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Uncertainty, Interference, and Communication in Bereaved Parent-Child Relationships

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Research on familial loss has centered individualized experiences with grief, constructing a disconnect between family members that works to weaken interdependence and create additional coping challenges. Through a family systems lens, the current study explored family loss from a relational perspective, centering the parent-child experience as a unique and conflictual one. Drawing from the Relational Turbulence Model (RTM) and the Theory of Motivated Information Management (TMIM), this work used actor partner interdependence models (APIM) to test a dyadic and integrated model that centered relational experiences with uncertainty, interference, and information management for 29 bereaved parent-child dyads. Further, to understand more about how lived experience of family loss relate to quantitative measures, this study incorporated a convergent mixed methods design, and used analysis of variance to identify connections between interval variables and themes that arose from a qualitative thematic analysis.

Findings from this study extended knowledge of family loss on theoretical and conceptual levels. Theoretically, the quantitative analysis revealed connections between the RTM and the TMIM, and identified both actor and partner effects related to uncertainty, interference and information management that help to further recognize the importance of exploring death from a family perspective. Conceptually, the qualitative analysis revealed that bereaved parents and children face unique challenges related to uncertainty and interference, and further that their information management goes beyond an open/closed binary. Taken together, the analysis worked to improve current knowledge of family loss by extending how death is defined and studied, and in doing so expanded the reach of the field of family communication by revealing the potential of dyadic and mixed methodological approaches.

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This project was and will remain as a tribute to my family. To my mother, who endured the pain of heartbreak, but continued to support me. To my siblings, Catherine, William, and Richard, who are the only ones who can understand my loss, but more importantly know the wonder of having my dad as their father. And to my dad, who will continue to inspire me everyday.

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Table of Contents

Chapter One: Narrative Positioning

My dad had a big laugh. It was loud. It was full-bodied. It was a spectacle. When I was younger I remember worrying that his laughter might cause an accident, as he often relied on our furniture as a punching bag during his fits of laughter, banging his fists loudly on the kitchen table, the arm of a chair, the wall. His laughter, like his thirst for life and love, was contagious. He hasn't rocked back in his chair, closed his eyes, and banged his fist on the table in six years. But, even though six years has passed, I have not forgotten what his laugh sounds like, what it feels like, what it *looks* like.

When someone dies, your memories of them become a part of who you are. They help you come to terms with struggles and challenges, they help you celebrate changes and advancements, and they help you build and develop your relationships. They can also be reminders of small things, like songs you loved, mountains you hiked, or meals that comfort you. Memories are powerful, but when memories are all you have, you have to work to remember how important they are. For instance, I remember how much my dad loved the Dixie Chicks. I remember him quietly singing "Wide Open Spaces" while making dinner, while painting the house, while raking the lawn. It took five years before I could listen to their version of "Landslide," just hearing the opening notes would bring me to tears. I had to work to remind myself that these memories could be happy, that I could enjoy these songs.

I have worked on incorporating memories of my dad into my life, but it is a constant challenge. I cling to tangible artifacts, his North Face jacket, his phone number in my contact list, his picture on my wall. I am saddened that he will not be there for my graduation, my wedding, the birth of my children. I struggle with reminding myself that memories are important. Inspired by the powerful narratives of many of my colleagues, as I began planning my dissertation I was determined to confront my challenges. I needed to incorporate my dad. I needed to make certain that my memories remained important. I needed my experience to mean something. And I wanted, desperately, to give my grief a purpose. It is through these aspirations that the current project was born.

As I embarked on my dissertation journey, I knew that it was important to reflect on my own experiences. I needed to consider how my identity as a parentally bereaved daughter impacted why I was doing this work, and what I hoped to accomplish. However, this desire to be reflexive clashed with my strengths as a researcher. I was unsure how to incorporate my experiences into the analysis, and was worried that I my emotions overpower the stories shared by my participants. Ultimately, I decided on including my narrative as the first chapter of the dissertation. In particular, I have elected to take my survey, to experience this research as a participant, and to share these findings with you. Though this decision is not critically reflexive, it provides contextual insight that helps to frame the study, while accounting for my identity as a participant in the research process. I do not discuss the explicit details of my dad's death, but instead work to narratively position myself in relation to my participants and this research. It is my hope that the lived experiences I share below help to develop a framework for this dissertation by

giving you a glimpse into my perspective of the project, and my experience with parental death.

Identifying as a Participant

- I am interested in knowing how you experienced and remember the death, and therefore your story should represent the parts of the experience that are important, meaningful, and memorable to you.

When I moved home after finishing my undergrad degree my parents offered to let me move to the third floor. The deal was sweet. I would have my own bathroom, I would be separate from them and my younger brother, I would have more privacy – which I thought I had of course earned after spending four years in a crowded sorority house. Needless to say, shortly after my graduation I took up residence on the top floor. I spent the summer and fall applying for graduate programs and working as a swim coach at a local YMCA. I was "let go" due to budget cuts in the early winter, so I began searching for other jobs that would hold me over until I began school the next year. After a tiring interview process I was hired as a swim instructor for a private company. The pool was accessible by the train, the hours were great, and the pay was like nothing I had ever seen before. I was due to start on January 4th.

I usually set two alarms, just in case I don't hear the first one. But on January 4th I didn't need either. I woke up to screams. My younger brother was in the habit of starting fights with my parents, so my initial thought was that they were at it again. So, from three floors above, I did not react. When the screams continued, I raced out of bed, down three flights of winding stairs, to find my

mother frantic in the basement, my dad lying beside her. The house was cold, as the heat had not even had a chance to circulate. I stood there motionless, and my brother began CPR. Running faster than I thought I could, I grabbed the phone and dialed 911. I was on the porch and my feet were cold, I hadn't put socks on yet. I heard sirens in the distance, a common soundtrack for our neighborhood, but this time they came closer than usual. EMTs rushed into the house, the stretcher came in through the basement door. I heard the shocks of the automated external defibrillator, the raising of the stretcher, the clicking of the buckles. I ran up the winding stairs to the third floor to get shoes.

I drove the car, the big suburban that I hated driving, following closely behind the ambulance. Carney Hospital is about a mile from our house, so the drive is short. I have been to this emergency room many times before, but never seen it so empty. The TV was on. We sat, spread out across many seats, for what felt like a split second before someone came and brought us to a room. The room was small. Beige couches lined either side of the walls, and there was a table in the middle. My mom kept repeating, "this is not good. this is not good. this is not good. this is not good."

Our trip to the hospital was quick, maybe it was a courtesy. My mom would later explain that he was dead before we left the house. I had only been up for an hour, but I was tired when we got home. I walked slowly up the three flights of stairs back to my bedroom. I called my best friend, who immediately drove to Boston. I called my new boss and told them I couldn't make it to work.

- Thinking about your own parent-child relationship, please list and briefly describe issues of uncertainty you experienced within your parent-child relationship following the death of your spouse/parent.

  My mom is a strong woman, possibly the strongest woman I know. She is the type of woman who would drop everything for a friend or family member. She always goes above and beyond with everything. She is the best. But my mom doesn't really like to share her feelings. I could tell that she was upset after my dad died, and I wanted to help her, but she wouldn't let me. I remember her birthday, the first one following his death, I planned a small get together at our house. I invited a few of her friends and some family. Nothing too big. I made homemade pizzas, including a margarita pizza, which she loved. Stacey brought a cake. She never came home. She just didn't show up. In retrospect I can understand if she didn't want to come, but I just wish she would have told me.

- Thinking about your own parent-child relationship, please list and briefly describe ways in which your child/parent made it harder for you to complete your everyday activities following the death of your spouse/parent.

  My mom has not directly made it harder for me to complete my everyday activities. In fact, she is beyond supportive of me, and she exudes excitement when talking about my future. But, I often times get hung up thinking about how sad she might be. I worry about her being sad and alone in the house, and I get upset thinking about her at home, eating dinner all alone. I try to call, and have tried my best to visit, but I am sometimes just overcome with sadness thinking about

her. She has spent her life dedicated to making sure I have happy and safe and successful, and I want to make sure that she is all of those things.

- Think about your parent-child communication since the death, and specifically times you have, or have not talked about the loss. Please read the following questions and statements and indicate the extent to which the experience resembles your parent-child communication.

  I would not describe our communication about the death as open. For a long time I thought this was an issue. I thought we had to talk about it, that in order to cope we needed to co-construct a joint understanding of the loss. But, actually, we don't. The most important communication to me is when my mom shares stories about my dad, and happy memories. Or when she tells me that my dad would be proud of me. We don't have to talk about the details of his death to talk about him, and we don't want to. We don't want to talk about January 4th – January 4th is not how my dad should be defined. He is defined by all of the minutes, hours, days and years that came before January 4th and I think that is what my mom tries to share in our conversations about him.

Chapter Two: Introduction

Death is inevitable; it is as much a part of life as living. What is unique about death is that while it may refer to the passing of only one person, it can symbolize the loss of many different relationships (Traylor, Hayslip, Kaminski, & York, 2003). The death of a parent for one bereaved person can mark the loss of a spouse for another, a child for someone else, or even a friend. Death is inherently relational; it can be experienced by an individual, but the experience is defined by its relational context.

The current study was interested in exploring the experience of death, and was focused on looking at loss from the perspective of the parent-child relationship. This work is situated within the frame of family systems theory, and defines the family unit as a unique and interdependent relational system (Bavelas & Segal, 1982; Bowen, 1978; Galvin, Dickson, & Marrow, 2006; Yerby, 1995). This research positions death as an experience that has the potential to threaten the interdependence of a family unit through its emphasis on isolated and individualistic grieving (Traylor et al., 2003). In other words, although death may be situated within the family unit, more often than not, it is defined only by its individualized relational context (i.e., parental loss or spousal loss). This study is driven by the goal of understanding how death, and in particular spousal/parental death, is experienced from the perspective of the parent-child relationship, rather than from the parent perspective *or* the child perspective.

To explore this relational experience, the current study drew upon two theoretical frames: the relational turbulence model (RTM) and the theory of motivated information management (TMIM). This research frames death as a transitional moment for the parent-child relationship, and argues that components of both theories provide a means through which researchers can better understand how parents and children interact and communicate following the loss. Notably, the RTM situates uncertainty and interference as experiences that are embedded within relational transitions (i.e., familial loss; Knobloch, 2015; Solomon, 2016; Solomon & Knobloch, 2004), whereas the TMIM contends that decisions to seek and share information are constituted by an individual's orientation toward the experience they are communicating about (Afifi & Weiner, 2004). When considered together, the two theories provide a space for understanding how uncertainty and interference can influence the way one orients to a relational transition, and subsequently how they communicate about that experience both within and outside of the relationship. Within the context of familial death, an integration of the RTM and the TMIM provides a way of understanding how families create and experience uncertainty following loss, and consequentially how that uncertainty factors into how they communicate about loss.

To this end, this study was designed to explore the experience of spousal/parental death from the perspective of the parent-child relationship. Emphasis was placed on understanding the function of uncertainty and interference within the relationship, and specifically on exploring how these relational components impact parent-child communication about the death. While the overarching goal of this work was to better

understand how parent-child relationships experience and communicate about spousal/parental death, a secondary goal was to test a proposed integrated model of relational processing, one which pulled from both the RTM and the TMIM. Finally, a guiding commitment of this work was to situate the death within the parent-child relationship, with the hope that doing so would also position coping techniques within the relationship, thereby increasing the autonomy of bereaved parents and children by giving them the tools they need to cope, without perpetuating a reliance on individuals outside of the family.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

As a means of articulating the goals and connections that drove this study, what follows is an overview of literature on grief in the family context, followed by a exploration of the RTM, the TMIM, and the proposed integrated model. This project first contextualizes the family, and in particular the grieving family, then works through literature on parental bereavement, spousal bereavement, and parent-child relationships and loss. This study then speaks to the strengths and weaknesses of both the RTM and the TMIM, integrating their conceptual frames in a way that provides a means of understanding how spousal/parental death is experienced by and communicated about *within* the parent-child relationship.

Contextualizing the (Grieving) Family

There exists a diverse set of supplies from which one can build a family, for instance legal status, biological similarities, social associations, emotional ties, and cognitive connections (Baxter, 2014; Galvin, 2014). However, regardless of the materials one selects to build their family, the basic idea remains consistent: family relationships are special and significant in ways that those outside of the family unit are not (Bavelas & Segal, 1982; Turner & West, 2012; Yerby, 1995). In essence, family relationships are unique and distinctive, and individuals within the family unit are interdependent (Galvin et al., 2006; Yerby, 1995). The family unit, and the individuals within the family unit,

exist and are sustained through the continued work and development of the family members (Galvin et al., 2006; Yerby, 1995).

Consistent with the basic values of family systems theory, the current study argues that although a family is built of unique individuals, within the context of the familial unit, each unique individual is, to some extent, reliant on the other (Bavelas & Segal, 1982; Bowen, 1978; Yerby, 1995). From this perspective, a family unit is developed and supported through interactions that help to create, enact, and sustain the family's shared beliefs, meanings, and values (Bavelas & Segal, 1982; Bowen, 1966; Turner & West, 2012; Yerby, 1995). Maintaining this interdependence and upholding the pattern of mutual influence is key to preserving the structural integrity of a family unit because it is the means through which families, and the individuals within families, sustain their identity (Galvin et al., 2006; Yerby, 1995). To this end, threats to a family's interdependence have the potential to create turmoil by challenging the unique and interconnected nature of familial relationships and experience.

One such challenge that is worthy of investigation is the experience of familial death. Death presents a particularly difficult challenge for families because the loss is not contained to one single, isolated event (Greeff & Human, 2004). Shonkoff, Jarman, and Kohlenberg (1987) argue that, following a death, families must not only deal with the immediate consequences of the loss (for instance funeral arrangements), but must also negotiate how to make sense of the death within the context of the ongoing life of the family unit. Families must not only manage logistical implications of the death, but must also process the loss on both an individual and family level, working to develop ways of

integrating the experience into the family identity (Shonkoff et al., 1987). This has the potential to disrupt the interdependence and cohesion that is so vital to the existence of a family unit because individuals are asked to negotiate their own loss, while also considering the contextually different losses of their other family members, and of the family unit as a whole. To this end, although the death exists within the larger family system, it is clear that the loss presents a challenge for family cohesion and teamwork.

This challenge is exacerbated by many of the emotive reactions to death such as stress and anxiety, which increase the likelihood for aggressive and avoidant communication and behavior (Carmon, Western, Miller, Pearson, & Fowler, 2010; Shonkoff et al., 1987; McGoldrick & Walsh, 1991). Not only are the individual members of a family unit isolated from one another by their unique perceptions of and experiences with the death, but they are also discouraged from sharing their thoughts and feelings related to the death with others because, particularly within Western cultures, death is highly stigmatized (Walsh, 1983). Conversations about death range from subtle to silent, with those in mourning constructing and enduring what many refer to as a 'conspiracy of silence'[1] (Bostico & Thompson, 1995). This lack of communication limits a family unit's ability co-construct a shared understanding of the loss, and reinforces an environment of isolated grief.

There is perhaps no place where this challenge is more apparent than in the parent-child relationship following the death of a spouse/parent. While all members of a

[1] The description "conspiracy of silence" is believed to stem originally from Albert Schweitzer's 1907 sermon on "overcoming death," and has been widely used in literature since (Davies, 2005).

family unit mourn the loss of a unique relationship following a familial death, the context of that relationship may overlap between surviving family members. For instance, when a child dies, two parents may mourn the loss of a child, or when a parent dies, two siblings may grieve the loss of a parent. However, when looking at death from the perspective of the parent/child relationship, there is little to no overlap in relational context. The experience of spousal/parental death is contextually different for each relational partner: one person is mourning the death of their spouse; one person is mourning the death of their parent.

Children and Parental Death.

The experience of parental death is, unfortunately, much more common than many people would believe, with some research reporting that, just in the United States, nearly 2.5 million children (or 3.5% of children) will lose a parent before they turn 18 (Social Security Administration, 2000). While the experience will be unique for each child, the implications of the death will be hard to avoid. Specifically, while the death occurs only once, it is embedded within the child's ongoing experience, impacting different facets of their life as time goes on (Worden, 1996). For instance, in her work on 'motherless daughters' Edelman (2014) found that even thirty years after the death of a mother, the loss still played a role in the thoughts, experiences, and perceptions of parentally bereaved women. Many researchers maintain that the grief of parentally bereaved children is never fully resolved, arguing that the experience is permanently embedded in their identity (Biank & Werner-Lin, 2001; Bowlby, 1980; Christ, 2000; Edelman, 2014; Eppler, 2008; Johnson, 1982; Worden, 1996). In this sense, the death of a

parent does not exist within a time-controlled vacuum, but rather as a fluid and constant part of a child's identity.

What is remarkable about the experience of death is the fact that all children, regardless of age, have some concept of the loss (Gibbons, 1992). For instance, while young children (ages 0-3) typically experience death as abandonment or separation, toddlers view it is more of a mysterious or magical event (Gibbons, 1992). However, the impact of parental death in particular may vary between age groups. Stoppelbein and Greening (2000) found that younger children experienced higher levels of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) following the death of a parent than their older counterparts. Other work has found that younger children are at a higher risk for maladjustment following the death, and experience high levels of anxiety and stress as they process the loss (Bowlby, 1980; Hope & Hodge, 2006). Furthermore, Hope and Hodge (2006) found that age, and in particular the developmental stage of a child can have implications for how the child adjusts to the death insofar that it impacts the child's ability to understand and grasp the loss.

Differences related to the experience of parental death may also exist across genders. Kalter and colleagues (2003) found that adolescent boys react the most negatively to the death of a parent (Kalter, Lohnes, Chasin, Cain, Dunning, & Rowan, 2003), while Worden (1996) found that, regardless of age, girls seemed to experience more somatic symptoms and anxiety following the death of parent. However, despite differences in conceptualizations of death, most children work through many of the same grieving challenges following the loss of a parent (Worden, 1996). Notably, all children,

at some point in their life, have to accept the reality of the loss by acknowledging that the death occurred, something that can be particularly challenging for children who struggle with notions of permanence and irreversibility (Worden, 1996). In addition to recognizing that the death occurred, children must also acknowledge the feelings they have related to the loss, an experience that can look incredibly different depending on contextual factors such as how old the child is, how the death occurred, and relationship to the deceased. For instance, some children experience loneliness, confusion, and sadness (Becvar, 2001; Bowlby, 1980; Weller, Weller, Fristad, & Bowes, 1991; Worden, 1996), while others experience more aggressive feelings such as guilt and anger (Johnson, 1982; Saldinger, Porterfield, & Cain, 2004; Silverman, Nickman, & Worden, 1992; Worden, 1996; Worden & Silverman, 1996). Finally, all children have to adjust to a life without their deceased parent, this includes renegotiating roles, reconsidering how to relate to and interact with the surviving parent, and considering ways in which they can integrate the deceased into their ongoing life and identity (Worden, 1996)

While the grieving process will be unique for each child, recognition of their grief is vital to understanding their experience. There are numerous negative implications of losing a parent, but understanding how they fit into a child's coping process can be useful in helping to manage the severity of their impacts. For instance, parentally-bereaved children are susceptible to depression and alcohol abuse following the death (Brent, Melhem, Donohoe, & Walker, 2009), but acknowledging this threat, and recognizing different ways of helping a child come to terms with the loss can potentially offset the damaging effects. In addition to alcohol abuse and depression, children who live through

the death of a parent are also at risk for experiencing PTSD, severe social impairments, and declining physical health (Baker, Sedney, & Gross, 1992; Berlinsky & Biller, 1982; Cournos, 2001; Johnson, 1982; Melhem, Walker, Moritz, & Brent, 2008; Shonkoff et al., 1987; Weller at al., 1991). These children experience high levels of anxiety and social withdrawal, as well as low levels of self-efficacy and self-confidence (Bowlby, 1980; Mack, 2001; Mireault & Bond, 1992; Saler & Skolnick, 1992; Worden, 1996). Furthermore, these impacts can exist throughout a parentally bereaved child's life, extending even into adulthood. For instance, Luecken and colleagues (2009) found that adults who experienced the death of a parent during their childhood have more extreme reactions to stress, which often lead to chronically elevated cortisol levels that increase their likelihood of developing health complications such as immune disorders, heart disease, chronic pain, hypertension, and atherosclerosis (McEwen & Seeman, 1999; Luecken, Kraft, Appelhans, & Enders, 2009).

Though these implications may be experienced individually, they are embedded within the larger familial context. Specifically, although the ways in which the death of a parent impacts a child are important to consider, understanding how the grief functions within the greater family system is equally as important. For instance, families who experience the death of a parent often deal with financial strain following the death, including loss of health insurance, loss of home, and loss of primary income (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Carmon et al., 2010; McBride & Simms, 2010; Werner-Lin, Biank, & Rubenstein, 2010). This puts increased stress on both parents and children who must not only manage their own grief, but must also learn new ways of surviving without the

deceased parent. Further, a child's ability to cope with the death of their parent is contingent on the surviving parent's ability to cope with the loss of their spouse (Hope & Hodge, 2008). Therefore, research must consider the experiences of a parentally bereaved child with regard to how they function within, and relate to the experiences and strains of the larger family unit, and in particular the grieving parent.

Parents and Spousal Death.

As with parental death, the number of individuals impacted by spousal death is striking, with some work suggesting that nearly half of women over the age of 65 are widowed (Fields & Casper, 2001). Though the contextual factors surrounding the death (i.e., cause, age, and reaction) may vary, the death of a spouse is often thought of as one of the most stressful events in the human experience (Amster & Krauss, 1974; Bhikaji, 2012; Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Lopata, 1973, 1996; Wilcox, Evenson, Aragaki, Wassertheil-Smoller, Mouton, Loevinger, 2003). Spousally bereaved individuals often face a variety of mental and physical health issues following the death, including increased mortality rates (Mineau, Smith, & Bean, 2002; Martikainen & Valkonen, 1996; Schaefer, Quesenberry, & Wi, 1995), feelings of loneliness and despair (Johnson, 1982; Saldinger et al., 2004), and depression (Utz, Swenson, Caserta, Lund, & de Vries, 2014; Wilcox et al., 2003). Some research suggests that spousally bereaved men and women experience the death differently, for instance Stroebe and colleagues (2001) found that men face greater consequences following the loss of a spouse than women (Stroebe, Stroebe, & Schut, 2001), while other work has found that men face greater health risks following the death of a spouse (Stroebe, 1998). Despite these differences however, it is

clear that the experience of spousal death has major implications for the life of a spousally bereaved person.

The experience of spousal death is not contained to just the internal feelings and experiences of a grieving individual. In fact, many researchers argue that spousally bereaved individuals are stigmatized (Barrett, 1977; Lopata, 1973, 1996). Living in, and perpetuating the stigma through their internal struggles and thoughts, as well as their external, social interactions where they are often treated as if they have been plagued with an "infectious disease" (Barrett, 1977, p. 856). This stigma is externalized through a depletion in social functioning, an increased propensity toward risky behaviors, and a decline in physical health, including weight loss, insomnia, and cardiovascular disease risk factors (Barrett, 1977; Kushnir & Kristal-Boneh, 1995; Scott, Bergeman, Verney, Logenbaker, Markey, & Bisconti, 2007; Shahar, Schultz, Shahar, & Wing, 2001; Umberson, 1987; Venters, Jacobs, Pirie, Luepker, Folson, & Gillum, 1986). In essence, the death of a spouse represents a disruption in the life and routines of an individual (Holmes & Rahem, 1967).

However, the experience of spousal loss is as much relational as it is individual. For instance, many relationally based characteristics like dependable support systems, remarriage, and religious affiliation can offset some of the negative implications of the death by helping to foster a greater sense of control and compassion (Mineau et al., 1996; Scott et al., 2007). Yet, relationships can also intensify some of the death's destructive effects. For example, children sometimes resent the surviving parent, and often project anger associated with the death onto them as a way of coping with the loss (Johnson,

1982; Shonkoff et al., 1978; Silverman & Silverman, 1979). Moreover, spousally bereaved individuals sometimes experience feelings of resentment toward their deceased partner, feeling that they have been "left holding the bag" (Shonkoff et al., 1978, p. 533). In addition to these relational experiences, spousal death also has system-wide implications, with some research finding that spousally bereaved individuals have a 44% lower economic status than their married counterparts, and often struggle to keep up with day-to-day routines and maintenance because they find household chores and daily activities like eating to be exhausting and stressful (Hahn, Cichy, Small, Almeida, 2014; McGarry & Schoeni, 2005). In this sense, spousal death is always embedded within the larger experience of familial loss, always simultaneously impacting and being impacted by the familial context within which the loss is situated.

To this end, it is clear that the experiences of bereaved individuals are embedded within the larger familial context. It is also clear that death "shakes the foundation of family life" (Greeff & Human, 2004, p. 27). Therefore, it is important to consider the interplay of family relationships in the wake of a death. Given that family cohesion, a type of co-constructed familial unity, decreases an individual's grief symptoms, it can be argued that an individual is not able to effectively grieve and cope unless the family, as a unit, is able to grieve and cope (Traylor et al., 2003).

Parent-Child Relationships and Spousal/Parental Death.

Death represents a rupture in the family system. It challenges surviving family members to renegotiate previously developed and practiced roles, meanings, and communication patterns (Nadeau, 2001; Shonkoff et al., 1987). This can be particularly

difficult because, in the wake of death, many individuals retreat to isolation and emotional withdrawal (Johnson, 1982; Saldinger et al., 2004). There is some research to suggest that contextual variables surrounding the death, for instance the gender and role of the parent within the family impact the way in which the surviving family members cope. For instance, Lawrence and colleagues (2006) found that children who experience the death of a mother experience higher levels of depression, distress, and grief than those who lose a father (Lawrence, Jeglic, Matthews, & Pepper, 2006). However, because spousally bereaved mothers and their children are more likely to participate in research following the death (Gersten, Beals, & Kallgren, 1991), research findings related to gender differences are fairly inconsistent.

Beyond gender differences, the age of the child can also have implications for how the grief process is experienced within the parent-child relationship, as age factors heavily into childhood development (Hope & Hodge, 2006; Shonkoff et al., 1987). For instance, while parents typically have more influence and control over their school-aged children (aged 6-12), adolescent children tend to distance themselves from their families, creating tension and conflict within the parent-child relationship (Lamb et al., 1999). Given this distinction, researchers have found age to be a particularly salient factor in bereaved parent-child relationships where the child is an adolescent, finding that "bereaved adolescents may behave in a dramatic, self-centered manner" (Gibbons, 1992, p. 70). Therefore, in addition to the managing tension that stems from the death, bereaved parents and children must also deal with changes in their relationship that stem from childhood development.

Within the context of the parent-child relationship, transitioning into a new life, one without the deceased spouse/parent, is difficult because, despite similarities in reactions, parents and children do not always recognize each other's grief. This lack of acknowledgement poses an increased threat to the parent-child relationship because it limits the dyad's ability to generate a mutual understanding of how the death functions in the family, something that is vital to helping individuals cope with and make sense of the loss (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Sedney, Baker, & Gross, 1994; Shonkoff et al., 1987). In fact, communicating about the death, and specifically sharing stories about experiences and understandings of the loss helps to "reestablish the family's sense of the intactness of its boundaries and its potential to continue on" (Sedney et al., 1994, p. 291). Communication becomes a space wherein parents and children can use their individual experiences to create a co-constructed understanding of the loss. To this end, the current project argued that communication is a key component in helping parents and children cope *together* with the death of a spouse/parent.

