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## The Impacts of Family Structure and Family Change On Child Outcomes w.e.f adolescence crime

**\*Neha Kaushik**

**Research Scholar, SVU,Gajrulla**

**\*\* Dr.B.D.Harpalani**

**Research Supervisor**

### **Abstract: -**

*The paper provides a brief overview of the research literature on the impacts of family structure and family change on child outcomes, with a particular focus on parental separation. This paper addresses the question: Have the changes in family structure in the western Uttar Pradesh become a catalyst for juvenile delinquency? For this research, I use existing statistics for my three independent variables: divorce rates, Rate of working mothers with children under age 18, Percent female-headed households. It takes as a starting point the existence of pervasive associations between family change and child outcomes and addresses a range of issues that are examined in the research literature. In this research the mechanisms that link family structure and family change to child outcome, remarriage affect child outcomes, use the attributable to the absence of a working mother with children How much is attributable to poorer mental problem due to female – headed households and the association between family change and child outcomes is due to non-causal mechanisms, I use the changes in rates over time and the correlations between family variables and juvenile delinquency.*

**Key words:** family, juvenile delinquency, divorce, working mother, pervasive

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### **Introduction**

When anthropologists discuss family structures, they consider normative patterns. That is, they consider ideal households—or at least widely respected households—in terms of membership. Societies that idealize households with one adult man and woman plus their offspring, nuclear family societies, can be contrasted with those in which one man lives with several women and

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their children (called *polygynous*) or several men live with one woman and their children (called *polyandrous*).

***Nuclear families and single-parent households***- Increasingly, among contemporary industrial societies, a nuclear family structure has been idealized. Conversely, deviations from this structure have been blamed for a variety of social problems, including delinquency. Although both the popular press and participants in the legal system blame broken homes for failures to socialize children as willing participants in an ordered social system, this conclusion goes well beyond the facts.

Claims that single-parent households produce delinquents fit well with several theories. Some assume that children learn how to become adults by association with parents of their own sex. Boys reared without a resident father, according to this assumption, would be deprived of the association necessary for appropriate maturation. As a result, children are said to overreact by asserting masculinity through delinquent behavior. This opinion has been buttressed by reports suggesting that typical delinquents lack the guidance of a father..

If poverty causes crime and the incidence of broken homes is greater among the poor, then broken homes might be incorrectly blamed for causing crime. In addition, official records for delinquency may inflate a connection because they reflect decisions by authorities regarding how to treat delinquents. When deciding what to do with a delinquent, representatives of the criminal justice system who believe that broken homes cause crime are more likely to place those from single-parent families in institutions.

Simple comparisons of the proportions of delinquents from single-parent homes with the proportions of no delinquents from such homes confound many factors associated with family structures in the comparisons. Both social class and ethnicity are among the confounding factors.

***Untangling the complexities***- Several studies that went beyond comparing the incidence of broken homes among criminals with the incidence in the general population failed to show a link between broken homes and delinquency. For example, In studies of London schoolboys and of American school children of both sexes, within social class, delinquency was not more prevalent among children from single-parent homes.

Single parents often find it hard to get assistance. If they must work to support themselves and their families, they are likely to have difficulty providing supervision for their children. Poor supervision, like alcoholism and criminality, seems to generate delinquency. Careful study of the impact of differences in household composition shows that in homes that lack fathers, grandmothers and other adult relatives are protective against delinquency. This evidence further undermines theories that rely on same-sex adults as explanation for successful socialization in families.

Knowledgeable observers have concluded that the evidence fails to support a conclusion that single-parent families cause crime. Asking whether broken homes are good or bad is misleading; the answer must depend in part on the available alternatives. Family conflict is particularly likely to promote criminal behavior, and the choice to divorce must typically be made by parents who do not get along. Convincingly, Jadhav& Kusum, found that among boys who had not been previously aggressive, marital disharmony of parents when the boys were fourteen predicted subsequent aggressive behavior. Furthermore, effects of living with a single parent vary in relation to the emotional and economic climate in the home. Indeed, in their longitudinal study of family disruption among Dehli boys, Jadhav& Kusum (2001) found that those who stayed with their mothers following disruption had delinquency rates that were almost identical to those reared in intact families with low conflict. And in their study of inner-city minority youths living in Chicago, Deborah Gorman-Smith, Patrick Tolan, and David Henry (1999) showed that single-parent status had little impact on delinquency.

