

THE IMPACT OF PARENTAL DEATH DURING ADOLESCENCE
ON SEPARATION-INDIVIDUATION PROCESS

by

SANDRA ELDER
B.A., UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA, 1962
B.ED., UNIVERSITY OF REGINA, 1969
M.ED., UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA, 1982

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT

OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

ACCEPTED
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the Faculty

DATE Sept 9/93 DEAN

of

Education

We accept this dissertation as conforming
to the required standard

Dr. Donald Knowles

Dr. Max Uhlemann

Dr. Roy Ferguson

Dr. William Borgen, External Examiner

© SANDRA ELDER, 1993

University of Victoria

June 1993

All rights reserved. This thesis may not be reproduced
in whole or in part, by mimeograph or other means,
without the permission of the author.

Supervisor: Dr. Donald Knowles

ABSTRACT

Whether or not major changes in family structure during adolescence have positive or negative consequences for adolescents has not been empirically investigated to any extent. The separation-individuation process is considered to be facilitated when adolescents can express themselves in a family context characterized by emotional connectedness (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986). This individuation process is not concerned exclusively with separation or autonomy but rather with the continuing embeddedness of the individual in relationships with others (Karpel, 1976; Youniss, 1983).

The impact of parental death on the process of separation-individuation in adolescence was examined in this study. Thirty male and female adolescents, ages 12 to 16 years, from families in which the father had died participated in this study. They were compared with thirty adolescents of comparable age from intact families. The adolescents completed instruments that provided information about development of autonomy (Emotional Autonomy Scale), attachment to mother, father and peers (Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment), and adolescents' perception of family functioning (Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire).

Adolescents from the father-deceased group are more autonomous than the intact group in some of the scales. Males from the father-

deceased group scored significantly higher than males from the intact group on the emotional autonomy subscales. Adolescents in the father-deceased families showed similar attachment to fathers and mothers when compared with adolescents from intact families. Adolescents' perceptions of their family functioning showed similar results for both the father-deceased and intact groups with adolescents who scored high in family functioning being less autonomous. Similarly adolescents from the father-deceased group who were more attached to mothers showed less autonomy according to their scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale. Adolescents' attachment to peers was unrelated to their level of autonomy.

Examiners:

Dr. Donald Knowles

Dr. Max Uhlemann

Dr. Roy Ferguson

Dr. William Borgen, External Examiner

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Abstract.....	ii
Table of Contents.....	iv
List of Tables.....	vii
List of Figures.....	xi
Acknowledgments.....	xvi
Dedication.....	xviii
Chapter 1: Statement of the Problem.....	1
Chapter 2: Literature Review	
Introduction.....	7
Separation-Individuation Process.....	8
Impact of Family Relationships on Adolescent's Development.....	14
Parental Attachment and Loss Issues.....	24
Emotional Autonomy.....	27
Research Questions.....	34
Chapter 3: Methodology	
Overview.....	36
Selection of Participants.....	36
Measures.....	40
Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire.....	41
Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment.....	42
Emotional Autonomy Scale.....	42

Demographic Questionnaire.....	43
Adolescent Life Change Event Scale.....	43
Procedure.....	44
Chapter 4: Results and Discussion	
Preliminary Results.....	47
The Impact of Previous Losses.....	50
Emotional Autonomy.....	53
Adolescents attachment to mothers and fathers.....	61
Gender differences in autonomy to father death	64
Relationship between autonomy and relationship with parents.....	75
Attachment scores and relationship with peers.....	86
Chapter 5: Conclusions and Implications.....	91
Future Research.....	95
Limitations of the Study.....	96
References.....	98
Appendixes	
Appendix A: Recruitment Speech.....	107
Appendix B: Information about the research study.....	108
Appendix C: Memo to all participants in this study.....	110
Appendix D: Demographic Questionnaire: Part I.....	111
Demographic Questionnaire: Part I.....	112

Appendix E: Adolescent Life Change Event Scale.....	113
Appendix F: Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire.....	114
Appendix G: Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment.....	115
Appendix H: Emotional Autonomy Scale	116
Appendix I: Informed Consent Forms Adolescents..... Parents.....	117 119
Appendix J: Additional Tables.....	121
Appendix K: Additional Figures.....	137

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Frequency of Adolescent Life Change Events of the Father-Deceased and Intact Groups.....	51-52
Table 2: Means, standard deviations, and P values on the Emotional Autonomy Scale and the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment.....	54
Table 3: Means, standard deviation and P values on the Emotional Autonomy Scale between the two groups by sex.....	65
Table 4: Means, standard deviation, and P values on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment between the two groups by sex.....	70
Table 5: Means, standard deviations, and P values on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire between groups.....	76
Table 6: Means, standard deviations, and P values on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire between groups by sex.....	80
Table 7: Correlation Matrix for the Father-Deceased Group - Males and Females on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire and the Emotional Autonomy Scale.....	82
Table 8: Correlation Matrix of the Total and Subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire and the Total and Subscale scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale.....	83

Table 9:	Means, standard deviations, and t values on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (mother only) and the Emotional Autonomy Scale by sex and level of mother attachment in the father-deceased group.....	85
Table 10:	Correlation Matrix for the Father-Deceased Group - Males and Females on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment and the Emotional Autonomy Scale for Peers only.....	87
Table 11:	Means and standard deviations for Attachment Scores (Armsden, 1986).....	90
Table 12:	P values between scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale and the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for Males in the F-Deceased group.....	121
Table 13:	P values between scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale and the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for Females in the F-Deceased group.....	122
Table 14:	P values between scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale and the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for Males in the Intact group.....	123
Table 15:	P values between scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale and the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for Females in the Intact group.....	124
Table 16:	Anova: Emotional Autonomy Scale and the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for Males in the Intact group.....	125

Table 17: Anova: Emotional Autonomy Scale and the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for Females in the Intact group.....	126
Table 18: Anova: Emotional Autonomy Scale and the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for Males in the F-Deceased group.....	127
Table 19: Anova: Emotional Autonomy Scale and the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for Females in the F-Deceased group.....	128
Table 20: Correlation Matrices: Total Group; Intact Group-Males only; Intact Group-Females only; F-Deceased Group-Males only and the F-Deceased Group-Females only on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment scores for peers with their scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale.....	129
Table 21: Correlations between subscales of the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire.....	130
Table 22: Means, standard deviations, and range of ratings of the subscales of the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire.....	131
Table 23: Means, standard deviations, and t values on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment and the Emotional Autonomy Scale by gender in the father-deceased group.....	132
Table 24: Data: Univariate Analysis Following Manova: Emotional Autonomy Scale: Total Score (EAT) Subscales: Individuation (EAI) Parents-as-People (EAP) Nondependence (EAN) Deidealization (EAD)	133

Table 25: Data: Univariate Analysis Following Manova: Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment: Mother (IPPAM) Father (IPPAF) Peers (IPPAP)134
Table 26: Data: Univariate Analysis Follwing Manova: Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire: Total Score (FFT) Subscales: Structure (FFS) Affect (FFA) Communication (FFC)135
Table 27: Analysis of Variance for the Father-Deceased group (males and females) level of Mother Attachment scores and Total scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale.....	136

TABLE OF FIGURES

Figure A:	Distribution of the Total score (EAT) on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	56
Figure B:	Distribution of the scores for Individuation (EAI) on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	56
Figure C:	Distribution of the scores for Nondependence (EAN) on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	58
Figure D:	Distribution of the scores for Parents-as- People (EAP) on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	58
Figure E:	Distribution of the scores of Deidealization (EAD) on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	59
Figure F:	Distribution of the scores for attachment to mother (IPPAM) on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	143
Figure G:	Distribution of the scores for attachment to father (IPPAF) on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	143
Figure H:	Distribution of the scores for attachment to peers (IPPAP) on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	143

Figure I:	Distribution of the scores for attachment to mother (IPPAM) on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for the males and females from both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	71
Figure J:	Distribution of the scores for attachment to father (IPPAD) on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for the males and females from both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	71
Figure K:	Distribution of the scores for attachment to peers (IPPA) on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for males and females from both groups: Intact and F-Deceased.....	71
Figure L:	Distribution of the scores for attachment to mother (M) on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for the males and females in the Intact Group.....	72
Figure M:	Distribution of the scores for attachment to father (F) on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for the males and females in the Intact group.....	72
Figure N:	Distribution of the scores for attachment to peers (FR) on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment for the males and females in the Intact group.....	72
Figure O:	Distribution of the scores for the Total scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for the Intact and F-Deceased group.	78

Figure P: Distribution of the scores for the Structure subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for the F-Deceased and Intact group.....	78
Figure Q: Distribution of the scores for the Affect subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for the F-Deceased and Intact group.....	78
Figure R: Distribution of the scores for the Communication subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for the F-Deceased and Intact group.....	137
Figure S: Distribution of the Total scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for females and males from the Intact group.....	138
Figure T: Distribution of the Structure subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for females and males from the Intact group.....	138
Figure U: Distribution of the Affect subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for females and males from the Intact group.....	138
Figure V: Distribution of the Communication subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for females and males from the Intact group.....	139
Figure W: Distribution of the Total scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for females and males from the F-Deceased group	79

- Figure X: Distribution of the Structure subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for females and males from the F-Deceased group.....79
- Figure Y: Distribution of the Affect subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for females and males from the F-Deceased group.....79
- Figure Z: Distribution of the Communication subscale scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire for females and males from the F-Deceased group.....140
- Figure AA: Distribution of the Total scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for males and females from the F-Deceased group.....67
- Figure BB: Distribution of the Individuation subscale scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for males and females from the F-Deceased group.....67
- Figure CC: Distribution of the Nondependence subscale scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for males and females from the F-Deceased group.....67
- Figure DD: Distribution of the Parents-as-People subscale scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for males and females from the F-Deceased group.....141
- Figure EE: Distribution of the Deidealization subscale scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for males and females from the F-Deceased.....141
- Figure FF: Distribution of the Total scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale for males and females from the Intact group.....68

- Figure GG: Distribution of the Individuation
subscale scores on the Emotional
Autonomy Scale for males and
females from the Intact group.....68
- Figure HH: Distribution of the Nondependence
subscale scores on the Emotional
Autonomy Scale for males and
females from the Intact group.....68
- Figure II: Distribution of the Parents-as-People
subscale scores on the Emotional
Autonomy Scale for males and
females from the Intact group.....142
- Figure JJ: Distribution of the Deidealization
subscale scores on the Emotional
Autonomy Scale for males and females
from the Intact group.....142

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my research committee for their support and encouragement throughout the process of completing my doctoral degree. In particular, I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Don Knowles, for his continuing support of my research project, his assistance in helping me to make it a reality and his friendship.

I would like to thank each of the sixty adolescents who were so willing to assist me with this study. Their involvement was essential to the completion of the study and required their time, effort and support. I would also like to extend my thanks to the teachers, counsellors and administrators in the various schools that participated in my study. Their help was invaluable and their efforts on my behalf were often "above and beyond the call of duty". A thank you to the parents of the adolescents who were involved in my study. They were also very supportive and I would like to acknowledge their assistance. I would like to extend my appreciation to Darrell Pacini, a graduate from the School of Child and Youth Care (May 1992), who was my research assistant and helped to recruit some of the participants in this study. Finally, I would like to

acknowledge the support and assistance of my secretary, Sue Fossum, who willingly gave of her time to type the final draft on her days off.

Being a student, mother, wife, friend and private practitioner in the field of counselling psychology has been a challenge for me. The support of my husband, Rick, and our children, Craig and Kristine, has been a constant throughout this process of completing my doctoral degree. Their love and understanding during some very difficult times has encouraged me to carry on no matter what! My friends who are scattered across Canada, have given me wonderful support and encouragement throughout the years that it took to complete this degree (even though it took longer than planned). Finally, the clients in my private practise who also encouraged me to complete my degree.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this research study to two individuals who had an impact on my study:

Peter McClung Born: May 7, 1942

Died: February 1, 1993

Kaycee Poirier Born: January 27, 1980

Died: March 19, 1992

Both Peter and Kaycee died of cancer. Peter was a "father" of two girls: Julie and Karen and Kaycee was a "child" who left behind a mother, father and two older sisters. Peter was told that I would be dedicating my dissertation to him before he died. His first comment after hearing this was "be sure that you spell my last name right". Kaycee was also told that I was dedicating my dissertation to her before she died.

Peter was a man who loved his family, his friends, his work and his leisure time. His favorite pastimes were scuba diving, wood carving his whales, travelling to far off places and his trips back to Regina, Saskatchewan. He loved the ocean, the prairies and Vancouver Island. Peter was a consummate support of my research. He encouraged me, believed in me, cajoled me into getting it done and he frequently praised my accomplishments. He was a "good friend". Kaycee was a

"wise old soul" in a very young body. She loved life and often tried to make others feel happy even if she was frustrated with her illness. Kaycee will long be remembered for her principles of attitudinal healing that she re-wrote for children. These principles are in the first chapter of a book by Dr. Gerald Jampolsky and Diane Cirincione entitled "Change Your Mind, Change Your Life". Kaycee's principles are also printed on a bookmark that is available in the United States, Canada, Australia and Soviet Union. Kaycee's last message to us at her funeral was the song "Don't Worry, Be Happy"! She believed that "since love was forever, death need not be scary" (her principle #11).

Peter and Kaycee will never ever be forgotten. They have left their presence through Peter's whale carvings that are presently in the Quest Gallery in Victoria and Kaycee's children's version of the principles of attitudinal healing. Thank you Peter and Kaycee for being in my life and having an impact on my work!

Chapter One

Our relationships with others help us navigate the passages of life..... We really cannot become separate and autonomous unless we have a solid developmental foundation, which is built through our connections and attachments (Ivey, 1991, p.2).

Connection is as vital as separation. To survive, we must be simultaneously attached to others but also separate..... As we move to the developmental tasks of autonomy and identity, we must define our separate boundaries from our family and others (Ivey, 1991, p.158).

A study of the factors that influence adolescents' adjustment to significant loss must also involve the developmental issues that adolescents face. Changes in the family structure have a significant effect on the developmental process of adolescence. The developmental tasks of adolescence are successfully accomplished within the context of a supportive and understanding environment. When the circumstances are such that the context is altered or is in a state of transition, adolescents may experience difficulties in making the necessary developmental tasks (Sessa & Steinberg, 1991).

An important aspect of adolescent development in the context of the present research project is the transformation in the reciprocal patterning of the parent-child relationship in contrast to breaking the bond between parent and child (Hill & Steinberg, 1976; Youniss, 1983). The parent-child relationship is

"typical" under usual family conditions (intact families). The relationship between adolescents and parents is seen as an enduring bond that continues throughout the life span (Youniss, 1983); a relationship which undergoes significant transformation during adolescence and young adulthood (Hill & Steinberg, 1976; White et al, 1983) as it is renegotiated from patterns of relatively unilateral authority towards mutuality (Youniss, 1983). These researchers have emphasized the significance of the continuing interplay between individuality and connectedness in family relationships as being important indicators of individual and family functioning.

When both parents are available the process of individuation during adolescence has been characterized in terms of autonomy, independence and detachment from family members (Grotevant & Cooper, 1983). Detachment is typically viewed as an inevitable aspect of adolescent development with both positive and negative connotations. It may represent a necessary step toward independence or autonomy; it may set the stage for self-reliance. Yet, detachment can also represent loss and separation, wherein a relatively dependent person is severed from a source of guidance, affection, or

nuturance (Ryan & Lynch, 1989, p.340).

Hill & Holmbeck (1986) argue that closeness with parents should be positively related to indices of autonomy and that the use of the term detachment as a general descriptor of parent-child relationships ignores the normative closeness of these relationships. Ryan & Lynch (1989) define detachment as an absence of the experience of attachment or cohesion between parent and child. Facilitative parent-adolescent relationships are characterized by a secure attachment, which will typically be accompanied by experiencing acceptance and support for developmental tasks such as the separation-individuation process. The individuation process is not concerned exclusively with separation or autonomy but rather with the continuing embeddedness of the individual in relationships with others (Karpel, 1976; Youniss, 1983).

Growth in independence and autonomy does not mean that adolescents must sever emotional ties with parents or move away from their parents' emotional support. Rather, this growth requires that parental support for the developmental tasks of adolescence continue within a context of family cohesion and love. It is attachment rather than detachment that optimizes individuation

and the capacities for relatedness to self and others during adolescence (Ryan & Lynch, 1989). A current psychological view (Bretherton, 1987; Ryan & Lynch, 1989) is that the separation-individuation process during adolescence is facilitated by attachment not by detachment. The maintenance of the parent-adolescent relationship permits optimal autonomy through the context of emotional support.

Emotional autonomy is not something that happens from parents but rather with them (Ryan & Lynch, 1989). Lamborn and Steinberg (1990) indicated that there is little research on the relation between emotional autonomy and adolescent adjustment. Emotional autonomy is viewed as an important aspect of individuation (Douvan & Adelson, 1966; Blos, 1979). Because emotional autonomy is a relational construct, it is difficult to assess its significance and qualities without making reference to the object from whom the adolescent is becoming autonomous. Steinberg & Silverberg (1986) concluded that young people move through a transitional period in the progression to true self-reliance. Initially, young adolescents gain a sense of emotional autonomy from their parents that leaves them susceptible to peer pressure. "Only after this transitional period,

in which adolescents are easily influenced by peers who substitute the missing support from parents, do adolescents stand more solidly on their own opinions and decisions....." (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1990, p.4). In essence, the outcomes of the process of individuation depend in large measure on transformation in the nature of the parent-adolescent relationship (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1990).

Since one of the developmental tasks of adolescence is forging an identity separate from parents, the death of a parent not only alters the family unity as a whole but also influences the normal adolescent developmental process. Raphael (1983) considers parental death "likely to be the greatest loss for the adolescent, especially in the earlier years when he/she has not completed the separation" (p.145). The permanent loss of the parental relationship may interfere with the "typical" separation-individuation process.

The impact of father ^{death} on adolescents' developmental process raises the possibility of autonomy being interfered with because detachment occurs prematurely. A recent study conducted by Blain, Thompson and Whiffen (1993) suggests that in order for adolescents to appropriately separate and individuate

from their families, they must have a secure base, and solid relationships with their parents. Even though adolescents may exhibit behavioural indications of individuation, affectively they are unable to negotiate the developmental task of individuating (Blain et al, 1993). Of particular interest in the present study was the impact of parental death during adolescence on the separation-individuation process for individuals from father-deceased families.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

An understanding of the separation-individuation process, the issues that influence normal adolescent development, the impact of significant alterations in the family context, and the quality of adolescents' relationships with mother, father and peers formed the basis for this research study.