Communication and coping. Within the context of communication, bereaved parents and children grapple with many tensions in the face of spousal/parental death. On the one hand, open communication plays a positive role in boosting the psychological welfare of both individuals and family units by helping to facilitate effective coping strategies (i.e., story sharing; Carmon et al., 2010; Sedney et al., 1994). On the other hand, open communication is intimidating, as it represents an active acknowledgement that the death actually happened (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Sussillo, 2005).

Communicating with one another about the death, while important and potentially helpful, puts bereaved individuals in a vulnerable position.

As a result, many bereaved individuals avoid talking about the death. Within the context of the parent-child relationship, bereaved parents often keep information about the death hidden from children in an effort to protect them from grief and trauma associated with the loss (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005). Similarly, grieving children often avoid talking about feelings of sadness, or sharing their bad days with their parent as a way of protecting them from becoming upset (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Johnson, 1982). Therefore, although open communication can be an effective and therapeutic coping technique, bereaved parents and children avoid talking with one another in an effort to hide their feelings and protect their relational partner. This avoidance perpetuates an isolated grieving process, one that threatens the interdependence of the family unit by actively working against the development of a co-constructed understanding of the death.

In this sense, communication is situated as a primary factor in the experience of spousal/parental death; it represents a means through which bereaved parents and children can cope, while simultaneously representing a space wherein their grief is constituted. This emphasis on communication also centers the relationship, rather than just the isolated individual experiences, because it positions communication as an interactive and inherently relational process. Additionally, a focus on communication reiterates a systematic approach to understanding family identity by underscoring the connection between one's communication and their relational experience, while also

supporting the notion that members of a family share, process, and react to information in a fluid, cyclical manner, where the goal is to co-construct familial understandings and experiences (Bavelas & Segal, 1982). Therefore, within the context of spousal/parental loss, avoidant communication exists *within*, rather than outside of the parent-child relationship.

The current study positions communication as a relational process, one that is embedded within the dyadic experience of spousal/parental death. Consistent with family systems theory, this work conceives of communication as a by-product and a builder of both relational and individual identity, arguing that, within the context of spousal/parental death, parent-child communication creates and sustains grieving challenges (Bavelas & Segal, 1982; Bowen, 1966; Turner & West, 2012; Yerby, 1995). This emphasis on the relational is consistent with the two theoretical frames that drive the current project: the relational turbulence model (RTM) and the theory of motivated information management (TMIM). Specifically, both the RTM and the TMIM emphasize the dyadic nature of relational experiences, with the RTM focusing on the experiential, and the TMIM centering the communicative. Given this, the current study argues that the RTM and the TMIM provide a means through which researchers can better understand the complexities embedded with parent-child communication following spousal/parental loss because the theories underscore the relational nature of communication and experiences.

Relational Turbulence Model

RTM is a theoretical framework that targets transitions, or changes in relationships, conceiving of them as moments (brief and longstanding) that are integral to

relational development (see Knobloch, 2015, Solomon, 2016, & Solomon & Knobloch, 2004 for review). The model defines these transitional moments as "discontinuous phases[s] in the progression of a relationship that correspond(s) with changes in how partners think, feel, and behave" (Knobloch, 2015, p. 378). At its core, the RTM is interested in capturing the natural ebb and flow of relationships, arguing that moments of transition are nearly inevitable within the context of the relational experience. The model argues that transitions are not only inevitable, but are also crucial moments in the life of a relationship because they represent spaces wherein relational partners cognitively, emotionally, and behaviorally work to process and make sense of change.

Although the model is focused on moments of relational transition, the underlying assumption of the theoretical frame is that during periods of change, relationships are more susceptible to turbulence. The model argues that relational transitions promote increased reactivity because they are spaces wherein individuals are more prone to being vigilant, and are more likely to experience emotions intensely. Notably, the model is oriented around two primary constructs: relational uncertainty and partner interference, with the principle argument being that these relational constructs build the bridge between relational transitions and relational turbulence by acting as the cues individuals use to process and respond to messages from their partners. As the cornerstones of the RTM, relational uncertainty and partner interference function as manifestations of the relational transition.

Relational uncertainty is defined as "the degree of confidence people have in their perceptions of involvement within interpersonal relationships" (Solomon & Knobloch,

2004, p. 797). This definition runs counter to traditional definitions of uncertainty reduction and uncertainty management because it contextualizes doubt and ambiguity as a relational experience (Berger & Bradac, 1982; Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Solomon and Knobloch (2004) extend this notion of relational uncertainty by positioning it as a higher-order construct, under which several different and more specific types of uncertainty are housed: self-uncertainty ("questions people have about their own involvement in a relationship"), partner-uncertainty ("the doubts people experience about their partner's involvement in a relationship"), and relationship-uncertainty ("questions associated with the relationship itself"; Solomon & Knobloch, 2004, p. 797). By breaking relational uncertainty down into three, interrelated constructs, the RTM creates a way of understanding how conceptions of self, other, and relationship interact with one another within the context of a relational transition.

In addition to considering uncertainty, the model also contends that relational transitions are influenced by the behaviors of the individual relational partners. The model is structured around two types of behavior: interference and facilitation. These behavioral attributes stem from Berscheid's (1983, 1991) work on interdependence, and define relationships as partnerships that are continuously being re-established based on the ways in which members of that relationship function within the lives of one another. The basic premise is that individuals are inevitably going to interrupt the lives of their partners, but that their interruption can either function as an interference or as a facilitation. Interference refers to the degree to which one's interruption in their partner's life thwarts their partner's ability to achieve a goal, whether big or small. Facilitation, on

the other hand, signifies the way in which one's interruption in their partner's life helps their partner achieve a goal.

To this end, the RTM is a theoretical frame geared toward creating a better understanding of how relational changes are experienced. The guiding principle of the model is that transitions are moments when relationships are particularly susceptible to turbulence. The model does not argue that transitions create turbulence, but rather that specific relational cues, and in particular relational uncertainty and partner interference, are more likely to occur during moments of change, creating a context wherein turbulence becomes a more likely experience. By situating relational uncertainty and partner interference as the foundations of the connection between relational transitions and turbulence, the model contextualizes changes as relational, rather than individual, an emphasis that is maintained in the model's many empirical applications which range from explorations of transitions into dating relationships (Solomon and Theiss, 2008) and marriage (Theiss, Estlein, & Weber, 2013), to those that examine experiences with infertility (Steuber & Soloman, 2008, 2011), breast cancer (Weber & Soloman, 2008), and depression (Knobloch & Delaney, 2012).

Despite the contextual differences however, most of this work has been consistent in finding a relationship between relational transitions and relational turbulence. For instance, in their work on communication and irritations in romantic relationships, Theiss and Solomon (2006) found a connection between reports of relational uncertainty and partner interference, and the reported negativity of a relational irritation. Similarly, in their work on military families, Knobloch and colleagues (2013) found that relational

uncertainty and partner interference predicted difficulty in reintegration following deployment (Knobloch, Ebata, McGlaughlin, & Ogolsky, 2013). In this sense, the basic principle of the RTM, or the proposed connection between relational transitions and relational turbulence, crosses contextual and relational boundaries.

While not necessarily within the scope of the RTM, a primary limitation of the framework is that it does not fully articulate *how* relational characteristics are impacted by the relational transition, and how that experience is embedded in the larger context of the relationship. While many of the more recent applications of the RTM provide evidence for a connection between transitions and relational outcomes such as dominance and negative or hurtful perceptions of the relationship (McLaren, Solomon, & Priem, 2011; Theiss & Knobloch, 2013), this work does not provide an understanding of what that hurt or dominance looks like. In other words, while Theiss and Knobloch's (2013) research argues that relational transitions, and subsequently relational turbulence, have impacts on relational communication, it does not necessarily point out specific ways in which this association is enacted within the relationship.

Notably, the RTM is successful in being able to garner support for the connection between moments of transition and relational characteristics, but is unable to provide insight into how the implications of the transition are played out within the relationship. Given that the current project was interested in exploring how relational and individual experiences (e.g., interference and uncertainty) impact relational communication following familial death, it was imperative that the RTM be extended in a way to provide a means of exploring how the implications of uncertainty and interference (and

subsequently turbulence) are communicatively enacted within the family unit. The current project proposed that one way of doing this was to integrate the RTM with the TMIM, arguing that while the RTM contextualizes moments of transition as important to relational development and identity, the TMIM speaks to how the implications of the relational transition may be communicatively enacted by members of the family unit.

Theory of Motivated Information Management

The TMIM is a framework that centers the relationship between uncertainty and information (see Afifi & Robbins, 2015 and Afifi & Weiner, 2004 for review). The core principle of the TMIM is that the decision to seek information is subject to one's evaluation and interpretation of the context within which the information exists. Conceptually the TMIM is built on two different bodies of research. First, the theory rejects uncertainty reduction theory's (URT) claim that uncertainty is always something individuals seek to reduce, and extends uncertainty management theory's (UMT) claim that uncertainty and ambiguity are something individuals seek to manage by applying it in a more precise and predictive manner (Berger & Calabrese, 1975; Brashers & Hogan, 2013). Second, pulling from Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), Expectancy Violation Theory (EVT), Theories of Bounded Rationality, and later Lazarus' appraisal theories of emotion, the TMIM situates expectations and emotions as the motivating force behind decision-making (Afifi & Robbins, 2015). In this sense, the TMIM argues that the relationship between uncertainty and information is contextualized by expectations, evaluations, and emotions.

Largely due to its post-positivist orientation, the TMIM places an emphasis on predictability, and particularly on being able to predict the information management decisions of individuals. Therefore, the theory involves a very intricate and progressive model, one that works through three different phases: interpretation, evaluation, and decision. The theory contextualizes information management as occurring sequentially, arguing that one's interpretation of a situation informs how they evaluate potential strategies for information management, subsequently impacting the information management strategy they select. Therefore, the first phase of the theory, interpretation, functions as the catalyst for the information management behavior. Given that the theory defines uncertainty in a more fluid way, arguing that it is a state in and of itself, the interpretation phase is centered on coming to terms with the existence of uncertainty. This phase functions as the space wherein individuals consider how much uncertainty they have about a situation, and how much uncertainty they desire, a difference referred to as uncertainty discrepancy.

The theory contends that uncertainty is a controllable state, and that an information management situation only warrants action if an individual feels they have more or less uncertainty than they would like. For instance, if an individual's experienced uncertainty matches their desired uncertainty, the information management situation does not require any action because there is no uncertainty discrepancy. However, the theory argues that when there is an uncertainty discrepancy, or when experienced uncertainty does not match desired uncertainty, emotional responses are elicited. In other words, an

individual's uncertainty discrepancy predicts the emotional response they will have to a given information management system.

Within the progressive model of information management, the second phase is evaluation, or the space wherein individuals consider both the potential outcomes of an information management decision, as well as their perceived ability to make and subsequently manage their information decision. Embedded within this phase are two interacting, and interrelated concepts: outcomes and efficacy. The theory positions outcomes as the prospective choices one has when faced with an information management decision, and contends that individuals consider three, interrelated constructs which subsequently predict their perceptions of efficacy within a given information situation: outcome expectancies (OE), outcome importance (OI), and outcome probability (OP). Although, at a conceptual level, each of the three components factored into the development of the model, empirical tests include only OE. Specifically, OE refers to the implications of making a certain decision, recognizing that effects can take place on process oriented (related to the information management action) and result oriented (related to the actual information) levels, and that such impacts can be both positive (benefit) and negative (cost).

The second construct, efficacy, is also broken down into three, interrelated constructs: coping efficacy, communication efficacy, and target efficacy. Given that the TMIM situates self-perceptions as an important component in one's orientation toward information management, including efficacy is hugely important because it gets at an individual's belief in their abilities. For instance, coping efficacy plays a large part in an

individual's decision to employ a particular information management strategy because it segments out and evaluates their perception of whether they could deal (emotionally, relationally, or financially) with their decision. Further, the theory defines communication efficacy as an individual's perception of whether or not they have the skills and abilities to employ the information management strategy. Finally, the theory describes target efficacy as an individual's evaluation of the role of the information provider. Specifically, the TMIM purports that information management is inherently relational, and therefore target efficacy focuses on the perceived abilities of an information provider, questioning whether they have the means to act in accordance with the information management decision.

The final phase in the TMIM's progressive model is decision-making, or the space wherein the information management strategy is enacted. This phase is significant because it represents the culmination of the thought process the individual employed in deciding if and how to manage their information situation. The TMIM proposes that information management decisions can be categorized one of four ways: direct information seeking, indirect information seeking, active avoidance, and passive avoidance. However, as mentioned, the theory situates information, and more specifically information management, as being relationally constructed. Therefore, in considering the decision-phase, it is also important to consider the second layer of the TMIM: the information provider. As is evidenced in the progressive model, the TMIM contends that the information management strategy is contingent not only on the individual seeking the information (i.e. the information seeker), but also on the individual with the information

(i.e. the information provider). Notably, the TMIM argues that the information provider also works through the second phase of the model, considering possible outcomes, and evaluating whether they have the ability to manage the chosen information decision. In this sense, the information management decision is not only constructed by, but is also constituted by its relational context.

Much like the RTM, the TMIM is a relatively new theory within the field of communication studies. Despite its relative adolescence (Afifi & Robbins, 2015), the theory has been applied to many empirical investigations within the arenas of family, health, and relationships (Afifi & Afifi, 2009; Afifi, Dillow, & Morse, 2004; Afifi, Morgan, Stephenson, Morse, Harrison, Reichert, & Long, 2006; Afifi & Weiner, 2006; Dillow & Labelle, 2014; Fowler & Afifi, 2011; Lancaster, Dillow, Ball, Borchert, & Tyler, 2016; McCurry, Schrodt, & Ledbetter, 2012; Rauscher & Hesse, 2014). While evidence for some of the specific directional associations is fairly scarce, results have been consistent in garnering support for the theory's overall model. However, despite this support, empirical applications of the model are fairly limited because these studies have yet to include insight into the role that the information provider plays in the proposed model. Specifically, while nearly all applications of the TMIM have, to some extent, been conducted within a relational framework (see Carter, Moles, White, & Chen, 2012 for exception to this), little to none of this work has incorporated dyadic methodologies. Though some work has acknowledged dyadic influences (Afifi & Afifi, 2009; Afifi et al., 2006), work on the TMIM has exclusively focused on the information seeker (Afifi & Robbins, 2015). In fact, though some work has recognized the relational context, and

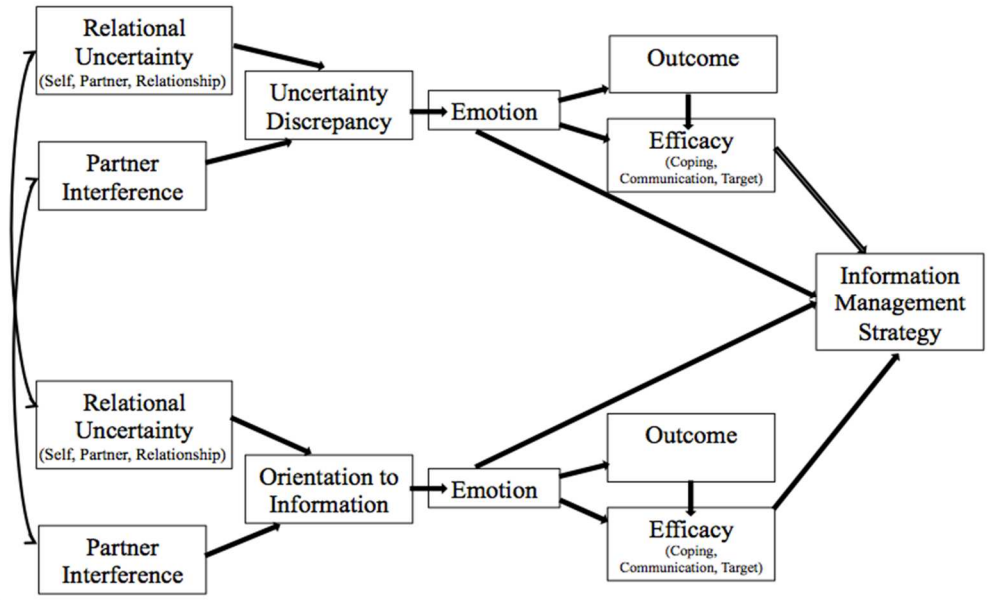
even collected data from relational pairs (Afifi & Afifi, 2009), these studies failed to explore the proposed interplay and interaction of relational partners in co-creating the information management strategy.

In addition to the lack of attention paid to the information provider, the TMIM also fails to contextualize uncertainty discrepancy within the larger relational context. Most research that has employed the TMIM has provided little to no insight into how and why an uncertainty discrepancy exists, and moreover how and why that discrepancy may elicit specific emotions. For instance, though Fowler and Afifi (2011) take into consideration relational factors such as filial anxiety, their work does not specifically account for how relational experiences specific to the context within which the information management strategy is being implemented are embedded in the model. Notably, while their research found connections between filial anxiety and efficacy, it was not within the scope of the study to explore how these factor may have impacted the original uncertainty discrepancy assessment. In this sense, the TMIM, while useful in providing in-depth knowledge about the intricacies embedded in the information management process, fails to situate the experience within the larger relational context, resulting in a less complete picture of the communicative process. The current project argues that the RTM, which centers the larger relational context, provides a means of offsetting this conceptual limitation, thereby generating a more comprehensive understanding of relational information management. To this end, the current study was designed to test an integrative model, one that is developed based on the relational components of the RTM and the communicative aspects of the TMIM.

Theory Integration

Logistically, the TMIM offers an organized and thorough overview of how information management is constituted within relational settings (Afifi & Weiner, 2004). The theory provides a testable model designed to showcase how initial reactions to the information situation (i.e., uncertainty discrepancy) predict emotional responses and evaluations, which ultimately shape the information management strategies. While comprehensive in its own right, tests of the theory have yet to establish empirically based claims about where one's initial reactions to the information situation stem from. Conversely, while the RTM provides support for the idea that relational cues (i.e., uncertainty and partner interference) have direct implications for communicative strategies, this work fails to recognize specific ways in which those impacts are enacted within the relational experience (Theiss & Knobloch, 2013). In other words, the theory is limited in its ability to provide insight into the specific communicative strategies employed by relational partners. Given the aforementioned strengths and limitations, the current project argues that exploring the TMIM and the RTM as integrated frameworks provides a means of better, and more completely, understanding the relational context, the communicative outcomes, as well as the interplay between the two. Toward this end, the current project puts forth a new, integrated model of relational processing, one that considers the way in which the larger relational context influences the information management process (see Figure 1).

Figure 1



The proposed model integrates the RTM with the TMIM in two important and meaningful ways. First, as a means of (re)situating the TMIM as more a relational and dyadic framework, the current project extends the second layer of the theory's proposed model, that which recognizes the information provider. Current conceptualizations of the TMIM do not account for the process through which an information provider orients toward the information. In other words, the information provider does not have an interpretation phase, meaning that they do not have a space wherein their initial understanding of the information situation are considered, or at the very least that this initial orientation is not accounted for within the purview of the TMIM. However, given the argument that information management is relationally situated, acknowledging how the information provider understands the value and content of the information they have becomes a vital piece of the management process. Therefore, the proposed model includes the addition of two variables: orientation toward

information and emotion, which are situated within the information provider's interpretation phase, and subsequently factor into their outcomes, efficacy, and conception of the information management strategy.

The second important aspect of the proposed model involves inserting the variables that create the RTM (i.e., relational uncertainty and partner interference) into the TMIM. The current project argues that the RTM helps to better understand the larger relational context within which the information management situation is occurring, something that the TMIM is lacking. Therefore, the proposed model situates relational uncertainty and partner interference as constructs that proceed, and ultimately influence the information management process, and in particular, the information seeker's uncertainty discrepancy and the information provider's orientation toward the information. Moreover, to remain consistent with existing work on the RTM, the proposed model maintains that relational uncertainty is a higher-order variable, housing three distinct, yet interrelated constructs: self, partner, and relationship. In other words, while the proposed model argues that relational uncertainty will impact uncertainty discrepancies and orientations toward information, it also recognizes that self, partner, and relationship uncertainty may each have their own influence.

Present Study

The current study was designed to test the integrated model within the context of spousal/parental loss. Specifically, the proposed model provides a way of advancing current knowledge of how relational and individual experiences influence communication within the context of familial death. This work argues that the experience of familial

death fits within the scope of each of the existing theoretical frames, and therefore represents a fruitful means of testing the integrated model. Notably, the RTM centers the relational nature of relational transitions and argues that interactions and communication between relational partners have implications for how the transition is experienced. Further, the TMIM contends that information management is a process through which individuals consider their relational experience, focusing on how their understanding of that experience impacts if and how they choose to seek information from or share information with their relational partner. Given that familial loss is inherently a transitional relational experience, and that the communication and interactions of the family unit following the loss have implications for the experiences of individual family members, including their cognitive, emotional, and behavioral states (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Carmon et al., 2010; Greff & Human, 2004; Nadeau, 2001; Sedney et al., 1994; Shonkoff et al., 1987; Traylor et al., 2003), the proposed model is an effective way of understanding how relational experiences relate to, and specifically influence the nature of the family's communication.

In particular, within the context of familial loss, the behaviors of a child tend to mirror that of their parents, particularly when it comes to communicating about grief (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Hope & Hodge, 2008). In families where there is open communication parents and children are able to co-construct an understanding of the loss, and to redefine their family identity in a way that facilitates effective coping and boosts the psychological welfare of both the parent and the child (Bavelas & Segal, 1982; Carmon et al., 2010; Sedney et al., 1994). However, in families where communication

about the death is avoided, parents and children grieve in isolation, and hide their feelings from one another in a way that decreases relational closeness and encourages maladaptive coping techniques (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Johnson, 1982). Given that parents and children are able to influence one another's experience with the loss to such an extent, the current study posed the following hypotheses:

H1: Parent and child reports of relational uncertainty will be positively correlated.

H2: Parent and child reports of partner interference will be positively correlated.

Beyond paralleled experiences with loss, research also suggests that when relational partners experience a transition they develop perceptions of relational uncertainty and partner interference based on how they perceive their relational partner will react to the transitional moment (Solomon & Knobloch, 2004). These perceptions factor into how much turbulence the relational pair experiences, with most work suggesting that relational uncertainty and partner interference are highest during moments of transition. Relatedly, the TMIM suggests that partners can act in a way that meets, exceeds, or falls short of the expectations of uncertainty set for them by their relational partners, noting that the degree to which the expectations are not met represents an uncertainty discrepancy (Afifi & Weiner, 2004). In this sense, relational uncertainty and partner interference function as the relational experiences, or the moments where specific behaviors are enacted, while uncertainty discrepancy is positioned as the reaction to these moments and experiences. Given the role that uncertainty and interference play in facilitating relational turbulence, and further the connection between uncertainty,

interference, and uncertainty discrepancy, the current study tested the following hypothesis:

H3: Reports of relational uncertainty (a) and partner interference (b) will predict an individual's uncertainty discrepancy.

Similarly, information providers likely go through a process similar to the information seeker when deciding whether to share information. In particular, the TMIM situates information relationally, but does not completely measure it as so. Given that bereaved parents and children often make difficult decisions about what information to share with their relational partner, for instance choosing intentionally not to share feelings of sadness and grief (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Johnson, 1982), it is clear that information providers go though a process of orienting to information. Further, because Theiss and Knobloch (2013) found that relational turbulence, and therefore relational uncertainty and partner interference, impact relational communication, they may play a role in how one orients toward information, and therefore the following hypothesis was posed:

H4: Reports of relational uncertainty (a) and partner interference (b) will predict an individual's orientation toward information (i.e., their experience with the death).

The way information seekers' and information providers' orient towards information within their relationship likely will elicit certain emotional responses. This is consistent with the TMIM, and with research that has utilized the RTM and found direct connections between relational uncertainty and interference and relational outcomes such

as irritation (Theiss & Solomon, 2006) and reintegration difficulty (Knobloch et al., 2013). Further, this connection between information and emotion is echoed in work on family loss, where avoidant communication and misunderstandings create a space for increased grief and distance (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Johnson, 1982). Therefore, the following hypothesis was tested:

H5: Uncertainty discrepancies (a) and orientations toward information (b) will predict emotional reactions.

As described by the TMIM, connections exist between emotions, outcomes, efficacy, and information management. In particular, given that bereaved children and parents often consider the potential individual and relational repercussions of sharing information with or seeking information from their relational partner, communication following grief clearly is strategic and involves a process of careful consideration (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005). Therefore, this study argues that the intricate and progressive nature of the TMIM provides a way of understanding how and why bereaved parents and children make decisions about how to communicate, and thus the following hypotheses were posed:

H6: Emotional reactions will predict reports of outcomes (a), efficacy (b), and information management strategies (c) for both information providers and seekers.

H7: Outcomes will positively impact efficacy for both information providers and seekers.

H8: Efficacy will predict information management strategies for both information providers and seekers.

Finally, literature suggests that family members have the capacity to determine how communication will function in their relationships following a loss, and further that their communicative decisions will impact their relational partner's communication (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Johnson, 1982). This is particularly true for parents, as children often rely on them for guidance in how to cope with the loss (Hope & Hodge, 2008). Given this, and the naturally interdependent nature of family units, the following hypothesis was posed:

H9: Information provider and information seeker reports of the information management strategy will be correlated.

These hypotheses, though valid on their own, are embedded in the proposed integrated model, which will be used to test the link between relational characteristics and information management (see Figure 1).

Contextualizing he Experience of Loss.

In addition to testing the integrated model, the current study is also interested in developing a more comprehensive knowledge of what uncertainty, partner interference, and information management look like within the context of spousal/parental loss. Specifically, qualitative applications of the RTM have found that uncertainty and partner interference are experienced in fundamentally different ways depending on the relational transition. For instance, Steuber and Solomon (2008) found that, for couples experiencing infertility, one aspect of relational uncertainty centered around questions of which

relational partner was to blame for the reproduction issue. On the other hand, in their work on military couples, Knobloch and Theiss (2012) found that, for some relationships, uncertainty centered on issues of sustaining commitment and dividing household chores. In this sense, although the association between relational uncertainty and turbulence are fairly consistent across relational transitions, the lived experience of that uncertainty looks different in different contexts. Furthermore, although the TMIM understands that information management strategies may vary, this variance is limited to four outputs (direct information seeking, indirect information seeking, active avoidance, and passive avoidance), and the model provides little detail in terms of how these tactics are embodied by the relational partners, an understanding that is vital given the nuanced ways in which bereaved parent/child pairs communicate with one another. To this end, given the multiplicity embedded within reports of uncertainty, interference, and information management strategies, the current study also posed the following research questions:

> **RQ1:** What issues of relational uncertainty, if any, do parents and children report experiencing following spousal/parental death?
>
> **RQ2:** What kinds of interference from partners, if any, do parents and children report experiencing following spousal/parental death?
>
> **RQ3:** What information management strategies do parents and children employ when communicating with each other about experiences with spousal/parental death?

Finally, the current study was also intended to uncover how these embodied experiences of uncertainty, interference, and information management functioned within the overall model. In particular, one goal of this study was to understand how genuine, lived experiences of familial loss impacted measurable outcomes with the goal of providing more conceptually-rich insight into how bereaved families experience death relationally. Therefore, as a means of integrating the empirical model with the unique experiences of bereaved parent-child dyads, the following research questions were posed:

RQ4: Do types of qualitative uncertainty differ in regard to the reported amounts of quantitative uncertainty variables (i.e. self uncertainty, partner uncertainty, relationship uncertainty, and uncertainty discrepancy)?