***Family interaction-*** Whatever characteristics individuals may have inherited, resulting personalities and behavior are influenced by the social environments in which they are raised. Genetic transmission does not occur without environmental influences. Perhaps the best grounds for believing that family interaction influences conduct comes from those programs that alter parental management techniques and thereby benefit siblings. Consistent and reasonable guidance forms the foundation for such programs.

Social control theory postulates that bonds between parents and children provide a basis for children to give up their immediate pleasures in exchange for receiving distal rewards attached to socialize behavior .Over the past two decades or so, a significant literature has developed on the impact of family structure and family change on child wellbeing. This literature documents an accumulating body of evidence that children raised in different family contexts display differential

patterns of outcomes across a wide range of developmental domains. In particular, children raised in lone-parent families have been found, on average, to do less well across a range of measures of wellbeing than their peers in two-parent families, while parental separation has been found to be associated with an array of adverse outcomes for children. Behind these patterns of associations between family contexts and child outcomes, however, lies a complex web of overlapping and interacting influences, which means that interpreting these results is far from straightforward. It is the aim of this paper to throw some light on the reasons why child outcomes are contingent on family contexts.

The paper provides a brief overview of the research literature in this field. For reasons of space, the paper focuses rather narrowly on the impact of parental separation on child outcomes, although it also briefly examines the impact of remarriage and multiple family transitions on child wellbeing. Within this constrained purview, however, the paper examines a range of issues that are canvassed in the research literature. It takes as a starting point the existence of pervasive associations between family change and child outcomes and considers a range of questions that follow from this: Do family changes such as parental separation primarily have short-term impacts on children, or do they also have more enduring impacts? How does remarriage affect child outcomes? What impacts do frequent changes of family structure have on child outcomes? What are the mechanisms that link family structure and family change to child outcomes? Are there causal connections between family change and child outcomes or are there other reasons for these associations? The paper also examines an exemplar intervention that has been shown to ameliorate the adverse impacts of family change on children's wellbeing.

The literature on these questions is large, complex and growing so fast that it is no longer possible even to keep abreast of new papers produced each year, let alone master everything that has been published in the past two decades. This poses a challenge for a brief survey of the literature such as this. It needs to be said that this paper is not based on a systematic review of the literature in this field. Although I have tried to read widely and without bias, the portion of the literature I have been able to read is necessarily selective – and the portion I can reference in this paper is much more constrained – while the very act of selection has, no doubt, been shaped by my own views and interests. The paper should thus be regarded as no more than a personal reading of the literature.

## ❖ Parental Divorce and Child Outcomes

Children divorce statistics give especially the sceptical people who do not accept anything as true unless from a credible source or it is been proven in a convincing study. These days most people accept divorce as a way of life, completely unaware of the damage they are doing to their children.

### A. General children divorce statistic

- 50% of all west Uttar Pradesh children will witness the divorce of their parents. Almost half of them will also see the breakup of a parent's second marriage.
- One out of 10 children of divorce experiences three or more parental marriage breakups.
- 40% of children growing up in western Uttar Pradesh today are being raised without their fathers. 50% of all the children born to married parents today, will experience the divorce of their parents before they are 18 years old.

### B. Emotional Damage Statistics

- Studies in uncovered that children in repeat divorces got lower results at school. The other children of their age rated them as less pleasant to be around.
- Teenage children of divorce are three times more likely (35% instead of 13%) to need psychological help within a given year.
- Children from divorced homes have more psychological problems, than children from which one of the parents has died.

### C. Physical Damage Statistics

- Between children of divorced parents there are relatively more cases of injury, asthma, headaches and speech defects than among children whose parents have remained married.
- Children of divorced parents are fifty percent more likely to develop health problems than children in two parent families.
- Children that are living with both biological parents are 20 to 35 percent physically healthier than children from broken homes.
- Most Mole stated Childs come from single-parent households or are the children of drug users.

