INTRODUCING PARASOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS TO FAMILY COMMUNICATION SCHOLARSHIP: A TRIPARTITE MODEL OF FAMILY COMMUNICATION PATTERNS, PARENTAL MANAGEMENT OF CHILDREN’S PARASOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS, AND PARENT-CHILD BONDING

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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ABSTRACT

PSRs are one-sided, emotionally-tinged relationships with media characters such as Peter Pan, Batman; Disney characters such as Mickey Mouse, Cinderella, and Mulan; and celebrities such as Justin Bieber, Rihanna, and Harry Stiles (Giles, 2000). This project situates children’s PSRs within the family communication environment by exploring the relationships between Family Communication Patterns (FCPs), parental management of PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Four parental management of PSRs behaviors, Guiding, Prohibiting, Supporting, and Neutrality, were studied with respect to the Conversation and Conformity orientations of FCPs. Parental management behaviors of Guiding, Prohibiting, and Supporting had significant impacts on perceptions of parent-child bonding, but Neutrality on its own did not have any significant influence. Guiding was manifested through the FCP path of Conformity instead of Conversation. Prohibiting had a strong inverse relationship with perceptions of parent-child bonding. Besides Conformity, Prohibiting also had a significant pathway through Conversation. Supporting had a strong and positive relationship with perceptions of parent-child bonding and a significant pathway through Conversation but not through Conformity. Although Neutrality on its own did not have a significant impact, it had a significant impact through Conformity.

Overall, this study fulfills its goal to look at the impact of parental communication behaviors on perceptions of the parent-child relationship. In the context of PSRs, parental communication about managing children’s PSRs is significantly related to the perceptions of parent-child bonding, and the impact of these micro communication behaviors is mediated by the overarching communication environment. Therefore, this study recommends that PSRs can be
introduced to the mainstream discussion of interpersonal relationships such that family communication scholarship can explore the role of PSRs beyond media effects.
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Parental communication behaviors constitute the family communication environment (FCE) and are considered strong influencers that impact children (Austin, Roberts & Nass, 1990). For example, FCE influences children’s media socialization (Valenzuela, Bachmann & Aguilar, 2016) and interpretation of television content (Austin et al., 1990). The FCE perspective relies on the understanding that communication within the family leads to complex cognitive processes that influence an individual’s relational memories as well as interpretations of specific communication content (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002a). Koerner and Fitzpatrick’s (2002a) theory of family communication, family communication patterns theory (FCPT), specifies that, “…social cognition, particularly cognition about relationships, should be central to the creation and interpretation of interpersonal behavior” (p. 73).

This study focuses on children’s cognition of parent-child relationships by looking at the impact of parental management of children’s parasocial relationships (PSRs) (defined later) on their perceptions of bonding with parents. In family psychology, empirical evidence on parental management of children’s peer relationships (Mounts, 2002) asserts that parents are naturally inclined to manage children’s social relationships in the following ways: Guiding, prohibiting, neutrality, and supporting (Mounts, 2002). Parental management of children’s peer relationships is studied as an influencer that impacts outcomes such as children’s social skills (Mounts, 2011), drug use (Mounts, 2002), and quality of future relationships (Madsen, 2008). Such outcomes are external to the parent-child relationship; the impact of parental management of children’s peer relationships on internal parent-child relationship outcomes is yet to be explored.

It stands to reason that parental management of peer relationships (e.g., allowing sleepovers, enforcing curfew times, etc.) would generate perceptions of parental support (or lack
thereof) of peer relationships in children. These perceptions, in turn, could impact children’s perceptions about the parent-child relationship itself. The management of children’s social relationships can be considered a communicative behavior because parents use communication (guiding, prohibiting, neutrality, supporting) to manage children’s social relationships (Mounts, 2002). Therefore, parental management of children’s social relationships can be considered a part of the family communication environment.

This study looked at a specific type of children’s social relationships: Parasocial relationships (PSRs). PSRs are one-sided, emotionally-tinged relationships with media characters such as Peter Pan, Batman; Disney characters such as Mickey Mouse, Cinderella, and Mulan; and celebrities such as Justin Bieber, Rihanna, and Harry Styles (Giles, 2000). Most U.S. children develop at least one PSR with a character from TV, movies, or video games (Brunick, Putnam, McGarry, Richards, & Calvert, 2016). Children often consider these mediated characters as their friends. It stands to reason that parents and children communicate regarding children’s PSRs during everyday parent-child communication. Similar to parental management of children’s social relationships, parental communicative behavior towards children’s PSRs can be guiding, prohibiting, neutral, or supportive.

One can say that there are a number of ways for parents to be involved (or not) in children’s PSRs. Parents may initially serve as a link between media characters and children. Parents are usually the first to introduce media in children’s lives by way of books, television, movies, and games. Some examples of parental communicative behaviors to support and encourage children’s PSRs are buying soft toy replicas of media characters (e.g., Disney’s Mickey Mouse), encouraging children to watch a particular cartoon show (e.g., Dora, the explorer), and taking children to theme parks and movies based on certain media characters (e.g.,
Harry Potter). Beyond the role of initiating PSIs of children, parents can continue to communicate with children about PSRs in many ways. For example, parents may choose to encourage children to engage with or control exposure to certain media characters. As a part of monitoring children’s media consumption, parents can also choose to restrict access to certain video games or verbally object to children’s fantasies about a cartoon character; such behavior can communicate lack of parental support or even parental objection towards children’s PSRs.

Parenting behaviors similar to these examples are usually studied under the broad areas of parent-child media consumption (Connell, Lauricella, & Wartella, 2015; Coyne, Padilla-Walker, Fraser, Fellows, & Day, 2014) or parental mediation and monitoring (Collier, Coyne, Rasmussen, Hawkins, Padilla-Walker, Erickson, Memmott-Elison, 2016). Three styles of mediation are commonly reported: restrictive, active, and co-use (Zaman, Nouwen, Vanattendhoven, Ferrerre, & Looy, 2016). Restrictive mediation focuses on putting limits on screen time, content, and schedule. This type of mediation can be compared to parental management behavior of prohibiting. Active mediation focuses on active involvement of parents in children’s media through instructive or constructive conversations on media use and media content. This mediation style can be compared to the parental management behavior of guiding. Co-use focuses on shared media activities and common interests. During the co-use style of mediation, the parent emerges as a helper or buddy. This mediation style can be compared to the parental management behavior of supporting. In a given situation, one can also choose to not communicate. Similarly, parents can choose not to get involved and mediate children’s media use. Such behavior is comparable to the parental management behavior of neutrality.

Similar to FCE scholarship, research on media consumption as well as parental mediation does not provide any information on children’s emotional responses to perceived parental
communicative behaviors towards children’s PSRs. It is useful to develop an understanding of children’s emotional responses in this context because of two reasons: 1. Children are emotionally invested in PSRs; their emotional response to the perceptions of parental attitudes towards PSRs can generate information pathways to bonding with parents. 2. The emerging technological advances in the field of interactive media are creating a world more conducive to PSRs (e.g., use of interactive devices such as Amazon’s Alexa); therefore, PSRs are now poised to become a more active part of family communication environments.

The findings of this project present an argument to include children’s PSRs in the study of family communication environments and claim that children’s perceptions of parental management of PSRs impact their emotional response of bonding with the parent. This study approaches communication from the receiver’s perspective; hence, the perceptions of children were studied. Parents may not be conscious of their communicative behaviors, but they manage children’s PSRs by way of monitoring media use and other parenting practices such as buying toys and merchandise that are based on themes related to media characters. Although the goal of parental communicative behaviors may not be directed towards management of children’s PSRs, the symbolic interpretation of parental communication is central to children’s perceptions. The following sections provide detailed reasoning for the claims about the importance of PSRs for children and for the relevance of PSRs with reference to family communication.

**Children’s Parasocial Relationships**

Individuals tend to form close interpersonal relationships, and this tendency is extended towards media characters (Bond & Calvert, 2014). PSRs are defined as one-sided, emotionally-tinged relationships with media characters where the media characters are treated as almost real people (Giles, 2002). As a result of media consumption (books, TV, movies, Internet, live shows,
and video games), characters such as Winnie-the-Pooh, and Peter Pan become a part of children’s worlds, and children form emotionally meaningful relationships with such mediated characters (Gola, Richards, Lauricella, & Calvert, 2013).

PSRs develop through parasocial interactions (PSIs) with media characters (Horton & Wohl, 1956). PSI is an occurrence that happens while a viewer is engaged in a viewing experience (Horton & Wohl, 1956). During this experience, the viewer may have a one-sided sense of interaction with the media character of interest. PSRs, however, go beyond a single viewing experience and develop into a sense of feeling a face-to-face contact with the media character. PSRs exist on a spectrum such that the experience of face-to-face contact could be a possibility, a reality, or an occurrence that never happens but is desired, or an occurrence that has no possibility of ever happening (Giles, 2000). The exclusivity of PSRs lies in the fact that although the experiencer feels a close connection, the relationships are always one-sided.

Children can be strongly attached to the characters of their PSRs. They perceive and treat their favorite characters as real people (Rosaen & Dibble, 2008). Richards and Calvert (2017) say that, “Putting characters to sleep and thinking that characters get hungry are characteristic of young children’s play patterns and are early indicators of toddlers’ parasocial relationships” (p. 230). Children as young as 18 to 21 months can develop PSRs with media characters (Gola et al., 2013). Children’s favorite characters may change with time, but the strength of children’s PSRs in general increases as children get older (Richards & Calvert, 2017). Given the importance of PSRs to children, it stands to reason that children’s perceptions of parental attitudes towards PSRs is worthy of scholarly attention. The next section provides an overview of parental involvement in children’s PSRs.
Parental Involvement in Children’s PSRs

Although parents may not use the label “parasocial relationship” for their child’s relationship with a particular character from television, movies, or games, parents often are aware and vigilant about children’s PSRs by way of managing children’s media use. This section provides reasons for parents’ natural tendency to be involved with children’s PSRs. On one hand, parents understand the importance of watching TV, playing with toys, and having fun in general as essential for healthy development of a child (Vittrup, Snider, Rose, & Rippy, 2016). On the other hand, parents want to keep an eye on what their children are watching, along with the time spent on media-related activities (Nikken & Schols, 2015). As mentioned earlier, parental monitoring of media suggests that parental involvement in children’s PSRs exists within the purview of parent-child communication.

Parents often bring pop culture references into their conversations with children. For example, parents introduce children to the psychological phenomenon of self-distancing by asking questions like, “What would Batman do?” White and Carlson (2016) describe self-distancing as an act where a person tries to think beyond a personal egocentric perspective. Parents use this tactic to help a child consider a third-person perspective in different situations. Many parents introduce media as a learning tool (e.g., educational games) (Nikken & Schols, 2015). Educational tools also provide a platform for PSIs and PSRs with the mediated characters (e.g., Dora the Explorer). In conclusion, parents consider media as useful for children (Nikken & Schols, 2015), and parents also feel the need to control media exposure (Rideout, 2007).

The natural inclination to monitor children’s media use does not automatically make parents knowledgeable about children’s PSRs. More often than not parents do not have accurate knowledge of children’s favorite characters (Richards & Calvert, 2016). In a comparison of
parents’ and children’s perceptions about young children’s PSRs, Richards and Calvert (2016) reported that only a third of parents were correctly guessed their child’s favorite character. This difference in ideas about favorite characters indicates that parents and children may have disagreements about young children’s PSIs and PSRs.

Empirical evidence supports that it is beneficial for children, “When parents spend time and communicate with their children in ways that confirm them as valuable human beings” (Schrodt, Ledbetter, & Ohrt, 2007). In the light of this fact, it stands to reason that disagreements about children’s PSRs could convey lack of confirmation of children’s choices. Alternatively, parental support for PSRs could be perceived as confirmation of children’s choices. Therefore, specific parental communication about children’s PSRs could contribute to children’s relational knowledge about the parent-child relationship.

According to a survey conducted by Kaiser Family Foundation, parents feel that they have good control over media content at home, but they do not have control over media that their children consume at a friend’s place (Rideout, 2007). The same survey reports that parents feel overwhelmed about monitoring children’s media consumption; a parent is quoted in the survey: “They [children] are constantly being lured by the media. There are times I give in. There is too much out there that I have to monitor” (Rideout, 2007, p.1). In such a scenario, it is quite possible that children develop PSRs of which their parents may not approve. Also, similar to children’s peer relationships, parents may or may not guide, prohibit, or support children’s PSRs; thus, leading to neutrality towards children’s PSRs.

This section provided reasoning to support the assumption that parents are naturally inclined to be involved in children’s PSRs. The following parental roles naturally incline parents to be involved in children’s PSRs: 1. The role of introducing media (by way of books, TV,
movies, video games, etc.) to children. 2. The role of managing children’s media use. 3. More importantly, the role of ensuring children’s safety and well-being. These reasons may lead to parental management of children’s PSRs. The next section draws a parallel between parental management of children’s peer relationships and parental management of children’s PSRs.

**Parental Management of Children’s PSRs**

As stated earlier, parental communicative behaviors to manage children’s PSRs are comparable to parental behaviors to manage children’s peer relationships. The concept of parental management of children’s relationships was developed in the context of children’s peer relationships (Mounts, 2002). Based on ecological theory, Mounts (2002) developed this concept along with a scale to measure parental management of adolescent peer relationships. This line of research was developed on the premise that parents are naturally inclined to monitor their children’s peer relationships. Furthermore, there is documented evidence that the susceptibility to peer influence increases and susceptibility to parental influence decreases during adolescence (Mounts, 2002). Parental knowledge about this fact increases their inclination towards managing their children’s peer relationships.

Mounts (2004) argues that the reason for this natural inclination towards managing children’s peer relationships is because parenting includes the following roles: Parent as a designer of the child’s environment, parent as a mediator, parent as a supervisor, and parent as a consultant. The ‘parent as a designer of child’s environment’ role includes parental choices about neighborhoods, so they can control the kind of peer relationships available to their children. Comparing this to children’s parasocial relationships, parents can control the accessibility of media and in turn control the availability of PSIs and PSRs.
As mediators, parents can facilitate children’s peer relationships by introducing them to new peers, by creating opportunities to interact with desirable peers, and by reducing opportunities of interaction with undesirable peers. This parenting practice is labeled and measured as the ‘guiding friendships’ subscale on Mounts’ (2002) Parental Management of Peers Inventory (PMPI). In the context of children’s PSRs, parents can introduce media characters to children and encourage or discourage PSIIs and PSRs.

The ‘parent as a supervisor role’ involves direct interventions to supervise children’s peer relationships. Such behaviors are different from mediator behaviors because supervising behaviors do not include creating opportunities for new peer relationships. In the supervisor role, parents primarily focus on maintaining tight control of existing relationships. This parenting practice is labeled and measured as ‘prohibiting friendships’ on Mounts’ (2002) PMPI. A parallel example for children’s PSRs could be parental control to keep children away from violent video games to ensure that children do not interact with violent characters.