RQ5: Do types of qualitative partner interference differ in regard to the reported amount of quantitative interference?

RQ6: Do types of qualitative information management strategies differ in regard to the reported quantitative management decisions (i.e., direct information seeking, indirect information seeking, active avoidance, and passive avoidance) and orientation toward information?

Chapter Four: Methods

Traditionally, the field of family communication has favored a three-paradigm system, wherein research is situated in one of three approaches: post-positivism, interpretative, and critical (Baxter & Braithwaite, 2006; Feeney & Noller, 2013; Galvin & Braithwaite, 2014; Klein & Jurich, 2009; Stamp, 2004; Stamp & Shue, 2013; Suter, 2016; Turner & West, 2006). This system is useful in terms of denoting epistemological differences, and contextualizing methodological decisions and theoretical considerations. However, despite its organizational potential, this three-paradigm model poses a threat to the cohesive potential of the field as a whole. By situating research as either/or in terms of its paradigmatic positionality, this system not only isolates approaches to research, but also actively works to polarize researcher commitments by arguing that different systems of understanding have defined and unchanging criteria that determine what counts as knowledge (Mumby, 1997). In an effort to move away from singular forms of understanding, and to discover more comprehensive and well-rounded knowledge, this study abandoned paradigmatic estrangement, and instead centered a Deetzian (2001) philosophical perspective.

Unlike the traditional three-paradigm model, a Deetzian perspective understands knowledge, and specifically the production of knowledge as fluid and changing, as fluctuating between and within different researcher orientations. This approach situates knowledge as existing on two, interrelated, but conceptually different dimensions: 1)

consensus/dissensus, and 2) local/elite (also labeled emergent/a priori). Though these dimensions symbolize conceptually different approaches, they do not function to isolate, but rather to contextualize certain research decisions. In particular, the dissensus/consensus dimension refers to the degree to which research utilizes existing social orders, while local/elite dimension refers to the way in which research concepts are materialized. In extrapolating his dimensions, Deetz (2001) puts forth four discursive orientations that shed light on the different ways in which knowledge can be produced: normative, interpretative, critical, and dialogic. His goal in putting forth these orientations is not to uphold the segregation and isolation that is engrained in a traditional three-paradigm system, but to instead offer a way of understanding how approaches to research can be both/and. To him, "discourses are not sealed off from each other. They pose problems for each other, and steal insight across the lines" (Deetz, 2001, p. 16); they are truly part of an encompassing and inclusive, contextually diverse system of knowledge.

The current study pulled from this philosophical perspective as a means of emphasizing the multiplicity of knowledge. This work fluctuated between and within different research orientations with the goal of producing multiple types of knowledge. For instance, the emphasis on uncovering embodied knowledge of relational uncertainty, partner interference, and information management conceptually centered the local and emergent dimension of a Deetzian (2001) perspective, while the application of an empirical model was more aligned with the creation of elite or a priori knowledge. Further, though the study relied more heavily on consensus, elements of dissensus are

recognized through the centering of diverse lived experiences of death, and the focus on intersectional understandings of individual and familial identity. In this sense, though each of the different types of knowledge produced fell closer to one dimensions or another, through embracing a Deetzian perspective, this work was able to see how they relate to and complement one another. To this end, the current study was situated between (and within) the normative and interpretative orientations; emphasizing the development of a more universal understanding of how parents and children experience and communicate about spousal/parental death (i.e., consensus), through the use of both local and elite research concepts. As a means of conducting this work, and in particular, as a way of effectively embodying the core principles of a Deetzian approach, the current study drew from two specific methodological approaches: mixed methods and dyadic data analysis.

Mixed Methods

Mixed methods research initiatives were born out of a desire to triangulate different types of data to create greater knowledge about a phenomenon under study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). From a mixed methods perspective, the design of a study should depend on "what data and analyses are needed to meet the goals of the research and answer the questions at hand." (Bazeley, 2009, p. 203). A mixed methods design fits within the scope of a Deetzian approach because it is founded on the idea that different types of knowledge should not exist in isolation of one another, but rather that they should be integrated in an effort to produce more comprehensive and complete insight

(Bamberger, 2000; Creswell, 1994; Morgan, 1998; Newman & Benz, 1998; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

Within the context of the current study, a mixed methods design offered a way of uncovering and embracing a diverse set of knowledge, while also providing the tools necessary to understand how different types of insight could be analyzed concurrently. Specifically, the blended nature of mixed methods reflects the interactive potential of Deetz's (2001) discursive orientations by rejecting the isolated organizational strategy of a three-paradigm system and arguing that different research approaches are not sealed off from one another, but rather that they exist in a more fluid and inclusive system of research. In particular, the current study argued that a convergent mixed methods design, one in which qualitative and quantitative data are collected concurrently was an effective way of enacting this type of work because it places equal emphasis on the different types of knowledge being produced (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

A convergent mixed methods design is defined by its ability to collect two (or more) types of data simultaneously, and then to subsequently treat that data with equal value during the interpretation and analysis phases of the work (see Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011 for review). In particular, the data sets are treated as separate until either the interpretation or data analysis phases of the study, at which point they are merged in a way that aligns with the purpose and goal of the work. This means that although analysis techniques may be more complicated and time-consuming for one type of data over the other, the purpose and meaning of each data type is equal. Although there are specific ways in which different types of data can be designed, for instance quantification of

qualitative data through a precise coding process (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Strauss & Corbin, 1990), the underlying purpose of all convergent mixed methods is the same: to generate more conceptually rich knowledge. Specifically, embedded within each of the designs is an active recognition of the different types of knowledge being produced. For instance, while the qualitative component of a convergent mixed methods study may produce data more geared toward answering an interpretative or dialogic research question, the answer to the question will always be considered with regard for the quantitative component of the study, and vice-versa. In this sense, one type of knowledge is always embedded within the other types of knowledge produced in the same study. Therefore, a mixed methods approach, and specifically a convergent mixed methods design, is vital to answering the questions and testing the hypotheses that guide this work because it provides a way of not just recognizing different types of knowledge, but understanding how these different types of knowledge are related.

However, when conducting mixed methods research, it is important to recognize and account for issues of balance in terms of the different data being collected and analyzed. In particular, mixed methodologies acknowledge variety in different mixed approaches to research, arguing that although a researcher may have a primary research "home," they may visit other research "homes" for the sake of producing "the most informative, complete, balanced, and useful research results" (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p. 129). For this reason, mixed methods research takes shape around a continuum that moves from 'Qualitative Dominate', to 'Equal Status', through to 'Quantitative Dominant' (Johnson et al., 2007). This continuum acknowledges variety in

the potential of mixed methods, and recognizes the function of different data in the range of approaches and designs one may utilize in a mixed methods study.

The current study utilized a convergent mixed methods design, which favors an 'Equal Status' approach to data collection, analysis, and utilization. Steps were taken in this research to embrace this 'Equal Status,' and to ensure that qualitative and quantitative data played similar and equal roles in the overall study. Specifically, three distinct, but interconnected sets of questions guide this work. First, the posed research hypotheses represent the 'Quantitative Dominant' end of the spectrum, and contain items that were tested using only quantitative data. These hypotheses were used to test the proposed model and provided insight into how uncertainty, interference, and communication function in parent-child relationships following spousal/parental death. Second, research questions one through three represent the 'Qualitative Dominant' end of the spectrum, and are questions that were answered using only qualitative data. The insight gained through this analysis produced more specific information about what uncertainty, interference, and information management look like in bereaved families, providing more conceptually and contextually rich understandings of the lived experience of spousal/parental death. Finally, research questions four through six represent the 'Equal Status' part of the continuum and functioned as questions that purposefully and meaningfully blended the results from the 'Quantitative Dominant' and 'Qualitative Dominant' components of the study. This mixed analysis embraced the elite and consensus dimensions of a Deetzian (2001) approach through the use of quantitative measures, while simultaneously centering localized knowledge through a reliance on

qualitative themes that emerged related to uncertainty, interference, and information management. Through a strategic blending of quantitative and qualitative data, these three research questions produced pragmatic and constructive insight that is rooted in the genuine lived experience of bereaved families.

Through the use of a convergent mixed methods design, this study was able to produce conceptually rich and contextually situated knowledge of spousal/parental death. By embracing quantitative dominant, qualitative dominant, and equal status analysis techniques in a balanced and equal way, this study demonstrated how different types of knowledge relate to and complement one another. For instance, the quantitative dominant analysis provided information about whether uncertainty and interference impact parent-child communication about the death, while the qualitative dominant analysis offered insight into what uncertainty and interference look like for bereaved parents and children, and what types of information management strategies they embrace. The merging of these two types of analysis, embodied by research questions four through six, provided a way of fusing the qualitative and quantitative insight to generate an understanding of how specific, lived experiences with uncertainty, interference, and information management influence measurable relational variables. The result of this convergent mixed methods design is a more comprehensive and inclusive understanding of spousal/parental death that accounts for generalizable experiences and individual variance.

Dyadic

Along with a convergent mixed methods design, the current study also employed dyadic data analysis techniques as a means of generating a more inclusive understanding

of spousal/parental death. While a mixed methods design provides multiple types of knowledge, a dyadic data approach engages multiple individuals in understanding the knowledge, thereby contextualizing the experience by situating it within the relationship understudy. Within the field of communication studies, dyadic approaches to research are effective in uncovering more in-depth knowledge of the relational level experience (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2008). Dyadic research approaches provide a means through which researchers can not only understand both sides of a relational story, but can also understand how they relate to and interact with one another. For instance, in their work on family caregiving, Kershaw and colleagues (2015) explored how individual understandings of a patient's cancer impacted relational experiences and communication, as well as the mental and physical health of both relational partners (Kershaw, Ellis, Yoon, Schafenacker, Katapodi, & Northouse, 2015). Within dyadic research, the individual and relational experiences are not only related, but also have the ability to impact one another, a feature that is consistent with family systems theory, which implies that a feedback loop that is embedded within relational and family units to help sustain connectivity (Bavelas & Segal, 1982; Bowen, 1966; Turner & West, 2012; Yerby, 1995).

Taking a dyadic approach to understanding how parent-child pairs communicate about and cope with spousal/parental death provided a means of gathering a more complete picture of the experience, one that accounted for the interdependent nature of family life. In particular, many methods focus on relational life and experiences from the perspective of the individual, rather than considering how the perspectives of relational partners interact with, and build on one another (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clark,

2011; Stamp & Shue, 2013). However, dyadic approaches to research abandon this singularity, and instead position experiences as inherently dyadic, conceiving of communication and interaction as factors that create and sustain relational life. For instance, in their work on adolescents and avoidant communication, Afifi and Afifi (2009) explored the ways emotions and understandings of each relational partner influenced the ways the other relational partner decided to seek information. Other dyadic work has started to unpack the ways relational partners co-construct experiences. For example, Knobloch and colleagues (2013) centered depression and relational turbulence following reintegration for military couples, treating individual and couple-level depression and turbulence as experiences that are co-constructed within the interactions and communication of the relational partners. Within the context of parent-child relationships and the experience of spousal/parental loss then, a dyadic approach represented a way to not only understand the experience of the parent and of the child, but also to recognize how the individual experiences create, and are subsequently created by the relational experience. In other words, to provide a more systematic, relational understanding of spousal/parental loss, it was vital to explore the experience from a dyadic standpoint.

Framing the current study as dyadic was contextually and conceptually necessary to creating a space wherein more comprehensive and systematic knowledge could be produced. Given that a dyadic study situates the research within, rather than outside of the parent-child relationship, the type of information gained from this work is helpful in providing families with the tools to help themselves, rather than relying on people outside

the family. Additionally, a dyadic design provided a means of situating parents and children as both information seekers and information providers, which is conceptually important because it recognizes the interplay and interaction that creates and sustains the parent-child experience. This emphasis on the parents and children as both/and in terms of information seeker and information provider provided a way of telling a more comprehensive story about the experience of spousal/parental death because it explored the loss not just from the individual perspective, but also from the relational perspective. Finally, this type of approach answered the call for more dyadic research, and in doing so extended the reach of communication studies scholarship (Stamp & Shue, 2013). To this end, a dyadic approach was integral to developing a greater understanding of how bereaved parents and children experience spousal/parental loss because it recognized, and accounted for the unique ways in which the relational context influenced coping and communication within the dyad.

Study Design

The current study was designed to generate a better understanding of how bereaved parents and children communicate and cope following spousal/parental death. The goal of this study was to test a proposed integrated model, while also uncovering information about the unique experiences of the relational pair. Given the emphasis on not only producing, but also integrating different types of knowledge, the current study was conducted dyadically, using a convergent mixed methods design.

Participants.

Participants in the current study were parent-child dyads who have experienced spousal/parental death. Due to the sensitive nature of the survey topic, to be eligible for participation, both the parent and the child had to be at least 18 years of age. This age limit was set as a protective measure for participants to help limit the potential for experiencing emotional distress while taking the survey, as past research has found that younger children are particularly susceptible to poor adjustment, as well as higher levels of anxiety following the death of a parent, and therefore (Bowlby 1980; Hope & Hodge, 2006)

Keeping in mind the various ways in which family identity is constructed, careful attention was paid to developing an inclusive definition of eligibility for the current study. To be eligible for participation, parents must have been in a committed, romantic relationship with the deceased at the time of death, and must have parented (biological or adoptive) a child with this person. This means that legally binding relational descriptors such as husband and wife, as well as domestic partnership and common law marriage titles, and non-married romantic partnerships were all defined as family, so long as both the participating parent and the participating child defined their relationship as a parent-child relationship. Due to the contextually unique nature of divorce, individuals who were divorced from the deceased at the time of death were not eligible to participate. However, step-parent/step-child relationships were eligible in instances wherein both the parent and the child conceived of one another as their child or their parent, respectively. While these decisions complicated the process of eligibility, they represented an intentional move

toward more defining family in a more inclusive manner, one that countered the limitations engrained in 'traditional' or heteronormative family identity.

Participants in this study included 29 parent-child dyads, as well as 22 individuals who took the survey without their relational partner, for a total of 47 bereaved children and 33 bereaved spouse/partners (see Table 1). However, for the purposes of analysis, individuals and dyads were considered as distinct sets of participants. Children had an average age of 32.13 (*SD* = 11.68), were majority female (*n* = 38), and identified mostly as White/Non-Hispanic (*n* = 45). Spouse/partners had an average age of 52.84 (*SD* = 11.12), were also majority female (*n* = 24) and White/Non-Hispanic (*n* = 30). Both children and spouse/partners varied in their religious affiliations, with most participants identifying as Roman Catholic (*n* = 28). Time since the death ranged from 1 month and 298 months, with the average time elapsed being 79.23 months for children (*SD* = 70.90) and 90.53 months for spouse/partners (*SD* = 82.43). For children, age at the time of death ranged from 1.5 to 55 years old, with an average of 25.61 (*SD* = 13.95). For spouse/partners, the average age at the time of death 46.03 (*SD* = 12.22) with a range from 19 to 67. Most participants were in families with 3 children (*n* = 29). These demographics are consistent with the recruitment strategies that relied on community organizations and social networks in geographical areas, such as Massachusetts, which are heavily populated by White, Catholic families.

Table 1
Demographic Information

	Total *N*(%)	Parent n(%)	Child n(%)
Gender			
Female	62 (77.5%)	24 (75%)	38 (79.2%)

Male	16 (20%)	7 (21.9%)	9 (18.1%)
Other	1 (1.3%)	1 (3.1%)	
Ethnicity			
White/Non-Hispanic	75 (93.8%)	30 (93.8%)	45 (93.8%)
Hispanic	1 (1.3%)	1 (3.1%)	
Black/Non-Hispanic	1 (1.3%)		1 (2.1%)
Other	3 (3.8)	1 (3.1%)	2 (4.2%)
Religious Affiliation			
Roman Catholic	28 (35%)	13 (40.6%)	15 (31.3%)
Christian Scientist	3 (3.8%)		3 (6.3%)
Protestant	9 (11.3%)	5 (15.6%)	4 (8.3%)
Jewish	3 (3.8%)	1 (3.1%)	2 (4.2%)
Not Affiliated	22 (27.5%)	8 (25%)	14 (29.2%)
Other	14 (17.5%)	4 (12.5%)	10 (20.8%)

Participants had varied family communication habits, perceptions of their parent-child relationships, and attitudes toward death (see Table 2). In particular, independent sample *t*-tests revealed that children reported slightly lower levels of interdependence than spouse/partners ($M = 2.81$, $SD = 1.42$, $n = 47$; $M = 2.18$, $SD = 1.17$, $n = 32$; $t(77) = -2.08$, $p < .05$). With regard to family communication patterns, children reported less agreement with the conversation-orientation ($M = 3.34$, $SD = 1.79$, $n = 48$) than spouse/partners ($M = 2.32$, $SD = 1.20$, $n = 30$; $t(75.52) = -3.00$, $p < .005$), suggesting that children found their parent-child communication to be less open that spouse/partners. Finally, children and spouse/partners did not vary significantly in their attitudes toward death.

Table 2
Contextual Information Paired-Samples *t*-tests

	Parent			Child			
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	*t*
Family Communication (RFCP-C)	2.32	1.20	30	3.34	1.79	48	-3.00**
Interdependence (RISC)	2.18	1.17	32	2.81	1.42	47	-2.08*
Death Attitude (fear)	4.00	1.37	32	3.88	1.52	48	.37
Death Attitude (avoidance)	4.79	1.79	32	4.60	1.72	48	.49

Death Attitude (neutral acceptance)	2.60	1.22	32	2.84	1.56	48	-.74
Death Attitude (approach accept)	3.56	1.20	32	3.40	1.64	48	.49
Death Attitude (escape accept)	4.26	1.14	32	4.07	1.86	48	.55

*$p < .05$ **$p < .005$ $N = 28$, $df = 27$

Procedures.

Following approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), participants were recruited from family grief centers and groups across the United States. Information about the study was dispersed through the newsletters, websites, online forums, and social media profiles of these centers and groups. Given the primary researcher's personal connection with spousal/parental death, recruitment information included a short narrative that spoke to her experience with loss. The decision to include this information was done to help establish 'insider status,' and to make participants more comfortable sharing their own experiences. Snowball-sampling techniques were also used to the extent that individuals who participated were encouraged to share the survey information with others in their networks who met the eligibility requirements. Additionally, the researcher also visited Communication Studies classrooms at a small, private University in the Southwestern United States to solicit interested and eligible individuals. Finally, many participants were recruited from within the researcher's social network, which is located predominantly within New England. Interested individuals were asked to recruit their relational partner (i.e., their parent or child).

Interested and eligible participants were electronically sent a document with more information about the study and a link to a secure, online survey instrument hosted via

Qualtrics (see Appendix A). After consenting to participate, individuals were asked to generate a unique code, which they shared with their relational partner. This code allowed parent and child data to be matched, but maintained a level of anonymity. As a means of acclimating to the survey, individuals were first asked to tell the story of their loss, which helped create a context for the participant as they continued with the survey by allowing them to think through their experience as a whole. Following the narrative section of the survey, participants were provided with information about the various variables included in the study. First, participants were asked to describe their experiences with relational uncertainty using a qualitative, short-answer question, followed by quantitative measures of relational uncertainty, uncertainty discrepancy and emotional responses to uncertainty discrepancy. After reporting on their relational uncertainty, participants were asked to answer questions related to their partner interference and information management strategies. For each of these two variables participants first answered a qualitative short answer question, and then a quantitative measure of the same variable. The decision to have participants answer qualitative questions prior to their quantitative counterparts is two-fold. First, past mixed methods research has used this format and found it to be effective in collecting reliable data and answering the posed research questions. For instance, in her work on infertility and memorable messages, Willer (2014) had participants write out a memorable compassionate message they remember receiving from a health-care provider after which they were asked to report on the compassion of the message and the compassionate love of the person who sent the message. The second reason for having qualitative questions

precede quantitative questions relates to definitional clarity. By answering qualitative items first the participant was able to gather a greater sense of how they experience and understand the variable understudy, which is important when posing questions about constructs such as relational uncertainty that can be difficult to define and understand. For instance, although Willer (2014) carefully defined the variables in her study, asking participants to respond to a qualitative item first allowed them to contextualize their experiences with the variable prior to answering specific quantitative items.

Following the first three sets of questions participants answered a series of quantitative questions that related to orientation towards information, responses to orientation towards information, outcome expectancies, and efficacy, as well as a variety of contextual questions related to their perceptions of death, their relational interdependence, their family communication patterns, and their demographics. Following completion of the survey individuals were thanked for their time, and asked to share the survey with people in their networks who met participation criteria. Participants were also encouraged to click through to a second link where they could enter for a chance to win 1 of 10 $20 gift cards. The second link ensured that their responses stay anonymous, while allowing them to enter the raffle.

Measures.

Relational uncertainty. As with past work that has centered the RTM (Theiss & Knobloch, 2013), relational uncertainty was measured using a 12-item version of Knobloch and Solomon's (1999) original scale. Each item began with the stem "How certain are you about…?" and was followed by a statement. Responses were measured on

a seven-point Likert-type response scale ranging from completely or almost completely certain (7) to completely or almost completely uncertain (1). This scale was consistent with current conceptualizations of relational uncertainty that framed the variable as an umbrella construct (housing self, partner, and relationship uncertainty) that relates to the amount of assurances one has in and about their relationship. Analytically, the scale framed relational uncertainty as a higher order variable, and therefore allowed for the creation of three conceptually connected by methodologically distinct sub-scales: self uncertainty, partner uncertainty, and relationship uncertainty. Each of these scales yielded good reliability in the current study (self uncertainty $\alpha = .92$; partner uncertainty $\alpha = .96$; relationship uncertainty $\alpha = .95$).

Uncertainty discrepancy. The current study measured uncertainty discrepancy using the two-item index used in past work that has employed the TMIM (Fowler & Afifi, 2011). However, the index was modified to match the contextual specificities of the current study (i.e., spousal/parental death). Participants were asked two questions ("How certain do you want to be about your parent/child's reaction to your parent/spouse's death?" and "How certain are you about your parent/child's reaction to your parent/spouse's death?"). Responses to these two questions were recorded using a seven-point Likert-type response scale wherein participants were asked to indicate their level of certainty. As with Fowler and Afifi's (2011) work on the TMIM, an index score for uncertainty discrepancy was created by subtracting responses to the first question from responses to the second question. Responses were recoded to ensure that higher scores were indicative of a need for more certainty.

Emotional responses to uncertainty discrepancy. Participants emotional responses to their uncertainty discrepancy were measured using an 18-item rate-based system, wherein they were asked to "consider the size of the difference between how much you want to know about your parent/child's reaction to your spouse/parent's death and how much you already know," and share how much it makes them feel 18 different emotions (frustrated, sad, upset, calm, inspired, disappointed, angry, irritable, encouraged, anxious, scared, thoughtful, distressed, happy, worried, pensive, nervous, and secure). Responses were recorded on a seven-point Likert-type response scale ranging from not at all (1) to extremely (7). This comprehensive measure had been used in past research that has employed the TMIM (Fowler & Afifi, 2011), and had been useful in uncovering the function of emotion within the information management system.

Partner interference. Partner interference was measured using Solomon and Knobloch's (2001) five-item measure, wherein participants were asked to indicate their agreement with various statements about their partner's behavior such as "my partner interferes with the plans I make." Similar to the relational uncertainty scale, responses were measured using a seven-point Likert-type response scale ranging from high (1) to low (7) agreement. This scale aligned well with current conceptualizations of partner interference, which define the variables as the degree to which one's relational partner restricts of facilitates one's ability to achieve their goals. In the current study this five-item measure yielded good reliability ($\alpha = .95$).

Information Management Strategy. Consistent with Lancaster and colleagues (2016) recent work on the TMIM, information management strategy was measured using

three, interrelated sets of questions: direct information-seeking behavior, indirect information-seeking behavior, and active avoidance. This delineation was purposeful, as it created a way of identifying each of the four information management strategies defined within the TMIM: direct information seeking, indirect information seeking, active avoidance, and passive avoidance. Direct information seeking behavior was measured using a three-item scale wherein participants were asked to indicate the amount of information they have sought from their child/parent about his/her experience with the death. Indirect information seeking behavior was measured using a two-item measure that asked participants to respond to questions such as "to what extent have you been waiting, hoping that the topic of your parent/child's experience with the death comes up by itself." Finally, active avoidance was measured using a three-item measure where participants were asked questions such as "to what extent have you gone out of your way to avoid information about your child/parent's experience with the death." Consistent with Lancaster et al.'s (2016) work all items were measured using a seven-point scale, ranging from not at all (1) to a lot (7). Results from each of the three items will indicate the degree to which each participant engaged in the four different information seeking strategies. In the current study, these measures yielded inconsistent reliability (direct α = .85; indirect α = .63; and active avoidance α = .68).

Orientation toward information. Given that the integrated model proposed in this study was the first to include the orientation toward information variable, new items were generated. However, because orientation toward information parallels the uncertainty discrepancy variable within the context of the information provider layer, the new items

were consistent with those used to measure uncertainty discrepancy. A two-item index was used to measure orientation toward information. Similar to the uncertainty discrepancy index, participants were asked two questions ("How comfortable do feel about sharing how you feel about your spouse/parent's death with your child/parent?" and "How uncomfortable do you feel about sharing how you feel about your spouse/parent's death with child/parent?"). Answers to these questions were collected using a seven-point Likert-type scale, and, in order to generate the index, responses to question one were subtracted from responses to question two.

Emotional responses to orientation toward information. Participant's emotional responses to orientation toward information were measured in a way similar to that of emotional responses to uncertainty discrepancy because the orientation toward information variable was designed to mirror the uncertainty discrepancy variable within the context of the information provider. Therefore, emotional responses to orientation toward information were measured using an 18-item rate-based system. Participants were given the following prompt: "consider the difference between how much you have shared with you child/parent about you reaction to their spouse/parent's death, and how much you would like to share," and then asked to indicate, on a seven-point Likert-type response scale, how much that response makes them feel each of the following 18 emotions: frustrated, sad, upset, calm, inspired, disappointed, angry, irritable, encouraged, anxious, scared, thoughtful, distressed, happy, worried, pensive, nervous, and secure.

Outcome Expectancies. In the current study, outcome expectancies was measured using a three-item index wherein participants were asked to consider statements such as "asking my child/parent what s/he thinks about the death will produce" and "approaching my child/parent to ask about his/her beliefs about the death would produce," and indicate, on a seven-point Likert type scale, how they thought their relational partner would react (1= a lot more negative that positives, 7 = a lot more positives than negative). Consistent with past work (see Fowler & Afifi, 2011), when used in the current study this index yielded good reliability ($\alpha = .95$).

Efficacy. Past research that has employed the TMIM has conceived of efficacy has being a higher order construct, one that contains three conceptually different types of efficacy: communication, target, and coping (Afifi & Afifi, 2009; Fowler & Afifi, 2011; Lancaster et al., 2016). This work has distinguished between two distinct dimensions of target efficacy: honesty and ability. Therefore, to remain consistent with this past work, in the current study, efficacy was measured using responses to four subscales: communication efficacy, target honesty, target ability, and coping efficacy. Communication efficacy was measured using a four-item measure wherein participants were asked to respond to statements such as "I know what I need to say to successfully discuss my child/parent's experience with the death." Target honest was measured using a two-item scale that asked participants to respond to statements such as "My child/parent would be forthcoming about their experience with the death." Target ability was measured using a four-item scale wherein participants were asked to respond to items such as "My child/parent would provide me with accurate information about their

experience with the death." As with past research, in the current study, responses to communication efficacy and target efficacy items were recorded using a seven-point Likert type response scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). All three subscales yielded good reliability (communication $\alpha = .95$; honesty $\alpha = .97$; ability $\alpha = .84$).