- A child in a female-headed home is 10 times more likely to be physically hurt or murdered.

#### **D. Long Term effects and Children Divorce Statistics**

- A study was done of children from whom the parents were divorced six years earlier. The study found that even after all that time, these children tended to be lonely, unhappy, anxious and insecure.
- Seventy percent of long-term prison inmates grew up in broken homes.

#### **E. Divorce Facts**

Being aware of divorce facts will be helpful for parents to prevent a divorce or to make the best out of a divorce once it takes place. Knowing what to expect takes away a lot of the stress that results from a divorce.

#### **F. Divorce Statistics**

For divorce statistics the divorce rate is the most relevant figure. Next to the divorce rate of all the OECD countries, we provide you with information on the number of marriages, the duration of the marriages and the average age of when people marry for the first time. All these factors influence the divorce rates.

### **The Mother's Employment on the Family and the Child**

My talk is going to be on the effects of maternal employment on families and children, with the focus on children. The results of the study will be reported in a book, published by Global mark publication, called *Mothers at Work: Effects on Children's Well-being* by Lois Haffman, Dr. Rajesh Puri & Dr. Samita Mehta. Most of the maternal employment research and my own study deal with school-aged children, so the bulk of my talk will be on that age group, but since there is currently a great deal of interest in infants and the impact of maternal employment and nonmaterial care during the early years, I will also summarize findings for that period.

Prior to the review itself, however, we need to place today's maternal employment in its social context. To understand its present effects on families and children, we need to understand how

patterns of maternal employment have changed over the years, and how these changes have been accompanied by other social changes that interact with it.

**a) Changing Employment Patterns**

At the present time, most mothers in the Western UP are employed. This is not only true for mothers of school-aged children, as it have been for two decades, but it is also true for mothers of infants less than one-year-old. The pace with which maternal employment rates have increased to this point, however, is so rapid that many people fail to realize its prevalence. Furthermore, attempts to understand its effects often ignore the fact that this change is part of a whole complex of social changes. Both employed mothers and homemakers today live in a very different environment than their counterparts forty or even twenty years ago.

*Table 1. Labor Force Participation Rates of Mothers with children under 18, 2011 and 2016*

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|             |       |
|-------------|-------|
| <b>2011</b> | 8.6%  |
| <b>2012</b> | 18.2% |
| <b>2013</b> | 27.5% |
| <b>2014</b> | 35.8% |
| <b>2015</b> | 48.8% |
| <b>2016</b> | 70.0% |

There are few social changes that are so easy to document as the increased employment of mothers in the Western UP. The steady rise in maternal employment rates over the years is clearly illustrated in Table 1. The pattern, rare in 2011, had become modal by 2016. By 2016, seventy percent of the married mothers with children under eighteen were in the labor force.

*Table 2. Labor Force Participation Rates for Mothers by marital status and age of youngest child, 2011-2016*

|             | <b>Married</b> |              | <b>Widowed,<br/>divorced,<br/>separated</b> |              | <b>Never married</b> |              |
|-------------|----------------|--------------|---|--------------|----------------------|--------------|
|             | <b>6-17</b>    | <b>&lt;6</b> | <b>6-17</b>                                 | <b>&lt;6</b> | <b>6-17</b>          | <b>&lt;6</b> |
| <b>2011</b> | 39.0           | 18.6         | 65.9  | 40.5         | (NA)                 | (NA)         |
| <b>2012</b> | 49.2           | 30.3         | 66.9  | 52.2         | (NA)                 | (NA)         |
| <b>2013</b> | 61.7           | 45.1         | 74.6  | 60.3         | 67.6                 | 44.1         |
| <b>2014</b> | 73.6           | 58.9         | 79.7  | 63.6         | 69.7                 | 48.7         |
| <b>2015</b> | 76.7           | 62.7         | 80.6  | 69.2         | 71.8                 | 55.1         |
| <b>2016</b> | 76.4           | 72.3         | 82.7  | 70.2         | 71.8                 | 60.2         |

Table 2 also indicates another change over the years. Whereas in 2011, employed mothers were more likely to be from single-parent families, this difference has now vanished. For single mothers who have been married, the present employment rates are slightly higher than those of currently married mothers, but for never-married mothers, employment rates are notably lower than for either of the others.

