status and Family System on Self-Esteem

Children from widowed families had higher self esteem if they belonged to the extended rather than the nuclear family system. These findings partially support the hypothesis of the present study that children from extended, compared to nuclear, father-absent families will have more positive perceptions of self, since it applies only to the widowed

and not the divorced father-absent group. According to Berlinsky and Biller (1982), members of society are likely to behave in a sympathetic manner towards bereaved children. This reaction may persist for many years after the death. The significant others in society are more likely to be members of the extended family, for example, grandparents, uncles and aunts, who in regarding the deceased family member as a paragon, may transfer similar feelings towards his off-spring. Thus, the child from the widowed-extended family is more likely to develop higher self-esteem than from the widowed- nuclear family, since in the former there is more than one adult who expresses positive feelings towards the child and who helps to share in responsibilities of his upbringing. This finding does not apply to the divorced group possibly because the greater degree of stigmatization and criticism received from relatives may have negative impact on the development of self-esteem of children whose parents are divorced and who are living in extended families.

5.3.6 The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Children's Perceptions of Father

Children whose mothers were housewives perceived their fathers more positively than those whose mothers were employed. This finding partially supports the hypothesis

that children whose mothers are working, compared to housewives, will have more negative perceptions of family members.

Spitze (1988) having reviewed the literature concluded that a number of variables including social class and race may moderate the impact on maternal employment of children. Research findings have suggested that sons of working-class, employed mothers perceived their fathers negatively, and devalued their fathers as inadequate breadwinners and economic failures (Douvan, 1963; Kappel & Lambert, 1972; McCord, McCord & Thurber, 1963; Propper, 1972). On the other hand, in middle-class families, with working mothers, fathers were seen as more nurturant figures, possibly because of their taking over some of the child-care roles (Vogel, Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1970). The above-mentioned studies indicated effects for boys. However, Hoffman (1974b) suggested that since maternal employment more clearly defines the mothers' role change than that of the fathers, the effects on daughters may be more pronounced.

The present sample consisted of Indians of low socio-economic status, where the roles of mothers and fathers are clearly defined. The role of the former may be viewed as "expressive" while the latter more "instrumental". It is also uncommon for fathers in such a society to share child-

rearing responsibilities. Thus, the father is perceived by both males and females as failing in his duties if he is an inadequate provider since his wife is compelled to devote less attention to child-care responsibilities, being involved with work outside the home.

5.3.7 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Children's Perceptions of Father

Children who experienced low turbulence, compared to high turbulence, perceived their fathers more positively. This finding partially supports the hypothesis that children who experience high, compared to low turbulence, will perceive their fathers more negatively. However, these findings did not apply to self, other family members and school, as was hypothesized. It seems that in cases of high turbulence, the father is perceived as being instrumental in family conflicts and is therefore viewed more negatively by his children.

Peterson and Zill (1986) reported that more than half of all elementary school age children said they felt afraid when their parents had arguments. The proportion is highest for those whose parents' marriages have been disrupted or whose parents' relationships are characterized by high conflict. Marital violence can become even more traumatic since the

child not only fears for the mother's welfare, but also that the violence would be extended to himself (Rosenbaum & O'Leary, 1981). Roy (1977) reported that one or more children were abused in 45% of violent married couples, while other researchers reported similar figures (Hilberman & Munson, 1977; Prescott & Letko, 1977).

5.4 ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONAL, HOME, SOCIAL AND FORMAL RELATIONS

5.4.1 The Influence of Parents' Marital Status on Adolescents' Perceptions of Personal Freedom

The finding that adolescents from intact families indicated greater personal freedom than those from divorced families, partially supports the hypothesis that adolescents from father-absent, compared to intact, families will have more negative perceptions of adjustment since this difference was not found for adolescents from the widowed group.

Following theorists such as Parsons (1965) and Freud (1961), fathers are conceptualized as fulfilling the functions of disciplining the child and promoting the child's independence. Linking these conceptualizations to the single parent mother, researchers have suggested that when

the fathers' disciplinary influence is absent, mothers worry about its lack, and compensate by using stronger disciplinary measures (Kiesberg, 1970).

Using this model, researchers have compared child-rearing practices of divorced and married mothers and have found that the former used more authoritarian disciplinary methods (Lynn & Sawrey, 1959; Sears, 1951), overprotected their children (Bronfenbrenner, 1961) and failed to encourage their children's independence. Kurdek and Siesky (1978) found that divorce leads to changed patterns in disciplinary agents and practices, with mothers becoming more strict and non-custodial fathers more lenient. Further, Hetherington et al. (1982) and Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) found that custodial mothers were restrictive and punishing. Correspondingly, children, particularly boys, refused to comply with their mothers' directives and displayed behaviour problems.

Colletta (1979) found a consistent tendency for low income divorced mothers to make more demands on their children. The children were expected to care for themselves and to obey their mothers. She explained that protectiveness was related to the type of neighbourhood rather than to father absence, per se. Mothers who constantly worried about the whereabouts of their children lived in neighbourhoods where play areas were unsafe or where gangs were a problem. She

found that the relationship between protectiveness and neighbourhood stress was strongest for one-parent families with more than one child. Further, she supported Goode's (1956) finding that restrictiveness and obedience standards were significantly stronger only in the low income one-parent families.

Hence, the results of the present study bear relevance to these findings, since the sample comprised low-income groups living in an impoverished neighbourhood. They also lend support to other results of the present study, where single mothers reported being more overprotective than married mothers in mother-child relationships (see page 285).

5.4.2 The Influence of Sex on Self-Esteem

Males, compared to females, reported higher self-esteem. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), having reviewed the literature concluded that during the earlier school years, there are no differences in self-esteem between the sexes. However, during college years, some sex differentiation does occur when females tend to have less confidence in the tasks assigned to them. They have less sense of being able to control the events that affect them.

This premise was supported by Burns (1979) who stated that sex differences in self-esteem seem to occur from late primary school age and increase through adolescence. Females, in shifting their source of self-esteem from achievement to stereotypical feminine models, may experience conflict and thus have lower self-esteem than males.

Research by Smith (1975) and Connel, Stroobant, Sinclair, Connel and Rogers (1975) revealed that by adolescence, boys possess more positive self-concepts than girls. The reason for this difference could possibly stem from differential evaluations of masculinity and femininity traits by society. Females are expected to derive self-esteem by being compliant, submissive and accommodating and having social interpersonal adequacy, whereas males can establish their sense of self-esteem in varied ways - direct sexual activities, independence, autonomy, competence and leadership (Burns, 1979).

Lower self-esteem for females could also be attributed to females being more willing than males to disclose weaknesses. Bogo, Winget and Gleser (1970) found that boys, compared to girls, obtained higher scores on "lie" and "defensiveness" scales which reflect the extent to which the male disguises his "true" feelings and presents a more favourable picture of himself than he ought.

5.4.3 The Influence of Sex on Moral Sense

It was found that females, compared to males, indicated better adjustment on moral sense. Males and females differ in their evaluation of social rules and principles of conscience (Hoyenga & Hoyenga, 1979). Sex differences that appear in moral judgements seem to be caused by different variables affecting the sexes differently.

The moral judgements and behaviour of females are affected by having an internal locus of control for transgressions, by consideration for others and by guilt, while for males they are affected by fear of external locus, for example, getting caught or fear of the consequences (Hoffman, 1975). Other evidence indicated that males were more willing to bend the rules and engage in deceit (Mathews & Cooper, 1976). Female jurors seemed more likely to vote for conviction of defendants (East, 1973), and to judge social violations more severely (Oetzel, 1966; Sherman, 1971).

5.4.4 The Influence of the Interaction of Parents' Marital Status and Sex on Sociability

The results indicated that while females, compared to males from intact families, were better adjusted on general sociability, the reverse applied to both father-absent

groups; where males, compared to females, were better adjusted on general sociability. However, the latter finding is contradictory to the hypothesis that female adolescents, compared to male adolescents, from father-absent families will have more positive perceptions of adjustment.

Research evidence shows that females compared to males have a greater need to affiliate (Exline, 1960; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Further, Carlson and Levy (1968) found males to be more frequently personally orientated, while females were more socially orientated.

This sex difference is particularly striking during adolescence. Adolescent females, compared to males reported being more concerned about social relationships (Rosenberg & Simmons, 1975). This is consistent with Walberg's (1969) findings that female high school students reported having more social interests than their male counterparts. They also considered themselves socially more competent, less shy, more attractive or acceptable than males.

These findings are relevant in the present study for adolescent males and females of intact families. However, for the widowed and divorced groups, females indicated lower sociability than males. One possible reason could be that mothers of divorced and widowed females experience greater social isolation compared to those from intact families

(Lopata, 1979; Weiss, 1979). This occurs not only because their interests and life styles increasingly differ, but because they may be perceived as threats to the stability of married couples (Amato & Partridge, 1987). Nelson (1982) found that divorcees reported more friction and resentment in their social relationships than did widows. On the other hand widows are more reluctant than divorcees to initiate new relationships with men (Jacobson, 1983).

It would follow then that daughters of such mothers who are reluctant and inhibited in their social relationships, may also assimilate these behaviours, since their mothers provide them with role models. Thus, female adolescents were found to be more socially inhibited, compared to their male counterparts in father-absent families.

5.4.5 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Adolescents' Self-Control, Moral Sense and Personal Freedom

Adolescents who experienced high turbulence indicated lower adjustment on self control, moral sense and personal freedom than those who experienced low turbulence. These results partially support the hypothesis that adolescents who experience low, compared to high, turbulence will have more positive perceptions of adjustment.

These findings are also consistent with existing psychological theory as well as research. It has been repeatedly demonstrated that children and young adults imitate the behaviour of aggressive models (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Huston, 1961). Thus, children who are exposed to outbursts of conflict and abuse in the family are less likely to be in control of their own emotions.

Adolescents who experience high turbulence, would also be likely to develop lower moral sense and personal freedom. Researchers have found that families with delinquent adolescents exhibit less warmth (Hetherington, Stouwie & Ridberg, 1971; Lessin & Jacob, 1984; Riskin & Faunce, 1970) and more conflict (Alexander, 1973; Ferreira & Winter, 1968; Hetherington et al., 1971) than families with non-delinquents.

In support of these findings conducted with white, middle- and lower-middle-class families, Borduin, Pruitt and Henggler (1986) found that even in a black lower-class sample, family affect and conflict represented important correlations of conduct-disorder delinquency. There were lower levels of warmth, affection and mutual support between parent and child in the delinquent group. Further, Hershorn and Rosenbaum (1985) found that both marital violence and non violent marital discord were found to be related to conduct disorders and other behavioural and emotional problems in

witnessing children. The lack of moral sense with the accompanying maladaptive behaviours are likely to incur inappropriate control of personal freedom by parents.

5.4.6 The Effect of Maternal Educational Level on Adolescents' Self-Esteem and Health

Adolescents whose mothers had primary school education versus secondary school education had lower self-esteem and poorer adjustment in health. These results partially support the hypothesis that adolescents whose mothers have secondary school, compared to primary school education, will have more positive perceptions of adjustment. These findings indicate that maternal educational level affects not only their children's inner appraisal based on their personality characteristics, abilities and defects, but also their preoccupation with their physical conditions.

These findings also have relevance for other findings of the present study where teachers' perceptions of self, social and school adjustment were more favourable for children whose mothers had secondary, compared to primary school education (see page 243). The former group of mothers also indicated higher self-esteem (see page 227) and lower, overindulgence in mother-child relationships (see page 292) and higher organization (see page 283) than the latter group.

It follows, then, that maternal educational level is an important variable that determines appraisal of oneself and particular types of mother-child relationships and the home environment that could influence their children's self-esteem and their preoccupation with their physical conditions.