The final of the efficacy components, coping, was measured using an adapted version of Afifi et al.'s (2006) measure. Similar to the other types of efficacy, participants were asked to respond to items such as "I know that I would have no problem coping with my child/parent's experience with the death," on a seven-point Likert scale where one refers to strongly disagree and seven refers to strongly agree. As with the other efficacy measures, this subscale yielded good reliability in the current study ($\alpha = .93$).

Contextual information. Participants were asked to provide contextual information about themselves, their parent-child relationship, and the death. Specifically, in addition to reporting demographic information such as age (at the time of the survey and at the time of the death), gender, amount of time since the death, religious affiliation, race, and ethnicity, participants were also asked to provide information about their parent-child relationship and their beliefs about death. This data helped create a greater contextual understanding of the participants experience with the death, and provided information related to how they orient toward and communicate with their parent or child. Data collected from these contextual variables were used during preliminary analysis to identify any significant correlations that needed controlling during the testing of the model.

Three specific types of contextual information were collected: parent-child interdependence, family communication patterns, and beliefs about death. Participants responded to the conversation orientation subscale of the revised family communication patterns scale (RFCP - C; Ritchie, 1991; Ritchie &. Fitzpatrick, 1990), which is a 15-item measure wherein individuals are asked to read statements such as "I usually tell my parents what I am thinking about things" and "my child can tell me almost anything," and indicate their agreement on a seven-point scale. Responses to these items provided insight into the level of openness participants perceived their family communication to have, and in the current study this scale yielded good reliability ($\alpha = .94$).

To understand more about the interdependence of their parent-child relationship, participants responded to a modified version of Cross, Bacon, and Morris' (2000) Relational-Interdependent-Self-Construal (RISC). The modified version of RISC used in this study had 11-items and asked participants to respond to statements such as 'My parent-child relationship is an important reflection of who I am,' and 'I think one of the most important parts of who I am can be captured by looking at my parent and understanding who they are' on a seven-point scale where strongly disagree = 1 and strongly agree = 7. These responses provided in-depth knowledge of relationship between the parents and children who took the study, and the scale yielded good reliability ($\alpha = .98$).

Finally, to gather more information about perceptions of death, participants were asked to respond to Wong, Reker, and Gesser's (1994) revised death attitude profile (DAP-R). The 32-item measure asked participants to read statements such as "I avoid

death thoughts at all costs" and "death is a natural aspect of life" and indicate their level of agreement on a seven-point scale where strongly disagree = 1 and strongly agree = 7. Responses to these questions indicate the degree to which participants fit into one of five death profiles: fear of death, death avoidance, neutral acceptance, approach acceptance, and escape acceptance, and therefore each component of the scale was analyzed individually. In the current study all five subscales had good reliability (fear of death α = .87; death avoidance α = .92; neutral acceptance α = .88; approach acceptance α = .92; escape acceptance α = .87).

Analysis.

In line with a convergent mixed methods design, data analysis took place at three different levels: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed, or the space where findings from the qualitative and quantitative layers were conceptually merged in an effort to produce more comprehensive knowledge. This design ensured that the value placed on each data type was balanced, and provided a way of answering and testing the specific research questions and hypotheses put forth in this study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). To ensure that the study remained balanced, each type of analysis was given its own, unique results section. This provided a way of fully unpacking the quantitative dominant and qualitative dominant aspects of the study, while giving a specific space for uncovering connections between the two types of data that were valuable and necessary to answering research questions four through six.

Chapter Five: Quantitative Analysis

The current study used SPSS AMOS 22 to test the proposed integrated model, and in particular used structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques to construct actor-partner interdependence models (APIM; Kenny et al., 2008). APIMs were a valid methodological approach for the current study because they represent a strategic means through which researchers can explore the interplay of relational partners. However, prior to running the substantive analysis (i.e., the APIMs), a series of preliminary analyses were run to gather an understanding of the data, identify similarities and differences between parents and children, and to explore what impact, if any, different contextual factors (i.e., age, gender, ethnicity, religious affiliation, But – conversation orientations, RISC, and DAP-R) had on the different outcome variables. The decision to investigate the impact of these contextual factors on the primary variables under study embodies Few-Demo et al.'s (2014) call for intersectional approaches to the study of family communication. In particular, the authors suggest that researchers pay careful attention to within-group variability, and interpret findings as they relate to differences that arise across and within demographic groups. Therefore, the preliminary analyses not only allowed the researcher to account for any significant group differences when testing the models, but also assisted in interpreting the findings. Finally, given that the data set contained dyadic and individual responses, preliminary analyses were conducted for

participants whose relational partner also took part in the survey, as well as for those whose relational partner did not complete the survey.

Dyadic Preliminary Analysis

As with past dyadic work (Theiss & Knobloch, 2009), the current study began by running a series of paired-sample *t*-tests to evaluate differences between parents and children on the variables embedded within the model. The analysis revealed that parents and children did not significantly differ on many of the model or contextual variables (see Table 3). However, parents reported significantly higher levels of active avoidance information management strategies than children ($t[28] = 2.43$, $p < .01$), and children's reports of the RISC and the conversation orientation RFCP scales were significantly higher than parents' ($t[28] = -2.53$, $p < .01$; $t[28] = -2.09$, $p < .05$).

Table 3
Dyadic Paired Samples *t*-tests

	Parent		Child		
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*
Relational Uncertainty (self)	2.02	1.26	2.04	1.31	-.07
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	2.46	1.42	2.29	1.43	.43
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	2.37	1.28	2.08	1.22	.89
Interference	5.27	1.69	5.62	1.57	-.87
Information Management (direct)	3.53	1.57	3.92	1.08	-1.22
Information Management (indirect)	4.69	1.26	5.10	1.17	-1.20
Information Management (active avoidance)	5.68	1.40	4.89	1.08	2.43**
Orientation to Information	.55	1.21	.52	1.35	.12
Efficacy (communication)	3.09	1.76	2.61	1.68	1.08
Efficacy (target honesty)	3.14	1.72	3.31	1.66	1.84
Efficacy (target ability)	2.84	1.45	2.74	1.57	.26
Efficacy (coping)	2.99	1.40	2.91	1.55	.21
Outcome Expectancies	3.89	1.41	3.91	1.37	-.07
Uncertainty Discrepancy	1.03	1.09	.69	.76	1.51
Interdependence (RISC)	2.05	1.01	2.62	1.31	-2.53**

Family Communication (RFCP - C)	2.12	.87	2.66	1.29	-2.09*
Death Attitude (fear)	4.00	1.44	3.96	1.33	.08
Death Attitude (avoidance)	4.77	1.32	4.87	1.78	-.21
Death Attitude (neutral acceptance)	2.48	1.04	2.63	1.11	-.51
Death Attitude (approach accept)	3.37	1.58	3.49	1.16	-.34
Death Attitude (escape acceptance)	4.38	1.21	4.19	1.83	.43

*N = 29, *p < .05, **p < .01*

Bivariate correlations among all model variables were also run to assess similarities between parent and child responses to both model variables and contextual variables (see Appendices B-D). Analysis revealed many significant correlations across the data set, including correlations between parent and child responses. Following this a series of linear regressions were run to identify what impact the contextual variables (i.e., parent and child RISC, RFCP - conversation, and DAP) had on the model variables (see Tables 4 and 5). Due to concern over possible interdependence of parent and child responses on these contextual variables, a canonical correlation was used to test for interdependence in parent and child scores for RISC, conversation orientation RFCP, and DAP. The canonical correlation was nonsignificant, indicating that dyad members' scores for these contextual variables were not interdependent. For each of the regressions, a model variable was used as the dependent variable (DV), and both parent and child contextual variables were used as the independent variables (IV). Given that analysis revealed significant correlations between many of the independent variables used in the regressions, collinearity diagnoses were run, and variance inflation factors (VIF) were below 5 for all predictor variables. Of the 28 regressions run, only three were significant. In particular, contextual variables led to differences in parents' direct information management strategies ($F[14,12] = 3.19$, $R = .89$, $R^2 = .79$, $p < .05$), their active

avoidance information management strategies (F[4,12] = 4.27, R = .91, R^2 = .83, p < .01), and their outcome expectations (F[14, 12] = 3.69, R = .90, R^2 = .81, p < .05). Parent's direct information management strategies were significantly predicted by parent's responses to the conversation orientation RFCP (β = .79, p < .01), their active avoidance information management was significantly predicted by their adherence to the avoidance death attitudes profile (β = .82, p < .001), and their outcome expectations were significantly predicted by both parent and child responses to the RISC (β = .42, p < .05; β = -.67, p < .01, respectively).

Table 4
Dyadic Regressions (Parent Model*Contextual Variables)

	F	*R*	r^2	*p*
Relational Uncertainty (self)	1.44	.79	.63	.27
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	.89	.71	.51	.58
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	.86	.71	.50	.61
Interference	2.14	.85	.71	.96
Information Management (direct)	3.19	.89	.79	.03*
Information Management (indirect)	.44	.58	.34	.93
Information Management (active avoidance)	4.27	.91	.83	.008**
Orientation to Information	.50	.61	.37	.89
Efficacy (communication)	.76	.69	.47	.69
Efficacy (target honesty)	.64	.65	.43	.79
Efficacy (target ability)	1.46	.79	.63	.26
Efficacy (coping)	.45	.75	.56	.45
Outcome Expectancies	3.69	.90	.81	.02*
Uncertainty Discrepancy	1.08	.75	.56	.45

df = 14, 12 *p < .05 ** p < .01

Table 5
Dyadic Regressions (Children Model*Contextual Variables)

	F	*R*	r^2	*p*
Relational Uncertainty (self)	1.01	.74	.54	.50
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	.81	.70	.49	.65
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	1.01	.74	.54	.50
Interference	1.30	.78	.60	.33

Information Management (direct)	1.24	.77	.59	.36
Information Management (indirect)	2.24	.85	.72	.09
Information Management (active avoidance)	1.15	.75	.57	.41
Orientation to Information	1.17	.76	.58	.40
Efficacy (communication)	1.37	.79	.62	.29
Efficacy (target honesty)	.44	.58	.34	.93
Efficacy (target ability)	.60	.64	.41	.82
Efficacy (coping)	1.46	.79	.63	.26
Outcome Expectancies	.94	.72	.52	.55
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.56	.63	.40	.85

df = 14, 12

Additional analyses were conducted to determine the impact demographic variables had on the model variables. Linear regressions were run to identify the impact parent and child age, (both at the time of death [see Table 6] and the time of the survey [see Table 7]) had on model variables. Analysis revealed that age was not a significant factor in parent and child reports of the model variables, with the exception being that age at the time of death led to differences in child reports of active avoidance information management strategies ($F(2,22) = 5.20$, $R = .57$, $R^2 = .32$, $p < .05$) with parent's age being a significant negative predictor, $\beta = -.39$, $p < .05$.

Table 6
Dyadic Regressions (Age at Death*Model Variables)

	F	*p*	*R*	r^2
Parent Variables				
Relational Uncertainty (self)	.96	.40	.28	.08
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	.165	.22	.36	.13
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	.90	.42	.28	.08
Interference	.93	.41	.28	.08
Information Management (direct)	1.77	.19	.37	.14
Information Management (indirect)	.24	.79	.15	.02
Information Management (active avoidance)	.43	.66	.19	.04
Orientation to Information	1.14	.27	.34	.11
Efficacy (communication)	3.19	.06	.47	.23

Efficacy (target honesty)	3.18	.06	.47	.23
Efficacy (target ability)	2.88	.08	.46	.21
Efficacy (coping)	.57	.58	.22	.05
Outcome Expectancies	.79	.47	.26	.07
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.59	.57	.23	.05
Child Variables				
Relational Uncertainty (self)	.36	.70	.18	.03
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	.23	.80	.14	.02
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	1.00	.38	.29	.08
Interference	1.14	.34	.31	.09
Information Management (direct)	1.72	.20	.37	.14
Information Management (indirect)	.29	.75	.16	.03
Information Management (active avoidance)	5.20	.01*	.57	.32
Orientation to Information	.72	.50	.24	.06
Efficacy (communication)	.55	.58	.22	.05
Efficacy (target honesty)	.14	.88	.11	.01
Efficacy (target ability)	.97	.39	.29	.08
Efficacy (coping)	.04	.96	.06	.004
Outcome Expectancies	.00	.99	.01	.000
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.10	.90	.10	.01

df = 2, 22 *p < .05

Table 7
Dyadic Regressions (Age at Survey*Model Variables)

	F	*p*	*R*	r^2
Parent Variables				
Relational Uncertainty (self)	.44	.65	.19	.03
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	1.12	.34	.29	.08
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	.49	.62	.20	.04
Interference	.91	.41	.26	.07
Information Management (direct)	1.20	.32	.30	.09
Information Management (indirect)	.54	.60	.20	.04
Information Management (active avoidance)	.59	.56	.21	.05
Orientation to Information	.34	.71	.16	.03
Efficacy (communication)	.56	.58	.21	.04
Efficacy (target honesty)	.37	.69	.17	.03
Efficacy (target ability)	1.07	.36	.28	.08
Efficacy (coping)	.35	.71	.17	.03
Outcome Expectancies	1.21	.32	.30	.09
Uncertainty Discrepancy	1.41	.26	.32	.10

Child Variables				
Relational Uncertainty (self)	.97	.39	.27	.07
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	.20	.82	.13	.02
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	1.23	.31	.30	.09
Interference	1.17	.33	.29	.09
Information Management (direct)	2.19	.13	.39	.15
Information Management (indirect)	.86	.43	.25	.07
Information Management (active avoidance)	2.88	.08	.43	.19
Orientation to Information	.21	.82	.13	.02
Efficacy (communication)	2.02	.15	.37	.14
Efficacy (target honesty)	1.42	.26	.32	.10
Efficacy (target ability)	2.37	.11	.40	.16
Efficacy (coping)	.45	.65	.19	.03
Outcome Expectancies	.43	.65	.18	.03
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.30	.75	.15	.02

df = 2, 25

Independent samples *t*-tests revealed that while parent gender did not significantly impact any of the parent or child model variables (see Table 8), several of these variables were significantly impacted by the gender of the child (see Table 9). In comparison to parents of male children, parents of female children reported higher levels of relationship uncertainty, partner uncertainty, and communication related efficacy, whereas parents with male children reported higher levels of target honesty related efficacy than did parents of female children.

Table 8
Dyadic *t*-Tests (Parent Gender*Model Variables)

	Male (n = 5)		Female (n = 23)		
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*-test
Parent Variables					
Relational Uncertainty (self)	1.55	.48	2.12	1.39	-1.58
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	2.13	.61	22.57	1.56	-1.01
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	2.00	.14	2.46	1.43	-1.51

Interference	4.84	2.25	5.29	1.59	-.53
Information Management (direct)	3.27	1.96	3.58	1.55	-.39
Information Management (indirect)	4.30	1.15	4.74	1.13	-.69
Information Management (active avoidance)	4.80	1.63	5.90	1.33	-1.61
Orientation to Information	1.20	1.79	.43	1.08	1.28
Efficacy (communication)	3.40	1.62	3.12	1.80	.32
Efficacy (target honesty)	3.50	1.11	3.15	1.81	.56
Efficacy (target ability)	3.40	1.08	2.80	1.49	.84
Efficacy (coping)	3.75	1.64	2.91	1.30	1.07
Outcome Expectancies	3.53	1.68	4.04	1.34	-.74
Uncertainty Discrepancy	1.40	1.14	1.00	1.09	.74
Child Variables					
Relational Uncertainty (self)	2.00	1.45	2.09	1.33	-.13
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	2.73	1.36	2.22	1.48	.72
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	1.84	.86	2.17	1.30	-.54
Interference	4.76	1.87	5.75	1.49	-1.29
Information Management (direct)	4.00	.75	3.94	1.15	.11
Information Management (indirect)	4.60	1.08	5.24	1.19	-1.10
Information Management (active avoidance)	4.60	.92	4.90	1.12	-.56
Orientation to Information	.60	1.34	.52	1.41	.11
Efficacy (communication)	2.95	.69	2.61	1.84	.40
Efficacy (target honesty)	2.60	.96	2.28	1.81	.38
Efficacy (target ability)	3.75	1.22	2.57	1.60	1.56
Efficacy (coping)	3.90	1.65	2.77	1.47	1.56
Outcome Expectancies	4.27	.64	3.87	1.48	.94
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.60	.89	.70	.76	-.25

Table 9
Dyadic *t*-Tests (Child Gender*Model Variables)

	Male (n = 4)		Female (n = 24)		
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*-test
Parent Variables					

Relational Uncertainty (self)	1.06	.13	2.22	1.30	-4.23**
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	1.17	.33	2.74	1.41	-4.72**
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	1.30	.48	2.60	1.28	-1.98
Interference	5.70	2.10	5.17	1.68	.57
Information Management (direct)	3.83	1.99	3.38	1.47	.55
Information Management (indirect)	5.63	.95	4.50	1.27	1.69
Information Management (active avoidance)	6.25	1.29	5.68	1.37	.77
Orientation to Information	.00	.00	.68	1.31	-2.50
Efficacy (communication)	1.50	.46	3.25	1.73	-4.17**
Efficacy (target honesty)	1.50	1.00	3.27	1.57	-2.16*
Efficacy (target ability)	1.69	1.38	2.95	1.36	-1.71
Efficacy (coping)	2.25	1.34	3.02	1.36	-1.05
Outcome Expectancies	4.42	.83	3.70	1.43	.95
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.25	.50	1.21	1.10	-1.69
<u>Child Variables</u>					
Relational Uncertainty (self)	2.44	.97	1.98	1.39	.63
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	2.50	1.73	2.28	1.44	.28
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	2.25	.85	2.05	1.31	.29
Interference	5.40	2.14	5.60	1.52	-.23
Information Management (direct)	4.75	.83	3.79	1.08	1.68
Information Management (indirect)	5.50	1.22	5.02	1.19	.74
Information Management (active avoidance)	4.68	1.63	4.92	1.03	-.42
Orientation to Information	1.00	2.00	.46	1.28	.72
Efficacy (communication)	2.88	2.17	2.64	1.65	.26
Efficacy (target honesty)	1.50	1.00	2.50	1.73	-1.13
Efficacy (target ability)	2.25	1.26	2.90	1.61	-.76
Efficacy (coping)	2.69	1.13	3.02	1.60	-.40
Outcome Expectancies	4.75	.79	3.85	1.37	1.27
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.50	.58	.75	.79	-.60

*$p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Time since death was computed into a dichotomous variable, with the first category being deaths that occurred within 5 years of taking the survey, and the second category being deaths that occurred more than 5 years since taking the survey. The 5-year period was selected because existing research on familial loss suggests that after five years the impacts of the death become less severe (Bonanno & Field, 2001; Field, Gal-Oz, & Bonanno, 2003; Murphy, Johnson, & Lohan, 2003). However, an independent samples *t*-test revealed that time since loss only played a significant role in responses to two model variables (see Table 10). In comparison with those who had experienced the death more than five years ago, children who had experienced the death within the last five years reported significantly higher partner uncertainty ($t[26] = 2.02$, $p < .05$), and parents whose death was recent were more in need of information from their child ($t[26] = 2.54$, $p < .05$).

Table 10
Dyadic Paired-Samples *t*-Tests (Time Since Death*Model Variables)

	< 5yrs (n=11)		>5yrs (n=17)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*df*
Parent Variables						
Relational Uncertainty (self)	2.30	1.63	1.88	1.01	.83	26
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	2.79	1.68	2.21	1.28	1.02	26
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	2.75	1.42	2.14	1.21	1.21	26
Interference	5.09	1.97	5.51	1.49	-.63	26
Information Management (direct)	3.36	1.64	3.71	1.57	-.56	26
Information Management (indirect)	4.14	1.10	5.03	1.30	-1.88	26
Information Management (active avoidance)	5.33	1.77	5.90	1.16	-.94	15.57
Orientation to Information	1.36	1.69	.06	.24	2.54*	10.27
Efficacy (communication)	2.48	1.10	2.72	2.04	1.84	26
Efficacy (target honesty)	3.95	1.65	2.62	1.64	2.10	21.45

Efficacy (target ability)	3.39	1.48	2.41	1.33	1.81	26
Efficacy (coping)	3.27	1.58	2.76	1.32	.92	26
Outcome Expectancies	3.91	1.63	3.78	1.29	.23	26
Uncertainty Discrepancy	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.17	.00	26
Child Variables						
Relational Uncertainty (self)	2.41	1.75	1.82	.98	1.14	26
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	3.03	1.73	1.76	1.00	2.02*	14.37
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	2.58	1.50	1.74	.95	1.82	26
Interference	5.38	1.63	5.91	1.48	-.88	26
Information Management (direct)	4.00	.82	3.92	1.24	.18	26
Information Management (indirect)	5.05	.88	5.03	1.30	-.15	26
Information Management (active avoidance)	4.85	.77	4.84	1.26	.01	26
Orientation to Information	.55	1.21	.53	1.50	.03	26
Efficacy (communication)	3.95	1.65	2.72	2.04	-.36	26
Efficacy (target honesty)	2.41	1.79	2.26	1.68	.22	26
Efficacy (target ability)	3.11	1.65	2.51	1.56	.97	26
Efficacy (coping)	3.05	1.68	2.84	1.55	.33	26
Outcome Expectancies	3.94	1.36	3.92	1.29	.03	26
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.73	.90	.71	.69	.07	26

* $p < .05$

A one-way ANOVA revealed that ethnicity did not significantly factor into parent or child responses to the model variables (see Table 11). However, similar analysis revealed that religion factored significantly into several of the child model variables including uncertainty discrepancy ($F[5, 23] = 5.55$, $p < .005$), target ability related efficacy ($F[5, 23] = 3.53$, $p < .05$), and target honesty related efficacy ($F[5, 23] = 2.88$, $p < .05$; see Table 12). Post hoc analyses using the Bonferroni criteria revealed that children who identified as Roman Catholic reported significantly less uncertainty discrepancy ($M = .33$, $SD = .49$) than those who reported that they were not religiously

affiliated (M = 1.38, SD = .74; $p < .05$). Similarly, those who did not specify their religious affiliation reported significantly more target ability efficacy (M = 4.75, SD = .83) than those who identified as Protestant (M = 1.88, SD = .63; $p < .05$), Roman Catholic (M = 2.38, SD = 1.84; $p < .05$), and those who were not religiously affiliated (M = 2.31, SD = 1.33; $p < .05$). Further, those who identified as Protestant reported significantly less target honesty efficacy (M = 1.25, SD = .50) than those who did not specify their religious affiliation (M = 4.10, SD = 1.43; $p < .05$).

Table 11
Dyadic Ethnicity ANOVAs

	F	*p*
Parent Variables		
Relational Uncertainty (self)	.37	.55
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	.31	.58
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	.08	.78
Interference	2.75	.11
Information Management (direct)	1.49	.23
Information Management (indirect)	.42	.52
Information Management (active avoidance)	.51	.48
Orientation to Information	.21	.65
Efficacy (communication)	1.49	.23
Efficacy (target honesty)	1.65	.21
Efficacy (target ability)	.00	.99
Efficacy (coping)	1.73	.20
Outcome Expectancies	.01	.94
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.00	.96
Child Variables		
Relational Uncertainty (self)	1.81	.19
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	1.52	.23
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	.36	.56
Interference	.06	.81
Information Management (direct)	.01	.94
Information Management (indirect)	.12	.74
Information Management (active avoidance)	3.04	.09
Orientation to Information	.15	.71
Efficacy (communication)	.98	.33
Efficacy (target honesty)	1.08	.31

Efficacy (target ability)	.66	.42
Efficacy (coping)	.00	.95
Outcome Expectancies	2.60	.12
Uncertainty Discrepancy	3.33	.08

df = 1, 27

Table 12
Dyadic Religion ANOVAs

	F	*p*
Parent Variables		
Relational Uncertainty (self)	1.19	.35
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	1.50	.23
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	1.21	.34
Interference	.86	.52
Information Management (direct)	1.72	.17
Information Management (indirect)	1.74	.17
Information Management (active avoidance)	.27	.92
Orientation to Information	1.94	.13
Efficacy (communication)	1.16	.36
Efficacy (target honesty)	.98	.45
Efficacy (target ability)	.59	.71
Efficacy (coping)	.11	.99
Outcome Expectancies	.72	.62
Uncertainty Discrepancy	1.05	.41
Child Variables		
Relational Uncertainty (self)	1.07	.40
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	2.08	.10
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	1.41	.26
Interference	1.57	.21
Information Management (direct)	.32	.90
Information Management (indirect)	1.99	.13
Information Management (active avoidance)	1.25	.31
Orientation to Information	2.30	.08
Efficacy (communication)	1.31	.30
Efficacy (target honesty)	3.24*	.04
Efficacy (target ability)	4.61*	.01
Efficacy (coping)	.25	.93
Outcome Expectancies	1.71	.17
Uncertainty Discrepancy	4.51*	.01

df = 5, 23

Finally, in line with past work that has utilized the TMIM (see Afifi & Fowler, 2011), mean and standard deviation were calculated for the four sets of questions that corresponded to emotional responses to uncertainty and orientation to information (see Tables 13 and 14). These analyses revealed that anger was the strongest felt negative affective emotional response to uncertainty for both parents (M = 4.79, SD = 1.95) and children (M = 4.72, SD = 1.79), and that happy was the strongest felt positive affective response to uncertainty (P: M = 3.55, SD = 1.48; C: M = 3.97, SD = 1.94). Similarly, anger was also the strongest felt negative affective emotional response to orientation towards information (P: M = 5.48, SD = 1.94; C: M = 5.41, SD = 1.72), while pensive was the strongest felt positive affective emotional response to uncertainty towards information (P: M = 3.76, SD = 1.43; C: M = 3.97, SD = 1.76).

Table 13
Dyadic Emotional Responses to Uncertainty

	Parent		Child	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Thoughtful	2.17	1.04	2.48	1.60
Encouraged	2.62	1.45	3.48	1.68
Worried	2.69	1.26	3.31	1.81
Sad	2.69	1.37	3.17	1.81
Inspired	3.00	1.41	3.62	1.92
Calm	3.07	1.51	3.35	1.70
Anxious	3.10	1.23	4.17	1.89
Pensive	3.21	1.29	3.48	1.81
Secure	3.31	1.44	3.59	2.03
Happy	3.55	1.48	3.97	1.94
Frustrated	3.76	1.92	4.38	1.76
Nervous	3.79	1.47	4.62	1.80
Upset	3.86	1.81	4.48	1.79
Distressed	3.97	1.84	4.28	1.75
Scared	4.00	1.60	4.41	1.76
Disappointed	4.28	2.05	4.83	1.80
Irritable	4.35	2.00	4.48	1.90
Angry	4.79	1.95	4.72	1.79

N = 29

Table 14
Dyadic Emotional Responses to Orientation to Information

	Parent		Child	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Thoughtful	2.55	1.35	2.86	1.27
Secure	2.62	1.42	3.35	1.97
Calm	2.69	1.44	3.24	1.72
Encouraged	2.86	1.55	3.69	1.95
Inspired	3.24	1.48	3.76	1.75
Sad	3.31	1.63	3.83	1.67
Happy	3.59	1.70	3.69	1.71
Worried	3.69	1.34	4.28	1.67
Pensive	3.76	1.43	3.97	1.76
Anxious	4.31	1.83	4.86	1.73
Disappointed	4.31	2.07	4.35	2.09
Distressed	4.38	1.68	4.80	1.66
Upset	4.41	2.01	4.14	1.68
Nervous	4.52	1.92	4.86	1.60
Frustrated	4.67	1.98	4.24	1.82
Scared	4.83	1.87	5.28	1.51
Irritable	5.24	1.98	4.59	2.04
Angry	5.48	1.94	5.14	1.72

N = 29

Individual Preliminary Analysis

Analysis for individual participants (i.e., those whose parent or child did not take the survey) mirrored many elements of the preliminary analyses done for dyadic participants. First, independent samples *t*-tests were run to determine if the parent and child participants varied significantly on model variables, which they did not (see Table 15). Bivariate correlations were run to determine the relationship between variables for individual participants. Similar to dyadic participants, analysis revealed many significant correlations between both model and contextual variables (see Appendix E).