As consultants, parents offer advice on peer relationships and help children manage conflicts or difficulties in peer relationships. This role is different from mediating and supervising because in this role parents help children by providing advice regardless of their own opinion about the peer. This parenting practice is labeled and measured as ‘supporting friendships’ on Mounts’ (2002) PMPI. Similar to their role as consultants for peer relationships, parents can offer advice on PSRs; for example, parents might provide advice on managing setbacks when children’s favorite TV series goes off-air or their favorite fictional character dies or leaves a show. The above discussion does not imply that parents necessarily choose between the parenting practices listed above. Parents can also choose to not be involved in children’s peer
relationships. This parenting behavior is labeled and measured as ‘neutrality’ on Mounts’ (2002) PMPI. Similar to peer relationships, parents can also be neutral in managing children’s PSRs.

Since this study looks at children’s perceptions (not at parental intentions), the focus of this study will be on parental communicative behaviors of guiding PSRs, prohibiting PSRs, supporting PSRs, and neutrality towards PSRs. To explain further, even when parents limit screen time with the intention of regulating the child’s media use, the child may perceive the act as a barrier between herself and her favorite media character. Similarly, parents may not consciously buy merchandise to support the child’s PSR with a particular character, but the child may perceive the act as supportive behavior towards her PSR. Parental management of children’s PSRs can be symbolic of parental confirmation (or lack thereof) of children’s PSRs; and this in turn can impact children’s perceptions about the parent-child relationship. This section compared parental management of children’s peer relationships to parental management of children’s PSRs. The next section situates children’s PSRs in the family communication environment.

**Children’s PSRs and Family Communication**

In family communication scholarship, parental communication behaviors are largely studied through the lens of family communication patterns theory (FCPT). Family communication patterns (FCP), defined as communication norms that characterize the family communication environment (Rirchie, & Fitzpatrick, 1990), impact social development and well-being of family members. These patterns, measured along the dimensions of conversation (the quantity and quality of talk between family members) and conformity (the scope of variability in attitudes, values, and beliefs), predict parent-child relationship satisfaction (Burns & Pearson, 2011) along with emotional well-being, future relationship competence, and communication competence of children (Schrodt, Witt, & Messersmith, 2008).
FCP scholarship stresses the importance of studying FCP in general and parental communication behaviors in particular to understand, explain, predict, and influence children’s social behavior and well-being (Schrodt, 2009). In a meta-analysis of 56 studies, Schrodt et al. (2008) reported that conversation and conformity orientations (considered collectively as well as individually) have a small but meaningful relationship with cognitive activities, relational behavior, and overall individual well-being. Further research reveals that this relationship can be mediated and moderated by parental communication practices. Specific parental behaviors, such as parental confirmation and affection, mediate or moderate the influence of family communication patterns on children’s behavior and well-being (Schrodt et al., 2007).

An example of mediating or moderating behavior might be as follows. The overall family communication environment may not be very encouraging for children to express themselves, and this may negatively impact children’s self-esteem; however, parental confirmation (statements such as, “I like your choice”) may mediate this influence (Schrodt et al., 2007). Schrodt et al. (2007) called on family communication researchers to explore, “…parental communication behaviors that could potentially mediate or moderate the influence of family communication patterns on child behavioral and psychosocial outcomes” (p. 43). Parental management of children’s social relationships in general, and PSRs in particular, are parental communication behaviors that could potentially mediate the relationship between FCP and children’s sense of bonding with their parents.

**Rationale of the Study**

This study is theoretically and practically useful for four reasons: First, children’s PSRs co-exist with children’s family and social relationships, and parental management of children’s PSRs exists within the purview of parent-child communication. Parental involvement in
children’s PSRs is similar to parental involvement in other face-to-face relationships (Bond & Calvert, 2014). For example, when parents say, “Let’s see what your friend Mickey Mouse is doing here” or set a place at the table for Mickey Mouse, they confirm their child’s relationship with Mickey Mouse. Inclusion of children’s PSRs in the purview of parent-child communication increases the comprehensiveness of the family communication environment.

Second, technological advances leading to the presence of smart devices in American households and advances in media programming create a social environment that is conducive to children’s PSRs. Conversations with Amazon’s Alexa, Google’s Siri, and other digital characters are becoming an everyday reality. For example, in his keynote address at Google I/O ’18, Pichai (2018) introduced the idea of including family development researchers and professionals so that the Google Assistant understands and reinforces the use of “please” to ensure that children use polite language while interacting with smart devices. This suggestion indicates that the presence of PSIs and PSRs within families will increase with time. The proposed study will initiate a line of research that includes PSIs and PSRs in the study of family communication.

Third, besides the overall increase in the possibilities for PSIs and PSRs, another reason to study children’s PSRs is that children are emotionally invested in their PSRs (Calvert, 2017). This is not a new or recent phenomenon; Hoffner (1996) documented that children tend to identify with media characters, and they treat media characters as real people. In view of these facts, it is important to include children’s PSRs in the study of family communication because PSRs are a part of children’s reality.

Fourth, this study can make theoretical contributions to the study of family communication as well as the study of parental management of children’s social relationships. Both of these areas study the impact of parental communicative behaviors; however, the outcome
variables of studies in these areas are external to the parent-child relationship. For example, Mounts (2011) studied the impact of parental management of peer relationships on adolescents’ early social skills; the outcome variable, social skills, is a trait that is generally exhibited in the outside world. It is pertinent to note that parents manage peer relationships of the children, and these relationships are emotionally important for children. It stands to reason that parental communicative behaviors to manage these relationships could impact the parent-child relationship itself. Hence, this study will extend family communication scholarship and parental management of children’s social relationships scholarship by bringing these areas of study together and by turning the focus of the impacts of parental communicative behaviors towards the parent-child relationship.

Due to the reasons stated above, this study will contribute to the theory and practice of family communication in general and parent-child communication in particular. The focus on children’s perceptions of parental management of PSRs will provide useful insights into children’s cognition of the parent-child relational schema from the receiver’s perspective. The research goals for this study are to situate the study of children’s PSRs in the family communication environment research, to extend the theories of family communication and parental management of children’s social relationships, and to study the impact of parental communicative behaviors on the parent-child relationship. The following section delineates the plan to fulfill these research goals.

**Overview of the Study**

Similar to perceived parental management of peers, perceived parental management of PSRs can influence children’s cognition of the parent-child relationship. However, similar to perceived parental management of peers, the impact of perceived parental management of PSRs
on children’s cognition of the parent-child relationship needed to be explored. This study
explored the relationship between FCP, perceived parental management of children’s PSRs, and
perceptions of bonding with the parent. Two tripartite models were proposed for comparison.

FCPT was used as the theoretical framework because in their seminal work on family
communication patterns, Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) defined family as, “…a communication
environment that influences child’s use of news media, including television, by way of family
norms that emphasize either an orientation to maintaining a harmonious relationship with parents
(socio-orientation) or an orientation to open expression of ideas and active engagement in debate
(concept-orientation)” (p. 523). This definition of family, focused on media socialization of
children, leads to studying children’s PSRs within the context of the family communication
environment.

Therefore, this study utilized the core concepts of FCPT to explore if the relationship
between overarching family communication environment and perceptions of parent-child
bonding is moderated by specific communication behavior of parental management of children’s
PSRs. Alternatively, the effects of specific communication behaviors can be mediated by the
overarching family communication environment because specific communication behaviors may
be interpreted with respect to the overarching communication environment. Hence, the
alternative model explored if the relationship between specific communication behavior of
parental management of children’s PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding is mediated by
the overarching family communication environment.

This chapter introduced the concept of children’s PSRs and situated children’s PSRs
within the family communication environment. Chapter 2 provides a detailed review of literature
on FCPT and parental management of peer relationships. Chapter 2 also provides the reasoning
behind using FCPT as the theoretical lens for this study, extends the concept of parental management of peer relationships to parental management of PSRs, and provides a conceptual definition for parent-child bonding. Furthermore, Chapter 2 expands upon the overarching research question and proposes hypotheses, research questions, and models for this study. Chapter 3 provides the details of methods used for data collection and analysis. Chapter 4 provides a detailed account of results and Chapter 5 discusses the implications of the findings along with future directions for research.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The preceding chapter established that children’s PSRs need scholarly attention in the context of family communication; more specifically, parent-child communication. The following assumptions are drawn from the rationale stated in the previous chapter: 1.) Children’s PSRs co-exist with other relationships in children’s lives, and communication about children’s PSRs is a part of their family communication environment. 2.) Parental management of children’s PSRs (or lack thereof) communicates their support (or lack thereof) of children’s PSRs. 3.) Children’s perceptions of parental management of PSRs can impact the parent-child relational schema, which in turn can impact children’s perception of bonding with their parents. These assumptions provide a frame of reference for hypotheses, research questions, and models proposed in this chapter.

Children’s PSRs and Family Communication Patterns Theory

Mediated PSRs emerge as a result of media consumption, and media consumption enables more connectivity between parents and children (Coyne et al., 2014). Parents use media as a tool to create collective memories (Coyne et al., 2014) such as movie nights, concerts, video game nights, and pretend play dates. The nature of such efforts indicates that family-specific communication environments can promote or dissuade media-related activities, which in turn promote or dissuade children’s PSRs.

Family Communication Patterns Theory (FCPT) not only explains communicative behaviors, but it also predicts communication choices and behaviors of both parents and children (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b). As stated earlier, past studies show that FCP can predict a range of communication behaviors such as communication apprehension, communication in romantic
relationships, and workplace communication (Koerner & Schrodt, 2014). Along the same lines, FCPT can be helpful in explaining and predicting children’s proclivity for PSRs.

Ritchie and Fitzpatrick defined family communication patterns as a way of “measuring intrapersonal perceptions of interpersonal relationships” (1990, p. 523). Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) modified the previously conceived socio-orientation and concept-orientation and proposed a Revised Family Communication Pattern (RFCP) instrument. The new instrument had conversation and conformity orientations as dimensions of family communication. The revised measurement approach acknowledged that family members have an internal working understanding of family and relationships. This understanding constitutes the family communication environments called schemata.

FCPT states that family members’ communicative behaviors lead to the formation of relational schema; i.e., shared understanding and interpretations of accepted behaviors in the relationship (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b). The relational schema can further affect and predict family members’ future communication behaviors (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b). FCPT explains that families are characterized by their unique worldviews and by values and beliefs that define family communication environments. These values and beliefs have an impact on how family members perceive their environment and how they form relationships in the outside world, as described below:

These schemata are knowledge structures that represent the internal world of the family and provide a basis for interpreting what family members say and do. Each schemata has its own set of beliefs, attitudes, and philosophies about family life and each is characterized by very specific communication behaviors. Family communication schemata influence attention and perception, memory for
messages, inferences communicators draw from behaviors, and psychosocial outcomes. (Fitzpatrick, 2004, p. 174)

Family members’ communicative behaviors lead to the formation of relational schema; i.e., shared understanding and interpretations of accepted behaviors in the relationship (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b). The relational schema can further affect and predict family members’ future communication behaviors (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b). FCPT explains that families are characterized by their unique worldviews and by values and beliefs that define family communication environments. These values and beliefs have an impact on how family members perceive their environment and how they form relationships in the outside world (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b).

It is important to unpack Fitzpatrick’s (2004) definition of schemata because this definition provides the reasons to consider conversation and conformity orientations as variables that may impact children’s perceptions of parental management of PSRs. This definition also provides the framework for this study. The following paragraphs will provide the explanation.

First, the definition uses schemata as descriptors of family communication environments. As established earlier, PSRs are a part of children’s family communication environments. Conceptual foundations of FCPT reveal that family, to begin with, was considered a place for media socialization, and the nature of family communication environments affected media consumption in the family. Mediated PSRs are a result of media consumption; mediated PSRs exist within the purview of family communication. This phenomenon concurs with the first assumption stated at the beginning of this chapter: Children’s PSRs co-exist with other relationships in children’s lives, and communication about children’s PSRs is a part of their family communication environment.
Second, the definition says that the schemata provide “a basis to interpret what family members say and do” (Fitzpatrick, 2004, p. 174). Hence, conversation and conformity orientations could not only impact media consumption and development of PSRs, but also impact the conversations as well as the interpretation of conversations about PSRs. More specifically, children may interpret specific parental communication, which could impact the overall communication environment. This leads to the second assumption: Parental management of children’s PSRs (or lack thereof) communicates their support (or lack thereof) of children’s PSRs.

Third, the family communication schemata impact “attention and perception, memory for messages, inferences communicators draw for behaviors, and psychosocial outcomes” (Fitzpatrick, 2004, p. 174). These inferences may impact children’s perceptions of parent-child bonding because children may draw inferences from parental behaviors confirming or not confirming children’s PSRs. Such confirmations impact the perceptions about the parent-child bond because parental confirmations can be symbolic of their trust and appreciation of children’s choices (Mounts & Kim, 2009). This leads to the third assumption: Children’s perceptions of parental management of PSRs can impact the parent-child relational schema, which in turn can impact children’s perception of bonding with their parents.

**Conversation and Conformity Orientations**

The understanding of FCP in general and parent-child relational schema in particular is operationalized through measurement of conversation and conformity orientations in a family. Conversation orientation is defined as, “…the degree to which families create a climate in which all family members are encouraged to participate in unrestrained interactions about a wide array of topics” (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b, p. 37). Families that are high on this dimension create
an environment to include a lot of time for shared activities and interactions. These activities and interactions include a variety of subjects. Conformity orientation is defined as, “…the degree to which family communication stresses a climate of homogeneity of attitudes, values, and beliefs” (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b, p. 37). Families high in conformity orientation focus on having similar beliefs and attitudes. These families favor traditional family structures, where elders have more power in decision making. Family members are expected to keep family interests above personal interests.

Thus, conversation orientation is the degree of openness in terms of having conversations about a wide range of topics, while the conformity orientation is the degree to which family communication creates a climate of agreement on rules, values, and beliefs. Based on these orientations, FCPT classifies families into four types: Consensual (high conversation, high conformity), protective (low conversation, high conformity), pluralistic (high conversation, low conformity), and laissez-faire (low conversation, low conformity). Each family type has different implications for family functioning and communicative behavior of children. The following discussion explains how each family type may explain and predict children’s proclivity towards PSRs.

Consensual families. Consensual families are high in conversation orientation as well as conformity orientation. This means that parents try to be open about discussing a variety of topics while maintaining a firm stance on rules (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002a). However, the rules are not thrust upon children. Parents try to explain the reasons behind their beliefs and values. Children in these families experience a tension between pressure to agree and the pressure to preserve the hierarchy. In such a scenario, parents may, for example, limit their children’s media exposure. Parents may try to control media time and ensure that the media
content is appropriate for children. This control may restrict children’s parasocial experience and may result in efforts to limit the PSRs these children have. Because of openness of discussions, parents and children may also share PSRs, and parents may try to socialize children into their own PSRs, such as sports mascots, for example. Parental efforts in consensual families are likely to be inclined towards guiding behavior in terms of parental management of children’s PSRs.

