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PREDICTORS OF RELATIONSHIP QUALITY BETWEEN CHILDREN AND THEIR MATERNAL GRANDMOTHERS

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School
of The Ohio State University

By

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**********

The Ohio State University
2000

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ABSTRACT

This study examined individual, familial, and situational factors theorized to predict the quality of the grandchild-grandparent relationship. Two-hundred and twenty-six middle school and high school students completed a battery of instruments regarding the frequency of contact, the shared activities, and the quality of relationship they have with their maternal grandmother. The students' perception of their maternal grandmother and their level of self-esteem also were measured. Demographic information pertaining to the family unit and the maternal grandmother was provided by the students' parents. The theoretical model, based on previous research, partially was supported by the findings. The importance of the grandchild-grandmother relationship from the parents' perspective was positively related to frequency of contact between grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers, whereas geographical distance was negatively related to frequency of contact. Frequency of contact between grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers was positively correlated with shared activities. The parents' relationship with the maternal grandmother was found to be highly correlated with the quality of the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship.
Dedicated to my grandparents—

those who were with me in the beginning

and those who joined me along the way.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The completion of this project involved many individuals who unselfishly gave of their time and support. Their contributions, both large and small, are to be recognized.

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from above, for the strength to continue when I felt like giving up. Finally, to Broc and Joshua, after years of evasive answers I can now say "This is what a dissertation looks like!!"
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Several demographic changes in the 20th Century influenced the nature of grandparent-grandchild relationships. The decline in mortality over the course of the last century significantly increased the number of living grandparents. In 1900, less than one-fourth of all newborns had a complete set of living grandparents. By age 30, only one-fifth had a living grandparent (Uhlenberg & Kirby, 1998). In contrast, it has been estimated that two-thirds of all children born in the year 2000 will have a complete set of living grandparents, and more than three-fourths will have at least one living grandparent when they reach 30 years of age.

While the mortality rate affects the supply of grandparents, the fertility rate affects the supply of grandchildren. Over the past century, the percentage of women choosing to remain childless has increased, and couples who have children are limiting the number of children born (Uhlenberg & Kirby, 1998). In 1900, grandmothers had an average of 12 grandchildren; in 1980, the average was six. Thus, there has been a sizeable decrease in the number of grandchildren available to grandparents. These decisions have directly impacted the experiences of grandparents. It has been proposed that having fewer
grandchildren enables grandparents to spend more time with their grandchildren and to develop closer relations with them (Uhlenberg & Hammill, 1998).

As family size decreased, the length of childbearing years also decreased. To illustrate, in 1910 approximately 23% of women between the ages of 40 and 44 had at least one child under age five. In 1940 the percentage of women between the ages of 40 and 44 with at least one child under the age of five dropped to 11.3%, and in 1970 the percentage of women between the ages of 40 and 44 with at least one child under the age of five dropped to 10.4% (Uhlenberg & Kirby, 1998). Consequently, women today are less likely to be caring for their own children when they become grandmothers, and grandparenthood has become a more distinct stage of adulthood.

Other changes during the last century also have influenced grandparent-grandchild relationships. Medical advances have enabled adults to live healthier lives. As a result, grandparents can be more actively involved with their grandchildren for a longer period of time (Crimmins, Hayward, & Saito, 1994; Manton, Corder, & Stallward, 1993). Since World War II, there also has been an improvement in older adults’ economic status. This economic security has given grandparents more time (and resources) for interactions with their grandchildren (Cherlin & Furstenberg, 1986; Szinovacz, 1998).

Societal expectations of grandparents also have changed over time. During the Great Depression and both World Wars, the nuclear family was dependent on the extended family for shelter, financial assistance, and child-rearing (Szinovacz, 1998). Hence, grandparents were important in meeting the family’s instrumental needs. With the post-war economic boom, the migration of families into cities, and the establishment
of Social Security, the nuclear family gained independence from the extended family. Consequently, the authority of the older (grandparent) generation over the younger generations decreased (Baranowski, 1982). As a result, grandparents were able to assume a more expressive role in the family.

Because of the changing nature of the grandparenting role and the greater opportunity for grandparents to become involved in their grandchildren's lives, researchers' interest in grandparenthood dramatically increased (Holladay, Denton, Harding, Lee, Lackovich, & Coleman, 1997; Peterson, 1999; Silverstein & Long, 1998).

**Study Rationale**

Early researchers (e.g., Kivnick, 1983; Kornhaber & Woodward, 1981; Robertson, 1976), coming from a symbolic interaction perspective, were interested in the roles grandparents play in the lives of their grandchildren. That is, they studied what grandparents provide their grandchildren and what they receive in return. Once it was established that grandparents assume a variety of roles in their grandchildren's lives, researchers began to examine (a) the outcomes of this relationship on the generations and (b) the factors that predict the relationship. The present study extends previous research by combining both of these areas of focus in a testable model; this model examines individual, familial, and situational variables and their influence on the quality of the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship.

**Frequency of Contact and Perceived Closeness with Grandparents**

Two aspects of the grandparent-grandchild relationship that have been examined extensively are (a) frequency of contact and (b) perception of closeness. Researchers
believe these two indices reflect the strength of the intergenerational bond (Kennedy, 1992).

It generally has been found that grandchildren have frequent contact with their grandparents, and they are satisfied with the relationship. Hartshorne and Manaster (1982) surveyed 178 undergraduate students regarding their relationships with their grandparents. The authors found these grandchildren visited their grandparents several times a year. The grandchildren also viewed their relationships with their grandparents as “important” or “very important.”

Eisenberg (1988) also examined grandparent-grandchild relationships by giving 120 undergraduate students a questionnaire inquiring about frequency of contact and the relationships’ importance. On average, these grandchildren had contact with their grandparents once a month. They also rated their relationships with their grandparents as “close.”

Creasey and Kaliher (1994) measured frequency of contact and relationship quality between middle school students and their grandparents. One-hundred and sixty-nine 3rd, 5th, and 7th graders participated in this study. Results found that over 60% of the children stated they saw their grandparents a “couple of times a month.” The children also reported healthy, strong relationships with their grandparents. Other studies have supported these findings (Creasey, 1993; Creasey & Koblewski, 1991; Gladstone, 1989; Kennedy, 1992).

Hodgson (1992) extended previous studies by questioning 208 adult grandchildren about their closest grandparent. She also extended previous research by collecting data as
part of a national telephone survey. In general, these grandchildren visited their closest
grandparent several times a month, and they perceived themselves as being “quite close”
to him/her. In addition, the majority of grandchildren identified a grandmother as their
closest grandparent (grandmothers outnumbered grandfathers 3 to 1).

A limitation with these studies is that they measured the quality of the grandchild-
grandparent relationship by asking a few close-ended questions, for example, “How close
do you feel to this grandparent?” or “How important is this relationship to you?” The
present study examines the quality of the grandparent-grandchild relationship by utilizing
a standardized measure designed specifically to assess this dimension of the relationship.

Shared Activities between Grandchildren and Grandparents

Given that grandchildren have frequent contact with their grandparents,
researchers have been curious about what transpires during these interactions. Hence, the
activities shared between grandchildren and their grandparents is another outcome
variable that has been of much interest to researchers.

In 1990, Baranowski administered a checklist of activities to grandfathers. These
grandfathers noted those activities they shared with their grandchildren during their most
recent visit. In contrast, Kennedy (1992) wanting to “…gain an appreciation for the range
of activities shared by grandparents and grandchildren” (p. 212) asked 273 undergraduate
students to list five activities they engage in with their closest grandparent. From this list,
Kennedy isolated 29 statements through factor analysis that describe activities shared
between grandchildren and grandparents. This questionnaire was then administered to
391 undergraduate students. Kennedy found these 29 statements to be representative of
the activities shared between grandchildren and their grandparents. He also found a strong positive correlation between grandchildren's perceived closeness to their grandparents and the number of activities shared. The present study further examines the relationship between perceived closeness and shared activities by placing these outcome variables in context of salient moderating variables.

**Factors Influencing the Grandchild-Grandparent Relationship**

Researchers have identified several factors that affect frequency of contact, perceived closeness, and shared activities between grandchildren and their grandparents. Many studies have found that grandchildren interact more with grandmothers than grandfathers (Eisenberg, 1988; Hartshorne & Manaster, 1982; Hodgson, 1992; Thomas, 1986, 1989). In addition, grandchildren seem to feel closer to maternal grandparents than to paternal grandparents (Hodgson, 1992; Kennedy, 1992; Roberto & Stroes, 1992). Taken together, grandchildren report more contact and closer relations with their maternal grandmother.

Current statistics show lower mortality rates for grandmothers compared to grandfathers. The proportion of 30-year-old individuals with a grandmother still alive increased from 15% to 67% during the 20th Century, whereas the proportion of 30-year-old individuals with a grandfather alive increased from 6% to 27% (Uhlenberg & Kirby, 1998). Thus, the supply of grandmothers has grown rapidly over the last 100 years. This is believed to have contributed to the close relationship between grandchildren and their maternal grandmother. Two additional explanations for these
findings include the strength of the mother-daughter bond and societal expectations for females (Smith, 1991).

In 1985, Troll speculated that healthy grandparents interact differently with their grandchildren than do physically weak grandparents. In their classic study of grandparent-grandchild relationships, Cherlin and Furstenberg (1986) found that grandparents’ perception of their health limited the amount of contact they had with their grandchildren. Another study (Creasey, Myers, Epperson, & Taylor, 1989) also examined the influence of grandparent health on the grandparent-grandchild relationship. These authors compared relationships of grandchildren having a grandparent with Alzheimer’s with those grandchildren having a healthy grandparent. Fifty-eight families participated in this study, 29 in the “healthy” group and 29 in the “Alzheimer’s” group. They found frequency of contact to be equal between the two groups. However, children with a grandparent diagnosed with Alzheimer’s perceived the relationship to be of a lower quality (lower companionship, intimacy, and affection).

In several studies, geographic proximity has been found to be a strong predictor of frequency of contact with increasing distance being negatively related to frequency of contact (Hodgson, 1992; Kennedy, 1990; Uhlenberg & Hammill, 1998). Cherlin and Furstenberg (1986) found that distance accounted for 62% of the variance in the number of grandchild-grandparent visits per year.

The middle generation (i.e., the grandchild’s parents) also can influence the grandchild’s relationship with his/her grandparents. First, depending on the child’s age, the parents might govern the extent of contact between the grandchild and the
grandparents (Hodgson, 1992). Younger grandchildren are dependent on their parents for access to the grandparents. If the parents do not initiate contact between the grandchildren and the grandparents, the likelihood of these generations interacting with one another is slim. Younger grandchildren also model the contact patterns established by their parents. If the middle generation interacts frequently with the grandparents, the grandchildren will imitate the parents’ behaviors and also interact with the grandparents.

The quality of the parent-grandparent relationship also can affect the grandchild’s access to his/her grandparents. Hodgson (1992) found that grandchildren whose parents are close to their parents (i.e., the grandchild’s grandparents) are more likely to interact with their grandparents and have closer relations with them.

The parents’ attitudes toward grandparent-grandchild interactions also influence the relationship. Grandchildren whose parents view the grandparent-grandchild relationship as important tend to have better relations with their grandparents (Kennedy, 1992).

The middle generation’s marital status is another factor that has been found to influence the grandparent-grandchild relationship. Approximately 30% of custodial, single mothers reside with a relative, usually their own parents, for a period of time following a divorce (Hetherington, Law, & O’Connor, 1993). As a result, these grandparents usually assume roles traditionally associated with parenting (i.e., disciplining and meeting the physical needs of the children) (Kornhaber, 1996; Strauss, 1996). In the context of divorce, grandparents also can (a) act as buffers to co-parental conflict, (b) provide stability, and (c) provide financial support.
On the other hand, divorce can lead to a distancing between some grandparents and their grandchildren. Paternal grandparents, whose son does not receive custody of the children, typically experience a decrease in contact with their grandchildren (Gladstone, 1988; Gray & Geron, 1995; Johnson, 1988; Matthews & Sprey, 1984). These changes not only alter the frequency of contact between grandparents and grandchildren, but they also affect the quality of the relationship (Cogswell & Henry, 1995).