Normal adolescent development involves learning to be psychologically independent of one's parents, developing relationships outside the family unit, and seeking one's own identity. These achievements cannot be accomplished if adolescents continue childhood-like attachments to parents nor can they be achieved by becoming totally disconnected from the family. The transition to mature self-reliance is a process known as separation-individuation. Becoming an autonomous individual is not mutually exclusive with maintaining an interdependent relation with one's parents. They are complementary processes and part of normal family growth and development during adolescence (Kimmel & Weiner, 1985).

Separation-Individuation Process

Many adolescents face the process of separation-individuation with great ambivalence. They vacillate between the desire for independence and the security afforded by childhood. They are neither adults nor children (Kimmel & Weiner, 1985). The concept of separation-individuation can be viewed as being on a continuum that tends to oscillate between being a child and being an adult. Successful separation-individuation means that the adolescent has a sense of self and still remains connected to the family. In contrast, an unsuccessful process means that the adolescent is alienated and is characterized by disruptive behaviours, a rejection of societal and family norms, and potential suicide. Alienated adolescents have separated not only from society and family, but from themselves. They have not completed individuation (Daniels, 1990: pp.106-107).

Individuation is conceived as a developmental process involving an individual's successive and progressive negotiation of the balance between separateness and connectedness in relationship to the family of origin (Cohler & Geyer, 1982; Grotevant & Cooper, 1986; Mahler, Pine & Bergman, 1975; Meyer, 1980; Staff, 1973). During adolescence a shift in the level

of interconnectedness with the family is necessary in order for the adolescent to begin the task of assuming adult roles and responsibilities (Blos, 1967). The relative success of the renegotiation of these parent and child positions is hypothesized to be related to adolescent personal adjustment (Sabatelli & Allison, 1988; Cooper, Grotevant & Condon, 1983). Alterations in the family context may result in some disruptions that have an impact on adolescent development. Bartle, Anderson & Sabatelli (1989) assumed that individuation and parenting style were affected by such disruptions in the family as divorce or death. When examining the mediators of adolescent development and their adaptations, they emphasized that future research should involve a more careful examination of the interdependence between the sex of the child, the parenting style of each parent, and adolescent individuation.

Bloom (1980) considers that the single most significant feature in determining whether the separation process will be destructively conflicting or constructive is whether the adolescent feels secure concerning parents' regard for him or her. Since strong feelings such as ambivalence, anger and guilt are always

a part of separation where rejection is seen as likely, separation is seen as dangerous. If the parents are rejecting, then the introjection and identification process includes self-rejection. Offer & Offer (1975) found that adolescents who experienced a separation from a significant other in childhood were more likely to experience difficulty when separating from their parents. In contrast, those adolescents who experienced the separation process most comfortably had not experienced traumatic separation in their past. They had separation experiences that corresponded to their stage of development such as going to camp, going to school and outings with peers.

Masterson (1972) observed that those parents who were themselves rejected or who had poor experiences in separating from their parents expected a similar circumstance with their own adolescent children. To protect themselves from this expected rejection, these parents would often reject their children at the first signs of independence.

Bloom (1980) listed the following variables as being important to the adolescent-parental separation process: (a) the readiness of the individual for independence, (b) cognitive influences and the emergence

of formal operational thinking during adolescence, (c) the nature of the parent-child relationship, (d) past experiences of the parents and the adolescent in separation, and (e) the cultural influences on the separation process.

The recurring themes in separation studies are (a) the initial response to separation is an attempt to reattach and a feeling of being injured, (b) a general sense of identity diffusion, and (c) an apathetic attitude toward new relationships until the bereavement period is at least somewhat resolved.

When reattachment attempts fail, the individual must grapple with the reality of the loss. This is done by alternately embracing memories of the lost object and feeling overwhelmed by these feelings and avoiding the memories. When the loss is intellectually accepted, the issue becomes one of coming to terms with it on an emotional level. This often involves feelings of depression and despair. When the affect has been confronted, the person, by the process of identification and internalization of his or her most important qualities, gives up the attachment. A symbiotic relationship is the most difficult from which to withdraw.

Adolescent-parental separation is a natural part of the life cycle. It is initiated by development in capabilities for self-sufficiency, cognition and the desire for independence. It is encouraged by the culture, especially the peer group that shares in the experience. This separation is also different in that it is not the complete disengagement of the relationship, but is a change from child-parent relationship to a more equal or symmetrical adult-to-adult relationship. In order to make this change, many needs that were previously fulfilled by the parent-child relationship must be withdrawn before other ways of relating can be established. In essence, certain expectations, ways of responding and fulfillments must die. The powerful parent-child relationship so necessary to child development must now die in order to allow the young adult to pursue independently his or her future.

Facing the death of the parent-child relationship is a bereavement process which includes essentially the same major tasks faced by all those who grieve. This process can be a mild response or a powerful overwhelming one; it can be a developmental experience or a constricting one. Further understanding of the

parent-child relationship and the separation process involves exploring the variables that may have an impact on the bereavement process (Bloom, 1980, pp.22-23). The variables that affect the grieving process during separation-individuation are control of the impulse to remain attached; cognitive realization of the separation-individuation process; affective response to the separation-individuation process and the need to make sense of this process; identification of the important gratifications that the parent-child relationship provides and provisions of these gratifications for themselves; a new identity and a new relationship with their parents and others.

Essential to understanding individuation is the notion that it is a process. Individuation has been defined by Karpel (1976) as:

the process by which a person becomes increasingly differentiated from a past or present relational context. This process encompasses a multitude of intrapsychic and interpersonal changes that share a common direction (p.66).

The individuation process is therefore not concerned

exclusively with separation or autonomy but rather with the continuing embeddedness of the individual in relationships with others (Karpel, 1976; Youniss, 1983). Conceiving of the individuation process as an extension of family development requires that the family be analyzed as a significant codeterminant of individual development (Sabatelli & Allison, 1988; Hill & Matessich, 1979; Hooper & Hooper, 1985). A recent body of research considered the nature of parent-child interactions in relationship to adolescent individuation (Bell & Bell, 1982; Grotevant & Cooper, 1985; Hauser et al, 1984; White, Speisman & Costas, 1983). These studies suggest that there is a need to examine the interrelationships among family dynamics, individuation and psychosocial development.

Impact of Family Relationships on Adolescents' Development

Relationships may be altered or at least redefined during important transitions since they are an essential aspect of self-definitions (Hartup, 1987; Hinde, 1979, 1989). Since individuals facing an important life event or experiencing a life transition are embedded in relational systems. The dynamic interactions between personal development and the changing ecology of human

life have been illustrated most extensively in respect to the family. The study of dynamic person-context relations has been extended into adolescence and involves the consideration of the interrelations of the family, peer and school contexts. The family is a dynamic context, one wherein a child is both transformer and the transformed. The family is a system of developing individuals. As the child moves through adolescence, family members are faced with the task of changing their relationship in ways that reflect increasing symmetry in their contributions to the relationship. This relationship is an enduring bond that continues throughout the life span (Youniss, 1983) but undergoes transformations in adolescence and young adulthood (Hill & Steinberg, 1976; White et al, 1983) as it is renegotiated from patterns of relatively unilateral authority towards mutuality (Youniss, 1983).

The quality of family relationships continues to be a major factor contributing to the development of competence in adolescence. Although parents continue to monitor, guide and evaluate them, young adolescents are also beginning to seek peer-like relationships with their parents (Hill, 1980; Youniss, 1980). As well,

they are seeking peer relationships which serve as an external reference that allows them to see how they are similar and different from others. Adolescence is a "second individuation" process (Blos, 1979) in which the adolescent must seek new attachments outside the family environment.

Emerging formal operational thinking allows the adolescent to reflect upon the question of existing family norms and practices (Elkind, 1967). From a relational point of view, Youniss (1980) presented evidence that early adolescents are first becoming aware of the two social-normative worlds in which they simultaneously participate: (a) their cooperative relationships with peers, (b) the more unilateral relationships with their parents. A critical task of adolescence is to achieve an integration of these two discrepant worlds into a system of personal values (Emmerich et al, 1971) and to attain the capacity to participate in adult relations both within and outside the family (White et al, 1983; Youniss, 1980).

Previous research has tended to focus on the factors that influence adolescent development and the separation-individuation process. Only a limited portion of this research has examined the influence of

family structure on this process. Changes in the family structure such as divorce, separation and death may have implications for future adaptation of adolescents to their new living arrangements and their successful completion of the separation-individuation process. Emery (1982) explored the relationship of marital turmoil to behavioral problems of children. Emery concluded that parental conflict was detrimental to the adolescent development process irrespective of whether the adolescent lives in an intact or divorced household. Therefore, parental conflict in a father-deceased household may be an additional factor leading to premature and unhealthy adolescent separation-individuation.

Several writers (Blos, 1967; Steinberg, 1990) have suggested that apparent disturbances in relationships may serve the positive function of facilitating adolescents' independence and diminishing dependence on parents. In the process of the attainment of independence, parents are expected to be aware of the adolescents' individuation in order to enable them to separate yet still ensure the confidence that they can turn to their parents in time of need (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986). A study by Shulman & Klein (1982)

indicated that family patterns that lacked closeness or support for adolescents' independent strivings were common in a sample of maladjusted 12 to 18 year olds. Family interaction patterns that foster both individuation and connectedness in relationships have been found to be associated with adolescents' improved status on measures of identity exploration, role-taking skills and ego development (Grotevant & Cooper, 1985, 1986; Hauser et al, 1984). During late adolescence the perceptions of a low level of parental acceptance may be less salient, because the late adolescent may have established support relationships outside the family which will serve further development (Johnson et al, 1991).

Johnson et al (1991) posed a significant question as to whether or not incongruent parenting patterns between mothers and fathers affect psychosocial development in adolescence. These differences in parenting patterns may create dysfunctional systemic characteristics that can impair psychosocial development. These parenting patterns were often linked to psychosocial outcomes in the areas of self-esteem, school adaptation and school achievements. These results are consistent with other findings indicating

that a combination of acceptance and the structure of the family system provides the most supportive environment for psychosocial development (Shulman, Seiffge-Krenke & Samet, 1987; Hill, 1987). Hetherington, Cox & Cox (1982) discussed the impact of the presence of a more stable parent, in contrast to an emotionally unstable or incompetent parent, on the developing adolescent.

The influence of family structure on the development of autonomy during adolescence was examined by Sessa & Steinberg (1991). They proposed that changes in family structure which occur prior to adolescence may affect the development of autonomy during adolescence in two ways: (a) they trigger the autonomy process; and (b) they can transform the context in which the developmental tasks of adolescence take place. Adjustment to the loss of a parent as a result of divorce, or the addition of a parent through remarriage, creates newly aligned family relations that differ from those in intact, two-parent families. Consequently, according to Sessa & Steinberg the development of autonomy and the related transformations in parent-adolescent relationships in restructured families may follow a different direction than in intact families.

Previous research which focused on children's adjustment to familial change led to inferences about negative effects on children and adolescents (Ganony & Coleman, 1987; Hetherington et al, 1989). Sessa & Steinberg (1991) attempted to provide a theoretical foundation for understanding the influence of changes in family structure on the development of autonomy. They suggested that these alterations in the family structure modify the normative process of autonomy, though not necessarily in an undesirable way.

Only one published study, that of Anderson, Hetherington & Clingempeel (1989) has specifically examined the relations between developmental transitions and family structure. In this study, the nature of the developmental transformations of early adolescent family relationships varied as a function of household composition. Development appeared to follow a different course in nontraditional homes than in traditional homes. The dynamics within the parent-adolescent dyads differed according to the gender of both the child or adolescent and parent, and according to the type of marital change.

Many of the most important issues inherent in family transitions involve the renegotiation of the

interpersonal relationships (Emery, 1988). This realignment of family relations is considered to be a hallmark of the development of autonomy (Steinberg, 1990).

In the process of redefining these family relationships, there are temporary disturbances in the parent-adolescent relationship (Collins, 1990; Hill, 1980; Steinberg, 1990). Both internal and external processes introduce the instability necessary for initiating or facilitating the developmental tasks of adolescence. The internal processes include changes within the adolescent such as intrapsychic, cognitive and biological changes; and the external processes include changes in the adolescent's environment such as interpersonal relationships, role responsibilities, family composition and financial stress. When the conflict created by these internal and external processes occurs within parent-adolescent relationships that are warm, emotionally accepting and supportive of independence and individuality, healthy autonomous development is promoted (Campbell, Adams & Dobson, 1984; Hill & Holmbeck, 1986; Steinberg, 1990).

The accumulation of multiple life changes greatly increases the disruption of psychological processes

(Hetherington, 1981) and the risk of psychiatric problems (Rutter, 1980). Divorce creates a highly chaotic, stressful environment in which multiple life changes are occurring (Emery, 1988). The intensity of the tension associated with changing perceptions of parents, increasing independence and self-reliance and renegotiating family relationships may be multiplied by marital change and can make the developmental process of separation-individuation a more difficult change. However, the co-occurrence of marital change and the challenges posed by the individuation process may not increase the intensity of this development task. It may act as a buffer from the conflict frequently associated with divorce (Hetherington & Anderson, 1987).

Individuation issues appear to be more difficult for girls than boys due to mothers' stronger identification with their daughters (Chodorow, 1978). Custodial mothers' identification with their daughters may be intensified by the socioemotional consequences of divorce, making adolescent separation and individuation more difficult. According to Wallerstein & Kelly (1980), divorced mothers' sense of isolation can lead them to seek support from and ally more closely with daughters.

Adolescents growing up in single-parent or step-family homes approach the developmental task of separation-individuation from different starting points than adolescents in intact homes (Bartle et al, 1989). Reconstructing of roles and relationships which is associated with the development of autonomy may have taken place before adolescence as a result of these changes in family composition. The way in which this developmental process may occur is often influenced by the absence of the biological father. As single-parent and step-family households become more prevalent, the importance of understanding how these developmental transitions are changed by restructured families increases. These instigating and transforming effects of marital change on the development of autonomy are a function of several factors, which include the adolescent's gender, the nature of the marital change, and the adolescent's stage of development at the time of the family's restructuring. Distinguishing between the instigating and transforming influences of marital change has implications for future research on marital change and emphasizes the importance of marital change on developmental processes instead of simply describing children's adjustment to marital disruption.

Parental Attachment and Loss Issues

Raphael (1983) considers parental death as being "the greatest loss for the adolescent, especially in the earlier years when he or she has not completed the separation" (p.145) process. The sudden separation of death, at a time when independence is being painfully and slowly achieved awakens tremendous conflicts for the adolescent. There is guilt for the previous separation and they may regress to more clinging behavior to make reparations and "save" the remaining parent. The ambivalent feelings toward the dead parent for their previous natural or exaggerated resistance to this separation may heighten their guilt and conflict. The remaining parent may increase resistance to further development of independence, binding the adolescent in ways he or she both enjoys and fears. This becomes most apparent in role expectations. Adolescents reactions to these role expectations sometimes are related to their inability to handle more responsibility, to be reluctant to relinquish their childhood too quickly or finally their tendency to avoid these expectations. Sometimes adolescents become irresponsible about life because they realize that their time to live may be shortened by a

sudden, unexpected death.

Adolescents who perceive relationships with their parents as being secure and warm tend to exhibit higher self-esteem and greater emotional well-being (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Greenberg et al, 1984; Rosenberg, 1965). Emotional detachment from parents appears to be associated with greater feelings of parental rejection and a lessened sense of one's own lovability (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1990; Ryan & Lynch, 1989).

Little research has focused on attachment relations during early adolescence (Hill, 1980; Resnick, 1989). Grotevant & Cooper (1986) state that individuation is facilitated when adolescents feel free to express their own point of view in a family context characterized by emotional connectedness. Attachment theory may provide an integrative conceptual framework for the study of early-adolescent psychosocial development.

Not only has the reaction of adolescents to parental death received scant attention, but adolescence as a distinct developmental stage has been largely ignored in grief research. In addition, Fleming & Adolph (1986) concluded that there are major methodological problems with the few studies that have been published. They presented a model of adolescent

grief relating loss to the tasks and conflicts of normal adolescent development. Four of the methodological problems that exist in the few studies that have been done: (a) data are retrospective in nature (Balk, 1981); (b) research participants are drawn from clinical samples only (Seligman et al, 1974); (c) varying types of loss are not distinguished (Seligman et al, 1974); (d) highly subjective reports are used, typically accounts provided by adolescents mourning parents (Van Eerdewegh et al, 1982); and (e) control group data are not included (Balk, 1981).

The loss of a significant relationship during adolescence may interfere with the natural progression of intellectual-emotional-psychological "growing up". Changes that might normally be expected may be averted, avoided, or may not even take place. Such an arrest of developmental unfolding may put adolescents "on hold" in one phase, and thus inhibit the energy and skills necessary to meet subsequent phase-appropriate demands (Fleming & Adolph, 1986).

The developmental tasks of adolescence and the tasks of grief are similar, for both involve adapting to the loss of cherished objects (either an inner image or a person), both involve coping with changed inner and

external realities, and both mean that the adolescent will encounter the ambivalence and conflicts inherent to the phases of separation and loss (Sugar, 1968).

Emotional Autonomy

Autonomy is a multidimensional construct that is manifested in affective, behavioral and cognitive domains (Steinberg, 1987a). Affectively, the development of autonomy refers to the development of a sense of individuation, which often involves the process of parental de-idealization (Blos, 1967). Behaviorally, autonomy refers to the active, overt manifestations of independent functioning, including the regulation of one's own behavior and decision-making. Cognitively, autonomy is characterized by a sense of self-reliance, a belief that one has control over his or her life, and subjective feelings of being able to make decisions without excessive social validation (Greenberger, 1982, 1984; Greenberger & Sorenson, 1974).

These two features of autonomy, the internal and external processes and its multidimensional construct, suggest ways in which family structure can alter the nature of the development of autonomy. The changed context likely introduces different challenges for resolving the tension than those facing adolescents from

intact families (Sessa & Steinberg, 1991).

Divorce and remarriage of parents during early adolescence may precipitate the development of emotional and behavioral autonomy (Sessa & Steinberg, 1991). Whether this has positive or negative consequences for the adolescent is under debate because relatively little empirical investigation has been done in this area.

