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DIFFERENTIAL MARRIAGE AND FAMILY PERCEPTIONS
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CARE INSTITUTIONS AND ADOLESCENTS LIVING IN
INTACT FAMILIES.

University of North Carolina at Greensboro,
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DIFFERENTIAL MARRIAGE AND FAMILY PERCEPTIONS AND
ATTITUDES OF ADOLESCENTS LIVING IN CHILD
CARE INSTITUTIONS AND ADOLESCENTS
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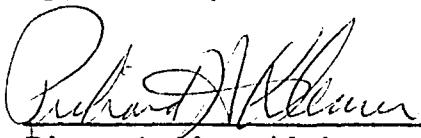
by

Charles William Snow

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Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL SHEET

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation
Adviser

Richard H. Kemer

Oral Examination
Committee Members

Rebecca M. Smith

Helen Canaday

E. D. Rallings

George E. North

June 11, 1970

Date of Examination

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The purpose of the present investigation was to determine and compare differences between adolescents who were living in a child care institution and adolescents who were living in intact family situations with respect to (1) Marriage role expectations, (2) Attitude toward marriage, (3) Attitude toward divorce, (4) Perceptions of generalized family interaction patterns, and (5) Family size preferences.

The sample consisted of 124, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade adolescents from child care institutions, a group of 135 intact family adolescents of middle-to-upper social class designation, and a group of 150 intact family adolescents of lower social class designation. The three groups were matched for grade level, race, and religion. The institutional subjects were obtained from four Protestant church-related children's homes in North Carolina, and the intact family subjects were obtained from two high schools in Guilford County, North Carolina.

The following measuring instruments were administered to the subjects in group situations: a short form of the Dunn Marriage Role Expectation Inventory, the Hill Favorableness of Attitude Toward Marriage Scale, the Hardy Divorce Opinionnaire, four scales developed by Slocum and Stone--Affection Scale, Cooperation Scale, Discipline Scale, Democracy Scale, four questions relative to family size

preferences, and eight sentence completion stems designed to obtain additional information relative to marriage and divorce attitudes.

Preliminary analyses of variance disclosed that the age of admission to an institution and separate institution of residence had little influence on the scores of the institutional subjects obtained by the various scales. It was thus possible to pool the institutional subjects into one group for comparison with the two control groups. Three-factor analyses of variance were then performed for the scores obtained by each of the scales. The chi square statistic was used to analyze the responses to the sentence completion stems.

The findings disclosed that: (1) the marriage role expectations of the institutional male and females did not differ, while the intact family males expressed more traditional role expectations than the intact family females; (2) the institutional adolescents expressed a significantly more negative attitude toward marriage than the intact family adolescents; (3) the institutional and intact family adolescents did not differ in scores on the divorce opinionnaire, and while they differed in responses to two sentence completion stems, the responses were not suggestive as to positive or negative attitudes toward divorce; (4) the institutional adolescents perceived patterns of interactions among family members to be less democratic, less affectionate, and less fair in discipline of children than the intact

family adolescents, but the institutional and intact family subjects did not differ in their perceptions of cooperation between family members; (5) ideal family size estimates of the institutional and intact family adolescents did not differ significantly; (6) the institutional and intact family adolescents differed in estimates of large family size, and the number of children which they desired and planned to have, but the pattern of differences was not completely clear due to the apparent complexity of grade, social class, and age of admission to an institution influences.

The overall conclusion of the investigation was that, in some respects, the outcome of the process of socialization for marriage and parenthood is different for adolescents who live in an institutional setting and adolescents who live in an intact family.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It has long been assumed by many leading scholars in the field of family sociology that the family is the primary socialization agency for training the young in marital roles.¹ The position that socialization for both marriage and parenthood begins in the family seems to be widely accepted.

Yet if marriage and family life images, expectations and attitudes are thus basically formed and reinforced by parental models, what happens to children who experience discontinuity or upset of family living with respect to socialization for marriage and parenthood? Increasingly this question is being asked in many different ways. For example, June Foster (1964) has raised the question as to whether, in today's world, the theory that the mother and father provide the models for learning appropriate family roles is realistic or idealistic. She points out that "when many fathers are 'week-end' fathers, when the number of broken homes are increasing, when there are more fatherless families, the development of a father concept can be

¹This assumption will be cited and discussed in the review of literature.

extremely difficult for children (1964, p. 353)."

Larger questions can be raised concerning the family models provided children and youth who have been separated from both parents and are being reared in an institutional setting rather than a nuclear or extended family. How do children and young people residing in orphanage-type child care institutions learn about marriage and relationships within families? Are their perceptions of marriage roles different from children who remain in their family of orientation? What are their attitudes and expectations with respect to marriage and parenthood?

The Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare estimated that 77,300 children were residing in 1,483 institutions for dependent and neglected children in 1964 (Low, 1965, p. 5). It has been pointed out that these institutions, which have been traditionally known as "orphanages," have been losing population for several decades. In 1933, an estimated 144,000 children resided in these facilities as compared with 95,073 in 1950, and the estimate of 77,300 for 1964. In analyzing this trend, however, Low concluded that "It appears likely that the rate of population decline will slacken and at some point the trend will level off (1965, p. 5)." It thus appears that child care institutions will continue to serve a necessary function in providing a home for children from broken families.

Research Needed

A number of research studies have dealt with marriage and family perceptions, expectations and attitudes of adolescents. Some of the specific topics which have been studied are: marriage role expectations (Dunn, 1959; Moser, 1960); perception of family power structure (Bowerman and Elder, 1964); family decision making (Johannis and Rollins, 1959, 1960); conceptions of parents (Wright, 1962); and attitudes toward courtship and marriage (Punke, 1942; Purdue Opinion Panel, 1961, Garrison, 1966). These studies have dealt primarily with adolescents, but have been limited to adolescents from intact families.

A large body of literature is concerned with father absence and its effects on sex role learning, a subject having implications for parental and marital socialization (Hill and Aldous, 1969, p. 896). At least a few studies have compared teenagers from homes broken by divorce, separation, and death with teenagers from unbroken homes, both happy and unhappy, with respect to certain social-psychological characteristics and adjustments (Landis, 1953; Nye, 1957; Burchinal, 1964). However, the groups of subjects from broken homes did not include institutionalized adolescents.

Johnson (1952) and Elias (1952) conducted studies in which institutionalized delinquent adolescents were compared with adolescents from intact families. Johnson's study

dealt with parental concepts, while Elias' study was concerned with feelings of intrafamily homeyness-homelessness. Subjects from other types of child care institutions were not included.

The effects of maternal deprivation and institutionalization have been dealt with extensively. This research, however, has not dealt with factors relating to socialization for marriage and parenthood probably because of the heavy emphasis on cognitive and personality functioning of the child who grows up without a mother (Hill and Aldous, 1969, p. 898).

It is apparent that questions relating to socialization for marriage and parenthood in child care institutions have, for the most part, escaped the attention of sociological theory and research. The general need for research within child care institutions was recognized in a workshop for executives of children's institutions held in North Carolina (Chapel Hill Workshops, Part 2, 1963, p. 15). The obvious need for an exploratory study in this area has lead to this investigation.

Clarification of Terms Used

In general, a child care institution may be defined as "a facility that offers total substitute care for the child whose parents cannot and/or will not implement their parental roles (Kadushin, p. 517)." However, there are many

different types of institutions serving different kinds of children, such as institutions for juvenile delinquents and institutions for physically handicapped children. In the present study the term child care institution refers to "a twenty-four hour residential group care facility for the normal, but dependent and neglected child (Kadushin, p. 517)."

An intact family refers to an unbroken family in which both biological parents are present.

The terms marriage role expectations, traditional roles, and equalitarian roles are defined on the basis of Dunn's (1959) work as follows: Marriage role expectations refer to functions or behaviors which are expected of the self and of a marriage partner in the areas of authority, homemaking, care of children, personal characteristics, social participation and education. Traditional roles refer to separate and distinct functions for the husband and the wife. For example, the husband does outside or heavy work while the wife does housework and cooking. The husband is expected to assume the dominant role in authority and decision making. Equalitarian roles relate to a pattern of shared responsibility and interdependency between husband and wife. For example, housework is the responsibility of whoever has time. Neither spouse assumes the dominant role in authority and decision making. Operationally defined, marriage role expectations refer to the respondent's score

on the short form of the Dunn Marriage Role Expectation Inventory which will be used in this study (see Appendix B).

Families are sometimes regarded as social systems which can be classified into types according to their position on any of many indices of family culture. The term family interaction patterns refers to parent-child behavior with respect to (1) the extent to which democracy is practiced by parents; (2) the extent of cooperation in the home; (3) the fairness of discipline in the home; and (4) the degree of affection existing in the family. In the present study, a generalized or stereotyped image of family interaction patterns will be elicited rather than the respondent's image of his own particular family. Operationally defined, family interaction patterns refer to the respondent's scores on the Slocum and Stone Scales of Family Culture Patterns (see Appendix B).

The term attitude toward marriage has been used by Hill (1951) to refer to the value which is attached to marriage as a desirable or undesirable state for oneself, reflecting one's own personal motivation to marry or not to marry. Operationally defined, attitude toward marriage refers to the respondent's score on the Hill Favorableness of Attitude To Marriage Scale (see Appendix B).

The term attitude toward divorce has been used to include opinions and feelings which one has with respect to the nature of the marriage contract, divorce as a solution

to an unhappy marriage, the effects of divorce upon children and society, the degree of abuse of divorce and the obligations partners should feel to remain married (Shaw and Wright, 1967, p. 106). Operationally defined, attitude toward divorce refers to the respondent's score on the Hardy Divorce Opinionnaire (see Appendix B).

Purpose of the Study

The present study has been designed to determine what differences, if any, exist between adolescents who are residing in child care institutions and adolescents from intact families with respect to their beliefs and attitudes about marriage and family living. The following factors have been delineated from the literature on socialization for marriage and parenthood for specific consideration:

1. Marriage role expectations
2. Attitude toward marriage
3. Attitude toward divorce
4. Perceptions of generalized family interaction patterns relative to discipline, cooperation, affection, and democracy.
5. Family size preferences relative to desired and planned number of children, plus perception of how many children are necessary to constitute a large family and an ideal family.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Research which deals directly with the marriage and family life perceptions and attitudes of adolescents residing in child care institutions appears to be virtually nonexistent. There is, however, some general literature and several studies related to this problem area which provide a theoretical background for this study.

This review will include literature relative to adolescent (1) marriage roles expectations, (2) marriage attitudes, (3) attitudes toward divorce, (4) family interaction patterns, (5) and family size preferences. Also included is a brief review of the literature concerning the effects of broken homes, maternal deprivation and institutionalization on socialization and personality development.

Marriage Roles

It is generally believed that marriage role expectations are learned primarily in the family of orientation. Burgess and Locke (1953, p. 240) have suggested that the expectations of his family prepare the child for his future roles in the community and in his own marriage. These roles may later be challenged by divergent expectations of other persons, but the basic habits and standards are formed

within the environment of the home. According to Waller and Hill (1951), a person takes up a particular role of husband or wife at the time of marriage because the whole course of that person's previous learning has given him a set in that direction. From the very outset of marriage the roles which one plays tend to approximate those previously played by the parental models (Waller and Hill, 1951, p. 261).

Cottrell (1933, p. 10) contends that marriage adjustment is a process in which marriage partners attempt to re-enact certain relational systems or situations they acquired in their own earlier family group.

A number of studies have dealt with adolescent concepts of various family roles. Walters and Ojeman (1952) conducted a study of the attitudes of adolescents toward the role of women. One-hundred and thirty-two high school students were offered situations by which women could be placed in a super-ordinate, partnership, or sub-ordinate position. Their data revealed that boys, more often than girls, placed girls in a super-ordinate position. Some girls chose the sub-ordinate role for wives, but not as often as the partnership role.

An investigation of intra-familial concepts of father, mother and child roles was carried out by Minor, Johannis, and Walters (1954). Open-ended questions were presented to 26 families of Florida State University students in which the father, mother, and college-age daughter

were asked to respond. Traditional-developmental role concepts were used to classify responses, and thus to indicate the adolescent's idea of "good parent" and "good child." The traditional good father was defined in terms of providing for the family financially and disciplining the children, while the traditional good mother was described as one who does the household tasks, teaches religious values, and sets a good example. In contrast, the developmental good father and mother were viewed as individuals who foster the growth and development of the child and other family members in the home situation. A majority of the respondents were found to be classified as "intermediate" in response rather than falling into either of the two extreme categories. A comparison of the adolescents and their parents leads the authors to conclude that a developmental view of family life is more generally accepted among young people than among parents. However, a subsequent investigation by Connor, Greene, and Walters (1958) with tenth grade students failed to support this conclusion.

Johannis (1955) investigated the view of father roles in relation to socio-economic class among adolescents. He found significant differences between middle and lower classes in only six of sixteen analyses dealing with "who usually performed and who usually decided who was to perform" each of fifty-three family activities in the areas of household tasks, child care and control functions, economic

functions, and social functions. Johannis noted that, for the families in his study, far more similarities than differences in father participation exist between the two socio-economic classes in the areas of family life investigated.

A group of 572 teenage students who responded to 54 family relationship items in a study by Fowler (1958) held varying attitudes. Eighty-one per cent expressed agreement with items classified as developmental, 57 per cent with items classified as traditional, and 43 per cent with items classified as anarchistic. No significant differences were found between the responses of boys and girls, between younger and older adolescents, or between the socio-economic classes when related to the total group of items characteristic of the three specified family types.

Other studies have dealt with adolescent perception of family roles with respect to decision making. Johannis and Rollins (1959) analyzed data collected from 1,584 tenth graders and reported 63 per cent perceived mothers and fathers as being equal in power. Only 15 per cent saw the father as the decision maker and only 10 per cent thought the mother was dominant. Significantly more male than female respondents perceived their families as patricentric, and more females than males as either equalitarian or democratic in the sense of using a family council.

Working with a sample of 1,861 children, ages seven

through 15, Hess and Torney (1962) found sex, age and religious differences in perception of the boss in the family. Girls reported the father as boss in the family significantly less frequently than boys, and girls also reported significantly more frequently that both parents were equal in power. The percentage of children reporting the father as boss decreased in both sexes with age, while the percentage reporting both as boss increased with age. Children reporting Catholic religious affiliations perceived either the father or the mother as boss rather than equally shared authority significantly more frequently than Protestant children. An analysis of the children's perception of social class levels revealed no significant differences.

Bowerman and Elder (1964) found that the largest proportion of adolescents in their study reported that their parents had equal power in family decision making with husband-dominance and wife-dominance next in order of prevalence. Husband-dominance was most often reported by middle-class older boys, while lower-class older girls most often described their families as wife-dominant. Older adolescents were reported as more likely to perceive the father as having the final say on family matters while the younger adolescents are more likely to perceive equality between parents. Girls more often than boys perceived their families as mother-dominant. The same sex parent was reported as the principal authority figure more often than the parent

of the opposite sex. This particular finding is consistent with Bronfenbrenner's (1961) data from adolescents which showed a difference between boys and girls in their attribution of decision making in the family, with each sex tending to see their same sex parent as more influential.

The research cited thus far relates to the role concepts of adolescents relative to their family of orientation or the family of others. Additional studies have dealt with the question of how the adolescent perceives his own role, and the role of his mate, in his own future marriage. In 1953 Kommarovsky estimated that 90 per cent of college girls want to work before marriage. She also estimated that after marriage approximately 50 per cent want to engage exclusively in homemaking, 20 per cent want to combine a career and marriage, and about 30 per cent want to work, have their children, and then return to a career. These estimates were based on studies conducted on several college campuses which were not identified (Kommarovsky, 1953).

An effort was made by Lu (1952) to construct a scale to predict whether the roles of husband and wife in marriage would be dominant, equalitarian, or submissive. He developed a scale of eleven predictive factors based on the backgrounds of 593 couples which he studied before and after marriage: (1) conflict with father, (2) conflict with mother, (3) wife's home discipline, (4) reaction to home discipline, (5) attachment to mother, (6) reaction to

authority, (7) wife's birth order in the family, (8) husband's rating of relative mental ability with spouse's, (9) wife's rating of relative mental ability with spouse's, (10) voting preference for president, and (11) educational differences of spouse's. An example of how these factors were used in the predictive process is seen in the use of the finding of absence of conflict with mother on the part of both husband and wife to predict an equalitarian role. Lu did not consider his scale adequate and urged the development of more and better predictors which would include other background factors not included in his study.