Given the number of grandmothers available and the research supporting high quality relations between grandchildren and their grandmothers (e.g., Atchley, 1988; Eisenberg, 1988; Hoffman, 1979; Thomas, 1986), the present study focuses specifically on the grandchild’s relationship with his/her maternal grandmother. The grandchild-grandmother relationship also has been examined extensively in previous research (e.g., Myers, Jarvis, & Creasey, 1987; Gladstone, 1989; Musick, 1994).

Several limitations can been identified in the research examining grandchild-grandparent relationships. Samples mostly have included undergraduate students. The present study utilizes students enrolled in 5th, 7th, 9th, and 11th grade. It is hoped that this sample will lead to a better understanding of the grandchild-grandparent relationship across different age groups. Next, even though previous research has studied moderating variables, none has considered them jointly. The current study includes several of these variables in a theoretical model (Figure 1). This model is believed to explain the extent and quality of involvement between grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers.
Figure 1: Theoretical Model of Grandchild-Grandmother Interactions

- Geographic Proximity
- Parental Marital Status
- Years since Divorce
- GC Self-esteem

- GC Percept of GM
- Grandmother Age
- Grandmother Health

- Frequency of Contact
- Shared Activities

- Quality of GC-GP relationship

- GC Self-esteem
Conceptual Framework

Boundary theory is the conceptual framework from which the present study emerged. Boundaries occur when two or more systems “interface, interact, or come together” (Burr, Day, & Bahr, 1993, p. 41). In other words, boundaries are the borders of a system. Many boundaries can be seen in the family system. One type of boundary is physical boundaries (e.g., private rooms within the household). There also are emotional or psychological boundaries; these boundaries are used to control how emotionally close others are allowed. Finally, there are social boundaries. Social boundaries distinguish various roles and relationships.

When boundaries are secure and well defined, the family system experiences boundary maintenance (Boss, 1999). Boundaries, however, can change. They “...change at different times, at different rates, and sometimes vary drastically depending on contextual elements” (Burr, Day, & Bahr, 1993, p. 41). When boundaries are unclear or ambiguous, a family may experience boundary ambiguity. Boundary ambiguity simply means not knowing who is in and who is out of the family (Boss, 1999).

One’s perception of who is present or absent in the family occurs on two levels—physical and psychological (Boss, 1999). Hence, there are four classifications of boundary ambiguity/maintenance, two involving high levels of ambiguity and two involving little or no ambiguity (boundary maintenance). The first, physical absence with psychological presence, is a physically absent family member being perceived as psychologically present, hence, there is a preoccupation with the absent family member.
An example would be the non-residential parent following a divorce who the children do not see frequently. Physical presence with psychological absence is a member of the family being available physically but unavailable psychologically. Examples include a family member who is in a coma or a family member who is preoccupied with work. Both of these classifications have high levels of ambiguity and can result in family dysfunction (i.e., the inability to cope).

The remaining two types, physical absence with psychological absence and physical presence with psychological presence, result in no family dysfunction. Physical absence with psychological absence involves the congruence between being both physically and emotionally absent. In this type, the family has restructured without the person. Physical presence with psychological presence is being together physically, emotionally, and cognitively.

The concept of boundary ambiguity is salient in describing today’s grandparent-grandchild relationships. There are few established societal rules and guidelines regarding the role grandparents should play in the family system. Consequently, there is wide variability in how this role is performed. To illustrate, in their classic study, Neugarten and Weinstein (1964) identified five styles of grandparenting. These styles include: formal, funseeking, surrogate parent, reservoir of wisdom, and distance figure. Similar classification systems of grandparenting behavior also have been identified by Robertson (1977) and Cherlin and Furstenberg (1986). This variability in role performance supports the notion that the grandparenting role can be ambiguous for grandparents as well as other family members.
The number of factors that influence the grandparent-grandchild relationship also suggest that the boundaries separating these family members are highly variable. Hence, there is a lack of clarity regarding who is in and out of the family system which can lead to ambiguity for family members. For example, grandchildren whose parents move away from extended family members can still psychologically perceive the grandparents as being a part of the family even though they are no longer physically present. Also, grandparents in poor health might be physically present but psychologically absent from the family.

In situations where the parents divorce, ambiguity also can be experienced. As mentioned previously, approximately 30% of single, custodial mothers reside with their parents following a divorce. In this living arrangement, the maternal grandparents might assume an intricate role in the family system (physical presence); however, the grandchildren might not psychologically perceive them as members of the family. On the other hand, the parents of the non-custodial parent might still perceive themselves as members of the family (psychological presence) but due to the decrease in contact, might not interact with the grandchildren frequently (physical absence).

Remarriage also can lead to ambiguity. When parents remarry, step-grandparents are added to the family (physical presence), however, the grandchildren might not welcome them into the family or the grandparents might not perceive themselves as members of the family (psychological absence). Both the lack of established social rules and the number of moderating variables have challenged society’s beliefs about how grandchildren and their grandparents should interact.
Hypotheses

Based on the proposed theoretical model, the study hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1.a. Children from divorced families will have (a) more contact and (b) higher activity levels with their maternal grandmother than will children from intact families.

Hypothesis 1.b. Children whose parents have been divorced less than two years will have (a) more contact and (b) higher activity levels with their maternal grandmother than will children from intact families or children whose parents have been divorced more than two years.

Hypothesis 2. Children whose residential parent has remarried will have: (a) lower levels of contact and (b) lower activity levels with their maternal grandmother than will those children whose residential parent has not remarried.

Hypothesis 3. Maternal grandmother health will be negatively related to: (a) frequency of contact and (b) activity level.

Hypothesis 4. Geographic proximity to the maternal grandmother will be negatively related to: (a) frequency of contact, (b) activity level, and (c) quality of relationship.

Hypothesis 5. There will be a significant positive relationship between the grandchild's perception of the maternal grandmother and frequency of contact.

Hypothesis 6. There will be a significant positive relationship between the parent's view of the importance of the grandchild-grandmother relationship and the amount of contact between the grandchild and the grandmother.
Hypothesis 7. There will be a significant positive relationship between the parent's closeness with the grandmother and (a) the amount of contact between the grandchild and the grandmother, (b) the grandchild's perception of the grandmother, and (c) the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship.

Hypothesis 8. Maternal grandmother age will be negatively related to the grandchild's perception of the grandmother as contemporary versus traditional.

Hypothesis 9. Grandchild's age will be positively related to the grandchild's perception of the grandmother as contemporary versus traditional.

Hypothesis 10. There will be a significant positive relationship between the amount of contact grandchildren have with their maternal grandmother and (a) their activity level and (b) the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship.

Hypothesis 11. Martial status of the child's parents, the parents' social position, the age of the child, and the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship will be significantly related to the child's self-esteem level.

Hypothesis 12. Geographical distance between the grandchild and grandmother, the grandmother's health, the grandmother's age, the marital status of the middle generation, and the child's age will be significantly related to the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship.

Definition of Terms

Maternal grandmother is the child's biological or adopted mother's mother.

Grandmother's age is the number of years the maternal grandmother has been alive.

Grandchild's age is the number of years the grandchild has been alive.
**Geographic proximity** is the number of miles the grandchild lives from the maternal grandmother.

**Grandmother's health** is the assessment of the grandmother's well-being as perceived by the middle generation (i.e., the grandchild's parents).

**Divorce** is the termination of a legally recognized marriage.

**Years since divorce** is the length of time (in months) since the child's parents have divorced.

**Contact** is how often the grandchild sees the maternal grandmother over an allotted period (four months).

**Activity level** is the raw number of activities shared between the grandchild and the maternal grandmother during a four-month period.

**Quality of relationship** is how close the grandchild perceives his/herself to be to his/her maternal grandmother. Four aspects of quality will be included in this study: intimacy, satisfaction, nurturance, and affection.

**Perceptions of the maternal grandmother** is the extent to which the grandchild perceives the maternal grandmother in traditional or contemporary terms.

**Self-esteem** is the child's perceptions of his/her social, personal, and academic skills.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature reviewed in this chapter has been divided into five general sections: (a) the emergence of grandparent research, (b) the personal values derived from the grandparent role, (c) the nature of the grandchild-grandparent relationship, (d) grandchild-grandparent interactions, and (e) factors influencing the grandchild-grandparent relationship.

The History of Grandparent Research

The first articles focusing on grandparenthood were written during the 1940s (Szinovacz, 1998). These early publications, coming from a clinical perspective, viewed grandparents and their role in the family negatively. To illustrate, one of the first publications on grandparenthood was entitled "Grandma Made Johnny Delinquent" (Strauss, 1943, as cited by Kornhaber, 1996). In these articles, grandparents, specifically grandmothers, were criticized for overstepping the family's boundaries and for interfering in the raising of the grandchildren.

Several prevailing philosophies during this time set a negative tone toward the involvement of grandparents in the family system. The nuclear family (i.e., parents and
their children) was seen as being structurally and functionally isolated from the extended family (Tinsley & Parke, 1983). Hence, little consideration was given to members of the extended family. In addition, the mother-child dyad was believed to be the most important relationship in a child’s life. This assumption resulted in other family members (e.g., fathers, siblings, grandparents, and peers) being seen as peripheral in children’s development.

During the 1950s and 1960s, society saw an increase in the number of aging individuals. This demographic shift resulted in older adulthood being seen as a distinct stage of human development and grandparenthood, a developmental task of older adulthood, receiving increasing attention. Publications on grandparenthood during this time were exploratory in nature. Researchers (e.g., Apple, 1956; Neugarten & Weinstein, 1964) attempted to gain an understanding of the grandparent role by examining its function in the family system as well as the meaning received from its enactment (Szinovacz, 1998).

The late 1960s and early 1970s saw the emergence of life-span development theories (Barranti, 1985; Szinovacz, 1998). The field of home economics also received increasing attention during this time. Both of these fields were oriented more toward younger families. Consequently, children’s perspectives were incorporated into the grandparenting research. Thus, this decade saw a shift in focus from grandparenthood to grandparent-grandchild relationships (Szinovacz, 1998).

The burdens experienced by families in the late 1970s and early 1980s also received attention in the grandparenting literature. These crises included: divorce.
single parenthood, teenage childbearing, drug addition, and women's employment.

It was hypothesized that grandparents would serve as sources of support during these troubling times and therefore would ameliorate their negative impact (Denham & Smith, 1989). Other topics that recently have gained research attention include: grandparents raising grandchildren and grandparent visitation rights (Szinovacz, 1998).

The Meaning of Grandparenthood

The question of what it means to be a grandparent has been one of the major themes in the grandparent literature. Research conducted on this topic has been based primarily on grandparents' descriptive accounts of their involvement with their grandchildren and their feelings toward these interactions (Shore & Hayslip, 1994). One of the earliest studies on the meaning of grandparenthood was conducted by Wood and Robertson (1976). In their study, 300 grandparents were asked to reflect on the feelings they had when they first learned they were going to be grandparents. The grandparents also were asked about their current relationship with this grandchild.

From this study, four types of grandparents were identified (apportioned, remote, individualized, and symbolic); these classifications were based on the social and personal meanings derived from the role (Wood & Robertson, 1976). The social dimension was defined as the extent to which the grandparent role met society's needs (e.g., carrying on the family line, receiving respect, and reinforcing family values). The personal dimension was defined as the extent to which the grandparent role fulfilled the individual's needs (e.g., feeling young, having an emotionally satisfying relationship with the grandchildren, and being concerning about the grandchildren's welfare). Grandparents who scored high
on both dimensions were classified as apportioned, whereas those who scored low on both dimensions were labeled remote. Symbolic grandparents were high on the social dimension and low on the personal dimension, whereas individualized grandparents were high on the personal dimension and low on the social dimension.