**Protective families.** Protective families are high in conformity and low in conversation. Obedience of parental authority takes precedence over discussions (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002a). Parents believe they should be making decisions for children, and children consider family communication as less valuable. Eventually, children in these families may distrust their own decisions and may be easily influenced by others. In other words, these children may be more impressionable and have a higher tendency to form PSRs. It is plausible that parents would impose rules on media and technology use more firmly in protective families. Hence, children in protective families may acquire PSRs through their peers. Similarly, if parents in such families have an opinion that a certain media character (e.g., Dora the Explorer) may have a positive influence on children, they may try to impose such PSRs on children, and this could either result in conformity or non-conformity depending upon children’s personalities. Parental efforts in protective families are likely to be inclined towards prohibitive behavior in terms of parental management of PSRs.

**Pluralistic families.** Pluralistic families are high in conversation and low in conformity. The discussions in these families are open and more frequent. Hierarchy is less important; hence, everyone participates in decision-making, and individual opinions are valued (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002a). Children in such families may form more satisfying PSRs because they can engage in collective sensemaking through open conversations. Also, openness in conversation
and less emphasis on hierarchy may create an atmosphere where children may not feel judged about forming a PSR. For example, there is a higher chance of different family members supporting different football teams in such a family, and those choices may be respected. Parental efforts in pluralistic families are likely to be inclined towards supportive behavior in terms of parental management of children’s PSRs.

Laissez-faire families. Laissez-faire families are low on both conversation and conformity. As a result, there are few, uninvolved interactions. Such an environment can make children feel that their opinions are less valued. These families also have low parental monitoring (Koerer & Fitzpatrick, 2002a). Hence, there might be less control over children’s media use, thereby creating more media exposure. As a result, children may have a greater opportunity to form PSRs. Psychologically, children in these families may experience a compensation mechanism to parasocially create the conversations/ experiences missing in their family environment (Giles & Maltby, 2004). Parental efforts in laissez-faire families are likely to be inclined towards neutral behavior in terms of parental management of children’s PSRs.

This section establishes that PSRs are important for children, and family communication around PSRs may have an impact on children’s proclivity for PSRs. Additionally, family conversation schema may influence parental management of children’s PSRs. Based on FCPT’s core concept that specific communication messages lead to general relational schemas, it can be concluded that parental confirmation in general and parental confirmation of children’s PSRs in particular can impact children’s perception of bonding with their parents. Since there a multitude of parental communication behaviors, it is more plausible to think that parental management of children’s PSRs will moderate (instead of mediate) the relationship between FCP and perceptions of parent-child bonding. The next section provides a literature review of parental
management of children’s social relationships followed by a section on the outcome variable, parent-child bonding.

**Parental Management of Children’s Social Relationships**

As stated in chapter 1, parental management of children’s social relationships is studied from a family psychology perspective. This perspective rests on the premise that parents are naturally inclined to manage children’s peer relationships (Mounts 2002) because of children’s tendency to want more autonomy as they age; children are known to pull away from parents and form new social relationships, especially peer relationships, as they grow up (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Parents typically face the dilemma to protect children from harm while maintaining their role of providing nurturing and care (Sharma & Burnett, 2016). Children’s inclination towards spending time with their peers and making their own choices can worry parents about children’s well-being. This inclination could also be true in the context of children’s PSRs and motivate parents to choose specific parenting practices for the management of children’s PSRs.

Darling and Steinberg (1993) are proponents of the view that scholars need to distinguish between parenting styles and parenting practices. These authors defined parenting style as a context in their integrative model of parenting practices, child development and socialization (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Their integrative model argued that questions concerning children’s socialization can be addressed by distinguishing global and specific parenting practices. They explained that parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, neglectful) form the macrocosm of the parenting climate and specific goal-directed parenting behaviors (e.g.: monitoring peer relationships) form the microcosm. They also argued that researchers need to
focus on the micro processes because these micro processes may mediate or moderate the effects of macro processes.

Schrodt et al. (2007) presented a similar argument to study specific communication behaviors that mediate or moderate the effects of the family communication environment. Along these lines, we can consider parent-child relational bonding as a parenting goal, parental management of children’s PSRs as a micro parenting practice, and the family communication environment as a parallel concept to the emotional climate defined by parenting styles. Therefore, it is proposed to study the moderating role of parental management of children’s PSRs with respect to the relationship between family communication patterns and perceptions of parent-child bonding. This section introduces the definitions of guiding, prohibiting, neutrality, and supporting as communicative behaviors with respect to parental management of children’s PSRs.

**Guiding:** This parental management approach focuses on structuring children’s peer relationships (Gerardy, Mounts, Luckner, & Valentiner, 2015) by discussing the consequences of being friends with someone (Mounts, 2002). Parents proactively provide guidance about dealing with peer-related stressful situations such as conflict management (Gerardy et al., 2015). Guiding also includes parental communication about their expectations, norms, and values regarding peer relationships (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Smits, Lowet, & Goossens, 2007). Guiding is similar to the practice of pre-arming, which involves preparing children for potential problems such as racial hostility from peers (Padilla-Walker, Christensen, & Day, 2011). As stated earlier, parents from consensual families would be inclined towards guiding behavior.

**Prohibiting:** Soenens et al. (2007) define prohibiting as the parental management practice that restricts children from interacting with particular peers. These practices involve efforts to
shield children from potentially harmful people. These practices are similar to cocooning, wherein, “…parents actively seek to align exterior influences on children with their personal values or wishes” (Padilla-Walker et al., 2011, p. 204). Some examples of prohibiting are restricting violent media, not allowing certain friends to visit, and verbally expressing disapproval of certain friends. As stated earlier, parents from protective families would be inclined towards prohibiting behavior.

*Supporting:* With respect to children’s peer relationships, Mounts (2002) defines supporting behavior as parental behaviors that convey their support for children’s choices; for example, encouraging children to have friends for a sleep over, or letting children stay beyond curfew time with certain friends. Parents can similarly support children’s PSRs by allowing them to watch a certain cartoon series for an extended period of time, or by pre-booking tickets to their child’s favorite performer’s concert. As stated earlier, parents from pluralistic families would be more inclined towards supportive behavior.

*Neutrality:* Mounts (2002) defined neutrality as a strategy wherein parents refrain from interfering with children’s peer relationships, “…perhaps because of the parent’s belief that who their child selects as friends is their own individual choice” (p. 59). The decision to refrain from interfering with children’s peer relationships could also happen because parents do not want to convey any lack of trust. This lack of interfering could very well emerge in a laissez-faire family because there are fewer conversations and rules. Similar to laissez-faire families, lack of parental involvement could also convey lack of parental concern.

The overall framework of FCPT stands on the premise that parental behavior in terms of conversation and conformity orientations constructs the family communication environment.
Therefore, it can be concluded that micro communication behaviors, such as parental management of children’s PSRs, build the macro communication environment in the family. Besides situating PSRs within the family communication environment, the primary goal of this study is to compare these two theoretical models. The next section presents perceived parent-child bonding as the outcome variable for this study, followed by a detailed description of the proposed theoretical models.

**Perceived Parent-Child Bonding**

Parent-child bonding is of scholarly interest because empirical evidence suggests that parent-child bonding acts as a strong buffer between young adults and life challenges (Lenzin, Rolleri, Bean, & Taylor, 2004). It protects young adults from health and social problems such as drug use and violence (Lenzin et al., 2004). In a comprehensive report on parent-child connectedness or bonding, Lenzin et al. (2004) state that parent-child bonding has its roots in attachment theory. As per this report, the strength of parent-child bonding is indicative of the emotional climate in the family. In fact, this bond is considered the emotional capital that develops over time through everyday activities such as spending time together. Due to these reasons it is worth exploring the pathways to parent-child bonding.

Parenting styles are historically considered one of the strong influencers on the strength of parent-child bonding (Lenzin, et al., 2004). Parenting styles are a combination of the climate of trust (physical and emotional support, openness, protection, and encouragement), communication (verbal and non-verbal messages about love, warmth, and general exchange of ideas), appropriate structure (discipline, monitoring, and guidance), and shared time (including meaningful interaction along with guidance, support, play) (Lenzin et al., 2004). As stated in Chapter 1, parenting styles are relevant to FCE because Darling and Steinberg (1993) describe
parenting styles as macro environments in the family. This phenomenon leads to the idea of possible theoretical linkage between FCE and young adults’ perceptions of parent-child bonding.

In terms of FCPT, conversation orientation is positively linked to interpersonal communication satisfaction (Punyanunt-Carter, 2008). Also, everyday communication (or everyday talk) impacts relational satisfaction between parents and children (Schrodt, Soliz, & Braithwaite, 2008). These findings indicate that the macro communication environment and micro communication events both have an impact on relational outcomes and can impact the perceptions of parent-child bonding. Therefore, it is worth exploring the pathways between the macro communication environments, micro communication processes, and relational outcomes.

This study specifically operationalizes the macro communication environment as young adults’ perceived FCP, micro communication processes as young adults’ perceived parental management of PSRs, and relational outcome as perceived parent-child bonding. The literature review presented in this chapter suggests that there might be pathways connecting FCE, Parental Management of PSRs, and perceived parent-child bonding. This leads to the overarching research question: What is the nature of relationships between Family Communication Environment, Parental Management of PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding? More specifically, how does parental management of PSRs impact the relationship between FCE and perceived parent-child bonding, and how does FCE impact the relationship between parental management of PSRs and perceived parent-child bonding.

RQ1a: What is impact of perceived parental management of PSRs on the relationship between Family Communication Environment and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ1b: What is the impact of Family Communication Environment on the relationship between perceived parental management of peers and perceptions of parent-child bonding?
These research questions can be answered by modeling the relationships between FCE, parental management of children’s PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding. The first model uses moderation as the analytical approach because the literature reviewed above suggests that there might be an existing relationship between FCP and perceptions of parent-child bonding. A moderator variable can be defined as, “…the changer of a relationship in a system” (Little, Card, Bovaird, Preacher, & Crandall, 2007, p. 207). Hence, parental management of children’s PSRs was tested as an influencer to the relationship between FCPs and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Alternatively, the second model uses mediation as the analytical approach because the literature reviewed above also suggests that family communication patterns would have formed before the respondents of this study reflected upon parental management of PSRs. A mediator variable can be defined as, “…the carrier or transporter of information along the causal chain of effects” (Little et al., 2007, p.207). Hence, it was speculated that the relationships between parental management of PSRs and perceived parent-child bonding would be mediated by FCPs. The next section presents the two models for the pathways between FCP, parental management of PSRs, and parent-child bonding. Related hypotheses and research questions are also presented.

**Model 1: Parental Management of Children’s PSRs as a Moderator of FCP and Parent-Child Bonding**

Family communication scholarship suggests that families are engaged in the process of becoming (Holtzman, 2008). Parent-child communication is specifically dynamic because of a multitude of changes such as life stages, contexts, and society (Holtzman, 2008). This dynamism warrants scholarly attention to the processes that re-constitute FCP by mediating or moderating
the impact of FCP. This model conceptualizes parental management of PSRs as a moderator of FCP such that parental management behaviors will enhance or subdue the impact of conversation orientation, conformity orientation, and the interaction of conversation and conformity orientations.

The literature reviewed in this chapter suggests that parental management of PSRs may influence the relationship between FCE and perceptions of parent-child bonding. Due to this condition, parental management of PSRs qualifies as a moderator variable (Little et al., 2007). As discussed earlier, conversation orientation is associated with openness and supportiveness between parents and children, and high conformity orientation is related to sharing similar values (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b). Schrodt (2009) reported that family strength and family satisfaction are functions of the family communication environment. It makes sense to extend this test to explore the connections between FCP and parent-child bonding. In fact, higher conversation orientation is associated with greater values of relational outcomes such as interpersonal communication satisfaction (Punyanunt-Carter, 2008). Therefore, it can be hypothesized that conversation orientation will be positively associated with perceptions of bonding with the parent.

Besides weak associations between conformity orientation and relational outcomes such as interpersonal communication satisfaction (Punyanunt-Carter, 2008), conformity orientation (due to the stress on rules) would also challenge children’s tendency to seek autonomy (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Therefore, it can be hypothesized that conformity orientation will be negatively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding. Furthermore, the interaction of conversation and conformity plays an important role in the analysis of the impact of FCP.
(Ledbetter & Beck, 2014). It will be worth exploring the effect of this interaction on parent-child bonding. Hence, the following hypotheses and research question are proposed:

H1: Conversation orientation will be positively associated with children’s perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H2: Conformity orientation will be negatively associated with children’s perceptions of parent-child bonding.

RQ2: How does the interaction of conversation and conformity orientations impact children’s perceptions of parent-child bonding?

In order to test the moderation effects of parental management of PSRs, it is important to consider the overall outcomes of parental management of children’s relationships research. Guiding is associated with positive outcomes in terms of socialization (Padilla-Walker et al., 2011), and guiding children’s parasocial relationships may present an opportunity for bonding. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that:

H3a: Guiding will moderate the relationship between conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of guiding will increase the positive effect of high conversation on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H3b: Guiding will moderate the relationship between conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of guiding will decrease the negative effect of high conformity on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Prohibiting is associated with negative emotional responses from children (Padilla-Walker et al., 2011) and it stands to reason that prohibiting children from spending time with their favorite media character may affect the relationship between overall FCE and perceptions of parent-child bonding. Therefore:
H4a: Prohibiting will moderate the relationship between conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of prohibiting will decrease the positive effect of high conversation on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H4b: Prohibiting will moderate the relationship between conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that high level of prohibiting will increase the negative effect of high conformity on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Supporting is associated with positive perceptions of group belongingness (Soenens et al., 2007) and similar to guiding, supporting children’s parasocial relationships may create opportunities for parent-child bonding. Therefore:

H5a: Supporting will moderate the relationship between conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of supporting will increase the positive effect of high conversation on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H5b: Supporting will moderate the relationship between conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of supporting will decrease the negative effect of high conformity on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Neutrality did not find much support as a factor in Mounts’ (2002) analysis; however, it could play an important role in for this project because not managing children’s PSRs could be perceived as lack of involvement or an act of granting freedom. Hence, it is difficult to predict the directionality of the impact of neutrality, but it is worth exploring the impact. In order to explore this impact, the following research questions are proposed:

RQ3a: How does neutrality affect the relationship between conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding?
RQ3b: How does neutrality affect the relationship between conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

Furthermore, as the answer to RQ2 will determine the nature of the relationship between interaction of conversation and conformity on children’s perceptions of parent-child bonding, it gives rise to research questions about the moderation effect of parental management of PSRs on the relationship between the interaction of conversation and conformity and perceived parent-child bonding:

RQ4: How does guiding affect the relationship between the interaction of conversation and conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ5: How does prohibiting affect the relationship between the interaction of conversation and conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ6: How does supporting affect the relationship between the interaction of conversation and conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ7: How does neutrality affect the relationship between the interaction of conversation and conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

This tripartite model tests the relationships between FCP, parental management of PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding by testing parental management of PSRs as a moderator between FCP and perceptions of parent-child bonding (Figure A1). The results will provide statistical evidence to answer RQ1a. The next section provides a detailed description of the second theoretical model tested in this study.
Model 2: FCP as a Mediator of Parental Management of Children’s PSRs and Parent-Child Bonding

The effects of media-related enjoyment go beyond entertainment (Vorderer, Klimmt, & Ritterfield, 2004). Media consumers primarily seek entertainment, but in the process of enjoying media content, consumers may form PSRs and bond with co-consumers (Vorderer et al., 2004). This model conceptualizes that due to the possibility of bonding over shared media interests, combined with the impact of parental monitoring and autonomy-granting behaviors, parental management of PSRs will have an impact on perceptions of parent-child bonding. However, it is hypothesized that this impact will be mediated by the overall communication environment in the family.