Sex, age, and place of residence were associated with adolescent's expectations concerning working wives in a study by Payne (1956). Over half of the 485 girls in his study expected to work, while three-fourths of the 416 boys did not expect their wives to work.

Dyer and Urban (1958) conducted a study involving 300 single students and 100 married couples at Brigham Young University in an attempt to explore the institutionalization of equalitarian family norms. They reported that equalitarianism breaks down more readily in the area of homemaking than in any other. The subjects included in their study showed a distinct preference for the traditional division of labor between the sexes. In other areas, including child-rearing, more equalitarian role expectations were revealed.

A marriage role expectation inventory was developed

by Dunn (1959) which was administered to 436 high school students. The inventory is divided into seven sub-scales--authority, homemaking, care of children, personal characteristics, social participation, education, financial support and employment--and is scored in relation to traditional, intermediate, or equalitarian expectations. Dunn found that the majority of the high school students in her sample held equalitarian or intermediate role conceptions as reflected by total scores on the inventory. In analyzing the data, she found that traditional expectations of husband and wife roles in marriage are significantly more frequent among boys, rural residents and lower class teen-agers, while equalitarian expectations are found more often among girls, urban, and upper-class respondents. A summary of findings by sub-scales reveals that more boys than girls expressed traditional conceptions in the areas of authority, care of children, personal characteristics, financial support and employment, with girls expressing traditional expectations more frequently than boys in the single area of homemaking.

A second study was conducted by Moser (1960) using Dunn's instrument. Contrary to what was expected on the basis of Dunn's previous study, Moser found that total marriage role expectation scores were independent of sex, social status, religious affiliation, mental maturity scores, number of siblings, and sex of siblings. When the scores for the sub-scales were analyzed, Moser concluded that his study

supports the findings of Dunn "that adolescents tend to be most equalitarian in the areas of social participation, personal characteristics, and care of children, while being least equalitarian in the areas of homemaking and employment (1960, p. 92)." Marriage role expectations were related to the sex of the respondents in the areas of authority, homemaking, and employment. The variable of social class was significantly associated with only one area--that of education.

Studies reviewed thus far have dealt with marriage role perceptions and expectations of adolescents from intact family situations. While no studies have been found specifically on marriage role perceptions of adolescents from broken homes, there are a few studies which deal with the impact of father-absence on sex-role identification. Lynn and Sawrey (1959) studied the effects of father-absence on Norwegian boys and girls. The father-absent boys were less secure in their masculine identification and showed more compensatory aggressive behavior than father-present boys. Similar results were obtained by D'Andrade (1962). Five-to-fourteen-year-old Negro boys without fathers described themselves in much the same way as did Negro girls in the same ages. Boys from intact families used a larger number of masculine terms than girls from intact families. Both of these studies support the conclusion that father-absent boys have trouble achieving masculine sex-role identification.

Research findings in this review of marriage roles have been fairly consistent, although not completely unanimous, in revealing that the majority of adolescents perceive marriage roles in equalitarian terms. However, exceptions to this trend have been noted in some areas, especially that of homemaking. In general, boys express more traditional marriage role perceptions and expectations than girls. In addition to sex, religion, age, social class and place of residence have been cited in one or more studies as variables which influence marriage role perceptions. Apart from sex, there is little agreement among the various studies as to the relative potency of these factors. No research seems to be available with respect to marriage role expectations among young people from broken homes. Two studies, however, have indicated that boys from father-absent homes have difficulty achieving appropriate sex-role identification.

Attitude Toward Marriage

Socialization for marriage and parenthood begins in the parental family (Hill and Aldous, 1969, p. 889). Levy and Monroe have pointed out that

People do not marry because it is their social duty to perpetuate the institution of the family. . . . They marry because they have lived in families as children and still cannot get over the feeling that being in a family is the only proper, indeed the only possible way to live (1936, p. 3).

Paul Wallin (1954) points out that children who grow up in America today are exposed to a number of experiences

which contribute to their conception of marriage and influence their evaluation of marriage as a relatively desirable or undesirable status for themselves. Some of these experiences are indirect, such as exposure to the representations of marriage in the mass media. More directly, however, marriage is defined for the young by the marital relationships of their parents. They first, and most continuously encounter marriage in the home, not as a fiction or concept, but as modeled in the behavior of their fathers and mothers. To the extent that marriage as thus directly known is perceived as a highly satisfying experience, the conception of marriage, vicariously assimilated through the mass media, as a highly attractive and desirable status is reinforced or at least not contradicted. But insofar as the parental marriage relationship is perceived by the child as conflict habituated and unhappy, his conception of marriage as a desirable goal may be challenged and his enthusiasm for marriage diminished.

Wallin (1954) hypothesized that there is a positive association between marital success of parents and their children's attitude to marriage. He tested this hypothesis in a study of unmarried students between the ages of 16 and 27 using the Attitude Toward Marriage Scale developed by Richard J. Hill (1951). Wallin's hypothesis was supported by the male subjects, but the female students were so unanimously favorable toward marriage that even those from

unhappy homes wanted to marry and anticipated marriage as a source of happiness and satisfaction.

A survey of several thousand high school youth dealing with the ages which they consider best for marriage, and whether or not the youths themselves expect to marry, was conducted by Punke (1942). In general, high school freshmen placed the best age for marriage at a younger age (under 22 for men, and under 19 for women) than seniors. The percentage of subjects who expected not to marry was larger for freshmen (26.3) than for seniors (16), and larger for boys (26.3) than for girls. Punke concluded that high school youth of both sexes considered the ages of 20-25, inclusive, as the best marrying ages for persons of both sexes.

In a study involving children ranging from 10 to 17 years in age Broderick (1965) found that 67 per cent of 10 to 11 year-old boys and 79 per cent of the 10 to 11 year-old girls wanted to get married some day. The older children were even more affirmative in their desire to get married some day (75 per cent of 17 year-old boys and 94 per cent of the 17 year-old girls). The larger percentage of girls than boys expressing a positive attitude toward marriage was obvious in both age categories. The results of Broderick's study are consistent with Punke's findings.

Additional results of Broderick's study suggest that the motivation to marry may be less among father-absent boys. Of 172 Negro adolescent boys predominantly from unskilled

backgrounds, 34 per cent of whom were from fatherless homes, older youths actually showed a decreasing interest in being married. Separate analysis revealed that children from intact families were significantly more positive in their attitudes toward marriage (cited by Hill and Aldous [1969] from a personal communication from Broderick).

King (1944) conducted a study on the attitudes toward marriage and motherhood of 183 college women. An analysis of the data revealed that both urban and rural college females have basically the same attitudes toward marriage. Of the 115 urban college women, 113, or 98 per cent, registered a definite desire to marry. The same was found to be true of the 68 rural college girls; 67 or 98 per cent had a positive attitude toward marriage. The majority of both urban and rural women indicated that their preference for marriage was based on "desire for companionship" and "desire for security." The three girls who indicated no desire for marriage indicated that marriage would probably interfere with their pursuit of a career.

In a study comparing college student's preferences about marriage with parent's behavior patterns, Rose (1955) found that preferred age at marriage closely correlated with parents' actual age at marriage. However, he found no intergenerational continuity with respect to desired family size or choice of occupation. Rose stated, "Our findings have indicated that children select, consciously or uncon-

sciously, some of the patterns of their parents as models for their behavior but ignore others (1955, p. 9)."

In the studies which have been reviewed on attitudes toward marriage, it is obvious that girls express a more positive attitude than boys toward marriage. There appears to be some indication that male attitudes toward marriage are affected by the marital happiness and success of their parents. It was pointed out by Hill and Aldous (1969) that the few studies which exist in this area are inadequately designed to confirm or refute speculations about the impact of early socialization in generating the motivation to marry. However, they did conclude that "The parents' marriage pattern does make a difference in making marriage as a way of life attractive to its offspring, especially for boys whose occupational careers provide alternative adult roles (p. 890)."

Attitude Toward Divorce

People generally enter marriage with the idea of a continuing union. Relatively few think of possible divorce, and even fewer marry with the idea that the relationship will probably be temporary. Approximately 90 per cent of 1,151 college students in one survey indicated that when they married they would consider it for life. Only seven per cent said that they would feel free to get a divorce if the marriage did not succeed (Bowman, 1965, p. 327).

The above study cited by Bowman may be contrasted with a study by Bernard (1938). From a group of 500 university students, 87 per cent agreed that divorce was an expedient social device, and registered no opposition to it on moral, ethical or religious grounds. The males in the sample were above the total group average with 94 per cent favoring divorce, while the females were below the average, with only 81 per cent. A sharper division was apparent on the question of increasing the grounds for divorce with only 39 per cent of the total feeling that such procedure was advisable. Analysis by sex showed that 56 per cent of the males felt that the grounds for divorce should be increased, as compared with only 22 per cent of the females. Both sexes joined in almost unanimously counseling caution, and advising a trial period before divorce.

Freeman and Showel (1950) conducted a study on familism and attitude toward divorce in which they hypothesized:

If (a) familialistic attitudes and beliefs (emphasis on the family as a unit rather than the individual) contribute to the success or failure of marriage, and (b) if attitude toward divorce can be considered one aspect of the whole familialistic orientation, then it is hypothesized that these factors found to be significantly associated with success or failure in marriage will similarly be found associated with attitude toward divorce (p. 313).

From their study they concluded that this hypothesis could be accepted. While this study was based on data from adult rather than teen-age subjects, it at least points to the

importance of attitudes toward divorce.

In summary, the review of literature on divorce reveals that there is apparently little research relative to attitudes toward divorce, especially among adolescents. It was concluded in one study that there may be an association between attitudes toward divorce and success or failure in marriage. The results of the two additional studies reviewed were somewhat contradictory. Subjects in one study displayed a rather negative attitude toward divorce, while subjects in the other study were more positive in attitude.

Perceptions of Family Interaction Patterns

Adolescent images of parent-child interaction patterns with respect to democracy, cooperation, discipline, and affection have been identified as being important influences in the socialization of adolescents, especially in relation to interests and activities. Slocum and Stone (1963) studied teenagers' perceptions of their family culture or interaction patterns and the influence of family culture on certain school-related interests and activities. Four Guttman-type scales were developed to study the following intra-familial interactions which appeared to them to be of most importance in socialization of adolescents: (1) The extent to which democracy is practiced by parents; (2) The extent of cooperation in the home; (3) The fairness of discipline in the home; and (4) The degree of affection existing

in the family. They pointed out that the family that is very democratically managed, whose members are very affectionate and highly cooperative, and that is characterized by fair discipline would be rated by most contemporary American students of the family as a more desirable family than one which is characterized by opposite terms, such as very undemocratic. Based on data provided by 160 high school students, they concluded that there is sufficient evidence to confirm the hypothesis that family interaction patterns exercise important, though differing, influences on adolescent interests and activities. It was noted, however, that the relative weakness of the associations observed suggested that the four aspects of family interaction patterns examined do not account for the bulk of the variation in teen-age behavior reflected by the indices used in the study.

The father images of twenty father-separated children from six to ten years of age, were compared with these of twenty father-present children in a study by Bach (1946). The doll-play fantasies of the father-absent group produced an idealistic picture of fathers who gave and received much affection, who often had a good time with his family, and who showed very little hostility and exerted very little authority. The children of the control group, however, elaborated significantly more on the punitive function of the father and his contribution to intra-family hostility.

An investigation of the father image of Belgian male

adolescents deprived of their father was reported by Collette (1961). His research included 32 boys, from 15 to 18 years of age, who had been temporarily or completely deprived of their fathers. Comparisons were made between these adolescents and a group of boys from father-present homes.

Collette concluded that the father images of the subjects who lost their fathers after the age of five did not differ significantly from those father images of the subjects from intact families. However, the results of adolescents who lost their father before the fifth year revealed significant differences. In the father-present adolescents, a well structured father image exists, but in father-separated boys the father image is generally absent, vague, or represented by a female figure. In contrast, the father image of the father-present adolescents was characterized by power, aggression, and virility. Collette concluded that this study illustrates the importance of childhood, especially the first six years, in the formation of the father image.

Adolescent perception of disciplinary role structure within the family may vary as a function of age. Henry (1957) hypothesized that the oldest child tends to perceive the father as the principal disciplinarian while the youngest child views the mother as principal disciplinarian. This hypothesis was tested on two samples of students. One group of 335 subjects was obtained from high schools in Massachusetts. Most of the subjects in this group were

Catholics. The other sample was composed of 391 college students and 226 high school students from Tennessee which included a majority of Protestants. Henry concluded that his hypothesis was confirmed by the data from both groups.

The research reviewed thus far in this area relates to images of family interaction patterns which exist in the subjects' own families. A study was conducted by Petrich and Chadderon (1969) to ascertain the family beliefs of pupils with reference to an "ideal-type" construct. A continuum of beliefs with the polar points represented as the Traditional Family and the Emerging Family was used. An inventory of family beliefs consisting of three scales--Importance of the Family, Parent-Child Interaction, and Family Unity--was constructed by the authors for use in the study. Traditional family beliefs were characterized by such things as definite differentiation between male and female roles and between adult and child roles, and behavior, obedience, and discipline and obedience patterns based on authority and customs. In contrast, emerging family beliefs depict an interchange of male and female roles with behavior, discipline and obedience patterns based on bonds of affection. A total of 501 Junior High school students were used in the study. The authors concluded that, for the three scales, boys held more traditional beliefs than girls in all grades, and ninth-grade pupils held more emerging beliefs than seventh and eighth-grade pupils. The differences were

attributed to a number of factors such as maturation, changing adolescent roles in their families, or family life education classes. The more traditional beliefs of seventh-grade and eighth-grade pupils were seen as possibly related to their stage of maturation.

Mayer (1967) has pointed out that people's imagery of other families may shed light on family interaction. According to his theory, members of families will probably have different images of how husbands, wives, and children in other families relate to each other. Such images may range all the way from those which are very sharp to those which are hazy, or even non-existent. For example, various images may exist about how family members feel about each other, how they treat each other, and what they expect of each other. It was suggested that their mental imagery of other families may significantly affect the manner in which they interact within their own families. Mayer pointed to the lack of research on this topic and the need to obtain data about the kinds of mental pictures that husbands, wives, and children actually have of other people's familial relationships.

The influence of family size on adolescents' perception of interaction patterns in the home was considered in a study by Templeton (1962). He found that teenagers from smaller families perceived family authority patterns as being more democratic than teenagers from larger families.

Also, scores which he obtained on a fairness of discipline scale revealed a similar pattern with small-family children more often expressing approval of the discipline in their home.

In a comparative study of 113 adolescents from a school for delinquent boys and a group of 111 public school students from intact families, Johnson (1952) found that adolescents separated from their families revealed a significantly more positive attitude toward parents and toward "family." He also found that a higher proportion of statements depicting parents as nonauthoritative was made by the institutionalized adolescents. He concluded that "it would appear that it is more important to adolescents separated from their families to attribute nonauthoritativeness to their parents than it is to adolescents who are living with their families (1952, p. 789)."

In summary, adolescent images of parent-child interaction patterns with respect to democracy, cooperation, discipline, and affection were identified as being important to the socialization of adolescents. Studies of parental images of children and youth suggest that enforced separation from one or both parental figures who might be expected to provide support, discipline, affection, and guidance heightens the attraction of these figures and produces an idealized, distorted, or hazy image of the missing parent. One research study concluded that the first six years of

childhood may be a critical period for the formation of the father image.

Family Size Preferences

Research specifically related to adolescent family size preferences is rather limited, but two studies indicate that the average number of children desired ranged from two to four. During the depression years, Bell (1938) obtained views of 11,707 Maryland youth on the number of children desired in their family of procreation. Over a thousand wanted no children at all, and the median number was 2.7. Forty-four per cent of both sexes thought two children was the ideal number. A slight difference of one-tenth of one per cent was found between rural and urban youth. Bell suggested that experiencing the depression influenced family size preferences. The Purdue Opinion Poll for Young People conducted in 1949 with a nationwide sample of high school youth showed their ideal family size preference to be slightly higher. Only two per cent of the sample wanted no children, 41 per cent wanted one or two children, 48 per cent wanted three or four children, and nine per cent wanted five or more children (Remmers and Shimenz, 1949).