Apportioned grandparents achieved meaning from their personal experiences and from meeting social norms; on the other hand, remote grandparents found little meaning in either their personal experiences or in meeting societal expectations. Individualized grandparents found satisfaction through their personal experiences, whereas symbolic grandparents received satisfaction from fulfilling society's norms (Shore & Hayslip, 1994).

Subsequently, in 1983, Kivnick proposed a multi-dimensional conceptualization of grandparenthood. This conceptualization was derived from in-depth interviews with 286 grandparents. The dimensions developed include: (a) centrality (relationships with grandchildren are important); (b) valued elder (feeling needed and helpful; performing activities and possessing attitudes associated with the traditional concept of the wise, esteemed elder); (c) immortality through clan (being the center of the family and being influential and respected); (d) re-involvement with one's personal past (reliving one's experiences as a child or a parent); and (e) indulgence (spoiling the grandchildren and being tolerant of their mistakes).

In contrast, Kornhaber and Woodward (1985) examined the meaning of grandparenthood from the grandchild's perspective. In this study, 300 grandchildren, under the age of 18, were interviewed regarding the roles their grandparents' perform in
their lives. From the data, five major roles were identified: (a) historian (providing a sense of family history); (b) mentor (providing knowledge and wisdom); (c) role model (providing anticipatory socialization); (d) wizard (telling stories and amusing the grandchild through imagination); and (e) nurturer (becoming an integral part of the grandchild's life).

Because the meaning attached to the grandparent role is usually derived from the interactions between grandparents and grandchildren, other researchers have examined styles of grandparenting (i.e., the ways grandparents relate to and interact with their grandchildren). In their classic study, Neugarten and Weinstein (1964) had 70 middle-class grandparent couples (aged 50 - 60 years) describe their interactions with their grandchildren. From these descriptions, five grandparenting styles were identified. They include: (a) formal, (b) fun-seeking, (c) surrogate parent, (d) reservoir of wisdom, and (e) distant figure.

The “formal” style of grandparenting included grandparents who took great interest in their grandchildren. These grandparents often cared for their grandchildren but were not the grandchildren’s primary or surrogate caretakers. The “fun-seeking” grandparents had playful relationships with their grandchildren; the grandparents did not exert any control or authority over the grandchildren. Grandparents classified as fun-seeking described being with their grandchildren as a leisure activity (Shore & Hayslip, 1994). “Surrogate parent” grandparents often were identified as the primary care-givers of the grandchildren (i.e., they assumed all child-rearing responsibilities for the grandchildren). Grandparents with a “reservoir of wisdom” style provided special skills.
resources, and knowledge to younger members of the family whereas the distant figure was the grandparent who only interacted with the grandchildren on holidays and other special occasions (i.e., they had infrequent contact with their grandchildren).

Cherlin and Furstenberg (1986) also examined grandparenting styles, but unlike Neugarten and Weinstein (1964), they examined the styles in a wide age-range of grandparents (45 years and older). Their study, based on telephone interviews with 510 grandparents of a nationally representative sample of grandchildren, and personal interviews with 36 of the grandparents, revealed three grandparenting styles: (a) remote, (b) companionate, and (c) involved.

The remote grandparents saw their grandchildren infrequently; as a result, they maintained a ritualistic, symbolic relationship with them. The companionate grandparents had easy-going, friendly interactions with their grandchildren whereas the involved grandparents played an active role in rearing the grandchildren (i.e., they exerted authority over the grandchildren and imposed demanding expectations on them) (Cherlin & Furstenberg, 1986).

Similarities can be seen between Neugarten and Weinstein's (1964) and Cherlin and Furstenberg's (1986) grandparenting styles. Cherlin and Furstenberg, however, advanced Neugarten and Weinstein's findings by suggesting that these styles can change during one's grandparenting career and that grandparents can maintain different relationships with different grandchildren.
The Grandparent's Influence on Grandchildren

Grandparents can influence their grandchildren either directly or indirectly (Denham & Smith, 1989; Tinsley & Parke, 1983). Direct influences come from face-to-face contact whereas indirect influences are interactions that have been mediated by another person or agency.

According to Denham and Smith (1989), young children's interactions and experiences are usually dominated by their parents; therefore, much of the grandparent's influence on the grandchildren is mediated through the middle generation. This indirect influence can occur in several ways. For example, children may be affected by the emotional support their parents receive from the grandparents. Grandparents also can provide child-care relief for the parents, this, in turn, may alter later parent-child interactions. Financial support to the middle generation is another way grandparents can indirectly affect their grandchildren's quality of life.

Grandparents also can influence their grandchildren directly. Cochran and Brassard (1979) identified four methods by which direct influence can occur:
(a) cognitive and social stimulation, (b) direct support, (c) observational models, and (d) provisions of opportunities for active participation. In other words, grandparents can directly influence their grandchildren by serving as role models, care-givers, and playmates.

The present study examines both the direct and indirect influence maternal grandmothers have on their grandchildren. By examining the relationship of frequency of contact and shared activities with relationship quality, a direct influence is investigated.
On the other hand, by examining the parent's relationship with the maternal grandmother, an indirect influence is investigated.

Grandparent-Grandchild Interactions

Frequency of Contact and Perceived Closeness

In their survey of 300 grandparents and grandchildren, Kornhaber and Woodward (1985) found that 25% of their sample had regular contact with each other, 70% had intermittent contact, and 5% has minimal or no contact. Kennedy (1989) measured frequency of contact by administering a questionnaire examining the grandparent-grandchild relationship to 574 college students. One-fourth of the students reported weekly contact with their grandparents whereas 29% stated they saw their grandparents once or twice a month.

Frequency of contact and perceived closeness between grandparents and grandchildren also were studied by Hartshorne and Manaster (1982). One-hundred and seventy-eight college students reported the amount of contact they recently had with their grandparents. The majority of the grandchildren reported seeing their grandparents several times a year. In this study, 63% of the grandchildren viewed their relationship with their grandparents as "important" or "extremely important" whereas 5.5% stated the relationship was "unimportant."

In another survey study, Hodgson (1992) reported that 5% of her sample had daily contact with grandparents, whereas 13% interacted less than once a year with grandparents, and 2% had no contact with grandparents. The majority of the sample reported weekly contact with their grandparents. In addition, 37% of the grandchildren
reported close emotional ties to their grandparents whereas 6% of the sample reported not being close to their grandparents. Evidence seems to indicate that there is considerable contact between grandchildren and their grandparents and that, in general, these relationships have a special place in the grandchildren’s lives.

A limitation with the aforementioned studies is that the quality of the grandchild-grandparent relationship was measured with a few general questions (e.g., “How close are you to this grandparent?” or “How important is this grandparent to you?”). According to Kennedy (1992), there are five aspect of quality in any relationship. These elements include: (a) experiencing a feeling of closeness to the person; (b) being known and understood by the person; (c) knowing and understanding the person; (d) having a positive influence on each other; and (e) viewing the relationship as an authentic friendship (p. 84). In order to successfully measure the quality of a relationship, Kennedy believed these elements must receive the proper attention.

Creasey and Koblewski (1991) assessed the quality of grandparent-grandchild relationships with a standardized questionnaire that measured several of these qualities. In their study, The Network of Relationship Inventory was administered to 142 college students. Creasey and Koblewski found that over 50% of their subjects had “frequent” contact with their grandparents (i.e., two or three times a month). The grandchildren also mentioned the qualities of love, respect, and satisfaction when describing their relationship with their grandparents.

Kennedy (1992) also administered a survey questionnaire to 391 adult grandchildren in hopes of examining these relationship qualities. Over 75% of the
sample reported feeling “close” to a grandparent. Nearly 90% of the grandchildren felt this grandparent understood their feelings and knew their hopes. The grandchildren, in turn, also felt they knew this grandparent’s hopes and understood his/her feelings. Forty-two percent of the sample stated that this grandparent was very influential in their life.

**Shared Activities**

Due to their frequent contact with one another, researchers have inquired about what grandchildren and grandparents do during their interactions. Cherlin and Furstenberg (1986) asked the grandparents participating in their study to identify those activities they and the focal grandchild participated in within the past 12 months. Informal activities (e.g., watching television and kidding around) were the most frequently cited.

Activities shared between grandchildren and their grandparents also were studied by Scherman (1988). In this study, 31 students (3rd and 5th graders) and their grandparents indicated how often they shared 31 activities. Results indicated that (a) grandchildren and grandparents who saw each other frequently, engaged in more activities together, and (b) the closer the dyad lived to one another, the more activities they shared.

Kennedy (1992), in his survey of undergraduate students, found that grandchildren with older grandparents participated in fewer activities with their grandparents than did grandchildren with younger grandparents. Kennedy also found that grandchildren who lived closer to their grandparents participated in more activities than did grandchildren
who lived further away. Kennedy concluded that “Activities are the means by which grandchildren and grandparents make and maintain connections...” (p. 222).

Factors Influencing the Grandparent-Grandchild Relationship

Many studies have identified different variables that influence the interactions between grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers.

Grandparent Age

Neugarten and Weinstein (1964) found that the formal grandparenting style was more typical of older grandparents (over 55 years of age) whereas the fun-seeking grandparenting style was more characteristic of younger grandparents (younger than 55 years of age). Thus, they concluded that one’s style of grandparenting is contingent upon one’s age.

It also has been determined that grandparents become less involved with their grandchildren as they get older (Johnson, 1983). Baranowski (1990), who studied 107 grandfathers, found that older grandfathers had less contact with their grandchildren than did younger grandfathers. This finding was supported by Tinsley and Parke (1988) who found that younger grandfathers were more playful and involved with their grandchildren than were older grandfathers. In addition, Cherlin and Furstenberg (1986), found that older grandparents participated in fewer activities with their grandchildren than did younger grandparents.

A number of explanations have been presented to account for these findings. One explanation is that as we get older, our energy level diminishes, leading to the inability to
interact with grandchildren as was done in the past. Consequently, frequency of contact and relationship quality are altered.

Physical health also can influence frequency of contact between grandparents and their grandchildren (Troll, 1983). As an individual's health deteriorates, his/her contact with grandchildren might decrease (Creasey, Myers, Epperson, & Taylor, 1989). There might be instances, however, where poor grandparent health might increase grandchild-grandparent contact. For example, when the grandchild takes responsibility and physically cares for the ill grandparent or when the grandchild visits with the grandparent to comfort him/her (Troll, 1983).

A third explanation for age differences in grandparenting behaviors is cohort effects. Some researchers have proposed that the older generations possess more traditional images of grandparents and consequently, interact differently with their grandchildren than do younger generations (Kahana & Kahana, 1971; Neugarten & Weinstein, 1964; Tinsley & Parke, 1983). The present study will examine these proposed explanations by measuring the maternal grandmother's health as well as the grandchild's perception of the grandmother.

Grandchild Age

The grandchild's age also is believed to influence the grandparent-grandchild relationship. Kahana and Kahana (1970) interviewed 85 children between 4 and 12 years of age. Age differences were found in the grandchildren's views of their preferred grandparent and the value they placed on the grandparent role. Younger children
(4-5 years of age) valued their grandparents for their indulgent qualities (i.e., what the grandparent did for the grandchild), the middle group (8-9 years of age) preferred their shared activities (i.e., what they did together), whereas the older group (11-12 years of age) reflected more on the psychological benefits of the relationship (i.e., what each person received from the interactions). Kahana and Kahana also found that as grandchildren get older, their contact with grandparents decreases.