Table 15
Individual Independent-Samples *t*-tests

	Parent (n=4)		Child (n=19)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*df*
Relational Uncertainty (self)	2.13	1.30	2.37	1.64	-.28	21
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	3.13	1.55	2.75	1.84	.38	21
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	2.81	1.60	2.84	1.76	-.03	21
Interference	3.80	1.91	4.50	1.99	-.57	20
Information Management (direct)	3.33	1.19	4.54	2.04	-1.31	21
Information Management (indirect)	5.00	1.35	4.84	2.04	.15	21
Information Management (active avoidance)	5.92	1.20	4.49	1.72	1.57	21
Orientation to Information	.00	.00	.37	.83	.39	21
Efficacy (communication)	3.69	2.30	4.20	2.27	-.41	21
Efficacy (target honesty)	4.00	2.68	3.87	2.13	.11	21
Efficacy (target ability)	3.56	.66	4.07	1.42	-.68	21
Efficacy (coping)	3.69	2.39	4.01	1.91	-.30	21
Outcome Expectancies	4.33	1.87	4.74	1.94	-.38	21
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.75	.96	.95	1.35	-.28	21

A series of linear regressions were run to identify whether contextual variables (including RISC, RFCP - conversation, and DAP) significantly impacted model variables. As with the dyadic data, collinearity analyses were run to determine if multicollinearity posed a problem, and VIF was under 9 for all independent variables. This analysis revealed only one significant finding, which was that contextual variables led to differences in uncertainty discrepancy, $F(9, 12) = 4.06$, $R = .87$, $R^2 = .75$, $p < .05$, with the conversation orientation RFCP scale ($\beta = .81$, $p < .05$), and adherence to the neutral ($\beta = -1.44$, $p < .001$), approach accept ($\beta = .69$, $p < .05$), and escape death ($\beta = .69$, $p < .01$) attitudes profile being significant predictors (see Table 16).

Table 16
Individual Regressions (Contextual*Model Variables)

	F	*R*	r^2	*p*
Relational Uncertainty (self)	2.24	.79	.63	.10
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	2.74	.82	.67	.05

Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	2.37	.80	.64	.08
Interference	1.06	.68	.46	.46
Information Management (direct)	1.38	.71	.51	.30
Information Management (indirect)	1.64	.74	.55	.21
Information Management (active avoidance)	1.43	.72	.52	.28
Orientation to Information	.90	.64	.40	.55
Efficacy (communication)	1.38	.71	.51	.29
Efficacy (target honesty)	.98	.65	.42	.50
Efficacy (target ability)	1.42	.72	.52	.28
Efficacy (coping)	1.09	.67	.45	.43
Outcome Expectancies	1.03	.66	.45	.47
Uncertainty Discrepancy	4.06	.87	.75	.01*

df = 9, 12 *$p < .05$

To determine whether demographic variables influenced model variables for individual participants, a series of one-way ANOVAs were run. Analyses revealed that ethnicity and religion did not significantly impact any model variables (see Table 17 and 18).

Table 17
Individual Ethnicity ANOVAs (Individual)

	F	*p*
Relational Uncertainty (self)	.46	.72
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	.20	.89
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	.43	.74
Interference	.93	.41
Information Management (direct)	1.01	.41
Information Management (indirect)	.97	.43
Information Management (active avoidance)	2.84	.07
Orientation to Information	.35	.79
Efficacy (communication)	2.27	.11
Efficacy (target honesty)	3.01	.06
Efficacy (target ability)	2.11	.13
Efficacy (coping)	2.04	.14
Outcome Expectancies	1.98	.15
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.34	.80

df = 3, 19

Table 18
Individual Religion ANOVAs

	F	*p*
Relational Uncertainty (self)	.26	.93
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	.23	.95
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	.25	.94
Interference	.81	.56
Information Management (direct)	.86	.53
Information Management (indirect)	2.10	.08
Information Management (active avoidance)	2.51	.07
Orientation to Information	.60	.70
Efficacy (communication)	.70	.63
Efficacy (target honesty)	.81	.56
Efficacy (target ability)	.85	.53
Efficacy (coping)	2.08	.12
Outcome Expectancies	.71	.62
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.34	.88

df = 5, 17

Given the dichotomous nature of the gender variable and the computed time since death variable, independent samples *t*-tests were run to identify what impact these characteristics had on the model variables. However, none of the tests revealed significant findings (see Table 19 and 20).

Table 19
Individual Independent Samples *t*-tests (Gender*Model Variables)

	Male (n=6)		Female (n=16)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*-test	df
Relational Uncertainty (self)	1.75	1.14	2.44	1.67	-.92	20
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	2.13	1.18	3.00	1.94	-1.03	20
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	2.00	1.11	3.05	1.82	-1.31	20
Interference	4.90	2.03	4.22	1.96	.71	20
Information Management (direct)	4.11	1.12	4.38	1.37	-.31	20
Information Management	4.67	1.36	4.81	2.11	-.16	20

(indirect)						
Information Management (active avoidance)	4.56	.66	4.67	1.94	-.14	20
Orientation to Information	.17	.41	.38	.89	-.55	20
Efficacy (communication)	3.68	1.93	4.09	2.33	-.40	20
Efficacy (target honesty)	3.75	1.94	3.75	2.23	.00	20
Efficacy (target ability)	3.67	.61	4.09	1.54	-.65	20
Efficacy (coping)	3.54	1.89	3.92	1.92	-.42	20
Outcome Expectancies	4.56	1.95	4.56	1.90	-.01	20
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.50	.55	1.13	1.46	-1.01	20

Table 20
Individual Independent Samples *t*-tests (Time Passed*Model Variables)

	>5yrs (n=14)		< 5yrs (n=9)			
	M	SD	M	SD	*t*-test	*df*
Relational Uncertainty (self)	2.39	1.29	2.22	1.99	.25	21
Relational Uncertainty (partner)	2.79	1.57	2.86	2.13	-.10	21
Relational Uncertainty (relationship)	2.77	1.36	2.94	2.22	-.24	21
Interference	4.63	1.83	4.09	2.19	.63	20
Information Management (direct)	4.52	1.72	4.04	1.74	.66	21
Information Management (indirect)	5.21	1.81	4.33	2.06	1.08	21
Information Management (active avoidance)	4.71	1.83	4.78	1.61	-.09	21
Orientation to Information	.36	.84	.22	.67	.41	21
Efficacy (communication)	4.50	2.35	3.50	2.00	1.05	21
Efficacy (target honesty)	4.29	2.33	3.28	1.86	1.09	21
Efficacy (target ability)	4.34	1.41	3.42	.98	1.71	21
Efficacy (coping)	4.18	2.04	3.61	1.85	.67	21
Outcome Expectancies	4.83	2.12	4.41	1.55	.52	21
Uncertainty Discrepancy	.93	1.44	.89	1.05	.07	21

Finally, as with the dyadic data, means and standard deviations were collected for the emotional response variables. For the emotional responses to uncertainty variables, happy was found to be the highest reported positive affective state ($M = 4.96$, SD: 1.92),

and scared was ranked the highest negative affective state (*M* = 4.48, *SD* = .19; see Table 21). Pensive was the highest ranked positive affective state for emotional response to orientation toward information (M = 4.83, SD = 1.85), while disappointed was ranked the highest negative affective state (*M* = 4.78, *SD* = 2.22; see Table 22).

Table 21
Individual Emotional Responses to Uncertainty Discrepancy

	M	*SD*
Sad	3.09	2.34
Thoughtful	3.17	2.25
Worried	3.48	1.95
Upset	3.70	2.34
Inspired	3.74	2.45
Anxious	3.96	2.51
Distressed	4.00	2.45
Encouraged	4.00	2.11
Frustrated	4.04	2.31
Angry	4.04	2.31
Disappointed	4.17	2.35
Secure	4.17	2.15
Pensive	4.26	2.05
Nervous	4.30	2.36
Irritable	4.35	2.35
Scared	4.48	2.21
Calm	4.65	2.10
Happy	4.96	1.92

N =22

Table 22
Individual Emotional Responses to Orientation Toward Information

	M	*SD*
Thoughtful	4.00	2.07
Calm	4.05	2.13
Sad	4.09	2.04
Secure	4.17	1.99
Upset	4.22	2.17
Encouraged	4.22	1.98
Distressed	4.26	2.34

Anxious	4.26	2.14
Inspired	4.35	1.97
Worried	4.35	2.12
Frustrated	4.36	2.38
Nervous	4.43	2.25
Irritable	4.43	2.19
Scared	4.48	2.27
Angry	4.48	2.13
Happy	4.78	1.76
Disappointed	4.78	2.22
Pensive	4.83	1.85

N = 21

Actor-Partner Interdependence Models

Following the preliminary analyses, all variables in the model were centered. The grand mean of each variable, which included scores from parents and children, was subtracted from the scores of each individual's variable, creating a mean of zero. This technique is advisable for APIMs because it allows for zeros to have a meaningful value in the analysis (Kenny et al., 2006). Prior to developing the testable models, several confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were run to determine if the subdivisions of the relational uncertainty and efficacy variables could form a single factor. The three relational uncertainty variables had strong correlations (see Appendices B-D), and a dyadic CFA indicated that they fit together as a single factor $\chi^2(7) = 7.31$, $p = .40$, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .04, and therefore they were treated as a single variable in analysis. Similar analyses were run to determine if the four efficacy variables would form a single factor. There were several significant correlations between the variables (see Appendices B-D), but the dyadic CFA indicated they did not fit together as a single factor, $\chi^2(18) = 52.77$, $p < .001$, CFI = .82, RMSEA = .26. However, regression weights revealed that

communication efficacy did not fit into the factor as well as the other efficacy variables ($\beta = .67$), and therefore it was removed. A second CFA was run using only target honesty, target ability, and coping efficacy, and these three variables formed a single factor, $\chi^2(7) = 4.25$, $p = .75$, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00. Efficacy was analyzed as two unique variables: communication efficacy and an efficacy trio (target honesty, target ability, and coping). Given the number of variables included in the analysis, 24 iterations of the model were run. This accounted for the two different affective emotions (positive and negative), the two efficacy variables, and the three different communication management variables, while also taking into consideration each relational partner's role as an information provider and an information seeker. Modifications to the model were made in the event that low regression weights were present ($\beta < .10$); all paths with coefficients less than .10 were deleted from the models.

Parent Seeker, Child Provider.

Direct Information Management. The first iteration of the model positioned the parent as the information seeker and the child as the information provider. This model included negative emotional variables for responses to uncertainty discrepancy and orientation towards information (i.e., anger), the efficacy trio, and the direct information management strategies variable. Given the preliminary analyses, parents' conversation orientation RFCP was controlled in their direct information management strategies variable, children's gender was controlled in parents' relational uncertainty, and children's responses to the RISC were controlled in parents' outcome expectations. The analysis revealed that the model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(113) = 230.35$, $p < .001$, CFI = .24,

RMSEA = .19. However, regression weights were particularly low for the paths between children's efficacy trio and parents' direct information management (β = .05), and children's emotional variable and both parent and child direct information management (β = -.04; β = .05). Therefore, those paths were eliminated, and the model was rerun. The second analysis was also not a good fit, $\chi^2(116) = 230.59$, $p < .001$, CFI = .26, RMSEA = .19.

The second iteration of the model was structured the same as the first model, but used positive emotional responses (i.e., happy and pensive). The same contextual variables were controlled. The model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(113) = 239.47$, $p < .001$, CFI = .20, RMSEA = .20. Paths with low regression weights were eliminated, including those between child and parent emotional responses and their outcome expectancies (β = .04; β = -.02, respectively), and child's emotional responses and parents' direct information management (β =.02), but the model was still not a good fit $\chi^2(116) = 239.58$, $p < .001$, CFI = .22, RMSEA = .20.

Models were run to identify the fit of model when considering communication efficacy, rather than the efficacy trio variable. When the same contextual variables were controlled for, and the negative emotional responses were used, the model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(114) = 281.16$, $p < .001$, CFI = .01, RMSEA = .23. Low regression paths were removed between children's emotional response and their communication efficacy, and parents' emotion response and children's direct information management (β = -.01; β = -.02, respectively), however the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(116) = 281.18$, $p < .001$, CFI = .02, RMSEA = .23. For the positive emotional variables, the model was also not a

good fit, $\chi^2(113) = 264.10$, $p < .001$, CFI = .08, RMSEA = .22. Three paths were removed due to low regression weights: those paths between parents' emotional response and their outcome expectations ($\beta = -.02$), children's emotional response and their outcome expectations ($\beta = .04$), and children's emotional response and parents' direct information management ($\beta = -.04$), but the model fit was still not good, $\chi^2(116) = 264.24$, $p < .001$, CFI = .09, RMSEA = .21.

Indirect Information Management. Similar analysis was conducted for the indirect information management variable, and the same contextual variables were controlled for on parents' relational uncertainty and their outcome expectations. The first iteration was run using the negative emotional responses, the efficacy trio, and indirect information management. The model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(97) = 176.11$, $p < .001$, CFI = .42, RMSEA = .17. The paths between children's efficacy trio and both parent and child indirect information management ($\beta = .06$ and $\beta = -.02$, respectively) were removed, as was the path between parents' emotional response and children's indirect information management ($\beta = .04$). However, the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(100) = 188.62$, $p < .001$, CFI = .35, RMSEA = .18. When run with the positive emotional responses, the model was also not a good fit $\chi^2(97) = 179.72$, $p < .001$, CFI = .38, RMSEA = .18. The path between children's emotional response and their indirect information management, as well as the path between parents' emotional response and their indirect information management were deleted because of low regression weights ($\beta = -.01$ and $\beta = .004$, respectively). However, the model was still not a good fit $\chi^2(99) = 179.73$, $p < .001$, CFI = .39, RMSEA = .17.

When taking into consideration communication efficacy, indirect communication management, and the negative emotional responses, the model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(82) = 160.07$, $p < .001$, CFI = .32, RMSEA = .18. The path between children's communication efficacy and parents' indirect information management was removed due to its low regression weight ($\beta = .01$), but the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(84) = 160.07$, $p < .001$, CFI = .34, RMSEA = .18. Finally, when using positive emotional responses, indirect information management, and communication efficacy, the model was also not a good fit, $\chi^2(99) = 186.46$, $p < .001$, CFI = .14, RMSEA = .18. The paths between parents' emotional responses and both their indirect information management and their outcome expectations were removed due to low regression weights ($\beta = -.03$ and $\beta = .03$ respectively), but the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(99) = 186.52$, $p < .001$, CFI = .16, RMSEA = .18.

Active Avoidance Information Management. The final of the analyses in which the parent functioned as the information seeker and the child as the information provider, involved the active avoidance information management variable. Child gender remained controlled for parents' relational uncertainty, and parents' RISC was controlled for their outcome expectations. In addition, parents' adherence to the avoidance death attitude profile was controlled for in parents' active avoidance information management, and child's age at the death was controlled for children's active avoidance information management. The model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(130) = 264.78$, $p < .001$, CFI = .29, RMSEA = .19. The paths between children's relational uncertainty and their orientation towards information had a low regression weight ($\beta = .03$), as did the path between their

orientation towards information and their emotional response (β = -.01), and therefore those paths, and subsequently the children's relational uncertainty, their interference, and their orientation toward information were removed. However, the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(87) = 187.94$, $p < .001$, CFI = .34, RMSEA = .22. The model was run for positive emotional responses, and it was not a good fit, $\chi^2(130) = 311.88$, $p < .001$, CFI = .21, RMSEA = .18. Two paths were removed, between children's efficacy trio and parents' active avoidance information management, and between parents' emotional responses and their outcome expectations (β = -.02 for both), but the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(132) = 311.91$, $p < .001$, CFI = .21, RMSEA = .22.

When the model was run with the negative emotional responses, active avoidance information management, and the communication efficacy variable, it was not a good fit, $\chi^2(130) = 266.88$, $p < .001$, CFI = .09, RMSEA = .19. Similar to the active avoidance negative response model with the efficacy trio variable, paths related to children's emotional responses carried low regression weights (orientation to information: β = -.01; relational uncertainty: β = .03; communication efficacy: β = -.01; and parents' active avoidance information management: β = -.02). Therefore, this variable, and subsequently children's relational uncertainty, orientation towards information, and interference were removed. However, the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(77) = 184.40$, $p < .001$, CFI = .13, RMSEA = .22. Finally, when run with the positive emotional responses, the model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(130) = 315.15$, $p < .001$, CFI = .04, RMSEA = .27. The path between parents' emotional responses and their outcome expectations was removed (β = -.02), as was the path between children's emotional responses and their outcome

expectations (β = .04). Additionally, the path between children's relational uncertainty and their orientation towards information yielded a low regression weight (β = .03), and therefore the children's relational uncertainty variable and the path were removed. The new model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(117) = 283.49$, $p < .001$, CFI = .07, RMSEA = .23.

Child Seeker, Parent Provider.

Direct Information Management. For the second part of the substantial analysis, children functioned as the information seeker, and parents as the information provider. As with the first set of APIMs, the first model run incorporated the efficacy trio, negative emotional responses, and direct information management. Child gender was controlled for in parents' relational uncertainty, parents' responses to the RISC were controlled for in the parents' outcome expectations, and parent responses to the conversation orientation RFCP were controlled for in parents' direct information management. Two additional controls were added, with time since death being controlled for on children's uncertainty discrepancy and parents' orientation towards information. The model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(130) = 286.97$, $p < .001$, CFI = .27, RMSEA = .21. Low regression weights were removed, including between parents' emotional responses and their outcome expectations (β = .07), children's emotional responses and parents' information management (β = .05), and children's efficacy trio and parents' information management (β = .09). However, the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(133) = 292.72$, $p < .001$, CFI = .25, RMSEA = .20. Similarly, when run with positive emotional response variables, the model was also not a good fit, $\chi^2(130) = 272.62$, $p < .001$, CFI = .29, RMSEA = .20. Three paths were eliminated, between children's efficacy and children and parent direct information

management, (β = -.04; β = .01), and between children's emotional responses and children's efficacy trio (β = .07), but the model was still not a good fit $\chi^2(133) = 292.10$, $p < .001$, CFI = .20, RMSEA = .20.

When taking into consideration communication efficacy, as well as direct information management, and negative emotional response variables, the model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(130) = 307.74$, $p < .001$, CFI = .15, RMSEA = .22. Paths between parents' emotional responses and their outcome expectations (β = .08), and children's emotional responses and both children's communication efficacy (β = .05) as well as parents' information management (β = .01) were eliminated, though the resulting model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(133) = 308.07$, $p < .001$, CFI = .16, RMSEA = .22. For positive emotional responses, the model was not a good fit $\chi^2(130) = 268.95$, $p < .001$, CFI = .22, RMSEA = .20. Paths between children's communication efficacy and child and parent information management were removed (β = -.02 andβ = -.01, respectively), as were those between children's emotional responses and parents' information management (β = .09), and children's outcome expectations and children's communication efficacy (β = -.08). However, the new model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(134) = 269.80$, $p < .001$, CFI = .24, RMSEA = .19.

Indirect Information Management. Analysis was run using the indirect information management variable, the efficacy trio, and the negative emotional response variables, but the model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(113) = 221.94$, $p < .001$, CFI = .40, RMSEA = .19. Paths between parents' emotional responses and children's information management (β = .04), children's emotional responses and parents' information

management (β = .04), parents' efficacy trio and children's information management (β = -.01), and parents' emotional responses and their outcome expectations (β = .01) were removed. However, the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(117) = 222.24$, $p < .001$, CFI = .41, RMSEA = .18. When the same model was run with positive emotional responses, it was also not a good fit, $\chi^2(113) = 205.61$, $p < .001$, CFI = .49, RMSEA = .17. Paths between parents' efficacy trio and their information management (β = .01), children's efficacy trio and parents' information management (β = -.08), and children's emotional responses and parents' information management (β = -.002) were removed. The model still did not have a good fit, $\chi^2(116) = 219.55$, $p < .001$, CFI = .42, RMSEA = .18.

When using the communication efficacy variable, indirect communication management, and negative emotional responses, the model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(113) = 234.33$, $p < .001$, CFI = .23, RMSEA = .20. The paths between parents' emotional responses, their outcome expectations (β = .01) and children's information management (β = -.03), and children's emotional responses, their communication efficacy (β = .05), and parents' information management (β = -.04) were removed. However, the model was still not a good fit, $\chi^2(117) = 234.65$, $p < .001$, CFI = .26, RMSEA = .19. Finally, when the same model was run with the positive emotional response variables, it was also not a good fit, $\chi^2(113) = 211.96$, $p < .001$, CFI = .37, RMSEA = .18. Paths between parents' communication efficacy and their information management (β = .03), and children's outcome expectations and their communication efficacy (β = -.08), were removed. The new model was not a good fit, $\chi^2(115) = 212.11$, $p < .001$, CFI = .38, RMSEA = .17.

Hypotheses.

Although the proposed integrated model was not a good fit, several paths that corresponded to hypotheses were significant, and therefore additional analyses were run to identify whether these significant relationships existed outside of the APIM analysis. Support for hypotheses one and two was not found, as bivariate correlations revealed that parent and child reports of relational uncertainty (H1; $r[29] = -.07$, $p = .71$) and partner interference (H2; $r[29] = .08$, $p = .68$) were not positively correlated. Reports of relational uncertainty predicted uncertainty discrepancy (H3a) for both parents ($F[1, 27] = 6.71$, $R = .45$, $R^2 = .20$, $\beta = .45$, $p < .05$), and children ($F[1, 27] = 6.98$, $R = .45$, $R^2 = .21$, $\beta = .45$, $p < .05$). However, partner interference did not significantly predict uncertainty discrepancy (H3b) for parents ($F[1, 27] = 1.94$, $p = .18$, $R = .30$, $R^2 = .07$) or children ($F[1, 27] = 3.35$, $p = .08$, $R = .33$, $R^2 = .11$), meaning that partial support for hypothesis three was found.

Partial support was also found for hypothesis four. Analysis indicated that orientations toward information were not significantly predicted by relational uncertainty (H4a; parents, $F[1, 27] = .16$, $p = .69$, $R = .08$, $R^2 = .01$; children, $F[1, 27] = .02$, $p = .90$, $R = .02$, $R^2 = .001$), but that partner interference did act as a significant predictor (H4b; parents, $F[1, 27] = 10.53$, $R = .53$, $R^2 = .28$, $\beta = -.53$, $p < .005$; children, $F[1, 27] = 10.15$, $R = .52$, $R^2 = .27$, $\beta = -.52$, $p < .005$). Regressions were run to determine if uncertainty discrepancies and orientations toward information predicted corresponding emotional responses for both positive and negative affective emotions. This analysis was largely non-significant (see table 23), with the exception being the connection between parent's

orientation towards information and their positive and negative emotional responses. In particular, parent's orientation towards information negatively predicted their angry emotional responses, $F(1, 27) = 16.74$, $R = .62$, $R^2 = .38$, $\beta = -.62$, $p < .001$, and their pensive emotional responses, $F(1, 27) = 6.31$, $R = .44$, $R^2 = .19$, $\beta = -.44$, $p < .05$, meaning that hypothesis five was partially supported.

Table 23
Hypothesis Five Regressions (Uncertainty Discrepancy & Orientations toward Information*Emotional Responses)

	F	*R*	R^2	*p*
Parent				
Uncertainty Discrepancy				
Angry Emotional Response	.63	.15	.02	.43
Happy Emotional Response	.05	.04	.002	.83
Orientation towards Information				
Angry Emotional Response	16.74	.62	.38	.000**
Pensive Emotional Response	6.31	.44	.19	.02*
Child				
Uncertainty Discrepancy				
Angry Emotional Response	.15	.07	.01	.70
Happy Emotional Response	1.62	.24	.06	.21
Orientation towards Information				
Angry Emotional Response	.001	.01	.000	.98
Pensive Emotional Response	1.35	.22	.05	.26

df = 1, 27 *$p < .05$ **$p < .001$

Partial support was found for hypothesis six dealt with the role that emotional responses played in predicting outcome expectations (H6a), efficacy (H6b), and information management (H6c; see Table 24). In particular, parent's negative emotional response to uncertainty discrepancy negatively predicted their communication efficacy ($F[1, 27] = 6.81$, $R = .25$, $R^2 = .40$, $\beta = -.45$, $p < .05$), their efficacy trio ($F[1, 27] = 6.16$, $R = .43$, $R^2 = .19$, $\beta = -.3$, $p < .05$), and positively predicted their active avoidance information management ($F[1, 27] = 4.63$, $R = .38$, $R^2 = .15$, $\beta = .38$, $p < .05$). Parent's

negative emotional response to orientation towards information positively predicted their indirect (F[1, 27] = 12.64, R = .57, R^2 = .32, β = .57, p < .005) and active avoidance (F[1, 27] = 32.98, R = .74, R^2 = .55, β = .74 , p < .001) information management. Finally, parent's positive emotional response to orientation towards information negatively predicted their outcome expectations (F[1, 27] = 6.53, R = .44, R^2 = .20, β = -.44, p < .05) their communication efficacy (F[1, 27] = 6.14, R = .43, R^2 = .19, β = -.43, p < .05) and their efficacy trio (F[1, 27] = 10.73, R = .53, R^2 = .28, β = -.53, p < .005), and positively predicted their indirect (F[1, 27] = 54.09, R = .82, R^2 = .67, β = .82, p < .001) and active avoidance (F[1, 27] = 6.07, R = .49, R^2 = .18, β = .43, p < .05) information management. There were fewer significant findings for children, with negative emotional responses to uncertainty discrepancy positively predicting indirect information management (F[1, 27] = 4.85, R = .39, R^2 = .15, β = .39, p < .05), and negative emotional responses to orientation towards information positively predicting indirect information management (F[1, 27] = 5.02, R = .40, R^2 = .16, β = .40, p < .05).