Two theories for understanding the process by which marital change influences the development of autonomy have been proposed by Sessa & Steinberg (1991): the development readiness hypothesis and the cumulation of life changes (Simmons & Blyth, 1987). The developmental readiness hypothesis states that precipitous entry into a new life stage can have negative consequences if an individual has not had enough time to prepare emotionally, cognitively, or physically for the challenges of that life stage. If divorce or remarriage initiates the individuation process before the adolescent is prepared to examine the issues salient to this process, the development of autonomy will be premature and the experience of age-appropriate activities of adolescence will be curtailed. From an Eriksonian perspective (Erikson, 1959, 1980), such precocious, precipitous development may prevent a child

from completing tasks of the latency period, leaving him or her ill-prepared to negotiate the challenges of later developmental tasks. When the early adolescent is prepared to meet demands of the individuation process, marital change may have a facilitative effect.

Hetherington (1985, 1988) found that mothers and sons experience increased tension and conflict after divorce perhaps because mothers may be less effective than fathers at monitoring and controlling their children's behavior. This level of tension could facilitate the transformations family relations necessary for the development of autonomy. Changes in family relations may create a situation in which early adolescents are confronted with inconsistent demands across the domains of autonomous functioning before they are developmentally ready to negotiate such incongruity.

Lamborn & Steinberg (1990) explored Ryan & Lynch's (1989) research in the area of emotional autonomy versus detachment. Steinberg & Silverberg (1986) defined emotional autonomy as being the process through which adolescents relinquish childish dependencies on, and conceptions of, their parents. Ryan & Lynch (1989) suggested that emotional autonomy is associated with negative family functioning and lower self-concept and

might be better conceptualized as detachment. In both the Steinberg & Silverberg (1986) and Ryan & Lynch (1989) studies, it was assumed that associations between emotional autonomy and perceptions of family functioning and adjustment are comparable among adolescents whose family experiences differ in other respects. That is, variations in family context were used to explain variations in the degree to which emotional autonomy is achieved, and not to explain variations in how emotional autonomy may be linked to interpersonal functioning and adjustment (Lamborn & Steinberg, 1990, pp.3-5).

In three studies, Ryan & Lynch (1989) showed that the emotional detachment measure (EAS) was also related to feelings of insecurity with parents, less utilization of parents, parental acceptance, and less family cohesion. Ryan & Lynch also described emotional detachment as a psychological state associated with the adolescent's view of the parental context as rejecting and unsupportive (Turner et al, 1991).

Ryan & Lynch also held that emotional detachment is a good index of failed attachments with parents either before and during adolescence, or of problems in negotiating the transition in parent-child relationships that necessarily occur with the adolescent's maturation.

According to them, emotional detachment means that the adolescent is emotionally withdrawn from the family context; such distancing is not seen as a normal developmental process. A review by Hill & Holmbeck (1986) underline the need for a balance between attachment to parents and autonomy from parents during the adolescent years (Turner et al, 1991).

According to one of Ryan & Lynch's studies... "parental divorce or separation was related to perceived lack of parental acceptance which in turn was related to emotional detachment from the parents. Further studies are needed on emotional detachment and the effects of changes in parents' marital status to determine whether or not a direct relationship exists..." (Turner et al, 1991, p.95).

Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) found that among ninth graders, twice as many girls (25%) as boys (12%) scored high in autonomy both with parents and peers. They accounted for these findings by exploring two possibilities: first, girls exhibit greater autonomy than boys because boys have trouble establishing autonomy in a genuine and real sense, or second, notions about sex differences in adolescent development need to be revised to coincide with the changes in women's

roles.

Recent research on identity development during adolescence points to similarities rather than differences in the ways in which males and females approach the task of self-definition (Adams & Fitch, 1982; Grotevant & Thorbecke, 1982). Girls' tendency towards self-reliance is related to both emotional autonomy and resistance to peer pressure. Girls describe themselves as self-reliant to their peers but less autonomous in relation to their parents. For boys, on the other hand, healthy self-reliance seems to develop out of family relations that are neither too close nor too distant.

Steinberg & Lamborn's (1990) study observed sex differences in emotional autonomy. They found that girls are more likely than boys to demonstrate emotional autonomy in relation to their peers. Their study extended the previous findings by suggesting that girls are more likely than boys to evidence high emotional autonomy in the context of a secure parent-adolescent relationship. These findings suggest that psychosocial development in adolescent girls may proceed along a faster timetable than among adolescent boys. As well, these findings call into question the conventional view

that the development of autonomy in particular is more advanced among boys than girls. The reverse appears to be true. The dynamics within the parent-adolescent dyads differ according to the gender of both the adolescent and parent, and according to the type of marital change that occurred e.g. intact to divorce, divorced to remarried (Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989).

Ryan & Lynch (1989) suggested that growth in independence and autonomy does not necessarily require severing emotional ties with parents or nonutilization of the emotional support parents give. Attachment, rather than detachment, was considered to optimize both individuation and the capacity for relatedness to self and others during adolescence and early adulthood. Steinberg & Lamborn's (1990) study showed that girls are more likely than boys to exhibit high emotional autonomy in the context of a secure parent-adolescent relationship, suggesting that such significant changes in family relationships as father death could have a direct influence on the development of adolescents' emotional autonomy.

Since further studies are needed to determine whether or not there is a relationship between the developmental task of emotional detachment and parents'

marital status, the following research questions were formulated to permit a study of the impact of changes in family composition, particularly parental death, on adolescents' separation-individuation process:

1. Are adolescents from father-deceased families more or less autonomous than adolescents from intact families?
2. Are adolescents from father-deceased families more or less attached to their mothers, fathers and peers than adolescents from intact families?
3. Are there similar patterns of development of emotional autonomy and attachment to mother and father for male and female adolescents in father-deceased and intact groups?
4. Is there a relationship between the development of emotional autonomy and the quality of the relationship with parents from father-deceased families and intact families?

For example, is there a relationship between the development of emotional autonomy and the quality of the relationship for male and female adolescents in both groups?

5. Is there a relationship between adolescents' emotional autonomy and their attachment to peers in father-deceased families and intact families?

For example, is there a relationship between adolescents' emotional autonomy and their attachment to peers for males and female adolescents in both groups?

Chapter Three

Methodology

This study focused on the impact of parental death on the process of separation-individuation in adolescence. Adolescents who were 12 to 16 years of age, were recruited from either intact and father-deceased families to be participants in this study. The participants in the intact group lived with both of their biological parents. The father-deceased group (12 males and 18 females) consisted of four adolescents age 12 years; two adolescents age 13 years; eleven adolescents age 14 years; seven adolescents age 15 years and six adolescents age 16 years. The intact group (7 males and 23 females) consisted of ten adolescents age 13 years; seven adolescents age 14 years; eleven adolescents age 15 years and two adolescents age 16 years. The mean age in each group was 14 years old.

Selection Of Participants

The father-deceased group was recruited from eight schools and two community programs, the "Living and Learning Through Loss" program operated by Shoreline Community School Association and Hospice Victoria.

The intact group was recruited from five of the schools and from the researcher's private practise.

Approval to recruit students from the school for this study was requested from the Superintendent of the Greater Victoria School District. A written response from the Superintendent confirmed the district's approval and support for this study. In addition, the researcher obtained approval from the administrators at individual schools where the study would be conducted. Seven of the ten principals gave approval to conduct the study in their schools. The reactions of the principals to this study were varied. Four of these principals were very willing to assist the researcher in any way that they could to insure that this study took place in their schools. Two of these four principals went beyond the expectations of the researcher to insure that their students were involved in this study. The staff members who were designated to assist the researcher in finding volunteers were exemplary in how they assisted the researcher. They tolerated interruptions in their class time, appeared very interested in the focus of the study and made particular mention that they would like to have an opportunity to see the results of this study. In contrast, other principals expressed concerns about the

nature of the research topic and were very hesitant to have their students participate in this study.

One of the main concerns about the topic was related to the possibility that it could result in some emotional reactions that the principals were hesitant to address. Even though one of the requirements of the Human Subject Committee was that the researcher had to provide counselling for any participants who experienced any initial or delayed reactions from participating in this study, two of the principals chose not to have their students be involved. A third principal gave approval for the study to be conducted and recommended that a staff member to work directly with the researcher to find participants for this study. The staff member informed the researcher that there were no students in the school who had experienced the death of a father. No opportunity was provided to recruit students for members of the intact group from this school.

During the data collection, the researcher kept a journal of the dates, times, the names of the participants and the events that occurred. The data collection began Tuesday, February 10, 1992 and concluded Monday, July 20, 1992. Numerous factors

resulted in the data collection extending into the summer holidays. Most of the data collection took place in the schools. However, 22 of the participants either had to or preferred to make arrangements to meet with the researcher in their homes (15 participants) or at the researcher's office (7 participants). In one of the schools some unavoidable interruptions resulted in the researcher having to return to that school more often than anticipated. These events included an intense aroma in the chemistry laboratory that resulted in the whole school being evacuated for a period of time, a fire drill, and a computer breakdown that resulted in the researcher being unable to locate the participants who had volunteered.

The cause of death of the fathers in the father-deceased group varied. An overview of the causes of death for these fathers illustrates this variety: twelve from cancer; three from heart attacks; seven accidental deaths which were a result of a boat accident, a plane crash, an occupational accident, a car accident, a railway crossing accident and a fall down a flight of stairs. Four of these accidental deaths were directly related to the abuse of alcohol; five deaths by suicide; one death from AIDS; one from a blood clot during

surgery and one as a result of ALS. The fathers ranged in age at the time of their death from ages 32 to 58 years old. The mean age of this group of fathers was 33 years old. The length of time since the paternal death ranged from less than a year to over ten years ago. Nineteen of the bereaved adolescents had experienced this loss between one to three years ago.

Reactions from the students in the various schools were noteworthy for future research. Students from divorced or separated families were upset that they could not participate in this study. Students whose mothers had died wanted to know why the researcher was not including that kind of loss. Students who were adopted wanted to know why they were not eligible to participate in the intact group. Students whose fathers did not live with them and did not see them often suggested that it was as if their fathers were dead too. Students who lived with a step-father that they viewed as being like their own father wanted to know why they could not be in the intact group of participants. Some students who were either younger than twelve years old or older than sixteen years old were disappointed that they could not participate in this study.

Measures

Two measures were selected from previous research studies to provide information about adolescents' development of autonomy. A third measure was utilized to provide information about the influence of family functioning on adolescents' development of autonomy. In addition, a questionnaire was developed by the author to obtain the demographic information about the participants. A fifth measure was a survey instrument concerned with other life changes that the participants may have experienced were used.

Family Functioning in Adolescence (FFAQ) This instrument assesses family functioning as perceived by adolescents [Roelofse and Middleton, 1984]. It consists of 42 statements which measure the dimensions of family health focusing on the developmental tasks of adolescents. The six subscales are: Structure, Affect, Communication, Behaviour Control, Value Transmission and External Systems. The researcher in this study used only the first three subscales. A 4-point Likert-type scale (almost always or always true, often true, sometimes true, hardly ever true) is the response format. The

authors reported evidence of acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .90$) for its use with adolescents. The mean total score on the FFAQ was 122.8, median = 126.0 and mode = 122, the range 67-158. The maximum range possible is 42-168. The total mean represents an average item rating of 2.92 indicating that Australian adolescents perceived their families to be operating more towards the functional than the dysfunctional end of the scale. Australian adolescents rated their families lower on Affect and Communication than on the other four dimensions (Appendix F).

Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment. This instrument assesses the perceived quality of close relationships with parents and peers and their impact on adolescents' emotional well-being [Armsden and Greenberg, 1987]. There are 25 statements in each of the mother, father and peer sections. A 5-point Likert-type scale (almost never or never true, not very often true, sometimes true, often true, almost always or always true) is the response format. The authors reported a three week test-retest reliability for this instrument of .93 for parent attachment scores (mother and father scores were combined) and .86 for peer attachment scores (Appendix G).

Emotional Autonomy Scale (EAS). This instrument indexes the extent to which adolescents are emotionally withdrawn from their parents [Steinberg and Silverberg, 1986]. It reflects the developmentally appropriate independence. It consists of a total of 20 statements which form four subscales. Two of these subscales are described as affective aspects of emotional autonomy from parents, Nondependency (N) and Individuation (I). The other two are described as measuring cognitive aspects of emotional autonomy, Parents-as-People (P) and De-idealization (D)). A total autonomy score (T) indicates the overall level of emotional autonomy on this scale. A 4 point Likert-type scale (strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree) is the response format. The authors reported that each subscale had an internal reliability coefficient exceeding .60. Cronbach's alpha for the entire scale equals .75 (Appendix H).

Demographic Questionnaire. This instrument was developed by the researcher to provide the data regarding gender, present age, age at the time of the parental death, cause of the parental death and the parents' educational Two versions of this questionnaire were developed, one

for adolescents from father-deceased families and the other for those from intact families (Appendix D).

Adolescent Life Change Event Scale. This instrument was used to record the life change events that adolescents have experienced [Yeaworth, York, Hussey, Ingle & Goodwin, 1980]. It is an inventory of the various life change events that adolescents have identified that they may experience. The data derived from this instrument are used to illustrate the impact of accumulated losses in adolescents' lives and provides data that is qualitative in nature. It was used in this study to control for the confounding effects of other losses in their lives as well as to assist in the selection of participants for this study. Yeaworth, et al report a test re-test analysis of this scale of .83, using the Spearman correlation coefficient (Appendix E).

PROCEDURE

Once a list of volunteer participants was determined, the researcher arranged times to meet with these participants either as a group during school time or on an individual basis. All participants completed a consent form and were provided a parental consent form. The four test instruments and questionnaire were typically completed in twenty to thirty minutes.

One of the main problems in collecting the data was in determining whether or not the participants had returned the two signed consent forms (adolescent consent form and parental consent form). These consent forms were to be returned to the counsellor or teacher involved in helping the researcher. Numerous trips to the schools had to be made in order to collect these consent forms. Eventually, only two students were excluded from the study as a result of their parents being unwilling to sign the consent forms. Only one parent contacted the researcher directly to receive some additional information about the study and how it was being conducted.

In the event that any participants experienced some emotional reactions as a result of being in this study, the researcher was available to provide some individual support. Participants could withdraw from this study at any time. There were no withdrawals by any of the participants. In order to protect participants' confidentiality, response forms were assigned numbers which would be utilized when reference was made to any data results. All of these assigned numbers were put into a draw for the chance to win a portable stereo system. The researcher wanted to express her

appreciation for their participation in this study.

Chapter Four

Results and Discussion

Preliminary Results

During the process of recruiting participants for this study, the researcher heard numerous references about the significance of other losses on adolescents' lives. Some of these adolescents described the death of a grandparent as being just as significant as the death of a parent. The quality of the relationships and the roles that the deceased assumed in the family unit are factors that may have an impact on the bereaved adolescents. For example some of these adolescents perceived their grandparents as assuming the role of parent(s) since they were living with them on a full-time basis rather than living with their biological parents.

Participants responded well to all of the measures, except for the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment. Some of the participants in the father-deceased group were unable or unwilling to complete Part II - Relationship with Fathers. As a result, the data derived from this instrument are incomplete. Asking bereaved adolescents to remember their relationships

with their fathers often resulted in both pleasurable and painful memories. Perhaps some of the adolescents who have not fully accepted the reality of this loss in their lives are unable or unwilling to recall their thoughts and feelings surrounding this relationship with their fathers.

The researcher in this study kept a journal of observations and comments made by the participants. Participants from the father-deceased group expressed appreciation for having the opportunity to talk about their fathers' death. They felt it was reassuring that someone thought that an event like the death of their father was still alright to discuss. The fact that someone wanted to do a research study on this topic allowed them to have their feelings and thoughts validated. They were surprised to hear that this kind of study had never been done before. Very few of these adolescents were hesitant to discuss this loss or to be involved in such a study. The few individuals who were uneasy about discussing this topic were the adults involved with these adolescents. These adults included their surviving parent (mother), an administrator in the school, and a counsellor. This reluctance seems similar to the belief that we should not discuss suicide with

adolescents because it may cause them to become interested in suicide as a solution to their problems. Adolescents are already thinking and reacting to suicide and death issues.

Even though they often like to live their lives as if they are invincible (Elkind's personal fable) and will live forever, adolescents are very aware of the fragility of life. The experience of the sudden death of their parents or friends reinforces this death awareness and the reality that sometimes they have no control over having their parents and friends around forever. One adolescent described the process succinctly when he said:

I thought that I was supposed to leave him by starting to make my own decisions and moving away from home someday. Now he has left me behind by dying and I have to help my mother when I am supposed to be having fun like other teenagers.

Another adolescent whose father died by suicide said:

I still love my father even though he did this horrible thing to us but I don't like the choice he made to die that way and to leave us behind.

The Impact of Previous Losses on Adolescents Grief Reactions

Since one of the factors that often influences individual's grief reactions is their past experiences with loss and death (Rando, 1984), this research study included a consideration of such past experiences. Adolescents were asked to complete the Adolescent Life Change Event Scale (Yeaworth et al, 1980; 1992). Past experiences with loss are important, not only because they create expectations, but they also influence the coping strategies or defense mechanisms used by the griever. Previous unresolved losses generally hinder effective grief resolution; losses not death will tend to arise and complicate any subsequent losses (Rando, p.47). In addition, if an individual has experienced too many deaths, he or she can suffer "bereavement overload" (Kastenbaum, 1969). These past experiences may leave the griever depleted emotionally and unable to adequately address the current loss. The data derived from utilizing this measure are outlined in Table 1.

Overall adolescents from the father-deceased group showed a higher incidence of parental divorce or separation; failing one or more subjects in school; being arrested by the police; flunking a grade; family

TABLE 1

FREQUENCY OF ADOLESCENT LIFE CHANGE EVENTS
OF THE FATHER-DECEASED AND INTACT GROUP

LIFE CHANGE EVENTS	FREQUENCY - NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS	
	FATHER-DECEASED GROUP	INTACT GROUP
	N=30	N=30
A parent dying	30	0
Brother or sister dying	0	1
Close friend dying	3	0
Parents getting divorced or separated	9	1
Failing one or more subjects in school	8	4
Being arrested by the police	3	1
Flunking a grade in school	3	1
Family member having trouble with alcohol	12	2
Losing a favorite pet	16	15
Parent or relative in your family getting very sick	18	11
Losing a job	1	1
Breaking up with a close girlfriend or boyfriend	16	10
Quitting school	1	0
Close girlfriend getting pregnant	4	1
Parent losing a job	7	7

TABLE 1 (continued)

Getting badly hurt or sick	8	6
Hassling with parents	16	5
Trouble with teacher or principal	11	5
Having problems with any or the following: acne, overweight, too tall, too short	15	10
Starting a new school	21	16
Moving to a new home	16	15
Change in physical appearance: braces / glasses	6	13
Hassling with brother or sister	19	14
Starting menstrual periods (girls)	10	13
Having someone new move in with your family: grandparent, adopted brother or sister, foster children, etc.	6	2
Starting a job	7	8
Mother getting pregnant	3	7
Starting to date	16	12
Making new friends	21	19
Brother or sister getting married	3	0

problems with alcohol; illness in the family; an inability to maintain a relationship with a girlfriend or boyfriend; hassles with parents; trouble with teachers / principals; personal appearance problems; numerous changes in schools; hassles with siblings; changes in their family structure and starting to date.