Olson (1981) interviewed 96 children between the ages of 4 and 11 to assess their level of cognitive development and their attitudes toward the elderly and grandparents. Like Kahana and Kahana (1970), Olson found that younger, pre-operational children selected a favorite grandparent for egocentric and concrete reasons whereas the concrete operational and formal operational children identified mutual and intimate reasons for their choice of a favorite grandparent.

These findings were supported by Ponzetti and Folkrod (1989) who had 416 elementary school-age children write open-ended essays about what their grandparents mean to them. Ponzetti and Folkrod found that older children included more personal characteristics in their descriptions of their grandparents. They also found that younger children (grades one and two) reported more "affective provisions" such as attachment, nurturance, and the exchange of material items whereas older children (grades four and five) reported more "cognitive provisions" such as pride in family history and guidance. Ponzetti and Folkrod concluded that a child’s cognitive development may exert a significant influence on how he/she perceives the grandparents.
Creasey and Kaliher (1994) also support the finding that the grandchild’s age influences the grandchild-grandparent relationship. In this study, 169 3\textsuperscript{rd}, 5\textsuperscript{th}, and 7\textsuperscript{th} graders completed questionnaires about their relationship with their grandparents. Results found that older grandchildren perceive these relationships as less supportive than do younger grandchildren. Hence, as grandchildren mature, their changing expectations might lead to alterations in the grandparent-grandchild relationship.

Cherlin and Furstenberg (1986) provided a rational explanation for this finding; as children get older, they become more involved with their own lives (e.g., school, work, and friends) and grow away from their families.

**Lineage**

Research findings on lineage (i.e., the parent through which the grandparent and grandchild are related) have been mixed. Hartshorne and Manaster (1982) reported that grandchildren have more contact with their maternal grandparents than their paternal grandparents. Matthews and Sprey (1985), who administered questionnaires to 132 college freshmen and sophomores, found that grandchildren have the closest relationships with their maternal grandparents and the most distant relationships with their paternal grandparents. Additional support for this finding is provided by Uhlenberg and Hammill (1998).

One possible explanation for the finding that grandchildren have more contact and closer relations with their maternal grandparents than their paternal grandparents is that women are usually closer to and interact more with their own parents resulting in the maternal grandparents being the relatives with whom the children have the greatest
contact. Another explanation is society’s expectations for women. According to Troll (1983) and Hagestad (1983), women are seen as “kinkeepers;” they are expected to facilitate contact and exchanges between the generations. Miller and Bengston (1987) and Cherlin and Furstenberg (1986), however, found no differences in involvement or closeness between maternal and paternal grandparent-grandchild relationships.

Geographical Distance

Every study that has examined the influence of geographic proximity on frequency of contact has found that the closer grandparents live to their grandchildren, the more likely they are to interact (Uhlenberg & Hammill, 1998). Hence, there is overwhelming support for the influence of geographic distance on the grandparent-grandchild relationship.

Gladstone (1987) found that grandparents who lived within an hour’s drive of their grandchildren reported more interactions, exchange of services, and emotional support than did grandparents who lived more than an hour away. Further support of this finding was provided by Matthews and Sprey (1985). In their study, 53% of the grandparents reported that geographic closeness had a "considerable influence" on their physical contact with their grandchildren. Additional evidence for the importance of geographical proximity has been documented by Kivett (1985) and Wilson (1987).

In a study that utilized data from the National Survey of Families and Households, Uhlenberg and Hammill (1998) found that geographic proximity was the most powerful predictor of contact between grandparents and their grandchildren. In their study, geographic proximity accounted for approximately 80% of the variability.
Parental Influence

There is a common assumption that the better the grandparent-parent relationship, the more likely the grandparent is to consistently see his/her grandchildren, and therefore, the greater the grandparent's involvement with the grandchildren (Robertson, 1975). Uhlenberg and Hammill (1998) found that the quality of relationship between grandparents and their children (i.e., the grandchildren’s parents) did affect the frequency of contact between grandparents and their grandchildren. In addition, several studies have found that grandparents who have good relations with their children also have strong emotional ties to their grandchildren (Holladay, et. al., 1997; Nahemow, 1985).

The mediating function of parents, however, varies. Parental influence has been found to decline as the grandchild gets older (Sprey & Matthews, 1982). That is, as the grandchild matures, there is less involvement by the middle generation. To the contrary, Thompson and Walker (1987) believe the amount of grandparent-grandchild contact affects the parents’ influence. They found that mothers acted as mediators between grandparents and grandchildren only under low contact situations. That is, when contact between grandchildren and grandparents was high, dyad maintained their own relationship.

Parental Marital Status

Anspach (1976) was one of the first researchers to report findings concerning the impact of divorce on the grandparent-grandchild relationship. Data were collected from mothers’ responses to the following question: “Do your children see your former husband’s parents as often, or more frequent, than your parents?”
Anspach's (1976) results indicated that paternal grandparents had less contact with their grandchildren than did maternal grandparents. He theorized that children in divorced households have kin ties which are largely patterned by their mothers, who no longer see their former husband's relatives. As a result, these children have decreased contact with their paternal grandparents. Anspach determined that this imbalance also was a result of the absent parent (i.e., the father) not providing a link to his family. Data indicated that children's contact with their absent father increased the likelihood that his relatives were seen. Fifty-three percent of the children from divorced families who had contact with their absent father had as much as or more contact with paternal grandparents as maternal grandparents. About 90% of those children who had no contact with their absent father had more contact with maternal than paternal grandparents.

Unlike Anspach (1976), who secondarily studied the grandparent-grandchild relationship after a divorce in the middle generation, Ahrons and Bowman (1982) specifically studied how divorce affects intergenerational relationships. In their research they interviewed 78 women who had a grandchild whose parents were divorced. When asked if face-to-face contact with the grandchild changed following the divorce, 59% of the grandmothers stated the divorce did not alter their contact, 17% indicated there was an increase in contact, and 24% stated there was a decrease in contact following the divorce. When the respondents were asked whether or not they thought the divorce had changed their relationship with the grandchild, 28% said it had, with almost 50% of these grandmothers stating the change was negative.
Although the two groups of grandmothers (mothers of the grandchild's father and mothers of the grandchild's mother) reported similar emotional attachment to the grandchild prior to the divorce, the mothers of daughters reported more emotional attachment to the grandchild following the divorce (Ahrons & Bowman, 1982). The mothers of daughters also were less likely to report decreases in contact with the grandchild following the divorce. Further support for these findings have been provided by Gladstone (1988).

Matthews and Sprey (1984) also examined the impact of divorce on the grandparent-grandchild relationship. This was accomplished by comparing grandparenting styles (i.e., Neugarten & Weinstein, 1964) for 37 grandparent couples. Twelve of the 13 grandparents who chose the “surrogate parent” grandparenting style were grandparents whose children had divorced.

When the grandparents were asked how their relationship with their grandchildren changed following the divorce, 55% of the grandparents whose own child had custody reported increased contact and 35% reported no change in contact (Matthews & Sprey, 1984). Twenty-five percent of the grandparents whose former in-law child had custody reported an increase in contact following the divorce, 31% reported no change, and 6% reported seeing the grandchildren less (a response not given by those grandparents whose own child maintained custody).

Cherlin and Furstenberg (1986) indicated that custodial grandparents (where the grandparents’ child retains custody) see their grandchildren more often after the divorce than do non-custodial grandparents. Cherlin and Furstenberg reported that in many
divorce situations, custodial grandparents are “...called upon for substantial amounts of assistance” (p.142). Non-custodial grandparents also were found to provide assistance to the grandchildren, but it was less substantial.

**Children’s Attitudes Toward Older Persons**

Another factor that has received attention in the grandparenting literature is children’s attitudes toward older persons. Guillory (1983) compared 300 high school students’ attitudes toward older persons to their attitudes toward their grandparents. Results indicated that the students had more positive attitudes toward their grandparents than they did toward older people in general. Guillory concluded that children are able to distinguish between their grandparents and other older adults.

Marcoen (1979) also compared children’s perceptions of their grandparents to their perceptions of older adults. In this study, 104 students (2nd, 4th, and 6th grade) drew pictures of their grandparents and an aged couple. The figures were compared on the number of characteristics included as well as the number of old-age characteristics presented. The children drew their grandparents realistically whereas the pictures of the aged couple included more deficits and old-age characteristics. Marcoen concluded that grandparents are perceived by their grandchildren in more realistic, less stereotypical ways.

Downs and Walz (1981) measured 79 undergraduate students’ perceptions of their grandparents using the Older Persons Rating Scale. The sample also provided the frequency with which they interact with their grandparents. Results found that frequent contact enhanced the student’s view of his/her grandparents. Other researchers (Nishi-
Strattner & Myers, 1983; Petty, 1977; Rose-Colley & Eddy, 1988) also have found a positive correlation between frequency of contact and attitudes toward older people.

Summary

The present study examines the grandparent-grandchild relationship from the perspective of the grandchild. Previous research will be advanced by (a) utilizing middle and high school students (5th, 7th, 9th, and 11th graders); (b) examining several aspects of the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship (frequency of contact, shared activities, and quality of relationship); and (c) incorporating several previously identified moderating variables (e.g., grandmother age and health, parents’ marital status, and geographic proximity) into a testable model. It is hoped that through this study a better understanding of the grandparent-grandchild relationship will be obtained.
CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

Given the permeability of boundaries between grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers and the change in norms and roles associated with this relationship in recent years, the purpose of the present study was to examine individual, familial, and situational factors associated with the quality of relationship between grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers. Because this study focused on the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship as they are (i.e., without interference or manipulation), it is an ex post facto design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

Utilizing factors identified in previous research on grandparent-grandchild relationships, the present study analyzed a number of relationships between and among these variables in predicting the quality of the grandchild’s relationship with his/her maternal grandmother (see Figure 1). Geographic proximity, grandmother age and health, and parental marital status were proposed to directly and negatively impact the quality of the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship. A direct positive relationship was proposed between the parent-grandmother relationship and the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship. Frequency of contact and shared activities also were hypothesized to be positively associated with the quality of the grandchild-
grandmother relationship. The quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship was hypothesized to be positively related to the grandchild's self-esteem.

**Subjects**

A total of 226 junior high and high school students participated in this study. Subjects included fifth (n = 54) and seventh (n = 72) graders from two middle schools and ninth (n = 51) and eleventh (n = 49) graders enrolled in two high schools. The subjects ranged from 10 to 17 years of age and were almost equally divided between males (n = 99, 44%) and females (n = 127, 56%). Ninety-eight percent (n = 221) of the subjects were Caucasian, 1.5% (n = 3) were Black, and .5% (n = 2) were “other” (Asian and Middle Eastern).

Data also were collected from the subjects’ parent(s)/guardian(s) regarding the biological parents and maternal grandmother. Mothers ranged from 27 to 51 years of age with the majority (73%) being between 35 and 45 years of age. Fathers were between 30 and 62 years of age, and the majority of fathers (76%) were between 37 and 48 years of age. Ninety-seven percent of fathers (n = 215), and 98% of mothers (n = 221) were Caucasian. Fourteen percent of mothers (n = 30), and 23% of fathers (n = 51) have earned a college degree.

Regarding the parents’ marital status, 73% (n = 165) of the subjects’ parents were still married, 1.3% (n = 3) were separated, 12.8% (n = 29) were divorced, 9.7% (n = 22) were divorced/remarried to other individuals, 1.3% (n = 3) were widowed, and 1.8% (n = 4) were single/never married. Marriage length of those parents who were still married to each other ranged from 10 to 30 years with the average being 19 years. Of
those parent who were divorced, 46% were married 11 years before they divorced (range 1 to 24 years), and the amount of time the couple had been divorced ranged from one month to 12 years (the average being 64 months).