This line of reasoning is supported by Lenzin et al.’s (2004) comprehensive report on parent-child connectedness. Lenzin, et al. (2004) said that parent-child connectedness “…is characterized by the quality of the emotional bond between parent and child and the degree to which this bond is both mutual and sustained over time” (p. viii). Furthermore, Lenzin et al. (2004) added that, “Parents and children who share a high degree of connectedness enjoy spending time together, communicate freely and openly, support and respect one another, share similar values, and have a sense of optimism about the future” (p. viii). However, children’s PSRs still develop in the larger family communication environment, which means that the pathways between different styles of parental management of children’s PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding could be mediated by FCPs.

It is important to look at the FCPs as possible mediators of parental management of PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding because this study is analyzing the perceptions of young adults as they reflect upon their childhood. The FCPs would have already formed for the
participants of this study and their reflections of their past could be affected by their perceptions of FCPs. More importantly, parental management of PSRs may have contributed to the perceptions of FCPs (see the section on Conversation and Conformity orientations).

Little et al. (2007) state that one of the identifying characteristics of a mediation model is that the predictor variable has a significant relationship with the outcome variable as well as the mediating variable. The following hypotheses are proposed to test the direct relationship between the predictor variable (parental management of PSRs) and the outcome variable (perceptions of parent-child bonding) in this model:

H6: Guiding will be positively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding.
H7: Prohibiting will be negatively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding.
H8: Neutrality will be negatively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding.
H9: Supporting will be positively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Lezin et al.’s (2004) ideas of connections between spending time together, communicating freely and openly, supporting and respecting one another, sharing values, and viewing the future optimistically further enhance the possibility of a connection between parental management of PSRs and parent-child bonding. As stated earlier, the interactions over PSRs cannot happen in isolation; these interactions happen within the overarching family communication environment that often leads to building shared history beyond the context of PSRs. This warrants attention to explore if the overarching family communication environment can mediate the impact of specific parental management of PSRs on the perceptions of parent-child bonding. For example, if a child is denied permission to watch a movie, the child would process this information based on the relational memories with the specific parent. If the parent
generally grants freedom to make choices, the child may not be as upset as in the case where the parent is generally controlling. Based on this reasoning, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H10a: Conversation will mediate the relationship between guiding and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H10b: Conversation will mediate the relationship between prohibiting and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H10c: Conversation will mediate the relationship between neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H10d: Conversation will mediate the relationship between supporting and parent-child bonding.

H11a: Conformity will mediate the relationship between guiding and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H11b: Conformity will mediate the relationship between prohibiting and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H11c: Conformity will mediate the relationship between neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H11d: Conformity will mediate the relationship between supporting and parent-child bonding.

Furthermore, the effect of conversation-conformity interaction will be examined through the following research questions:

RQ8a: How does conversation-conformity interaction affect the relationship between guiding and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ8b: How does conversation-conformity interaction affect the relationship between prohibiting and perceptions of parent-child bonding?
RQ8c: How does conversation-conformity interaction affect the relationship between supporting and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ8d: How does conversation-conformity interaction affect the relationship between neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

This tripartite model tests the relationships between FCP, parental management of PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding by testing FCP as a mediator between parental management of PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding (Figure A2). The results will provide statistical evidence to answer RQ1b.

This chapter provided a detailed literature review of FCPT, parental management of PSRs, and parent-child bonding. The following theoretical models were proposed: 1. Parental management of children’s PSRs as a moderator of FCP and parent-child bonding (Figure A1), and 2. FCP as a mediator of parental management of children’s PSRs and parent-child bonding (Figure A2). Model 1 consists of eight hypotheses and seven research questions. Model 2 consists of 12 hypotheses and four research questions. These models were tested to answer the explore the relationship between FCP, parental management of PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding. A complete list of hypotheses and research questions is presented in Appendix B. Chapter 3 will expand upon the methods used to test these hypotheses and answer the research questions, followed by the results in Chapter 4 and discussion in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER 3: METHODS

This project tested the tripartite models presented in Chapter 2 (see Appendix A for the models and Appendix B for a complete list of hypotheses and research questions) to determine the relationship between the overarching family communication environment, perceived parental management of PSRs, and perceived parent-child bonding. This chapter explains the steps taken to collect and analyze the data for this project. First, a detailed description of participant protocol is provided. Second, the methodological definitions of the constructs established in Chapter 2 are provided. Third, all measurements are described along with respective validity and reliability of each scale.

Participants

The definition of family communication schemata focuses on perception and memory, and it takes time to build perceptions. Therefore, emerging adults were asked to respond on their retrospective perceptions of family communication environment, parental management of PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding. This project studied the long-term impacts of FCP and perceived parental management of PSRs on emerging adults’ perceptions of bonding with their parents. Arnett (2000) defined emerging adults as individuals between the ages of 18 to 25. This age group was appropriate for this study because individuals in this age group are considered to be capable of looking back at their childhood and reflecting upon their perceptions of parental confirmation of PSRs as well as their perceptions of bonding with their parents. The participants were recruited from a midsize Midwestern university student population. The criteria for participation was ages between 18-25 years.

A total of 431 young adults participated in this study. After removing records that were less than 70% complete, total sample size (N) was 380, which was a response rate of 88%. The
average age was 19.21 ($SD=2.44$) ranging from 18 to 36 years. Number of participants identifying themselves as male was $n=189$ and of those identifying themselves as female was $n=186$, 2 participants identified as “Other” without further specifying a gender, and 2 participants chose not to report their biological sex. The sample was predominantly white ($n=337$, 88.92%). Other ethnicities included Asian ($n=14$, 3.69%), American Indian or Alaska Native ($n=5$, 1.32%), Black or African American ($n=3$, 1.7%), Hispanic or Latino(a) ($n=5$, 1.32%). Seven participants chose to identify as “Other” and 1 chose not to respond. The young adults were also asked to identify a parent, so they could respond to the survey questions with respect to this parent. Majority of the participants identified biological mother ($n=64$, 69.47%), 100 participants (26.32%) identified their biological father, 1 participant identified their step-mother, none of the participants identified step-father, 2 participants identified grandmother (0.53%), 2 identified grandfather, and 11 (2.89%) identified “Other.”

**Procedures**

The participants were recruited via email (Appendix E). The email was sent to the students enrolled in the Introduction to Public Speaking (COMM 110) course. The project was described as a study of media characters and family communication. The students enrolled in COMM 110 received 5 points towards completion of the research requirement of the course. Students who were unable or unwilling to participate in the study were offered alternate ways to complete the research requirement. Young adults who choose to participate after reading the description in the email clicked on a link to an online survey distributed via Qualtrics (Appendix C). The survey started with the statement of informed consent (Appendix D), and the participants recorded their consent by clicking the “Continue” button at the end of the statement. COMM 110 students were required to print the last page of the survey as proof of their participation to
receive the 5 points towards their research requirement. These procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) on campus.

**Measures**

The survey began with a brief description of the purpose of the study and asked the participants to report the name of their favorite television or movie character when they were growing up (see Appendix B). With the use of Qualtrics programming, the name of the reported favorite character was inserted in the questions related to respondents’ PSRs. For example, if a respondent responded “Batman” to the favorite character question, the next question became, “Please describe when and how did Batman become your favorite character.” Questions 2-5 primed the respondent to think about their PSRs during childhood by helping them recall more information about their favorite character (e.g., please specify the movie/TV show, where X appeared, please describe when and how did X become your favorite character, please describe any activities that included X in some way (e.g., Eating meals together, movie nights, theme parties, vacations), what kind of toys, clothing, or merchandise did you have that were related to X?). The rest of the questionnaire included items to measure family communication patterns, parental management of PSRs, and parent-child bonding on Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (=strongly disagree) to 7 (=strongly agree), followed by demographic questions in the end.

The survey relied on established scales (Revised Family Communication Patterns, Parent Child Bonding Instrument) and an adapted scale (Parental Management of Peer Relationships as Parental Management of PSRs). CFA was used to test the validity of these scales. CFI (greater than or equal to .90) and SRMR (less than .08) indices were used to achieve sufficient fit. Congeneric reliabilities are also reported for each scale.
Family Communication Patterns

The children’s version of the Revised Family Communication Patterns (RFCP) (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b) was used to measure family communication patterns. The items were reworded because this study required the respondents to respond about their past. For example, the item, “In our family we often talk about topics like politics and religion where some persons disagree with others” was reworded as, “In our family we often talked about topics like politics and religion where some persons disagreed with others.” The RFCP has two subscales for conversation orientation and conformity orientation with 15 and 11 items in each scale respectively. The conversation scale showed acceptable reliability ($\Omega=.93$) with $\text{CFI}=.877$ and $\text{SRMS}=.055$. Since CFI showed some room for improvement, item 15 (“In our family we often talked about our plans and hopes for the future”) was dropped because it did not relate to the study of PSRs. This improved the CFI to $.89$, which was closer to the cutoff value of $.90$ and after this iteration reliability remained acceptable ($\Omega=.93$). Conformity scale showed low CFI = .8 and high SRMR = .09 with all 11 items. Therefore, item 11 (factor loading = .43) was dropped. This increased the CFI to .82 and reduced the SRMR to .074. Dropping more items did not improve the CFI any further. The reliability of this scale was acceptable at $\Omega=.86$. To further reduce the parameter estimates for further analysis, parcels were created by assigning the items by thirds to each parcel. Conversation subscale was clustered into three parcels: CP1, CP2, CP3, and conformity subscale was clustered into CNFP1, CNFP2, and CNFP3.

Parental Management of PSRs

Parental Management of Peers Inventory (PMPI) was introduced by Mounts (2000) in an attempt to distinguish parenting styles from specific parenting behaviors such as parental management of children’s social relationships. Mounts (2002) tested PMPI with confirmatory
factor analysis and reported that factor loadings suggested a good fit for data. Since then researchers have used this instrument in various forms. Some researchers have combined the sub-scales and looked at supporting and monitoring, while others have looked at guiding, supporting, and monitoring. This study uses the original sub-scales pertaining to guiding, neutrality, prohibiting, and supporting by adapting the questions for management of PSRs. For example, in the guiding sub-scale, “My parents talk to me about pros and cons of hanging around with certain people” was modified to, “My Y talked to me about the pros and cons of watching programs that featured X.” Here, Y refers to the parent and X refers to the media character. The reliability and factor loadings of this modified measurement are re-calculated and reported.

Guiding sub-scale had 6 items. The initial iteration of CFA revealed that the loadings for items 3 (.16) and item 4 (.17) were low. Hence, these items were dropped. After this iteration, CFI (.674) was still low and SRMR (.108) remained high. In the next iteration, item 5 was dropped because the factor loading for this item was .32. The next iteration revealed a CFI=1.0 and SRMR=0. The reliability after this iteration was acceptable at $\Omega=.71$. Neutrality subscale had 5 items. Factor loading of item 1 was low at .33. Hence it was dropped and the factor loadings for all other items were acceptable in the next iteration. Also, the CFI was acceptable at .983 and SRMR was acceptable at .035. The reliability for neutrality subscale was also acceptable at $\Omega=.78$. Prohibiting subscale had 6 items. In the first iteration, factor loadings for item 4(.28), item 5(.26), and item 6(.27) were very low. The item with the lowest factor loading, item 5 was removed in the next iteration. The loadings for items 4 and 6 remained low in the next two iterations, hence items 4 and 6 were removed. CFI after the final iteration was acceptable at 1.0 and SRMR was acceptable at 0. The reliability was acceptable at $\Omega=.91$. 
Supporting subscale had 5 items. All items loaded well and the corresponding CFI was acceptable at .96 and SRMR was acceptable at .05 with an acceptable reliability of $\Omega=.83$.

**Parent-Child Bonding**

Parker, Tupling, and Brown’s (1979) Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) was used to measure emerging adults’ perceptions of bonding with their parents. This is the most popular instrument to measure parent-child bonding. Wilhelm, Niven, Parker, and Handzi-Pavlovic (2004) examined the stability of this instrument over a 20-year period and established the long-term stability of the scale. More recently, Stafford, Kuh, Gale, Mishra, & Richards, (2016) confirmed Wilhelm et al.’s (2004) findings and reported acceptable reliabilities for the three subscales: Perceived parental care ($\alpha_{father}=.93$, $\alpha_{mother}=.91$), perceived parental behavior control ($\alpha_{father}=.75$, $\alpha_{mother}=.77$), perceived parental psychological control ($\alpha_{father}=.83$, $\alpha_{mother}=.80$).

In the current study, Parker, Tupling, and Brown’s (1979) coding scheme was used. PBI had two subscales: Care and Overprotection. Care subscale was used to measure the participants’ perception of parent-child bonding because the items in this subscale had the face validity to measure the variable of interest, i.e. perceptions of bonding with the parent. This subscale had 12 items. Items 1, 5, 6, 11, 12, and 17 were positively worded and items 2, 4, 14, 16, 18, and 24 were negatively worded and hence these were reverse-coded before running the CFA. All the items loaded well on the latent variable PCB_Care (CFI=.90, SRMR=.05). The reliability of this subscale was acceptable at $\Omega=.92$. All items on this scale were used as indicators to create parcels for further analysis.

This chapter provided a detailed explanation of the methods used to collect and analyze the data for this study. Overall, the measurement scales were reliable and valid to use for this
study. The next chapter presents the results from regression analysis and structural equation modeling used to test the hypotheses, research questions, and models proposed in Chapter 2.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The previous chapter provided descriptive statistics on the participants and reported on the validity and reliability of the scales used for data collection. This chapter reports on the results of linear regression and structural equation modeling used to answer the research questions and hypotheses proposed in Chapter 2. Model 1 was specified and tested by following Flora’s (2018) guidelines for moderation models. Model 2 was specified and tested by following Kline’s (2005) guidelines for structural equation modeling. Next, the two theoretical models are compared to draw final conclusions about the role of parental management of PSRs in family communication. The first step in the analysis was to look at the descriptive data of the PSRs reported by the participants.