5.5 MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS

5.5.1 The Influence of Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Self-Esteem

Married mothers perceived themselves more positively and had higher self-esteem than widowed and divorced mothers. These findings are consistent with the hypothesis that married mothers, compared to single mothers, will have more positive perceptions of self. They also support existing literature. According to Amato and Partridge (1987), both widows and divorcees experience upheavals in their personal and social lives. These are among the most stressful of life events (Holmes & Rahe, 1967). Thus, it is not surprising that both widows and divorcees experience decrements in mental and physical health following the loss of their spouses (Bloom, Asher & White, 1978; Greenblatt, 1978; Menaghan & Lieberman, 1986).

Both widows and divorcees undergo dramatic changes, for example, loss of a spouse (who could be a significant source of self-esteem), decrease in income and greater social isolation that place them at risk. With the changing roles, the widow or divorcee may be perceived differently by others and may perceive herself as a different type of person. This was reported by Lopata (1973, 1979) for widows and by Goode (1956) and Weiss (1975) for divorcees. All the divorced subjects in Miller's (1982) study stated that they felt like failures in their main purpose in life.

The loss of the role of wife and the need to form a new identity can cause a woman to mourn, both for her husband, and for the relationship that principally defined who she was, and what she had to do (Marris, 1974). This has been found especially likely for women who have been raised to view marriage and motherhood as their ultimate careers (Brown & Manela, 1978). Application of this could be relevant for the present sample of Indian women with low educational level and "traditional" attitudes.

Kraus (1979) stated that a divorced individual whose value system maintains that a divorced person is a failure, and that a person without a mate is worthless, will most certainly experience a great deal of distress. This is especially so in the Indian community which holds strong stigmatization of divorce. Even in western society, the

divorced woman becomes socially isolated because the social norms and rituals for helping and individual work through the death of a loved one is not available for the divorced individual (Freund, 1974). This lack of social support may influence divorced persons to see themselves as failures. Both Goode (1956) and Krantzler (1973) have noted that divorced individuals often conclude that they deserve whatever suffering they are experiencing.

5.5.2 The Influence of Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Husband and Children

Consistent with the hypothesis (see page 11), divorced mothers perceived their husbands and children more negatively than widowed and married mothers. These findings also support previous literature. The turmoil, bitterness and resentment accompanying divorce is more severe than those associated with the death of a spouse. Blau (1973) noted that for widows, their husbands' departure is "unwilled". Thus, it is less likely for them to harbour negative feelings towards their husbands compared to divorcees who are more likely to feel deserted or let down by their husbands (Kitson et al., 1980).

The divorced mother's negative perceptions of her husband are likely to extend towards her children, especially if she

perceives resemblances of the father in the child's appearance or behaviour. She may redirect her feelings of bitterness and frustration concerning her husband, towards the children who would in return behave according to the mother's negative expectations of them.

Eiduson (1983), reporting on comparative family styles, found that children of single mothers experienced the most stress and seemed the most poorly buffered against conflict and stress. These emotional difficulties were correlated with the mothers' negative perceptions of their children. This could lead to higher child abuse in divorced families.

Reporting on national statistics in America, compiled from official records of reported abuse, Sack, Mason and Higgins (1985) stated that single-parent households headed by females are characterized by higher abuse than two-parent families. In a study by the above researchers, the level of abuse among divorced parents was found to be higher than the sample average of separated, widowed and intact groups.

Possible reasons for these negative effects could be that the turmoil of a divorce may become so exhausting that some parents may lose control of the situation. The divorced mother, as the sole parental caretaker, has to fulfil disparate dual responsibilities of providing for physical needs, as well as, emotional nurturance of her family - both

of which she may regard as burdensome, because of diminished financial resources and mothering time. This may be further aggravated by constant changes in living arrangements.

Negative perceptions of children by divorced mothers could also be associated with disciplinary problems with children. Fathers are usually more successful in disciplining children than mothers. Divorced mothers would have to face the redefined role of sole disciplinarian which could result in feelings of helplessness and inadequacy.

5.5.3 The Influence of Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Relatives/Friends

The finding that married women perceived their relatives and friends more positively than widows partially supports the hypothesis that married mothers will have more positive perceptions of relatives/friends than single mothers. This difference was not significant for the divorced group. These findings, concerning widows and married mothers, are consistent with previous literature.

There is evidence that widowed persons are more socially isolated than the married (Berardo, 1967; Bradburn, 1969). Lopata (1969) has also described the difficulties faced by

widows in establishing new friendships. She suggested that friendship patterns change during widowhood, as former friendships are strained and awkward, due to suppression of grief. Harvey and Bahr (1974) found that the widowed are less affiliated than the married, because they are much poorer than the latter group.

These negative perceptions of relatives/friends could also be linked to low self-esteem of widows. According to Burns (1979), self acceptance appears to be associated with accepting other people. The self-accepting person views the world as a more congenial place than the self-rejector and is, accordingly, less defensive towards others and about himself.

5.5.4 The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Self-Esteem

Consistent with the hypothesis of the present study (see page 12), it was found that mothers who were employed had higher self-esteem than housewives. This finding supports previous research where employed working women, compared to housewives, were found to be more favourable in overall levels of life satisfaction and mental health (Ferree, 1976; Freudiger, 1983; Gove & Geerken, 1977; Gove & Peterson, 1980). Further, Coleman, Antonucci, Adelman and Crohan

(1987) found that black women who were working had higher self-esteem than those who were not working.

5.5.5 The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Perceptions of Husband and Children

The finding that working mothers have more negative perceptions of their families (husbands and children) than housewives is inconsistent with the hypothesis that employed mothers, compared to housewives, will have more positive perceptions of family members. Recent literature reviews have emphasized possible psychological processes such as the mother's emotional state, child-rearing practices and the extent of supervision and deprivation experienced by the child as mediating variables on the effect of maternal employment on the family (Hoffman, 1987).

However, the present results support an earlier review (Hoffman & Nye, 1974) which tended to view women's employment as having negative effects on the family, such as harming marital relations or children's development. This could be attributed to decreased mothering time, substitution of alternative caretakers which could affect the attachment between mother and child or subject the child to shifting, unstable attachment figures (Zimmerman & Bernstein, 1983).

According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), demands of work and family roles are incompatible to some extent, making participation in either of the roles more difficult. The separate locations for work and family roles make an individual unavailable to perform both duties at the same time. Therefore, psychological energy and time spent in one role, is not available for the other (Yoydanoff, 1988). Thus factors such as work-role satisfaction and work/family conflict are important characteristics in determining the functioning of working mothers within her family.

Yoydanoff (1988) found that the work role characteristics most strongly related to work/family conflict were number of work hours and workload pressure, that is, having too much to do or being required to do it too fast. These variables indicate high levels of overall time and energy-demands at work at the cost of family life.

The sample in the present study consisted of lower class mothers who are employed as skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labourers, requiring long hours of manual tasks. Many of them receive bonuses which are determined by productivity. Thus, they endeavour to achieve maximum productivity to increase their wages, leaving them with diminished energy to devote to their children and husbands.

The literature also seems to indicate that employed wives and their husbands experienced lower-quality marriages (Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Gove & Peterson, 1980; Houseknecht & Mache, 1981). Nye (1974), having reviewed the literature, concluded that these effects were primarily for lower-class wives, who presumably were more likely to be working out of financial "necessity", thus threatening the male provider role.

Further, in the Indian culture, where household and child-care duties are attributed to wives, it is less likely for husbands to assist with these activities than those in western cultures. These employed mothers are likely to regard their duties towards their families as further burdens (in addition to being forced to provide financial support). Therefore, they may have more negative perceptions towards their husbands and children compared to housewives.

5.5.6 The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Self-Esteem

The hypothesis that mothers with secondary, compared to primary, school education will have higher self-esteem was supported. These results are also consistent with research results obtained by Buehler, Hogan, Robinson and Levy (1986)

who found that self-esteem correlated positively with education, indicating that women with more education reported higher levels of self-esteem than less educated women. They suggested that women with higher education have better job opportunities, giving them higher levels of resources for financial and psychological well-being. Further, Propst et al. (1986) found that, with divorced mothers, a highly consistent predictor of adjustment was the level of education. Higher education was a significant predictor of both less anxiety and a subjective perception of more optimal coping.

5.5.7 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Maternal Perceptions of Self and Family Members

As hypothesized (see page 12), and consistent with the existing literature, mothers who experienced high turbulence, compared to low turbulence, had lower self-esteem and more negative perceptions of their husbands, children and relatives/friends. Empirical investigations have supported the clinical impression that the parent-child relationship deteriorates as a result of marital turmoil (Hess & Camara, 1979; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1979; Rutter, 1971).

Emery (1982), having reviewed the literature in this area, concluded that parents involved in conflict are probably poorer models, more inconsistent in their discipline and place more stress on their children. Thus, there is a reciprocal influence where marital and child problems each cause and exacerbate the other. This may result in mothers, in such a situation, regarding themselves as failures in marital, as well as maternal, roles. The negative perceptions of self is extended to significant others in one's life.

5.6 MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

5.6.1 The Influence of Marital Status on Maternal Perceptions of Family Environment

The finding that divorced families experienced lower cohesion than intact and widowed families and higher conflict than intact families, is consistent with the hypothesis that divorced mothers will have more negative perceptions of family environment than married and widowed mothers.

The majority of the divorced mothers in the present research (conducted at least two years after the divorce) indicated

high levels of conflict and violence prior to the divorce (see page 78). Further, children have often been present or have even been the objects of violence. Thus, it may seem that the present family environment pattern has been determined before the marital dissolution. Anthony (1974) described how marital conflict prior to the divorce influences the type of psychological reactions manifested in children. A hostile parental relationship results in children with increased irritability and aggressiveness.

To exacerbate this maladaptive family situation, mothers as the parental caretaker, must fulfill dual responsibilities of earning a living and managing a household and thus, have less time to resolve conflict without violence (Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1980). Stress levels are expected to increase markedly and, together with the turmoil of divorce, may become so exhausting that some parents lose control of the situation and abuse follows (Sack, Mason & Higgins, 1985). Thus, Gil (1970) has suggested an association between single parenting and physical child abuse.

The presence of stress and conflict in the divorced households could be the source of family members manifesting lower degrees of commitment, help and support provided to each other. The lower scores of divorced versus married mothers on cohesion may also reflect the former's need for

greater support from her family which she believes does not meet her expectations.

The finding that intact families have higher degree of organization than father-absent families is consistent with the hypothesis that married mothers will have more positive perceptions of family environment than single mothers. These results also support previous literature and research. Family disruption has been found to alter daily routines and work schedules and impose additional demands on adults and children living in single-parent families (Amato, 1987; Amato, in press; Furstenberg and Nord, 1985; Hetherington, et al., 1983 and Weiss, 1979).

These results could be explained in terms of the theoretical implications of the systems approach. According to Rosenthal and Hansen (1980 : 73), "although family members play yet often complementary roles, their actions are not separate, isolated or discrete events". Changes in one members role affects all other members of that system. Thus, the single parent may be forced to confront formerly inconsistent tasks which include earning a living, managing a household, being the principal caretaker, as well as disciplining her children. This could result in inability to satisfy the needs of the entire family. Children may be forced to accept some parental duties, helping with younger siblings and household chores or doing part-time work.

These role and age inappropriate tasks may cause single-parent households to be more likely to experience less organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibilities, than two-parent families.

5.6.2 The Influence of the Interaction of Family System and Marital Status on Family Environment

The finding of higher moral-religious emphasis in the extended-intact versus nuclear-intact families could be due to the presence, in the former of grandparents who show more religious involvement than the younger generation. Previous research has indicated that religious commitment may increase with age (Blazer & Palmore, 1976; Riley & Foner, 1968); and further may remain stable with advancing age (Markides, Levin & Ray, 1987).