Eighty-eight percent of the subjects (n = 196) had a living maternal grandmother. The maternal grandmothers ranged from 49 to 86 years of age with 51% being between 65 and 75. Sixty-four percent of the grandmothers (n = 96) were still married, 4.7% (n = 7) were divorced, 6.7% (n = 10) were divorced and remarried, and 24.2% (n = 36) were widowed. The physical distance between the grandchild and grandmother ranged from living together to over 3000 miles. Seventy-five percent of the grandchild-grandmother dyads lived within 30 miles of each other, whereas 83% lived within 80 miles. The majority of grandmothers (88%) were reported to be in good health by the child’s parent. A demographic profile of the sample is presented in Table 1 (means) and Table 2 (frequencies).

Procedures

Five school superintendents in Northeastern Ohio were contacted in order to obtain subjects for this study. One superintendent denied permission because he believed the study was too intrusive, and another denied permission because it was against school board policy to allow outside agencies to “test” the students. Three superintendents did grant permission, this gave the research administrator five schools from which to solicit subjects. The primary researcher then met with each school’s principal to discuss the study’s logistics and the school’s requirements for student participation. Of the five principals, one refused to allow his school to participate stating he had been inundated
with requests and believed the students were "questionnaired out." Thus, four schools in Northeastern Ohio were sampled.

The principals chose which classes would participate in the study. Their decisions were based on the teachers' willingness to participate and the class schedule (i.e., if the students had already missed several classes due to standardized testing, field trips, etc.). At School A, six 5th grade health classes and six 7th grade health classes were selected. At School B, four 5th grade health classes and three 7th grade health classes participated. Two 9th grade history classes and two 11th grade English classes were selected from School C, while four 9th grade science classes and four 11th grade English classes were recruited from School D. After receiving the list of participating classes, each teacher was contacted to schedule the administration of the questionnaires.

Information packets were distributed to 291 students for their parents/guardians to review. Enclosed in the packet was a letter of consent (Appendix A) and a demographic background questionnaire (Appendix B) for the parent to complete. Demographic information included: current parental marital status, age, ethnic identification, occupation and education attainment, and health status and age of maternal grandmother. In addition, the parent responded to a series of questions regarding his/her current relationship with the maternal grandmother. The parent/guardian was asked to sign the letter of consent, complete the demographic background sheet, and return both to the child's teacher in a sealed envelope.

Complete parent/guardian packets were returned for 226 students (78% response rate). Letters declining participation were returned for 61 students (22% of the original
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<td>7.38</td>
<td>49.00 - 86.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance between Grandchild &amp;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandmother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandmother’s Health</td>
<td>113.20</td>
<td>365.02</td>
<td>.00 - 3000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial Length</td>
<td>18.91</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>10.00 - 30.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Length (if divorced)</td>
<td>11.89</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>1.00 - 24.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marital Length (if divorced &amp;</td>
<td>8.38</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>2.00 - 16.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remarried)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Demographic Profile: Continuous Variables (n = 226)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Demographic Completer:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.0</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Child Gender:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child Ethnicity:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>95.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
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<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status of Biological Parents:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
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<td>71.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
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<td>1.3</td>
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<td>Divorced</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced &amp; Remarried</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never Married</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
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<td><strong>Mother’s Ethnicity:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>96.1</td>
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<td>African-American</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Father’s Ethnicity:</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>215</td>
<td>93.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Table 2: Demographic Profile: Categorical Variables (n = 226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
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<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mother's Education Attainment:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below High School</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Graduate</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>38.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Partial College</td>
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<tr>
<td>College Degree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Degree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Father's Education Attainment:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below High School</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Graduate</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial College</td>
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<td>24.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>College Degree</td>
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<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Degree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
sample). Of those parents who declined participation, only nine provided a reason; in all nine cases, the parent stated that the maternal grandmother was deceased. The child’s biological mother completed 90% of the packets, and the child’s biological father completed 7% (the remaining 3% did not identify their relationship with the focal child).

Students whose parents gave their consent for their participation were given a packet of materials. A questionnaire consisting of four standardized measures (Appendix C) and an informed consent form (Appendix D) were enclosed in each packet. Once the students received their packet, the research administrator read the consent form and explained the study, its measures, and the directions for each measure. Students whose parent/guardian gave permission for their participation but who did not have a living grandmother were given only the self-description measure to complete.

The research administrator used the first question on each measure as a practice question. She read aloud the question and its possible responses; she then guided the students through each response to aid them in their selection. Students were given the class hour to complete the questionnaire. Before being dismissed, each student who participated in the study received a discount coupon from McDonald’s.

Students were allowed to take the questionnaire home if additional time was needed. To increase the return rate, a $50.00 gift certificate to TGIFridays was raffled off at each of the four schools. All students who returned the questionnaire were eligible to receive the gift certificate. The gift certificate went to a student randomly selected from the school’s participant list.
Measures

The battery of measures for the students consisted of four standardized instruments. These measures were selected for their relevance to the study question and their psychometric properties.

Grandchild’s Perception of Maternal Grandmother

The grandchild’s perception of his/her maternal grandmother was assessed through a semantic differential scale developed by the primary researcher. On this measure, participants rated the maternal grandmother on 11 pairs of words commonly associated with grandparenthood (e.g., young-old, permissive-restrictive, near-far). A total score was obtained by summing the subject’s rating on each of the pairs of words. This score can range from 11 to 77 with higher scores indicating a less traditional perception of the maternal grandmother. Cronbach’s alpha reliability was .96.

The pairs of words were formulated by students enrolled in a life-span development class at The Ohio State University. As a course assignment, the students were asked to list 20 words that described either their grandparents or older individuals. The primary researcher then matched opposite terms and selected the ten pairs that were mentioned most often. There was a tie which lead to 11 pairs of words being utilized.

The scale was pilot tested on 15 5th graders. Feedback was provided on the directions, the organization of the scale, and the 11 pairs of words. Necessary adjustments were made to the scale and it was prepared for distribution.
Quality of Grandchild-Grandmother Relationship

The quality of the grandchild’s relationship with his/her maternal grandmother was assessed with The Network of Relationship Inventory (Furman & Buhrmester, 1986). This measure was designed to assess important components of familial relationships. To adapt the scale to the present study, the primary researcher received permission to substitute “maternal grandmother” in each of the 36 questions.

Subjects indicated their responses on a 5-point Likert scale (e.g., “How much do you talk to your maternal grandmother about things you do not want others to know?” 1 = little or none, 5 = a lot). This measure has 12 subscales including: intimacy, companionship, instrumental aid, nurturance, affection, antagonism, admiration, reliable alliance, conflict, punishment, satisfaction, and reliable power. Only the intimacy, affection, companionship, and satisfaction subscales were used in the data analysis for the present study and these subscales were treated as separate variables.

Subscale scores were derived by averaging the responses on the three subscale questions; higher scores indicated a higher quality relationship. Furman and Buhrmester (1986) report satisfactory internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s alpha = .80). The primary researcher achieved an alpha of .99 for these four subscales.

Frequency of Contact between Grandchild and Maternal Grandmother

In order to assess the frequency of contact between grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers, the students responded to a question asking how frequently they have seen the grandmother in the last four months. The response set ranged from “very frequently (couple of times a week)” (1) to “not done in the last four months” (5). On this
scale, lower scores indicated more contact between the grandchild and his/her maternal grandmother.

**Shared Activities of Grandchild and Maternal Grandmother**

Activities in which the grandchild and maternal grandmother participate together were measured with Shared Activities of Grandparents and Grandchildren (Kennedy, 1992). This questionnaire asked the subjects to respond to 29 statements in terms of how descriptive the statements were of the activities they share with their maternal grandmother (e.g., ‘Talking about recent events in each other’s lives”).

The measure was adapted to the current study by placing a time frame on the child’s recollections. Students were asked to respond to the statements for the previous four months. The four-month time frame was selected for several reasons. First, the researcher wanted to collect data on recent interactions. Second, data collection was scheduled approximately four months following a major holiday (e.g., Christmas and Thanksgiving), giving the students an easy way to gauge their interactions.

Possible responses ranged from “very frequently” (1) to “not done in the last four months” (5). The instrument has six activity subscales: sociability, companionship, domestic helping, community events, entertainment, and outdoor assistance. A total activity score also can be computed by summing the six subscales. For this study, the total activity score was used in the data analysis. On this measure, a lower score signifies that the grandparent-grandchild dyad participates in a large number of activities together.

A Cronbach coefficient alpha has been reported at .93; for this study, Cronbach’s alpha was .99.
Grandchild's Self-Esteem

The Self-Description Questionnaire includes 62 statements that measure the participant's self-esteem in a number of areas (Marsh, Relich, & Smith, 1983). These areas include: physical abilities, physical appearance, relations with peers, relations with parents, reading, mathematics, and other school subjects (e.g., "I am good at sports"). Responses range from "false" (1) to "sometimes true/sometimes false" (3) to "true" (5). Scores range from 62 to 310 with higher scores indicating higher self-esteem. Cronbach's alpha for the summed composite score has been reported at .93; the present study yielded a Cronbach alpha of .92.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Data Analysis Plan

The goal of the present study was to assess the strength of a theoretical model developed from current research on grandchild-grandparent relationships. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was chosen as the data analysis procedure for this study because it not only examines the variance between selected variables, but it also attempts to explain the relationship between a set of variables.

In SEM, the variance is estimated using maximum likelihood estimation. The fit of the model reflects how close the implied moments (estimated variance) are to the sample moments (sample variance). This fit is tested with a chi-square statistic (also known as goodness of fit). If the chi-square value is small, it suggests a good fit, whereas large chi-square values indicate a poor fit. Non-significant chi-square values are desired, thus indicating very little difference between the sample and implied moments.

The data analysis package AMOS (Arbuckle, 1998) was used for the present study. AMOS provides output for three models: the specified model (the model being tested), the saturated model (a hypothetical model that fits the data perfectly), and the
independence model (a hypothetical model that is the worst possible fit of the data). The saturated and the independence models represent the two extremes with the specified model falling somewhere between the two. It is hoped that the specified model is closer to the saturated model than the independence model, thus indicating a better fit.

When evaluating the results from SEM, different indices of fit besides chi-square are typically considered. One fit index is the root mean squared residual (RMR). This is the square root of the amount by which the sample variance differs from the implied variance. Small RMR values are desired (Richichi, 2000). A second index of fit is the goodness of fit index (GFI). GFI ranges from 0 to 1 with 1 being a perfect fit. It is desired that GFI values be .9 or higher. A third fit index is the adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI); this is an extension of GFI adjusted by the degrees of freedom of the model. The value of AGFI is usually lower than GFI; AGFI values near .9 suggest adequate fit. These indices can suggest that the specified model is adequate even when the chi-square value is significant.

Findings from Structural Equation Modeling Analysis

Because of the sample size and the study’s hypotheses, the original model was separated into four testable models.

**Model Examining Variable Influence on Quality, Contact, and Shared Activities**

The first model specified for this study examined the relationship of geographic proximity, parental marital status, grandmother health, grandchild perception of grandmother, and importance of grandchild-grandmother relationship to the middle generation on (a) the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship, (b) the
frequency of contact, and (c) the shared activities between the intergenerational dyad (Figure 2). The model resulted in a significant chi square, $X^2(58) = 172.61$, $p<.005$, which suggests that the model may not provide a strong fit for the data. The chi-square statistic, however, was substantially closer to the saturated model than the independence model ($X^2 = 835.86$). The goodness of fit index, (GFI) = .92; the adjusted goodness of fit index, (AGFI) = .86; and the root mean squared residual, (RMR) = 14.03 suggest adequate fit of the model, despite the significant chi-square (Table 3).

Once the model was deemed to adequately fit the data, the paths in the model were tested for significance by examining the regression weights. Significant paths were found between (a) importance of the grandchild-grandparent interaction from the middle generation’s perspective and frequency of contact ($p = .031$); (b) length of parental divorce and frequency of contact ($p = .021$); and (c) geographical distance and frequency of contact ($p = .004$) (Table 4).