Preferences of college students were examined in a study by Schmid and Engle (1942). Their findings revealed that 61.3 per cent of the women respondents indicated a desire for three or more children, while only 45.7 per cent

of the male respondents wanted a corresponding number. This was interpreted to mean that female respondents desire or plan for significantly more children than the males. Practically no relationship was found between attitudes concerning family size and number of siblings, church attendance, religious preference, and parental income. In comparing their study to a public opinion survey on family size, the authors concluded that the manner in which questions regarding family size are formulated has a significant influence on the reliability of the data obtained. They pointed out that responses to the question, "What do you consider the ideal size of a family?" cannot be interpreted to mean that the respondent desires or plans to have that particular number in his own family. They emphasized the need for using additional questions such as, "How many children would you like to have?" and "How many children do you plan to have?"

There is evidently very little recent literature concerned with family size preferences of adolescents. However, there is a rather large body of literature on family size preferences among the general population. Blake (1966) reviewed 13 studies on ideal family size among white Americans conducted between 1940 and 1965. The following conclusions were reached:

- (1) Recent research on American fertility has established that parental desires actually fall within a range of two to four children. The two-to-four range has encompassed the ideals of approximately 80 to 90 per cent of American men and women

since the middle of the 1930's. However, within this range, there was a shift away from the two-and-three child family to the three-and-four child family. This trend implies that the image of a "planned family" of two, or at the most, three children is archaic. For approximately 40 per cent of female respondents in the various studies reviewed, excess fertility (fertility over and above the ideal) begins only with the fifth child.

(2) Mean ideal size during the last quarter of a century (1940-1965) has varied for both sexes by about one child at the most. For women the mean never rises above 3.6 children or falls below 2.7. Men typically want the same size family or they want fewer children.

(3) A comparison of family-size ideals among age groups reveals a linear relationship with age. Older people tend to have larger family ideals (p. 163).

More recently Chilman (1968) reviewed nine research studies on family planning from which she concluded that "at all socio-economic levels in this country and in other countries studied, the average number of children which respondents say they desire is between two and four (p. 215.)" While the size range supports Blake's findings, Chilman did not find the same trend within this range away from the two-to-three family to a three-and-four family. To the contrary, she concluded that the arrival of a fourth child seems to represent a critical point for a family. Even for the relatively few families which had expressed a desire for more than two or three children, this wish is likely to be changed after the arrival of the fourth child.

A number of theorists and researchers have noted a generational continuity, especially among larger families,

in family size. In a United Nations review of world population trends it was concluded that "The family size of parents exerts a definite, although small, differentiating effect on fertility (United Nations, 1953, p. 90)." A similar conclusion was reached by Duncan and others (1965) in a study on the relationship of marital fertility and size of the family of orientation. They predicted that "The small minority of large families in the current generation will be produced by those who come from large families themselves (p. 515)."

Duncan and his co-authors (1965) point to a number of possible explanations for the apparent correlation between family size of the family of orientation and the family of procreation. It is possible that in some cases, successive generations of a family physically inherit some trait associated with fertility or infertility (e.g. blood type). A second explanation is based on the assumption that children learn from their parents a set of norms and attitudes which later influence their own family planning decisions. Thus, to the extent that it is possible they will tend to reproduce a family of similar size.

The second explanation served as a basis for a study by Hendershot (1969), who examined the following hypotheses: (1) family size preferences for the family of procreation are related to the size of the family of orientation; (2) the relationship is stronger among those who feel "close" to

their families (who were assumed to be more satisfied with their families); and (3) the relationship is stronger among firstborn women (who were assumed to have greater conformity needs). He concluded that interview and questionnaire data from a sample of 389 college freshmen supported these hypotheses.

Westoff and Potvin (1967) asserted that the individual's family size values are determined initially in late childhood and early adolescence by the family sizes to which he is exposed. This includes the number of his own brothers and sisters as well as the range of family sizes perceived among his friends, neighbors and other reference groups.

"There seems to be every reason to believe that children learn family size norms in much the same way they acquire many other values in the area of social behavior (p. 141)."

Chilman (1968) pointed out that a number of speculative theories have been advanced with respect to the psychological factors involved in the desire for no children, a few children, or many children. Hypotheses related to these theories have tended to cluster around such ideas as female resistance to woman's sex role, male and female anxiety over sexual adequacy, and infantile impulsiveness. Chilman could find no research evidence to support such "hunches." The few studies which attempted to get at such psychological factors failed to provide any clear-cut results. She concluded that "family size preferences apparently are a

complex matter involving interactions of psychological, physical, cultural, religious, educational, economic, and situational factors operating in the dynamic context of family life (Chilman, 1968, p. 214)."

A study was conducted by Westoff and Potvin (1967) on the relationship between higher education, religious preference, and social class on the fertility values of college women. From this investigation it was concluded that the amount of higher education exerts very little or no effect on fertility values or attitudes toward family planning for a large representative sample of college women from all major religions in the United States as well as for women with no religious preference. In addition, an analysis of social class background revealed no association with family size preferences or family planning intentions. However, for all religious groups, and especially for Mormons and Catholics, there was a positive association between religious affiliation and the number of children desired and a negative correlation with intentions to plan fertility. Among Protestant women a family of five or more children was considered large and a family of two or fewer was small. The average family size considered either small or large averaged about 15 to 30 per cent higher for Mormons and Catholics. The average Jewish perception of both the small family and large family was lower than for women of all other religions.

Studies have consistently shown that family size preferences for most people of all ages in America range between two and four children. However, within this range, preferences vary from two-to-three and three-to-four, and there is disagreement with respect to the dominant preference. Where sex differences are noted, men typically want fewer children than women. There is some evidence to indicate that family size follows a generational pattern. There seems to be some support for the idea that family size values are learned in the family of orientation. Studies which have dealt with the psychological factors associated with fertility values are inconclusive.

Effects of Broken Home, Maternal Deprivation,
and Institutionalization

A few studies relative to the impact of a broken home on adolescent socialization have been discussed in the appropriate sections above. Additional studies have dealt with the social-psychological impact of a broken home, maternal deprivation and institutionalization on children, youth, and animals.

In a study comparing teen-agers from broken and intact families, Paul H. Landis (1953) found some significant, although not extreme, social-psychological differences between the two groups of youth. In a few areas, adolescents from broken homes seemed better adjusted than those

from unbroken homes. They participated more in family councils, shared more frequently in the consideration of parents' problems, and reported less prying and criticism by their parents. Adolescents from broken homes seemed to achieve economic maturity earlier than adolescents from unbroken homes.

Nye (1957) compared selected characteristics of high-school-age youth from unhappy intact families, happy and intact families, and several types of broken families. He concluded, that, as a group, adolescents in broken families show less psychosomatic illness, less delinquent behavior, and better adjustment to parents than adolescents in unhappy intact homes. They do not differ to a significant extent in relation to adjustment in school, church attendance, or delinquent companions.

Characteristics of adolescents from unbroken families, broken families headed only by the mother, and three types of reconstituted families were studied by Burchinal (1964). Nonsignificant differences were found among the measures of personality characteristics and various measures of social relationships such as participation in school or community activities between the five groups. He concluded that detrimental effects often associated with divorce or separation, were almost uniformly absent in his study. This was also true for some of the youth whose parents had remarried.

The effects of maternal deprivation on animals was

studied by H. F. Harlow in his experiments with primates. Harlow (1962) followed the development of young monkeys that he had taken away from their living mothers at birth and left with artificial mother surrogates. They grew up as physically healthy and strong monkeys, but showed infantile sexual behavior, absence of grooming, exaggerated aggression, and absence of affectional interaction.

In reviewing the literature on maternal deprivation and institutionalization, Yarrow (1961) concluded that there seems to be a core of consistency in the findings on the characteristics of children associated with institutional care. Some of the major characteristics which he identified are: general intellectual retardation, retardation in language functions, and social and personality disturbances centering around the capacity to establish and maintain close interpersonal relationships. These characteristics are attributed to the marked deprivation in infancy of sensory, social and affective stimulation which were frequently found to occur after placement in an institution. It is noted, however, that not all institutional children give evidence of intellectual or personality damage.

The effect of institutional living on personality development was studied by Williams (1966). She hypothesized that the inability to form close interpersonal relationships, the degree of aggression and the degree of apathy displayed are inversely related to the age at admission and

directly related to the length of stay in an institution. Data collected from residents of a child care institution revealed a tendency toward the hypothesized personality variables in certain resident groups, but no over-all conclusive support for the hypotheses was found.

Studies comparing teen-agers from broken and unbroken homes have not revealed extreme differences in social-psychological adjustment between the two groups. The effects of maternal deprivation have been associated with the difficulty of establishing hetero-sexual relations in both monkeys and humans. However, this difficulty was not conclusively found among residents of a child care institution.

Summary

It has been noted that socialization for both marriage and parenthood begins in the family of orientation. The importance of the parental home in influencing beliefs, attitudes, and values with respect to marriage and parenthood has been emphasized. The following trends related to this assumption may be delineated from the research reviewed above:

- (1) The large body of research on marriage role concepts and expectations does not deal directly with how marriages roles are learned, or the impact of family separation on beliefs about marriage roles. However, there is some

evidence to suggest that boys have difficulty achieving appropriate sex-role identification without a father model. It might be inferred that boys from father-absent homes are deprived of opportunities to learn from observation or interaction in the home important aspects of the husband-father role. Literature dealing with the effects of the absence of other family positions on role learning is largely non-existent.

(2) Although the research evidence is not entirely satisfactory, there is an indication that the happiness and stability of the parents' marriage does have an influence on the attitudes of males toward marriage. Males from unhappy or father-absent families more frequently display negative attitudes toward marriage than males from happy, intact families. Apparently the attitude of girls toward marriage is positive enough to compensate for difficulties in the parental marriage.

(3) The stability of the parental home apparently influences the parental images of children and youth. Children from broken homes appear to have difficulty forming realistic images of missing parental figures.

(4) There is some evidence of a family size relationship continuing through the generations, although explanations for this trend are not completely satisfactory. Some theorists and researchers have concluded that family size values are learned in the family of orientation.

(5) Maternal deprivation has been associated with difficulty in hetero-sexual relationships. However, this difficulty was not conclusively found among residents of a child care institution.

These trends in the literature tend to lend support to the assumption that the parental home is the primary source of perceptions, attitudes and values with respect to marriage and parenthood. One of the marked impressions which emerges from this review is the paucity of research on socialization for marriage and parenthood, particularly with respect to the effects of broken homes. The lack of literature relative to marriage and family perceptions, attitudes, and values of institutionalized adolescents is noticeable to an even greater extent.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of the present study was to determine what differences, if any, exist between adolescents who are residing in child care institutions and adolescents from intact families with respect to (1) Marriage role expectations; (2) Attitude toward marriage; (3) Attitude toward divorce; (4) Perceptions of generalized family culture patterns; and (5) Family size preferences.

Hypotheses

Socialization theory emphasizes the fact that the family of orientation serves as the primary agency for training the young for marriage and parenthood by providing the necessary role models and experiences which condition attitudes, values, beliefs, and expectations. If this assumption is true then one would expect to find differences between adolescents from intact families and adolescents from child care institutions in the results of the socialization process. More specifically there should be differences in marriage role expectations, perceptions of family culture patterns, attitudes toward marriage and divorce, and family size preferences which are some of the results of the socialization process identified in the

literature cited in Chapter II. Also, the younger the age of separation from parents and the longer the period of institutional living, the more marked the differences should be. The following hypotheses are designed to serve in the process of finding more information concerning this theory.

Hypothesis I. Marriage role expectations of adolescents living in a child care institution are more traditional than marriage role expectations of adolescents living in an intact family. It seems logical to assume that adolescents from intact families have more opportunity for observing and consequently adopting equalitarian roles which, according to some family sociologists, are becoming increasingly evident in modern marriage.

Hypothesis II. Marriage role expectations of male adolescents are more traditional than marriage role expectations of female adolescents. Studies have been fairly consistent in revealing that marriage role expectations of boys tend to be more traditional than girls.

Hypothesis III. The attitude toward marriage of adolescents living in a child care institution is more negative than the attitude toward marriage of adolescents living in an intact family. There is some evidence in the literature which suggests that there is a positive association between marital success of parents and their children's attitude toward marriage. Since many of the residents of these institutions are there because of the failure of their

parents' marriage, it might be expected that their enthusiasm for marriage as a desirable goal would be negatively influenced.

Hypothesis IV. The attitude toward marriage of female adolescents is more positive than the attitude of male adolescents. The literature suggests that the attitude of males toward marriage is more negatively influenced by parental marital success than the attitude of girls, and that in general, girls are more affirmative in their desire to get married than boys.

Hypothesis V. The attitude toward divorce of adolescents living in a child care institution is more negative than the attitude toward divorce of adolescents living in an intact family. It would seem to be logical that due to the unhappiness associated with the breakup of their own parental home, institutional young people would be inclined to view separation of marriage partners in negative terms.

Hypothesis VI. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive families in general as being more democratic than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis VII. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive families in general as being more fair in discipline than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis VIII. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive families in general as being more affectionate than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis IX. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive families in general as being more cooperative than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypotheses VI, VII, VIII and IX are based on the assumption, which is partially supported by research, that enforced separation from figures who might be expected to provide support, discipline, affection, and guidance heightens the attraction of these figures. Consequently, it might be expected that institutionalized adolescents who have been separated from their families will show a more positive attitude toward parental behavior and family life.

Hypothesis X. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive a smaller ideal family size than adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis XI. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive a smaller number of children necessary to constitute a large family than adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis XII. Adolescents living in a child care institution prefer fewer children than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis XIII. Adolescents living in a child care institution plan to have fewer children than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypotheses X, XI XII, and XIII are based on the assumption that institutionalized adolescents have

experienced a higher degree of childhood unhappiness than do adolescents from intact families, and consequently would want fewer children who might conceivably be subjected to similar experiences.

Measuring Instruments

With the exception of family size preferences, instruments which had been used in previous studies were available to measure the dependent variables of this study. The various instruments were combined to form a single questionnaire. Each measuring instrument used in the study is described below.

Marriage Role Expectations

To determine marriage role expectations a short form of the Dunn Marriage Role Expectation Inventory was administered to each subject. The complete Inventory consists of a total of 71 items (34 equalitarian and 37 traditional) to which the subject responds in terms of agreement, disagreement, or uncertainty. The instrument is divided into seven areas of behavior: Authority, Homemaking, Care of Children, Personal Characteristics, Social Participation, Education, and Employment and Support.

The answers Strongly Agree or Agree to equalitarian items and Disagree or Strongly Disagree to traditional items were counted as correct responses in scoring the Inventory. A value of +1 was given for each correct response and a

value of 0 was assigned all other responses. This procedure resulted in the interpretation that higher scores reflect equalitarian expectations while lower scores reflect more traditional expectations.

In developing this instrument Dunn used an internal consistency item analysis, based on t score values, to select the final 71 questions from a pool of 111 items. Subjects with the highest and lowest scores on the total scale were compared as to their scores on individual items. In the present study, the equalitarian item and the traditional item in each of the sub-divisions which yielded the highest t score values were selected as a short form of the Inventory. Due to the fact that Dunn's t score values for the items in the area of Employment and Support were consistently lower than the t scores for the items in the other six areas, no items were selected from this category. Thus a total of 12 items, six traditional and six equalitarian, were selected for the short form of the Dunn Marriage Role Expectation Inventory which was used in this study.

To check the validity of selecting the 12 questions for use in this study, the complete Inventory was administered to a group of 52 high school students. The group consisted of 24 girls and 28 boys from the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades. The total score for the 12 items was correlated with the total score for the complete Inventory. A correlation coefficient of .82 was obtained, indicating that

these items are adequately representative of the complete Inventory.

Reliability. In Dunn's original study a split-half reliability coefficient of correlation was computed using 50 subjects. She obtained a correlation coefficient of .95 which was corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula to .975. Since a pretest of the twelve items selected yielded an adequate estimate of the test's total score, it was assumed that the reliability of the short form was sufficient for the present study.

Validity. In Dunn's study, unstructured responses from adolescents concerning role expectations furnished the original items. A total of 111 items was selected from the original pool on the basis of consensus of appraisal by 13 professionally qualified judges. The final selection of items was based on an internal consistency item analysis as described above.