Emotional Autonomy

The initial research question concerned the overall level of emotional autonomy for adolescents who had experienced parental death. Subtest scores and the overall score (T) on the Emotional Autonomy Scale (EAS) provided the data for addressing this question. Based on Steinberg and Silverberg's (1986) studies of adolescent autonomy, of particular interest in the reports of adolescents whose father had died was the possibility that their sense of independence had developed with "premature" detachment from parental figures. Data for the intact and father-deceased groups on these subtests and the overall emotional autonomy score (T) are reported in Table 2. The higher the total score on this scale, the more autonomous the individuals are considered to be.

The mean scores on the Total Autonomy Scale for the two groups indicated that the adolescents in the

TABLE 2

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATION AND P VALUES ON THE
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE AND THE INVENTORY OF
PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT

MEASURES	GROUP		GROUP		P
	FATHER-DECEASED		INTACT		
	(n=30)		(n=30)		
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE:					
SUBSCALES	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	P
INDIVIDUATION	15.33	2.39	14.56	2.8	.09
NONDEPENDENCE	11.76	1.88	11.03	2.77	.06
PARENT-AS-PEOPLE	15.66	3.69	13.43	2.82	.03
DEIDEALIZATION	13.96	2.20	14.03	2.32	.97
TOTAL	57.26	7.77	53.10	8.14	.02
INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT:					
SUBSCALES	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	P
MOTHER	89.73	15.89	93.60	18.51	.25
FATHER	74.53	31.30	81.00	26.09	.30
PEERS	98.67	13.48	96.63	17.97	.59

father-deceased group reported themselves as being more autonomous (Table 2) than those in the intact group. This difference was statistically significant ($F(1,52) = 5.59, p = .022$). On average, adolescents in the father-deceased group rated themselves as "agreeing" to each of the items on the scale, by choosing an average response of 4. The two groups had a similar range of scores (Figure A) with few scores at the nonautonomous end of the scale. As indicated in Figure A, three quarters of the adolescents whose fathers had died scored above the median score for the intact group.

To investigate further this difference in Total score, analyses were conducted on each of the four subtests of the Emotional Autonomy Scale (Table 2). According to the authors of the instrument, the first two subscales, Individuation and Nondependence, are measures of emotional independence and the other two measures, Parents-as-People and Deidealization, are considered to be measures of cognitive independence from parents.

In terms of the emotional independence subscales, adolescents in the father-deceased group showed similar subtest scores on both Individuation and Nondependence to those of adolescents from intact families (Table 2).

TOTAL GROUP

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

FIGURE A - TOTAL SCORE

GROUP

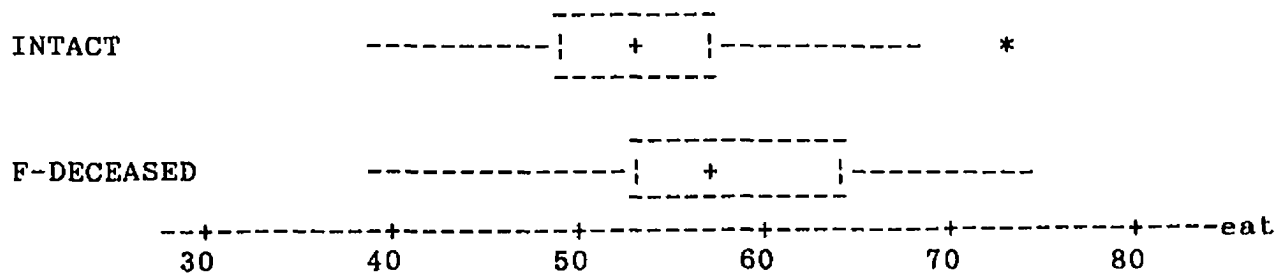
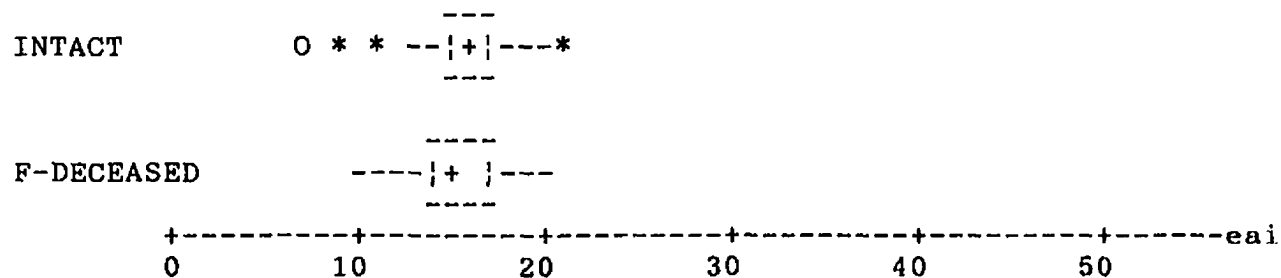


FIGURE B - INDIVIDUATION SCORE

GROUP



Adolescents in both groups (intact/father-deceased) had scores that ranged from 6 to 20 on the Individuation subtest (Figure B) and from 4 to 16 on the Nondependence subtest (Figure C).

Very different results were found for the subtest concerned with cognitive independence from parents. Scores on Parents-as-People subscale indicated that adolescents whose fathers had died scored significantly higher ($p=.03$) than adolescents from intact families. No such differences existed for Deidealization scores. The Parents-as-People subtest includes such items as "I have wondered how my parents act when I'm not around; My parents probably talk about different things when I am around from what they talk about when I'm not; My parents act pretty much the same way when they are with their friends as they do when they are at home with me". The father-deceased adolescents scored above both groups median score. The distribution of scores, as graphed in Figures D & E, indicate that considerable variation existed among adolescents in the father-deceased group. Their scores ranged from a minimum score of 7 to a maximum score of 23.

In summary, adolescents from the two family structures, father-deceased and intact, showed similar

TOTAL GROUP

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

FIGURE C - NONDEPENDENCE SCORE

GROUP

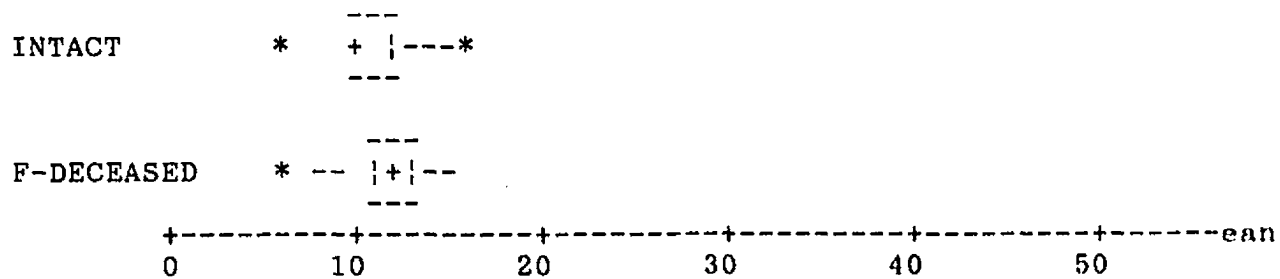
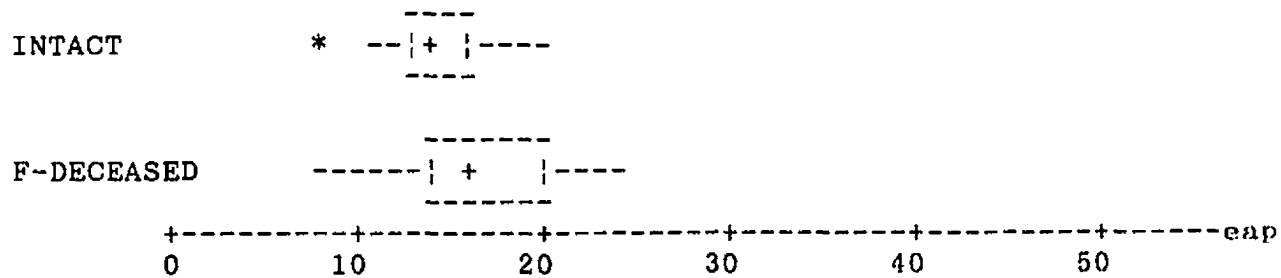


FIGURE D - PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE SCORE

GROUP



TOTAL GROUP

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

FIGURE E - DEIDEALIZATION SCORE

GROUP

INTACT

 --| + |--

F-DECEASED

 * ---| + |--

+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----ead
 0 10 20 30 40 50

levels of emotional autonomy for the two measures concerned with emotional independence and for one of the measures concerned with cognitive independence, Adolescents from the father-deceased group reported significantly higher scores on the Parents-as-People subscale which contributed to a significant difference between the two groups in the Total score on the Emotional Autonomy Scale. It would appear that adolescents who have experienced paternal death either become more aware of their mother's feelings and vulnerability or that the experience of parental death leads them to pay greater attention to, and perhaps to value more highly, their mothers. There is no evidence based on scores for either group that extreme detachment or extreme clinging to parents is present.

Sessa & Steinberg (1991) discuss ways in which family structure changes can alter the nature of the development of autonomy in adolescents. Divorce and remarriage can instigate changes in internal processes (deidealization of parent) and external processes (father absence). This change context likely introduces different challenges for resolving the parent-adolescent relationship, compared to those for adolescents from intact families. Likewise the death of a father may

result in significant familial changes such as financial, social and emotional instability as well as affecting the surviving parent's ability to provide emotional and financial support. The recognition of such parental weaknesses could promote the deidealization of parents, with the realization that parents have lives independent of their relationships with their children.

Adolescents' Attachment to Mothers and Fathers

Whether or not adolescents from father-deceased families are more or less attached to their mothers and fathers than adolescents from intact families was the focus of the second research question. The data to address this issue were derived from the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment. Scores for attachment to mother (Table 2), showed no significant difference ($p=.25$) between means scores for the father-deceased group and the intact group. A graph of attachment scores to mother and father for both males and females in the father-deceased group and the intact group depicts male and female adolescents from the intact group as being more attached to both mother and father than are male and female adolescents from the father-deceased group (Figures I, J, L & M). However, male

adolescents from the father-deceased group were less attached to mother and father than female adolescents from the father-deceased group. In fact, the graph illustrates that male adolescents from father-deceased families were less attached to their fathers than female adolescents from the father-deceased families.

Likewise, female adolescents from father-deceased families were more attached to their mothers than male adolescents from the father-deceased families. This difference between the two groups may be a result of the changes in the family structure i.e. father death.

Differing attachment patterns to mother and father for male and female adolescents have been noted in the research literature. Steinberg (1987) discussed the influence of parent-child relationships on the development of individuals. A recent review (Benson et al, 1992) concluded that the sex of the parent and the sex of the child are important influences on developmental changes in the parent relationship. Benson et al (1992) looked at participants' attachments to mother and to father separately. To assess attachments to both parents, participants were asked to complete the parent subscale of the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment. The correlation between attachment

to mother and attachment to father was $r=.43$, $p<.001$. These results indicated a difference between the parental attachment correlations in intact families ($r=.56$) versus non-intact families ($r=.15$). These correlations were significantly different from one another. No other significant differences were found between pairs of parental attachment correlations across education or income levels of the parents or across age or gender among the participants. Papini et al (1991) utilized the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment to explore twelve to thirteen year old adolescents' attachments to mother and father. Subscale scores for attachment to mother were 91.48 and attachment to father were 85.87. These adolescents were from intact families. The importance of emotional-distancing in adolescents' attachment to mothers and fathers indicated differences for males and females. There appears to be a clear relationship between early-adolescent perceptions of attachment to parents and family cohesion (Resnick, 1989). Adolescents' ability to express their own point of view in the context of emotionally connected family relationships is empirically linked to their perceived attachment to mother and father. Grotevant & Cooper (1986) have consistently maintained

that individuation is facilitated when adolescents feel free to express their point of view in a family context characterized by emotional connectedness.

Gender differences in autonomy related to father death

The third research question was concerned with the possibility of differing developmental patterns for the male and female adolescents. In the present study, within-sex comparisons of adolescents from father-deceased families with those from intact families. For girls, the data (Table 3) showed little significant difference between the two groups. The one clear exception occurred for the Parents-as-People subscale, in which girls in the father-deceased group showed significantly higher levels of autonomy ($p=.03$) than girls from intact families. As with the total group scores, several possible meanings may be taken from this difference between the two groups. One possibility is, the change that occurs during adolescence from a perception of parent-as-figures to parents-as-people implies that the connectedness between parents and adolescents changes from being based on authority to a basis on respect from one another as persons. This dual process is expressed in the concept of "individuation" (Cooper, Grotevant & Condon, 1983; Youniss, 1983),

TABLE 3

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND P VALUES ON THE
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS BY SEX

SUBSCALES	FEMALES			MALES		
	F-DECEASED (n=18)		INTACT (n=23)	F-DECEASED (n=12)		INTACT (n=7)
	STATISTICS			P		
INDIVIDUATION	MEAN	14.83	14.91	.93	16.08	13.42 .03
	SD	2.52	2.90		2.06	2.69
NONDEPENDENCE	MEAN	11.38	11.43	.95	12.33	9.71 .04
	SD	2.00	2.42		1.61	3.59
PARENTS-AS- PEOPLE	MEAN	15.44	13.30	.03	16.00	13.85 .29
	SD	3.51	2.47	4.09	3.97	
DEIDEALIZATION	MEAN	13.83	14.08	.75	14.16	13.85 .72
	SD	2.45	2.52		1.85	1.67
TOTAL	MEAN	55.28	53.57	.48	60.25	51.57 .05
	SD	7.77	7.48		7.05	10.58

whereby adolescents move away from independence on their parents while attempting to remain still connected to them.

Among male adolescents, the differences between the two groups showed a very different pattern (Table 3). In both of the subscales considered to measure emotional independence, Individuation and Nondependence, boys in the father-deceased group scored significantly higher than boys from the intact group ($p=.03$; $p=.04$). For the two subscales associated with detachment from parents, boys in the two groups showed similar scores ($p=.28$; $p=.72$). The distribution of the scores, as graphed in (Figures AA and FF), indicated a variation existed among male adolescents in the father-deceased group. The median total score for the boys in the father-deceased group was 60 whereas the median total score for the boys in the intact group was 49.

In addition, the third research question addressed whether or not there were similar patterns of development of emotional autonomy and attachment for male and female adolescents in the father-deceased and intact groups. Within-sex comparisons of adolescents' attachment patterns to mothers and fathers were explored. Even though there was no significant

FATHER-DECEASED GROUP

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

FIGURE AA - TOTAL SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE

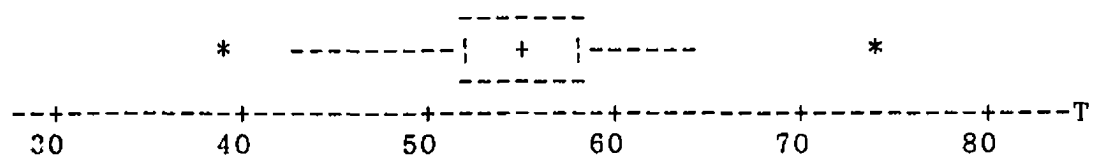
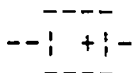


FIGURE BB - INDIVIDUATION SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE

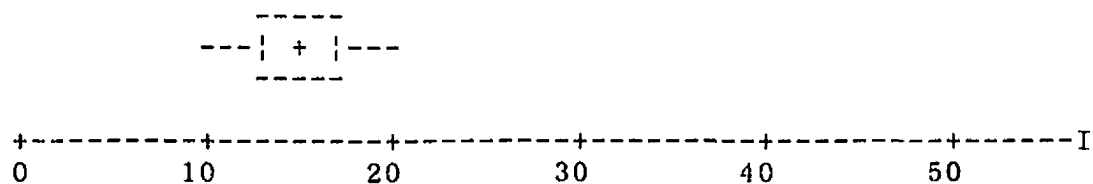
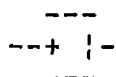


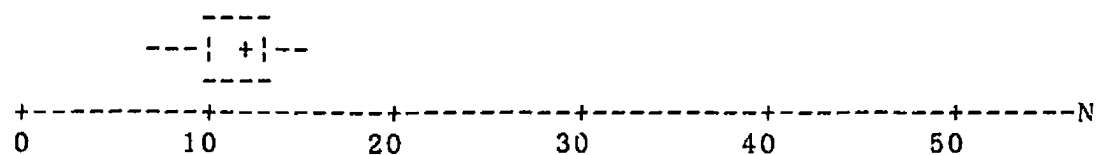
FIGURE CC - NONDEPENDENCE SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE



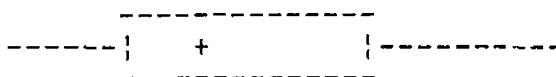
INTACT GROUP

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

FIGURE FF - TOTAL SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE

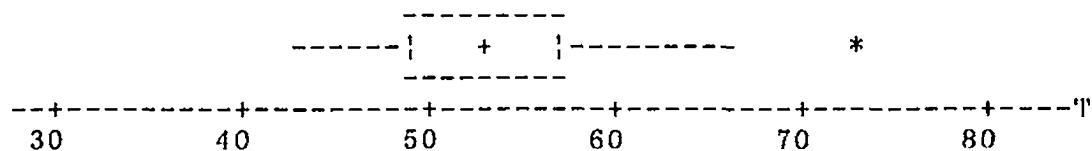
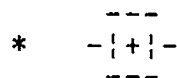


FIGURE GG - INDIVIDUATION SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE

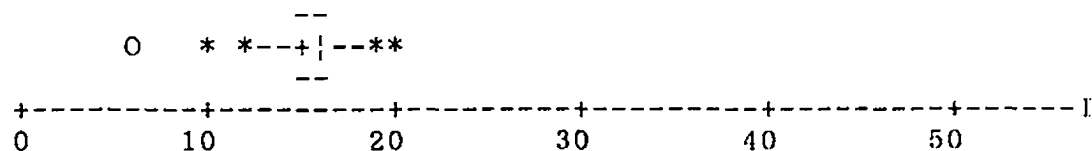
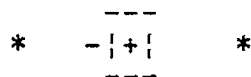


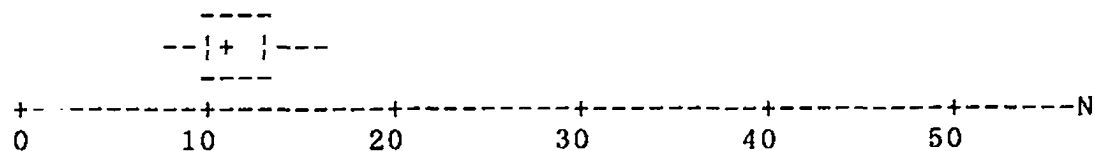
FIGURE HH - NONDEPENDENCE SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE



difference ($p=.97$) between the females in the two groups (Table 4), three-quarters of the scores for the father-deceased group were below the median score for attachment to mothers (Figure F). Differences for males in the two groups were not statistically significant ($p=.27$).