Hypothesis 1a. Children from divorced families will have (a) more contact and (b) higher activity levels with their maternal grandmother than will children from intact families.

The regression weights for the relationship between parental marital status and (a) frequency of contact and (b) activity level were non-significant. This hypothesis was not supported by the data.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$(df)</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>AGFI</th>
<th>RMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(2) selected variables on quality of relationship, frequency of contact, &amp; shared activities (Figure 2)</td>
<td>172.61 (56)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>14.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) grandmother &amp; grandchild age on perception of gm (Figure 3)</td>
<td>1.75 (1)</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) parent-grandparent closeness on frequency of contact, quality of relationship, &amp; perception of gm (Figure 4)</td>
<td>12.55 (9)</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) selected variables on quality of relationship &amp; self-view (Figure 5)</td>
<td>56.82 (42)</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>93.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Fit Indicators for Model 2 through Model 5
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Regression Weights</th>
<th>P values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>distance on quality</td>
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<td>.651</td>
</tr>
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<td>intact status on frequency of contact</td>
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<td>.310</td>
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<td>grandmother's health on frequency of contact</td>
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<td>.787</td>
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<td>perception of gm on frequency of contact</td>
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<td>.318</td>
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<td>importance of relationship on frequency of contact</td>
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<td>.031*</td>
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<td>intact status on shared activities</td>
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<td>.679</td>
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<td>grandmother health on shared activities</td>
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<td>.907</td>
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<td>distance from grandmother on shared activities</td>
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<td>.061</td>
</tr>
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<td>length of divorce on frequency of contact</td>
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<td>.021*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distance from grandmother on frequency of contact</td>
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<td>.004*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length of divorce on shared activities</td>
<td>-1.112</td>
<td>.399</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = p < .05

Table 4: Regression Weights for Model 2
Hypothesis 1b. **Children whose parents have been divorced less than two years** will have (a) more contact and (b) higher activity levels with their maternal grandmother than will children from intact families or children whose parents have been divorced more than two years.

The regression weight of the relationship between length of divorce and frequency of contact was significant. The relationship also was positive. Children whose parents were divorced less than two years were found to have more contact with the maternal grandmother than were those children whose parents were still married or those children whose parents were divorced more than two years.

The regression weight of the relationship between length of divorce and activity level was non-significant. This hypothesis partially was supported by the data.

**Hypothesis 2. Children whose residential parent has remarried will have (a) lower levels of contact and (b) lower activity levels with the maternal grandmother than will those children whose residential parent has not remarried.**

The regression weights of the relationship between remarriage and (a) frequency of contact and (b) activity level were non-significant. This hypothesis was not supported by the data.

**Hypothesis 3. Maternal grandmother health will be negatively related to (a) frequency of contact and (b) activity level.**

The regression weights for the relationship between grandmother health and (a) frequency of contact and (b) activity level were non-significant. This hypothesis was not supported by the data.
Hypothesis 4. Geographic proximity to maternal grandmother will be negatively related to (a) frequency of contact, (b) activity level, and (c) quality of relationship.

The regression weight of the relationship between geographic proximity and frequency of contact was significant. The relationship was negative, meaning those grandchildren who lived further away from their maternal grandmother saw their maternal grandmother less than did those grandchildren who lived closer to their maternal grandmother.

The regression weights for the relationship between geographic proximity and (a) activity level and (b) quality of relationship were non-significant. Thus, this hypothesis partially was supported.

Hypothesis 5. There will be a significant positive relationship between the grandchild's perception of the grandmother and frequency of contact.

The regression weight of the relationship between perception and frequency of contact was non-significant. This hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 6. There will be a significant positive relationship between the amount of contact grandchildren have with their maternal grandmothers and their activity level.

The regression weight for the relationship between amount of contact and activity level was significant. The relationship was positive; those grandchildren who had high frequency of contact scores participated in more shared activities with their maternal grandmother than did those grandchildren with low frequency of contact scores. This hypothesis was supported by the data.
Hypothesis 7. There will be a significant positive relationship between the parent’s view of the importance of the grandchild-grandmother relationship and the amount of contact between the grandchild and the maternal grandmother.

The regression weight of the relationship between the parent’s view of the importance of the grandchild-grandmother relationship and frequency of contact was significant. The direction of this relationship was positive, indicating that the more the parent viewed the grandchild-grandparent relationship as important, the higher the contact between the grandchild and his/her maternal grandmother.

Model Examining Influence of Age on Grandchild’s Perception of Grandmother

The second model examined the influence of the grandmother’s and the grandchild’s age on the grandchild’s perception of the grandmother (Figure 3). This model fit the data well, $X^2 (1) = 1.75, p<.186$, the non-significant chi-square suggests a strong model-to-data fit. The other fit indicators also support this finding. The GFI was .99, the AGFI was .97, and the RMR was .50. For this model, no regression weights were found to be statistically significant (Table 5). The lack of a significant path, despite adequate fit, could be the result of a strong relationship between the age variables, each of which did not influence grandchild’s perception of grandmother.

Hypothesis 8. Maternal grandmother age will be negatively related to the grandchild’s perception of the grandmother as contemporary or traditional.

The regression weight of the relationship between grandmother age and grandchild’s perception of maternal grandmother was not significant. This hypothesis was not supported by the data.
Figure 3: Model Examining the Influence of Age on Perception of Grandmother
Hypothesis 9. Grandchild's age will be positively related to the grandchild's perception of the grandmother.

The regression weight of the relationship between grandchild age and grandchild's perception of maternal grandmother was not significant. This hypothesis was not supported by the data.

Model Examining Influence of Parent-Grandparent Relationship Quality on Grandchild’s Contact with Grandmother and Perception of Grandmother

The third model examined the influence of the emotional closeness between the parent and the grandmother on the frequency of contact between the grandchild and the maternal grandmother and the grandchild’s perception of the grandmother. This model fit the data very well, $X^2 (g) = 12.55$, $p < .184$. The RMR was .15. The GFI (.99) and AGFI (.95) were high, indicating a good fit between the model and the data (Figure 4).
Figure 4: Model Examining the Influence of Relationship Quality on Frequency of Contact and Perception of Grandmother
Regression weights for emotional closeness between the parent and the grandmother on the grandchild’s perception of the grandmother (p = .037) and the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship (p = .000) were significant. The regression weights for frequency of contact (p = .011) on quality of grandchild-grandmother relationship also was significant (Table 6).

**Hypothesis 10.** There will be a significant positive relationship between the amount of contact grandchildren have with their grandmother and the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship.

This hypothesis was supported by the data. The regression weight for the relationship between frequency of contact and quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship was positive. Thus, those grandchildren who saw their maternal grandmother more frequently rated the quality of their relationship higher than those grandchildren who did not see their maternal grandmother often.

**Hypothesis 11.** There will be a significant positive relationship between the parent’s closeness with the grandmother and (a) the amount of contact between the grandchild and grandmother, (b) the grandchild’s perception of the grandmother, and (c) the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship.

The regression weight of the relationship between closeness and frequency of contact was non-significant. The relationship between closeness and grandchild’s perception was significant but in a negative direction. Thus, those grandchildren whose
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Regression Weights</th>
<th>P values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>closeness on frequency of contact</td>
<td>.234</td>
<td>.133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>closeness on quality of relationship</td>
<td>.322</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frequency of contact on quality of relationship</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.011*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>closeness on perception of grandmother</td>
<td>-.802</td>
<td>.037*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>closeness on satisfaction</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = p < .05  
** = p < .001

Table 6: Regression Weights for Model 4
parents had a higher quality relationship with the maternal grandmother viewed the grandmother in more traditional terms. The relationship between closeness and quality of the relationship was significant and positive. Thus, grandchildren whose parents felt close to the grandmother also felt close to the maternal grandmother. This hypothesis partially was supported by the data.

**Model Examining Variable Influence on Quality of Grandchild-Grandmother Relationship and Self-View**

The fourth model of this study examined the influence of geographic proximity, grandmother health, grandmother age, grandchild age, parental marital status, and parent social position on the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship and the grandchild's self-esteem (Figure 5). This model had adequate fit to the data $X^2(42) = 56.82, p<.063$. The GFI was .96, the AGFI was .93 and the RMR was .93.73, all of which provide further evidence of the fit between the model and the data.

Several paths in this model were found to be statistically significant (Table 7). Significant paths were found for: (a) grandmother health and quality of grandchild-grandmother relationship ($p = .000$); (b) age of grandchild and quality of relationship ($p = .000$) and (c) child's age and their satisfaction with their relationship with maternal grandmother ($p = .000$). In addition two paths approached significance: (c) mother's socioeconomic status and child's self-esteem level ($p = .059$) and (d) child's age and child's self-esteem level ($p = .055$).
Figure 5: Model Examining Variable Influence on Relationship Quality and Self-Esteem
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Regression Weights</th>
<th>P values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>distance on quality</td>
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<td>.087</td>
</tr>
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<td>grandmother age on quality</td>
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<td>.746</td>
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<td>grandmother health on quality</td>
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<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grandchild age on quality</td>
<td>-.087</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
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<td>intact status on quality</td>
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<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intact status on self-view</td>
<td>4.927</td>
<td>.297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother's SES status on self-view</td>
<td>-.353</td>
<td>.059*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>father's SES status on self-view</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>.636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grandchild's age on self-view</td>
<td>-2.033</td>
<td>.055*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grandchild's age on satisfaction</td>
<td>-.075</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = p < .05  
** = p < .001

Table 7: Regression Weights for Model 5
Hypothesis 12. Martial status of the children’s parents, the parents’ educational attainment, the age of the child, and the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship will be significantly related to the child’s self-esteem level.

The regression weight of the relationship between marital status and self-esteem level was non-significant. The regression weight between the mother’s social position and the child’s self-esteem approached significance and this relationship was negative. Thus, as the mother’s social position increased, the child’s self-esteem decreased.

The path from child’s age to self-esteem was significant and negative indicating that age was inversely related to self-esteem. Thus, younger grandchildren had higher levels of self-esteem than did older grandchildren.

Hypothesis 13. Geographical distance between the grandchild and grandmother, the grandmother’s health, the grandmother’s age, the marital status of the middle generation, and the child’s age will be significantly related to the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship.

The regression weights for the relationship between distance and (a) quality and (b) grandmother age were non-significant. In addition, the regression weight for the path between marital status and quality was non-significant. However, the regression weights for the path between (a) grandmother health and (b) grandmother age on quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship were significant and negative. Thus, indicating that the grandmother’s health and age were inversely related to the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship. To elaborate, the better the grandmother’s health, the higher the quality of grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship as perceived by the grandchild.
Also, as the grandmother got older, the grandchild’s perception of the quality of their relationship decreased.
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

Over the past 60 years, the study of grandparenthood has emerged as a distinct area of study (Szinovacz, 1998). Early publications described the different roles grandparents play in the family unit. Researchers also have studied other aspects of the grandparent-grandchild relationship including frequency of contact, shared activities, perceived closeness, and moderating factors. The increased interest in grandparenting has been a result of several demographic and societal changes that occurred during the 20th Century. Unfortunately, these changes have resulted in few societal guidelines or norms regarding the grandparent role. This ambiguity has lead to wide variation in grandparent-grandchild relationships.

The present study was designed to test a theoretical model that incorporated various factors and their influence on the quality of the grandchild’s relationship with his/her maternal grandmother. Factors used in this study included individual, familial, and situational variables identified as important by previous researchers.

This theoretical model was tested on a sample of middle school and high school students in Northeastern Ohio. This sample was unique as it included ages previously neglected by researchers. In the past, the majority of studies examining the
grandparent-grandchild relationship utilized either college-aged students or young grandchildren. The sample also was unique in that there was almost equal distribution between the four grade levels. By having equal representation, it prevented one developmental period from dominating the sample and possibly influencing the results. In addition, the present study is among a few that have used standardized questionnaires to measure different aspects of the grandchild’s relationship with his/her maternal grandmother.