Attitude Toward Marriage

The Favorableness of Attitude to Marriage Scale, developed by Richard J. Hill, was administered to each subject. This instrument consists of nine multiple-choice items which are scored to form a Guttman-type scale. Each item has an assigned score giving the scale a fixed possible score range of 0 to 9. The total score represents a position on a continuum defined by the items as favorableness of

attitude toward marriage which results in the interpretation that the higher the score, the more favorable or positive the attitude.

Reliability. In developing this scale, Hill used Guttman's technique for scale and intensity analysis. Hill concluded that the analysis of the responses of 132 males and 222 female college students ranging from 17 through 24 years in age yielded a pattern which was highly reproducible. Hill obtained four coefficients of reproducibility of .92, .93, .93 and .93 from various groups of 100 subjects. The groups were selected from the total sample on the basis of sex, and on the basis of emotional attachment or unattachment to a member of the opposite sex.

Validity. Wallin's study (1954), in which this instrument was used, is cited by Straus (1969, p. 131) as evidence of construct validity. Wallin found that the scores for 215 male students increased significantly as the marital happiness of each parent group increased. The distribution was U-shaped for 394 female students.

Attitude Toward Divorce

To measure attitude toward divorce, the Hardy Divorce Opinionnaire was administered to each subject. This instrument consists of 12 items cast in a Likert-type format. Half of the items express a favorable or positive attitude toward divorce and half an unfavorable or negative attitude.

Subjects respond to each item with one of five alternatives, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Each response alternative has an assigned score value of 1 to 5. Points for all answers are added for a total score, with a possible score range of 12 to 60. The lower scores represent a negative attitude toward divorce, while the higher scores represent a more positive attitude.

Reliability. Hardy reported no evidence of reliability, but Shaw and Wright (1967, pp. 107-107) administered the instrument to 12 female and 24 male undergraduates at the University of Florida and obtained a split-half reliability coefficient of .74, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula to .85.

Validity. No evidence of validity was given by Hardy, but Shaw and Wright (1967) concluded that the scale appears to have content validity. In their study cited above, they found a mean score for women of 31.3 as compared with a mean score of 38.0 for men. They concluded that "assuming that men in our culture have more favorable attitudes toward divorce than women, this finding may be taken as minimal evidence of validity (p. 107)."

Family Interaction Patterns

To determine perceptions of general family interaction patterns, four Guttman-type scales, developed by Slocum and Stone (1959), were administered to each subject.

- (1) The Affection Scale consists of a total of six items

with a possible score range of 6 (little affection) to 18 (much affection). (2) The Cooperation Scale consists of five items with a possible score range of 5 (little cooperation) to 15 (much cooperation). (3) The Discipline Scale consists of six items in its complete form. However, one of the items ("Children are punished more severely than children in other families") calls for a response in terms of the subject's image of his own family. Since the subject's perception of families in general, rather than the image of the subject's own particular family was desired, this item was omitted. Thus, as used in this study, the Discipline Scale consisted of five items with a possible score range of 5 (unfair discipline) to 15 (fair discipline). (4) The Democracy Scale consists of four items with a possible score range of 4 (undemocratic) to 12 (democratic).

A separate score was obtained for each of the four scales. The numerical values assigned by Slocum and Stone to each of the items were used in scoring the scales. Separate comparisons were made between the institutional and the control groups for each of the four scales. The scales were not necessarily designed to intercorrelate.

Reliability. To check reliability of the scales, Slocum and Stone (1959) processed separate sets of data from teen-agers in each of four different communities. The data indicated a high degree of similarity in distribution of scale types for each of the four scales between communities.

Differences in distribution were found between sexes and between age levels. The communities represented dissimilar population components. No other evidence of reliability was available.

Validity. Teen-age and young adult judges were used in choosing the items to be included in the scales. The Guttman scaling proceduring was used in testing the internal consistency of the scales. A Coefficient of Reproducibility (CR) was computed for boys and girls separately in each of the four community groups. For the Affection Scale the CR's ranged from .939 to 9.36; for the Cooperation Scale the CR's ranged from .857 to .892; for the Democracy Scale the CR's ranged from .896 to .878; and for the Discipline Scale the CR's ranged from .918 to .904. It was concluded that the CR's for the Affection and Discipline scales were adequate for Guttman-type scales, but the CR's were considered borderline for the Democracy and Cooperation Scales; these were regarded as "quasi-scales" (Slocum and Stone, 1959, p. 248). The omission of one item from the Discipline Scale changed its designation as a Guttman-scale, but it was assumed that this minor change did not markedly reduce its general validity.

Family Size Preferences

Four questions were formulated to obtain data on family size preferences. These questions called for

responses concerning ideal family size, number of children desired, number of children expected and the number of children which constitutes a "large" family. The subjects responded to each question in terms of a number which was used in statistical comparisons between the groups.

Sentence Completions

Since the instruments described above yield basically the same type of data, additional information which might be used in interpreting the data obtained from the attitude toward marriage and attitude toward divorce scales was desired. Consequently, each subject was asked to complete eight sentences, six on marriage and two on divorce, for which the first words were supplied. It was assumed that the subject in completing the sentence would reflect something of his own desires, feelings and attitudes beyond what was possible in the more structured questionnaires. This technique has been widely used in research and is considered to be as reliable and valid as any projective method (Daston, 1968, pp. 287-288). It was expected that these responses would provide additional insight for interpreting the responses to the other instruments.

The various measuring instruments were combined by sections to form a single questionnaire which was administered to the subjects in group situations. A copy of each instrument is presented in Appendix B.

Selection of Subjects

The selection of subjects was limited to adolescents in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades to obtain a relatively homogenous sample with respect to level of maturity. All subjects were enrolled in the public schools. In order to facilitate the control of grade, race, and sex, it was necessary to match the institutional subjects with the subjects from intact families on these variables. It was assumed that the matching of subjects on grade levels would control for any extreme deviation in mental age among groups and also provide a simple method of control for chronological age.

It is generally assumed that residents of child care institutions come primarily from lower socio-economic class backgrounds. There is, however, no satisfactory method of determining the socio-economic status of individuals who have lived in an institution for a long period of time. It was decided that the most adequate way to determine social class influences was through the use of two groups of adolescents from intact families. Consequently, it was necessary to select one group of subjects from intact families on the basis of lower socio-economic class designation and another on the basis of middle-to-upper social class membership.

Hollingshead's Two-Factor Index of Social Position was used to determine the socio-economic status of the

intact family subjects. The Two-Factor Index of Social Position score is based on the occupational pursuit and the years of school completed by the respondent's father. A subject was placed in the lower socio-economic class on the basis of a score of 48 or larger on the Hollingshead Index. Subjects who obtained a score of 47 or less were placed in the middle-to-upper social class group.

Hollingshead and others "have made extensive studies of the reliability of scoring, and the validity of the Index on over one hundred variables (Bonjean, et al., 1967, p. 385)." The Index appears to be a reliable and valid measure on the basis of these studies.

Selection of the Institutional Subjects

Subjects for the institutional group were obtained from four children's homes in North Carolina. The institutions are identified in Table 1 by religious affiliation and number of children enrolled. The design of the sample of child care institutions was based on the assumption that various institutions would possibly differ in the environment relative to socialization for marriage and parenthood. Consequently, four institutions were included in order to determine if subjects differed among institutions in marriage and family perceptions and attitudes.

The particular institutions selected were limited to Protestant church-related groups in order to simplify the

TABLE 1
Children's Homes by Religious Affiliation
and Enrollment

Institution	Religious Affiliation	Enrollment	
		Total	High School
I	Southern Baptist Convention	285	39
II	United Methodist Church	117	28
III	United Methodist Church	250	61
IV	United Church of Christ	69	13

control of the religious factor. Two of the institutions were affiliated with the United Methodist Church, one with the Southern Baptist Convention, and one with the United Church of Christ.

As shown in Table 1, the institutions varied in size of enrollment from 285 to 69 children and youth. The residents in each institution varied in age from six to 19 years. With one exception, all of the residents were housed in cottages at the various institutions. In one institution a small dormitory arrangement was used in addition to the cottages. The average number of children housed in each cottage varied from approximately 11 to 15 among the four institutions. In some instances married couples lived in the cottages with the children. The proportion of cottages with a married couple as houseparents varied among the institutions. In one home married couples were houseparents in 14 out of 20 cottages, in another five out of 11 cottages, and four out of 16 cottages in the third institution. One of the children's homes housed a combination of boys and girls in each cottage. In the other three homes, boys and girls were housed together in some of the cottages, but were separated in others. None of the institutions had a central eating arrangement, although in a few instances two cottage groups ate together. In three of the four homes, all of the residents attended the public schools. Institution III operated its own school for grades one through nine, beyond

which residents attended the public high school. Subjects in each of the four child care institutions were given the questionnaire in a group situation at each institution at a time especially arranged for that purpose. All potential subjects in each institution were asked by an official to participate in a research study, but specific details and instructions were provided by the investigator when the questionnaire was administered (see Appendix A).

A total of 127 adolescents from the four institutions responded to the questionnaire, from which 124 completed questionnaires were obtained. The number of subjects obtained from each institution is presented in Table 2 according to grade and sex classifications. The 124 subjects included 60 boys and 64 girls. The grade classifications were less evenly divided with 51 tenth grade, 38 eleventh grade, and 35 twelfth grade subjects.

All of the subjects included were white. The religious preference of all subjects was Protestant, which in most instances corresponded with the denominational affiliation of the institution of residence.

In this exploratory study it was not feasible to attempt to secure information relative to the family background of each subject. However, institutional officials were asked to provide approximate percentages of residents who came from homes broken by divorce or separation, homes broken by the death of one parent and homes broken by the

TABLE 2

Number of Subjects from Institutions
by Sex and Grade

Grade	Institution				Totals	
	I	II	III	IV		
Males	10	7	4	12	4	27
	11	7	4	6	1	18
	<u>12</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>15</u>
Sub-totals	19	9	25	7	60	
Females	10	6	7	5	6	24
	11	5	4	11	0	20
	<u>12</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>20</u>
Sub-totals	21	14	23	6	64	
Totals	40	23	49	13	124	

death of both parents. On the basis of the information provided by institutional officials it is estimated that approximately 61.5 per cent of the subjects came to the institutions from homes broken by divorce or separation, 30.0 per cent of the subjects were half-orphans, and 8.5 per cent of the subjects were full-orphans.

Selection of the Intact Family Subjects

In order to test the hypotheses of this study it was necessary to obtain adolescents from intact families for comparison with the institutionalized group. Permission was obtained from officials of the Guilford County School system to use high school students from the public schools in the study. An administrative official was consulted concerning the selection of the particular schools. Arrangements were made to obtain control subjects from two high schools. One of the schools was chosen because the student enrollment consisted of a majority of students from lower social class background. The other school was selected because the student body represented a cross section of urban, suburban, and rural backgrounds. Both schools are located within ten miles of the City of Greensboro, North Carolina.

The questionnaire was administered to the control subjects in the high school study halls made available by school officials. In some instances two study hall classes were combined to facilitate the administration of the

questionnaire. The same instructions given the institutional subjects were given to the control subjects. The questionnaire was administered in all instances by the investigator.

A total of 535 questionnaires was administered to students in the two high schools. Out of this total, 285 respondents from intact families were qualified to match the institutional subjects with respect to race, Protestant religion, single marital status, and grade. When the respondents were classified by social class, a total of 150 subjects were obtained for the lower social class group, and a total of 135 subjects were obtained for the middle-to-upper social class group. The number of subjects obtained for each of the two control groups was larger than the total of 124 subjects obtained in the institutional group. Since equal sex and grade cells for statistical analysis could not be obtained without eliminating a large number of subjects from each of the three groups, it was decided to retain all of the control subjects.

The total number of subjects obtained in each of the three groups is presented in Table 3 according to grade and sex classification. The number of subjects obtained for the two control groups was at least equal to the number of institutional subjects in each of the grade by sex cell groups.

TABLE 3
Subjects Classified in Groups
by Grade by Sex

Grade	Institutional	Groups		Totals
		Middle-to-Upper Social Class	Lower Social Class	
10	27	29	28	84
Males	11	18	20	56
	12	15	15	52
Sub-totals	60	64	68	142
10	24	24	31	79
Females	11	20	27	77
	12	20	21	61
Sub-totals	64	71	82	217
Totals	124	135	150	409

Data Analyses

Data obtained on each of the eleven measurements were analyzed using the multiple classification analysis of variance, fixed treatments model (Ostle, 1954, pp. 351-352). All factors were tested against the within mean square which was used as the experimental error. Further interpretation of findings necessitated computation of t tests (Hays, pp. 462-470) to determine specific differences between factors with more than two levels where significant effects were found. Statistical differences beyond the .05 level of probability were accepted.

In addition to these analyses, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (Lordahl, 1967, pp. 267-271) were computed to determine the relationship between age and grade in each group of subjects and length of stay and age of admission for the institutional subjects.

The data obtained for each subject were key-punched on computer cards and verified for accuracy. The statistical computations for the analyses of variance and correlations were performed by computer process. The analysis of variance computer program used a method described in Walker and Lev (1953, pp. 193-195) to handle unequal cell frequencies.

In addition to the measuring instruments which yielded quantitative data, eight sentence completion stems were administered to each subject. The investigator

inspected the responses to each of these questions and delineated some 20 to 40 rationally distinct categories on the basis of key words and phrases. A neutral judge was then asked to compile the response frequencies for each category. Since some of the questions had as many as forty separate response categories, it was necessary to reduce the number of categories in order to summarize the responses in any meaningful way. Two independent judges who were members of the faculty of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, were asked to further combine the responses into no fewer than two, and no more than nine categories for each sentence. They were instructed to omit any category with fewer than five responses which did not readily fit into any larger category. The two sets of response categories obtained from the judges were then combined into a mutually agreeable single set of categories.

Following this procedure, the response frequency distributions to each of the sentence completion stems were compared between the institutional and control subjects. The chi square method (Ostle, 1954, p. 70) was used to test the null hypothesis of no significant differences.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

Before the subjects obtained from the various institutions could be placed into one group for comparison with the control groups, it was necessary to determine if the subjects from separate institutions differed in their scores on the various measures. It was also necessary to consider possible influences on the institutional subjects' responses stemming from differences in age of admittance to the institution or the length of time spent in the institution.

Preliminary Analyses

Two-factor analyses of variance, constituted of institutions by sex, were used to locate any differences between the subjects from the four institutions on each of the dependent variables. The statistical results of these analyses are presented in Appendices C and D. The findings disclosed that the subjects did not differ significantly by institution with respect to the scores obtained on ten of the eleven measurements. Significant differences were obtained among the four institutions only in the analysis of the marriage attitude scores. Since only one out of eleven analyses produced a significant result this could have been a chance finding.

The fact that extensive differences were not found among institutional subjects classified within strata made it possible to pool them into one group, ignoring the distinction of specific institutions, for statistical comparisons with the control groups. Since the institutional subjects differed in marriage attitude scores, it was decided to further examine the results of the comparisons between the institutional and control subject groups with this in mind to determine if the differences within the institutional group could be a confounding factor.

Age of Admission and Length of Stay

Additional factors, restricted to the institutional subjects, which had to be considered before statistical comparisons between the institutional and control subjects could be made were age of admission and length of stay. It was assumed that length of stay and admission age are basically equivalent variables which would yield the same results when used to classify subjects according to their institutional history. To determine the accuracy of this assumption, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed for the number of years which each subject had been in the institution and the age at which the subject was admitted to the institution. A correlation coefficient of -.93 was obtained, indicating that the two factors are almost identical. It was therefore concluded that it would

not be necessary to consider both factors in the analysis.

Since it made no difference which of the two factors was used, age of admission was arbitrarily selected.

The institutional subjects were classified into two groups on the basis of their age of admission to an institution. One group was designated as the "early" group, having a relatively long stay in an institution, the other as the "late" group, having a relatively short length of stay in an institution. The median age at admission was ten years. All subjects who had been admitted to an institution after ten years of age were placed in the late group, and all subjects who had been admitted to an institution at ten years or younger were placed in the early group.

The results of the two-factor analysis of variance for the institutional subjects (see Appendix C), grouped by age at admission and sex, disclosed no significant differences between the early admission and late admission groups on any of the scores obtained. However, significant interaction effects (.05 level of probability) were found between sex and admission age with respect to desired family size and large family size.