Moral-religious orientation was lower in nuclear-intact families and higher in nuclear, father-absent families. A possible reason for this finding could be that single-mothers in nuclear families experience greater isolation and hardships compared to those in intact families. Hence they are more likely to rely on God for support and problem-solving (as indicated on p 214). Concomitant with these findings, Krause and Van Tran (1989) in a study, indicated the potential of stress buffering properties of religious

involvement among lower-class blacks. Other researchers have also expressed considerable interest in the relationship between religiosity and psychological well-being. Reviews (Peterson & Roy, 1985; Witter, Stock, Okun & Haring 1985) indicate that religion has been shown to exert significant direct effects on well-being suggesting that it is reasonable to assume that it functions as a coping resource. Peterson and Roy (1985) maintain that religious beliefs may affect well-being, because they reassure the faithful that God will resolve their problems.

5.6.3 The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Family Environment

Consistent with the hypothesis (see page 13), there were differences between mothers with primary and secondary school education regarding organization in the family. Mothers with secondary school education had higher organization in the home than mothers with primary school education. These findings support the results (reported on page 115) that children whose mothers had secondary, compared to primary, school education were perceived to have more positive self, social and school adjustment.

As reported on p.243 Propst et al. (1986) found that higher education of mothers is a significant predictor of less

anxiety, as well as perceptions of themselves as coping more optimally. These factors may also contribute to better organization in families where mothers have higher education.

5.6.4 The Influence of the Degree of Turbulence on Family Environment

The findings that mothers who experienced low turbulence perceived their families to be higher on cohesion and organization and lower on conflict than those who experienced high turbulence, supports the hypothesis of the present study (see page 13).

These findings lend validity to the FES scales of Cohesion, Conflict and Organization. Families with high turbulence, may be assumed to have low degree of commitment, help, and family-member support; higher degree of openly expressed anger, aggression and conflict among family members and lower degree of clear organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibilities, compared with families with low turbulence. Tschann, Johnston, Kline and Wallerstein (1989) found that greater marital conflict before divorce predicted a more problematic parent-child relationship after parental separation. This, in turn, resulted in impaired emotional and behavioural adjustment in

children after separation.

5.7 MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

5.7.1 The Influence of Marital Status on Mother-Child Relationships

Consistent with the hypothesis (see page 13), there were differences in mother-child relationships, based on marital status. The results indicate that divorced and widowed mothers were more overprotective than married mothers, and that divorced mothers showed higher rejection of their children than married mothers. These findings also support existing literature.

Roth (1961) explains that overprotection is the prevention of the development of independent behaviour and excess of control over children, in terms of maternal anxiety, which becomes a defense against hostility or guilt of rejection. It is perceived as identification with a lost love-object. While these explanations may be relevant for both widowed and divorced mothers, defenses against hostility or guilt of rejection are particularly of relevance for the divorced mothers, since they were also found to be more rejecting of

their children than those from intact families. This is also linked to the finding (see page 271) that divorced mothers perceived their children more negatively than married and widowed mothers.

The association of overprotection and rejection as responses to maternal guilt and anxiety corroborates the findings of previous research. Eiduson (1983), in a study of different family styles, found that single mothers were more often observed or reported as being emotionally troubled and rejecting of the child than in other family groups. In addition, the highest incidence of overprotection was reported in his sample.

These overprotective family relations may have long-term effects. Hetherington (1989) found that divorced, non-remarried mothers continued to exhibit many of the overprotective behaviours with their sons even six years after the divorce. Punishment and control distinguished divorced mothers from other family types. Divorced mothers were ineffectual in their control attempts and gave many instructions with little follow through. They tended to nag, natter and complain and were often involved in angry outbursts.

These effects could be related to research by Farber, Felner and Primavera (1985), where children who perceived their

families as more controlling, reported greater feelings of anger and hostility. Thus, the mother-child relationship may be viewed as being reciprocal where manifestations of hostility, even in a disguised form, are responded to with anger and hostility. In a more recent study, Webster-Stratton (1989) found that single mothers exhibited more critical statements, questions and commands when interacting with their children and, in turn, their children exhibited more deviant and noncompliant behaviours than those from intact families.

5.7.2 The Influence of the Interaction of Marital Status and Family System on Mother-Child Relationships

The results indicated that married mothers from extended families expressed lower rejection of their children than those from nuclear families. The intact extended group in the present study is more likely to have grandparent/s living in the home. They have beneficial reciprocal relationships whereby there is often sharing with household chores, financial, physical and emotional responsibilities and especially the caretaking of children. Thus, mothers (whether they are housewives or employed) in such families, are likely to operate under less pressure. They have more time and energy to devote to their children compared to mothers who do not have such help and support. Risman and

Park (1988) found that when other adults lived in the home, children were described more positively by their parents. They ascribed these effects to the likelihood of parents with in-house social support having more energy for the "quality" time that aids child development, in single-parent families. Also, since the present sample consists of lower socio-economic status groups, hired domestic help is often impossible. Mothers, who need to serve multiple functioning, may under severe pressure engage in neglectful and punitive acts or other forms of maltreatment of their children.

However, this difference did not apply to the single-parent families in the present study. This could be explained in terms of such families being an added physical and financial burden on other relatives, especially in lower socio-economic status groups. Chiriboga, Coho, Stein and Roberts (1979) found that, although almost a third of divorced women seek advice and assistance from parents and relatives, only very few found them to be helpful. In view of the very mixed feelings of extended family members to divorce, it is understandable that they may not be particularly emotionally supportive (Brown, 1982).

Married mothers from extended, compared to nuclear, families expressed higher overindulgence. In Indian families, where grandparents are present, they tend to take over the major part of child rearing responsibilities, while the mothers

are expected to engage in other house-hold chores. Further, the grandparents tend to be opposed to strict discipline of their grandchildren, especially if imposed by the parents. It is, therefore, not surprising that the mother may regard this as a threat to her motherhood. She may be likely to gain or regain her position by trying to spend excessive time with the child, constantly defending the child and yielding to the child's requests and demands. Thus, there may be a tendency towards excessive gratification, together with lack of parental control.

This pattern of overindulgence was reversed for widowed mothers, since those from nuclear families were more overindulgent than mothers from extended families. Widows generally experience an unwanted, irreparable and uncontrollable loss (Amato & Partridge, 1987). This position is further exacerbated when she lives on her own. Roth (1961) regards loneliness as a possible explanation for overindulgence.

Thus widowed mothers from nuclear families are likely to make up for their loss and loneliness by expressing excessive gratification from their children. Since it is likely that a widowed mother perceives her husband in an idealized position, she sublimates these feelings on to her children. Hence, there is a tendency toward lack of

discipline and parental control and constant defense of her children from attacks by other children, or authorities.

When widowed mothers live in extended families, other members of the extended family take a sympathetic approach to the bereaved widow and her children. There are greater chances that some of the feelings of loss and helplessness are allayed. Thus, there is a tendency for widows from extended families to be less overindulgent in mother-child relationships than widows from nuclear families. This pattern of overindulgence does not apply to the divorced mothers, since it has been found in the present study (reported on page 271), that they perceived their children more negatively than widowed and married mothers.

5.7.3 The Influence of Maternal Employment Status on Mother-Child Relationships

The results indicated that employed mothers showed less overprotection and overindulgence, but more acceptance in mother-child relationships than unemployed mothers. These findings are consistent with the hypothesis that employed mothers, compared to housewives, will have more positive perceptions of mother-child relationships. It is likely that working mothers encourage more independence in their children, since that are less available to overprotect and

overindulge their children. Much of the previous researches indicate that the child of the working mother has more household responsibilities (Douvan, 1963; Johnson, 1969; Propper, 1972; Roy, 1963; Walker, 1970). However, Hoffman (1974a) having reviewed the literature in this area, concluded that the exception to this generalization is mothers who have younger children and who are more educated or enjoy work.

Hoffman's conclusion would not be relevant for the present sample which consists of lower-class families where mothers do not have college education and where children range in age from 10 to 18 years old. The type of employment is often very laborious and involves long hours. Since mothers in such families are likely to require more help with household chores and child-care, they are likely to foster independence in their children.

Yarrow, Scott, De Leeuw and Heinig (1962) found that working mothers who had not gone to college were more likely to stress independence training and to assign the children a greater share of the household responsibilities than college-educated working mothers. McCord et al. (1963) found that in stable families with children between 10 and 15 years old, working mothers were less overprotective and more supportive of independence than were non-working mothers.

Although working mothers may sometimes deliberately avoid giving the child household responsibilities, such participation by children has generally been found to have a positive effect (Clausen, 1966; Johnson, 1969; Woods, 1972). This does not indicate overburdening of the child, but expecting the child to be one of the effective contributing members of the family seems conducive to the development of acceptance in mother-child relationships and greater responsibility on the part of the child. Thus, according to Zimmerman and Bernstein (1983), maternal employment may offer the child a chance to explore a wider world, to relate and socialize with other adults and peers at an early age, to be independent, and perhaps to have less supervision and restriction.

5.7.4 The Influence of Maternal Educational Level on Mother-Child Relationships

Consistent with the hypothesis that working mothers will perceive their mother-child relationships more positively than housewives, mothers with secondary school education were found to be less overindulgent in mother-child relationships than those with primary school education. This finding could possibly be linked to results (see page 227) of the present study that mothers with secondary

school education also have higher self-esteem than those with primary school education.

Mothers with higher education may be more perceptive of the needs of her child being possibly more exposed to literature on child rearing practices. Also her whole repertoire of activities is more likely to extend beyond focussing on the child, compared to a mother with lower education. Thus, the former would be less likely to spend excessive time with the child, constantly yielding to the child's demands and defending him and is more likely to administer appropriate parental control.

5.8 MATERNAL SELF-ESTEEM AND ITS RELATIONSHIPS TO PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT, MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS, FAMILY MEMBERS AND CHILDREN'S PSYCHOSOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

As hypothesized (see page 14), there were significant interrelationships among the above variables. These results are consistent with existing evidence. Maternal self-esteem seems to be the foundation for the interactions and communication within the family and, as such, it gives direction to the development of family members. The following discussion refers to the relationship between maternal self-esteem and each of the variables above.

5.8.1 Maternal Self-Esteem and Its Relationships to Family Environment and Mother-Child Relationships

The results indicate that the higher the mother's self-esteem, the higher were the degrees of cohesion, expressiveness, moral-religious emphasis and organization and the lower was the degree of conflict in the family. Also, the higher the mother's self-esteem, the lower were the degrees of overprotection and rejection in mother-child relationships.

Burns (1979) suggested that individuals with high self-esteem are more capable and competent. Being more aware of and sensitive to the cues of others (Walster & Walster, 1978), they are able to be more responsive and sensitive to those with whom they interact.

Relating these assumptions to the family, it would follow that parents with higher self-esteem would have more positive interactions with their children, and perform more effectively in their parental roles (Small, 1988). Satir (1972) has argued that high self-esteem is the basis for all positive communication and interaction in the family. Thus, high maternal self-esteem fosters supportive family environments, which, according to Moos (1986), are characterized by high cohesion and expressiveness and low conflict.

The findings that mothers with higher self-esteem perceived their family environments as more expressive and mother-child relationships as less overprotective; are related to previous research. Small (1988) found that the lower the mother's self-esteem, the less the decision-making freedom she permitted her child, and the greater the likelihood that the child would report being punished. There was a trend for children of mothers with lower self-esteem to perceive their mothers as more controlling and restrictive than those with mothers who had higher self-esteem.

Explanations advanced for mothers with low self-esteem to make decisions for their children, instead of leaving decision making to them, could be that they feel powerless and ineffective. They, therefore, cling on to their children with whom they still feel they have some control. Also, being preoccupied with their own problems, they may be less sensitive to the needs and desires of their children.