The survey required the participants to identify their favorite media character from childhood because identifying a favorite character was necessary to answer the questions about parental management of PSRs. Appendix table F1 lists the top 50 favorite media characters reported by the respondents. The first 19 characters represented \( n = 244, \) 56.6\% of the responses; the remaining characters represented \( n = 80, \) 18.6\% of the responses. The most reported media character was Sponge Bob \( (n = 61), \) followed by Hannah Montana \( (n = 27). \)

As stated earlier, larger subscales (Conversation and Conformity from Revised Family Communication Patterns (RFCP), and Care from PBI) were clustered into parcels because parceling increases reliability and reduces the number of free parameter estimates (Kline, 2005; Koesten, Schrodt, & Ford, 2009). Next, the factors reported for each measurement scale were entered into a measurement model as shown in appendix figure H1. The measurement model did not require any further modifications because the CFI (=.90) was acceptable. The standard weights and congeneric reliabilities are provided in appendix Table F2. Congeneric reliability is
represented by $\Omega$, and this method of estimating internal consistency of a scale is used when the coefficient $\alpha$ cannot estimate the true reliability of the data (Graham, 2006). Graham (2006) explains that coefficient $\alpha$ is restrictive because it assumes that unidimensionality exists; hence, when this assumption is violated, coefficient $\alpha$ fails to accurately estimate the consistency of a scale. Therefore, Graham (2006) recommends using alternative ways to calculate reliability in studies where coefficient $\alpha$ can be too restrictive, for example, exploratory studies using new scales. Given that the parental management of PSRs scales were tested for the first time in this study, congeneric reliabilities were reported.

The code used for calculating congeneric reliabilities is provided in appendix Figure F1. The intercorrelations and descriptive statistics for all the indicators are provided in appendix Table F3. The scatterplot matrix is illustrated in appendix Figure G2.

**Model 1: Parental Management of Children’s PSRs as a Moderator of FCP and Parent-Child Bonding**

The hypotheses and research questions specified in Model 1 were individually tested by using multiple regression followed by a post-hoc analysis of the model. The scatterplot matrix (Figure G2) shows that linear relationships exist between Conversation and PCB_Care, and Conformity and PCB_Care. The scatterplot matrix also shows that there were very few outliers in the data. The results for this model are tabulated in the appendix Table F4a. The linear regression between Conversation and PCB_Care established that there was a positive relationship between perceptions of parent-child bonding and Conversation orientation of the family communication environment, $F(1, 376) = 370.11, p=.001$, and the Conversation orientation accounted for almost 50% of the variability in perceptions of parent-child bonding.
Therefore, it can be concluded that Conversation orientation is positively associated with positive perceptions of parent-child bonding.

The linear regression between Conformity and PCB_Care established that there was a negative relationship between perceptions of parent-child bonding and Conformity orientation of the family communication environment, $F(1, 376) = 95.68, p=.001$, and the Conformity orientation accounted for almost 20% of the variability in perceptions of parent-child bonding. Therefore, it can be concluded that Conformity orientation is negatively associated with positive perceptions of parent-child bonding.

In order to answer the question, how does the interaction of Conversation and Conformity orientations impact children’s perception of parent-child bonding, a multiple regression that included the orthogonal product of Conversation and Conformity was conducted. The test established that there was a small and non-significant positive relationship between the interaction of Conversation and Conformity orientations and perceptions of parent-child bonding, $F(3, 374)=140.82, p=.300$, yet the regression model (Conversation, Conformity, Conversation x Conformity) accounted for 53% of the variability in the perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Given the positive relationship between Conversation and PCB_Care, a multiple regression established that the Guiding form of parental management of PSRs did not influence this relationship significantly, $F(3, 374)=138.87, p=.548$. The relationship, however, stayed positive and still explained 52% of the variability in the perceptions of parent-child bonding. The negative relationship between Conformity and PCB_Care was moderated by Guiding. Furthermore, a multiple regression established that the Guiding form of parental management of PSRs did not influence the negative impact of Conformity orientation on perceptions of parent-
child bonding, $F(3, 373)=33.63, p=.069$. Yet, the coefficient was reduced from -.50 to -.02 and explained 21% of the variability in the perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Looking at the moderation effect of Prohibiting on the relationship between Conversation and PCB_Care, a multiple regression analysis established that Prohibiting significantly reduced the positive impact of Conversation orientation on the perceptions of parent-child bonding, $F(3, 374)=180.88, p=.002$ and accounted for 59% of the variability in perceptions of parent-child bonding. Prohibiting did not have a significant moderation effect on the relationship between Conformity and PCB_Care, $F(3, 374)=56.59, p=.908$.

Supporting did not make a significant impact on the relationship between Conversation and PCB_Care, $F(3, 374)=123.93, p=.214$. However, Supporting moderated the relationship between Conformity and PCB_Care such that the negative impact of Conformity orientation was eliminated and together Supporting and Conformity had a small but positive impact, $F(3, 374)=35.22, p=.4$. Neutrality had a significant impact on the relationship between Conversation and PCB_Care, $F(3, 374)=128.26, p=.005$, such that the direction of this relationship changed from positive to negative, still accounting for 50% variability. However, Neutrality changed the relationship between Conformity and PCB_Care from negative to positive, but this relationship was not significant, $F(3, 374)=32.42, p=.224$.

As explained earlier, the impact of the interaction of Conversation and Conformity on PCB_Care was not significant. An interaction term was defined as a cross product of Conversation and Conformity to test the impact of parental management of PSRs on this relationship. Guiding did not have any significant impact on the relationship between Conformity-Conversation interaction and PCB_Care. However, Prohibiting had a small but significant impact such that the relationship between Conformity-Conversation interaction and
PCB_Care became significant, $F(3, 374)=46.48, p<.001$. Supporting had a very small yet significant impact on the relationship between Conformity-Conversation interaction and PCB_Care, such that it changed the relationship from positive to negative, $F(3, 374)=12.62, p=.001$, and this accounted for 9% of the variability in perceptions of parent-child bonding. Neutrality did not have a significant impact on the relationship between Conformity-Conversation interaction and PCB_Care.

These results indicate that Prohibiting and Neutrality moderated the relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding, such that both Prohibiting, and Neutrality changed the positive relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding to negative (appendix Figure G3). The Supporting form of parental management of PSRs moderated the relationship between Conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding, such that it reduced the negative impact of Conformity on perceptions of parent-child bonding, but the overall impact remained negative (appendix Figure G4).

**Model 1 Post-Hoc Analysis**

Based on the initial analysis illustrated above, a multiple regression model was entered in STATA (Figure G5). The code used for this model is provided in appendix Figure H2. The moderation effects of Guiding, Supporting, and Neutrality were not significant in this model, $F(10, 367)=62.05, R^2=.63$. Table F5 shows that the Conversation-Prohibiting interaction was the only significant interaction effect ($p=0.0$). Hence, the model was reduced to the relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding moderated by Prohibiting (Figure G6).

This model accounts for more than 60% variability in the data ($F(4,373)=147.64, R^2=.61$) and shows that the positive relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding...
bonding was significantly \((p=.001)\) reduced from \(\beta=.45\) to \(\beta=.03\). Also, the relationship between Conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding remained negative \((\beta=-.18)\). Figure G9 shows the pattern of simple slopes. This pattern illustrates that the variation in the levels of Prohibiting is only influential at lower to moderate levels of conversation orientation. At higher levels of conversation orientation, Prohibiting ceases to have an impact on the relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding because all the paths almost combine into one path.

**Model 2: FCP as a Mediator of Parental Management of Children’s PSRs and Parent-Child Bonding**

The second model tested if FCP mediated the relationship between parental management of PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding. This model obtained an acceptable fit \((CFI=.850, SRMR=.055)\); appendix Figure G5 shows the path coefficients for the model. The correlation matrix (appendix Table F3) and scatterplot matrix (appendix Figure G2) did not show any signs of collinearity. Contrary to the hypothesized relationship between parental management of PSRs behavior of Guiding with the perceptions of parent-child bonding, Guiding was negatively related to PCB_Care, \(F(1, 376)=6.99, p=.009\). Prohibiting behavior of parental management of PSRs was negatively related to the perceptions of parent-child bonding, \(F(1, 376)=78.21, p<.001\). Parental behavior of Neutrality towards children’s PSRs was not significantly related to the perceptions of parent-child bonding. As hypothesized, parental management of PSRs behavior of Supporting children’s PSRs was positively associated with perceptions of parent-child bonding, \(F(1, 376)=9.13, p=.003\).

This model looked at the impact of family communication environment on the relationships between parental management of PSRs and behaviors and perceptions of parent-
child bonding. The path coefficients from the obtained structural model (appendix Figure G3) show that FCP mediates the relationship between parental management of PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding; however, some of the proposed paths were not significant. On its own, Guiding had a negative impact on perceptions of parent-child bonding ($\beta=-.41$); and contrary to the hypothesized mediating role of Conversation, the path between Guiding and Conversation was not significant ($p=107$). Similarly, the path between Neutrality and Conversation was not significant ($p=.886$); hence, Conversation did not mediate the relationship between Neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding. As hypothesized, Conversation mediated the relationship between Supporting ($\beta=.2$, $p<.001$) and perceptions of parent-child bonding as well as Prohibiting ($\beta=-.18$, $p=.001$) and perceptions of parent-child bonding. Overall, relationships described in H10a and H10c were not significant, and relationships described in H10b and H10d were significant.

Paths between Guiding and Conformity ($p=.001$), Neutrality and Conformity ($p=.029$), and Prohibiting and Conformity ($p=.014$) were significant. The path between Supporting and Conformity ($p=.230$) was not significant. Hence, the relationships described in H11a, H11b, and H11d were significant, and the relationship described in H11c was not significant. Thus, Conformity mediated the relationships between Guiding and perceptions of parent-child bonding, Neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding, and Prohibiting and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

The interaction of Conformity and Conversation orientations did not impact the relationship between Guiding and perceptions of parent-child bonding because the interaction was not significant ($p=.265$). The interaction of Conformity and Conversation orientations mitigated the negative impact of Prohibiting on the perceptions of parent-child bonding ($p<.001$).
On the contrary, the Conformity-Conversation interaction reduced the positive impact of Supporting on perceptions of parent-child bonding from $\beta = .23$ to $\beta = -.0003$ ($p = .001$). Also, the Conformity-Conversation interaction mitigated the negative impact of Neutrality on perceptions of parent-child bonding from $\beta = -.056$ to $\beta = -.0003$ ($p = .034$). The statistical coefficients and related critical values are reported in the appendix Table F4.

**Model 2 Post-Hoc Analysis**

Based on the initial analysis illustrated above, a multiple regression model was entered in STATA (Figure A2). The code used for this model is provided in appendix Figure H3. The initial model accounted for 48% of the variability in the data ($R^2 = .48$). However, as shown in Table F6, all paths were not significant. Therefore, the non-significant paths were removed, and the final model was reentered (Figure G8) using the code illustrated in Figure H3. The final model still accounted for 48% variability ($R^2 = .48$). The final model shows that the relationships between Supporting and perceptions of parent-child bonding, and Prohibiting and perceptions of parent-child bonding were mediated by Conversation ($\beta = .22$, $p = 0.0$; $\beta = -.14$, $p = 0.007$). The model also shows that the relationships between Prohibiting and perceptions of parent-child bonding, Neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding, and Guiding and perceptions of parent-child bonding were mediated by Conformity ($\beta = .16$, $p = 0.003$; $\beta = .11$, $p = 0.043$; $\beta = .18$, $p = 0.002$).

**Comparison of Model 1 with Model 2**

This chapter presented the results of linear and multiple regressions used to test the hypotheses and research questions proposed in Model 1 and structural equation modeling results for Model 2. It can be concluded that the Prohibiting form of parental management of PSRs moderates the relationship between Conversation orientation and perceptions of parent-child bonding, and FCP mediates the relationship between parental management of PSRs and
perceptions of parent-child bonding. While Model 1 explained more than 60% of the variability in the data, it only explained one type of parental management of PSRs behavior (Prohibiting). Model 2 accounted for 48% variability in the data and also explained all four types of parental management of PSRs behaviors (Guiding, Prohibiting, Supporting, and Neutrality). Therefore, Model 2 has more power to explain the relationship between FCPs, parental management of PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

The next chapter will discuss the interpretation of these results with respect to the theoretical assumptions and explain the implications on model comparisons. Chapter 5 will also discuss the future directions for this line of research and situate PSRs in the larger family communication scholarship.
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Overview

This study explored the role of PSRs in the family communication environment by looking at the relationships between FCP, perceived parental management of PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding. The findings inform that PSRs could be included as a context to study family relationships, especially parent-child relationships. This makes three important contributions to the family communication scholarship: 1. It presents an argument to explore more everyday life contexts such as parental management of PSRs to the study of FCPs. 2. It presents an argument that FCPs should be studied as predictors as well as mediators. 3. It introduces PSRs to the mainstream discussion of interpersonal relationships such that family communication scholarship can explore the role of PSRs beyond media effects.

These relationships were studied through two theoretical models. Model 1 provides information on how the overarching family communication environment can moderate the direct impact of micro communication behaviors. Model 2 provides information on how the micro communication behaviors are processed in the overarching family communication environment, where FCPs mediate the relationship between parental management of PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding. The two models together indicate the complexity of parent-child communication and provides information on how the overarching family communication environment and micro communication behaviors together impact the perceptions of parent-child bonding. However, Model 2 explains the relationship between FCPs, parental management of PSRs, and perceptions of parent-child bonding more effectively.

This study analyzed the perceptions of 380 young adults between the ages 18 and 25. The data were collected through an online questionnaire. After reading the statement of informed
consent, the young adults who decided to participate in this study were asked about their favorite media character from their childhood. Follow-up questions were asked to prime the participants into recalling and thinking about their favorite media character. Participants were asked to identify a parent with the intention that the participants would respond to the remaining questions with respect to the parent with whom they identified. Participants then answered questions about their perceptions of how the parent they identified managed their PSRs, the nature of the overarching communication environment in their family, and their perceptions about bonding with the parent.

After analyzing the validity and reliability of the measurement model and ruling out any issues of multicollinearity, the data were analyzed according to the proposed models to test for moderation and mediation effects of parental management of PSRs and FCP respectively. This chapter summarizes the results and elaborates on the interpretation of these models and provides evidence to include PSRs as an element that impacts parent-child relationships in the domain of family communication scholarship. The chapter also provides specific contributions of this study to the study of PSRs as well as to the study of family communication. In the end, the chapter concludes with study limitations and directions for future research.