An examination of the mean number of children desired (see Table 4) revealed that the interaction effect between sex and admission age was produced by the fact that early admitted females desired a larger number of children than late admitted females, while the early admitted males

TABLE 4

Mean Number of Children Desired by Institutional Subjects by Sex and Admission Age

Sex	Admission Age	
	Early	Late
Female	3.66	2.56
Male	2.82	3.23

desired a smaller number of children than the males who were admitted late.

An examination of the mean number of children (see Table 5) perceived necessary to constitute a large family disclosed the same pattern of sex and admission age differences which produced the interaction effect found in the analysis of variance. The early admitted females considered a large family to be constituted of more children than late admitted females, while the reverse was true for the males. The early admitted males considered a large family to be constituted of fewer children than the late admitted males.

Since the two interactions were the only effects obtained on the analysis of admission age, the differences must be interpreted rather cautiously. It is possible that, for some reason, age of admission to an institution, and the correlated length of stay, does have a differential effect on the number of children desired and the perceived large family size of male and female adolescents. Further study is necessary, however, before this conclusion can be made with any degree of confidence.

The fact that no extensive differences were found among the institutional subjects which could be attributed to the age of admission and length of stay in the institution was surprising. However, this finding is consistent with Williams' (1966) study which revealed no conclusive effects due to age of admission and length of stay on

TABLE 5

Mean Large Family Size Perceived by Institutional Subjects by Sex and Admission Age

Sex	Admission Age	
	Early	Late
Female	7.32	5.96
Male	5.95	6.41

personality characteristics of the residents of a children's home.

Since no significant main effect due to differences in admission age were found, it was possible to ignore this factor as a potential source of variance in the comparisons between the institutional and intact family groups. It was decided, however, to consider the significance of the interaction effects obtained on the measures of desired and large family size preferences in relation to the results of the comparisons between the institutional and control groups.

Analysis of Age and Grade Correlations

The assumption was made in the selection of subjects for this study that it would not be necessary to match the institutional and control subjects for both grade and age. Before proceeding with the analysis, however, it was decided to determine if age should be considered separately from grade in the grouping of subjects. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to determine the relation between age and grade in each group of subjects. Correlation coefficients of .74, .81, and .72 were obtained for the institutional group, the middle-to-upper social class control group, and the lower social class control group, respectively. The correlations between age and grade in the three groups were considered sufficient to make it unnecessary to consider age as a separate factor in the analysis.

Major Analyses

Since the institutional-restricted variables had little influence on the scores, and since it was not necessary to consider age separately from grade, it was possible to use a three-factor design constituted of grade by sex by group in the statistical analyses. The group factor compared the institutional group, the lower social class control group, and the middle-to-upper social class control group. Separate analyses of variance were performed for marriage role expectation scores, the marriage attitude scores, the divorce attitude scores, the scores obtained by each of the four family interaction pattern scales, the number of children desired, planned, and the number of children which constitute an ideal and a large family. The results of each of these analyses will be discussed separately below.

Marriage Role Expectations

The results of the analysis of variance for the scores obtained on the Marriage Role Expectation Inventory are presented in Table 6. Differences in scores due to grade, sex, and group, and the interaction between group and sex were significant.

Grade. Three t tests (see Table 7) were performed to determine specifically how the subjects differed according to grade. There was no difference in the marriage role expectations of the tenth and eleventh grade adolescents.

TABLE 6
Analysis of Variance of Marriage
Role Expectation Scores

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	43.99	12.86**
Sex	1	30.74	8.99**
Group	2	16.71	4.89**
Sex X Grade	2	5.50	1.61
Sex X Group	2	13.32	3.89*
Grade X Group	4	6.68	1.95
Sex X Grade X Group	4	5.75	1.68
Within	391	3.42	
Total	408		

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

TABLE 7
Comparison of Mean Marriage Role
Expectation Scores by Grades

Grades	Means	<u>t</u>
Ten	7.82	
Eleven	8.23	1.90
Ten	7.82	
Twelve	8.97	5.08**
Eleven	8.23	
Twelve	8.97	3.13**

** Significant at .01 level

The twelfth grade subjects were significantly (.01 level of confidence) more equalitarian in marriage role expectations than the tenth and eleventh grade subjects. Since there were no grade by sex or grade by group interaction effects, the grade difference did not change as a function of sex or group.

Sex and Group. The F tests for the main effects of sex and group were both significant at the .01 level of confidence. However, there was a significant interaction (.05 level of confidence) between sex and group. It was thus necessary to consider the two factors together in the analysis of the results. Inspection of the means presented in Table 8 suggested that the main effects of sex and social class are clear in the two groups of control subjects. The mean scores indicated that the middle-to-upper social class control subjects held more equalitarian marriage role expectations than the lower social class control group. The girls in both social classes were also more equalitarian in marriage role expectations than the boys. The results of the t tests presented in Table 9 verified these differences in means to be significant.

The institutional subjects produced peculiar results, however, which caused the interaction found in the analysis of variance. A t test (see Table 9) revealed that the institutional boys and girls did not differ in their scores ($t = 1.54$, ns) as would have been expected. The

TABLE 8

Mean Marriage Role Expectation Scores
by Group and Sex

Group	Sex	
	Male	Female
Institutional	8.46	8.29
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	8.16	9.18
Lower Social Class	7.54	8.38

TABLE 9

Comparison of Mean Marriage Role Expectation
Scores by Groups by Sex

Groups by Sex	Means	t
Institutional Males	8.46	1.54
Institutional Females	8.29	
Institutional Males	8.46	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class Males	9.18	0.92
Institutional Males	8.46	
Lower Social Class Females	7.54	2.83**
Institutional Females	8.29	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class Females	9.18	2.81**
Institutional Females	8.29	
Lower Social Class Females	8.38	.029
Middle-to-Upper Social Class Males	8.16	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class Females	9.18	3.20**
Lower Social Class Males	7.54	
Lower Social Class Females	8.38	3.76**

** Significant at .01 level

institutional boys held slightly more equalitarian marriage role expectations than the middle-to-upper social class boys, and significantly more equalitarian marriage role expectations than the lower social class boys. Whereas, the institutional girls were slightly more traditional in marriage role expectations than the lower social class girls, and significantly more traditional in marriage role expectations than the middle-to-upper social class girls.

It was hypothesized that marriage role expectations of children's home adolescents are more traditional than marriage role expectations of intact family adolescents. The analysis of the marriage role expectation scores disclosed significant differences among the child care and intact family adolescents, but the differences were much more complex than the hypothesis. Hypothesis I cannot, therefore, be retained.

The secondary hypothesis related to marriage role expectations predicted that marriage role expectations of males would be more traditional than those of females. While this hypothesis held true for the intact family subjects in both social class groups, it was not true for the child care subjects. Hypothesis II was thus not fully supported.

The most plausible interpretation of the findings suggests that the communal life of a children's home produces a leveling effect on marriage role expectations, with

girls and boys reaching somewhat similar views, whereas this would not happen were they living in an intact family. Since the institutional girls did not differ significantly from the lower social class girls, and assuming they come from lower social class backgrounds also, it may be suggested that the institutional boys show the greatest effect of this "leveling" influence. The institutional boys held significantly more equalitarian marriage role expectations than the lower social class boys.

Marriage Attitudes

The results of the analysis of variance for the scores obtained on the Favorableness of Attitude Toward Marriage Scale are presented in Table 10. Significant differences were found between the sexes and among the three groups of subjects. The factor of grade was not significant, and no interaction effects were present.

Sex. The difference between male and female subjects in mean marriage attitude scores was significant at the .05 level of confidence. The fact that no second or third order interaction effects involving sex were present indicated that the sex difference did not change by grades or in different groups. The mean male marriage attitude score was 3.70 while the mean female marriage attitude score was 4.37. The girls thus expressed a more positive attitude toward marriage than boys.

TABLE 10
Analysis of Variance of Marriage
Attitude Scores

Source of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	3.50	1.09
Sex	1	47.09	15.60**
Group	2	15.18	5.03*
Sex x Grade	2	6.36	2.11
Sex x Group	2	3.65	1.21
Grade x Group	4	5.88	1.95
Sex x Grade x Group	4	5.61	1.86
Within	391	3.02	
Total	408		

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

It was hypothesized that females would express a more positive attitude toward marriage than males in all subject groups. The results of the study were consistent with this hypothesis. Consequently, Hypothesis III was supported.

The finding that girls express a more positive attitude toward marriage than boys, regardless of family background, is consistent with previous studies. Hill and Hansen (1969) interpreted this to result from the fact that males have more role alternatives.

Group. The F test revealed that the three groups of subjects differed at the .05 level of confidence. To locate the source of this significant F, t tests were performed. The results of the t tests are given in Table 11. The institutional subjects were significantly lower in marriage attitude scores than both control groups of intact family subjects. The two control groups did not differ in marriage attitudes. The institutional adolescents thus expressed a more negative attitude toward marriage than the intact family adolescents. Since the lower social class group did not differ from the middle-to-upper social class group, the difference in marriage attitude cannot be attributed to the factor of social class. The findings are consistent with Hypothesis IV.

It is necessary to recall that the preliminary analysis revealed significant differences within the institutional group when the subjects were classified according

TABLE 11
Comparison of Mean Marriage Attitude Scores by Groups

Groups	Means	<u>t</u>
Institutional	3.64	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	4.33	3.19**
Institutional	3.64	
Lower Social Class	4.15	2.42*
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	4.33	
Lower Social Class	4.15	0.87

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

to specific institution of residence. Since the four institutional groups were pooled into a single group in the comparative analysis with the control groups, it was necessary to determine if the differences between the institutional and intact family groups were confounded by the differences within the institutional groups. Inspection of the means presented in Table 12 for specific institutions showed that three of the four were as low as the pooled-institutional mean; the children from one home produced much higher scores, their average naturally being higher than the non-institutional groups.

As pointed out earlier this institutional difference, being found in one of 11 analyses, is probably a chance result. It seems reasonable to conclude that institutional analyses in general differ from intact family adolescents in marriage attitudes. However, further research is needed to be sure that a few institutions do not produce marriage attitudes different (higher) from most of these facilities.

Sentence completions. In order to obtain more information about marriage attitudes in addition to the scores obtained by the Favorableness of Attitude to Marriage Scale (see Appendix B), the subjects were asked to respond to six sentence completion stems. It was expected that these responses would yield information which might be used in interpreting the scores obtained by the marriage attitude scales.

TABLE 12
Mean Marriage Attitude Scores by Specific
Institution and by Group

Institution	Mean	Group	Mean
I	3.7	Institutional (All)	3.64
II	4.5	Middle-to-Upper Social Class	4.33
III	3.3	Lower Social Class	4.15
IV	3.0		

The results of the chi square tests used in analyzing the responses to the sentence completion stems are presented in Table 13. Significant differences between male and female subjects were obtained on the responses to three of the six stems: "For me marriage . . .," "The worst thing about marriage . . .," and "If it weren't for marriage"

The analysis of responses to the stem "For me marriage . . ." indicated that the response categories "love and happiness," "an acceptable possibility," and "is ridiculous" contribute most of the chi square value. Inspection of the response frequencies disclosed that females tended to describe marriage as a source of love and happiness more than would be theoretically expected on the basis of an assumption of no difference between males and females. The males responded more frequently in the rather neutral terms of "an acceptable possibility," and with the more negative view that for them marriage "is ridiculous." The male responses thus reflected more negative or cynical attitudes, while female responses revealed more serious, positive attitudes.

The analysis of the sentence stem "The worst thing about marriage . . ." disclosed that female subjects, more frequently than was theoretically expected, considered conflicts (arguments and fusses) to be the worst thing about marriage. The male subjects, more frequently than was theoretically expected, responded that the worst thing about

TABLE 13
Comparison of Marriage Attitude Sentence Completion
Responses by Groups and Sex

Sentence Stem	<u>Institutional vs. Control Groups</u>		<u>Males vs. Females</u>	
	df	Chi Square	df	Chi Square
Most people marry because . . .	4	1.58	4	0.65
For me marriage . . .	6	21.16**	6	20.27**
The best thing about marriage is . . .	6	8.48	6	7.48
The worst thing about marriage is . . .	7	75.52**	7	20.51**
If it weren't for marriage then . . .	6	19.25**	6	8.8
The person that I marry . . .	6	12.13	6	37.04**

** Significant at .01 level

marriage is financial problems and unpredictable annoyances such as worry and sickness. The females were thus apparently sensitive to problems associated with personal relations between marriage partners while the males were concerned about problems associated with the responsibilities of marriage.

Responses to the sentence stem, "The person that I marry . . ." revealed that a larger proportion of males than females indicated that the marriage partner would be "physically attractive." Male subjects also, in greater proportion than was theoretically expected, responded that "the person I marry will be all I'm looking for . . ." which may indicate a critically selective attitude. The responses of the female subjects, on the other hand, reflected a concern that the marriage partner would "love and respect" them.

In general, the responses obtained by the sentence completion stems are consistent with the responses obtained by the marriage attitude scale relative to male and female differences. It is apparent that the males displayed a more negative or cynical attitude toward marriage than the females. The sentence completion responses provided little additional information relative to the source of these differential attitudes, however. The one suggestion which emerges is that the more negative male attitude may be partially related to the financial responsibilities associated with marriage.

The responses to the sentence completion stems provide additional information in relation to the differential marriage attitudes of the institutional and control subjects. The chi square analysis showed significant differences between the institutional and control groups in their responses to the stems "For me marriage . . .," "The worst things about marriage . . .," and "If it weren't for marriage"

An examination of the sources of the chi square values obtained in the analysis of the responses to the stem "For me marriage . . ." revealed that most of the value was contributed by the difference between the actual and expected response frequencies in the categories "love and happiness," "serious commitment," "acceptable possibility," "an uncertain possibility," and "ridiculous."

Marriage for the control subjects represented "love and happiness." The control subjects also tended to view marriage as "a serious commitment." On the other hand, the institutional subjects reported that marriage for them is "an uncertain possibility," or is something "ridiculous."

The control subjects responded more frequently than was theoretically expected, that the worst thing about marriage is "the pressures and responsibilities," the "loss of freedom," and "unpredictable annoyances." The institutional subjects were less concerned with the same problems. A larger proportion of institutional subjects than was expected

felt that the worst thing about marriage is its "breakup and failure."

An examination of the response frequencies obtained in the analysis of the sentence stem, "If it weren't for marriage . . ." indicated that the institutional subjects failed to respond to the sentence stem less frequently than was theoretically expected while the control subjects failed to respond more frequently than expected. A larger proportion of the institutional subjects than was theoretically expected held the view that if it weren't for marriage "things would be better," and "there would be no love life." A larger proportion of control subjects than was theoretically expected expressed the view that "illegitimacy" would increase if it weren't for marriage.

The finding that fewer of the institutional subjects failed to respond to the sentence stem than was expected is consistent with other research. North and Keiffer (1966) found that foster children were more verbally productive in responding to the Thematic Apperception Test than a group of control children. The finding was interpreted to mean that the foster children were more responsive to the examining situation due to the fact that they were more parentally deprived. It is possible that something similar happened in relation to the responses obtained in the present study.

The fact that a number of the institutional subjects felt that if it were not for marriage "things would be

"better" is consistent with what might be expected on the basis of their family histories. The unhappiness experienced by the institutional adolescents as a result of the break-up of their family may be reflected in their response that the worst thing about marriage is "breaking up."

In general, the responses to the sentence completion stems reflect the more negative attitude of the institutional adolescents found in the analysis of the scores obtained by marriage attitude scale. For some of the institutional adolescents, more than the intact family adolescents, the worst thing about marriage is the possibility of failure, and the feeling which was also expressed that "if it weren't for marriage things would be better." These responses may suggest that the more negative attitude of institutional subjects results from their family experiences rather than the institutional environment. Extreme caution, however, must be exercised in making this interpretation on the basis of such limited results.

Attitude Toward Divorce

The results of the analysis of variance presented in Table 14 revealed no statistically significant sources of variation in the scores obtained on the divorce opinionnaire. It was hypothesized that adolescents from child care institutions express a more negative attitude than do adolescents from intact families. Since no significant differences were

TABLE 14
 Analysis of Variance of Divorce
 Attitude Scores

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	75.81	1.27
Sex	1	73.53	1.23
Group	2	157.35	2.63
Sex x Grade	2	37.57	0.63
Sex Group	2	4.99	0.08
Grade x Group	4	111.18	1.86
Sex x Grade x Group	4	74.45	1.24
Within	391		
Total	408		

found between the institutional and intact family groups, in the mean divorce attitude scores presented in Table 15 Hypothesis VIII cannot be retained. This hypothesis was based on the assumption that the unhappiness associated with the break up of their own parental home would result in the tendency of child care adolescents to view divorce in negative terms. In the light of data obtained on the divorce attitude scale this assumption was not supported.