Further, according to Small (1988), mothers with higher self-esteem were less worried and concerned about their children's involvement in dangerous, problematic and inappropriate activities. Explanations advanced were that mothers who feel good about themselves have children who are more independent and responsible and thus, behave in less troublesome ways. Mothers, in turn, would have greater trust that their children would behave in ways that are

consistent with parental values and thus there is lower parental concern.

Finally, mothers with higher self-esteem would also be likely to be more confident and less likely to worry over most things, including their child's behaviour. It would follow, then, that such mothers create an environment of expressiveness where family members are encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly. There would be less likelihood of overprotection in mother-child relationships.

Allowing for greater autonomy enables maternal interactions with children to be characterized by lower conflict and rejection, while fostering an environment of higher cohesion where family members help and support each other. Further, it is more likely that energy would be channeled into more productive activities such as emphasis on moral and ethical issues, as well as clear organization and structure in planning family activities and responsibilities.

5.8.2 The Relationships Between Maternal Self-Esteem and Perceptions of Self and Family Members

The higher the mother's self-esteem scores on the RSEI, the more positive were her perceptions of self on the SD Scale

concept, "Myself". The correlation coefficient of 0,58 between the two scores indicates that they are both related and can well be assumed in this research to be measuring similar aspects.

Further, it was found that the higher the mother's self-esteem, the more positively did she perceive her husband, her children and relatives/friends. These findings validate previous discussion (see page 274) where mothers who had high self-esteem also viewed her family members and relatives/friends more positively.

5.8.3 The Relationships Between Maternal Self-Esteem and Children's Perceptions of Self and Family

The higher the mothers' self-esteem, the more positive were their children's perception of their families, fathers and mothers. As mentioned earlier, the higher the mother's self-esteem, the more supportive and less controlling she would be towards her children, and the greater was the likelihood that the mother would use discipline practices that were sensitive to the needs of her child, rather than herself. It follows, then, that such parents would have children who behave in more positive ways and are less likely to rebel against parents (Small, 1988). Children who enjoy greater autonomy, combined with greater sense of worth

and trust by mothers, are likely, in turn, to be respectful of their parents and families and thus, perceive them more positively.

5.8.4 The Relationships Between Maternal Self-Esteem and Children's Adjustment as Perceived by Teachers

The higher the mothers' self-esteem, the higher were self, social and school adjustment of their children, as perceived by teachers. It has been found in the present research that higher maternal self-esteem was related to more positive and harmonious parent-child interactions. Thus, it would be expected that it would also develop healthier child behaviour. Curran (1983), in summing up the literature on traits of healthy families, concluded that if parents are to raise their children to be competent, capable individuals who have a strong sense of self worth, then parents must themselves feel good about who they are and possess high self-esteem.

The above findings indicate that the higher the mothers' self-esteem, the more positive were their children's perception of their family, father and mother and the more positive were the teachers' perceptions of these children's self, social and school adjustment. The positive correlations amongst teachers', mothers' and childrens'

reports lend reliability and validity to the results of the present study.

5.9 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CHILDREN'S SELF-ESTEEM AND MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY MEMBERS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT, MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS AND CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT

The results of the correlations between the above variables support the hypotheses of this research (see page 14). They also support some of the existing literature in this area. Since Nunn and Parish (1988) maintained that the development of self-concepts by children requires sustained interactions with their immediate environment, particularly with respect to their parents, the following discussion will focus on the relationship between children's self-esteem and familial interactions and their relationships to adjustment.

5.9.1 The Relationships Between Children's Self-Esteem and Maternal Perceptions of Family Members

The more positive the children's perceptions of the self and the higher their self-esteem, the more positive were maternal perceptions of relatives/friends. This finding

reflects the importance of family support systems, especially in father-absent groups which constitute about two-thirds of the present sample. The total sample is also confined to low socio-economic status subjects who are prone to greater financial and physical hardships and their associated psychological distress.

Emotional support and practical assistance from relatives and friends in disadvantaged groups, not only provide the parent with a more positive image (as discussed on page 296), but also have manifestations for all other family members. Children from such families experience the beneficial effects of mothers who have higher self-esteem and, by implication, better control and coping abilities and also receive support and nurturance from other adults. Pett (1982a) found that parental network support was a significant contributor to children's adjustment only insofar as it was related to the parent's social adjustment which, in itself, is a significant predictor of children's adjustment.

Although past research has indicated that there are positive correlations between the self-esteem of mother and that of her child, the present investigation revealed that there were positive correlations between children's self-esteem and their mothers' perceptions of relatives/friends, rather than their mothers' self-esteem. Since the data for these

analyses were obtained from two different sources, there is strong support for this finding. This could be explained in terms of Kuper's (1960) report that kinsmen are regarded by South African Indians as of primary importance. From kinsmen (consisting of grandparents, uncles, aunts and their offsprings), each person receives his or her foundation in social values and behaviour, and derives status in the community. Thus, in a community with such beliefs, it is likely for mothers and their children's self-esteem to be influenced, to large extent, on how these relatives are perceived, as indicated in the present study.

5.9.2 The Relationships Between Children's Self-Esteem, Family Environment and Mother-Child Relationships

It was found that the more positive the children's perceptions of themselves and the higher their self-esteem, the higher were the levels of expressiveness in their family environments. Further, the higher were children's self-esteem, the lower the degree of rejection in mother-child relationships. These findings supplement each other. If the child is encouraged to act openly and to express feelings directly, he/she experiences greater acceptance and confidence, while the mother is less likely to deny love and express hate towards the child in terms of neglect, harshness, severity, brutality, strictness and humiliation.

The qualities of higher expressiveness and lower rejection being associated with self-esteem of children are also associated with self-esteem of mothers (as indicated on page 294). This demonstrates the intricate relationships between familial factors on the development of children's self-esteem. Coopersmith's (1967) studies of the antecedents of children's self-esteem indicated that parents' child-rearing styles are a key variable affecting the development of self-esteem in children. He found that the key factors in high self-esteem in children are related to parental acceptance, clearly defined and enforced limits and less drastic forms of punishment (i.e. less use of corporal punishment and less use of withdrawal of love for misbehaviours).

Consistent with these findings, Graybill (1978) found the acceptance versus rejection factor to be significant in relation to children's self-esteem. Children who saw their mothers as accepting and nurturing had higher self-esteem than those who viewed their mothers as using psychological pressure techniques to discipline them. Later research has consistently indicated that perceptions of acceptance and the granting of psychological autonomy are significantly related to children's self-esteem (Cruse, Foss & Colbert, 1981; Grole, 1980; Kawash, Kerr & Clewes, 1985).

5.9.3 The Relationships between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Children's Self-Esteem

The results indicated that the more positive the teachers' perceptions of children's school adjustment, the more positive were children's perceptions of self and the higher was their self-esteem. According to Comer, Haynes, Hamilton-Lee, Boger and Rollock (1987), the influence of children's self-concepts on their psychological behaviour and overall school adjustment has been widely discussed.

It has been reported that children's self-perceptions influence the manner in which they conduct themselves in their classrooms, on the playground, as they interact with other children, and to some degree, determine their attitude toward authority figures, school counsellors and other adults in the school environment (Marsh, Parker & Barnes, 1985; Philips & Zigler, 1980; Springle, 1980).

The findings also indicated that the higher the children's self-esteem, the higher was the level of expressiveness and lower was the level of rejection in mother-child relationships as reported by the mothers, and the more positive was their school adjustment as reported by their teachers. This also lends reliability and validity to the present results, since the data were collected from three different sources.

5.10 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT AND MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY MEMBERS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

The results of the interrelationships among the above variables support the hypothesis (see page 14) of the present research and are consistent with existing research. Family interactions and environment have been shown to play fundamental roles in generating positive adjustment in children because the family is the universal and primary agent of socialization. According to Burns (1979), this is so because children are so vulnerable, with a high degree of physical, social and emotional dependence on the family group, members of which have become so important to them. These first human relationships act as prototypes enabling the child to realize what can be expected in life, in his dealings with others. Therefore, the following discussion focuses on the children's self, social and school adjustment in relation to maternal perceptions of family members, family environment and family interactions.

5.10.1 The Relationships Between Teacher's Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Maternal Perceptions of Family Members

The results indicated that the more positive the teachers' perceptions of children's self, social and school adjustment, the more positive were the mothers' perceptions of their children and relatives/friends. Thus, it appears that the psychosocial adjustment of children are related to their mothers perceptions of her children, as well as her perceptions of her relatives/friends. This finding supports the contention of family researchers that family members cannot be considered in isolation, but are significant contributors to the satisfactory adjustment of other family members (Haley, 1973; Minuchin, 1974).

Further, there is evidence that children's behaviour in school is strongly related to familial factors (Horne & Walker, 1984) and that family background variables such as parental rejection have been associated with behaviour problems at school (Loney & Milich, 1982). Hence, mothers who perceived their children and their relatives/friends more positively were more likely to have children who are well-adjusted. Pett (1982b) found that parents with positive outlooks in one area tended to have positive viewpoints in other areas as well. She found that there were strong and significant correlations between children's

self-reports and parent's evaluations of that same behaviour. She suggested, therefore, that it would appear that family members tend to share these positive or negative outlooks.

5.10.2 The Relationships Between Teacher's Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Maternal Perceptions of Family Environment

It was found that the more positive the teachers' perceptions of children's social and school adjustment, the higher were the mothers' perceptions of the degrees of cohesion in the families. Children who experience higher degrees of commitment, help and family support are likely to extend these congenial interactions outside their families and experience better social and school adjustment.

Similarly, lower degrees of conflict were associated with better social adjustment. Children who experience openly expressed anger and aggression among family members are likely to perceive others outside the home with hostility and defensiveness. These results support previous findings (Block, Block & Morrison, 1981) where teachers' ratings of children's behavioural adjustment were related to independently obtained parental reports of discord. This

emphasizes the relation between family conflict and consequences on child adjustment.

5.10.3 The Relationships Between Teachers' Perceptions of Children's Adjustment and Mother-Child Relationships

It was found that the more positive the teacher's perceptions of self, social and school adjustment of children, the lower were the degrees of overprotection and overindulgence in mother-child relationships. This is consistent with effects described by Roth (1961) that children who are overprotected and dependent, and low on feelings of responsibility, develop feelings of insecurity, anxiety, timidity and apprehension. Children's reactions to overindulgence are seen as difficulty in adjusting to routine, restlessness, low frustration tolerance, being rude or impolite and constantly seeking affection.

The more positive the teachers' perceptions of children's self adjustment, the higher was the degree of acceptance in mother-child relationships. Children's responses to acceptance as postulated by Roth (1961) are positive socialization, desirable character traits, feelings of friendliness, feelings consistent with behaviour and realistic evaluations of self.

5.11 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS
OF SELF AND FAMILY MEMBERS AND MATERNAL
PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY MEMBERS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT
AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

As hypothesized (see page 14), there were significant interrelationships among the above variables. The results indicated that the more positive the children's perceptions of their father, the more positive were maternal perceptions of children. It seems that the mother's positive feelings about her children are more essential to children's perceptions of their fathers. This could possibly be attributed to positive relationships shared between parents which the mother indirectly conveys to the children. The mother's positive view of her children could possibly imply greater acceptance of her husband (since it has been found in the present study and reported on page 271 that divorced mothers manifest greater rejection of not only husband, but also of their children). As such, she regards him with respect and expects her children to accept him as an appropriate role-model.

The results indicated that the more positive the children's perceptions of their father, the lower was the degree of conflict in the family environment. This finding suggests that there is a crucial relationship between the role of the father and the degree of conflict in the family. It is

likely that negative perceptions of the father are related to the inappropriate role-model provided by him for the children, thus creating greater hostility, anger and dissatisfaction among family members.

Further, if the father himself may be seen as the instigator of conflict in the family, it is likely that he would be perceived negatively by his children. If this is the case, then the conflict generated by the father, permeates the whole family environment resulting in greater conflict and lower cohesion and organization in the family.