Primary Findings

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the strength of the proposed theoretical model. Analyses revealed that all four testable models fit the data. Thus, the models explained the influence of selected factors on the quality of the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship. To determine which factors significantly affected the grandchild’s relationship with his/her maternal grandmother, several directional relationships were hypothesized. Several of these relationships were supported.

Frequency of Contact and Shared Activities

Grandchildren who lived further away from their maternal grandmothers were found to see them less often during the four-month period than were those grandchildren who lived closer. This finding is consistent with other research. Hodgson (1992) found a strong correlation between geographical proximity and frequency of contact with more interactions occurring the closer the generations lived to one another. Uhlenberg and Hammill (1998) found geographic proximity to be the most powerful predictor of contact between the generations. The decrease in contact, as distance increases, has been
attributed to the time and expense needed to maintain face-to-face contact across the miles. With greater physical distance between the generations, there is less opportunity for the generations to interact with one another leading to the grandparent’s absence from the family and its daily functions. As a result, there may be greater ambiguity regarding the grandparent’s role in the family.

In the present study, only direct physical contact was assessed. It is acknowledged that other types of contact, for example, telephone and letter writing, do occur between grandchildren and their grandparents. In their 1986 study, Cherlin and Furstenberg found that phone contact was important in families where there was extensive physical distance between its members. In addition, Kennedy (1996) has alluded to the use of fax machines and computers (e’mail) to maintain contact with grandparents. Future studies should inquire about additional methods of communication beyond physical contact.

Almost 90% of this study’s sample was younger than 16 years of age, the legal driving age in the State of Ohio. Consequently, these children were dependent on others for transportation to and from their interactions with the grandmother. Besides examining the different forms of contact between grandchildren and their grandparents, future studies might examine the difference between actual contact and desired contact.

Grandchildren whose parents perceived the grandchild-grandparent relationship as important were found to have more contact with their maternal grandmother than were those grandchildren whose parents did not view the grandchild-grandparent relationship as important. This finding supports the belief that the middle generation plays a facilitating role in the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship. It also supports
Uhlenberg and Hammill (1998) who found that a positive relationship between the middle generation and the grandparents is related to greater contact between grandchildren and their grandparents.

A strong correlation between frequency of contact and shared activities also was found in the present study. Grandchildren who had frequent contact with their maternal grandmother shared more activities with her than did those grandchildren who did not have frequent contact with the maternal grandmother. Kennedy (1992) and Scherman (1988) also found a strong correlation between the number of activities participated in by the intergenerational dyad and their frequency of contact. Given this finding, it can be assumed that the activities included on the Shared Activity Questionnaire represented the experiences of this study's grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers. By interacting with the grandmother, she is physically present to the grandchild, and by doing things with the grandmother, she is psychologically present to the grandchild. Hence, there is boundary clarity.

The length of the parental divorce also was found to influence the frequency of contact between grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers. In this study, grandchildren whose parents were divorced less that two years had more physical contact with their maternal grandmothers than did those grandchildren whose parents were divorced more than two years or who were still married to each other.

The divorce literature provides several explanations for this finding. As previously mentioned, approximately 30% of single, custodial mothers reside with their
parents for a period of time following a divorce (Hetherington, Law, & O’Connor, 1993). By living with the maternal grandmother, frequency of contact increases.

It is well documented in the divorce literature that familial adjustment to a divorce takes approximately two years (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1978; Hetherington, Law, & O’Connor, 1993). During this time, support from others is typically sought by children; grandparents can provide this support (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1986).

**Quality of Relationship**

A strong relationship was found between frequency of contact and quality of the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship. Grandchildren who saw their grandmother frequently reported higher quality relations than did those grandchildren who saw their grandmother less frequently. One possible interpretation of this finding is that through their interactions with the grandmother, the grandchildren got to know the grandmother, and as a result, developed strong emotional ties to her. Frequency of contact appears to normalize the grandchild-grandparent relationship. By seeing the grandmother frequently, the grandchild comes to perceive her (physically and psychologically) as a member of the family.

The middle generation’s own relationship with the maternal grandmother also was found to affect the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship. In this study, parents who viewed their relationship with the maternal grandmother as emotionally close had children who viewed their own relationship with the maternal grandmother as emotionally close. This finding lends further support to the notion that the middle
generation plays the role of a gatekeeper to some extent between grandparents and grandchildren.

It is possible that the strength of the parent-maternal grandmother relationship has an influence on the importance the middle generation gives to the grandchild-grandmother relationship. It would make sense that the closer the parent is to the maternal grandmother, the more he/she would want the grandchildren to be close to the grandmother. As a result, the parent would emphasize the importance of this relationship.

Two additional factors were found to influence the quality of the grandchild-grandparent relationship. One was the grandmother’s age. It was found that the older the grandmother, the lower the quality of the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship. The second factor was grandmother’s health. Grandchildren whose maternal grandmother was in poorer health (higher scores) perceived the relationship to be of a lower quality than those grandchildren whose maternal grandmother was in better health. These findings are consistent with other studies that have found (a) a negative correlation between grandmother age and health and (b) a negative relationship between health and frequency of contact and quality of relationship (Cherlin & Furstenberg, 1986; Creasey, et al. 1989). In the present study, the correlation between grandmother age and grandmother health was .347; thus, these two variables were moderately correlated with one another.

The grandmother’s health affects the amount of contact between the grandmother and the grandchild by restricting the grandmother’s mobility (Uhlenberg & Hammill, 1998). Lower levels of contact with the grandmother can lead the grandchild to perceive
the grandmother as being absent from the family. This can cause ambiguity if the grandchild still psychologically perceives the grandmother as being present.

Of the four components of quality (satisfaction, affection, nurturance, and intimacy) that were measured in this study, satisfaction appears most relevant. There was a significant positive relationship between the middle generation's perceived closeness with the maternal grandmother and the grandchild's satisfaction with his/her relationship with the maternal grandmother. Thus, those grandchildren whose parents perceived their relationship with the maternal grandmother as closer were found to have higher satisfaction levels in their relationship with the grandmother. This finding, once again, supports the gatekeeper role performed by the middle generation.

A negative relationship was found between the grandchild's age and their satisfaction with the grandchild-grandmother relationship. A logical explanation for this finding is that as the grandchild gets older, he/she does not want to spend as much time with the grandmother, but does so out of obligation, consequently, satisfaction decreases. Kennedy (1989) examined personal factors motivating grandchildren to maintain relations with their grandparents. A "feeling of obligation" and the "need to provide help" were frequently cited reasons by the grandchildren.

Research on filial obligation (i.e., having feelings of responsibility for members of one's family) has found that helping behaviors are the result of frequent contact and feelings of attachment (Brubaker, 1985). In the present study, the grandchildren, on average, saw their maternal grandmothers several times over the four month period and
reported high quality relationships. Both of these factors, if consistent, would justify the notion of obligation to the grandmother.

**Grandchild’s Perception of Grandmother**

It was assumed that grandchildren would have a higher quality relationship with grandmothers who they perceived as “contemporary” versus “traditional.” It was believed that being a more traditional grandmother would restrict the grandchild-grandparent relationship because the grandmother would be enacting stereotypical roles. It was assumed that the enactment of stereotypical roles would lead to a generation gap (i.e., difference of opinions/expectations), which would cause psychological and emotional distancing between the grandchild and his/her maternal grandmother. The present study found just the opposite, that grandchildren who perceived their grandmother in traditional terms reported a higher quality relationship.

Even though demographics indicate that the grandparenting role has been transformed into a more “contemporary” role (younger, healthier, playful), perhaps society’s beliefs lag behind, with the traditional grandparent perception still dominate. Hence, when there is congruence between the grandchild’s expectations of the grandmother and the grandmother’s role performance, the grandchild places a higher value on the relationship.

Current research has found that the roles performed by grandparents are varied (Cherlin & Furstenberg, 1986; Kornhaber & Woodward, 1986; Neugarten & Weinstein, 1964). However, current demographics indicate that for an increasing number of grandparents, the role of surrogate parent in their grandchildren’s lives is very salient.
Self-Esteem

Two variables were found to affect the grandchild's level of self-esteem. The grandchild's age was found to be negatively related to his/her self-esteem. Thus, as the grandchild got older, his/her view of him/herself decreased. Several explanations are possible. One explanation is the measure used in this study. Because of the age range utilized in this study, an effort was made for all of the questionnaires to be easily understood. Out of all four measures, the Self-Description Scale seemed to be more juvenile in its writing. As a result, perhaps the questions did not appeal to the older grandchildren or were not relevant to their experiences.

A common assumption is that as children experience adolescence, their self-esteem decreases. Given the various physical, psychological, and social changes adolescents encounter, it was assumed that their self-perception decreases. Research, however, has consistently shown that the stage of adolescence is not a period of "storm and stress" (Steinberg, 1993).

The mother's socio-economic status (SES) also was negatively related to the child's self-esteem; i.e., as the mother's SES increased, the child's self-esteem decreased. In this study, the mother's social position was calculated by combining her education and current job position (Hollingshead, 1956). This finding runs counter to other research.

Perhaps this finding is related to maternal employment. There is an abundance of research that has examined the effect of maternal employment on adolescent development; however, most of this research has compared the effects on daughters and sons. Unfortunately, gender differences were not examined in the present study. It can be
speculated that women who work, spend less time with their children than do non-working mothers. The children's self-esteem might be affected by having to assume more household responsibilities and by not receiving parental guidance.

Limitations

Several limitations can be identified in the present study. The findings are limited to Caucasian families. Of the 226 subjects, 220 of them were Caucasian. Future research should include a variety of ethnic groups to identify similarities and differences in the quality of the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship. This is important because previous research has noted that the grandmother role varies by culture. Grandmothers in the African-American and Asian cultures have been found to hold a more prestigious position in the family.

Also, all subjects were recruited from three cities in Northeastern Ohio. Thus, the findings are limited to this geographical region. This study is also limited by the grandchild's perspective. The parent's and the maternal grandmother's perspectives regarding the grandparent-grandchild relationship should be included in future studies to increase validity of this study's findings.

Future research also should include qualitative interviews in order to gain a more thorough understanding of the grandchild-grandparent relationship. For example, the present study measured frequency of contact with the assumption that these interactions were positive in nature. But not all interactions are positive and such negative interactions can influence the grandchild-grandmother relationship.
Implications for Intervention

Results from this study could be useful to family practitioners and policy makers. Given the mediating role of the middle generation on the grandchild-grandparent relationship, family life educators need to educate parents on ways to facilitate contact between their children and their parents.

Other research has indicated that the grandparent-parent-grandchild relationship carries benefits for both generations. Baranowski (1982) theorized that the grandparent-grandchild relationship assists grandchildren with their identity development and their relationship with their parents.

Identity development is one of the developmental tasks associated with the period of adolescence. During this stage, the individual attempts to learn who he/she is; this identity is the culmination of the past, present, and future. Grandparents can serve many functions during this process. First, they can be a source of information. By describing historical events they witnessed or lived through, grandparents can make the past "real" to their grandchildren. They also can transmit information about cultural and familial roots to the grandchildren (Baranowski, 1982). Finally, they can be a source of inspiration. By living the length of time that they have, grandparents can provide their grandchildren with a sense of sureness about facing the future.

Grandparents also can help their grandchildren with their relationships with their parents. Grandparents can convey information about the parents to the grandchildren. By hearing stories about when their parents were young, children might be able to better understand their parents' attitudes and behaviors (Baranowski, 1982). Grandparents also
can act as confidants or mediators between the adolescent and his/her parents. Kornhaber and Woodward (1981) believe these roles are possible because the grandparent is not directly responsible for the adolescent’s upbringing and can therefore be more impartial in their interactions.