It is interesting to note that the mean scores for the three groups of subjects fell near the median, or neutral point, of the possible score range of 6 to 60. The average scores thus do not reflect an extremely negative or positive, but a more neutral attitude toward divorce.

In interpreting these results it is possible to speculate that the experience of family discontinuity does not significantly affect divorce attitude. It is also possible that some children and youth who have experienced divorce feel that no other alternative was possible for one or both parents in solving marriage problems while others resent the break-up. This mixture of different attitudes might make an average for the whole group which was no different from that of other children.

Sentence completions. In addition to the data obtained by the Divorce Opinionnaire, information relative to divorce attitudes was obtained by asking each subject to complete two sentence stems. When the responses of the

TABLE 15
Mean Divorce Attitude Scores by Group

Group	Mean
Institutional	34.77
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	35.61
Lower Social Class	33.11

institutional subjects were compared with the control subjects, significant chi square values were obtained for each of the two questions pertaining to divorce (see Table 16).

A chi square of 12.52 (5 df, .05 level of probability) was obtained in comparing the responses to the stem "When people get divorced" It should, however, be noted that a large portion (9.67) of this value was contributed by the differential frequencies recorded in the "no response" category. If this category had been excluded, the chi square value would not have been significant. The fact that a larger proportion of the institutional subjects responded to this question, as discussed in the analysis of the marriage attitude data above, may be indicative of their parental deprivation, so this category could not be ignored.

Most of the significant chi square value obtained in the analysis of the sentence stem "divorce is appropriate . . ." was contributed by the response categories "no response," "in extreme instance," "for acceptable reasons" and "when the couple is no longer in love."

The difference between the expected and obtained response frequencies revealed that, as in previous instances, a larger proportion of the institutional subjects than was theoretically expected responded to the sentence stem. The institutional subjects also gave the response that "divorce is appropriate for acceptable reasons" more frequently than was theoretically expected. The control subjects responded

TABLE 16

Comparison of Divorce Attitude Sentence Completion Responses by Groups

Sentence Stem	<u>Institutional vs. Control Groups</u>	
	Degrees of Chi Square	Freedom
When people get divorced then . . .	5	12.52*
Divorce is appropriate . . .	5	11.50*

* Significant at .05 level

that divorce is appropriate "in extreme instances" and "when the couple are no longer in love" more frequently than was theoretically expected.

In general, the responses to the sentence completion stems provided little additional information relative to the divorce attitudes of the subjects. While some differences between the institutional and control subjects were disclosed, the responses were not sufficiently revealing to reach any conclusions with respect to positive or negative attitudes.

Perceptions of Family Interaction Patterns

Four scales were used in this study to measure perceptions of the amount of democracy, cooperation, affection, and the fairness of discipline in families in general. Separate statistical analyses were made with the scores from each scale. The scales were not necessarily designed to yield correlated scores.

Democracy. The analysis of the data obtained on the democracy scale is summarized in Table 17. The findings indicate that there were no significant differences in the perceptions of family democracy for any of the subject classifications. Hypothesis VI predicted adolescents living in child care institutions perceive families in general as being more democratic than do adolescents living in intact families. The mean scores for the institutional and two

TABLE 17
Analysis of Variance of Perceived
Family Democracy Scores

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	4.28	1.24
Sex	1	0.62	0.18
Group	2	4.74	1.38
Sex x Grade	2	8.10	2.35
Sex x Group	2	0.99	0.29
Grade x Group	4	5.33	1.55
Sex x Grade x Group	4	1.99	9.58
Within	391	3.44	
Total	408		

family groups are given in Table 18. Since differences between these means were not significant, Hypothesis VII was not supported.

Discipline. The results of the analysis of variance of scores obtained on the discipline scale are presented in Table 19. The F tests revealed only group differences to be significant (.05 level of confidence). Further statistical analyses with t tests (see Table 20) established that the institutional groups perceived discipline of children in the average family as being significantly less fair than the intact family subjects from both the lower and the middle-to-upper social class groups. The mean discipline scores of the lower social class group did not differ significantly from the mean discipline scores of the middle-to-upper social class group. The variance between the institutional and intact family subjects, therefore, cannot be explained on the basis of social class.

It was hypothesized that adolescents living in child care institutions perceive discipline in families to be significantly more fair than do adolescents living in intact families. The finding that the child care group of adolescents perceived discipline of children to be less fair than the intact family groups, clearly did not support Hypothesis VII.

Affection. The analysis of variance performed on the responses to the affection scale disclosed significant

TABLE 18
Mean Democracy Scores by Group

Group	Mean
Institutional	9.50
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	10.19
Lower Social Class	10.05

TABLE 19
Analysis of Variance of Perceived
Family Discipline Scores

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	4.83	1.04
Sex	1	0.01	0.00
Group	2	26.45	5.72*
Sex x Grade	2	1.96	0.42
Sex x Group	2	6.71	1.45
Grade x Group	4	1.65	0.36
Sex x Grade x Group	4	2.13	0.46
Within	391	4.63	
Total	408		

* Significant at .05 level

TABLE 20

Comparison of Mean Family Discipline Scores by Groups

Groups	Means	<u>t</u>
Institutional	9.35	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	10.24	3.33**
Institutional	9.35	
Lower Social Class	10.01	2.53*
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	10.24	
Lower Social Class	10.01	0.90

* Significant at .02 level

** Significant at .01 level

differences (.05 level of confidence) among the three groups of subjects. No other sources of variance were found. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 21.

In order to locate the source of the group differences, t tests were performed comparing the means of the three groups in all possible combinations. On the basis of these tests (see Table 22), it was concluded that the institutional group of adolescents perceived significantly less affection existing among members of families in general than the both groups of intact family adolescents. The mean scores of the two intact family groups did not differ significantly. It can therefore be concluded that the factor of social class did not contribute to the variance between the institutional and intact family groups.

It was hypothesized that institutional adolescents perceive family members as more affectionate than do intact family adolescents. Since the findings disclosed significant differences contrary to the expected direction, it was concluded that this hypothesis was not supported.

Cooperation. The results of the analysis of variance for the cooperation scale are given in Table 23. Significant differences among the mean scores of the three groups--the institutional and two intact family groups and between the males and females were found.

Sex. The F test for the factor of sex was significant at the .05 level of probability. The mean male score on the

TABLE 21
Analysis of Variance of Perceived
Family Affection Scores

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	3.79	0.77
Sex	1	5.71	1.16
Group	2	22.21	4.53*
Sex x Grade	2	1.09	0.22
Sex x Group	2	3.12	0.64
Grade x Group	4	1.71	0.35
Sex x Grade x Group	4	1.24	0.25
Within	391	4.91	
Total	408		

* Significant at .05 level

TABLE 22
Comparison of Mean Family Affection
Scores by Groups

Groups	Means	<u>t</u>
Institutional	14.41	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	15.28	3.16**
Institutional	14.41	
Lower Social Class	14.97	2.08*
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	15.28	
Lower Social Class	14.97	1.18

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

TABLE 23
Analysis of Variance of Perceived
Family Cooperation Scores

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	4.61	1.78
Sex	1	19.59	4.50*
Group	2	18.57	4.74*
Sex x Grade	2	0.92	0.24
Sex x Group	2	0.38	0.10
Grade x Group	4	4.62	1.18
Sex x Grade x Group	4	2.01	0.51
Within	391	3.92	
Total	408		

* Significant at .05 level

Cooperation Scale was 10.19 as compared with the mean female score of 9.70. Thus, the males, on the average, perceived family members as being more cooperative than the females.

Group. The group differences in cooperation scores found in the analysis of variance were significant at .05 level of probability. Inspection of the means of the three groups revealed that the child care group scores, on the average, were lower than each of the intact family groups. The results of t tests (see Table 24) comparing the child care group with each of the two intact family groups indicated that these differences were significant. A t test disclosed that the two intact family groups were not significantly different. Consequently, it may be concluded that the institutionalized adolescents perceived significantly less cooperation among family members than adolescents from intact families. Due to the fact that the lower social class family group did not differ from the middle-to-upper social class family group, it can be concluded that the variance cannot be explained on the basis of social class influences.

It was hypothesized that adolescents living in children's homes perceive families as being more cooperative than do adolescents living with their parents. Although significant differences were found between the institutional and intact family adolescents, the means shown in Table 25 reveal that the differences were directly contrary to what

TABLE 24

Comparison of Mean Family Cooperation Scores by Groups

Groups	Means	<u>t</u>
Institutional	9.50	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	10.15	2.80**
Institutional	9.50	
Lower Social Class	10.05	2.29*
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	10.15	
Lower Social Class	10.05	0.60

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

TABLE 25

Mean Perceived Family Cooperation Scores by Group

Group	Mean
Institutional	9.50
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	10.19
Lower Social Class	10.05

was expected. Consequently, Hypothesis IX was not confirmed.

Summary and interpretation. The results of the statistical analyses of the scores obtained by the four family interaction scales, disclosed that children's home adolescents perceived members of the average family as being significantly less cooperative, less affectionate, and the discipline of children as being less fair than both the lower social class family group and the middle-to-upper social class family group. There were no significant differences in the responses to the democracy scale. The one significant difference obtained due to sex revealed that males perceived family members as being more cooperative than females.

It was hypothesized that institutional adolescents perceive family members in general as being more democratic, more affectionate, more cooperative, and fairer in discipline than intact family adolescents. These hypotheses were based on the results of research which has indicated that enforced separation from family figures who might be expected to provide support, discipline, affection and guidance heightens the attraction of these figures and results in the tendency to idealize. The findings of the study were contrary to the expected results and clearly did not support the hypotheses.

In interpreting these findings, which are not

consistent with the expected results, it should be noted that the family image which the investigator sought to elicit was a generalized image of other people's families rather than the particular image of the subject's own family. It is possible that adolescents idealize a particular member of their own family from whom they have been separated, as the literature suggests, but the idealized image is not generalized to members of other people's families. However, a more plausible explanation of the findings of this study may be found in the differential familial experiences of the two groups of subjects. It seems reasonable to assume that the institutionalized adolescents have experienced less affection, less cooperation, and more unfair discipline from their parental and other family figures than adolescents whose homes have not been broken. As a result of these more harsh experiences they perceive family interaction patterns in more negative terms.

The finding that males perceived more cooperation among family members than females was surprising. Since the sex differences were not found in the analyses of the other family interaction scales this result could be due to chance. If the difference was not a chance finding, it may possibly result from differential treatment sometimes given male and female adolescents by significant adults. It is assumed that males are given more freedom than females and thus might tend to view parental figures as more cooperative

than the females whose behavior is more closely supervised.

Family Size Preferences

The subjects were asked to respond to four questions (see Appendix B) relative to family size preferences. It was of interest to determine if the institutional and intact family adolescents differed in the number of children they desired or planned to have in their own family and the number of children which they perceived necessary to constitute an ideal or a large family. Responses to each of the four questions were analyzed separately.

Ideal family size. The analysis of variance of the number of children perceived as constituting an ideal family is presented in Table 26. The findings disclosed no significant differences between the subjects due to grade, sex, or group, and no interactions between any of these factors.

Hypothesis X predicted that adolescents living in a child care institution would perceive a smaller ideal family size than adolescents living in an intact family. Since the groups did not differ in mean number of children perceived to constitute an ideal family (Table 27) no support was found for this hypothesis.

Large family size. The analysis of variance of the number of children perceived necessary to constitute a large family (Table 28) disclosed significant differences at the .05 level of probability among the groups. No other sources

TABLE 26
Analysis of Variance of Perceived
Ideal Family Size

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	0.05	0.03
Sex	1	0.07	0.04
Group	2	5.11	2.61
Sex x Grade	2	1.33	0.68
Sex x Group	2	3.80	1.94
Grade x Group	4	2.47	1.26
Sex x Grade x Group	4	0.09	0.05
Within	391	1.96	
Total	408		

TABLE 27
Mean Perceived Ideal Family Size
by Group

Group	Mean
Institutional	3.32
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	3.01
Lower Social Class	3.33

TABLE 28
Analysis of Variance of Perceived
Large Family Size

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	13.25	3.02
Sex	1	5.78	1.32
Group	2	18.57	4.24*
Sex x Grade	2	10.77	2.46
Sex x Group	2	6.64	1.51
Grade x Group	4	5.03	0.148
Sex x Grade x Group	4	1.45	0.33
Within	391	4.38	
Total	408		

* Significant at .05 level

of variance were found. The results of the t tests which were performed to locate the source of the group differences are presented in Table 29. The institutional subjects perceived significantly (.01 level of probability) more children as necessary for a family to be considered large than the middle-to-upper social class control group. However, the institutional group and the lower social class control group did not differ in their perceptions of large family size. The t test comparing the two control groups disclosed that these groups did not differ. The significant group effect found in the analysis of variance was thus due to the fact that institutional subjects perceived more children necessary for a large family than the upper-to-middle intact family subjects.

The interpretation of this finding is not totally clear. It may be suggested that since the institutional subjects differ from the middle-to-upper social class group, the differences are due to social class backgrounds. This cannot be the total explanation since the middle-to-upper and the lower social class groups do not clearly differ. It is possible that the institutional subjects give larger estimates both because they are more accustomed to large group living, and because of lower social class backgrounds. Having both factors contributing would yield the present findings: institutional subjects being somewhat higher than lower social class subjects and clearly higher than the

TABLE 29

Comparison of Mean Perceived Large Family Size by Groups

Groups	Means	<u>t</u>
Institutional	6.45	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	5.68	2.96**
Institutional	6.45	
Lower Social Class	6.06	1.54
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	5.68	
Lower Social Class	6.06	1.53

** Significant at .01 level

middle-to-upper social class subjects in estimates of large family size.

Hypothesis XI predicted that adolescents living in a child care institution would perceive a smaller number of children necessary for a family to be considered large than adolescents living in an intact family. Although differences between the institutional and middle-to-upper social class control subjects were revealed, the direction of the differences was contradictory to this hypothesis.

It should be recalled at this point that a significant interaction effect between the age at admission and sex relative to perceived large family size was disclosed in the preliminary analysis of the institutional-restricted variables. The interaction resulted from the fact that females who had been admitted to an institution at an early age perceived more children necessary for a large family than females who had been admitted late, while the males who had been admitted early perceived fewer children necessary for a large family than the males who had been admitted late. The most parsimonious treatment of this finding in relation to the significant differences between the institutional and middle-to-upper class control group is to consider the interaction between sex and admission age as another complex factor which influences perceptions of large family size.

Desired family size. The analysis of variance of the number of children desired by the subjects (Table 30)

TABLE 30
Analysis of Variance of Desired
Family Size

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	2.74	1.07
Sex	1	0.06	0.02
Group	2	6.01	2.35
Sex x Grade	2	2.91	1.14
Sex x Group	2	3.22	1.26
Grade x Group	4	6.77	2.64*
Sex x Grade x Group	4	1.73	0.67
Within	391	2.56	
Total	408		

* Significant at .05

disclosed no significant differences between the grade, sex, or group classifications. However, the grade by group interaction was significant at the .05 level of probability.

The mean number of children desired by the subjects according to the grade by group classification is presented in Table 31. To locate the source of the significant interaction effect, t tests were performed comparing various combinations of the grades by groups. The t tests. (see Table 32) disclosed that twelfth grade subjects in the institutional group desired a larger number of children than the tenth grade institutional subjects. The twelfth grade institutional subjects also desired a larger family than the twelfth grade subjects in both control groups. No significant differences were found between the grades in either of the two control groups. Therefore, the findings suggest that the twelfth grade institutional adolescents desired more children in their own family than the twelfth grade subjects in both control groups and also more than their institutional peers who had not reached the twelfth grade.