**Summary of Results**

Towards the goal of exploring the position of PSRs in family communication, this study tested two theoretical models. Model 1 looked at the moderation effects of perceived parental management of PSRs on the relationship between FCP and perceptions of parent-child bonding. Model 2 looked at the mediation effects of FCP on the relationship between perceived parental management of PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding. Both models showed significant relationships. Model 1 established that micro communication behavior, parental management of
PSRs, moderates the relationship between FCP and perceptions of parent-child bonding. Model 2 established that FCP mediates the relationship between parental management of PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding. The following sections elaborate upon these results.

**Parental Management of PSRs as Moderator**

Results from testing hypotheses H1 and H2 established direct relationships between FCP and perceptions of parent-child bonding. As hypothesized, Conversation orientation was positively associated with perceptions of parent-child bonding. Conversation orientation explained 50% variance in the perceptions of parent-child bonding. This study is the first to test the relationship between FCP and parent-child bonding, but other studies that have tested the relationships between FCP and parent-child relationship outcome variables have reported similar results. For example, Punyanunt-Carter (2008) reported that Conversation (and not Conformity) was a strong predictor for interpersonal communication satisfaction in father-daughter dyads. Similarly, Sillars, Koerner, & Fitzpatrick (2005) reported significant correlations between Conversation and perceptions of understanding between parent-adolescent triads.

As hypothesized, Conformity orientation was negatively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding. Conformity orientation explained 20% variance in the perceptions of parent-child bonding. Similar to the results for Conversation orientation, the results for Conformity orientation matched the results reported by other studies on direct effects of Conformity orientation. As stated earlier, Conformity did not predict interpersonal satisfaction (Punyanunt-Carter, 2008), and Sillars et al. (2005) reported that Conformity was negatively associated with perceptions of understanding between parent-adolescent triads. This is consistent with Schrodt et al.’s (2008) conclusion that, “…conversation orientation…is a stronger predictor of psychosocial outcomes, on average, than Conformity orientation…” (p. 263).
The Conversation-Conformity interaction accounted for 53% variance in the perceptions of parent-child bonding, yet the relationship was very small and non-significant. Although Ledbetter and Beck (2014) explained that the large effect of Conversation in their study depended upon the level of Conformity because the level of Conformity impacts the interdependence of family members, this study did not find a direct significant influence of Conversation-Conformity interaction on perceptions of parent-child bonding. Hence, in response to RQ2, it can be said that the interaction of Conversation-Conformity orientation was not directly related to the perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Model 1 testing also revealed that Guiding (H3b) as well as Supporting (H5b) significantly moderated the relationship between Conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding. This model showed that Guiding (H3a) as well as Supporting (H3b) did not moderate the relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding. Furthermore, Prohibiting (H4a) as well as Neutrality (RQ3a) moderated the relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding, but Prohibiting (H4b) as well as Neutrality (RQ3b) did not moderate the relationship between Conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding. Since the interaction effects of Conversation and Conformity orientations were not significant, the model could not provide enough evidence to answer RQ4-7. Although post-hoc analysis established that the Prohibiting form of parental management of PSRs was the only significant moderator of the relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding, the individual regression analyses provide useful insights that are discussed in the next section.

**Interpretation of Findings from Model 1**

These findings from Model 1 suggest that Conversation on its own may have such a positive impact on perceptions of parent-child bonding that this relationship reaches a ceiling
effect in a way that it cannot be further improved with more positive behavior such as Supporting of children’s PSRs. Supporting (Model 2, H9) was the only parental management of PSRs behavior that was positively related to perceptions of parent-child bonding. It is also worth noting that the positive relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding is negatively influenced by Prohibiting and Neutrality, which means that the positive effect of Conversation stays unaffected by more positive behavior, but it gets diminished by negative behavior.

The relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding was reduced to a small yet significant positive relationship, and it was turned into an inverse relationship by Neutrality. This finding suggests that children may perceive prohibiting of PSRs restrictive enough to diminish the positive effects of Conversation; however, the emotional response to Neutrality, which may be translated as neglect of PSRs, was much more powerful to completely erase the positive effects of Conversation. This particular finding makes a more compelling argument to include PSRs in family communication scholarship because the influence of Neutrality suggests that children have a strong and negative emotional response if their PSRs are neglected.

Furthermore, the post-hoc analysis revealed that the moderation effect of Prohibiting was most meaningful, and it significantly impacted the relationship between Conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding. This result also supported the interpretation that Conversation has a ceiling effect because the simple slopes analysis established that the effect of the variation in the levels of Prohibiting diminished as the level of Conversation increased. Furthermore, the effect of the variation in the levels of Prohibiting almost vanished at the highest level of Conversation.
This model also shows that Conformity on its own has such a strong inverse relationship with perceptions of parent-child bonding that Prohibiting, and Neutrality did not make the relationship worse. It may also be speculated that Conformity created an overall understanding of a rule-based household where Prohibiting and Neutrality were interpreted as integral to Conformity. This relationship may warrant more probing in future research. The impact of Conformity was moderated by Guiding and Supporting. It is possible that Guiding would provide more explanation as to why parents are making recommendations to watch a particular TV show. Such explanation would be a relief from the usual rule-based environment in a family where Conformity is high. Supporting (Model 2, H9) on its own has a strong positive relationship with perceptions of parent-child bonding, and it mitigated the effects of Conformity but did not inverse the relationship between Conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

**FCPs as Mediators**

Model 2 testing showed that Supporting (H9) was the only parental management of PSRs behavior that was positively related to perceptions of parent-child bonding. Guiding (H6), contrary to the hypothesized relationship, was negatively related to the perceptions of parent-child bonding. Prohibiting (H7) was also negatively related to the perceptions of parent-child bonding. Neutrality (H8) was not significantly related to the perceptions of parent-child bonding.

Model 2 analysis also showed that Conversation significantly mediated the relationship between Prohibiting (H10b) and perceptions of parent-child bonding as well as the relationship between Supporting (H10d) and perceptions of parent-child bonding. Conversation did not mediate the relationship between Guiding (H10a) and perceptions of parent-child bonding and the relationship between Neutrality (H10c). Furthermore, Conformity mediated the relationship between Guiding (H11a) and perceptions of parent-child bonding, the relationship between
Prohibiting (H11b) and perceptions of parent-child bonding, and Neutrality (H11c) and perceptions of parent-child bonding. However, Conformity did not mediate the relationship between Supporting (H11d) and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

The analysis of interaction effects of Conversation and Conformity orientations showed that this interaction did not impact the relationship between Guiding (RQ8a) and perceptions of parent-child bonding. The interaction of Conformity and Conversation orientations mitigated the negative impact of Prohibiting (RQ8b) on the perceptions of parent-child bonding. The Conformity-Conversation interaction also reduced the positive impact of Supporting (RQ8c) on perceptions of parent-child bonding. Also, the Conformity-Conversation interaction mitigated the negative impact of Neutrality (RQ8d) on perceptions of parent-child bonding. The post-hoc analysis of Model 2 confirmed these findings.

**Interpretation of Findings from Model 2**

Model 2 mainly situates FCPs as possible mediators of relational contexts (in this case management of children’s PSRs) and relational outcomes (perceptions of parent-child bonding in this study). In congruence with the conditions of mediation (Little et al., 2007), the predictor, parental management of PSRs, had a significant relationship with the outcome, perceptions of parent-child bonding. The relationship was small and significant (except for Neutrality, for which the relationship was very small), which shows that management of PSRs is one context among many other contexts affecting the parent-child relationship.

To situate FCPs as mediators of relationships between parental management of PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding, it is important to compare the paths mediated by Conversation with the paths mediated by Conformity. As mediator variables, Conversation and Conformity explain the relationships between Guiding, Prohibiting, Neutrality, and Supporting
with perceptions of parent-child bonding. The non-significant pathway, Guiding-Conversation-Parent-Child Bonding vs. the significant pathway, Guiding-Conformity-Parent-Child Bonding shows that Guiding is perceived as instructive as opposed to having a Conversation.

This is an interesting finding because commonly parents would think that Guiding would create an open Conversation environment. However, as per the definition of Conversation orientation (“…the degree to which families create a climate in which all family members are encouraged to participate in unrestrained interactions about a wide array of topics” (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b, p. 37)), Guiding may not come across as “unrestrained interaction.” This explains why the pathway between Guiding-Conformity-Parent-Child Bonding was significant and the pathway through Conversation was not.

Conversation and Conformity pathways were significant for Prohibiting. The definitions of Conversation and Conformity (Chapter 2) provide more insight regarding this finding. The pathway through Conversation shows that Prohibiting has an inverse relationship with Conversation, which might indicate that Prohibiting happens with a significant lack of openness in communication. The pathway through Conformity shows that Prohibiting has a positive relationship with Conformity, which might indicate that Prohibiting is also concurrent with high amount of Conformity. Again, based on the definitions of Conversation and Conformity, this makes sense; however, the most noteworthy point here is that the negative effects of Prohibiting on perceptions of parent-child bonding could be mitigated by making the family more Conversation-oriented.

Furthermore, as compared to other parental management of PSRs behaviors (Guiding, Neutrality, and Supporting), direct effects of Prohibiting explained the maximum (17%) variability in perceptions of parent-child bonding. Given the inverse relationship of Prohibiting
with perceptions of parent-child bonding, this information may be the most useful finding for parents to know that when they prohibit children’s PSRs, they risk the outcome of negative perceptions of parent-child bonding. This finding should not be interpreted such that parents should not stop the children from watching inappropriate content or fostering inappropriate PSRs; instead, parents can benefit from the finding by knowing that when they have to prohibit children’s PSRs, having a higher Conversation orientation might help in mitigating the negative effect of Prohibiting.

The path between Neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding was not mediated by Conversation because this relationship was not significant. The path was indeed mediated by Conformity. Superficially this suggests that Neutrality towards children’s PSRs is perceived as a part of the rule-based environment where children’s opinions, choices, or interests may not matter much. However, a closer look at these pathways (the fact that the path between Neutrality and Conversation is not significant) suggests that Neutrality is perceived as lack of Conversation – it is a good reminder that as much as communication has an impact on interpersonal and family relationships, lack of communication plays a role, too. This analysis is consistent with Hamon and Schrodt’s (2007) explanation that, “…when parents do not encourage dialogue with their children, they may feel that their thoughts are not important enough to be heard…” (p. 163). Therefore, one of the ways to mitigate the negative impact of Conformity might be to reduce Neutrality towards children’s PSRs.

The path between Supporting and Conformity was not significant, as opposed to the significant path between Supporting and Conversation. This pathway indicates that Supporting and Conversation generate positive perceptions of parent-child bonding. The mediating role of Conversation and the non-significant relationship of Supporting with Conformity indicates that
Supporting can only happen in a high-conversation orientation. More importantly, this pathway provides significant evidence that parental support of children’s PSRs is important to children and contributes towards positive perceptions of parent-child bonding in a Conversation-oriented family. However, these findings about Supporting should not be interpreted as a recommendation that Supporting all PSRs is needed. More research is needed to compare the impact of parental management of multiple PSRs, where parents chose which PSR to support and how should they manage PSRs that they do not approve.

**Theoretical Implications**

The research goals for this study were to situate the study of children’s PSRs in family communication environment research, to extend the theories of family communication and parental management of children’s social relationships (including PSRs), and to study the impact of parental communicative behaviors on the parent-child relationship. The following sections explain how results of this study contribute toward these goals. The section on implications for Family Communication Patterns Theory explains how these results show that the study of children’s PSRs can be included in the study of family communication research. The section on implications for Parental Management of PSRs explains how these results make a case to study the impact of parental communication behaviors on children’s emotional responses.

**Implications for Family Communication Patterns Theory**

The findings discussed above indicate that family communication scholarship should continue to look at the family as a dynamic system that is always “becoming.” With respect to this unique characteristic of the family system, this study recommends the following: 1. More exploration of the impact of everyday contexts (such as parental management of children’s PSRs) on the family communication environment. 2. Further exploration of FCPs as both
predictors as well as mediators and moderators. This section provides reasons for both of these recommendations.

In the most recent version of FCPT published in 2017, Koerner et al. (2017) described family communication patterns as, “FCPs are conceptualized cognitively as procedural and declarative knowledge stored in family relationship schemas that determine how families communicate habitually based on the two underlying dimensions of Conversation and conformity orientation” (p. 179). This definition does not, however, indicate that the schemas are dynamic in nature and besides predicting communication behaviors, these schemas also provide the context to interpret everyday communication behavior – as suggested by Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002a) in their initial description of FCPT (definition quoted in Chapter 2).

The interpretation of Model 1 in this study suggests that the effect of the “procedural and declarative knowledge” can be moderated by other constructs, especially in dynamic social environments. FCPT claims its strength in the concept of schemas, and it is important to continue testing how various contexts mediate or moderate the influence of these schemas. Model 1 also shows that the inverse relationship between Conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding is moderated by Guiding and Supporting. Guiding did not change the direction of the relationship between Conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding, but it reduced the negative impact of Conformity. Guiding may involve some qualities of open Conversation that could mitigate the inverse effects of Conformity. Also, Guiding may involve some explanation of the rules specified by parents, and such explanation could help children in seeing the reasoning behind the rules. Therefore, more research is needed on the role of Guiding in the overall family communication environment.
The findings of this study also speak to FCPT’s emphasis on symbolism (Koerner, Schrod, & Fitzpatrick, 2017) because parental communication behavior of prohibiting or being neutral towards children’s PSRs may symbolize their lack of support of children’s choices. Furthermore, prohibiting and being neutral could also mean having fewer common memories for children to attribute towards bonding with the parent. The perceived lack of support may occur because Conversations about experiences enable individuals to socially construct the past and their identities; this affects the social practice of recounting past events in Conversations, which, in turn, results in social construction of relational memories (Pasupathi, 2001). Without shared experiences about children’s PSRs there would be fewer Conversations about which to reminisce. This is not to say that Conversations about PSRs are the only relevant Conversations to recall. In fact, parental management of PSRs was considered as a moderator (and not a mediator) because there might be other communication behaviors to complement or compensate this communication behavior.

This study looked at Conversation and Conformity as focal predictors as well as mediators to capture the essence of FCPT that helps in understanding habitual ways of communicating (Koerner et al., 2017). It was interesting to see that Conversation and Conformity not only directly predicted the variability in perceptions of parent-child bonding, but these constructs also mediated the direct influence of parental management of PSRs on perceptions of parent-child bonding. This is a significant contribution to FCPT because there are few reports on mediating or moderating effects of FCPs (Schrodt, Ledbetter, Jernberg, Larson, Brown, & Glonek, 2009). Furthermore, the concept of schemas indicates that a variety of micro communication behaviors would be interpreted in the context of these schemas. Existing literature has a few examples of testing FCPs as mediators and moderators; however, more
information on this aspect of FCPs is needed. Therefore, this study further underscores the need to explore the role of these schemas as predictors as well as mediators and moderators.