The more positive the children's perceptions of their families, the higher was the degree of moral-religious orientation in their family environment, and the greater was the degree of acceptance in mother-child relationships. The relationship of positive perceptions of family and emphasis on ethical and religious issues and values is particularly important in the present sample. A large percentage of mothers (see page 214) indicated that they turn to God or religion in order to solve their problems. The faith and hope in religion for mothers are likely to have a stabilizing influence on the family.

The dimension of acceptance indicates adequate mother-child relationship in terms of sincerity of affect, expressive interest in the child's pleasures, activities and

development and the perception of the child as a good child. As such, children whose mothers are more accepting in their interactions are likely to view their families more positively.

5.12 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY MEMBERS FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

As hypothesized (see page 14), there were significant interrelationships among the above variables. The results indicated that the more positive the maternal perceptions of husband, children and relatives/friends, the higher was the degree of cohesion in the family environment. Further, the more positive the maternal perceptions of children and relatives/friends, the higher were the degrees of expressiveness and organization, and the lower was the degree of conflict in the family environment. Also, there were negative correlations between maternal perceptions of children and rejection in mother-child relationships. This indicates that the more positive the mother's perceptions of her children, the lower was the degree of rejection in mother-child relationships.

These findings suggest reciprocal relationships between positive maternal perceptions of family members and the degree of commitment, help and support family members provide for one another. This further results in family members being encouraged by each other to act openly and to express their feelings directly. Such an environment creates a decreased amount of openly expressed anger, aggression and conflict among family members, as the mother shows more acceptance than rejection of her children. Such energy within the family is expended in more positive interactions with clear organization and structure in the planning of family activities and responsibilities.

It was found that positive maternal perceptions of husbands were relevant only on the FES subscale, Cohesion, while perceptions of children and relatives/friends also appeared to be significant for the other sub-scales. A possible reason for this could be that about two-thirds of the present sample are represented by father-absent households, in which children and relatives/friends play more important roles in the family environment.

The correlations obtained between the above subscales and the SD Scale concepts render validity to the findings of the present study.

5.13 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MATERNAL PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND MOTHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS

As hypothesized (see page 14), there were significant correlations between maternal perceptions of family environment and mother-child relationships. The higher the level of rejection in mother-child relationships, the lower was the degree of expressiveness in the family. This finding is consistent with research by Ollendick, La Berteaux and Horne (1978) who found that mothers with democratic, egalitarian child-rearing attitudes saw more cohesion and less family conflict and control, whereas mothers with hostile-rejecting and authoritarian attitudes reported less emphasis on expressiveness.

The higher the level of rejection in mother-child relationships, the lower was the degree of organization and the higher was the conflict in the family environment. This indicates that mothers who are more likely to express hate towards the child in terms of neglect, harshness, brutality and severity would also perceive their home environments to be disorganized. These findings are substantiated by recent research which indicated that parents who experience high marital conflict, become less nurturing or sensitive toward their children (Tschann et al., 1989). Further, they found that less warmth and empathy between parents and children are associated with more problematic emotional and

behavioural adjustment in children. Family members are also likely to have a lower sense of responsibility when maternal warmth and nurturance are lacking. There would be greater conflict between parents and children and also among siblings since children perceive their parents as role-models.

The higher the level of acceptance in mother-child relationships, the higher the degree of moral-religious emphasis in the family environment. As indicated on page 282, the stress-buffering properties of religious activities may create a more congenial atmosphere in the home. Mothers from homes with higher moral-religious emphasis are more likely to be affectionate and loving and more accepting of their children as being good. Thus, it was reported on page 194 that moral-religious emphasis in the family environment is positively correlated with mother's self-esteem.

The higher the levels of overprotection in mother-child relationships, the higher was the degree of conflict in the family environment. These results are relevant to the discussion (see page 284) where families which are more autonomous, foster feelings of cohesion and lower anger and hostility.

5.14 THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ADOLESCENTS' ADJUSTMENT AND PERCEPTIONS OF SELF, FAMILY AND SCHOOL

As hypothesized (see page 14), there were significant correlations between adolescents' perceptions, of self, family and school and their perceptions of adjustment. There were high correlations between the SD Scale concept, "Myself" and PHSF subscale, Self-Esteem, even higher correlations between SEI Scores and the PHSF subscales Self-Esteem, indicating that the latter two scales are measuring similar aspects. This may also render validity of these scales.

The results indicated that the higher the self-esteem (measured by SEI), the more positive was one's adjustment on self-confidence, self-control, nervousness, family influences, personal freedom, moral sense and formal relations. This indicates that self-esteem is an essential aspect of the individual because of its influence and relation within the self and between the self and the environment on most of the PHSF subscales.

These findings suggest that if the adolescent has positive inner appraisal of his abilities, he is likely to have higher levels of confidence in his ability to be successful. He is more likely to succeed in controlling and channeling his emotions and needs in accordance with his principles and

judgements without being unduly anxious or purposeless. These factors refer to intra-personal relations which are of primary importance in adjustment.

High self-esteem is also correlated with better adjustment in the family which is associated with family togetherness (cohesion), cordial relationships between parents and the feeling of not being restricted by parents (expressiveness). These findings substantiate the results of the present research (discussed on page 294) where positive relationships were found between self-esteem and higher cohesion and expressiveness and lower rejection and conflict.

Since the adolescents with higher self-esteem are more likely to experience more positive personal and home relations, it is also likely that they would feel that their behaviour corresponds with the acceptable norms of society. They would be successful in their interactions with other members of society, outside the family, in formal relations with colleagues as well as figures of authority.

These results are consistent with the positive correlations between self-esteem and SD concepts "My Family", "My Mother", "My Father", "My Teacher" and "My School". The importance of significant others in helping to shape children's self-concept has long been acknowledged (Cooley, 1902; Coopersmith, 1967; Purkey, 1970). Significant others

reflect messages that children internalize and they begin to perceive themselves according to the messages they receive. Psychologists have reported that parents (Mussen, Conger & Kagan, 1974; Tocco & Bridges, 1973) and teachers (Day & Parker, 1977) significantly influence the development of children's self-concepts.

It was found that the higher the levels of moral sense, the more positive were adolescents' perceptions of family, mother, teacher and school. According to Kohlberg (1973) adolescents are at the conventional level of moral development, where they focus on social rules that would make other people happy, seeking approval, especially from adults. They also believe that good behaviour means obeying rules and laws. It follows that adolescents who perceive significant others positively, would be more likely to behave in ways that correspond to the accepted norms of society.

It was found that the more positive the adolescents' perceptions of their families, fathers and teachers, the greater was the absence of symptoms of nervousness as expressed by anxious, purposeless and repetitive behaviour. Thus, it seems that positive perceptions of authority figures reduce anxiety. This relationship was not significant for mothers, possibly indicating that fathers

are more likely to be regarded as authority figures than mothers (Freud, 1925; Piaget, 1952).

The results indicated positive correlations between perceptions of family influences, family and parents. This validates the findings on the PHSF subscales, Family Influences and SD Scale concepts, "My Family", "My Mother" and "My Father".

It was found that the higher the level of personal freedom, the more positive were adolescents perceptions of school. Thus, if there are lower parental restrictions and greater expressiveness in the home, it is likely that there would be more positive attitudes towards outside authority as well.

There were positive correlations between perceptions of family and general sociability. This indicates that if the adolescent has positive perceptions of his family, he is more likely to extend these cordial relationships outside the family and thus have a need for, and spontaneously participate in, social group interactions.

It was found that the more positive the adolescent's perceptions of his family, father, mother, teacher and school, the more successful were his interactions with fellow-pupils as well as with figures of authority and superiors at school or work situation. Rigby and Rump

(1981) found with adolescents (aged 13 to 17 years) that positive correlations were found between attitudes towards parents and towards authorities. They interpreted this finding in terms of parents representing a form of relevant authority to the children. Favourability of attitudes toward authorities was causally dependent on a harmonious parent-child relationship and vice versa. The researchers further indicated that adolescent's disrespect, for example, for police or teacher could be a consequence of a poor relationship with the parents, particularly the father.

5.15 CONCLUSION

The results indicated that the crucial variable in teachers' perceptions of children's psychosocial adjustment was the presence or absence of the father. However, it seems that the degree of turbulence, rather than parental marital status, had greater effects on adolescents' perceptions of their adjustment. While father absence indicated negative effects on personal freedom, the degree of turbulence had negative effects on self-control, moral sense and personal freedom. Demo and Acock (1988), having reviewed the literature in the area, concluded that adolescent adjustment is not as much affected by family structure as by parental discord.

The findings indicated that both father-absence and high turbulence have great negative impact on the mothers. Mothers who experienced high turbulence had lower self-esteem and perceived themselves, their husbands, children and relatives/friends more negatively. Further, they reported lower cohesion and organization and higher conflict in their home environments. Single mothers had lower self-esteem and more negative perceptions of self and relatives/friends and reported less organization in their family environment than married mothers. In addition to these factors, divorced mothers perceived their husbands and children more negatively and reported greater conflict and lower cohesion in their family environments.

Besides the intactness of the family structure and low degree of turbulence in the home, higher maternal educational level indicated more positive effects on mothers and their children. Mothers with secondary school education, compared to primary school education, had higher self-esteem, higher degree of organization in their family environment and were less overindulgent in mother-child relationships. Further, their children had higher self-esteem and were perceived more positively on self, school and school adjustment by their teachers. Thus, children and mothers from intact and low-turbulence families and families with mothers who have higher education may seem to have more positive psychosocial adjustment than those from father-

absent, high-turbulence families and families with mothers who have lower education.

The results of the investigation have given credibility to viewing the family as a social system operating within, and interacting with, the larger society. The results have shown that changes occurring in one family member's role affect the roles of others within the system. The absence of the father causes the unbalancing of the system where the mother and her children are required to play new roles.

Thus, it was found that mothers in father-absent, compared to intact, families had lower self-concept and more negative perceptions of themselves, relatives/friends, family environments and mother-child relationships. Further, mothers from divorced families have more negative perceptions not only of their husbands, but also of their children. This can be explained in terms of the single mother being overwhelmed at taking on the disparate instrumental and expressive roles of providing economic, social and emotional and disciplinary functions. This may lead to confusion, inefficiency and unhappiness within herself which have ramifications on other members of her family.

Hence, children from father-absent families were perceived as having poorer self, social and school adjustment. This

could be related to the mother's failure in satisfying the entire family needs which result in children accepting some parental responsibilities, such as getting a job, caring for younger siblings and engaging in household chores. There were also indications for their school performance being affected since teachers recommended remedial education more often for children from father-absent than intact homes. It was also found that adolescents from divorced families indicated poorer adjustment on personal freedom since mothers tend to compensate for the lack of the father's disciplinary influence by using more authoritarian disciplinary measures and being more overprotective.

The results indicated positive interrelationships among maternal self-esteem, maternal perceptions of family members, mother-child relationships, family environment and between each of these variables and children's psychosocial adjustment and perceptions of their family members. These correlations render further support to the systems theory postulation of the reciprocal nature of interactions within the family system, with each member influencing and being influenced by every other member in a direct and indirect manner.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

To date, research on father absence has been basically confined to western samples. However, it is necessary to conduct research in cross-cultural and diverse populations in order to increase confidence in psychological theory and research and to investigate any possible differences. The present study has facilitated this by producing correlative results as well as by providing an extension to existing research findings. The implications of the study, its limitations and future research possibilities and recommendations will be discussed in the present chapter.