Table 24
Hypothesis Six Actor Effect Regressions (Emotional Responses*Outcome Expectations, Efficacy, and Information Management)

	F	*R*	R^2	*p*
Parent Variables				
Information Provider - Angry				
Outcome Expectations	.37	.12	.01	.55
Communication Efficacy	6.81	.45	.20	.02*
Efficacy Trio	6.16	.43	.19	.02*
Information Management (direct)	1.72	.25	.06	.20
Information Management (indirect)	2.98	.32	.10	.10
Information Management (active avoidance)	4.63	.38	.15	.04*
Information Provider - Happy				
Outcome Expectations	.01	.02	.001	.91
Communication Efficacy	.47	.13	.02	.59

Efficacy Trio	1.56	.23	.06	.22
Information Management (direct)	2.94	.31	.10	.10
Information Management (indirect)	.12	.07	.004	.74
Information Management (active avoidance)	1.23	.21	.04	.28
Information Seeker - Angry				
Outcome Expectations	.01	.02	.001	.91
Communication Efficacy	1.47	.23	.05	.24
Efficacy Trio	3.68	.35	.12	.07
Information Management (direct)	.06	.05	.002	.80
Information Management (indirect)	12.64	.57	.32	.001**
Information Management (active avoidance)	32.98	.74	.55	.000***
Information Seeker – Pensive				
Outcome Expectations	6.53	.44	.20	.02*
Communication Efficacy	6.14	.43	.19	.02*
Efficacy Trio	10.73	.53	.28	.003**
Information Management (direct)	.74	.16	.03	.40
Information Management (indirect)	54.09	.82	.67	.000***
Information Management (active avoidance)	6.07	.49	.18	.02*
<u>Child Variables</u>				
Information Provider - Angry				
Outcome Expectations	.58	.14	.02	.46
Communication Efficacy	.12	.07	.004	.74
Efficacy Trio	4.13	.36	.13	.05
Information Management (direct)	1.76	.25	.06	.20
Information Management (indirect)	4.85	.39	.15	.04*
Information Management (active avoidance)	.001	.004	.000	.98
Information Provider - Happy				
Outcome Expectations	1.42	.22	.05	.24
Communication Efficacy	.78	.17	.03	.39
Efficacy Trio	2.05	.27	.07	.16
Information Management (direct)	.55	.14	.02	.46
Information Management (indirect)	.86	.18	.03	.36
Information Management (active avoidance)	.02	.02	.001	.90
Information Seeker - Angry				
Outcome Expectations	.64	.15	.02	.43
Communication Efficacy	.01	.02	.000	.92
Efficacy Trio	.81	.17	.03	.38
Information Management (direct)	.15	.07	.005	.70
Information Management (indirect)	5.02	.40	.16	.03*

Information Management (active avoidance)	1.77	.25	.06	.19
Information Seeker – Pensive				
Outcome Expectations	.08	.05	.003	.79
Communication Efficacy	1.20	.20	.04	.30
Efficacy Trio	.09	.06	.003	.77
Information Management (direct)	.16	.08	.01	.70
Information Management (indirect)	.64	.15	.02	.43
Information Management (active avoidance)	2.00	.26	.07	.17

df = 1, 27 *$p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Consistent with the proposed integrated model and H6c, additional analyses were run to identify if partner effects were present (see Table 25). One partner effect was significant, as parent's positive emotional response to uncertainty discrepancy negatively predicted children's indirect information management, $F(1, 27) = 4.05$, $R = .36$, $R^2 = .13$, $\beta = -.36$, $p < .05$.

Table 25
Hypothesis Six Partner Effect Regressions (Emotional Responses*Outcome Expectations, Efficacy, and Information Management)

	F	*R*	R^2	*p*
Parent Variables				
Information Provider - Angry				
Child Information Management (direct)	1.26	.21	.05	.27
Child Information Management (indirect)	.38	.12	.01	.55
Child Information Management (active avoidance)	.29	.10	.01	.59
Information Provider - Happy				
Child Information Management (direct)	1.10	.20	.04	.30
Child Information Management (indirect)	4.05	.36	.13	.05*
Child Information Management (active avoidance)	2.26	.28	.08	.14
Information Seeker - Angry				
Child Information Management (direct)	.66	.15	.02	.42
Child Information Management (indirect)	.06	.05	.002	.82
Child Information Management (active avoidance)	.22	.09	.01	.65

Information Seeker – Pensive				
Information Management (direct)	.98	.19	.04	.33
Information Management (indirect)	3.62	.34	.12	.07
Information Management (active avoidance)	1.70	.24	.06	.20
Child Variables				
Information Provider - Angry				
Parent Information Management (direct)	.09	.06	.003	.77
Parent Information Management (indirect)	.03	.03	.001	.86
Parent Information Management (active avoidance)	.57	.14	.02	.46
Information Provider - Happy				
Parent Information Management (direct)	.18	.08	.01	.67
Parent Information Management (indirect)	.09	.06	.003	.76
Parent Information Management (active avoidance)	.03	.03	.001	.87
Information Seeker - Angry				
Parent Information Management (direct)	.001	.01	.000	.98
Parent Information Management (indirect)	.92	.18	.03	.35
Parent Information Management (active avoidance)	.000	.003	.000	.99
Information Seeker – Pensive				
Parent Information Management (direct)	.20	.09	.01	.66
Parent Information Management (indirect)	.21	.09	.01	.65
Parent Information Management (active avoidance)	.19	.08	.01	.67

df = 1, 27 *$p < .05$

Partial support was found for hypothesis seven. Parent's outcome expectations were a significant, positive predictor of their efficacy trio, $F(1, 27) = 19.37$, $R = .65$, $R^2 = .40$, $\beta = .65$, $p < .001$, and their communication efficacy, $F(1, 27) = 16.38$, $R = .61$, $R^2 = .39$, $\beta = .61$, $p < .001$. For children, the efficacy trio was significantly and positively

predicted by outcome expectations, $F(1, 27) = 34.68$, $R = .75$, $R^2 = .56$, $\beta = .75$, $p < .001$, but communication efficacy was not, $F(1, 27) = .25$, $p = .62$, $R = .10$, $R^2 = .01$.

Partial support was found for hypothesis eight, with efficacy significantly predicting several information management strategies (see Table 26). In particular, parent's communication efficacy positively predicted their direct information management, $F(1, 27) = 6.57$, $R = .44$, $R^2 = .20$, $\beta = .44$, $p < .05$, and negatively predicted their indirect information management, $F(1, 27) = 5.84$, $R = .42$, $R^2 = .18$, $\beta = -.42$, $p < .05$. Further, parent's efficacy trio negatively predicted both their active avoidance information management, $F(1, 27) = 8.08$, $R = .48$, $R^2 = .23$, $\beta = -.48$, $p < .005$, and their indirect information management, $F(1, 27) = 6.05$, $R = .43$, $R^2 = .18$, $\beta = -.43$, $p < .05$. Results for children mirrored parental findings, with their communication efficacy positively predicting their direct information management, $F(1, 27) = 5.34$, $R = .41$, $R^2 = .17$, $\beta = .41$, $p < .05$, and their efficacy trio negatively predicted both their indirect information management, $F(1, 27) = 15.37$, $R = .60$, $R^2 = .36$, $\beta = -.60$, $p < .005$, and their active avoidance information management, $F(1, 27) = 7.35$, $R = .46$, $R^2 = .21$, $\beta = -.46$, $p < .05$.

Table 26
Hypothesis Eight Actor Effects Regressions
(Efficacy*Information Management Strategies)

	F	*R*	R^2	*p*
Parent				
Communication Efficacy				
Direct Information Management	6.57	.44	.20	.02*
Indirect Information Management	5.84	.42	.18	.02*
Active Avoidance Information Management	2.82	.31	.10	.10
Efficacy Trio				
Direct Information Management	3.11	.32	.10	.09

Indirect Information Management	6.05	.43	.18	.02*
Active Avoidance Information Management	8.08	.48	.20	.008**
Child				
Communication Efficacy				
Direct Information Management	5.34	.41	.17	.03*
Indirect Information Management	2.25	.28	.08	.15
Active Avoidance Information Management	.77	.17	.03	.39
Efficacy Trio				
Direct Information Management	.000	.002	.000	.99
Indirect Information Management	15.37	.60	.36	.001***
Active Avoidance Information Management	7.35	.46	.21	.01*

df = 1, 27 *$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ ***$p < .005$

As with hypothesis 6, additional analyses were run to identify partner if partner effects were present (see Table 27). Regressions revealed two significant partner effects. Parent's communication efficacy positively predicted children's direct information management, $F(1, 27) = 7.29$, $R = .46$, $R^2 = .21$, $\beta = .46$, $p < .05$. The reverse was also true, as children's communication efficacy positively predicted parent's direct information management, $F(1, 27) = 4.70$, $R = .39$, $R^2 = .15$, $\beta = .39$, $p < .05$.

Table 27
Hypothesis Eight Partner Effects Regressions (Efficacy*Information Management Strategies)

	F	*R*	R^2	*p*
Parent				
Communication Efficacy				
Child Direct Information Management	7.29	.46	.21	.01*
Child Indirect Information Management	.000	.003	.000	.99
Child Active Avoidance Information Management	.24	.09	.01	.63
Efficacy Trio				
Child Direct Information Management	2.88	.31	.10	.10
Child Indirect Information Management	.10	.06	.004	.75
Child Active Avoidance Information Management	.28	.10	.01	.60

	Child			
Communication Efficacy				
Parent Direct Information Management	4.70	.39	.15	.04*
Parent Indirect Information Management	2.34	.28	.08	.14
Parent Active Avoidance Information Management	3.33	.33	.11	.08
Efficacy Trio				
Parent Direct Information Management	.03	.03	.001	.87
Parent Indirect Information Management	.44	.13	.02	.51
Parent Active Avoidance Information Management	.14	.07	.01	.72

df = 1, 27 *$p < .05$

Finally, partial support was found for hypothesis nine, as parent and child reports of direct information management were positively correlated, $r(29) = -.85$, $p < .000$. Reports of indirect ($r[29] = -.15$, $p = .43$) and active avoidance information management ($r[29] = -.06$, $p = .76$) were not correlated.

Chapter Six: Qualitative Results

To answer research questions one through three, the primary researcher, along with a team of trained research assistants, conducted a thematic analysis using all data from the open-ended questions related to relational uncertainty, partner interference, and information management strategies (i.e., from both dyads and individuals). Consistent with other work that has utilized mixed methods (see Willer, 2014), as well as work centering the RTM (see Knobloch & Theiss, 2012), qualitative data were analyzed using inductive thematic analysis. Inductive analysis techniques center findings that arise from the data set itself, rather than from theoretically driven ideas and concepts (Bulmer, 1979). Therefore, although the variables being analyzed stem from theoretical frames, analysis was not conducted with a deductive coding system.

Inductive thematic analysis was an effective means of answering research questions one through three, which dealt explicitly with identifying specific themes in the behaviors and experiences participants reported because "analytical induction is a fruitful way of delimiting and defining a causally homogeneous category of phenomena" (Bulmer, 1979, p. 664). Moreover, this type of analysis was useful in "maintaining faithfulness" (Bulmer, 1979, p. 661) to the larger data set, while also identifying generalized themes and concepts embodied in specific data points. To this end, inductive thematic analysis provided a way of generating themes that were not only derived

directly from the data, but were also representative, on a larger, more generalized scale, of the individualized experiences of the participants.

Inductive analysis techniques were also used because of their ease of integration with quantitative analyses. In particular, from an analytical perspective, this type of analysis was ideal because it provided a way of systematically uncovering distinctive themes in the qualitative data that could then be merged with quantitative data to produce a more conceptually rich understanding of familial death. Specifically, though the category schemes created through the qualitative analysis answered research questions one through three, they also helped provide the foundation for answering research questions four through six, which represented an integration of qualitative and quantitative data.

Conceptually, inductive analysis techniques were also a good fit because the themes that arose from the qualitative data provided insight into the specific and genuine lived experiences of participants as they related to relational uncertainty, interference, and information management. This provided a more realistic understanding of family loss, one that was rooted in relatable terms, and expanded the way that researchers and community organizations alike are able to understand and support bereaved families. Finally, because inductive methods center the data, rather than a particular theoretical frame, such analysis shed light on unanticipated insights, while compensating for and balancing out the deductive nature of traditional quantitative methods.

Inductive Analysis

In the current study, the primary researcher and a team of assistants who were trained in qualitative analysis techniques conducted the inductive thematic analysis. Although the primary researcher had insider status with the population under study, the research assistants did not. To help ensure that findings were reliable, analysis took place on two distinct layers. First, the researcher and two assistants read through all of the participant responses several times to gain familiarity with the data. During this part of the analysis the researcher and the two assistants engaged in open coding, or the process of creating tentative labels or descriptors for different components of the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Due to the inductive nature of this analysis, labels and descriptors generated through open coding were based on what is observed in the data, rather than existing theories. Following open coding, the researcher and the two assistants met to discuss their open codes and generate an initial set of categories. Following this meeting, the researcher and the two assistants then re-read the data using the initial set of categories as a guide to verify the developed themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). During the second reading of the data the categories were confirmed, and the coding scheme was finalized.

The second layer of the analysis centered on accessing the reliability of the category schemes. During this part of the analysis the primary researcher and two other assistants used the categories created in the first section of analysis to code the same 50% of the data set, after which Cohen's kappa was calculated for each set of themes. The primary researcher and assistants were able to achieve reliability for the developed

themes for relational uncertainty, interference, and information management, with Cohen's kappas of .92, .89, and .88 respectively. Given that adequate intercoder reliability was established, the remaining 50% of each set of data was coded by either the primary researcher or one of the two assistants. These numeric codes were then entered into SPSS so they could be integrated with the quantitative data.

Themes

The inductive analysis generated a distinct set of themes for information management, interference, and uncertainty. Unlike the APIMs, these themes were representative of responses from both individuals and dyads, as this type of analysis did not require data from both relational partners. The themes created through this analysis were used to answer research questions one through three, which aimed to provide more contextually rich insight into how bereaved parents and children experience uncertainty (RQ1), interference (RQ2), and information management (RQ3) following loss.

Uncertainty.

Despite the inductive approach, in answering research question three, "What issues of relational uncertainty, if any, do parents and children report experiencing following spousal/parental death?," analysis revealed that findings related to parent and child reports of uncertainty mirrored the RTM. Participants reported three distinct types of uncertainty: Relationship Uncertainty, Self Uncertainty, and Partner Uncertainty, which parallel how uncertainty is defined within the RTM. In particular, many participants centered on the need to redefine the parent-child relationship (relationship uncertainty), while others chose to highlight their concerns about being a good parent or

child (self uncertainty), or expressed distress over their child or parent's behaviors (partner uncertainty).

Beyond contextual distinctions, however, analysis also revealed that participants varied with regard to whether they experienced uncertainty at all. For instance, several individuals shared that because of geographical distance and age their parent-child relationship remained completely intact following the death. However, others shared deep feelings of guilt and sadness over not being confident in how they or their relational partner reacted to the death. Therefore, two additional sub-themes were developed to help capture these differences within the three contextual, higher order themes: Certainty and Uncertainty.

Relationship Un/Certainty. Many participants experienced un/certainty at a relationship level following the loss. Consistent with Solomon and Knobloch's (2004) original conception of relational uncertainty, these individuals expressed concern over changes in the status of their relationship that were a result of the death. In instances of relationship un/certainty, participants shifted the focus from themselves or their relational partner, and fixated on experiences where they questioned or felt confident in the relationship itself. This type of un/certainty was experienced both for participants who felt certain in their relationship, and for those who experienced uncertainty.

Relationship uncertainty. Parents and children who experienced relationship uncertainty shared concern over the status of their parent-child relationship, often expressing doubt about what the relationship meant, and what the future held. For instance, one participant shared "after my dad passed I think I was forced to change my

relationship with my mom because everything changed. We were kind of starting from scratch." (Dyad 23, Child) In this excerpt the participant is calling into question the nature of her relationship with her mother, rather than focusing on either relational partner as an individual. This child is sharing feelings of insecurity surrounding the basic definition of her parent-child relationship, a sentiment that was expressed by another participant who wrote "I would like to keep my stepmother in my life, but there is a part of me that is concerned that we will grow apart now that my dad is no longer alive and she isn't 'obligated to be my stepmother' anymore." (quotations in original; Dyad 27, Child) This participant is framing the death of her father as an incident that has the potential to damage her parent-child relationship by shifting the context within which she and her step-mother relate to one another. She, and other participants who shared similar sentiments, were calling into question the very nature of their parent-child relationship, rather than focusing on the specific behaviors enacted by themselves or the partner. Finally, other participants implied that discord between parent and child experiences with the death led to ambiguity about their relationship. For instance, one child shared "I love my mom and I know she loves me but I think we have different experiences with losing my dad. She has always been a great mom but I think she and I don't always see eye to eye." (Dyad 21, Child) This participant is echoing Traylor and colleagues' (2003) notion of individualistic grieving by centering the idea that a lack of agreement between her experience with the death and her mother's experience with the death is creating a sense of dissonance between them.

Relationship certainty. In contrast to those who experienced relationship uncertainty, several participants shared that the death strengthened the connection they had to their parent or child. One parent shared that challenges associated with the death helped generate more confidence in her relationships, "After the passing of my husband, my daughters and I actually grew closer. There was a trust that was established between the three of us that was much stronger than before."(Dyad 23, Parent) In this statement, she is indicating how the death created a shared sense of hope and reliance between she and her daughters, one that reinforced the very fabric of their relationship. This sentiment was echoed by other participants who shared that the "open and honest" (Dyad 14, Child) nature of their relationship, and the idea that "they loved me in their own way and I loved them," (Dyad 17, Child) helped bolster feelings of togetherness between parents and children. This emphasis on connection was also felt by those who suggested that experiencing death makes families closer, with one participant sharing, "I am closer to them because we realize how short life can be." (Dyad 9, Parent)

Other participants spoke about contextual factors such as age, cause of death, and level of maturity as influencing whether uncertainty was experienced. For example, one participant recalled, "as a child in the parent-child relationship, there were no moments of uncertainty. I was 33 at the time. We were all prepared." (Individual, Child 18) These remarks suggest that experiences leading up to and surrounding the death have implications for how parents and children will relate to one another following the loss to the extent that they can help brace relational partners for what is to come.

Partner Un/Certainty. Distinct from relationship un/certainty, many participants experienced un/certainty that was directly related to their relational partner. This type of un/certainty focused on questions or concerns surrounding their perception of their partner's involvement in or commitment to the relationship. These participants highlighted moments where they called into question whether their partner loved them or had room for them in their lives. In these instances, participants were emphasizing their parent's or child's relational contribution following the loss, rather than focusing on the relationship as a whole.

Partner uncertainty. Participants who shared experiences with partner uncertainty spoke frequently about being unsure of their partner's involvement in the relationship. Many of these concerns related to changes in the partner's behavior following the loss, with one participant sharing "She could hardly eat or sleep so she became practically emaciated looking with huge, dark circles under her eyes all the time. This was not the woman I knew to be my mother, and it terrified me." (Dyad 10, Child) This participant centered on changes to her mother's behavior following the death, positioning them as factors that made her question whether her mother was the same person after losing her spouse. In a similar vein, other participants expressed uncertainty related to the intent of their relational partner's behaviors following the death, "I believe there is a part of my son (the one who performed CPR) that blames himself for his father's death. But he can be very conniving and he may have dropped hints that he blames himself because he wants me to excuse some of his poor decisions and bad behaviors." (Dyad 28, Parent) This participant is sharing concerns about not knowing the cause of her son's behavior,

but is centering the death as a contributing factor to this uncertainty, suggesting that there is a level of insecurity that surrounds how she perceives his behavior that is due, in part, to the family's loss.

Similar to the discord experienced at a relationship level, many participants shared anxieties surrounding a disconnect between their experiences with the death, and the experiences of their child or parent. For instance, one participant shared "My son doesn't understand my need to date" (Dyad 21, Parent), suggesting that differences in conceptions of appropriate behavior following the death led to uncertainty. This feeling was also experienced by participants who believed that their relational partner did not understand decisions they made following the loss, "when someone dies decisions have to be made, and things move quickly. I wanted them to move quickly but I don't think my son fully grasped that." (Dyad 19, Parent) This feeling of separation was also experienced by participants who were unsure of their relational partner's ability to cope with the loss, with one parent sharing "my son has always been on the quiet side and while I was told that was not necessarily a bad thing, it has left me wondering if he has healed adequately." (Dyad 13, Parent) This participant centered the doubt she faced in terms of not being able to fully understand, or empathize with the specific loss her son has experienced, positing her uncertainty as something that stemmed from a lack of knowledge of his feelings.

Partner certainty. Beyond feelings of partner uncertainty, however, many participants shared that they had become more confident in their partner's commitment to their relationship after the death. These participants tended to focus on moments where

their grief and their partner's grief coincided, "While her grief was profound, it was not devastating, and she was able to 'find a new normal.' We talked frequently, but she didn't dwell on our loss. Perhaps I should have pushed her to talk about it, but given her nature it just didn't seem the right thing to do. I suspect we are actually very much alike in that neither of us likes to ask for help." (Dyad 4, Parent) In this excerpt the participant is suggesting that through her daughter's behavior she was able to see a connection between them that was not apparent before the death, thereby bringing greater definition and certainty to both the relationship, and to how she believed her child to perceive the relationship. This sentiment was shared by other participants who spoke about being able to achieve a greater understanding of their relational partner's commitment to the relationship through the experience of death.

Similarly, other participants expressed feelings of support and mutual reliance that came as a result of their partner's behaviors, with one participant sharing "I honestly don't have any uncertainties about them, they have always had my best interest and just want me to be happy." (Individual, Child 4) This participant positioned their partner as a foundational part of their life, suggesting that they feel that they can trust and depend on them, a sentiment that was expressed by another individual who shared "since my mom's death my dad and I have become closer. He has become the mom and the dad." (Dyad 13, Child) In this excerpt the child is focusing on her father as behaving in a way that has built a stronger connection between them, allowing her to feel more certain about his commitment to the relationship.

Self Uncertainty. Consistent with Solomon and Knobloch (2004), self uncertainty referred to instances when participants questioned their own involvement in the relationship. In the current study, instances of self uncertainty focused heavily on emotive responses to the death, with many participants emphasizing feelings of guilt, anger, and sadness. However, other responses focused on the participants' behaviors and reactions as fostering insecurity in their relationship. These responses were largely reactionary, and occurred when participants experienced doubt in their own abilities, which stemmed from the behavior of their partners. In this sense, the uncertainty was driven by the partner's behavior, but was manifested within the self. Unlike the relationship and partner un/certainty themes, there were no responses within the self uncertainty category where participants reported increasing their certainty. Therefore, this analysis will focus only on self uncertainty.

With regard to emotive responses, many participants shared that they were uncertain about their child or parent's grief, which resulted in feelings of intense guilt and worry for the individual, "I was very worried about my mom and I didn't like the idea of her feeling sad or alone. I was uncertain if she was dealing with everything in her own way or bottling it up to put on a brave face for me and my siblings." (Dyad 4, Child) This participant is centering her lack of knowledge about her mother's grief as a driving force in her experiences with uncertainty, a sentiment that was expressed by another participant who shared "I worry about her getting through life without dad." (Dyad 3, Child) Other participants took a more reflective look at their relationship, expressing uncertainty about whether their parent or child knew how they were feeling, "I wondered if she knew I

loved her although I had hurt her a few times." (Individual, Child 15) For this participant, uncertainty is rooted in her own internalizations of her parent-child relationship, centering on concerns about whether her parent truly knows how she feels. Although these responses are rooted within the relational context, and concern aspects of the parent-child relationship, they are distinct from relationship or partner uncertainty because they focus on the individual's feelings and center their emotive responses as the driving force in their experienced uncertainty.

Similarly, other participants shared anxiety about the level of appreciation their partners felt for them, "I have always wondered and questioned if I was good enough. The interactions I have with my mother leave me to question if I am someone worth being proud of." (Dyad 11, Child) This individual focused on feelings of inadequacies, and indicated that her mother's feelings raised doubts about her own self-worth, thereby centering her mother's feelings towards her as a primary factor in her experiences with self-uncertainty. This was felt by another participant who shared "I didn't feel there was anything that I could say that she wouldn't somehow twist and be angry with me…I love my daughter – I know she is a true and wonderful friend, a strong and responsible young woman who will do anything for a friend – I just wish she had room in her heart for me." (Dyad 11, Parent) In a similar way, this mother is speaking to her own insecurities about her relationship with her daughter, focusing on her inability to connect and communicate as the root cause of her uncertainty, and demonstrating that her perception of her daughter and of their relationship she had increased her feelings of self-doubt. Both of

these individuals experience increased self-doubt as a result of their perceptions of their partner and their relationship, therefore situating the uncertainty as being self-orientated.

Beyond emotions, participants also expressed uncertainty about their own reactions to the death, "I struggled with the balance of dealing with my own deep feelings of loss while also helping my kids whom I desperately wanted to spare the pain, handle their feelings of loss." (Dyad 20, Parent) In this response the participant is expressing her uncertainty about being able to be supportive of and for her children, a sentiment that was felt by many participants, including one mother who shared "I feel that I spend time dealing with my own life and thoughts and haven't taken the time to listen, understand or check on my children's thoughts. I get asked often how the kids are doing and am ashamed to say that I don't ask how they are dealing with the death." (Dyad 8, Parent) For this participant, her failure to engage with her children generated intense feelings of doubt and sadness, which led her to question her abilities as a parent and relational partner. In other words, she is experiencing shame and guilt related to her position as a mother, which is intimately connected to her children, but rather than focusing on her children, she is centering herself, and her inability to connect with them as fostering self-doubt.

A similar sentiment was expressed by participants who shared that they lacked an ability to understand the actions of their relational partner, "I didn't understand how she could go through all of his stuff so quickly and get rid of it… but it hurt me." (Dyad 26, Child) This participant is focusing on his inability to empathize with his mother's behaviors, positioning them as experiences that have fostered a sense of uncertainty in his

conception of their relationship. Although this participant is focused on his mother's behaviors, the use of "I" suggests that the uncertainty is rooted in the self, rather than the partner. In other words, he is experiencing doubt in his ability to understand his mother's behavior, which was also expressed by another participant, "I felt uncertainty in how to handle the amount of grief suffered by my daughters… having had over two years of living at a home without him, and the benefit of a support group, my feeling of loss was much less than theirs. Witnessing their grief was the hardest part of the death experience for me." (Dyad 27, Parent) Like the previous participant, this mother highlighted her lack of understanding as a key component in her experience with uncertainty. Although these experiences with uncertainty exist within the context of the relationship, the doubt is centered on the self, and on the individual's inability to understand or connect with their relational partner.

Finally, other participants expressed feelings of self uncertainty surrounding behaviors and the redefining of roles and responsibilities following the loss, "I felt like I was not up to the task of being both the father and mother, that David was the person that held the family together and made the tough decisions." (Dyad 24, Parent) This participant is centering a lack of confidence in her ability to parent, a feeling that was also expressed by another mother who shared that she had "lowered the bar" in terms of expectations for her children since the loss, reflecting that "But now, I feel like if they make it through college, it will be a blessing. I don't demand much from my kids now." (Dyad 22, Parent) For this individual, uncertainty was rooted in the challenges she faced in coming to terms with her new responsibilities as a single mother.

Overall. Experiences with relational un/certainty centered doubt and ambiguity at three levels: self, partner, and relationship. Although these three themes are all nested within the relational experience, they are representative of unique concerns. Relationship un/certainty focused on fears and anxieties, as well as newly developed assurances that were directly connected to the relationship itself. These experiences were built on perceptions of the relationship as a whole, rather than on either of the individuals. In contrast, partner un/certainty centered one's understandings of and beliefs about their relational partner. These experiences were concerned with the relational partner as an individual, separate from their role within the relationship. Finally, self uncertainty was internally situated, and emphasized perceptions of one's own identity and role in the relationship. Individuals who shared experiences with self uncertainty centered their own behaviors, perceptions, and reactions as fostering feelings of doubt. Distinctions between these three themes must be carefully identified, as they are all part of relational uncertainty, and are therefore interconnected. However, understanding the precise emphasis of each of these themes is valuable, as they point to specific sources of worry, thereby providing a way of understanding the root of one's uncertainty.