### **Differences between Children of Employed and Nonemployees Mothers**

Many of the studies that have compared the children of employed and nonemployees mothers on child outcome measures such as indices of cognitive and socioemotional development have failed to find significant differences. The research that has shown reasonably consistent differences has examined the relationships within subgroups based on social class and gender. Patterns that have been revealed over the years include the following:

- a. Daughters of employed mothers have been found to have higher academic achievement, greater career success, more nontraditional career choices, and greater occupational commitment.

- b. Studies of children in poverty, in both two-parent and single-mother families, found higher cognitive scores for children with employed mothers as well as higher scores on socioemotional indices.
- c. A few earlier studies found that sons of employed mothers in the middle class showed lower school performance and lower I.Q. scores during the grade school years than full-time homemakers. About ten years ago, there were three separate studies that looked at that relationship; two of them found no difference, but the third also found lower scores for sons of employed mothers in the middle-class.

We found no indication of this in the Michigan study. In fact, we found the opposite. In our study, the children of employed mothers obtained higher scores on the three achievement tests, for language, reading, and math, across gender, socioeconomic status, and marital status, middle-class boys included. It was our most robust findings for the child outcome differences. And yes, we controlled on the mother's education.

- d. Previous research has also found some social adjustment differences between children with employed and nonemployees mothers, but with less consistency. Daughters of employed mothers have been found to be more independent, particularly in interaction with their peers in a school setting, and to score higher on socioemotional adjustment measures. Results for sons have been quite mixed and vary with social class and with how old the children were when they were tested. One finding from that was that in the blue-collar class, sons of employed mothers did well academically but there was a strain in the father-son relationship. This was interpreted as reflecting the more traditional gender-role attitudes in the blue collar class..

## **Conclusion**

A number of conclusions can be drawn from this brief survey of the literature on parental separation and child outcomes. First, there is an abundance of evidence that children who experience a parental separation are, on average, worse off than their peers in intact families, on a number of measures of wellbeing. However, the scale of the differences in wellbeing between the two groups of children is not large and most children are not adversely affected. Parental separation then bears down most heavily on a minority of children, generally in the presence of other exacerbating factors.

Underlying these effects are multiple mechanisms: income declines following separation, declines in the mental health of custodial mothers, interparental conflict and compromised parenting. These mechanisms do not operate independently, but are related in complex ways. For example, income declines following separation place mother-headed households at risk of material and economic deprivation, which can take a toll on mothers' mental health. This in turn can lead to compromised parenting behaviours. All of these factors can impact adversely on child wellbeing.

Part of the effects also arise from non-causal mechanisms: that is to say, not all of the adverse child outcomes following separation can be laid at the door of the separation itself. Many of the difficulties have deeper roots that date from many years prior to the separation and are due to the fact that some parents bring into a marriage characteristics and behaviours – such as poor mental health, antisocial behaviour or substance addictions – that are likely both to jeopardise the success of the marriage and heighten the risk of poor child outcomes. Furthermore, some of the associations between separation and child outcomes are due to genetic inheritance.

One factor that plays a more complex role is interparental conflict. Conflict between parents plays a dual role, both as part of the explanation for the link between parental separation and child outcomes and as an independent influence on child outcomes. It is clear, nevertheless, that post-separation conflict which is bitter and ongoing and which places the children at the centre of disputation has highly malign effects on child wellbeing.

Yet this is a factor which is surely amenable to treatment. If separating couples can be helped to reduce levels of conflict following a separation, or at least to understand the importance of conducting their affairs out of the way of the children and in ways that do not implicate them, then this is likely to have significant benefits for the wellbeing of the children. As Moxnes (2003) notes, “extensive parental cooperation is ... the most important means by which to reduce the negative effects of divorce for children.”

The evidence from the evaluation of the New Beginnings Program shows that it is possible to design programmes aimed at ameliorating the negative fallout from a parental separation that yield real benefits for children, in terms of their mental health, behaviour and general wellbeing. This suggests it would be useful to conduct further investigations to identify promising approaches that afford children protection from a parental separation that could be considered for trial in the Western UP context.

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