The most plausible interpretation of this finding is that the number of children desired by the institutional subjects increases in the twelfth grade such that they prefer more children than the twelfth grade subjects in any other group. It may be speculated that this is due to the fact that institutional adolescents are conditioned to living with more children. As they approach the time to leave the

TABLE 31
Mean Number of Children Desired
by Group and Grade

Group	Grade		
	Ten	Eleven	Twelve
Institutional	2.81	2.86	3.76
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	2.92	2.59	2.82
Lower Social Class	3.01	2.78	2.52

TABLE 32
Comparison of Mean Number of Children
Desired by Groups by Grades

Groups by Grades	Means	t
Institutional-Grade 10	2.81	2.71**
Institutional--Grade 12	3.76	
Institutional--Grade 12	3.76	2.46*
Middle-to-Upper Social Class-Grade 12	2.82	
Institutional--Grade 12	3.76	3.42**
Lower Social Class--Grade 12	2.52	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class--Grade 10	2.92	1.03
Lower Social Class--Grade 11	2.59	
Lower Social Class--Grade 10	3.01	1.54
Lower Social Class--Grade 12	2.52	

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

institution and face life on their own, they may tend to desire a large family, this representing security in the sense that it is similar to living conditions with which they are familiar.

It should be pointed out that, as in the analysis of large family size, a significant interaction effect was obtained between sex and admission age in the preliminary analysis relative to desired family size. The interaction effect resulted from the same pattern of differences disclosed in the analysis of large family size. In view of the total results obtained, the most plausible treatment is to consider the interaction between the factors of sex and admission age as part of the complex set of influences which apparently operate in relation to desired family size.

Planned family size. The analysis of variance of planned family size preferences is shown in Table 33. The F tests disclosed no significant sources of variance due to grade, sex, or group effects. However, the interaction between grade and groups was significant at the .05 level of probability.

The mean number of children which the subjects planned to have in their own family is presented in Table 34 according to the grade and group classification. A number of t tests (see Table 35) were performed to locate the source of the grade by groups interaction. Inspection of the means of the middle-to-upper social class group

TABLE 33
Analysis of Variance of Planned Family Size

Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Grade	2	0.55	0.38
Sex	1	4.10	2.84
Group	2	1.85	1.29
Sex x Grade	2	0.88	0.61
Sex x Group	2	2.76	1.92
Grade x Group	4	3.83	2.66*
Sex x Grade x Group	4	1.55	1.08
Within	391	1.44	
Total	408		

* Significant at .05 level

TABLE 34
Mean Number of Children Planned
by Group and Grade

Group	Grade		
	Ten	Eleven	Twelve
Institutional	2.62	2.63	3.10
Middle-to-Upper Social Class	2.61	2.42	2.64
Lower Social Class	2.87	2.66	2.25

TABLE 35
Comparison of Mean Number of Children Planned
by Groups by Grades

Groups by Grades	Means	t
Institutional--Grade 10	3.10	1.85
Institutional--Grade 12	2.62	
Institutional--Grade 12	3.10	1.87
Middle-to-Upper Social Class--Grade 12	2.64	
Institutional--Grade 12	3.10	3.13**
Lower Social Class--Grade 12	2.25	
Middle-to-Upper Social Class--Grade 10	2.61	0.80
Middle-to-Upper Social Class--Grade 11	2.42	
Lower Social Class--Grade 10	2.87	2.61*
Lower Social Class--Grade 12	2.25	

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

disclosed that they planned to have fewer children as the grade increased; that is, tenth grade adolescents planned to have more children than eleventh grade adolescents, and eleventh grade adolescents planned to have more children than twelfth grade adolescents. A t test showed that the tenth and twelfth grade subjects differed significantly. The twelfth grade adolescents in the lower social class control group also planned to have significantly fewer children than the institutional subjects in the twelfth grades, but not clearly significantly fewer than the middle-to-upper social class control subjects in the twelfth grade, although there was a trend (significant at .10 level) in that direction.

It is possible that further study, especially with larger numbers of subjects, would show more of the changes between grades and between groups to be meaningful. However, conservative interpretation of the data obtained in this study would indicate that the number of children planned by the lower social class subjects decreased over the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades. This trend could possibly be a function of more realistic and serious thought on the part of the older, twelfth grade adolescents; that is, as the adolescents approach marriage age they begin to think more seriously about having children of their own and of the responsibilities involved and the number of children which they can financially support. The finding that the twelfth grade middle-to-upper class subjects plan to have

significantly more children than the lower social class subjects may possibly be indicative of differential expected income levels. It might be speculated that the middle-to-upper class subjects feel that they will be able to financially support more children than the lower social class subjects.

The slightly higher mean number of children planned by the institutional twelfth grade subjects is not consistent with this conclusion, but it is possible that a counter-influence is operative relative to their family size preferences. The institutional twelfth grade subjects might be expected to have larger planned family sizes, according to the earlier suggestion that they desire larger families as a security measure. The t tests comparing these subjects with grade twelve middle-to-upper social class subjects and with grade ten institutional subjects were not clearly significant but were both strongly suggestive (significant at .10 level of probability).

Hypothesis XIII predicted that the institutionalized adolescents would plan to have fewer children than the intact family adolescents. The findings of this study clearly do not support this hypothesis.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Socialization theory has emphasized that the family of orientation serves as the primary agency for socializing the young for marriage and parenthood. In general, research has tended to support this assumption, but the question of what happens to children who experience discontinuity of family living relative to socialization for marriage and parenthood was unanswered. Consequently, it was of interest to explore what kind of beliefs and attitudes adolescents who are living in a child care institution express about marriage, parenthood, and families in general.

Specifically, the purpose of this investigation was to determine and compare differences between adolescents who are living in a child care institution and adolescents who are living in intact family situations with respect to (1) Marriage role expectations, (2) Attitude toward marriage, (3) Attitude toward divorce, (4) Perceptions of generalized family interaction patterns, and (5) Family size preferences.

Hypotheses

In view of the related literature on socialization for marriage and parenthood the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis I. Marriage role expectations of adolescents living in a child care institution are more traditional than the marriage role expectations of adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis II. Marriage role expectations of male adolescents are more traditional than marriage role expectations of female adolescents.

Hypothesis III. The attitude toward marriage of adolescents living in a child care institution is more negative than the attitude toward marriage of adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis IV. The attitude toward marriage of male adolescents is more negative than the attitude of female adolescents.

Hypothesis V. The attitude toward divorce of adolescents living in a child care institution is more negative than the attitude toward divorce of adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis VI. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive families in general as being more democratic than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis VII. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive families in general as being more fair in discipline than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis VIII. Adolescents living in a child care

institution perceive families in general as being more affectionate than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis IX. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive families in general as being more cooperative than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis X. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive a smaller ideal family size than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis XI. Adolescents living in a child care institution perceive fewer children necessary to constitute a large family than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis XII. Adolescents living in a child care institution prefer fewer children than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Hypothesis XIII. Adolescents living in a child care institution plan to have fewer children than do adolescents living in an intact family.

Measuring Instruments

The following measuring instruments were combined in a single questionnaire and administered to each subject: a short form of Dunn Marriage Role Expectation Inventory, which was especially developed for this study; the Hill Favorableness of Attitude to Marriage Scale, the Hardy Divorce Opinionnaire; four Guttman-type scales developed by

Slocum and Stone--Affection Scale, Cooperation Scale, Discipline Scale, and Democracy Scale--which were designed to measure family interaction (culture) patterns, four questions which called for responses in terms of ideal, large, desired and planned family size; and eight sentence completion stems designed to obtain additional information relative to marriage and divorce attitudes.

The Sample

The sample was limited to adolescents who were enrolled in the public schools and were in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades. Three groups of subjects were used in the study--an institutional group and two groups of control subjects from intact families. A total of 124 subjects were obtained from four church-related children's homes in North Carolina. The control subjects were secured from two high schools in Guilford County, North Carolina. No satisfactory method of determining the social class level of institutional subjects was found. Consequently, in order to determine the influence of socio-economic class, one group of control subjects was selected on the basis of lower socio-economic class designation, and the other on the basis of middle-to-upper class membership. A total of 535 questionnaires was administered to students in the two high schools. Out of this total, 285 respondents from intact families were qualified to match the institutional subjects

on the variables of race, religion, single marital status, and grade level. When the respondents were classified by social class, a total of 135 subjects was obtained for the middle-to-upper social class control group, and a total of 150 was obtained for the lower social class control group.

Preliminary Analyses

The results of two-factor analyses of variance, constituted of institutions by sex, disclosed that institutional subjects did not differ significantly by institution on ten of the eleven variables measured. The one variable on which the institutional subjects differed was marriage attitudes. Additional two-factor analyses of variance, constituted of sex and admission age, revealed that there were no main effects due to admission age on any of the variables which were measured. However, significant sex and admission age interaction effects were found in the analysis of the measures of large and desired family size. The differences resulting from institution of residence and age of admission were primarily interpreted as chance findings, but are worthy of further investigation.

Findings

Since the institutional-restricted variables of specific institution of residence and age of admission had little influence on the scores, the institutional subjects were combined into one group for comparison with the two

control groups of intact family subjects. Three-factor analyses of variance constituted of grade by sex by groups were performed for the scores obtained by each of the scales. The following results were obtained:

Marriage role expectations. The analysis of marriage role expectation scores disclosed significant differences among the institutional and control groups. However, it was necessary to analyze the main group effects in relation to a significant interaction between sex and groups. The middle-to-upper social class control subjects held more equalitarian marriage role expectation than the lower social class control subjects. The girls in both groups of control subjects expressed more equalitarian marriage role expectations than the boys in both control groups. The boys in the institutional group, however, expected to assume marriage roles which were slightly more equalitarian than the middle-to-upper social class boys, and significantly more equalitarian than the lower social class boys. The institutional girls were slightly more traditional in marriage role expectations than the lower social class girls, and significantly more traditional than the middle-to-upper social class girls. The girls and boys in the institutional group did not differ significantly in marriage role expectations, although the boys were slightly more equalitarian than the girls.

Marriage Attitudes. When the marriage attitude

were analyzed, the institutional subjects were found to be significantly more negative in marriage attitudes than both groups of control subjects. However, the marriage attitudes of the two control groups did not differ significantly. The responses of three of the six sentence completions reflected the more negative attitude of the institutional subjects found in the analysis of the marriage attitude scale. Girls in all groups expressed a significantly more positive attitude toward marriage than the boys. Additional support for this finding was obtained in the analyses of the responses to three of the six sentence completion stems.

Divorce attitude. No significant sources of variance were found in the analysis of the scores obtained by the Divorce Opinionnaire. The analyses of the two sentence completion responses relative to divorce produced significantly different responses between the institutional and control subjects. The differences between the responses, however, were not suggestive of negative or positive attitudes toward divorce.

Perceptions of family interaction patterns. The analyses of the scores obtained by the family interaction pattern scales revealed that the institutional adolescents perceived family members in general as being significantly less democratic, less fair in discipline, and less affectionate than perceived by the control subjects in both groups. The perceptions of the two groups of control

subjects did not differ. No significant differences were obtained between the scores of the institutional and control subjects on the cooperation scale.

Family size preferences. The subjects responded to four questions relative to the number of children needed for an ideal family and a large family, and the number of children which they desired and planned to have in their own family of procreation.

There were no differences between the institutional and control groups relative to the number of children perceived as constituting an ideal size family.

The institutional subjects perceived significantly more children necessary for a large family than the middle-to-upper social class control subjects, but not significantly more than the lower social class control subjects. The two control groups did not differ significantly in their estimates of large family size, although the lower class group mean was slightly larger than the middle-to-upper class group mean.

No main effects resulting from grade, sex or groups were disclosed but a significant interaction effect between grade and groups was disclosed in the analysis of the number of children desired. The interaction resulted from the fact that the twelfth grade institutional subjects desired more children than the tenth grade institutional subjects, as well as the twelfth grade subjects in both control groups.

No differences among the grades in either of the control groups were found.

A similar interaction between grade and groups was found in the analysis of the number of children planned. In this case, the interaction was due to fact that the twelfth grade subjects in the lower social class group planned to have fewer children than the tenth and eleventh grade subjects in the same group, significantly fewer children than the institutional subjects in all grades, but not significantly fewer children than the middle-to-upper social class subjects in either grade.

Conclusions

After reviewing the findings, the following conclusions appear to be justified:

1. The marriage role expectations of male and female adolescents residing in the children's homes do not differ while the intact family males express more traditional marriage role expectations than the intact family females.
2. Adolescents from the child care institutions are more negative in attitude toward marriage than the adolescents from intact families.
3. The attitude toward marriage of the male adolescents is more negative than the attitude toward marriage of the female adolescents regardless of family background.
4. The institutional and intact family adolescents

do not express differing opinions about divorce.

5. The institutional adolescents perceive patterns of interaction between family members to be less democratic, less affectionate, and less fair in discipline of children than the intact family subjects. The institutional and intact family subjects have similar perceptions as to the extent of cooperation between family members.

6. The institutional and intact family adolescents do not differ in perception of ideal family size. Differences exist among the institutional and intact family adolescents with respect to large, desired and planned family size. However, the exact pattern of differences is not conclusive due to the complex set of factors which apparently influence family size preferences, including grade (and its correlate age), social class, and age of admission to an institution (and its correlate length of stay).

The overall conclusion of this investigation is that, in some respects, the outcome of the process of socialization for marriage and parenthood is different for adolescents who are living in a children's home and adolescents who are living in an intact family. Sufficient information was not obtained to state conclusively to what extent the difference can be attributed to institutional living, per se, or to the family experiences which lead to institutionalization.

Recommendations for Further Research

In view of the findings of this exploratory investigation, the following recommendations for further research are offered:

1. Since it appears from this study that institutional living has a leveling effect on the marriage role expectations of male and female adolescents, an investigation of sex role identification among institutionalized adolescents is recommended.

2. Further research is needed to locate the source of differences between the institutional and intact family subjects which were disclosed in this investigation.

Specifically, it is recommended that further research be conducted relative to the reason why institutional adolescents display more negative attitudes toward marriage than intact family adolescents. Do such attitudes stem from their parental background, institutional living, or defensiveness due to low self esteem?

3. Since this study dealt only with attitudes and beliefs, further research might be devoted to the actual behavior of individuals who have lived in child care institutions relative to actual marriage, divorce, and fertility rates, as well as their child rearing practices.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
ORAL INTRODUCTION AND INSTRUCTIONS

ORAL INTRODUCTION AND INSTRUCTIONS

We are asking you to cooperate and help in a study which is being conducted among young people from a number of schools and institutions in North Carolina. You can help by sharing some of your ideas and opinions about marriage and family living. Each of you will be given a questionnaire which we would like to have you complete. (Distribute questionnaires.)

There are different types of questions included, but for most of them, you will only need to make a circle, or a check mark to give your answer. The questionnaire is divided into seven parts. Instructions are given at the beginning of each section. When you have finished with one part you may go on to the next.

Please read each question carefully and base your answer on your own frank opinions and feelings. The only right and helpful answers will be those which indicate your own ideas and thoughts. If you are not sure about what a particular word or what you are supposed to do, raise your hand for help. You are not expected to write your name on any part of the questionnaire. Are there any questions at this point?

When you have completed the questionnaire, look back to see if you have answered each question. Please leave your questionnaire with me when you finish.

Thank you very much for taking time to do this. Your contribution will be very helpful.

APPENDIX B
MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

GENERAL INFORMATION SHEET FOR SUBJECTS
FROM INSTITUTIONS

Instructions: Will you please tell us something about yourself by checking the answer in each of the following, or by writing in the information requested in the space provided. Do not sign your name.

1. I am:

male
 female

2. My age at last birthday was:

14 years
 15 years
 16 years
 17 years
 18 years
 19 years
 20 years

3. My grade in school is:

9th grade
 10th grade
 11th grade
 12th grade

4. I am a member of:

no church
 a Catholic Church
 a Protestant Church
 a Jewish Synagogue
 other religious group

name of Protestant or other
religious group if a member

5. My age when I first came to stay in this home was ____.

6. I have lived here ____ years.

7. I have ____ brothers.

8. I have ____ sisters.

GENERAL INFORMATION SHEET FOR SUBJECTS
FROM INTACT FAMILIES

Instructions: Will you please tell us something about yourself by checking the answer in each of the following, or by writing the information requested in the space provided. Do not sign your name.