Interference.

Reports of interference following the death centered around two distinct contexts: grief as process and grief as emotion. These two frameworks captured difference in how the interference was materialized, with grief as process centering on logistical or procedural experiences as driving the interference, and grief as emotion highlighting spaces where identity and relational components generated the interference. These

themes accounted for responses from participants who spoke about process-related interferences or those that centered on issues with the estate, finances, and work, and helped to distinguish them from participants who shared that emotional and relational connections restricted their ability to complete everyday tasks.

Within these two themes, there were also sub-categories that helped identify further distinctions between participant responses. For the grief as process theme, participant responses were categorized as either Task Interferences or Redefinition Interferences. Task interferences accounted for responses where participants shared that logistics directly related to the death created interference, whereas the redefinition sub-theme centered responses that focused on interferences that occurred as a result of changes that transpired because of the death. For the grief as emotion theme, responses fit into either Intrapersonal or Interpersonal interferences, with intrapersonal referring to interferences that were rooted in one's self and self-perception, and interpersonal referring to interferences generated through relational experiences. Finally, beyond the two primary themes, there were also participants who reported that their parent or child had not interfered in their life since the death. As with the relational uncertainty findings, these participants shared that age, life status, and geographical distance allowed them to adjust to life with no interruptions from their relational partner.

Grief as process. Participants who reported experiences with grief as process interferences focused heavily on issues with logistical obstacles they had faced since the death. Although there were emotional components to their responses, the driving force of their experienced interference was centered on process-related strains. For these

participants, factors such as finances, legal conditions, and scheduling created a context for the interruption. Moreover, responses that were categorized as task interferences centered on procedural interruptions that were directly related to the death, for instance dealing with an estate. In contrast, responses that were categorized as redefinition interferences were logistical obstacles that participants had experienced as a result of the death, for instance having no one to pick a child up from school because the parent had to return to work. The key difference between these two sub-categories is that one type of interference is occurring within the context of the death, while the other is happening as a result of the context that was created by the death.

Task Interferences. Participants who shared experiences with task interference focused on aspects of the death that caused an interruption in their everyday life. These responses echoed Shonkoff et al.'s (1987) work, which suggests that the first step that grieving families must take after experiencing a death is managing the immediate and logistical consequences of the loss. One participant shared "A lot of times issues with the estate got in my way," (Individual, Child 8) suggesting that her position as the executor of her father's estate interrupted her ability to complete her everyday activities. Another participant spoke about having to spend an extended amount of time at her mother's house during the funeral proceedings, "My mother vacillated between making us feel in the way or unwelcome – such as when she scooted us out the door one day, interrupting us to say goodbye – and getting upset when we suggested we find a hotel for the remainder of our stay." For this participant the act of having to visit her mother, who "struggled with maintaining boundaries, engaging with my feelings and stress,"

(Individual, Child 12) to attend the funeral created an obstacle for her ability to take part in her everyday activities.

Redefinition Interferences. In contrast, participants who shared experiences with redefinition interference focused on changes that resulted from the death, and echoed the second step of family grieving that Shonkoff et al. (1987) suggest, which is the continuation of life within a new family context. In this second step, and in the responses, participants centered on scheduling changes and conflict that rose out of their new family context. For instance, "I don't think I was unable to do things I just did more alone. After the death due to work I ended up home alone most nights and weekends. I was able to participate in school sports but had to bum rides a lot until I could drive." (Dyad 11, Child) This participant is sharing that because of scheduling conflicts that resulted from the death (i.e., her mother's new work schedule), she faced obstacles related to taking part in activities she had been involved in before the loss. This was felt by other participants who shared that "finding someone else to take me to school every day was hard" (Dyad 2, Child) and that "Zach, much younger, affected my ability to work, as I had to drive him to school etc." (Dyad 24, Parent) For these participants, the death created a new family context, one where everyday activities that had been standard before the loss were now being interrupted by a new routine.

Redefinition interferences were felt by a number of parents who spoke about their need to go back to work, or to work more hours to support their family following the death. One participant shared "I had to take it slowly so I could be a single-parent. Even projects around the house like painting, was a challenge and often happened late at night.

I even hired a babysitter for a few hours each week just to give me time to take a shower and clean the house." (Dyad 7, Parent) For this participant, the ability to complete household chores and projects became difficult in her new family context, a feeling that was expressed by other parents who chose to prioritize their children over themselves, "I chose to focus heavily on my children since their mom's death, so between that and work there really has been very little time for me to do things for myself." (Dyad 13, Parent) These participants centered the death as an experience that challenged them and interfered with their everyday activities through a redefining of what their everyday activities looked like.

Finally, several participants shared that as a result of the death they faced obstacles related to coming to terms with what their parent-child relationship looked like in their new family context. One daughter shared "I had to be readily 'on call' for my mom, helping her with daily activities such as reminding her to eat or pay her bills (or even pay them for her)," (Dyad 15, Child) suggesting that she had a new level of responsibility within her new parent-child relationship. This sentiment was echoed by another participant who said "My mom worked a lot after the death of my dad. I was old enough for this not to interfere with my daily life, per say [*sic*], but I did feel like we did not get to spend as much quality time together. This is really upsets me, as we have always had a Gilmore-esque relationship." (Dyad 20, Child) For these two participants, and others with similar experiences, the death created a new family context, which in turn crafted a new and different parent-child relationship.

Grief the Emotion. Outside of practical and logistical interferences, many participants focused on emotional turmoil as being an intrusion in their lives following the death. These individuals tended to center emotions, rather than logistics, as the driving force in the disruptions they experienced. They favored emotive responses such as sadness and stress, as well as reactions to relational experiences such as guilt and worry, positioning feelings as the cause for any interruption in their lives. However, within this larger theme, participants were split with regard to how they perceived their interference to manifest, with some individuals sharing that interference stemmed from self-perceptions and their own observations about the loss (intrapersonal), and others emphasizing the relational context as the source of their emotional upheaval (interpersonal). While both intra- and interpersonal interferences were rooted in the relational context, intrapersonal interferences stemmed from the self and represented one's unique perceptions of a situation, while interpersonal interferences were the result of relational concerns that were situated in dyadic relational experiences.

Intrapersonal interference. Participants who shared experiences with intrapersonal interference focused on ways in which their own thoughts and sensitivities caused disruptions in their lives following the loss. For instance, one participant shared "I don't think my daughter ever bothered me, or interfered with me. At least in a physical sense. I think sometimes I would be overcome with thinking about what I didn't know about her." (Dyad 2, Parent) For this participant, doubts about her daughter's experience with the loss drove her to feel overwhelmed, a sentiment that was shared by another individual who expressed "My mom didn't hold me back from doing things, but I could

tell she was sad and I tried very hard to make her happy." (Dyad 25, Child). Although these participants are situating their interferences within a relational context, the true root of their disruptions is internal, stemming from the perceptions about what is true in their relationship. This emphasis on interference as stemming from the participant's perception can be epitomized by one daughter who shared "I don't think she even did intentionally but, sometimes I was worried about her feeling lonely so I would change plans to hang out with her. But, maybe that was for me as much as it was for her." (Dyad 4, Child) These participants caused interferences in their own lives by centering their own perceptions of their relationship that were rooted in emotional turmoil.

Other participants who reported intrapersonal interferences centered feelings of emotional necessity and relational maintenance following the loss. One participant shared "Dad was alone, after 24/7 companionship, for the first time in almost twenty years post retirement and almost 65 years of marriage. We made certain that he had a daily visit from one of us… that took a ton of time and was stressful." (Individual, Child 9) This participant is expressing a feeling of obligation to her father, one that caused her a great deal of stress. However, this sense of obligation is rooted in her own decision, in her choice to facilitate these daily visits. Similarly, another participant shared "However, there are times when she asks me to run an errand, pick up the young one from school or an activity, and I feel like I need to do it." (Dyad 3, Child) Like others whose responses fell into this category, this participant is speaking to a sense of responsibility that she has created for herself following the death, sharing that she is responsible for doing certain errands for her mother that are not rooted in logistical necessity, but emotional obligation.

Interpersonal interference. Beyond individually-centered emotive interruptions, several participants expressed feelings of interpersonal interference, or experiences with emotionally-laden disruptions that were contextualized by their parent-child relationship. For instance, one participant shared "My mom counted on me a lot. Because she confided much of her emotions and feelings in me, I grew up quickly and didn't experience much of a childhood," (Individual, Child 21) which suggests that she experienced interference in her ability to have a childhood that was a result of her parent-child relationship. A similar sentiment was expressed by another participant who shared "As I don't live with my mum anyway we do not impact each other's daily life too much, but we both worry about each other a lot and this affects us managing daily activities or what we are comfortable with the other one doing." (Dyad 16, Child) For this participant, the interruptions faced stem from mutual feelings of concern and anxiety within his parent-child relationship that ultimately impacted the emotional states and physical activities of both the parent and the child. The above participants, and other who expressed similar sentiments, emphasized the relational context within which their interruption was manifested, an attitude that runs counter to intrapersonal interferences, which were positioned as disruptions that were rooted in self-perceptions.

Participants who reported interpersonal interferences also shared experiences where emotional relational contexts made it difficult for them to fulfill different responsibilities following the relationship. For instance, one parent shared "I think the hardest everyday activity just became parenting. It's incredibly difficult to keep a child on the straight and narrow by yourself, and I'll admit to having a hard time asking for

help. My son exploited that." (Dyad 28, Parent) This participant was speaking about difficulties she faced in maintaining her status as a parent, positioning her son as a factor in interrupting her ability to act as a parent. This was also expressed by other participants who felt it was hard for them to return to everyday tasks because of the behavior of their relational partners, with one participant sharing "it wasn't easy to go off to work knowing that she was unhappy and sad and that she wouldn't let anyone close enough to her to help." (Dyad 11, Parent) For these participants, their parent-child relationship created an emotional interruption that made it difficult to complete their everyday activities.

No interference. Finally, several participants shared that they did not experience any interference following the death. These participants called on geographic distance, age, and life status as factors that alleviated any disruptions their partner could have caused. For instance, one participant shared "I am retired and my children are grown so my everyday activities are not effected [*sic*] by my children in the least." (Dyad 5, Parent) Similarly, one child shared, "Given that I was away at college immediately following my father's death, my relationship with my mother did not realistically make it harder to complete any of my everyday activities." (Dyad 24, Child)

Beyond not experiencing interference however, a small group of participants shared that the support they received from their relational partner assisted in creating an easier life on a day to day basis. For instance, one participant shared "My mom was actually always really encouraging and flexible when I was a kid. She always made sure we got to do stuff we wanted and engage in the things we liked. She is superwoman." (Dyad 7, Child) This participant, and few others who shared similar sentiments focused

on a new, stronger conception of their parent-child relationship as fostering a sense of togetherness and support.

Overall. Experiences with interference took shape in two distinct arenas: process and emotion. Though there are points of intersection between these two frameworks, they are each conceptually unique in their focus, with process interference emphasizing logistics and procedures, and emotional interference centering identity and relationships. Distinguishing between these two types of interference is important because it provides a context for understanding the types of experiences that may interrupt the everyday life of a bereaved individual. Beyond the difference between process and emotion, participants also revealed specific distinctions nested within each of the two primary themes. For instance, within the process theme participants spoke about interference that occurred as a direct result of the death, as well as disruptions that came as a result of the 'new normal' they had to construct following their loss. The key difference between these two sub themes is that one type of interference happens within the death (task), and the other happens as a result of the death (redefinition). Further, within the emotion theme, participants spoke about interference as occurring within their parent-child relationship (interpersonal), as well as within their own self-perceptions (intrapersonal). Finally, there were also several participants who noted that they did not experience interference because of factors such as geographical difference and age. Taken together, these themes provide a more comprehensive understanding of what kinds of interruptions bereaved individuals face.

Information Management.

Participants shared three primary types of information management: Expressive Avoidance, Topical Engagement, and Contextual Engagement. These three themes spoke to differences in the motivation for sharing (or not sharing) information with their relational partner. In particular, each of these themes centered a different factor as the driving force in their decision to engage, with expressive avoidance highlighting emotions, topical engagement focusing on information, and contextual engagement concentrating on the factors at play in an information management situation. Although each of these themes represented a unique impetus for engagement, it is important to recognize that they are all situated within a relational context, meaning that there are relational factors at play in each category. Further, there was some amount of variance in the topical and contextual themes surrounding whether participants confronted or avoided communicating with their relational partner. Therefore, the word engagement is used to describe these two themes because it is encompassing of various degrees of involvement, and thereby accounts for a more comprehensive understanding of the information management strategies bereaved parents and children employ when communicating with one another following familial death.

Expressive Avoidance. Participants who shared experiences with expressive avoidance focused on emotions as the primary motivation in their decision not to engage their parent or child following the death. These participants focused on the relational and emotive consequences of communication, centering them as the primary reason they chose to avoid conversation with their child or parent. For instance, one participant

shared “I don’t talk about it because I fear every reference to my dad or his death will put her in a depression for days. We pretend as if he never existed.” (Dyad 15, Child) This participant is highlighting fear as the reason behind his avoidance, centering this negative emotive response as the primary factor in his decision not to engage with his mother. This sentiment was also shared by another participant who expressed “I rarely share my concerns with my dad as it does no good to upset him.” (Dyad 16, Child) These participants prioritized their relational partner’s well-being, allowing it to factor into their willingness to engage. This sacrifice is notable in one child’s response, “As I grew up I became more and more curious about my dad, but despite wanting answers I wouldn’t allow myself to ever really ask my mom about him because I was scared it would upset her or cause her to relive her pain in some way.” (Dyad 10, Child)

Several participants situated their expressive avoidance within their relationship, framing aspects of their parent-child relationship as factors that determined their level of engagement. For instance, one participant said “we didn’t really talk about it, but it never seemed like either of us wanted to talk about it.”(Dyad 16, Parent) For this participant, the context of his relationship with his daughter facilitated a lack of engagement, which was also felt by another participant who shared “my mother keeps it all in and pressures me into doing the same. She guilts me into it as well as makes it difficult to grieve and cry.” (Individual, Child 5) In these excerpts participants are centering factors about their relationship or relational partner, positioning them as features that help them determine to what extent they should engage.

While the above participants centered emotions as a response to communication, others spoke about emotions as the conversational topic that dictated the degree to which they engaged with their relational partner. For instance, one participant shared "I think we shared experiences we'd had with my dad and opinions about what he would think of things but, we did not really talk about concerns about the future or our feelings or that kind of thing." (Dyad 4, Child) This participant is suggesting that she and her mother communicate about her father, but not in a way that encompasses their emotional responses to the death. Other participants shared this avoidance of emotional engagement, expressing that "sharing ideas and information has not been an issue, just expressing feelings." (Dyad 1, Child) For these participants, engagement is open, but is limited in its ability to involve emotions.

Topical Engagement. In contrast to engagement that stems from emotions, many participants shared that the decision to communicate was dependent on the type of information being shared. These participants fixated on the content of the conversation, and the information being shared, positing them as the primary factor in their decision to avoid communicating with their parent or child. In this sense, information management was guided by the "what" rather than the "how," the "why," or the "when." Many participants focused on health or logistical insight as a driving factor in their involvement. For instance, one participant shared "I didn't share how terrified I was about being able to support us or pay for the very expensive university she now attends," (Dyad 10, Parent) suggesting that the decision to engage with her daughter is dependent on the type of information being shared in their interaction. Similarly, one child shared "I

didn't tell her how I felt about her moving on so fast," (Dyad 17, Child) reiterating the idea that context drives the engagement.

Participants were particularly vocal about avoiding engagement when it came to sharing negatively situated information. One participant shared "I avoid letting them know about bad news. Since the death of my mom, bad news is taken very badly. Highly emotional to be exact, my mom was the crutch for such things. She always put a band-aid on problems." (Dyad 9, Child) This participant is suggesting that what is being shared dictates the degree to which they chose to engage, something that was epitomized by one participant who shared a story about her lack of engagement with her mother following a cancer scare:

> "I've avoided sharing a lot of health information with my mom since the passing of my dad. I had my own cancer scare, of the thyroid (which is what he had), this past summer. I went through multiple ultrasounds and a biopsy. She still does not know this, because until I knew what the results were I knew she would overreact and share this information with so many people. That is the exact opposite of what I needed." (Dyad 8, Child)

In contrast, there were a number of participants who shared that certain informational contexts fostered more open engagement between them and their relational partner. For instance, one participant shared "We are at a point where we do not dwell on what we've lost, but celebrate the amazing things we shared," (Dyad 4, Parent) suggesting that she is more likely to engage when conversation surrounds move positively situated information. This sentiment was also shared by another participant

who reflected that "We have shared more than not… our talks of their father's death have led to religious discussions and to an understanding that life is not always fair, but at the same time it offers up some wonderful experiences." (Dyad 23, Parent) For these participants, the content of the conversation dictates not only their willingness to engage in communication, but also their perception of their engagement.

Finally, some participants that took part in informative engagement shared that they communicated openly with their relational partner following the loss to the extent that they discussed logistics regarding the death, "We do talk about my father's dying process and the moments around Hospice. My Mother was sleep-deprived so she did have questions afterwards or have a few details tied up. I let her ask questions and then I respond to her." (Individual, Child 18) Similarly, another participant expressed "I shared my disappointment with the medical community openly with my kids." (Dyad 24, Parent) For these participants, engagement was open and lively when the content of the conversations centered the logistical and applied.

Contextual Engagement. The final of the three themes centers on context, and contextual factors as driving the decision to engage. Participants who shared experience with contextual engagement focused on environmental factors such as where and when, framing them as the primary determinants in their decision to engage. Unlike expressive avoidance and topical engagement, contextual engagement highlighted factors that existed outside of the relational partners that impacted the degree to which engagement took place. These responses focused on particular dates, places, and moments as creating a circumstance for engagement. For instance, one participant shared

> "I tried to always share stories on dates of importance (happy dates) like their dad's birthday, or their birthdays, graduations, holidays. I avoided sharing with them on the anniversary of his death because that's not what I like for them to remember about them. I share when something similar happens to them that happened to their dad. I share a lot when their deceased father's parents come to visit." (Dyad 7, Parent)

For this participant, context drives the degree to which she engages with her child insofar as it dictates when, how, and to some extent why she communicates with them about the deceased. This emphasis on when engagement should occur was also seen by another participant who shared "I would like my son to appreciate the significance of anniversary dates," (Dyad 28, Parent) suggesting that context is a driving factor in what people expect in terms of communication following familial loss.

The reliance on situational factors was epitomized by a parent-child pair who, despite taking part in the study separately, shared the same story about the deceased's ashes as an exemplar of their trouble with engagement. The mother shared:

> "I never realized my daughter was angry with me about not knowing how to best handle this… It wasn't until we were waiting for the limo to pick her up for her Junior Class cotillion event that I learned she was upset at me for not having a proper urn or for not having scattered or buried the ashes right away. I really didn't know what to do. In retrospect I wish we had had a burial… Together with my son – the three of us have started a new tradition to celebrate my husband's

birthday instead of in essence marking his death. These dates are very close but I prefer to celebrate his life than be consumed by his death." (Dyad 11, Parent)

In contrast, the daughter shared:

"The first time anything was discussed was when I asked to make an urn to replace the standard cardboard box, the second when I brought it home and a fight broke out and then I stopped. Until recently few things have been mentioned expect maybe on his bday occasionally and then at my uncles funeral, she tried to apologize to me for not giving us a service like that." (Dyad, 11, Child)

These responses speak to the function of environmental factors in a relational pair's decision to engage with one another following a death in two ways. First, they speak to the idea that important events (i.e., cotillion or a family funeral) can represent moments where communicating openly about the death is important, something that was also expressed by other participants who shared that graduations and weddings often facilitated conversations about the deceased. Second, they showcase the importance of having some type of ritual surrounding the deceased, or some celebratory day each year where the deceased is talked about. This notion of family tradition was seen throughout the responses, and centered the significance of having an opportunity to celebrate the deceased each year.

Finally, other participants spoke to having outlets outside of their parent-child relationship with whom they could discuss the death. These individuals shared that while they communicate with their child or parent about the loss, there are other individuals in their lives that serve that purpose more regularly. For instance, one participant shared

"Since I am in a committed relationship (15 years), I share most of my concerns, sad days, etc. with him, rather than my mom." (Dyad 3, Child) Other participants shared that therapists, friends, and support groups were their primary sources of engagement about the loss.

Overall. Experiences with information management centered on three overarching themes: expressive avoidance, topical engagement, and contextual engagement. Each of these three categories is unique in its focus, but is representative of a specific enacted communication strategy. For example, expressive avoidance centered the role of emotions in information management, suggesting that communicating about feelings, or communication that is thought to evoke certain feelings, should be avoided. On the other hand, topical engagement focused on the role of information in determining communication styles, implying that the content of a conversation dictates whether they should engage in or avoid communication. Finally, contextual engagement moves beyond the content of the conversation and fixates on where and when the interaction is occurring. Taken together, these three themes begin to complicate knowledge of communication in bereaved families by speaking to the nuances ingrained in how they manage their information.

Summary.

The qualitative themes that resulted from the inductive analysis provide more in-depth knowledge of relational uncertainty, interference, and information management. For instance, the relational uncertainty themes shed light on important distinctions between relationship, partner, and self uncertainty that help to capture how specific types

of doubt and ambiguity function within the larger relational experience. They speak to intersections between the three types of uncertainty, and suggest that, although distinct, they all build on one another. The findings related to interference begin to complicate how families process change, and indicate that both emotional and process-related interruptions should be considered as family units work to redefine their identity following loss. Finally, the information management themes provide more specific insight into how families communicate following loss. In particular, they work to develop a more inclusive understanding of information management, one that accounts for different degrees and types of open and closed communication. Although these findings are specific to how parents and children experience spousal/parental death, they offer insight that may be valuable across a variety of contexts. In particular, many of the themes speak to how families may experience change, how they work to redefine their familial identity in the face of transition, and how they manage their communication about difficult topics and experiences.

Chapter Seven: Mixed Methods Results

Research questions four through six represented a strategic merging of the qualitative and the quantitative data because the questions could not have been answered without an integration of the two data types. Analytically, without the qualitative themes there would have been no independent variables, and without the quantitative items there would have been no dependent variables. Conceptually, by merging the two types of data this way, the analysis was able to understand not only if and how uncertainty, interference, and particular information management strategies factor into how parent-child pairs experience spousal/parental death, but also what experiences with uncertainty, interference, and information management look like within the relational context. This type of analysis provided more concrete and pragmatic insight into the experience of family loss by putting the variables into words and themes that stemmed directly from those who had faced this spousal/parental loss. The merging of the qualitative and quantitative data offered a way of understanding, and empirically testing, how the specific lived experiences of relational uncertainty, interference, and information management related to quantitative, measurable outcomes related to family loss. Further, this type of data integration created a way of producing knowledge that was inherently inclusive and comprehensive because it integrated different types of information in a way that not only provided clarity and insight, but also embedded understandings within and between one another. Therefore, although the qualitative and the quantitative data are

powerful on their own, they were each made better and stronger when they are brought together.

Given the integrative nature of research questions four through six, a series of analysis of variance (ANOVA, ANCOVA, MANOVA, and MANCOVA) tests were run to determine whether qualitative reports of relational uncertainty, interference, and information management led to differences in quantitative reports of these same variables. This type of analysis was appropriate because it identifies differences between two or more groups in the mean scores of one or more variables. Therefore, the tests provided a way of uncovering whether individuals who were placed in different groups based on their qualitative responses differed in their responses to the corresponding quantitative variables. To run this analysis, qualitative data was quantified, a process that involved assigning each theme in the category scheme a numeric code, thereby giving each qualitative response a numeric value. This process was done for each of the three qualitative data sets, and resulted in the creation of three nominal variables, which were then used as the independent variables in the analysis. Analysis for research questions four through six incorporated responses from all participants (i.e., dyads and individuals), as the analysis did not necessitate the use of dyadic data. Further, to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the data, analysis was done separately for parents and children.

Relational Uncertainty

To answer research question four, 'Do types of qualitative uncertainty differ in regard to the reported amounts of quantitative uncertainty variables (i.e. self uncertainty,

partner uncertainty, relationship uncertainty, and uncertainty discrepancy)?' analysis was run using the nominal uncertainty variable and the interval relational uncertainty variables (i.e. self uncertainty, partner uncertainty, relationship uncertainty, and uncertainty discrepancy). However, prior to running the substantive analysis, frequencies were collected to help develop a more comprehensive understanding of the nominal uncertainty variable. This analysis revealed that participants were fairly evenly divided across the three categories of the nominal variable, with relationship uncertainty accounting for 37.5% (n = 30) of the responses, followed by partner (35%, n = 28), and self uncertainty (27.5%, n = 22). The data file was then split, and substantive analysis was run separately for parents and children.

Parents.

Parents reported more self uncertainty (39.4%, n = 13), than relationship (30.3%, n = 10) or partner uncertainty (30.3%, n = 10), but a chi-square goodness-of-fit test revealed that these differences were not statistically significant, χ^2 (2, N = 33) = .55, p = .76. Discriminant function analysis was done to determine whether contextual variables (i.e., RISC, RFCP – conversation, DAP, age [now and at the death], time passed, gender, religion, and ethnicity) significantly impacted the nominal uncertainty variable. This type of analysis was appropriate for identifying the impact of the contextual variables as it explores the relationship between multiple IVs and a single, categorical DV. However, the analysis revealed that none of the contextual variables had a significant impact, and therefore a MANOVA was run because covariates were not entered. Rather than using the single factor relational uncertainty variable established in the quantitative analysis,

the three distinct uncertainty variables (self, partner, and relationship) were used, as the research question was interested in differences between the groups. Box's *M* was significant ($p < .05$), and Pillai's Trace was used. The MANOVA was not significant, Pillai's Trace = .32, $F(8, 56) = 1.32$, $p = .26$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .16$, nor were any of the ANOVAS.

Children.

Similar to parents, discriminant function analysis revealed that none of the contextual variables significantly impacted the nominal relational uncertainty variable, and a MANOVA was run. Frequencies revealed that relationship uncertainty was the most frequently reported of the nominal uncertainty categories for children (42.6%, $n = 20$), followed by partner (38.3%, $n = 18$), and self uncertainty (19.1%, $n = 9$), but a chi-square indicated that these differences were not statistically significant, χ^2 (2, $N = 47$) = 4.43, $p = .11$. Box's *M* was not significant ($p = .10$), and Wilks' Lambda was used. The MANOVA was not significant, Wilks' $\lambda = .83$, $F(8, 82) = .99$, $p = .54$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .09$. The ANOVAs were also not significant, which suggests that nominal relational uncertainty does not significantly predict differences in interval relational uncertainty.

Overall.

Chi-square analyses were run to determine if there were significant differences between the reported frequencies of parents and children. However, this analysis revealed these differences were not significant, χ^2 (2, $N = 80$) = 4.02, $p = .13$. While the results of research question four were not statistically significant, they are suggestive of several interesting findings related to how relational uncertainty functions for bereaved parents

and children. Namely, the analysis revealed that, while parents experienced self uncertainty most frequently, it was the least reported type of uncertainty experienced by children. Given that self uncertainty is centered on perceptions of self, and is rooted in the individual's identity management, this suggests that parent's may have more inward concerns than outward concerns following the loss. In contrast, children experienced relationship uncertainty most frequently, suggesting that they may have more external concerns than internal concerns. This difference between parents and children may be the result of the balance of power in the parent-child relationship, where parents tend to hold more responsibility than children. In particular, parents may focus more on doubts about their ability to be a parent following the loss, while children may be questioning the relationship as a whole.