Females in the father-deceased group showed higher attachment scores to father than scores in the intact group (Figures J & M), but the difference in the mean scores of the two groups was not statistically significant ($p=.86$). Similarly, the attachment scores to father for father-deceased males were lower than scores for males from intact families (Figures J & M). Males in the intact group showed three-quarters of their scores below median scores of both males and females in the intact group (Figures L & M). The data suggest that major alterations in the family structure have a modest effect on adolescents' attachment to mother and father. As far as gender differences, it appears that both male and female adolescents experience a shift in their attachment to mother and father as a result of father death. Male adolescents seem to experience a greater shift in their attachments to mother and father than female adolescents.

TABLE 4

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND P VALUES ON THE
INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT BETWEEN
THE TWO GROUPS BY SEX

FEMALES					MALES				
		F-DECEASED (n=18)	INTACT (n=23)				F-DECEASED (n=12)	INTACT (n=7)	
SUBSCALES	STATS			P					P
MOTHER	MEAN	93.61	93.83	.97	83.92	92.86	.27		
	SD	15.96	18.58		14.52	19.76			
FATHER	MEAN	82.69	81.17	.86	61.50	80.43	.24		
	SD	26.48	27.10		35.31	24.45			
PEERS	MEAN	97.44	97.78	.95	100.50	92.86	.27		
	SD	15.12	18.06		10.96	18.52			

FATHER-DECEASED GROUP

INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT

FIGURE I - ATTACHMENT TO MOTHER SCORE

GROUP

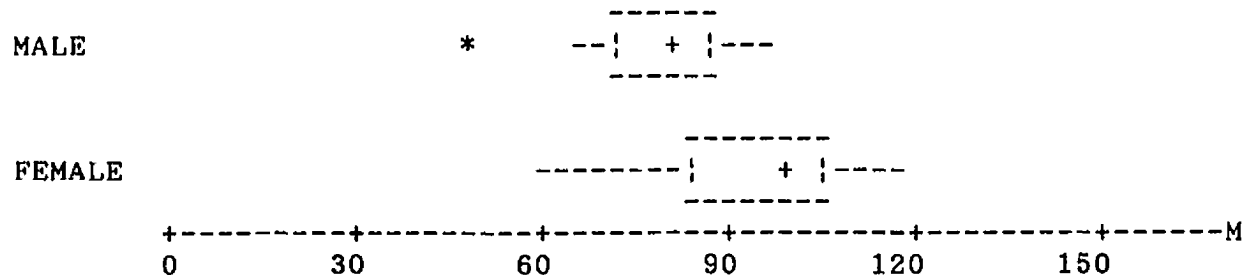


FIGURE J - ATTACHMENT TO FATHER SCORE

GROUP

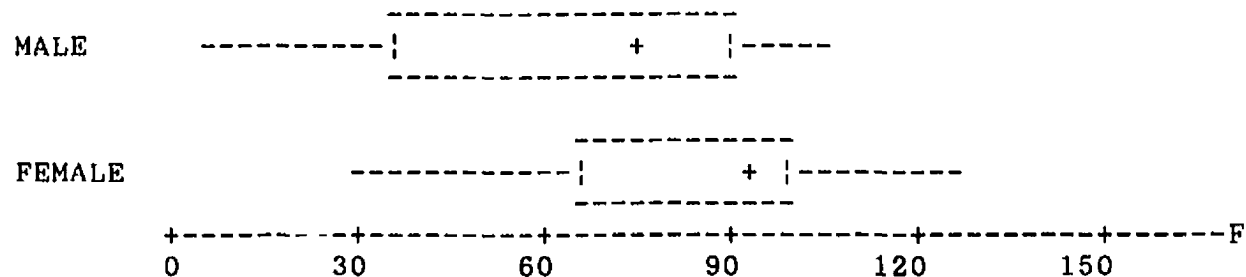
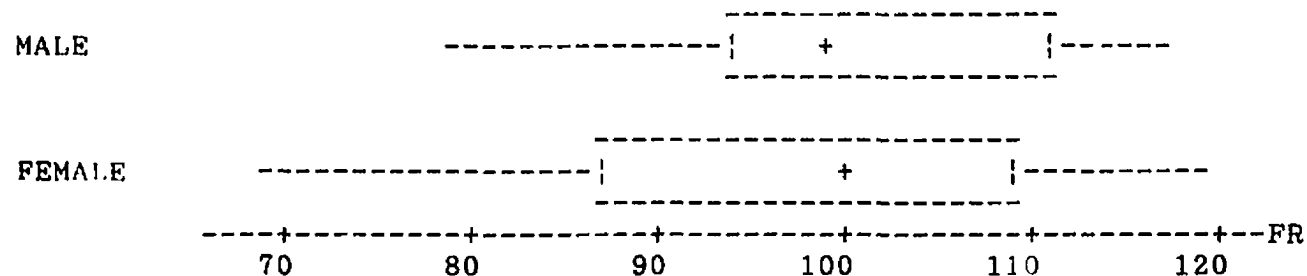


FIGURE K - ATTACHMENT TO PEERS SCORE

GROUP



INTACT GROUP

INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT

FIGURE L - ATTACHMENT TO MOTHER SCORE

GROUP

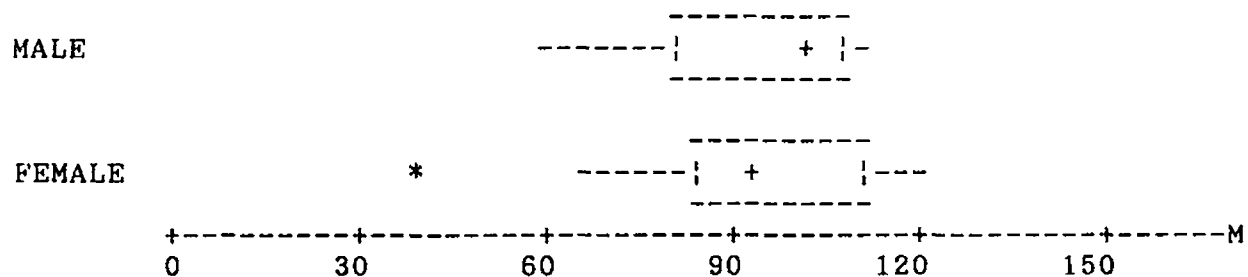


FIGURE M - ATTACHMENT TO FATHER SCORE

GROUP

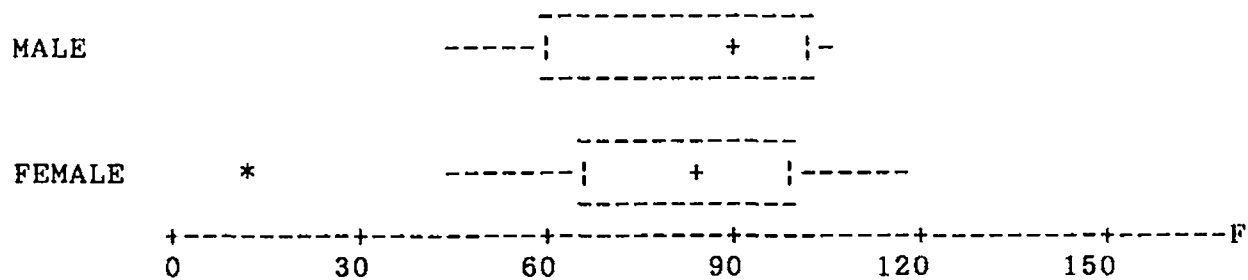
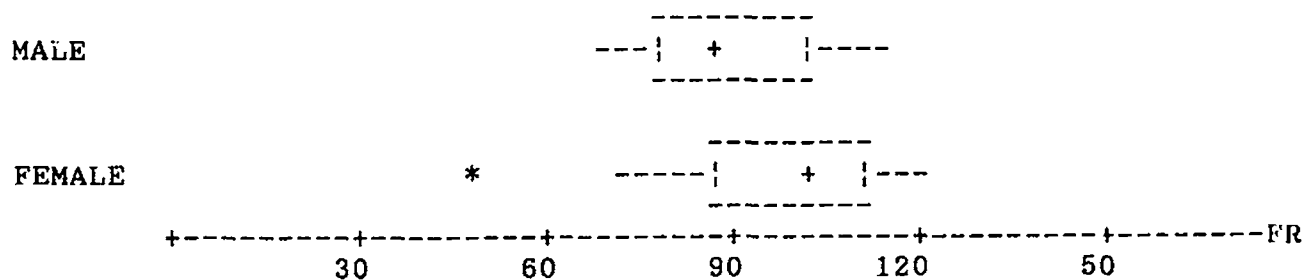


FIGURE N - ATTACHMENT TO PEERS SCORE

GROUP



Since the instructions for the subsection that relates to the participants' attachment to Father in the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment requests that the participants in both groups explore their feelings about this relationship, we must consider the fact that all of the participants in the father-deceased group had experienced father death either prior to adolescence (under age 12 years) or during adolescence (between age 12 to 16 years). These participants were instructed to answer as many of these statements as possible. Two males and three females (#10, #26, #22, #27 & #29) chose not to answer all 25 statements in this section. An additional two males and two females (#18, #21, #2 & #28) did not answer any of the 25 statements in this section. Some of the fathers of these adolescents had died as a result of a suicide or a death that involved some unresolved issues which created additional stress and grief reactions. Also some of the surviving parents were concerned that these statements may stimulate some strong emotional reactions for their children. All of the father-deceased group were instructed to base their responses on the memories that they had of their relationship with their dead fathers.

To test for an association between father-

attachment ratings and family structure (father-deceased vs. intact), a chi-square analysis for each of the items in the "father" section was conducted for data from both the males and females. The responses were grouped into three categories: Not, Sometimes and Always. The result of the chi-square analysis indicated there was no association for 24 of the 25 items. The only item for which a significant association ($X^2=2$ df=2 $p<.05$) was found was item #18, "I don't get much attention from my father". It is not surprising that adolescents from the father-deceased group have a different response for this item than did adolescents from the intact group.

Even though these differences are not statistically significant they suggest the possibility that developmental tasks during adolescence are successfully accomplished within the context of a supportive and understanding environment. When the circumstances are such that the context is altered and is in a state of transition, adolescents may experience difficulties in making the necessary personal adjustments. Since the parent-adolescent relationship is seen as an enduring bond that continues throughout the life span (Youniss, 1983), perhaps significant alterations in this bond (i.e., father death) create a shift in the attachments

that males have to their mothers and fathers (Table 4).

Relationship Between Autonomy and Relationship with
Parents

Whether or not the autonomy of adolescents is related to the quality of their relationship with their parents was addressed in the fourth research question. It seemed possible that the impact of the father death on the development of emotional autonomy might depend on the quality of the adolescent's relationship with his or her mother. This relationship was explored by considering the data derived from the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire (FFAQ), the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA) and the Emotional Autonomy Scale (EAS). The total scores (T) on the FFAQ for the father-deceased and intact groups were compared. However, the intact group has a mean total score that is higher than the father-deceased group (Table 5). The higher the total score, the more the adolescent perceives his or her family as being functional as opposed to being perceived as dysfunctional. The difference between the two groups is not statistically significant ($p=.231$)(Table 25). The range of total scores (Figures 0) illustrates that the intact group has a greater proportion of their total scores distributed

TABLE 5

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND P VALUES ON THE
FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

SUBSCALES	F-DECEASED GROUP (n=30)		INTACT GROUP (n=30)		
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	P
STRUCTURE 27	18.87	5.37	20.67	3.42	.13
AFFECT 87	19.60	4.91	21.20	4.36	.19
COMMUNICATION 86	18.93	5.46	19.30	4.92	.79
TOTAL	117.00	26.58	126.63	18.77	.11

toward the functional range (above the mean = 122.8) whereas the father-deceased group have total scores that are distributed toward the dysfunctional range.

When we compare the total scores on the FFAQ for both males and females in both groups, no significant difference between the two sexes was found ($p=.568$) (Table 25). The three subscales used in this study are considered to be dimensions that contribute to adolescents' healthy psychosocial functioning in the family (Roelofse & Middleton, 1985). The Structure (S) subscale refers to the structure of the family unit and whether or not it possesses clear and permeable boundaries around the individual members of the family and a cohesive parental subsystem. The Affect (A) subscale refers to a broad range of affective expressiveness. The Communication (C) subscale refers to communication within the family unit. The data for each of these three subscales suggests (Table 5) that there were no significant differences between the two groups: father-deceased and intact. The intact group had scores that ranged primarily in the third quartile for females and in the first quartile for males. Conversely, the father-deceased group showed Affect subscale scores that ranged primarily in the third

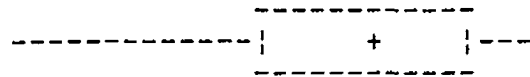
TOTAL GROUP

FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

FIGURE O - TOTAL SCORE

GROUP

INTACT



F-DECEASED

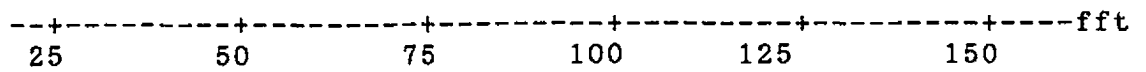
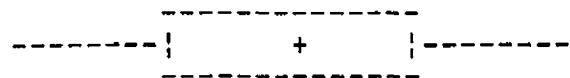
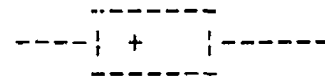


FIGURE P - STRUCTURE SCORE

GROUP

INTACT

* * *



F-DECEASED

*

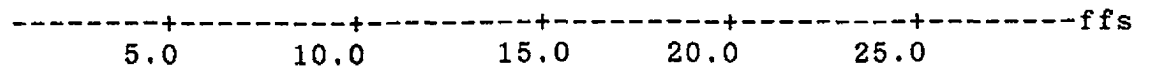
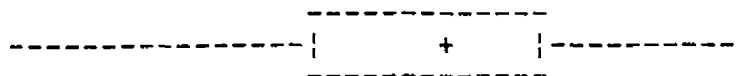
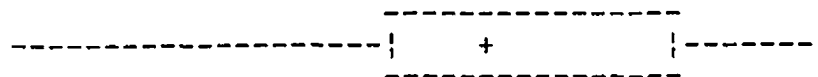


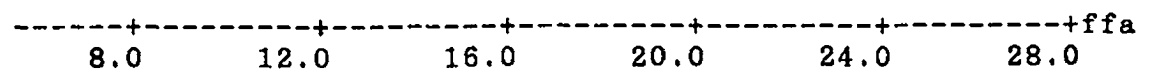
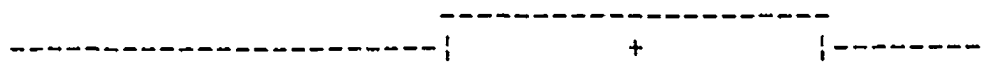
FIGURE Q - AFFECT SCORE

GROUP

INTACT



F-DECEASED



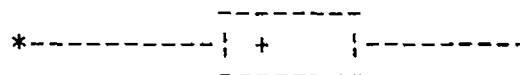
FATHER-DECEASED GROUP

FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

FIGURE W - TOTAL SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE

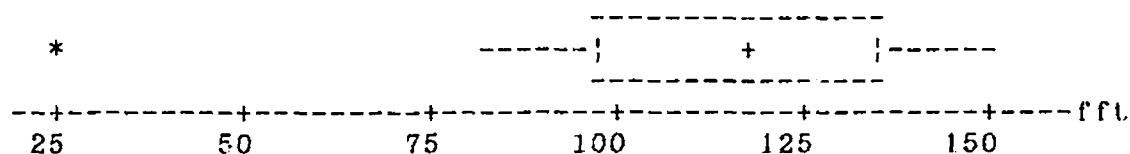
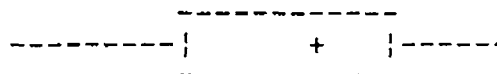


FIGURE X - STRUCTURE SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE

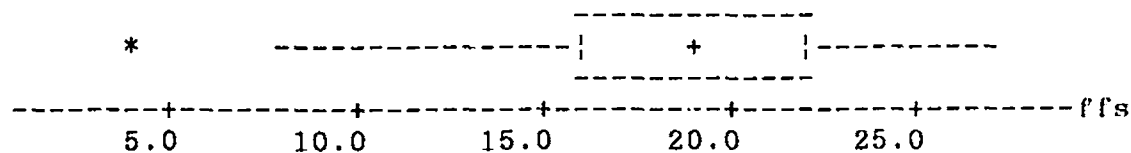
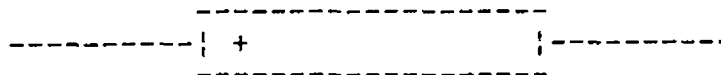


FIGURE Y - AFFECT SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE

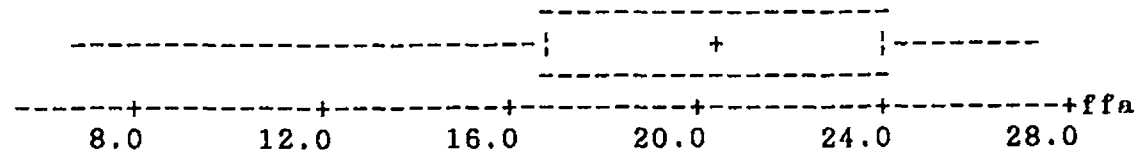


TABLE 6

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ON THE FAMILY
FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE
BETWEEN GROUPS BY SEX

	FEMALES			MALES			
	F-DECEASED	INTACT		F-DECEASED	INTACT		
SUBSCALES	(N=18)	(N=23)	P	(N=12)	(N=7)	P	
<hr/>							
TOTAL							
	MEAN	114.17	127.48	.09	121.25	123.86	.79
	SD	30.92	17.72		18.77	23.26	
STRUCTURE							
	MEAN	18.05	21.04	.05	20.08	19.43	.71
	SD	6.09	3.57		3.99	2.70	
AFFECT							
	MEAN	20.00	21.22	.41	19.00	21.14	.37
	SD	5.26	4.11		4.49	5.46	
COMMUNICATION							
	MEAN	19.00	19.39	.83	18.83	19.00	.94
	SD	6.05	5.24		4.71	4.04	

quartile for males and mid-way between the first and third quartile for females (Figures Y). However, there were differences in the total score and the subscale scores between the two groups by sex (Table 6). In particular, the Total (T) scores and the subscales scores for Structure (S) and Affect (A) suggest a difference between males and females in both groups.