According to Kivnick (1982), older adults who participate in and identify with the grandparenting role develop an increased sense of well-being in the face of personal, social, and material losses. On a more global level, aging individuals may experience an improved social status and quality of life as a result of the younger generation having positive attitudes toward them (Barranti, 1985).

The present study also found that the quality of the grandchild-grandmother relationship was influenced by the grandmother’s age and health. Even though advances have been made in the medical field over the past century, our health still deteriorates as we get older. Attempts should be made to facilitate the intergenerational relationship during this time. Grandchildren can learn first-hand about the aging process by maintaining contact with an aging grandparent. Grandchildren also can learn responsibility by helping to take care of an aging or ill grandparent.

A strong relationship also was found between the quality of the grandchild-maternal grandmother relationship and the grandchild’s perception of the grandmother. Grandchildren who viewed their grandmother in traditional terms reported higher quality relationships with the grandmother. This finding suggests that grandchildren want their maternal grandmothers to perform roles distinctive from the parenting role. Family life
educators need to assist grandmothers in how to best interact with their grandchildren without stepping on this boundary.

Family life educators also should show parents and grandparents ways to improve the quality of the parent-grandparent relationship. Such topics could include communication and conflict resolution. Parents also should encourage other means of communication between the grandchild and the grandmother besides physical contact. As mentioned previously, communication via the telephone, postal service, and e-mail are additional ways for grandchildren and their grandparents to keep in contact with one another.

The topic of visitation rights for grandparents has been in the media lately. Visitation rights for grandparents are only granted after the “best interest of the child” is considered. The present study found that within two years following a divorce, frequency of contact between grandchildren and their maternal grandmothers increase. Thus, grandparents come to the aid of their grandchildren following a parental divorce.

In addition, current law supports the middle generation’s opinion regarding the benefits/drawbacks of granting visitation to grandparents. The present study found strong support for the important role parents play in the grandparent-grandchild relationship. Practitioners should work on developing the grandparents’ relationship with the middle generation.
REFERENCES


Appendix A

February 21, 1997

Dear Parent or Guardian:

Some authorities have suggested that grandparents can play an important role in helping families deal with the many changes facing them today. Ms. Jean M. Muransky, doctoral candidate, and Dr. Patrick McKenry, professor, at The Ohio State University have designed a study to examine the grandchild-grandparent relationship. This project involves collecting information from you and your child about the relationship between the grandchild (your child) and his/her maternal grandmother. The information that you and your child provide will assist counselors, educators, and researchers better understand the role of maternal grandmothers in helping grandchildren adjust to change.

We would like your child to complete a series of questions about his/her maternal grandmother. These questions will include: his/her perception of the grandparent, the quality of their relationship, and shared activities. He/she also will be asked questions about how he/she perceives him/herself in terms of school situations. In addition, we would like you to complete a background sheet.

**What is involved?** Your child will be asked to spend a total of 60 minutes completing a series of questions about his/her relationship with his/her maternal grandmother. The first questionnaire will measure the child's perception of his/her grandmother. The child will rate the grandparent on a 7-point scale: for example, "My grandmother is old...young." The second instrument measures the quality of the grandchild-grandparent relationship. Such questions include: "Do you like spending time with your grandmother?" Next, your child will identify those activities he/she participated in with the grandmother over the past four months. Possible activities include: spending the night, or going out to dinner. And finally, he/she will answer questions regarding how he/she perceives him/herself in school situations; for example, "Do you like math?"

Examples of the questions we will be asking you to complete include: "Describe what you do for a living," "Identify the number of years of schooling you and your current spouse have completed," and "How important is it for your children to see their maternal grandmother?" This segment of the study should take approximately 30 minutes.
A select number of students will be invited to participate in the follow-up component of this study. These students will be contacted through their parents in early Spring to schedule an interview time. At this meeting, the children will answer a number of open-ended questions regarding their relationship with their maternal grandmother. This will take approximately 30 minutes.

**Participation is voluntary.** Your participation and that of your son or daughter is strictly voluntary. There will be no penalty if you do not wish your family to be in this study, and either of you may withdraw at any time or refuse to answer any of the questions. Children who do not participate in this study will spend the class period in the school library with their teacher. This project has been approved by your child’s school.

In order to acknowledge those students and families who participate, a number of incentives will be available. Children who complete their packets will receive a discount coupon from the local McDonald's. At the conclusion of the study, participants will be eligible to win a $50.00 gift certificate to TGIFriday's. Families who have completed both the parent and child packet will have their name placed in a drawing, the name selected will receive the gift certificate.

**Information is confidential.** All information will be held completely confidential. Only the researchers will see the questionnaires. Once the questionnaires have been collected, your child's name will be removed and replaced with a number so that the answers can not be personally identified. The information you provide will be combined with what others provide and analyzed as a group.

**Questions?** We would appreciate it if you would return the forms attached to this page whether or not you would like your child to participate, so that we know this information has reached you. You may keep this page for your records. If you have any questions you may contact Ms. Jean Muransky at (330) 426-4317 or Dr. Patrick McKenry at (614) 292-5616. Either of us can arrange for you to see the complete questionnaires in advance if you wish.

**Survey timetable.** The questionnaires for this study will be collected Monday, March 3rd in Ms. Clark’s class. In order to have the correct number of packets available, we need to receive your consent letter and the background sheet no later than Thursday, February 27th.

We sincerely appreciate your support and assistance.

Sincerely,

Jean M. Muransky, MS  Patrick C. McKenry, PhD
PhD Candidate  Professor
Dept. of Family Relations  Dept. of Family Relations
and Human Development  and Human Development
The Ohio State University  The Ohio State University
Appendix B

Background Information

your relationship to the child participating in the study: ________________________________

INFORMATION PERTAINING TO THE CHILD

1. child's gender: 
   MALE _____
   FEMALE _____

2. How old was the child on his/her last birthday? ___________

3. child's ethnic identity: 
   WHITE _____
   BLACK _____
   HISPANIC _____
   ASIAN _____
   AMERICAN INDIAN/NATIVE AMERICAN _____
   OTHER _____
INFORMATION PERTAINING TO THE CHILD'S PARENTS

4. your marital status:  MARRIED ______ (go to #5)
   SEPARATED ______ (go to #6)
   DIVORCED ______ (go to #8)
   DIVORCED & REMARRIED ______ (go to #11)
   WIDOWED ______ (go to #10)
   SINGLE/NEVER MARRIED ______ (go to #19)

5. How long have you been married? _________ years (skip to #19)

6. How long were you married before you separated? _________ years (go to #7)

7. How long have you been separated? _________ years (skip to #19)

8. How long were you married before you divorced? ______ years (go to #9)

9. How long have you been divorced? _______ years (skip to #19)

10. How long has the other parent been deceased? _________ years (go to #19)

11. How long were you married before you divorced? _________ years (complete remainder of survey)

12. How long have you been divorced? _______ years

13. How long have you been remarried? ___________ years

14. How old was your current spouse (i.e., your child's step-parent) on his/her last birthday? ________
15. your current spouse's ethnic identity: WHITE _____
   BLACK _____
   HISPANIC _____
   ASIAN _____
   AMERICAN INDIAN/NATIVE AMERICAN _____
   OTHER _____

16. Please circle the number associated with the highest level of education your current spouse has achieved:

   NONE 00
   ELEMENTARY 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08
   HIGH SCHOOL 09 10 11 12
   COLLEGE 13 14 15 16
   GRADUATE SCHOOL 17+

17. Describe what your current spouse does for a living?

   ___________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________

18. Is the child's other biological parent remarried?

   YES, FOR ____________ YEARS
   NO _____

19. How old were you on your last birthday? ___________(complete remainder of survey)

20. How old was the child's other biological parent on his/her last birthday? __________
21. your ethnic identity: WHITE _____
    BLACK _____
    HISPANIC _____
    ASIAN _____
    AMERICAN INDIAN/NATIVE AMERICAN _____
    OTHER _____

22. child's other biological parent's ethnic identity:
    WHITE _____
    BLACK _____
    HISPANIC _____
    ASIAN _____
    AMERICAN INDIAN/NATIVE AMERICAN _____
    OTHER _____

23. Please circle the number associated with the highest level of education you achieved:

    NONE   00
    ELEMENTARY  01  02  03  04  05  06  07  08
    HIGH SCHOOL  09  10  11  12
    COLLEGE  13  14  15  16
    GRADUATE SCHOOL  17+

24. Please circle the number associated with the highest level of education the child's other biological parent achieved:

    NONE   00
    ELEMENTARY  01  02  03  04  05  06  07  08
    HIGH SCHOOL  09  10  11  12
    COLLEGE  13  14  15  16
    GRADUATE SCHOOL  17+
25. Describe what you do for a living?
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

26. What does the child's other biological parent do for a living?
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

INFORMATION PERTAINING TO THE MATERNAL GRANDMOTHER.

If the child's maternal grandmother is deceased, please check here and disregard the remainder of this questionnaire. __________

27. How far (in miles) does your child live from his/her maternal grandmother?
_________________________ miles

28. How old is the child's maternal grandmother? ____________ years

29. maternal grandmother's marital status: MARRIED ______
    SEPARATED ______
    DIVORCED ______
    DIVORCED and REMARRIED ______
    WIDOWED ______
Please indicate the extent to which the maternal grandmother's daily functioning is impaired by the following health problems.

The following scale has been provided for your convenience:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>amputation</td>
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<td>heart problems</td>
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<td>kidney problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>stomach problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>cancer (type_______________)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>other health problem(s)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

not mentioned—
(describe below) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
### INFORMATION PERTAINING TO YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH THE CHILD'S MATERNAL GRANDMOTHER

30. How close do you feel to your child's maternal grandmother?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I DO NOT FEEL</th>
<th>A LITTLE CLOSE</th>
<th>SOMEWHAT CLOSE</th>
<th>VERY CLOSE</th>
<th>EXTREMELY CLOSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

31. To what extent does the child's maternal grandmother provide support to you in times of need (for example, advice, information, financial help)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SHE DOES NOT PROVIDE SUPPORT</th>
<th>PROVIDES A LITTLE</th>
<th>PROVIDES SOME</th>
<th>PROVIDES A LOT</th>
<th>PROVIDES MOST OF MY SUPPORT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

32. To what extent does the maternal grandmother physically care for your children?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NEVER</th>
<th>VERY LITTLE</th>
<th>SOMETIMES</th>
<th>QUITE OFTEN</th>
<th>ALL THE TIME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

33. How important is it that your children interact with (for example, see and speak to) and get to know their maternal grandmother?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NOT IMPORTANT</th>
<th>SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT</th>
<th>IMPORTANT</th>
<th>VERY IMPORTANT</th>
<th>EXTREMELY IMPORTANT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Appendix C

For information regarding the battery of questionnaires included in this study, please contact Jean M. Muransky, 175 E. Adams Street, East Palestine, OH 44413.

The questionnaires included copyrighted material and cannot be reproduced in their entirety.
Appendix D

Child Informed Consent

I understand that I have been asked to be in a project looking at my relationship with my grandparents. If I agree to be in this project I will answer a number of questions about my grandmother. This will take about one hour.

I understand that I do not have to answer any questions that I do not want to. I also can stop being in this project at any time. It won't make any difference in my grade if I do not want to be in this study. If I feel bad about any of the questions, I can talk to my teacher or Jean M. Muransky (the researcher) about it.

I understand that my name won't be used and the researcher will not tell anyone what I said because it is private. I will keep my answers private too.

If I have any questions, I can ask my parents or my teacher or have them call Jean M. Muransky at (330) 426-4317.

I have had a chance to ask questions. I volunteer to be in this project.

Signature ________________________________ Date ________________

Researcher ________________________________