**Implications for Parental Management of PSRs**

One of the key goals of this study was to look at the emotional responses of children (in this study, perceptions of bonding with the parent) to parental communicative behaviors. As stated earlier, most of the research on parental communicative behaviors is focused on the behavioral outcomes such as drug-use (Mounts, 2002), risky behaviors (Mounts, 2001), peer selection (Mounts & Kim, 2007), and future romantic relationships (Madsen, 2008). This study turned the direction of research inwards to look at the impact of parental communicative behaviors on perceptions about the parent-child relationship itself.

The analysis of direct relationships between parental management of children’s PSRs and perceptions of parent-child bonding revealed that Guiding, Prohibiting, and Supporting had significant impacts on perceptions of parent-child bonding, but Neutrality on its own did not have any significant influence. Neutrality was also not a significant factor in Mount’s (2002) initial analysis, but it was considered in this study because it made sense to account for lack of parental involvement in children’s PSRs.

Guiding was hypothesized to be positively associated with perceptions of parent-child bonding because guiding was reported to be associated with positive outcomes, such as better selection of peers (Mounts, 2011). The results of this study indicate that Guiding might be perceived as a prescriptive approach towards management of children’s PSRs. Thus, the parental management behavior of Guiding may be seen as lack of acknowledgement of children’s opinions and choices and more of an effort to impose parental choices on children. Furthermore, Guiding was manifested through the FCP path of Conformity instead of Conversation. This
finding further supports the interpretation that Guiding was interpreted through perceptions of rules as opposed to perceptions of open communication. As suggested above, further research on children’s perceptions of Guiding is needed.

Prohibiting had a strong inverse relationship with perceptions of parent-child bonding in this study, and this was consistent with the literature on parental management of peers. Higher levels of Prohibiting were reported to be linked with negative outcomes such as higher levels of drug-use (Mounts, 2002). It is also easy to imagine that higher levels of Prohibiting in terms of parental management of children’s PSRs would mean more conflict between parents and children. Furthermore, higher levels of Prohibiting would suggest that children’s choices are not valued; hence, the perceptions of bonding with the parent would be low. Besides Conformity, prohibiting also had a significant pathway through Conversation. This means that high levels of both Conformity and Conversation would be needed to manifest prohibiting.

As hypothesized, Supporting had a strong and positive relationship with perceptions of parent-child bonding. It appears that supporting as a parental management behavior induces feelings of acceptance and trust in children because the studies on parental management of peer relationships report that adolescents who perceive higher levels of support in terms of parental management of peers reported lower levels of inclination towards risky behavior such as drug-use (Mounts, 2002). Supporting had a significant pathway through Conversation but not through Conformity, which makes sense because supporting could be manifested through open communication only.

Overall, this study fulfills its goal to look at the impact of parental communication behaviors on perceptions of the parent-child relationship. In the context of PSRs, parental communication about managing children’s PSRs is significantly related to the perceptions of
parent-child bonding, and the impact of these micro communication behaviors is mediated by the overarching communication environment. Therefore, this study recommends that PSRs can be introduced to the mainstream discussion of interpersonal relationships such that family communication scholarship can explore the role of PSRs beyond media effects.

**Limitations and Future Research**

Just like any research project, this study had some limitations that also create opportunities for continuing this line of research. First, this is an exploratory study that introduces PSRs to family communication scholarship; hence, there is room to improve the scales and the latent constructs that were adapted from parental management of peer relationships to parental management of children’s PSRs. Second, if conducted as a longitudinal or experimental design study, the results of studying similar concepts may enhance our understanding of the relationships explored in this study because longitudinal or experimental designs can take a closer look at PSRs at specific life stages. Children can have different significant PSRs at various points of life, and this aspect could not be captured in a one-time survey-based study. Third, more qualitative exploration of the role of PSRs in parent-child communication could be beneficial because participants’ comments at the end of the survey indicated that they had more to share. For example, one of the participants stated that, “I just wish my parents were more involved growing up and took the chance to care enough about my interests.” Such responses indicate that further qualitative exploration of PSRs could lead family communication scholarship to a more robust understanding of parent-child relationships.

Now that this study establishes the role of PSRs in family communication, family communication scholarship could also look at the impact of FCPs on the strength of PSRs and PSR-related constructs such as parasocial break-up, PSRs with smart devices, and the impact of
PSRs on cultural education (Holmquist, 2017). More importantly, family communication scholarship needs to acknowledge and explore the role of PSRs as a node that connects family members with each other and facilitates the creation and maintenance of relational memories. In this context it will be important to explore the impact of parental perceptions of children’s PSRs as well. In other words, it will be useful to explore the impact of perceived parental approval or disapproval of children’s PSRs.

As per the definition of PSRs, PSR communication may happen between the experiencer and the media character, but the definition should be extended to the communication about PSRs as well because this study proves that communication about PSRs has an impact on perceptions about interpersonal relationships. It is through communication about the parasocial relationships that the experiencers make sense of their relationship(s) with the media character(s). For example, an individual may have a parasocial relationship with a Disney character. This person may post a picture on social media when they visit Disneyland, and their friends may like the picture and post comments. This social reality of approval and the comments from friends further strengthens the individual’s identification with the Disney character. Therefore, such communication about PSRs should be studied with respect to interpersonal and family relationships.

PSRs can also be studied in the context of smart devices. The definition has already been extended to celebrities beyond media characters (Erickson & Cin, 2017). For example, one could be a fan of Hugh Laurie or the character of Dr. House or both. Brunick et al. (2016) discuss the possibility of relationships with intelligent characters that may exist beyond the traditional media platforms such as movies and TV. An example would be robotic home vacuums, or Bluetooth devices such as Amazon’s Echo and Apple’s Siri. Also, the defining characteristics of parasocial
relationships – one-sided, emotionally-tinged, and committed (Branch, Wilson, & Agnew, 2013) – can be extended to football teams, food chains, brands, and more.

Furthermore, future studies on PSRs and family communication can juxtapose PSRs with the constructs of relational maintenance, relational satisfaction, and relational memories as well. This study recommends that future research should also look at the mediating and moderating impacts of FCPs. FCPs have been used to explain a lot of outcomes; however, it is important to acknowledge that many acts of everyday communication define FCPs, and at the same time, more acts of communication such as parental management of PSRs, parental management of children’s PSR break-ups, are interpreted with respect to stored procedural and relational knowledge generated through FCPs.

**Conclusion**

This study explored the role of parental management of children’s PSRs towards children’s perceptions of parent-child bonding. Family communication patterns theory was used as a lens to study the juxtaposition of micro communication behaviors (parental management of children’s PSRs), overarching family communication environment (Conversation, Conformity), and children’s emotional response of feelings of bonding with the parent. This study is informative because information about the impact of different management strategies of children’s PSRs can help parents to make communication choices.

More importantly, this study suggests that PSRs are not the only way towards creating better parent-child bonds; instead, it situates PSRs in the family communication environment such that PSRs could be one effective path towards bonding. According to the findings of this study, both overarching communication environments and micro communication behaviors play a role in creating relational understanding. However, the comparison of the two models tested in
this study reveals that the impact of micro-communication behaviors of parental management of PSRs on perceptions of parent-child bonding is mediated by the established patterns of communication in the family. Awareness of these associations can help in creating more satisfying relationships. In conclusion, including PSRs in family communication scholarship can enable the researchers to capture an important element towards a comprehensive understanding of family relationships because this study proves that PSRs exist within the purview of family communication.
REFERENCES


doi:10.1080/17482798.2014.890948


10.1080/17482798.2015.1127839


doi:10.1080/10510974.2010.523507


APPENDIX A: PROPOSED MODELS

Figure A1: Parental Management of PSRs as a Moderator of the Relationship between FCP and Parent-Child Bonding.

Figure A2: FCP as Moderator of the Relationship between Parental Management of Children’s PSRs and Parent-Child Bonding.
APPENDIX B: RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

RQ1a: What is impact of perceived parental management of PSRs on the relationship between Family Communication Environment and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ1b: What is the impact of Family Communication Environment on the relationship between perceived parental management of peers and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

MODEL 1: Parental Management of PSRs as a Moderator of the Relationship between FCP and Parent-Child Bonding

H1: Conversation orientation will be positively associated with children’s perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H2: Conformity orientation will be negatively associated with children’s perceptions of parent-child bonding.

RQ2: How does the interaction of conversation and conformity orientations impact children’s perceptions of parent-child bonding?

H3a: Guiding will moderate the relationship between conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of guiding will increase the positive effect of high conversation on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H3b: Guiding will moderate the relationship between conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of guiding will decrease the negative effect of high conformity on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H4a: Prohibiting will moderate the relationship between conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of prohibiting will decrease the positive effect of high conversation on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H4b: Prohibiting will moderate the relationship between conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that high level of prohibiting will increase the negative effect of high conformity on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H5a: Supporting will moderate the relationship between conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of supporting will increase the positive effect of high conversation on perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H5b: Supporting will moderate the relationship between conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding such that a high level of supporting will decrease the negative effect of high conformity on perceptions of parent-child bonding.
RQ3a: How does neutrality affect the relationship between conversation and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ3b: How does neutrality affect the relationship between conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ4: How does guiding affect the relationship between the interaction of conversation and conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ5: How does prohibiting affect the relationship between the interaction of conversation and conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ6: How does supporting affect the relationship between the interaction of conversation and conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ7: How does neutrality affect the relationship between the interaction of conversation and conformity and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

MODEL 2: FCP as Moderator of the Relationship between Parental Management of Children’s PSRs and Parent-Child Bonding

H6: Guiding will be positively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H7: Prohibiting will be negatively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H8: Neutrality will be negatively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H9: Supporting will be positively associated with the perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H10a: Conversation will mediate the relationship between guiding and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H10b: Conversation will mediate the relationship between prohibiting and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H10c: Conversation will mediate the relationship between neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H10d: Conversation will mediate the relationship between supporting and parent-child bonding.

H11a: Conformity will mediate the relationship between guiding and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H11b: Conformity will mediate the relationship between prohibiting and perceptions of parent-child bonding.
H11c: Conformity will mediate the relationship between neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding.

H11d: Conformity will mediate the relationship between supporting and parent-child bonding.

RQ8a: How does conversation-conformity interaction affect the relationship between guiding and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ8b: How does conversation-conformity interaction affect the relationship between prohibiting and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ8c: How does conversation-conformity interaction affect the relationship between supporting and perceptions of parent-child bonding?

RQ8d: How does conversation-conformity interaction affect the relationship between neutrality and perceptions of parent-child bonding?
Dear Participant,

Thank you for choosing to participate in this study. The goal of this study is to explore the role of television or movie characters in family communication. Hence, we request you to think about your favorite media character while you were growing up. Favorite media characters could include characters from movies such as Batman, Superman, Disney Princesses (e.g. Cinderella) or television characters such as Dora the Explorer, Mr. Beans, Mickey Mouse or a celebrity such as Michael Jackson, Brittney Spears, or Justin Bieber.

1. Please specify the name of your favorite media character here:
   __________________________________________ (X)

2. Please specify the movie/ TV show, where X appeared:
   __________________________________________ (Y)

Please think about your experiences associated with X when you were growing up and answer the following questions:

3. Please describe when and how did X become your favorite character.
   __________________________________________

4. Please describe any activities that included X in some way (e.g. Eating meals together, movie nights, theme parties, vacations)
   __________________________________________

5. What kind of toys, clothing, or merchandise did you have that were related to X?
   __________________________________________
Next, we would like to know more about your conversations with your parents about X. Please think about a parent to answer the questions that follow:

6. Which of the following types of parent did you choose (Y):
   a. Biological mother
   b. Biological father
   c. Step-mother
   d. Step-father
   e. Other – Please Specify ___________________________

Parental Management of PSRs

Please think about your conversations about X with Y. On a scale of 1 to 7 (1=Not at all, 7=Completely agree) please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Guiding:

7. My parent talked to me about the pros and cons of watching programs that featured X.
8. My parent told me that watching programs that featured X would affect my future.
9. My parent wanted me to be watch programs that featured X.
10. My parent only allowed me to watch programs that featured X.
11. My parent influenced my selection of media characters to watch.
12. My parent tried to be in charge of my selection of media characters to watch.

Neutrality:

13. My parent told me that if I watched programs that featured X, it was my choice.
14. My parent did not interfere with my choice to watch programs that featured X.
15. My parent did not concern themselves with my choices to watch programs that features a particular media character.

16. My parent thought that my choices about media characters were my business.

17. My parent did not talk to me about any media characters.

Prohibiting:

18. My parent told me that they did not like X.

19. My parent told me that they did not want me to watch any programs featuring X.

20. My parent told me that they did not approve X’s character traits.

21. My parent told me that they wanted me to watch programs with characters that they approved.

22. My parent told me which characters they approved.

23. My parent thought that if I was watching programs featuring violent characters then I would exhibit similar behavior.

Supporting:

24. My parent encouraged me to watch programs that featured X.

25. My parent created opportunities (buying tickets, booking vacations, arranging theme parties, etc.) for me to enjoy the presence of X.

26. My parent helped me to think of ways that increased the presence of X in my life.

27. My parent encouraged me to participate in X-themed activities.

28. My parent supported my fondness for X.
Family Communication Patterns

Think about your family when you were growing up (ages 13 to 18) and your everyday communication with your Y. On a scale of 1 to 7 (1=Not at all, 7=Completely agree) please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Conversation orientation:

29. In our family we often talked about topics like politics and religion where some persons disagreed with others.

30. My parents often said something like, “Every member of the family should have some say in family decisions.”

31. My parents often asked my opinion when the family talked about something.

32. My parents encouraged me to challenge their ideas and beliefs.

33. My parents often said something like, “You should always look at both sides of an issue.”

34. I usually told my parents what I thought about things.

35. I could tell my parents almost anything.

36. In our family we often talked about our feelings and emotions.

37. My parents and I often had long, relaxed conversations about nothing in particular.

38. I really enjoyed talking with my parents/guardians, even when we disagreed.

39. My parents liked to hear my opinions, even when they didn’t agree with me.

40. My parents encouraged me to express my feelings.

41. My parents tended to be very open about their emotions.

42. We often talked as a family about things we did during the day.

43. In our family we often talked about our plans and hopes for the future.
Conformity orientation

44. My parents often said something like, “You’ll know better when you grow up.”
45. My parents often said something like, “My ideas are right and you should not question them.”
46. My parents often said something like, “A child should not argue with adults.”
47. My parents often said something like, “There are some things that just shouldn’t be talked about.”
48. My parents often said something like, “You should give in on arguments rather than risk making people mad.”
49. When anything really important was involved, my parents expected me to obey without question.
50. In our home, my parents usually had the last word.
51. My parents felt that it is important to be the boss.
52. My parents sometimes became irritated with my views if they were different from theirs.
53. If my parents didn’t approve of it, they didn’t want to know about it.
54. When I was at home, I was expected to obey my parents’ rules.