A correlation matrix for the father-deceased group of their total score and subscale scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale with their scores on the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire showed significant negative correlations for all the Total and subscales scores except the correlation between the Nondependence subscale on the EAS and Structure subscale on the FFAQ (Table 8).

Scores from the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA) were correlated with scores of the Emotional Autonomy Scale (EAS) to explore the possibility that attachment to mothers served as a "mediating variable" in affecting autonomy for the father-deceased males. Significant negative correlations were found between the Total (T) score and all the subscales scores except the Parents-as-People subscale on the Emotional Autonomy Scale in relation to their

TABLE 7

CORRELATION MATRIX OF THE MOTHER AND FATHER ATTACHMENT
SCORES ON THE INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT
AND TOTAL AND SUBSCALE SCORES ON THE EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY
SCALE

FATHER-DECEASED GROUP - MALES (n=12)					
INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT			EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE		
	TOTAL	INDIV	PARENTS	NONDEP	DEI
MOTHER	-.45	-.48	.03	-.39	-.36
FATHER	-.58	-.15	-.19	-.63	-.51

FATHER-DECEASED GROUP - FEMALES (n=18)					
INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT			EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE		
	TOTAL	INDIV	PARENTS	NONDEP	DEI
MOTHER	-.67	-.56	-.24	-.64	-.72
FATHER	.20	.25	-.08	.40	.24

p < .01 .361**
p < .05 .306*

TABLE 8

CORRELATION MATRIX OF THE TOTAL AND SUBSCALE SCORES ON
THE FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE AND
THE TOTAL AND SUBSCALE SCORES ON THE EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY
SCALE

FATHER-DECEASED GROUP (n=30)				
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE	FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE			
	TOTAL	STRUCTURE	AFFECT	COMMUN
TOTAL	-0.77	-0.61	-0.65	-0.78
INDIVIDUATION	-0.59	-0.50	-0.51	-0.65
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	-0.58	-0.47	-0.47	-0.55
NONDEPENDENCE	-0.47	-0.29	-0.35	-0.50
DEIDEALIZATION	-0.34	-0.48	-0.51	-0.34

p < .01 .361**

p < .05 .306*

attachment to mother scores on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (Table 7). The father-deceased females showed significant negative correlations between the Total (T) score and all the subscale scores except the Parents-as-People subscale on the Emotional Autonomy Scale in relation to their attachment to mother on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (Table 7).

An analysis of variance was conducted to compare the emotional autonomy scores of the high and low scores on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment -Mothers only section. The results indicate that there is no interaction between the gender and the level of attachment to mother for the father-deceased group ($p=.924$). However, there is statistical significance for gender ($p=.007$) and high/low attachment scores for mother on the IPPA ($p=.001$) (Table 26).

A t test analysis on the high and low scores of attachment to mother for both males and females from the father-deceased group ($n=29$) for each score on the Emotional Autonomy Scale illustrates that low scores for attachment to mother indicate that these adolescents are more autonomous according to their Total, Nondependence and Deidealization scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale (Table 9) whereas high scores for attachment to

TABLE 9

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND *t* VALUES ON THE
INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT (MOTHER
ONLY SCORES) AND THE EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE BY
SEX AND LEVEL OF MOTHER ATTACHMENT

EAS SCALE	SCORE LEVEL ON MOTHER ATTACHMENT				t values
	HIGH (n=17)		LOW (n=12)		
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	
TOTAL	54.00	6.49	62.58	6.67	.002**
INDIVIDUATION	14.65	2.26	16.33	2.42	.071 ns
PARENTS-AS- PEOPLE	15.12	2.78	17.88	3.88	.135 ns
NONDEPENDENCE	11.00	1.66	12.67	1.77	.018*
DEIDEALIZATION	13.12	2.03	15.33	1.83	.005**

mother indicate that these adolescents are less autonomous according to their Total, Nondependence and Deidealization scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale (Table 9).

Attachment Scores and Relationship with Peers

Whether or not adolescents from father-deceased families are more or less attached to their peers than adolescents from intact families is addressed in the final research question. Some of the research literature inferred that adolescents who had experienced a parental loss may be more reliant on their peers in order to find social support and guidance (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). They may be more attached to their peers than adolescents from intact families.

Scores on the Peers subscale of the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (Table 2), showed no significant difference ($p=.59$) between the father-deceased group and the intact group. Similar scores were also found in comparing both male and female adolescents in the two groups. These scores showed no significant difference ($p=.27/p=.95$) (Table 4) for males and females. A graph of the attachment to peers scores illustrated that male adolescents from the father-deceased families were slightly more attached to

TABLE 10

CORRELATION MATRIX OF THE ATTACHMENT TO PEERS SCORES
ON THE INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT AND THE
TOTAL AND SUBSCALE SCORES ON THE EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY
SCALE

FATHER-DECEASED GROUP (n=30)	
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE	INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT (PEERS)
<hr/>	
TOTAL	0.07
INDIVIDUATION	-0.02
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	0.02
NONDEPENDENCE	0.36*
DEIDEALIZATION	-0.13

peers than are female adolescents from the same group. Male adolescents from father-deceased families were also slightly more attached to peers than were male adolescents from intact families (Figure K and N).

A correlation matrix for the father-deceased group for the Total score and subscale scores on the Emotional Autonomy Scale with their attachment to peers scores on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment showed a significant correlation for the Nondependence subscale with attachment to peers (Table 8).

Earlier studies of attachment to mother, father and peers found somewhat different results. Armsden's (1986) study of older adolescents (ages 17 to 20 years old) living most of their lives in an intact family showed that for both males and females, attachment scores for mother accounted for more than twice the variance in peer attachment scores than did father attachment scores. This suggests the possibility that the maternal relationship may have a stronger influence on adolescents. The importance of peer attachment is further highlighted by the findings that, regardless of parent attachment configuration, secure attachment to peers is generally associated with greater well-being than insecure peer attachment. Armsden's

results for both attachment to parents and peers suggests that while parent relationships are still influential, peer relationships have gained considerable importance. Her study indicated consistent sex differences in terms of the relative importance of attachment to parents and peers for well-being. Father attachment was most related to well-being among males, while for females, peer attachment proved to be the best predictor of well-being in late adolescence. For males, attachment to mother was clearly the weakest predictor of well-being, while mother and father attachment were generally about equally related to well-being among females. However, even among females father attachment was superior to mother attachment in its association with stability of self-esteem (Table 11).

TABLE 11
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ATTACHMENT SCORES
 (Armsden, 1986)

INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT	MALES		FEMALES	
	M	SD	M	SD
MOTHER	87.51	11.8	89.89	12.7
FATHER	83.19	14.7	81.10	14.3
PEER	94.97	12.1	103.48	11.4

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Implications

The impact of father death on the process of developing emotional autonomy was the topic of the present research. Few significant differences were found between adolescents from father-deceased families and those from intact families. Adolescents from the father-deceased group are more autonomous than the intact group in some of the scales. The overall level of emotional autonomy (T) and their subscale scores on the Parents-As-People subscale was significant. Gender differences in the subscale scores showed significance for males' individuation and nondependence subscale scores and females' parents-as-people subscale scores. Male and females adolescents' attachment scores to mother and father in both the father-deceased and intact groups showed no significance. Adolescents' perceptions of their family functioning showed similar results for both the father-deceased and intact groups with adolescents who scored high in family functioning being less autonomous. However, female adolescents' scores on the Structure subscale indicated some significance between the two groups. Data analysis of the

relationship between level of emotional autonomy and attachment to peers between the two groups showed no significant difference.

The Adolescent Life Change Event Scale (Yeaworth et al, 1980) provided more detailed information about the participants' past experiences with loss and death as well as other losses that may have had an effect on their grief reactions and their developmental process. The authors of this instrument identified this list of life change events by asking adolescents themselves what they perceived to be significant life changes. The most significant life change event identified was the death of a parent.

The surviving parents' ability to respond favorably to their grieving adolescents are key mediators of adolescents' grief process. The surviving parents often rely on these adolescents to assume some of the roles that were once the responsibility of their fathers. The distinct parent-child roles may be blurred and altered drastically at a time when adolescents need to have some time to determine these roles in a more gradual manner. Any expectations that the surviving parents have of their bereaved adolescents may result in additional stress for them. The impact of these alterations in the

family composition may also have some influence on adolescents' ability to achieve a healthy emotional autonomy with their mothers. The results of this study showed that father-deceased adolescents who were more attached to their mothers were less autonomous whereas father-deceased adolescents who were less attached to their mothers were more autonomous.

Based on these findings, the death of a parent either during or prior to adolescence does not invariably have an impact on adolescents' developmental process. These findings are consistent with the observations of Raphael (1983) that "no clear-cut findings have really emerged since the majority of studies have been retrospective in nature and the variables are many and complex" (p. 126). Berlinsky and Biller (1982) stated that "the variables associated with the loss of a parent as well as the characteristics specific to the child, will predict the child's subsequent adjustment and development" (p. 127).

Whether or not the death of a father has a significant impact on adolescents' separation-individuation process may be more related to their vulnerability to some special kind of problems that are sometimes evident in adolescents who suffered the loss

of a parent through divorce. Researchers in this area discuss the impact of divorce or parental separation on adolescents' process of disengaging from parents and forming attachments outside the home. They state that it is difficult to finish blending doses of closeness and independence into a mature relationship with a parent when that parent disappears from one's daily life and their parents expectations of their ability to handle these kinds of situations can often be unrealistic (Kimmel & Weiner, 1985).

Bereaved adolescents can also experience similar reactions to changes in the family context. Being able to make the necessary adjustments to these changes often involves a combination of their grief reactions to the death of their father as well as their need to maintain and establish the 'normal' developmental tasks associated with the adolescent phase. To avoid appearing different from their peers as well as maintaining some normalcy in their lives often overrides adolescents' need to grieve the loss of their relationship with their father. This may result in what is known as a 'delayed grief reaction' whereby these adolescents experience their grief reactions to this loss at a later time in their lives (Dietrich, 1986).

One of the "ripple" effects of this study has provided the father-deceased adolescents with an opportunity to explore their thoughts and feelings about the death of their father. This kind of acknowledgment of their loss has enabled some of these adolescents to realize the significance that their father's death has had on their development. They have also become more aware that they are not the only adolescent that has experienced such a loss.

Future Research:

A future research project would involve using The Adolescent Life Change Scale to further explore the impact of accumulated loss on bereaved adolescents. Personal interviews with these adolescents would help to determine the quality of the relationship with the deceased parent prior to their death and the confounding effects of other losses i.e. family problems with alcohol, unemployment.

The impact of mother death on male and female adolescents between the ages of 12 to 16 years old. The similarities and differences between the parental death loss of a father or mother would become the focus of this kind of study. An important issue that needs further study is adolescents' relationship with their

surviving parent. Dornbusch, Petersen & Hetherington (1991) identified new directions and needs for future adolescent research. One of the research needs involved looking at adolescents' relationships with parents that are undergoing important transformations that support the development of autonomy in adolescents. Dornbusch et al (1991) referred to the influence of the contexts in which the adolescent is developing. They posed the question whether or not human development inherently involves change and whether or not contexts change? Little is known about how the interaction between normative and non-normative life change differs for adolescents in the course of their development.

Finally, some validity studies for the instruments utilized in this study would enhance the results of future research projects that would like to use these instruments. These additional studies would involve adolescents between the ages of 12 to 16 years old.

Limitations:

Some of the limitations of this study are related to the following issues: (a) the lack of qualitative data such as adolescents' perceptions of this loss; (b) the confounding variables such as other losses and the possibility of related family changes which were

derived from the data in the Adolescent Life Change Event Scale; (c) the power of the statistics is limited by the size of the N for males in the intact group; and (d) the need for multiple tests for significance since many of the tests conducted on the data were from the same group hence the true level of Type I error is not known.

REFERENCES

- Adams, G.R., Dyk, P. & Bennion, L.D. (1987). Parent-adolescent relationships and identity formation. Family Perspective, 21(4), 249-260.
- Almeida, D., & Galambos, N. (1991). Examining father involvement and the quality of father-adolescent relations. Journal of Adolescent Research, 1(2), 155-172.
- Anderson, E.R., Hetherington, E.M., & Clingempeel, W.G. (1989). Transformations in family relations at puberty: Effects of family context. Journal of Early Adolescence, 9, 310-334.
- Armacost, R. (1989). Perceptions of stressors by high school students. Journal of Adolescent Research, 4, 443-461.
- Armsden, G.C., & Greenberg, M.T. (1987). The inventory of parent and peer attachment: Individual differences and their relationship to psychological well-being in adolescence. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 16, 427-454.
- Balk, D., Tyson-Rawson, K., & Colletti-Wetzel, J. (1992). Paper presentation at the Association for Death Education and Counseling, March 6, 1992. Social support and bereaved college students.
- Balk, D. (1993). Bereavement research using control groups: Ethical obligations and questions. A paper presentation at the Association for Death Education and Counseling, April 1, 1993, Memphis, Tn.
- Bartle, S., Anderson, S., & Sabatelli, R.M. (1989). A model of parenting style, adolescent individuation and adolescent self-esteem. Journal of Adolescent Research, 4(3), 283-298.
- Bendiksen, R., & Fulton, R. (1975) An anterospective test of the childhood bereavement and later behavior hypothesis. Omega, 6:45-59. (Cited in T. Rando: Grief, Dying and Death: Clinical Interventions for Caregivers, 165).

- Benson, M., Harris, P., & Rogers, C. (1992). Identity consequences of attachment to mothers and fathers among late adolescents. Journal of Research of Adolescence, 2(3), 187-204.
- Berlinsky, E.B., & Biller, H.B. (1982). Parental death and psychological development. Lexington: D.C. Heath. (Cited in T. Rando: Grief, Dying and Death: Clinical Interventions for Caregivers, 165).
- Blain, M., Thompson, J., & Whiffen, V. (1993). Attachment and perceived social support in late adolescence: The interaction between working models of self and others. Journal of Adolescent Research, 8(2), 226-241.
- Bloom, M. (1980). Adolescent-Parental Separation. New York: Gardner Press.
- Blos, P. (1975). The second individuation process of adolescence in A.H. Esman (Ed.) The psychology of adolescence. New York: International Universities Press.
- Blustein, D., Wallbridge, M.M., Friedlander, M.L., & Palladino, D.E.. Psychological separation and parental attachment to the career development process. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 38(1), 39-50.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1986). Ecology of the family as a context for human development: Research perspectives. Developmental Psychology, 22(6), 723-742.
- Camper, F.A. (1983). Children's reactions to the death of a parent: Maintaining the inner world. Smith College Studies in Social Work, 53(3), 188-202.
- Clark-Lempers, D.S., & Lempers, J.D. (1991). Early, middle and late adolescents. Perceptions of their relationships with significant others. Journal of Adolescent Research, 6(3), 296-315.
- Cooper, C.R., Grotevant, H.D., & Condon, S.M. (1983). Individuality and connectedness in the family as a context for adolescent identity formation and role-taking skill. In H.D. Grotevant & C.R. Cooper (Eds.) Adolescent development in the family. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Corneau, Guy (1991). Absent fathers, lost sons: The search for masculine identity. Boston: Shambhala Publications Inc.
- Cosse, W.J. (1992). Who's who and what's what? The effects of gender on development in adolescence. In Barbarba Rubin Wainrib (Ed.) Gender issues across the life cycle. New York: Spring Publishing Co.
- Cottle, T.J. (1972). The connections of adolescence. In J. Kagan & R. Coles (eds.) Twelve to sixteen: Early adolescence, 294-336. New York: Norton.
- Daniels, J. (1990). Adolescent separation-individuation and family transitions. Adolescence, 25(97), 105-116.
- Davies, B., Spinetta, J., Martinson, I., McClowry, S. & Kulenkamp, E.. Manifestations of levels of functioning in grieving families. Journal of Family Issues, 7(3). 297-313.
- de Jong, M. (1992). Attachment, individuation, and risk of suicide in late adolescence. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 21(3), 357-373.
- Dietrich, D. (1986B). The bereaved child's psychological health several years later. In: G. Paterson (Ed.), Children and Death. London, Ontario: King's College.
- Dornsbusch, S., Petersen, A., & Hetherington, E.M. (1991). Projecting the future of research on adolescence. Journal of Research on Adolescence, 1(1), 7-17.
- Elkind, D. (1980). Strategic interactions in early adolescence. In J. Adelson (Ed.) Handbook of adolescent psychology. New York: Wiley.
- Elkind, D. (1984). All Grown Up and No Place To Go: Teenagers in Crisis. Reading: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Enright, R.D., Lapsley, D.K., Drivas, A.E. & Fehr, L.A. (1980). Parental influences on the development of adolescent autonomy and identity. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 9(6), 529-545.
- Erikson, E. (1980). Identity and the life cycle. New York: Norton

- Fine, M.A., Donnelly, B.W., & Voydanoff, P. (1991). The relation between adolescents' perceptions of their family lives and their adjustment in stepfather families. Journal of Adolescent Research, 6(4), 423-436.
- Fleming, S.J., & Adolph, R. (1986). Helping bereaved adolescents: Needs and responses. In C. Corr & J. McNeil (Eds.) Adolescence and Death. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Frank, S.J., Pirsch, L.A., & Wright, V.C. (1990). Late adolescents' perceptions of their relationships with their parents: Relationships among deidealization, autonomy, relatedness and insecurity and implications for adolescent adjustment and ego identity status. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 19(6), 571-588.
- Froese, A.P. (1975). Adolescence. Canada's Mental Health, 23(1), 9-12.
- Garber, B. (1983). Some thought on normal adolescents who lost a parent by death. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 12(3), 175-183.
- Gavazzi, S.M., Anderson, S.A. & Sabatelli, R.M.. (1993) Family differentiation, peer differentiation, and adolescent adjustment in a clinical sample. Journal of Adolescent Research, 8(2), 205-225.
- Gavazzi, S.M., & Sabatelli, R.M. (1990). Family system dynamics, the individuation process and psychosocial development. Journal of Adolescent Research, 5(4), 500-519.
- Gravelle, K., & Haskins, C. (1989). Teenagers face to face with bereavement. Eaglewood Cliffs: Julian Messner.
- Gray, R. (1987b). Adolescent response to the death of a parent. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 16(6), 511-525.
- Greenberg, M., Siegel, J., & Leitch, C. (1983). The nature and importance of attachment relationships to parents and peers during adolescence. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 12(5), 373-386.
- Grotevant, H.D., & Cooper, C.R., (Eds.). (1983). Adolescent development in the family. Number 22. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.