6.1 Methodological Contributions

A significance of this study is the multidimensional approach of data collection by means of standardized measures completed by teachers, mothers and children. The reason for adopting this approach was to obtain a more holistic and complete representation of the sample under study, since data from one source could be biased or incomplete. Because children spend so much of their time in school, it is considered to be a primary source for assessments of children. Although some researchers have

expressed concern about how teachers' bias might affect their ratings of children (Santrock and Tracy, 1978), others have found that they do not necessarily indicate unfounded biases. Instead they are founded on valid assumptions based on experience (Walker, Bettes & Ceci 1984).

Garrison and Earls (1985) found that teachers reported fewer behavioural symptoms of children than parents and were more likely to report symptoms related to academic and compliance dimensions which are relevant to the school situation. Therefore, it was decided to use data from their mothers on home environment and relationships within the family situation in an attempt to gain information of the children in different environments.

Because the child is common to both home and school, it is likely that his view of himself is the most important predictor of his behaviour and level of adjustment. It is quite probable that children would be better able to describe their behaviour and report on their internal feelings in different situations, than would their parents and teachers (Beitchman and Corradini, 1988).

6.2 Cross-Cultural Implications

A contribution of the present investigation to the existing

body of psychological research on the effects of father absence on child and family adjustment, is that it was conducted on a non-western, acculturating sample. The Indian community is distinct from other racial groups in South Africa even though they live under similar economic conditions and urban environments as other groups. According to Wood and Wassenaar (1989), it is expected that acculturation will be manifested in increased cross-generational conflict within the traditional family. Although there gradual transition, with greater influence of western values and systems, the following are the most conspicuous differences for traditional South African Indian families:

- 1) They have vastly differing cultural and religious backgrounds, belonging mainly to three of the major religions of the world - Hinduism, Islam and Christianity. Majority of them are Hindus and, according to Kuper (1960), most South African Muslims and Christians are descendents from Hindus. Thus, their new beliefs are interpreted through the old social structure, while their religious institutions carry the quality of the original matrix.
- 2) There is greater strength of joint family ties with a high proportion of Indian households occupied by one or more relatives. Although the traditional Indian

patriarchal extended family system is threatened with a breakdown into various component nuclear families (Jithoo, 1975), kinsmen are still regarded as being of primary importance and play an influential role.

- 3) There is emphasis on arranged marriages and strong stigmatization against divorce, separation and remarriage.
- 4) There is a small proportion of women, widowed or deserted, living alone with unmarried children.
- 5) Although previously there was virtual absence of people living completely on their own, such an arrangement is presently occurring more frequently.

Notwithstanding the above differences, the results of the present investigation to a large extent correlate with previous findings, using samples from other ethnic groups, especially if they belong to similar socio-economic backgrounds. However, some differential results were also obtained.

The lack of support for previous research which indicates that males, compared to females, from father-absent families are more negatively affected could be explained in terms of the differential parenting styles and differences in

attitudes towards sons and daughters amongst Indian mothers. In Indian families, sons compared to daughters, are more highly esteemed by parents and relatives. Having a male child is considered to be an asset, because it is assumed that he will eventually take over the financial and other family responsibilities from the father. Further, certain religious rituals can only be performed by males. Amongst Hindus who comprise the majority of the present sample, sons, but not daughters, are allowed to offer ancestral offerings and to perform the final funeral rites of parents.

In such a male-dominated culture, as the son becomes older, the mother often plays a more subdued role as the son is given more responsibilities and privileges. This situation is more likely in widowed families, where the son may be held as an idealized image of his father. Thus, it would appear that these attitudes towards sons may modify some of the effects of father absence. However, further research in the area of differences in maternal perceptions and mother-child relationships between sons and daughters amongst Indians is necessary to clarify these effects.

It was also found that children from widowed families had higher self-esteem, if they belonged to the extended, rather than the nuclear family system. This did not apply to the divorced father-absent group. These differential effects could be explained in terms of the strong stigmatization and

taboo against divorce in the Indian community where significant others such as grandparents, uncles, aunts, etc. are possibly giving positive feedback and support for bereaved children rather than to those whose parents divorce.

Although past research has indicated that there are positive correlations between the self-esteem of mother and that of her child, the present investigation revealed that there were positive correlations between children's self-esteem and their mothers' perceptions of relatives/friends, rather than their mothers' self-esteem. Since the data for these analyses were obtained from two different sources, there is strong support for this finding. This could be explained in terms of Hilda Kuper's (1960) report that kinsmen are regarded by South African Indians as of primary importance. From kinsmen (consisting of grandparents, uncles, aunts and their offsprings), each person receives his or her foundation in social values and behaviour, and derives status in the community. Thus, in a community of such beliefs, it is likely for mother's self-esteem and their children's self-esteem to be influenced to a large extent on how these relatives are perceived, as indicated in the present study.

Although the results of the present investigation have substantiated previous results and have shed new light on

understanding of the effects of father absence, generalizations of these results to middle- and upper-class Indians have to be approached with caution, since the sample belonged to the low socio-economic status group. In the former, there may be greater emphasis placed on cultural values and religious beliefs, rather than on survival needs of the latter. These could possibly result in differential effects. Since previous research has found socio-economic status to be one of the major mediating factors on the effects of father absence, it would be necessary to extend such research to upper- and middle-class Indian subjects with higher income and educational levels and lower likelihood of overt conflict and turbulence.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCHERS

Since this is a pioneering study in this field amongst Indians, there is a wide scope for future research. One of the limitations of the present study is that it is based on cross-sectional analyses of differentials between children raised in different family structures. It is restricted to the effects of father absence over two years after the disruption. The results indicated that some negative effects of father absence were present over two years since the marital disruption. However, it is important to

ascertain information on family functioning before, during and immediately after the disruption and the types of changes and adjustments that occur over a period of time.

To partly overcome this limitation in the present study retrospective data was collected about the level of family conflict before the husband's death or divorce and past levels of conflict in intact families. However, more information on socio-economic histories, parent-child relationships, etc. are also necessary in future research.

So far, a limited number of longitudinal studies have been conducted. Two studies that cover long enough periods are by Wallerstein (1985; 1987) and Hetherington and her associates (Hetherington, 1980; 1989; Hetherington Cox & Cox, 1985). Both studies have similar shortcomings, since they include only children from divorced/separated families. The lack of control groups is a serious limitation in developing hypotheses about the effects of divorce and remarriage and the differentials in psychosocial adjustment in intact single-parent and step-parent families (Baydar, 1988).

The present investigation focused on the effect of father absence on custodial mothers and their children. Further research on non-custodial mothers, custodial fathers and children living in mother-absent families is needed especially for decisions involving custody of the children

and the visitation rights of the non-custodial parent. Research using western samples has indicated that positive and frequent contacts with the non-custodial parent mitigate some of the negative effects of divorce (Kalter, 1987).

The subjects in the present investigation included only mothers who were married once. Research has indicated that increase in emotional and behavioural problems can be attributed more to remarriage, rather than to father absence (Baydar, 1988, Hodges & Bloom, 1984). Extension of such research may be of particular importance in the Indian community which has strong taboos and stigmatization against divorce and even stronger reactions against remarriage for both widows and divorcees.

A significant area omitted in the present study is the effect of the siblings on children's psychological adjustment. The literature has shown that siblings have a powerful influence on each others socio-cognitive development (Dunn & Munn, 1986). Aggression and friendliness in the sibling bond are independent dimensions determined by the character of the siblings themselves, parental behaviour and family climate (Brody, Stoneman & Burke, 1987, Bryant & Crockenberg, 1980; Dunn & Munn, 1986). Further, studies suggested that when families are under stress, family factors take on a greater significance for

the sibling bond (Dunn, 1988). This may be particularly true for families of divorce.

This also has implications for therapeutic interventions. The literature on sibling and divorce therapy suggests that a willingness to work with the sibling unit, in conjunction with other modalities of therapy, may greatly help children of divorce in adjusting to their changed situation (Schibuk, 1989). She stated that the advantages of sibling therapy with children from divorced families is that the sibling unit is a more natural and socially easier peer group, that can foster supportive bonds between siblings, that can long out last the actual therapeutic intervention. It addresses both the individual and the combined need of the family. Thus, further systematic research to clarify variables that affect the quality of the sibling bond using non-white samples are necessary to validate the efficacy of sibling therapy in such samples.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.4.1 Practical Implications Suggested by the Study for Policy Makers and Mental Health Professionals

The greater incidence of maladjustment in father-absent

families may be apparent to psychiatrists, psychologists, other mental health professionals, as well as, educationists from their daily practice and experience. However, such information which is essential to treatment modes and ecological interventions need to be based on reliable empirical foundations in order to optimize therapeutic effects and recommendations to policy makers. The present study establishes certain long-term effects of father absence in an untreated population. The present study has identified certain demographic and psychological factors that relate to more successful psychosocial adjustment of children and their families. Recommendations for policy makers and mental health professionals based on these findings will follow.

6.4.1.1 Implications for Government Policy Makers

The increase of divorce at an alarming rate in South Africa, together with the present findings that the negative effect of father absence on child and family are evident even after two years since marital disruption, makes it mandatory for affirmative action to improve marriage and family service at a nation-wide level. Deficiencies in this area have been revealed in a report by the Department of Constitutional Development and Planning (1985: 59), according to which, "Services are unco-ordinated and in many cases programmes

are offered on an ad-hoc basis. Under these circumstances, the present day problems and needs of marriage and family life are not being coped with... In view of the rather unsatisfactory state of marriage and family life in the Republic of South Africa, the limited service rendering, and the importance of a healthy marriage and family life, in the development of the quality of life of the community, the formulation of a national programme is justified".

The role of the central government is crucial to the implementation of such a programme. Emphasis should be given to the aim of improving the quality of family life in the various communities in the Republic. Cognizance should be taken of similar and differential needs and cultural backgrounds of each community, since the present study using an Indian sample indicated certain consistent, as well as inconsistent results, with studies using samples of other ethnic groups.

The immediate implementation of a national family programme could involve the training of personnel, providing subsidies for other mental health professionals, besides social workers, and improvement in educational, counselling and guidance services to the public. However, as a long-term, preventative measure to improve family life, would be to improve poor living conditions. Many South Africans live in overcrowded and undesirable conditions which are not

conducive to healthy family life. The negative effects of overcrowding on the individual, family and community life have been well documented. Results of the present study also indicate that children in extended, compared to nuclear, families were perceived more negatively on self, social and school adjustment, since their homes in Chatsworth were inadequate to house large families. Therefore, the improvement on the housing situation should be given priority in a programme to improve family life.

Consistent with the findings of Hetherington (1981), one of the indications of the present study was the need for social support systems for the psychological well-being of child and family in single-parent families. Informal support networks offered by relatives, friends, religious organizations, etc. have been found to be important in promoting the well-being of families and children, under certain circumstances. However, in the present sample, belonging to the lower socio-economic status level, such support seems inadequate. Therefore, it is important for the state to provide funding and sponsoring of organized social support programmes as is the current trend in the United States. Although new, this trend has already begun to demonstrate its potential. Weiss (1989) reported that many state governments have begun to consider their role in the creation and funding of preventative family support and education programmes. Some of the goals are the enhancement

of child health and development; prevention of various child and family dysfunctions, such as abuse and neglect; enhancement of parental knowledge, self-esteem and problem solving; and promotion of formal and informal community support for families. According to Zigler and Black (1989), current evidence and knowledge suggest that these programmes are a promising and worth-while investment.

6.4.1.2 Implications for Educational Policy Makers, School Psychologists and Teachers

The result of the present study indicated that children from father-absent, compared to intact families, were perceived more negatively on self, social and school adjustment and that remedial education and psychological/social work services were recommended more often for these children. These findings, together with the statistics of increasing numbers of children from father-absent families, is evident of the magnitude of the impact on the schools. Thus, it is imperative for educational policy makers, school personnel and teachers to take cognisance of this, and to consciously try to create a policy attuned to the needs of this population.