1. I am:
 male
 female
2. My age at last birthday was:
 14 years
 15 years
 16 years
 17 years
 18 years
 19 years
 20 years
3. My grade in school is:
 9th grade
 10th grade
 11th grade
 12th grade
4. I am:
 single
 single, engaged
 married
5. I am a member of:
 no church
 a Catholic Church
 a Protestant Church
 a Jewish Synagogue
 other religious group

 name of Protestant or
 other religious group if a member.
6. I live:
 on a farm
 in the open country
 but my parents are
 not farmers
 in a small town
 in a city
7. I live with:
 my own father and mother
 my own father and step-mother
 my own mother and step-father
 my mother only
 my father only
 other (please specify)

8. My father's occupation is:
 (describe your father's work fully)

9. In school my father completed grades:
 none
 1 to 7
 7 to 9
 10 to 11
 12 or is a high school graduate
 1 to 3 years of college or business school
 is a college graduate
 over 4 years of college
10. I have _____ brothers.

 11. I have _____ sisters.
12. Race:
 Negro
 White
 Other

MARRIAGE ROLE EXPECTATION INVENTORY

Form M

Instructions: Below are brief statements of marriage expectations for husbands and wives. As you read these statements think about what you expect of your own marriage. Please indicate your opinion of each statement in one of the following ways:

1. If you strongly agree with a statement draw a circle around SA.
2. If you agree with a statement draw a circle around A.
3. When you are undecided as to your opinion of a statement put a circle around U.
4. If you disagree with a statement draw a circle around D.
5. If you strongly disagree with a statement draw a circle around SD.

Please answer every question. As you read begin each statement with the phrase "In my marriage I expect"

IN MY MARRIAGE I EXPECT:

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| SA A U D SD | 1. to leave the care of children entirely up to my wife when they are babies. |
| SA A U D SD | 2. to be as interested in spending time with the girls as with the boys in our family. |
| SA A U D SD | 3. that for the most successful family living my wife and I will need more than a high school education. |
| SA A U D SD | 4. that I will decide almost all money matters. |
| SA A U D SD | 5. that since doing things like laundry, cleaning and child care are "woman's work," I will feel no responsibility for them. |
| SA A U D SD | 6. that I will help with the housework, my wife will help with outside chores such as keeping the yard, painting or repairing the house. |
| SA A U D SD | 7. that my wife and I will have equal voice in decisions affecting the family as a whole. |
| SA A U D SD | 8. that after marriage my wife will forget an education and make a home for me. |

SA A U D SD 9. that it will be equally important that my wife is affectionate and understanding as that she is thrifty and skillful as a housekeeper.

SA A U D SD 10. it will be only natural that I will be the one concerned about politics and what is going on in the world.

SA A U D SD 11. that my wife will keep herself informed and active in the work of the community.

SA A U D SD 12. it will be more important that as a husband I am ambitious and a good provider than I am kind, understanding, and get along well with people.

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MARRIAGE ROLE EXPECTATION INVENTORY

Form F

Instructions: Below are brief statements of marriage expectations for husbands and wives. As you read these statements think about what you expect of your own marriage. Please indicate your opinion in one of the following ways:

1. If you strongly agree with a statement draw a circle around SA.
2. If you agree with a statement draw a circle around A.
3. If you are undecided as to your opinion of a statement, put a circle around U.
4. If you disagree with a statement draw a circle around D.
5. If you strongly disagree with a statement draw a circle around SD.

Please answer every question. As you read begin each statement with the phrase "In my marriage I expect"

IN MY MARRIAGE I EXPECT:

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| SA A U D SD | 1. my husband to leave the care of the children up to me when they are babies. |
| SA A U D SD | 3. my husband to be as interested in spending time with the girls as with the boys in our family. |
| SA A U D SD | 4. that for the most successful family living my husband and I will need more than a high school education. |
| SA A U D SD | 4. that almost all money matters will be decided by my husband. |
| SA A U D SD | 5. that since doing things like laundry, cleaning, and child care are "woman's work," my husband will feel no responsibility for them. |
| SA A U D SD | 6. that if my husband helps with the housework, I will help with the outside chores such as keeping the yard, painting or repairing the house. |
| SA A U D SD | 7. that my husband and I will have equal voice in decisions affecting the family as a whole. |

- SA A U D SD 8. that after marriage I will forget an education and make a home for my husband.
- SA A U D SD 9. that it will be equally as important that as a wife I am affectionate and understanding as that I am thrifty and skillful in housekeeping.
- SA A U D SD 10. it will be only natural that my husband will be the one concerned about politics and what is going on in the world.
- SA A U D SD 11. that I will keep myself informed and active in the work of the community.
- SA A U D SD 12. it will be more important that my husband is ambitious and a good provider than that he is kind, understanding and gets along well with people.

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MARRIAGE ATTITUDE SCALE

Instructions: Listed below are some questions about marriage. Think about each question carefully and place a check-mark beside the answer which represents your response to the question.

1. If you marry, to what extent will you miss the life you would have had as a single person?
 - very much
 - to some extent
 - very little
 - not at all
2. In your opinion, to what extent will it trouble you to give up your personal freedom when you marry?
 - very much
 - to some extent
 - very little
 - not at all
3. In your opinion, will adjustment to married life be difficult for you?
 - not at all
 - not too difficult
 - rather difficult
 - very difficult
4. Do you ever have doubts as to whether you will enjoy living exclusively in marriage with one member of the opposite sex?
 - frequently
 - occasionally
 - rarely
 - never
5. In your opinion, to what extent will the responsibilities of married life be enjoyable to you?
 - very enjoyable
 - fairly enjoyable
 - not too enjoyable
 - not at all enjoyable
6. How happy do you think you will be if you marry?
 - very happy
 - happy
 - unhappy
 - very unhappy
7. Do you ever have doubts about your chances of having a successful marriage?
 - frequently
 - occasionally
 - rarely
 - never
8. Do you think you will find (or have found) a person who is a suitable marriage partner for you?
 - yes
 - no
9. Do you think it would be advisable for you always to remain single?
 - yes
 - no

A DIVORCE OPINIONNAIRE

Instructions: Read each of the following statements concerning marriage and divorce. Then circle the letter beside each statement which best represents your own feeling about the statement.

SA means "I strongly agree with this statement"

MA means "I mildly agree with this statement"

N means "I am more or less neutral about it"

MD means "I mildly disagree with this statement"

SD means "I strongly disagree with this statement"

SA MA N MD SD 1. Divorce is a solution to many unhappy marriages.

SA MA N MD SD 2. Marriage is a sacred covenant which should be broken only under the most drastic circumstances.

SA MA N MD SD 3. Children are better off living with one parent rather than two who cannot get along well together.

SA MA N MD SD 4. Most divorces are a farce and ought to be stopped.

SA MA N MD SD 5. It is better for a couple to stay together, to struggle along together if necessary, than to break up a home by getting a divorce.

SA MA N MD SD 6. Divorce is a fine social institution since it alleviates much misery and unhappiness.

SA MA N MD SD 7. Although some people abuse the divorce privilege, it is fundamentally a good thing.

SA MA N MD SD 8. Marriage is essentially an agreement between two interested parties, and if they wish to conclude that agreement they should be permitted to do so.

SA MA N MD SD 9. Divorce is no real solution to an unhappy marriage.

SA MA N MD SD 10. Children need a home with both a father and a mother even though the parents are not especially suited to one another.

SA MA N MD SD 11. Divorce is one of our greatest social evils.

SA MA N MD SD 12. If a couple find getting along with each other a real struggle then they should not feel obligated to remain married.

FAMILY CULTURE PATTERN SCALES

Instructions: Below is a list of statements about family life. Base your answers on what you think best describes the typical or average family in America today. Please note that we are not asking which answer describes your own particular family, but rather how you would describe families in general.

If the answer to the following question is "yes" place a check-mark under "yes."

If the answer is "no" place a check mark under "no."

If the answer is no, place a check mark under "no." If the answer is partly "yes" and partly "no," place a check-mark under "partly."

Yes No Partly

1. Parents listen to suggestions made by their children.
 2. Children are encouraged to make the most of their own decisions.
 3. Parents almost always respect their children's opinion and judgment.
 4. Quarreling between children and parents is frequent.
 5. Parents do not understand children.
 6. Parents help with homework when asked.
 7. There is bickering and quarreling in the home.
 8. Parents are hateful.
 9. Parents dislike children.
 10. Parents are generous with praise.
 11. Parents show real love and affection for children.
 12. Children are ashamed of parents.
 13. Enforcement of rules is not consistent; sometimes punishment is harsh, sometimes not.
 14. Children are disciplined when they don't need it.
 15. Parents get all the facts before punishing.
 16. Some children in the family are punished more severely than others.

On the following questions place a check-mark beside the answer which you think best applies:

17. Rating of families on democratic control by parents:
- very democratic
 - fairly democratic
 - intermediate
 - not very democratic
 - not at all democratic
18. Rating of families on cooperation versus conflict:
- much cooperation within the family
 - quite a bit of cooperation within the family
 - some cooperation, some conflict
 - quite a bit of conflict within the family
 - much conflict within the family
19. Rating of families on affection versus dislike:
- family very affectionate
 - family somewhat affectionate
 - half and half
 - family not very affectionate
 - family very unaffectionate
20. Rating of families on discipline:
- discipline very fair
 - discipline quite fair
 - somewhat fair and somewhat unfair
 - discipline rather unfair
 - discipline very unfair

FAMILY SIZE PREFERENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: Below are some questions concerning family size. Place a check-mark beside the number which is your answer.

1. What do you consider to be the ideal size of a family-- a husband and wife and how many children?

 0 3 6 9 12
 1 4 7 10 (if more write in
 2 5 8 11 number)

2. If and when you marry, how many children would you like to have in your family?

 0 3 6 9 12
 1 4 7 10 (if more write in
 2 5 8 11 number)

3. If and when you marry, how many children do you plan to have in your family?

 0 3 6 9 12
 1 4 7 10 (if more write in
 2 5 8 11 number)

4. In your opinion, how many children must there be in a family before it is considered a large family?

 0 3 6 9 12
 1 4 7 10 (if more write in
 2 5 8 11 number)

SENTENCE COMPLETIONS

Instructions: Complete these sentences to express your real feelings. Please try to do every one. Be sure to make a complete sentence. Work quickly. Give the first answer that comes to your mind.

1. Most people marry because _____

2. For me marriage _____

3. The best thing about marriage is _____

4. The worst thing about marriage is _____

5. Divorce is appropriate _____

6. When people get divorced then _____

7. If it weren't for marriage then _____

8. The person that I marry _____

APPENDIX C

PRELIMINARY ANALYSES OF VARIANCE
OF INSTITUTIONAL-RESTRICTED
VARIABLES

Two-Factor Analysis of Variance for Each
Variable Constituted of
Institution by Sex

Variable	Analysis of Variance			
	Source	DF	MS	F
Marriage Role Expectations				
Institution	3	2.49	0.77	
Sex	1	0.31	0.10	
Sex x Institution	3	5.25	1.62	
Error	116	5.23		
Marriage Attitudes				
Institution	3	9.17	3.31*	
Sex	1	15.16	5.65*	
Sex x Institution	3	1.42	0.51	
Error	116	2.76		
Divorce Attitude				
Institution	3	28.02	0.59	
Sex	1	68.18	1.43	
Sex x Institution	3	30.26	0.64	
Error	116	47.53		
Family Democracy				
Institution	3	0.77	0.24	
Sex	1	0.18	0.06	
Sex x Institution	3	0.21	1.80	
Error	116	3.24		
Family Cooperation				
Institution	3	2.38	0.59	
Sex	1	6.48	1.59	
Institution x Sex	3	1.89	0.46	
Error	116	4.05		
Family Affection				
Institution	3	4.74	0.93	
Sex	1	6.72	1.31	
Institution x Sex	3	1.49	0.29	
Error	116	5.11		

Two-Factor Analysis of Variance for Each
Variable Constituted of Institution
by Sex (cont'd)

Variable	Source	Analysis of Variance		
		DF	MS	F
Family Discipline	Institution	3	1.90	0.50
	Sex	1	3.01	0.75
	Institution x Sex	3	1.63	0.40
	Error	116	4.04	
Ideal Family Size	Institution	3	0.59	0.30
	Sex	1	0.08	0.04
	Institution x Sex	3	0.66	0.33
	Error	116	1.97	1.40
Desired Family Size	Institution	3	1.49	0.46
	Sex	1	0.22	0.07
	Institution x Sex	3	0.78	0.24
	Error	116	3.26	
Planned Family Size	Institution	3	2.08	1.34
	Sex	1	1.41	0.91
	Institution x Sex	3	1.49	0.96
	Error	116	1.55	
Large Family Size	Institution	3	5.01	0.89
	Sex	1	7.84	1.40
	Institution x Sex	3	3.36	0.60
	Error	116	5.62	

* Significant at .05 level

Two-Factor Analysis of Variance for Each
Variable Constituted of Admission
Age by Sex

Variable	Source	Analysis of Variance		
		DF	MS	F
Marriage Role Expectations				
	Admittance Age	1	10.23	3.08
	Sex	1	0.00	0.00
	Admittance Age x Sex	2	0.08	0.02
	Error	120	3.31	1.82
Marriage Attitude				
	Admittance Age	1	3.42	1.23
	Sex	1	26.84	9.66**
	Admittance Age x Sex	2	9.49	3.41
	Error	120	2.78	1.66
Divorce Attitude				
	Admittance Age	1	13.48	0.28
	Sex	1	39.53	0.83
	Admittance Age x Sex	2	13.87	0.29
	Error	120	47.52	
Family Democracy				
	Admittance Age	1	6.44	2.08
	Sex	1	1.21	0.39
	Admittance Age x Sex	2	2.34	0.75
	Error	120	3.08	1.76
Family Cooperation				
	Admittance Age	1	9.84	2.48
	Sex	1	7.91	2.00
	Admittance Age x Sex	2	1.93	0.49
	Error	120	3.96	
Family Affection				
	Admittance Age	1	7.73	1.55
	Sex	1	7.58	1.52
	Admittance Age x Sex	2	0.00	0.00
	Error	120	5.00	

Two-Factor Analysis of Variance for Each
 Variable Constituted of Admission
 Age by Sex (cont'd)

Variable	Source	Analysis of Variance		
		DF	MS	F
Family Discipline				
	Admittance Age	1	0.80	0.20
	Sex	1	9.99	2.51
	Admittance Age x Sex	2	0.21	0.05
	Error	120	3.98	
Ideal Family Size				
	Admittance Age	1	0.38	0.19
	Sex	1	0.01	0.00
	Admittance Age x Sex	2	0.59	0.30
	Error	120	1.93	
Desired Family Size				
	Admittance Age	1	3.28	1.08
	Sex	1	0.30	0.08
	Admittance Age x Sex	1	16.31	5.37*
	Error	120	3.04	1.74
Planned Family				
	Admittance Age	1	0.04	0.02
	Sex	1	2.42	1.59
	Admittance Age x Sex	1	5.14	3.37
	Error	120	1.52	1.23
Large Family Size				
	Admittance Age	1	5.83	1.09
	Sex	1	6.21	1.16
	Admittance Age x Sex	1	24.15	4.52*
	Error	120	5.34	

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

APPENDIX D

MEAN SCORES OF INSTITUTIONAL-RESTRICTED VARIABLES

Mean Scores of Institutional Subjects
by Specific Institution on
Each Variable

Variable	Mean			
	Institution			
	Inst. I	Inst. II	Inst. III	Inst. IV
Marriage Role Expectations	8.13	7.87	8.65	8.31
Marriage Attitude	3.70	4.52	3.33	3.00
Divorce Attitude	8.18	6.95	5.90	5.73
Family Democracy	8.42	8.48	8.35	8.08
Family Cooperation	9.20	9.83	9.67	9.23
Family Affection	14.63	14.52	14.36	13.69
Family Discipline	9.23	9.43	9.54	8.92
Ideal Family Size	3.43	3.09	3.40	3.15
Desired Family Size	3.03	3.35	3.13	2.78
Planned Family Size	2.83	3.00	2.67	2.38
Large Family Size	6.78	6.30	6.46	5.69

Mean Scores of Institutional Subjects
by Age of Admittance on
Each Variable

Variable	Mean		
	Early Admittance	Late Admittance	Age
Marriage Role Expectations	8.53		7.94
Marriage Attitude	3.76		3.44
Divorce Attitude	34.47		35.23
Family Democracy	8.20		8.65
Family Cooperation	9.74		9.13
Family Affection	14.62		14.08
Family Discipline	9.41		9.27
Ideal Family Size	3.37		3.25
Desired Family Size	3.24		2.88
Planned Family Size	2.78		2.71
Large Family Size	6.63		6.17