- Grotevant, H. & Cooper, C. (1986). Individuation in family relationships. Human Development, 29, 82-100.
- Hansberg, Henry G. (1972). Adolescent separation anxiety: A method for the study of adolescent separation problems. Springfield: Charles C. Thomas.
- Hetherington, E.M. (1991). Presidential address: Families, Lies and Videotapes. Journal of Research on Adolescence, 1(4), 323-348.
- Hogan, N.S., & Greenfield, D.B. (1991). Adolescent sibling bereavement symptomatology in a large community sample. Journal of Adolescent Research, 6(1), 97-112.
- Holmbeck, G.N., & Blyth, D.A. (Eds.) (1991). Special issue dedicated to the work of John P. Hill. Part 1: Theoretical, Instructional and Policy Contributions. Journal of Early Adolescence, 11(1), 6-171.
- Holmbeck, G.N., & Blyth, D.A. (Eds.) (1991). Special issue dedicated to the work of John P. Hill. Part 2: Pubertal Maturations and Family Relationships during Early Adolescence. Journal of Early Adolescence, 11(2), 182-293.
- Hunter, F.T. (1985). Individual adolescents' perceptions of interactions with friends and parents. Journal of Early Adolescence, 5(3), 295-305.
- Ivey, A.E. (1991). Developmental strategies for helpers: Individual, family, and network interventions. Pacific Grove: Books/Cole.
- Johnson, B.M., Shulam, S. & Collins, W.A. (1991). Systemic patterns of patterning as reported by adolescents: Developmental differences and implications for psychosocial outcomes. Journal of Adolescent Research, 6(2), 235-252.
- Kalter, N. (1987). Long-term effects of divorce on children: A developmental vulnerability model. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 57(4), 587-600.
- Karpel, M. (1976). Individuation: From fusion to dialogue. Family Process, 15, 65-82. (Cited in Human Development, 29, 82-100).

- Kegan, R. (1982). The evolving self: Problem and process in human development. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Kimmel & Weiner (1985) Adolescence: A developmental transition. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Lamborn, S.D., & Steinberg, L. (1990). Emotional autonomy redux: Revisiting Ryan and Lynch. Unpublished manuscript.
- Lapsley, D.K., Fitzgerald, D., Rice, K., & Jackson, S. (1989). Separation-Individuation and the "New Look" at the Imaginary Audience and Personal Fable: A Test of an Integrative Model. Journal of Adolescence Research, 4(4), 483-505.
- Levine, J.B. (1986). Separation-individuation test of adolescence. Journal of Personality Assessment, 50, 123-137.
- Lyon, J.B., & Vandenburg, B.R. (1989). Father death, family relationships and subsequent psychological functioning in women. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 18(4), 327-335.
- McClowry, S.G., Davies, B., May, K. A., Kulenkamp, E. & Martinson, I. (1987). The empty space phenomenon: The process of grief in the bereaved family. Death Studies, 11, 361-374.
- Murphy, P. (1986-1987). Parental death in childhood and loneliness in young adults. Omega, 17, 219-228.
- Nada Raja, S., McGee, R., & Stanton, W.R. (1992). Perceived attachments to parents and peers and psychological well-being in adolescence. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 21(4), 471-485.
- Offer, D., & Offer, J. (1975). From teenage to young manhood. New York: Basic Books.
- Papadatou, D., & Papadatos, C. (Ed.) (1991). Children & Death. New York: Hemisphere Publishing Corporation.
- Papini, D.R., Roggman, L.A. & Anderson, J. (1991). Early-adolescent perceptions of attachment to mother and father: A test of the emotional-distancing and buffering hypotheses. Journal of Early Adolescence, 11(2), 258-275.

- Papini, D., & Roggman, L. (1992). Adolescent perceived attachment to parents in relation to competence, depression and anxiety: A longitudinal study. Journal of Early Adolescence, 12(4), 420-440..
- Pardeck, J., & Pardeck, J. (1990). Family factors related to adolescent autonomy. Adolescence, 25(98), 311-319.
- Petersen, A. (1993). Presidential address: Creating adolescents: The role of context and process in developmental trajectories. Journal of Research in Adolescence, 3(1), 1-18.
- Pipp, S., Jennings, S., Shaver, P., Lamborn, S., & Fischer, K.W. (1985). Adolescents' theories about the development of their relationships with parents. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48(4), 991-1001.
- Rando, T. (1984). Grief, dying and death: Clinical interventions for caregivers. Champaign: Research Press Co.
- Raphael, B. (1974). Youth in a world of change. Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry, 8, 131-137.
- Raphael, B. (1983). The anatomy of bereavement. New York: Basic Books.
- Raphael, B., Cubis, J., Dunne, M., Lewin, T. & Kelly, B. (1990). The impact of parental loss on adolescents' psychosocial characteristics. Adolescence, 25(99), 689-700.
- Reese, F.L., & Roosa, M.W. (1991). Early adolescents' self-reports of major life stressors and mental health risk status. Journal of Early Adolescence, 11(3), 363-378.
- Roelofse, R., & Middleton, M. (1985). The family functioning in adolescence questionnaire: A measure of psychosocial family health during adolescence. Journal of Adolescence, 8, 33-45.
- Rutter, M. (1971). Parent-child separation: Psychological effects on the children. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 12, 233-260.

- Gyan, R.M., & Lynch, J.H. (1989). Emotional autonomy versus detachment: Revisiting the vicissitudes of adolescence and young adulthood. Child Development, 60, 340-356.
- Sabatelli, R.M., & Anderson, S.A. (1991). Family system dynamics, peer relationships and adolescents' psychological adjustment. Family relations, 40, 363-369.
- Sessa, F.M., & Steinberg, L. (1991). Family structure and the development of autonomy during adolescence. Journal of Early Adolescence, 11(1), 38-55.
- Shulman, S., & Klein, M. (1982). The family and adolescence: A conceptual and experimental approach. Journal of Adolescence, 5, 219-234.
- Silverberg, S., & Steinberg, L. (1987). Adolescent autonomy, parent-adolescent conflict and parental well-being. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 16(3), 293-312.
- Steinberg, L., & Silverberg, S.B. (1986). The vicissitudes of autonomy. Child Development, 57, 841-851.
- Sugar, M. (1968). Normal Adolescent mourning. American Journal of Psychotherapy, 22, 258-269.
- Sullivan, K., & Sullivan, A. (1980). Adolescent-parent separation. Developmental Psychology, 16, 93-104.
- Turner, R., Irwin, C., & Millstein, S. (1991). Family structure, family processes and experimenting with substances during adolescence. Journal of Research of Adolescence, 1(1), 93-106.
- Van Eerdewegh, M.M., Bieri, M.D., Parilla, R.H., & Clayton, P.J. (1982) The bereaved child. British Journal of Psychiatry, 140, 23-29.
- Wakerman, Elyce (1984). Father loss: Daughters discuss the man that got away. New York: Henry Holt and Company.
- Wallerstein, J.S., & Kelly, J.B. (1980) Surviving the breakup. New York: Basic Books.

- Weber, J.A., & Fournier, D.G. (1985). Family support and a child's adjustment to death. Family Relations, 34, 43-49.
- Weigman, G., Savine, & Kamn, P. (1985). Helping children and adolescents to mourn. About Mourning. New York: Human Sciences Press, 153-182.
- White, K. M., Speisman, J.C., & Costos, D. (1983). Young adults and their parents: Individuation to mutuality. In Grotevant & Cooper (Eds.) Adolescent development in the family. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Wolfelt, A. (1983). Helping children cope with grief. Muncie: Accelerated Development Inc.
- Wolfelt, A. (1991). Central reconciliation needs of mourning in the bereaved child. Bereavement Magazine, 5(4), 38-40.
- Yeaworth, R.C., York, J., Hussey, M.A., Ingle, M.E., & Goodwin, T. (1980). The development of an adolescent life change event scale. Adolescence, 15(57), 91-97.
- Yeaworth, R.C., McNamee, M.J., & Pozehl, B. (1992). The adolescent life change event scale: Its development and use. Adolescence, 27(108), 783-802.
- Youniss, J. (1983). Social construction of adolescence by adolescents and parents. In Grotevant & Cooper Adolescent development in the family: New directions for child development. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Youniss, J., & Smollar, J. (1985). Adolescent relations with mothers, fathers and friends. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

RECRUITMENT SPEECH

My name is Sandra Elder. I am a graduate student working on my doctorate at the University of Victoria. I am conducting a research study that will compare two groups of adolescents and their relationships with parents and peers.

I am looking for two groups of adolescents: from intact families (two parents) and non-intact families (mother only / father has died) who are between the ages of 12 to 16 years old. Parental consent forms for participation in this study are required. Adolescents who are not receiving counselling for problems related to the parental death are being asked to volunteer as well as adolescents who may have been receiving counselling and have received permission from both their parents and their therapist/doctor to participate in this study.

The purpose of this study is to compare these two groups of adolescents to see if there is any significant differences of similarities in their responses to the instruments used in this study. Confidentiality will be assured for the participants in this study through the use of code numbers which will be assigned and used instead of names. The names and the code numbers will be kept in a separate place and destroyed when the researcher has finished her degree.

Adolescents who agree to participate in this study will be asked to fill out two questionnaires that will assist the researcher in the selection of participants. Once the two groups of participants are determined, the remaining three instruments will be completed. All instruments will be destroyed as soon as the researcher has completed her degree.

If you are interested in being a participant in this study after reading the information sheet, please call Sandra Elder at (w) 652-4142 or (h) 652-9705. If I am not available to talk to you when you call, please leave your name and your phone number and I will return your call as soon as possible.

Thank you for your time and interest in my research study. Your participation in this study is greatly appreciated.

Sandra Elder
Doctoral Candidate
Faculty of Education
Dept. of Psychological
Foundations
University of Victoria

INFORMATION ABOUT THE RESEARCH STUDY: ADOLESCENTS
AND THEIR RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS AND PEERS

WHO CAN VOLUNTEER?

1. Adolescents between the ages of 12 to 16 years old.
2. Both adolescent males and females.
3. Adolescents from intact families (two parents who are living together).
4. Adolescents from non-intact families (mother only) and father has died.
5. Adolescents who are not receiving counselling or medical treatment for problems related to the death of their father (emotionally vulnerable adolescents).
6. Written parental consent forms from adolescents who want to be a participant in this study.
7. Adolescents who are having some difficulties with their relationship with their parents/mother and peers.
8. Adolescents who are not and have never had any difficulties with their relationship with their parents/mother and peers.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY:

The purpose of the study is to compare the relationships with parents and peers for two groups of adolescents: those from intact (two parents living together) and those from non-intact families (mother only/father is dead). Every adolescent who volunteers will be asked to initially complete two instruments that will assist in the selection of participants. The two groups of adolescents who will be participants in this study will complete three instruments that explore adolescents' relationships with parents and peers. The information obtained from these instruments will be looked at by the researcher and her research committee at the University of Victoria. This information will be destroyed as soon as the researcher is finished her degree. The following examples of the kind of questions that you will see in the instruments used in this study:

- a) My mother/father/friends accept me as I am.
- b) I can count on my mother/father when I need to get something off my chest.
- c) My mother/father care about me and accepts me the way I am.

- d) My parents don't trust me.
- e) I wish my parents would understand who I really am.
- f) My parents know everything there is to know about me.

For those adolescents who fill out the first instruments, confidentiality can be assured. Each adolescent will be given a code number which will be used instead of their name. The name and code numbers will be kept in a separate place and destroyed once the researcher has finished her degree.

If you are interested in participating in this study or have any further questions, please contact Sandra Elder at (w) 652-4142 or (h) 652-9705. If I am not available to speak to you when you call, please leave your name and phone number and I will return your call as soon as possible. To protect your personal privacy, DO NOT STATE THAT YOU ARE INTERESTED IN THE STUDY.

APPENDIX C

110

MEMO: TO ALL PARTICIPANTS IN THIS STUDY

I am looking at adolescents' relationships with their parents and friends for my research study for my Phd in counselling psychology. Thank you for agreeing to meet me today.

There are two instruments that will be utilized to select the participants for this study:

Demographic Questionnaire
Adolescent Life Change Event Scale

There are three questionnaires that will be utilized in the actual research study:

Emotional Autonomy Scale (EAS) (21 items)
Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire
(42 items)
Relationships Questionnaire (IPPA) (Three parts
with 25 items in each of the three parts)

When you are answering the questionnaires in this research study there is an answer sheet attached to the Family Functioning in Adolescence Questionnaire and the Emotional Autonomy Scale. The Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA) has both the questions and answer sheet together.

Each participant will be assigned a number which they will put on the three questionnaires rather than their actual names. This procedure will assure confidentiality for the participants in this research study.

I would appreciate any comments that you have about these questionnaires - good or bad - your comments are VERY IMPORTANT to my study. Please put these comments on the back of the questionnaires.

Thank you for your time and your help in my research study. I really appreciate it.

Sandra Elder

APPENDIX D

111

Intact Group &
Father-Deceased
Group

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I

NAME _____

ADDRESS _____

PHONE # _____

BIRTH DATE _____

SEX: _____ MALE _____ FEMALE

BIRTH ORDER _____ (your position in your family,
i.e. eldest child)

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF PARENTS:

FATHER:

INCOMPLETE HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA _____

GRADE 12 DIPLOMA _____

POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION _____

DEGREE EARNED:

_____ BACHELOR
_____ GRADUATE
_____ POST-GRADUATE

MOTHER:

INCOMPLETE HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA _____ GRADE 12

DIPLOMA _____ POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION _____

DEGREE EARNED:

_____ BACHELOR
_____ GRADUATE
_____ POST-GRADUATE

APPENDIX D

112

FATHER-DECEASED
GROUP - prior to
ages 12 to 16
years and between
12 to 16 years.

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

PART II

NAME _____

ADDRESS _____

PHONE # _____

BIRTH DATE _____

AGE AT TIME OF PARENTAL DEATH _____

SEX: _____ MALE _____ FEMALE

BIRTH ORDER _____ (your position in your family,
i.e. eldest child)

PARENT WHO DIED _____ MOTHER _____ FATHER

TYPE OF DEATH:

_____ ACCIDENTAL

_____ CANCER

_____ HEART ATTACK

_____ CVA / STROKE

_____ SUICIDE

_____ MURDER

_____ OTHER - please specify

DATE OF PARENTAL DEATH _____

AGE OF PARENT AT THE TIME OF THEIR DEATH _____

ADOLESCENT LIFE CHANGE EVENT SCALE

Yeaworth, R.C., York, J., Hussey, M.A., Ingle, M.E., & Goodwin, T.. (1980). The development of an adolescent life change event scale. *Adolescence*, 15(57), 91-97.

Yeaworth, R.C., McNamee, M.J. & Pozehl, B.. (1992). The adolescent life change event scale: Its development and use. *Adolescence*, 27(108), 783-802.

APPENDIX F

114

THE FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

Roelofse, R. & Middleton, M.R.. (1985). The family functioning in adolescence questionnaire: A measure of psychosocial family health during adolescence. *Journal of Adolescence*, 8, 33-45.

APPENDIX G

115

THE INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT

Armsden, G.C. & Greenberg, M.T.. (1987) The inventory of parent and peer attachment: Individual differences and their relationship to psychological well-being in adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 16, 427-454.

APPENDIX H

116

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

Steinberg, L. & Silverberg, S.. (1986) The vicissitudes of autonomy in early adolescence. Child Development, 57, 841-851.

APPENDIX I

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Dear (Adolescents' Name)

I am a graduate student at the University of Victoria in the Faculty of Education, Department of Psychological Foundations working under the supervision of Dr. Don Knowles (#721-7799). I will be conducting a study that will help me to further understand adolescent development and their relationships with parents and peers. This study will involve sixty adolescents between the ages of twelve to sixteen years old. Thirty of the adolescents will be from one parent families (father died) and thirty adolescents will be from two parent families (living with both mother and father). There will be two parts to the study: the first part will involve the selection of participants for this study and the two questionnaires that will be utilized to screen participants for this study and the second part will involve the participants selected for this study answering three questionnaires that explore adolescents' relationships with their parents and peers. An example of the type of questions that will be asked:

- (a) My mother/father/friends accept me as I am.
- (b) I can count on my mother/father when I need to get something off my chest.
- (c) My mother/father cares about me and accepts me the way I am.
- (d) My parents don't trust me.
- (e) I wish my parents would understand who I really am.
- (f) My parents know everything there is to know about me.

The study will take place outside of the regular school schedule so as to not interfere with the students' school work. All information will be kept confidential. The participants can withdraw any time from this study. The results will be available through the Greater Victoria School District office upon its completion.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Sandra Elder

APPENDIX I

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Dear (Parents' Name)

I am a graduate student at the University of Victoria in the Faculty of Education, Department of Psychological Foundations working under the supervision of Dr. Don Knowles (#721-7799). I will be conducting a study that will help me to further understand adolescent development and their relationships with parents and peers. This study will involve sixty adolescents between the ages of twelve to sixteen years old. Thirty of the adolescents will be from one parent families (father died) and thirty adolescents will be from two parent families (living with both mother and father). There will be two parts to the study: the first part will involve the selection of participants for this study and the two questionnaires that will be utilized to screen participants for this study and the second part will involve the participants selected for this study answering three questionnaires that explore adolescents' relationships with their parents and peers. An example of the type of questions that will be asked:

- (a) My mother/father/friends accept me as I am.
- (b) I can count on my mother/father when I need to get something off my chest.
- (c) My mother/father cares about me and accepts me the way I am.
- (d) My parents don't trust me.
- (e) I wish my parents would understand who I really am.
- (f) My parents know everything there is to know about me.

The study will take place outside of the regular school schedule so as to not interfere with the students' school work. All information will be kept confidential. The participants can withdraw any time from this study. The results will be available through the Greater Victoria School District office upon its completion.