School psychologists should be engaged not only in secondary schools, but also in primary schools, since the findings

indicated that primary, compared to secondary, school children from father-absent families were perceived more negatively on self and school adjustment. Their roles and tasks should be diversified in providing counselling services and support, not only to children, but also to parents and teachers. The functions of the school psychologist would appear to be even more strategic in situations where services of private psychologists are problematic, due to economic or physical unavailability.

Burns and Brassard (1982) suggested that counselling tasks with children from father-absent families should include achievement and behavioural assessment and evaluation of the child's support systems. They could help children to adapt to the new family situation by involving them in a situation/transition group (Cantor, 1977) to offer emotional support, catharsis and information-sharing about life stress. This also gives children the opportunity to share mutual feelings and experiences and the role play coping with stressful situations.

An indirect approach would be for school psychologists to provide in-service training for both teachers and school administrators to foster increased sensitivity to the needs of children and their mothers in single-parent homes. They should be provided with factual information on the effects of divorce and be involved in intervention plans and methods

of determining which children need help. Such information would also assist in curriculum adaptation that could be employed. This would give teachers more realistic approach in dealing with children from single-parent families and would be more likely to allay the associated negative stereotyped attitudes which may result in self-fulfilling prophecies in the children.

Teachers should be made aware of the limited resources and parenting time available to the single mother. Practical suggestions and techniques could be provided to help with children's school assignments such as using older siblings or peer tutoring.

The results indicated that children from divorced homes perceived their fathers more negatively and their teachers more positively than those from widowed and intact groups. This implies that children from divorced families need a role model to substitute for the father. Therefore, it is recommended that these children be given preference for placement with male teachers, as some researchers, for example, Black (1979) have suggested.

The present findings indicated that single mothers experienced greater social isolation than married mothers. Parental adjustment to the changed lifestyle directly affects the adjustment of their children and is, therefore,

of concern to the school psychologist (Hess and Camara, 1979; Lamb, 1977). School psychologists can assist single mothers by organizing support groups that act as extended families to provide emotional support and co-operative practical assistance. Such experiences can help minimize the feelings of isolation and tragedy, since single, compared to married, mothers in the present study, indicated lower social support from relative and friends.

The goals of the support groups could be to improve communication and problem-solving skills, stress management, awareness of strengths and weaknesses, goal-setting, management of financial and housing matters and profitable allocation of time. Custodial and non-custodial parents should be given information on their children's school-related problems and progress which may increase parents willingness to share pertinent information with the school. An educational policy that includes non-custodial parents in school activities, school records and conversations with the teacher is essential to facilitate parent-child relationships. Unfortunately, this policy is not executed in most schools.

The present results revealed that children and their mothers are at greater risks with poorer self-esteem and mother-child relationships and lower levels of organization in the family environment, when mothers are poorly educated. This

calls for educational policy makers to improve women's access to education as recommended by Brandwein et al. (1974). Family education could be designed to offer parent-education classes, counselling (individuals, groups and families) and library facilities offering information on child-development and parenting skills.

6.4.1.3 Implications for Mental Health Professionals and Social Workers

As the need for counselling single parents and their families increases, training programmes for the mental health professionals must offer greater attention to meeting this need. Currently, the various mental health disciplines are poorly equipped to do so because there is little or no training in this area. This is unfortunate in the light of evidence that interparental conflict, before and after divorce, seems to have a more detrimental effect than the divorce itself, on the psychosocial functioning of children, as well as adults.

Increased professional and paraprofessional education regarding the divorce process and divorce related issues may ultimately lead to greater efficiency in interventions in mental health problems that frequently accompany marital disruption. Such education should include information about

environment and lower rejection in mother-child relationships. This warrants the development of multifaceted training programs that would teach more positive parenting skills, as well as, the incorporation of stress management and interpersonal and relationship skills. Parents should be educated about alternatives to an authoritarian approach to child-rearing and enhancement of the parenting skills of both parents, if available. The importance of maintaining good parent-child relations should be emphasized especially for the non-custodial parent, whose contact with the child may be intermittent.

In addition, mental health professionals should attempt to include the non-custodial parent in therapeutic interventions. This may require sensitizing the custodial parent about the potential benefits from involvement of the whole family. According to Guidubaldi, Cleminshaw, Perry, Nastasi and Lightel (1986), as adults seek less restricted and more personally fulfilling lives, the search for childhood support must be intensified to ensure that children's developmental needs are also met.

One of the key factors affecting children's negative perceptions of father, adolescents' adjustment, and mothers negative perceptions on family environment and of self and family members was found to be the degree of turbulence. This empirical finding is of consequence to mental health

environment and lower rejection in mother-child relationships. This warrants the development of multifaceted training programs that would teach more positive parenting skills, as well as, the incorporation of stress management and interpersonal and relationship skills. Parents should be educated about alternatives to an authoritarian approach to child-rearing and enhancement of the parenting skills of both parents, if available. The importance of maintaining good parent-child relations should be emphasized especially for the non-custodial parent, whose contact with the child may be intermittent.

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One of the key factors affecting children's negative perceptions of father, adolescents' adjustment, and mothers negative perceptions on family environment and of self and family members was found to be the degree of turbulence. This empirical finding is of consequence to mental health

professionals since it is contrary to the popular belief based on the opinion that father absence, per se, has detrimental effects on family members. It is particularly relevant because it bears on issues, such as, whether parents should stay together for the children's sake.

Interventions based on conflict identification and conflict resolution techniques need to be developed and employed to prevent problems in psychosocial adjustment of the child and family. Thus, efforts should be made by marital counsellors to provide parents with guidelines which would minimize children's involvement in interparental conflict, since exposure to parental verbal and physical abuse, results in assimilation of such behaviour by children. This recommendation is contrary to therapists (for example, Futterman, 1980) who argue that one must increase family-wide conflict following a "civilized divorce" as a means of allowing the family members to work through their feelings.

In attempting the difficult task of keeping their children out of their angry arguments, it is likely that parents will be discouraged from physical abuse. It would prevent their children from learning that differences can only be resolved by yelling, fighting or hitting. According to Emery (1982) parents should be encouraged to agree in front of the child especially about issues concerning the child. They should make a special effort to maintain their individual

relationship with each child so as to buffer the child from interparental conflict. Parents need to be made sensitive to their children's negative reactions to marital turmoil and be prepared to seek outside help, if these reactions are prolonged.

Since divorced parents and those who experienced high marital conflict do not receive spousal support in child-rearing (Wahler, 1980), therapists should consider group approaches to parent training when family and couple options are impossible. In cases of divorce, mental health professionals should take on the role as divorce mediator in resolving problems. This offers opportunities to reduce conflict which would otherwise occur via the adversarial legal process.

Mental health professionals and social workers should be aware of the long-term consequences of parental abuse, since Rosenbaum and O'Leary (1981) found that males who experienced abuse of their mothers, are clearly at high risk for development into the next generation of abusive husbands. The present results provide a strong mandate for interventions with children who experience high turbulence.

Further, Rosenbaum and O'Leary (1981) found that those who witnessed parental spouse abuse were also victims of child abuse at the hands of one or both parents. This strongly

supports the contention that children of spouse-abusing couples may be unusually vulnerable to abuse. Thus, if spouse abuse occurs within a family, assessment for child abuse is clearly indicated.

The finding of the present study that single mothers perceived their relatives/friends more negatively than married mothers, suggest that marital disruption may cause reverberations throughout the single mother's social context. This needs to be explored in therapeutic interventions for those experiencing these life changes, together with significant others in the person's social network.

According to Brown (1982), despite evidence that the extended family members, especially parents are also upset by divorce and are struggling with their own attitudes and feelings, few initiate a request for help. This would be especially relevant in a society that has strong stigmatization against single parents, as is the case in the present sample of Indians. Thus, clinicians need to take an active role in trying to identify the significant relatives of their clients, and then to reach them either through the clients, or directly. Some of the goals of therapy could be increasing awareness of the issues of concern, providing emotional support and facilitating acceptance. Thus, significant others in the extended family could be portrayed

as members of a problem-solving team. In this way, the therapy sessions involving social network members, might decrease the incidence of withdrawal from social contact for the single parent.

6.4.2 Extensions from the Study : Implications for Public and Judicial Policy Markers

Legislation and judicial practice seem to focus on physical and material aspects of marital dissolution and decisions concerning custody and visitation rights and division of property. However, it is necessary for policy makers in this area to take cognizance of the specific family relationships and family environment which emerge after the divorce. Thus, steps can be taken to facilitate increased involvement and support of the custodial parents in the child's development. Further, marriage and divorce laws could be improved to keep abreast of the needs of the times.

The only exposure of most divorcing couples to professional services are those of attorneys who work in an adversary spirit, to the one-sided benefit of the party from which they are receiving their fee. This could intensify conflict between parents and draw children into divorce arguments - especially when there are unfair settlements. This is likely to result in increased anger, estrangement of family members

and creation of stress which impair the relationships that emerge after divorce. Thus, children and their mothers perceive the divorced father more negatively than those from intact and widowed homes.

A review of the literature on divorce therapy (Glaser and Borduin, 1986) indicated that divorce mediation leads to more positive outcomes than the traditional adversarial method of divorce. These results indicate higher rates of client satisfaction with the outcome, an increase in joint-custody arrangements, a decrease in litigation following the divorce decree and a decrease in public expenditures, such as court costs (Bahr, 1981; Pearson and Thoennes, 1982). Emery and Wyer (1987), having reviewed the literature, concluded that the initial data on mediation are encouraging, since they appear to hold the potential to alleviate some source of stress for divorcing spouses and their children. However, they advocate a great need for further evaluation, whereby psychologists can become more involved in developing and evaluating mediation services and in shaping standards of training and practice for this emerging field.

The installation of conciliation courts is also recommended, since it appears to increase the number of marital reconciliations between spouses who are considering divorce (Sprenkle and Storm, 1983). Such courts seem to offer an

important social service to the community, since they offer a potentially helpful service to a part of the population that would otherwise have no contact with the mental health system.

It is also important to educate and increase awareness of the public through public lectures and the media about the effects of divorce on child and family adjustment. They need to know about some of the mediating factors such as higher levels of maternal education, low levels of conflict, need for support systems and the importance of post-divorce relationship between the child and each parent separately. They must be sensitized to the harmful effects of stigmatization and negative stereotypes towards members of divorced families. They should also be made aware of social services and sources of professional help for divorce-related problems.

Finally, as a preventative measure, a suggestion to legal and social policy makers would be to encourage premarital counselling to assist prospective partners to gain a better understanding of themselves, of each other, and of what marriage entails. This could be administered in individual or group settings, where they could be given information and share, experiences concerning issues such as partner choice, nature of love and commitment, sex differences

between men and women, the role of empathy and communication, etc.

Another step toward divorce prevention could be the discouragement of early marriages. Norton and Glick (1979) reported that couples who marry in their teens are twice as likely to divorce as those who marry in their twenties. It has been suggested that those who marry at a younger age do not have the emotional, educational or economic resources to make a success of marriage (Kitson and Raschke, 1981).

Related to the above recommendation is the need for sex education at schools, since premarital pregnancy has also been shown to be correlated with divorce. Furstenberg's (1976) analysis suggested that lack of preparation for marriage and economic problems are the most compelling factors influencing marital instability.

6.5 CONCLUSION

Although the present study has contributed to the existing body of research in the area of father-absence and has indicated some practical guidelines and principles, additional research in this area is essential for the purpose of laying a foundation for rational and formal therapeutic intervention. Attention should be given to

predictable factors in the disruption and reorganization process, such as loss and parental discord, and the child's reaction to them.

Information on other variables of particular interest that remains fairly unexplained include the role of the individual's value system and belief systems in the perception of stressful events, parenting-styles and how they change and develop after a stressful event, and the influence of concomitant life stressors, such as moving, loss of finances, etc. These areas should be examined in relation to short-term outcomes as well as long-term measures on personal growth.