Please continue responding to these questions with respect to your Y. On a scale of 1 to 7 (1=Not at all, 7=Completely agree) please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Parent-Child Bonding

Please continue to think about your parent and indicate your level of agreement for the following statements on a scale of 1 to 7 (1=Strongly disagree, 7=Strongly agree):

55. Spoke to me in a warm and friendly voice
56. Did not help me as much as I needed
57. Let me do those things I liked doing
58. Seemed emotionally cold to me
59. Appeared to understand my problems and worries
60. Was affectionate to me
61. Liked me to make my own decisions
62. Did not want me to grow up
63. Tried to control everything I did
64. Invaded my privacy
65. Enjoyed talking things over with me
66. Frequently smiled at me
67. Tended to baby me
68. Did not seem to understand what I needed or wanted
69. Let me decide things for myself
70. Made me feel I wasn’t wanted
71. Could make me feel better when I was upset
72. Did not talk with me very much
73. Tried to make me feel dependent on her/him
74. Felt I could not look after myself unless she/he was around
75. Gave me as much freedom as I wanted
76. Let me go out as often as I wanted
77. Was overprotective of me
78. Did not praise me
79. Let me dress in any way I pleased

**Demographic Questions:**

80. What is your gender identity?
   a. Female
   b. Male
   c. Not listed above. Please specify: __________________

81. What is your age? _____ years

82. What is your ethnicity?
   d. Asian
   e. American Indian or Alaska Native
   f. Black or African American
   g. Hispanic or Latino(a)
   h. Native Hawaiian of Pacific Islander
   i. White
   j. Not listed above. Please specify: __________________

83. What is your level of education?
   k. Less than a high school diploma
   l. High school diploma or equivalent (e.g. GED)
   m. Some college, no degree
   n. Associate degree (e.g. AA, AS)
   o. Bachelor’s degree
   p. Master’s degree
   q. Professional degree (e.g. MD, DDS)
84. How often did you do common media related activities such as going for the movies, watching a TV series together with your parents?

s. Not at all

t. Once a year

u. Once a month

v. Once a week

w. Daily
APPENDIX D: EMAIL FOR RECRUITING PARTICIPANTS

Subject: Media Characters and Family Communication

Dear NDSU Student,

My name is Shweta Arpit Srivastava and I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Communication. I am studying communication within the family about media characters. You are being asked to complete an online survey that will take approximately 15-20 minutes. If you are 18-25 years old, you may participate in this study.

This study is being conducted under the advisement of Dr. Ann Burnett. There are no known risks to participating in this study and your participation is voluntary and anonymous. If you have any questions about the rights of human participants or you want to report a problem, please contact the NDSU IRB office at 701-231-8995, 1-855-800-6717 (toll-free) or irb@ndsu.edu.

If you have any questions about this research, please contact me at shweta.srivastava@ndsu.edu.

Please click here to participate in the survey: XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

Sincerely,

Shweta Arpit Srivastava
Doctoral Candidate
Department of Communication
North Dakota State University
APPENDIX E: STATEMENT OF INFORMED CONSENT

NDSU: North Dakota State University
Department of Communication
Minard 338
Fargo, ND 58108-6050

My name is Shweta Arpit Srivastava and I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Communication (Advisor: Dr. Ann Burnett). I invite you to participate in the research project titled, Communication within the Family about Media Characters. You are being contacted as a possible research participant because you are above 18 years of age and are a member of COMM 110 or a part of the NDSU Listserv research community.

Contact Information: Shweta Arpit Srivastava, shweta.srivastava@ndsu.edu

Please read this document and contact us to ask any questions you may have BEFORE agreeing to participate in this research.

What is the purpose of this research? Information gained from this study will be used to learn more about the communication around media characters between parents and children.

What will I be asked to do? You will be asked to respond to questions regarding the above-mentioned purpose along with some demographic questions.

How long will it take? The study will take approximately 15-20 minutes for you to complete.

What are the risks and discomforts? As with most research, there is a potential for loss of confidentiality; however, the researchers have taken reasonable measures to minimize any known risk to the participant.

What are the benefits to the participant? You will be contributing to the growing body of research about parent-child communication. If you are enrolled in COMM 110, you will receive 5 points upon completion of the questionnaire.

Do I have to take part in this study? Your participation in this study is not required. If you choose to participate, you may change your mind anytime and cease participation without penalty or loss of benefits to oneself.

What are the alternatives to being in this study? Instead of participating in this study, you can choose not to participate.

Who will see the information that I give? In research reports, there will be no information that will make it possible to identify you. Research records will be stored securely and only approved researchers, and the NDSU Institution Review Board will have access to the records. We may publish the results of the study, however, all identifying information will be kept confidential.
Can my taking part in the study end early? Yes, you may opt out of the study at any time.

What are my rights as a research participant? You have certain rights as a participant in research. If you have questions or concerns about what rights apply to you, questions and complaints can be made by contacting the NDSU Human Research Protection Program:

- Contact Research Compliance Administrator-Kristy Shirley
- Telephone: 701-231-8995 or toll-free 1.855.800.6717
- Email: ndsu.irb@ndsu.edu
- Mail: NDSU HRPP Office, NDSU Dept. 4000, PO Box 6050, Fargo, ND 58108-6050

The role of Human Research Protection Program is to see that your rights are protected in this research project; to seek more information feel free to visit www.ndsu.edu/irb.

Documentation of Informed Consent: You are freely making the decision whether to partake in this research study. Complying with this form indicates that

1. you are the age of 18 or over
2. you have read and understood this consent form
3. you have had your questions answered, and
4. you have decided to be in the study.

Continuing on indicates your free willingness to participate in this study.
APPENDIX F: TABULATED RESULTS

Table F1

*Favorite Media Character Frequencies.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Favorite Media Character</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Sponge Bob</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Hannah Montana</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Spider Man</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Belle from Beauty and the Beast</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Batman</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Scooby Doo</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Ariel</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Cinderella</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Iron Man</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Justin Bieber</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Bob the Builder</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Dora the Explorer</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Captain America</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Mickey Mouse</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Winnie the Pooh</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Harry Potter</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Kim Possible</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Mulan</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Selena Gomez</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Ash Ketchum (Pokemon)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Lebron James</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Luke Skywalker</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Sleeping Beauty</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Anakin Skywalker</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Barbie</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Buggs Bunny</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Jimmy Neutron</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Miley Cyrus</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Ninja Turtles</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>P [sic]</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Princess Ariel</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table F1 *Favorite Media Character Frequencies (continued).*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Favorite Media Character</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Superman</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Tom &amp; Jerry</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>Wonder Woman</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>Arthur</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Blue from Blue's Clues</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>Clifford</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Edward Cullen</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Hercules</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>James Bond</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Lilo and Stitch</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>Naruto</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>Paul Walker</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>Phineas and Ferb</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>Pocahontas</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>Spock</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Thor</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Timmy Turner</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>Will Smith</td>
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Note: The first 19 characters represented $n = 244$, 56.6% of the responses, the remaining characters represented $n = 80$, 18.6% of the responses.
Table F2

*Standard Weights and Significance of Measurement Scales.*

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Note: $p=0.0$
Table F3

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Model 1 Hypotheses and Research Questions Results Summary.

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<td>RQ3a</td>
<td>F(3, 374)=128.26</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>-.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ3b</td>
<td>F(3, 374)=32.42</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ4</td>
<td>F(3, 374)=12.12</td>
<td>.265</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ5</td>
<td>F(3, 374)=46.48</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ6</td>
<td>F(3, 374)=12.62</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.0003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ7</td>
<td>F(3, 374)=8.44</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.0003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table F5

*Post-Hoc Model 1 (Initial) Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis.*

| PCB_CARE                  | Coef. | SE  | T    | P>|t| |
|---------------------------|-------|-----|------|-----|
| Conversation              | .47   | .03 | 17.07| 0.000 |
| Prohibiting               | -.89  | .13 | -7.00| 0.000 |
| Neutrality                | -.27  | .09 | -3.05| 0.002 |
| Conversation x Prohibiting| .03   | .01 | 3.53 | 0.000 |
| Conversation x Neutrality | -.001 | .01 | -0.17| 0.867 |
| Conformity                | -.16  | .04 | -3.79| 0.000 |
| Guiding                   | -.17  | .10 | -1.73| 0.084 |
| Supporting                | -.11  | .07 | -1.51| 0.131 |
| Conformity x Guiding      | .002  | .01 | .21  | 0.833 |
| Conformity x Supporting   | -.01  | .01 | -.87 | 0.387 |

### Table F6

*Post-Hoc Model 1 (Final) Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis.*

| PCB_CARE                  | Coef. | SE  | T    | P>|t| |
|---------------------------|-------|-----|------|-----|
| Conversation              | .45   | .03 | 16.88| 0.000 |
| Prohibiting               | -.87  | .12 | -7.51| 0.000 |
| Conformity                | -.18  | .04 | -4.49| 0.000 |
| Conversation x Prohibiting| .03   | .01 | 3.40 | 0.001 |

### Table F7

*Model 2 (Initial) Regression Weights Summary.*

| Standardized             | Coef. | SE  | Z    | P>|z| |
|--------------------------|-------|-----|------|-----|
| PCB_CARE                 |       |     |      |     |
| Conversation             | .65   | .03 | 20.60| 0.000 |
| Conformity               | -.21  | .04 | -4.95| 0.000 |
| Conversation             |       |     |      |     |
| Guiding                  | .10   | .06 | 1.61 | 0.107 |
| Supporting               | .20   | .05 | 3.83 | 0.000 |
| Neutrality               | -.01  | .06 | -0.14| 0.886 |
| Prohibiting              | -.18  | .06 | -3.22| 0.001 |
| Conformity               |       |     |      |     |
| Guiding                  | .20   | .06 | 3.31 | 0.001 |
| Supporting               | -.06  | .05 | -1.20| 0.230 |
| Neutrality               | .12   | .06 | 2.18 | 0.029 |
| Prohibiting              | .14   | .06 | 2.46 | 0.014 |
### Table F8

*Model 2 (Final) Regression Weights Summary.*

| Standardized | Coef. | SE  | Z     | P>|z| |
|--------------|-------|-----|-------|-----|
| PCB_CARE     |       |     |       |     |
| Conversation | .66   | .03 | 20.62 | 0.000 |
| Conformity   | -.21  | .04 | -4.95 | 0.000 |
| Conversation |       |     |       |     |
| Supporting   | .26   | .05 | 4.35  | 0.000 |
| Prohibiting  | -.14  | .05 | -2.68 | 0.007 |
| Conformity   |       |     |       |     |
| Prohibiting  | .16   | .05 | 2.93  | 0.003 |
| Neutrality   | .11   | .06 | 2.02  | 0.043 |
| Guiding      | .18   | .06 | 3.09  | 0.002 |
APPENDIX G: MODEL DIAGRAMS AND CHARTS
Figure G1: Measurement Model.
Figure G2: Scatterplot Matrix for Guiding, Neutrality, Supporting, Prohibiting, Conversation, Conformity, and PCB_Care.
Figure G3: Moderation Effects of Prohibiting and Neutrality on the Relationship between Conversation and Perceptions of Parent-Child Bonding ($p < .001$).
Figure G4: Moderation Effects of Guiding and Supporting on the Relationship between Conversation and Perceptions of Parent-Child Bonding ($p<.001$).
Figure G5: Model 1 as Multiple Regression (Initial).
Figure G6: Model 1 as Multiple Regression (Final).
Figure G7: Obtained Structural Model, FCP as a Mediator. (*p<.05, **p<.001).
Figure G8: Model 2 (Final)
Figure G9: Simple Slopes by Prohibiting for Predicting Perceptions of Parent-Child Bonding (PCB_CARE) from Conversation.
APPENDIX H: STATA CODE

```stata
quietly: sem, stand
mata
clear
map = st_matrixcolstripe("r(table)"

factors = (tokens(st_global("e(xivars)")), tokens(st_global("e(lyvars)"))) for (j=1;j<=length(factors);j++) {
    f = factors[1,j]
    keyL = (map[.,2]::=f)
    lambda = select(st_matrix("r(table)")[1,.]', keyL)
    ind = (select(map, keyL)[.,1]')
    keyE = J(rows(map),1,0)
    for (i=1;i<=length(ind);i++) {
        keyE = keyE + (map[.,2]::="var(e." + ind[1,i] + ")")
    }
    theta = select(st_matrix("r(table)")[1,.]', keyE)
    CR = round((sum(lambda)^2/((sum(lambda)^2+sum(theta))), .0001)
    AVE = round((lambda'*lambda)/(lambda'*lambda+sum(theta)), .0001
    printf("\n")
    f + " - " + invtokens(ind)
    printf("CR = %5.4f\n", CR)
    printf("AVE = %5.4f\n", AVE)
}
end
```

**Figure H1**: Code for Calculating Congeneric Reliability.
Note: This code was provided by Dr. Brent Hill, Associate Professor, School of Education, North Dakota State University

```stata
// Model 1, Initial
sem ///
(pcb_care <- conv_x_conf c_conversation c_conformity ///
    conv_x_prohibit conv_x_neut c_prohibit c_neutrality ///
    conf_x_guid conf_x_supp c_guiding c_supporting), ///
stand eqsorf
// Model 1, Final
// Dropped: conf_x_guid, c_guiding, conv_x_neut conv_x_conf conf_x_supp c_supporting, c_neutrality
sem ///
(pcb_care <- c_conversation c_conformity conv_x_prohibit c_prohibit), ///
stand eqsorf
// Model 1 (as multiple regression), initial
regress pcb_care ///
    c_conversation c_prohibit c_neutrality c_conversation#c_prohibit c_conversation#c_neutrality ///
    c_conformity c_guiding c_supporting c_conformity#c_guiding c_conformity#c_supporting
// Model 1 (as multiple regression), final
regress pcb_care c_conversation c_prohibit c_conformity c_conversation#c_prohibit
```

**Figure H2**: Code for Testing Model 1 (Initial) and Model 1 (Final).
Note: This code was provided by Dr. Brent Hill, Associate Professor, School of Education, North Dakota State University
Figure H3: Code for Testing Model 2 (Initial) and Model 2 (Final).

Note: This code was provided by Dr. Brent Hill, Associate Professor, School of Education, North Dakota State University

```r
// Model 2, Initial
sem (pcb<care <- conversation conformity) ///
    (conversation <- guiding supporting neutrality prohibit) ///
    (conformity <- guiding supporting neutrality prohibit), ///
stand cov(_ex)
estat egof

// Model 2, Final
sem (pcb<care <- conversation conformity) ///
    (conversation <- supporting prohibit) ///
    (conformity <- neutrality guiding prohibit), ///
stand cov(_ex)
estat egof
```