APPENDIX I

Please sign this informed consent form and return it to the Main Office of the school if you want to participate in this study. If you have any further questions, please contact me at 652-4142 (work) or 652-9705 (home).

Thank you for your assistance.

I hereby give my/our consent for my/our child

_____ to take part in the above study.
(name)

Parent(s) Signature

Sincerely,

Sandra Elder

TABLE 12
F-DECEASED GROUP - MALES

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY	FAMILY FUNCTIONING			
	TOTAL	STRUCTURE	AFFECT	COMMUNICATION
	P	P	P	P
TOTAL	.93	.24	.80	.91
INDIVIDUATION	.17	.06	.64	.36
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	.69	.21	.16	.86
NONDEPENDENCE	.14	.82	.05	.36
DEIDEALIZATION	.35	.04	.24	.23

TABLE 13
F-DECEASED GROUP - FEMALES

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE	FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE			
	TOTAL	STRUCTURE	AFFECT	COMMUNICATION
	P	P	P	P
TOTAL	.08	.15	.02	.002
INDIVIDUATION	.09	.20	.02	.006
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	.59	.59	.49	.23
NONDEPENDENCE	.01	.03	.02	.004
DEIDEALIZATION	.19	.07	.06	.02

TABLE 14
INTACT GROUP - MALES

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY	FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE			
	TOTAL	STRUCTURE	AFFECT	COMMUNICATION
	P	P	P	P
TOTAL	.01	.006	.006	.02
INDIVIDUATION	.21	.23	.23	.12
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	.03	.07	.07	.02
NONDEPENDENCE	.09	.13	.13	.09
DEIDEALIZATION	.87	.29	.29	1.000

TABLE 15
INTACT GROUP - FEMALES

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY	FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE			
	TOTAL	STRUCTURE	AFFECT	COMMUNICATION
	P	P	P	P
TOTAL	.001	.01	.006	.006
INDIVIDUATION	.01	.02	.04	.04
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	.29	.23	.05	.14
NONDEPENDENCE	.20	.11	.15	.11
DEIDEALIZATION	.26	.06	.12	.17

TABLE 16

ANOVA

INTACT GROUP - MALES	
<hr/>	
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY	INVENTORY OF PARENT/PEER ATTACHMENT
	PEERS
	P
<hr/>	
TOTAL	.94
INDIVIDUATION	.57
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	.67
NONDEPENDENCE	.75
DEIDEALIZATION	.20

TABLE 17

ANOVA

INTACT GROUP - FEMALES	
<hr/>	
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY	INVENTORY OF PARENT/PEER ATTACHMENT
	PEERS
	P
<hr/>	
TOTAL	.16
INDIVIDUATION	.99
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	.48
NONDEPENDENCE	.06
DEIDEALIZATION	.43

TABLE 18

ANOVA

F-DECEASED GROUP - MALES	
<hr/>	
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY	INVENTORY OF PARENT/PEER ATTACHMENT
	PEERS
	P
<hr/>	
TOTAL	.29
INDIVIDUATION	.90
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	.51
NONDEPENDENCE	1.000
DEIDEALIZATION	.56

TABLE 19

ANOVA

F-DECEASED GROUP - FEMALES	
<hr/>	
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY	INVENTORY OF PARENT/PEER ATTACHMENT
	PEERS
	P
<hr/>	
TOTAL	.63
INDIVIDUATION	.63
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	.75
NONDEPENDENCE	.35
DEIDEALIZATION	.76

TABLE 20
CORRELATION MATRIX

TOTAL GROUP					
INVENTORY OF PARENT/PEER ATTACHMENT			EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY		
TOTAL INDIV PARENTS/PEOPLE NONDEP DEIDEALIZ					
PEERS	.16	.04	.04	.38	-.06
INTACT GROUP - MALES					
TOTAL INDIV PARENTS/PEOPLE NONDEP DEIDEALIZ					
PEERS	.42	.01	.22	.12	.58
INTACT GROUP - FEMALES					
TOTAL INDIV PARENTS/PEOPLE NONDEP DEIDEALIZ					
PEERS	.24	-.06	.14	.54	-.05
F-DECEASED - MALES					
TOTAL INDIV PARENTS/PEOPLE NONDEP DEIDEALIZ					
PEERS	.43	.14	.22	.29	-.30
F-DECEASED - FEMALES					
TOTAL INDIV PARENTS/PEOPLE NONDEP DEIDEALIZ					
PEERS	.15	.06	-.11	.46	.13

TABLE 21
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SUBSCALES OF FFAQ

	STRUCTURE	AFFECT	COMMUNICATION
Structure	1.00	0.83	0.82
Affect		1.00	0.89
Communication			1.00
($P < 0.0001$)			

TABLE 22

MEAN, S.D. and RANGE OF RATINGS OF SUBSCALES OF FFAQ

FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE TOTAL & SUBSCALES	MEAN	S.D.	RANGE
STRUCTURE	21.2	3.7	8-28
AFFECT	19.7	4.5	7-28
COMMUNICATION	19.4	4.4	8-28
TOTAL	122.8	17.6	67-158

TABLE 23

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATION AND *t* values ON THE INVENTORY
OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT AND EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY
SCALE BY GENDER IN FATHER-DECEASED GROUP

SUBSCALES	MALES (N=12)			FEMALES (N=18)		
	MEANS	SD	<i>t</i>	MEANS	SD	<i>t</i>
ATTACHMENT SCALES						
MOTHER (12/18)	83.92	14.52	ns	93.61	15.96	ns
FATHER (10/16)	61.50	35.31	ns	82.69	26.48	ns
EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SUBSCALES						
TOTAL	60.25	7.05	.05	55.28	7.77	ns
INDIVIDUATION	16.08	2.06	.03	14.83	2.53	ns
PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE	16.00	4.09	ns	15.44	3.52	.03
NONDEPENDENCE	12.33	1.61	.04	11.39	2.00	ns
DEIDEALIZATION	14.17	1.85	ns	13.83	2.45	ns

TABLE 24

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS FOLLOWING MANOVA			
	F	P	
EAT			
GROUP	5.59	.02	S
SEX	0.61	.44	NS
GROUP X SEX	2.59	.11	NS
EAI			
GROUP	2.97	.09	NS
SEX	0.02	.88	NS
GROUP X SEX	3.34	.07	NS
EAP			
GROUP	5.06	.03	S
SEX	0.34	.56	NS
GROUP X SEX	0.000	1.00	NS
EAN			
GROUP	3.75	.06	S
SEX	0.34	.56	NS
GROUP X SEX	4.02	.05	S
EAD			
GROUP	0.001	.97	NS
SEX	0.006	.94	NS
GROUP X SEX	0.18	.67	NS

TABLE 25

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS FOLLOWING MANOVA			
	F	P	
IPPAM			
GROUP	1.36	.25	NS
SEX	1.57	.22	NS
GROUP X SEX	1.14	.29	NS
IPPAF			
GROUP	1.09	.30	NS
SEX	1.73	.19	NS
GROUP X SEX	1.50	.23	NS
IPPAP			
GROUP	0.09	.59	NS
SEX	0.27	.61	NS
GROUP X SEX	0.29	.59	NS

TABLE 26

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS FOLLOWING MANOVA			
	F	P	
FFT			
GROUP	1.47	.23	NS
SEX	0.33	.57	NS
GROUP X SEX	0.001	.97	NS
FFS			
GROUP	0.83	.37	NS
SEX	0.03	.87	NS
GROUP X SEX	2.02	.16	NS
FFA			
GROUP	1.56	.22	NS
SEX	0.16	.69	NS
GROUP X SEX	0.12	.73	NS
FFC			
GROUP	0.03	.85	NS
SEX	0.03	.85	NS
GROUP X SEX	0.005	.94	NS

TABLE 27

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR THE FATHER-DECEASED GROUP
(MALES AND FEMALES) LEVEL OF MOTHER ATTACHMENT SCORES
AND TOTAL SCORES ON THE EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE
N=29

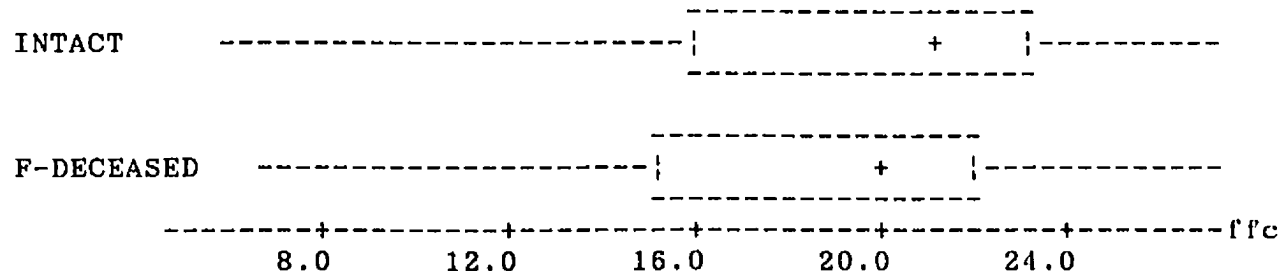
	P
Sex*	
Mother Attachment	.924
Sex	.007
Mother Attachment	.001

TOTAL GROUP

FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

FIGURE R - COMMUNICATION SCORE

GROUP



INTACT GROUP

FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

FIGURE S - TOTAL SCORE

GROUP

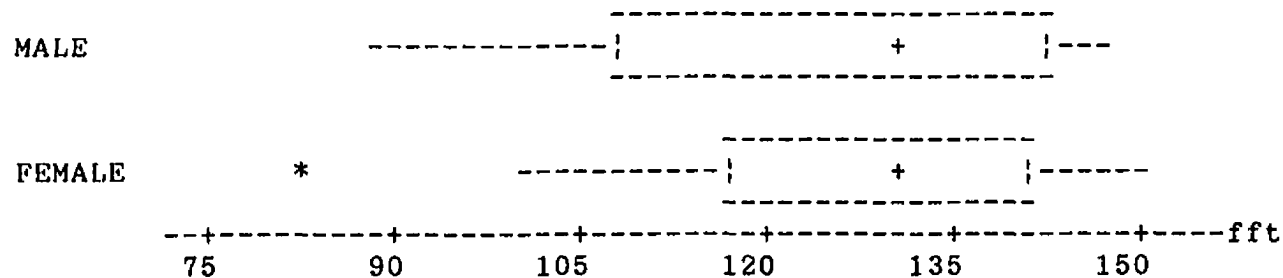


FIGURE T - STRUCTURE SCORE

GROUP

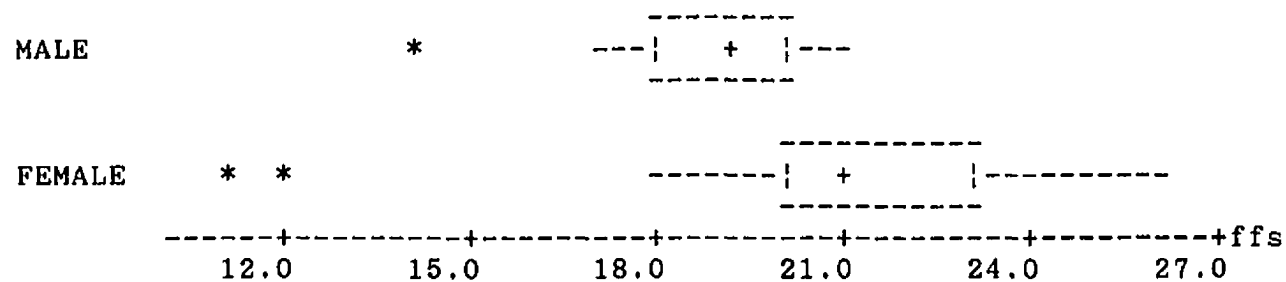
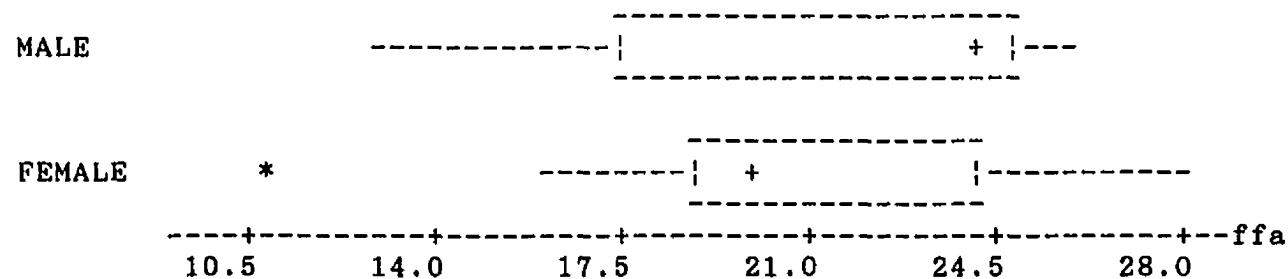


FIGURE U - AFFECT SCORE

GROUP



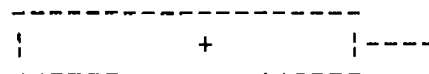
INTACT GROUP

FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

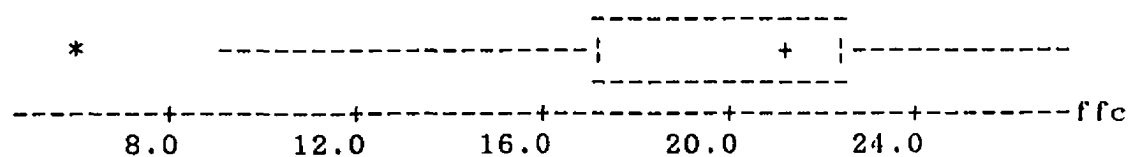
FIGURE V - COMMUNICATION SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE



FATHER-DECEASED GROUP

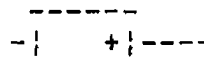
FAMILY FUNCTIONING IN ADOLESCENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

FIGURE Z - COMMUNICATION SCORE

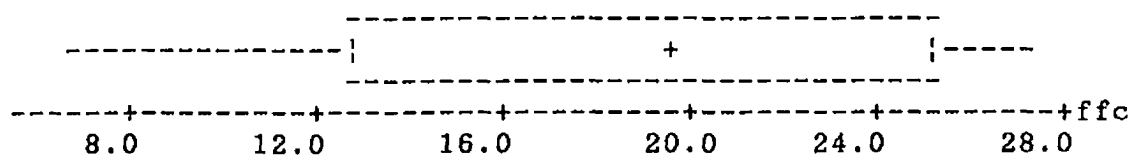
GROUP

MALE

O



FEMALE



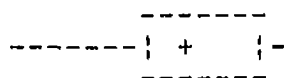
FATHER-DECEASED GROUP

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

FIGURE DD - PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE

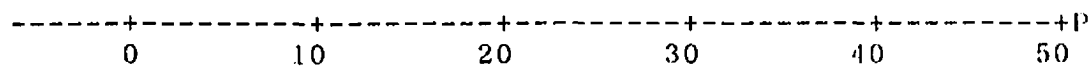
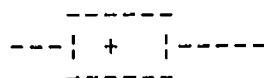
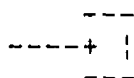


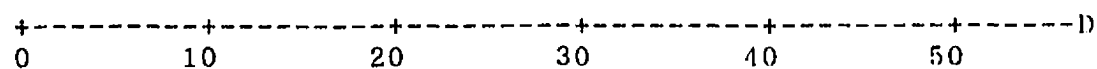
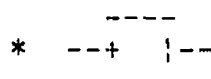
FIGURE EE - DEIDEALIZATION SCORE

GROUP

MALE



FEMALE



INTACT GROUP

EMOTIONAL AUTONOMY SCALE

FIGURE II - PARENTS-AS-PEOPLE SCORE

GROUP

MALE

-----| + |-----

FEMALE

 --+ |-----*

+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----P
 0 10 20 30 40 50

FIGURE JJ - DEIDEALIZATION SCORE

GROUP

MALE

 -|+|-

FEMALE

 --| +|---

+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----D
 0 10 20 30 40 50

TOTAL GROUP

INVENTORY OF PARENT AND PEER ATTACHMENT

FIGURE F - ATTACHMENT TO MOTHER SCORE

GROUP

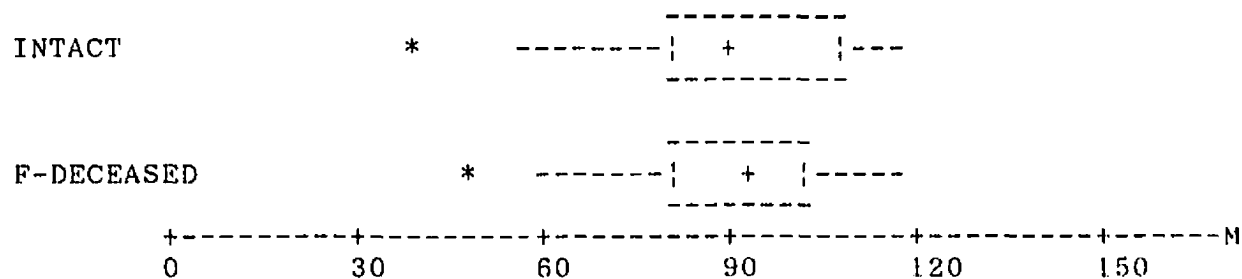


FIGURE G - ATTACHMENT TO FATHER SCORE

GROUP

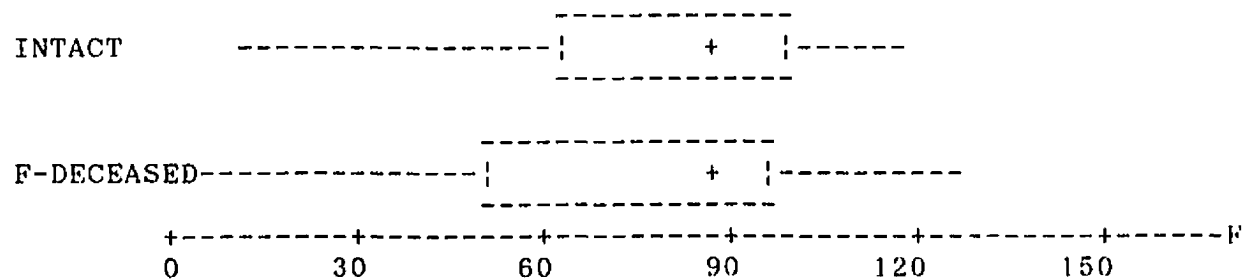


FIGURE H - ATTACHMENT TO PEERS SCORE

GROUP