Another pressing issue is the dissemination of the results of the empirical research to mental health practitioners who work with single-parent families. In this way they could function more effectively in dealing with issues of concern.

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APPENDIX A

THE BIOGRAPHICAL INVENTORY TO BE COMPLETED BY PARENTS

 Complete the questionnaire by filling in the information required or
 by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate block where necessary.

A. INFORMATION ON PUPIL

1. Name:	
2. Age:	
3. Sex:	
4. School:	
5. Standard: ...	

B. INFORMATION ON FAMILY

1.	N A M E	MR MRS/MISS	FIRST NAME	SURNAME
	Parent			
	Guardian			

2. Home Address: _____

3. TELEPHONE: Home: _____ Work: _____

		FATHER	MOTHER	GUARDIAN (if applicable)
4.	Age:			
5.	Education Level:			
6.	Occupation:			
7.	Religion (e.g. Hindu, Muslim, Christian. etc.)			

8. Marital Status:

Married	Single	Divorced/ Separated	Widowed

9. Type of Family:

Nuclear	Extended

Note: Nuclear family consists of husband|wife and their children.
Extended family consists of husband|wife, children, grandparents or other relatives e.g., uncle, aunt, etc.

10. How many people (including children) live at home? _____

12. What is your relationship to the child?

Father	Mother	Brother	Sister	Guardian	Other (specify)

 SIGNATURE

 DATE

Please complete and return this form to the class teacher tomorrow.

Thank you for your co-operation.

APPENDIX BLETTER TO PARENTS

Dear Parent/Guardian

I am a counselling psychologist lecturing at the University of Durban-Westville. I am presently engaged in researching problems and concerns of parents and their children. The results that I obtain with regard to these problems could possibly be used in the future to help children and their parents to overcome such problems.

Since this research may be of such benefit to parents in general, Indian parents particularly, I am sure that you would agree to give me your whole-hearted support and co-operation in completing the accompanying questionnaire. This will involve only a few minutes of your time. Kindly return the completed questionnaire to the class teacher tomorrow. I assure you that all information will be treated very confidentially.

Thank you in advance.

Yours sincerely

m. mahabeer

M MAHABEER

Lecturer: Psychology

B.A.(Hons), M.A.(UDW), UED (Unisa)

Counselling Psychologist, registered with the
South African Medical & Dental Council

APPENDIX CTHE BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY MOTHERS

Complete the questionnaire by filling in the information required or by placing a cross (x) in the appropriate block where necessary. If a question does not apply to you, leave it blank.

[A] GENERAL INFORMATION

1. NAME: _____

2. ADDRESS: _____

3. TELEPHONE NUMBER: _____

4. TODAY'S DATE: _____

5. MARITAL STATUS:

MARRIED	SINGLE	DIVORCED/SEPARATED	WIDOWED

6. Type of Family:

EXTENDED	NUCLEAR

[B] INFORMATION ON PARENTS

1. AGE

2. EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

3. INCOME PER MONTH

4. RELIGION (e.g. Hindu, Muslim, Christian, etc.)

5. HOME LANGUAGE (eg. Hindi, Tamil, Telegu, Gugerati, Urdu, etc.)

6. OCCUPATION

FATHER	MOTHER

7. In what year did you marry? _____

8. For how many years have you been married? _____

9. If you have been divorced, separated, or widowed, indicate:

(a) the year in which it occurred _____

(b) the marital status of your ex-husband.

SINGLE	REMARIED

[C] INFORMATION ON CHILDREN

NO.	NAME	PRESENT AGE	SEX	STANDARD	SCHOOL	AGE OF CHILD WHEN FATHER LEFT HOME OR DIED
1.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

[D] INFORMATION ON OTHER ADULTS LIVING AT HOME

NO.	NAME	AGE	OCCUPATION	HOW ARE YOU RELATED TO HIM/HER? (e.g. mother, uncle, etc.)
1.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.	_____	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX D

SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

INSTRUCTIONS

In the following statements, if the statement describes how you usually feel, put a cross (X) in the column "Like Me".

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a cross (X) in the column "Unlike Me".

There are no right or wrong answers. We need your honest and truthful answer.

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
Example: I'm a hard worker		
1. I often wish I were someone else.....		
2. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.....		
3. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.....		
4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.		
5. I get upset easily at home.		
6. I'm a lot of fun to be with.		
7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.		
8. I'm popular with kids my own age.		
9. My parents usually consider my feelings.		
10. I give in very easily.		
11. My parents expect too much of me.		
12. It's pretty tough to be me.		
13. Things are all mixed up in my life.		
14. Kids usually follow my ideas.		
15. I have a low opinion of myself.		
16. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.		
17. I often feel upset at school.		
18. I'm not as nice looking as most people.		
19. If I have something to say, I usually say it.		
20. My parents understand me.		
21. Most people are better liked than I am.		
22. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.		
23. I often get discouraged in school.		
24. Things usually don't bother me.		
25. I can't be depended on.		

SD SCALE TO BE COMPLETED BY CHILDRENINSTRUCTIONS

In this section, there are line scales which could show how you feel about certain matters. Each scale offers five possible answers.

Suppose you have to show your feelings about WORK on the scale "good-bad" you could do this by placing a cross (X) in the proper space on the scale. Your answer may take one of the following forms:

1. If you feel that WORK is the best, then you should place your cross in the following position:

good X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : bad

2. If you feel that WORK is fairly good sometimes, then you should place your cross in the following position:

good _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : bad

3. If you feel that WORK is neither good nor bad, then you should place your cross in the following position:

good _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : bad

4. If you feel that WORK is fairly bad sometimes, then you should place your cross in the following position:

good _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : bad

5. If you feel that WORK is the worst thing, then you should place your cross in the following position:

good _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : bad

Remember that there are no right or wrong answers. What is important is that you must be honest in your response. Now proceed to rate the following:

MYSELF (as I see myself)

good	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	bad
ugly	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	beautiful
important	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	unimportant
sad	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	happy
kind	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	cruel
irresponsible	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	responsible
reliable	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	unreliable
useless	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	useful
friendly	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	unfriendly
unsuccessful	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	successful
impatient	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	patient
obedient	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	disobedient
suspicious	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	trusting

MY FAMILY

good	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	bad
ugly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	beautiful
important	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unimportant
sad	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	happy
kind	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cruel
dangerous	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	safe
reliable	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unreliable
useless	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	useful
friendly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unfriendly
warm	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cold

MY FATHER

good	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	bad
ugly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	beautiful
important	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unimportant
sad	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	happy
kind	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cruel
dangerous	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	safe
reliable	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unreliable
useless	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	useful
friendly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unfriendly
warm	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cold

MY MOTHER

good	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	bad
ugly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	beautiful
important	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unimportant
sad	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	happy
kind	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cruel
dangerous	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	safe
reliable	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unreliable
useless	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	useful
friendly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unfriendly
warm	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cold

MY TEACHER

good	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	bad
ugly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	beautiful
important	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unimportant
sad	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	happy
kind	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cruel
dangerous	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	safe
reliable	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unreliable
useless	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	useful
friendly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unfriendly
warm	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cold

MY SCHOOL

good	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	bad
ugly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	beautiful
important	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unimportant
sad	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	happy
kind	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cruel
dangerous	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	safe
reliable	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unreliable
useless	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	useful
friendly	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	unfriendly
warm	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	_____:	cold

SD SCALE TO BE COMPLETED BY MOTHERSINSTRUCTIONS

In this section, there are line scales which could show how you feel about certain matters. Each scale offers five possible answers.

Suppose you have to show your feelings about WORK on the scale "good-bad" you could do this by placing a cross (X) in the proper space on the scale. Your answer may take one of the following forms:

1. If you feel that WORK is the best, then you should place your cross in the following position:

good X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : bad

2. If you feel that WORK is fairly good sometimes, then you should place your cross in the following position:

good _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : bad

3. If you feel that WORK is neither good nor bad, then you should place your cross in the following position:

good _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : bad

4. If you feel that WORK is fairly bad sometimes, then you should place your cross in the following position:

good _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : bad

5. If you feel that WORK is the worst thing, then you should place your corss in the following position:

good _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : bad

Remember that there are no right or wrong answers. What is important is that you must be honest in your response. Now proceed to rate the following:

MYSELF (How I see myself)

good	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	bad
ugly	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	beautiful
important	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	unimportant
sad	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	happy
kind	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	cruel
irresponsible	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	responsible
reliable	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	unreliable
useless	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	useful
friendly	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	unfriendly
suspicious	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	trusting
impatient	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	patient
unsuccessful	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	_____	:	successful

MY CHILDREN

good	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	bad
ugly	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	beautiful
important	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	unimportant
sad	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	happy
kind	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	cruel
dangerous	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	safe
reliable	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	unreliable
useless	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	useful
friendly	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	unfriendly
warm	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	cold

MY HUSBAND/EX-HUSBAND

good	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	bad
ugly	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	beautiful
important	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	unimportant
sad	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	happy
kind	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	cruel
dangerous	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	safe
reliable	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	unreliable
useless	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	useful
friendly	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	unfriendly
warm	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	cold

MY RELATIVES AND FRIENDS

good	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	bad
ugly	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	beautiful
important	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	unimportant
sad	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	happy
kind	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	cruel
dangerous	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	safe
reliable	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	unreliable
useless	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	useful
friendly	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	unfriendly
warm	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	_____ :	cold

ROSENBERG'S SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Read each of the following statements. Consider whether each of them apply to yourself. Respond by stating how much you agree with each statement - strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree. Place a cross (X) in the appropriate space.

	YES	1	2	3	4	NO
		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	
1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.						
2. At times I think I am no good at all.						
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.						
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.						
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.						
6. I certainly feel useless at times.						
7. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.						
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.						
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.						
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.						

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS REGARDING FAMILY RELATIONS AND PROBLEMS[1] PRESENT FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

- (a) Describe (i) Your relationships with your children. _____

 (ii) Your husband's|ex husband's relationships with your children.

- (b) Describe your relationships with your relatives and friends. _____

- (c) Describe your relationships with your ex-husband. _____

(For Divorced Families only)

- (d) How often do the children spent time with their father? _____
- (e) How do they feel about a reconciliation? _____

[2] PAST FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

- (a) Describe any family disruptions in the past. _____
- (b) If there were arguments and fights describe how serious these were?

- (c) What effects did these have on:
 (i) the children (eating, sleeping habits etc.)? _____
 (ii) yourself? _____
- (d) How did the children react toward:
 (i) you (mother)? _____
 (ii) their father? _____

[3] PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED (PAST AND PRESENT)

- (a) Describe (i) Financial _____
 (ii) Housing _____
 (iii) Children: (1) Discipline _____
 (2) School _____
 (3) Other _____
- (b) Describe illness _____
- (c) Describe husband _____
- (d) Describe work (Employment) _____

[4] FAMILY ACHIEVEMENTS

Have you experienced any success in any area; for example, children, financial, etc. _____

[5] SOLVING PROBLEMS

- (a) How have you tried to solve your problems? _____
- (b) What worked best for you? _____
- (c) What else could be done? _____
- (d) What else do you wish for you or your family? _____

[6] REASON FOR DIVORCE/DEATH OF HUSBAND

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY TEACHERS

P U P I L

NAME:	
SEX:	AGE:
SCHOOL:	
STANDARD:	

T E A C H E R

NAME:	
SEX:	AGE:

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS

1. Describe some of the behaviour problems observed in this child

2. How well do you know this child?

VERY WELL	MODERATELY WELL	NOT VERY WELL

3. Would you anticipate the need for remedial instruction or special education for this child?

YES	NO

4. Would you anticipate the need to refer this child to a psychologist, student counsellor or social worker?

YES	NO