Interference

The analysis used to answer research question five, 'Do types of qualitative partner interference differ in regard to the reported amount of quantitative interference?' mirrored the techniques used in research question four. First, frequencies were run to understand more about how participants experienced interference. This revealed that participants experienced more emotion related interference (58.8%, n = 47) than process related interference (37.6%, n = 30), and that 3.8% of participants (n = 3) reported no interference. Beyond the higher order themes however, interpersonal interference was reported most frequently (31.3%, n = 25), followed by intrapersonal (27.5%, n = 22), redefinition (26.3%, n = 21), task (11.3%, n = 9), and no interference (3.8%, n = 3).

Second, the data file was split, and preliminary and substantive analysis was run separately for parents and children.

Parents.

Discriminant function analysis revealed that one contextual variable, the number of children in the household, significantly impacted parent's nominal interference, Wilks' $\lambda = .65$, $F(3, 27) = 4.91$, $p < .01$. Therefore, to account for this impact, an ANCOVA was run. Frequencies indicated that parents experienced redefinition and intrapersonal interference the most frequently (31.3%, n = 10), followed by interpersonal interference (28.1%, n = 9), and no interference (9.3%, n = 3), and a chi-square goodness-of-fit test revealed that differences these frequencies were not statistically significant, χ^2 (3, $N = 32$) = 4.25, $p = .24$. Further, the ANCOVA was not significant, $F(3, 27) = .36$, $p = .79$, $\eta^2 = .04$.

Children.

For children, the discriminant function analysis revealed that two contextual variables, adherence to the escape accept death attitude profile and time since loss, significantly impacted reports of nominal interference (Wilks' $\lambda = .82$, $F(3, 41) = 3.01$, $p < .05$, Wilks' $\lambda = .79$, $F(3, 41) = 3.65$, $p < .05$, respectively). Again, an ANCOVA was run. Frequencies indicated that children experienced interpersonal interference most frequently (31.9%, n = 15), followed by intrapersonal interference (25.5%, n = 12), redefinition interference (23.4%, n = 11), and task interference (19.2%, n = 9), with no reports of not experiencing interference. However, a chi-square goodness-of-fit test revealed these differences in frequency were not statistically significant, χ^2 (3, $N = 47$) =

1.60, $p = .66$. As with the parent analysis, the ANCOVA was not significant, $F(3, 41) = 1.38$, $p = .26$, $\eta^2 = .09$.

Overall.

As with research question four, a chi-square was calculated to determine if differences between parent and child reported frequencies of qualitative interference were significant. This analysis was not significant, χ^2 (4, $N = 81$) = 6.58, $p = .16$. Although the analysis was not statistically significant, it does suggest two important trends related to parent and child reports of interference following spousal/parental death. First, both parents and children experienced process-related interference (i.e., task and redefinition) frequently. This reiterates Shonkoff and colleagues (1987) notion that that the impact of loss extends beyond the emotional, and highlights the importance of understanding the procedural implications of a death in the family. Second, these results show that parents and children both report relatively high levels of interference. In particular, interference was measured on a seven-point scale, and, even when accounting for covariates, all reported means were above 4.45, which suggests that parents and children may be experiencing high levels of interference following the loss.

Information Management

Analysis used to answer research question six, "Do types of qualitative information management strategies differ in regard to the reported quantitative management decisions (i.e., direct information seeking, indirect information seeking, active avoidance, and passive avoidance) and orientation toward information?" incorporated the nominal information management variable and the interval information

management variables (i.e. direct information seeking, indirect information seeking, active avoidance information seeking, and orientation towards information). Preliminary analysis of the nominal information management variable revealed that participants reported expressive avoidance most frequently (44.3%, n = 35), followed by topical engagement (31.6%, n = 25), and contextual engagement (24.1%, n = 19). After running overall frequencies the data file was split and separate analysis was conducted for parents and children.

Parents.

Discriminant function analysis determined that contextual variables did not significantly impact parent's reports of nominal information management, and therefore a MANOVA was run. Parents reported more expressive avoidance and contextual engagement (34.4%, n = 11 for both) than topical engagement (31.3%, n = 10), but a chi-square goodness-of-fit tests revealed that these differences were not statistically significant, χ^2 (2, N = 32) = .07, p = .97. For the substantive analysis, Box's M was not significant (p = .06), so Wilks' Lambda was used. However, the multivariate analysis was not significant, Wilks' λ = .82, F(8, 52) = .66, p = .72, multivariate η^2 = .09.

Children.

For children, discriminant function analysis revealed that gender significantly impacted the nominal information management variable, Wilks' λ = .84, F(2, 42) = 3.90, $p < .05$, and therefore a MANCOVA was run. Frequencies showed that children reported the most expressive avoidance (51.1%, n = 24), followed by topical engagement (31.9%, n = 15), and contextual engagement (17%, n = 8), and chi-square analysis revealed that

these differences were statistically significant, χ^2 (2, N = 47) = 8.30, $p < .05$. Wilks' Lambda was used in the substantive analysis because Box's M was not significant (p = .21). As with the other research questions, the multivariate analysis was not significant, Wilks' $\lambda = .77$, $F(8, 80) = 1.44$, $p = .19$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .13$. The step down ANOVA analysis indicated that placement within the nominal information management categories had a significant impact on reports of interval direct information management, $F(2, 43) = 3.78$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .15$. Post-hoc analysis, using the Bonferroni criteria, indicated that those in the contextual engagement category and those in the topical engagement category different significantly in their reports of interval direct information management. In particular, children who experienced topical engagement reported significantly more direct information management (M = 4.78, SD = 1.67) than those who experienced contextual engagement (M = 2.88, SD = 1.13). Children within the expressive avoidance category reported more direct information management (M = 4.04, SD = 1.81) than those in the contextual engagement group, but this difference was not significant, nor was the difference between the expressive avoidance and topical engagement groups.

Overall.

A chi-square test was performed to determine if the reported frequencies of qualitative information management strategies between parent and child groups were significantly difference. This analysis revealed that they were not, χ^2 (2, N = 79) = 3.58, p = .17. As with the other integrative research questions, the findings for research question six are important, despite their relative lack of statistical significance. In particular, it is

important to note that, for children, expressive avoidance was the most frequently reported information management strategy. This is consistent with existing research on family loss, and reiterates the idea that bereaved individuals, and children in particular, may avoid talking about feelings and emotions (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Johnson, 1982). It is also worth noting that parents more frequently experienced contextual engagement than children, which suggests that situational factors, such as the occasion and the environment, may play a larger role in parent's information management. Further, it is interesting that, for children, individuals who experienced topical engagement reported more direct information management than those who experienced contextual engagement. This suggests that when an interaction is guided by specific content, rather than specific context, the communication will be more direct.

Summary

Findings related to research questions four through six were largely non-significant. However, despite this, the results are still important, and help to create a more complete understanding of family loss. The reported frequencies provide insight into experiences with relational uncertainty, interference, and information management that go beyond reiterating existing literature, and offer a comprehensive perspective of the variables under study. For example, consistent with past research, the current study found that bereaved individuals may avoid talking about emotions. However, beyond agreement, data from the current study identifies specific behaviors related to expressive avoidance that expand knowledge of how this information management strategy is enacted by bereaved individuals. Similarly, the results related to partner interference echo

existing work on how families process loss, but help to identify specific, process related interruptions that are important to recognize and manage. Finally, with regard to research question four, the combine knowledge of the qualitative themes and the quantitative frequencies shed light on potential differences between parents and children, and suggest that relational uncertainty may manifest differently depending on your role in the relationship. Ultimately, these findings help to develop a more inclusive understanding of family loss by bridging qualitative and quantitative data techniques, and using the unique lived experiences of bereaved parents and children to generate definitions of relational uncertainty, interference, and information management.

Chapter Seven: Discussion

The results of this study are theoretically, methodologically, and conceptually significant, and the findings present insight that is important both within and outside of academia. Moreover, the integrative nature of this work positions the results as being meaningful at two distinct layers. First, when considered separately, the qualitative, the quantitative, and the integrated analyses are substantial and provide important insight into the experience of familial death. Second, when considered as a singular project, the findings of the study help to not only extend current knowledge of family loss, but also help advance the field of family communication. Therefore, to fully articulate the depth of the analysis involved in this project, this discussion section will first speak to the qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods findings individually, and will then conclude by exploring the significance of the overall study, including a discussion about future directions. By sectioning the findings this way, the study is able to fully express the significance of each distinct methodological approach, while also accounting for implications of the study as a whole.

However, prior to discussing the significance of these findings, it is important to acknowledge how the demographics and contextual backgrounds of the participants factor into how the results should be interpreted. In particular, though the findings speak to the experience of family loss, they share the stories of bereaved parent-child pairs who are predominantly White, largely Catholic, and majority mother-daughter. These

contextual and demographic factors play a role in how individuals experience loss. For instance, religious affiliation can alleviate the negative impacts of death by providing a culturally shaped understanding of loss (Mineau et al., 1996; Scott et al., 2007). Further, some research suggests that the experience of losing a mother can have more significant and long-lasting impacts on a daughter than losing a father (Lawrence et al., 2006). Although these factors, as well as many others, were considered and controlled for in the analysis, playing a largely non-significant role in the findings, it is nonetheless important to consider them when interpreting the results of the study. In particular, it is important to recognize that, within the current study, the term 'family loss' refers to loss as experienced by the participants in the sample. Though these findings are suggestive of larger trends in the experience of death in the family, they must be considered with regard for the sample, and the many distinct demographic and contextual factors that help create the loss experience.

Quantitative Findings

The quantitative results of this study are important both conceptually and theoretically. Conceptually, the analysis provided support for many of the proposed hypotheses, thereby generating more insight into the experience of familial death. Moreover, the analysis also revealed a number of significant dyadic results, which point to specific ways in which parents and children can influence the experience of their relational partner. Finally, the results also found support for a single, higher order relational uncertainty variable. Theoretically, the results provided support for a connection between the RTM and the TMIM, though these findings were inconsistent. In

particular, despite the ill-fitting models, connections between the RTM variables (i.e., relational uncertainty and partner interference) and uncertainty discrepancy and orientation towards information were significant, thereby suggesting that these variables may factor into the information management process.

Conceptual Significance.

Findings from the quantitative analysis are conceptually significant for two primary reasons. First, they provide insight into how spousal/parental death is experienced within the parent-child relationship by pointing to connections between relational experiences, perspectives, and communication. Second, the significant relational uncertainty CFA offers greater definitional knowledge of the variable by suggesting that, within the context of the current study, it is a valid, single factor. Similarly, the significant efficacy CFAs provide insight into the efficacy measure by finding evidence for two distinct factors, communication efficacy, and the efficacy trio. Taken together, these findings help to achieve the guiding goals of the current study by generating a better understanding of how uncertainty and information management function within bereaved parent-child relationships.

Spousal/parental death. Topically, the amount of support received for the proposed hypotheses extends our knowledge of familial loss immensely. This is particularly true for findings related to hypotheses six, which explored connections between emotional responses, outcome expectations, efficacy, and information management, hypothesis seven, which examined the relationship between outcome expectations and efficacy, and hypothesis eight, which identified links between efficacy

and information management. As these results point to areas of intersection between one's perceptions of one's relationship and one's relational communication, thereby identifying factors that have the potential to influence information management within bereaved parent-child relationships. These statistically significant connections help to extend current research by providing more specific insight into not only how and why bereaved individuals communicate, but also into individual and relational features that may guide their communication styles.

The finding that emotional reactions to uncertainty and information influence reports of efficacy helps to clarify the role that emotions play in a bereaved person's intra- and interpersonal relationships. In particular, although existing research has found that grieving individuals face increased anxiety, stress, and depression (Bowlby, 1980; Hope & Hodge, 2006; Utz et al., 2014; Wilcox et al., 2003), the current study argues that these experiences may happen as a result of a depleted sense of self and one's ability, rather than solely as a response to the emotions associated with grief. Specifically, the results found that stronger emotional responses (both positive and negative) negatively predicted reports of efficacy, or how an individual perceives their abilities and the abilities of others. Given that a efficacy is grounded in an individual's beliefs about their capabilities, often impacting how they behave and feel (Bandura, 1994), this finding suggests that emotional responses to the parent-child relationship and communication have the potential to factor heavily into one's sense of self. In this sense, the affective response on its own may not be responsible for the negative effect on mental health, but rather may be influencing one's self-concept to the extent that it fosters psychological

damage. Similarly, the overwhelming connection between outcome expectations and efficacy, as well as the relationship between emotional responses and outcome expectations further supports this claim by suggesting that one's perception of a given relational situation has direct impacts on how one feels about oneself and one's partner. For instance, it has been established that parents and children may choose to avoid sharing certain types of information for fear that it may increase the trauma or grief of their relational partner (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Johnson, 1982), but findings in the current study suggest that before these fears can impact communication, they may be influencing one's efficacy. Therefore, consistent with the TMIM, it is possible that efficacy is a mediator between affective and cognitive perceptions (i.e., emotions and perceived outcomes) and action.

This claim is further supported through the connection between efficacy and information management, which resulted in several significant findings for both parents and children. The analysis revealed that efficacy factored into information management strategies to the extent that greater efficacy led to more direct communication styles, and less indirect or avoidant communication styles. This means that the more positive self-concept people have, the more straightforward they will be in their communication styles, and this finding helps to further clarify why bereaved parents and children may not engage in communication with one another by suggesting that the perceived ability of self and partner will determine if and how information is shared.

It is important to recognize, however, that support was found for a direct connection between emotional responses and information management. However, what is

interesting about the current study is that the emotional response variables were not fueled by the loss, but rather by the individual's perception of the relational context and communication (i.e., relational uncertainty and uncertainty discrepancy, and interference and orientation towards information). Therefore, the connection is more telling of a pattern of parent-child communication, than a specific link between emotional responses to the death and information management. In particular, analysis indicated that more intense emotional reactions (both negative and positive) fueled a stronger connection to all three information management strategies, but in particular indirect information management. In other words, when the perception of the relationship and the relational communication generated a stronger emotional reaction, participants were more likely to engage in indirect communicative behavior. Though this finding does not consider the role of efficacy in communication, making it distinct from the above discussion, it is consistent with the overall conceptual finding of the study, which suggests that emotions alone do not drive communication. That is, this finding suggests that the affective responses are situated within one's experiences with the parent-child relationship.

Finally, despite the small amount of significant, dyadic findings, these results are important because they are indicative of spaces where the individual and the relational intersect. In particular, although the parent-child relationship is built as an interdependent unit, where relational partners simultaneously influence and are influenced by one another (Bavelas & Segal, 1982; Bowen, 1978; Yerby, 1995), the results suggest that parents may be in a position to foster a certain type of relational atmosphere. Specifically, although some results shed light on spaces where children's responses predicted parent's

responses, and vice versa. For instance, parent's positive emotional responses to uncertainty discrepancy negatively predicted children's indirect information, which suggests that the more positively a parent reacts to ambiguity within the parent-child relationship, the less indirect children will be in their communication. Further, an individual's communication efficacy positively predicted their partner's direct information management, meaning that the more confident an individual is in their ability to communicate the more direct their partner will be in their communication. This is an important extension of current knowledge of family loss because it suggests that parents have the ability to influence their child's information management strategies, and therefore that they play an important role in facilitating communication following the death.

Relational uncertainty. Analysis in the current study departed from existing research that has utilized the RTM by finding support for a single factor relational uncertainty variable. Past research that has measured relational uncertainty quantitatively has been unable to situate the variable as a single factor (see Knobloch 2006, 2007; Knobloch & Theiss, 2010), however in the current study the sub-scales (self, partner, and relationship) were all significantly and positively correlated, and fit together as a single factor. This finding is conceptually interesting, as the past studies centered on romantic relationships, and the current study focused on the parent-child relationship. Given this difference in relational context, the specific relational context that is created between parents and children might not results in as much of a distinction between the three different types of relational uncertainty as exists in romantic relationships. This greater

consistency may be the result of how power is distributed within the relationship, with partners in a romantic relationship sharing a more equal distribution of power than those in a parent-child relationship. Further, the lines between self, partner, and relationship uncertainty may be blurred because perspectives of one are so contingent on perspectives of the other. Ultimately however, these results are consistent with the qualitative and mixed analysis which both suggest that the variable is a reliable factor in parent-child relationships.

Efficacy. The current study identified two separate efficacy factors: communication efficacy, and an efficacy trio. This finding is unique, as past work has run distinct analysis for each type of efficacy because a single factor model was not a good fit (see Afifi & Weiner, 2006; Fowler & Afifi, 2011). The success of the two CFAs in the current study suggests that, within the context of family death, coping efficacy and target efficacy (ability and honesty) are more closely connected with one another than they are with communication efficacy. This separation may be due, in part, to the conceptual emphasis of each efficacy type. In particular, coping efficacy and target efficacy center on an individual's self-perceptions, as well as their beliefs about their relational partner, while communication efficacy is focused on perceptions of an enacted behavior. Therefore, it is possible that the efficacy trio is more directly related to perceptions of interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships, while communication efficacy most clearly reflects beliefs about specific behaviors and interactions.

Theoretical Significance.

Despite the lack of support for the proposed integrated model, the quantitative analysis pointed to spaces where both the RTM and the TMIM could be extended theoretically. In particular, the findings provide evidence of a relationship between the RTM variables and the TMIM variables that helps to further strengthen the theoretical reach of the frameworks. For instance, the analysis found a positive connection between relational uncertainty and uncertainty discrepancy. This analysis is consistent with the proposed integrated model and suggests that reports of uncertainty discrepancy may precede the information management decision process. Beyond extending the information management process, however, this finding helps to situate information management decisions within the relationship by suggesting that one's perception of one's relational context can influence factors that guide communicative decisions.

The quantitative analysis also extended the TMIM by finding support for the provider role in the information management decision process. Though the overall model was not supported, the orientation towards information variable, which functioned to mirror the information seeker's uncertainty discrepancy variable, was a significant factor in several paths. Notably, just as relational uncertainty predicted participants' uncertainty discrepancy, interference negatively predicted participants' orientations towards information. Interestingly however, orientations towards information were not significantly related to relational uncertainty, and uncertainty discrepancies were not significantly related to interference. Conceptually, this may be because interference is more about actions and behaviors, and therefore may factor more heavily into activities

and actions, such as relational communication, whereas relational uncertainty is centered on perceptions of insecurities, which is more closely connected to discrepancies in the amount of doubt there is in a relationship and the amount of doubt that is desired.

Beyond its connection to the RTM however, the results are indicative of several other extensions of the TMIM. In particular, analysis found support for many of the paths embedded in the framework, particularly those between outcome expectations and efficacy, efficacy and information management, as well as those between emotional response variables and outcome expectations, efficacy, and information management. However, what is significant about these findings is that they were found for both information seekers, and for information provider, thus providing support for the dyadic use of the theoretical frame. Specifically, although the dyadic results of the study were limited, and the proposed model was not supported, the idea that information seekers consider similar variables when working through the information management process is an important extension of the theoretical frame. Given these results, the quantitative findings support the idea that the RTM and the TMIM are related, albeit in a complicated way, and that the TMIM is a valid, dyadic framework.

Qualitative Findings

The qualitative results of this study are significant for two primary reasons. First, they extend knowledge of the RTM by supporting the existence of the three distinct sub-categories of relational uncertainty (i.e., self, partner, and relationship), and further extrapolating on what these experiences with doubt look like for relational partners. Further, they also deepen conceptual understandings of interference by identifying

specific ways in which parents and children experience disruptions following loss. Second, the results speak to contextual specificities that drive parent-child communication about spousal/parental death. These findings confirm some components of existing literature, for instance the notion that parents and children avoid talking about feelings of sadness or bad days (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Johnson, 1982), but also extend what we know about this communication, and point to spaces where their engagement is more open, for example on birthdays and at family events.

Relational Turbulence Model.

In its original conception, the RTM was a framework that provided insight into changes that occur within romantic relationships, with most early work centering on relational partners who were dating. Subsequent uses of the theory extended the reach of the framework by centering more specific transitional moments, including infertility (Steuber & Soloman, 2008, 2011) and military reintegration (Knobloch et al., 2013). However, nearly all uses of the theoretical frame remain centered on romantic relationships, whether dating, cohabiting, or married. Therefore, the current study extended the use of the RTM by applying it within a new context, the parent-child relationship. Beyond extending utility however, by engaging in qualitative analysis, this study also spoke to the specific, lived experiences of the model's primary components, relational uncertainty and interference, which have typically been measured quantitatively. These qualitative data provided insight into what these variables look like for relational partners and offered more conceptually rich understandings of how they are experienced.

Despite being a contextually different relationship, the findings in this study confirm Solomon and Knobloch's (2004) original conception of relational uncertainty and suggest that it remains consistent across different relationships. In particular, the emergent themes included self, partner, and relationship uncertainty, which is interesting because, despite engaging in inductive analysis, and thereby not focusing on developing theoretically-driven categories, they mirrored the three components of relational uncertainty embedded in the RTM. This finding adds greater depth not only to the RTM, but also to conceptualizations of relational uncertainty more specifically by suggesting that its three-part structure is reliable and applicable across relational contexts.

Methodologically, this study advances knowledge of relational uncertainty by continuing to expand the ways in which the variable is measured. Building on Knobloch and Theiss' (2012) work on military reintegration, this study gathered insight about relational uncertainty that went beyond the bounds of its original, quantitative measure. Despite contextual differences, including variance in how data were categorized (the current study categorized data into themes related to whether the experience pertained to self, partner, or relationship uncertainty, whereas Knobloch and Theiss (2012) centered on more contextually specific themes), several spaces exist where the two studies overlap. For instance, in Knobloch and Theiss' (2012) work, participants shared experiences with reintegration, or "redefining roles, adjusting to living together again, and fitting into the family" (p. 436), which intersects with experiences of participants in the current study who felt like they needed to redefine their relationship or who expressed concern over their ability to come to terms with their new responsibilities. Similarly,

military couples experienced uncertainty about their relational partner's commitment, as well as changes to their personality, which were consistent with many parents and children in the current study who expressed concern over their partner's involvement in their relationship and questioned behavioral changes that had occurred since the death. These areas of intersection are significant because they highlight moments of uncertainty that arise in relationships that are not necessarily context dependent, thereby adding greater depth to current knowledge of relational uncertainty.

In a similar vein, the current study also continued the move toward more diverse ways of measuring and understanding interference as it pertains to the RTM. Original conceptions of interference centered on defining the variable in opposition to facilitation, arguing that relational partners will inevitably interrupt one another's lives, but their interruption can either be a facilitation or an interference. Findings in the current study were consistent in uncovering this contrast between facilitation and interference, with the data suggesting that these interruptions took place in two distinct contexts: process and emotion. Like relational uncertainty, these contextual categories were consistent with Knobloch and Theiss' (2012) qualitative findings related to interference. In particular, in their work, Knobloch and Theiss (2012) uncovered issues related to routines and household chores, which overlap with the task- and redefinition-oriented interferences reported in the current study that focused on coming to terms with new family schedules and changes to activities. However, with regard to more emotionally-driven interferences, participants in the current study differed slightly from the military couples interviewed by Knobloch and Theiss (2012). In particular, grieving parents and children focused more on

intrapersonal interferences, or moments when their own feelings disrupted their everyday life. By comparison, the couples from Knobloch and Theiss' (2012) work were more centered on interpersonal interferences, for instance, feeling smothered or not spending enough time together. Although both relational pairs shared a distinction between process interference and emotional interference, the unique context of the relationships determined how these disruptions were experienced. Differences in experiences with interference between the romantic couples in Knobloch and Theiss' (2012) study and the parent-child pairs in the current study suggests that, while interference may be fairly consistent across relational transitions, and moreover that it likely centers on two different contexts, the type of relationship is an important factor to consider when looking to understand how the interference is perceived.

Finally, one important contribution of the current study is a deeper understanding of the bereaved parents and children who not only circumvented uncertainty and interference following family loss, but actually thrived as a result of the relational transition. A major principle of the RTM is that relational partners are more likely to face turbulence when they experience transitions (Solomon & Knobloch, 2004). Rather than suggesting a direct connection between transitions and turbulence, the model suggests that interference and uncertainty act as relational cues that can facilitate turbulence during transitional moments. The current study, and other work that has centered the RTM, have found this connection to be true.

However, in addition to finding connections between turbulence and transition, this work also found that transitions can strengthen one's assurances about a relationship,

and work to create a more cohesive family unit. Some participants in the current study shared that the loss made their relationship stronger and allowed them to reaffirm their commitment to their parent or child, an experience that was also true for several participants in Knobloch and Theiss' (2012) work who shared that they felt closer to their partner, and valued them more following deployment. Within the current study, these findings suggest that, for some families, experiencing a loss can bring surviving members closer together by creating a common ground or shared experience, a notion that is echoed in existing work on family loss which argues that developing a co-constructed understanding of the loss can increase well-being and facilitate more effective coping (Carmon et al., 2010; Sedney et al., 1994). Further, beyond strengthening relationships, some participants in the current study called on contextual factors such as age, life stage, and geographic distance as curtailing any potential interference or uncertainty they could have faced. This is consistent with past work that suggests that religious affiliations and support systems can control for many of the negative impacts of family death (Mineau et al., 1996; Scott et al., 2007). Taken together, these findings strengthen the RTM's argument that transition does not necessarily create turbulence by pointing to specific ways in which the negative ramifications of uncertainty and interference are either reframed, or avoided altogether.

Parent-Child Communication.

The current study advanced knowledge of parent-child communication about family loss in a number of different ways. First, the qualitative themes suggest a distinct difference between expressive avoidance, topical engagement, and contextual engagement, which

complicates many current perspectives on parent-child communication about death that tend to focus on communication as being opened or closed. Second, the unique experiences of the participants speak to the specific factors that drive bereaved parents and children to avoid or engage in communication, creating a greater contextual understanding of their interactions. Finally, the results reaffirm the importance of talking about the loss, and detail ways in which this communication can be structured to facilitate the creation of a co-constructed narrative of the death.

Findings from the current study detail three distinct contexts within which parent and child participants reported managing relational communication: expressive, topical, and contextual. The delineation between these three themes is significant because it provides a deeper understanding of how parents and children communicate following loss, and in doing so advances current knowledge about the relational experiences of bereaved families. These themes go beyond an opened/closed dichotomy and embrace the contextual specificities that help, to some extent, determine the communication of bereaved parents and children. In particular, though most research argues that open communication is important for grieving families (see Bosticco & Thompson, 2005), the findings of the current study suggest that there is a great deal of variance when it comes to defining what open communication is. For instance, some participants in the current study reiterate Sedney and colleagues' (1994) call for communicating about "the story" of the death, while others shared that talking about the death experience was troubling, choosing instead to focus on happy memories of the deceased. Similarly, some participants expressed that interactions that focused on sharing concerns and fears

fostered support, while others found this type of engagement to increase their stress or worry. The inconsistency between what is considered open communication is an important takeaway of these findings because it suggests that what may be effective communication for one relational pair may create unrest in another. Therefore, when thinking about the communication between bereaved parents and children it is important to think about the type of communication that is taking place, rather than simply if the communication is open or closed. By separating communication out into three distinct categories, the results of the current study are calling attention to the idea that communication is contextual, and that openness should be defined by the circumstances surrounding the engagement, including the relational goals and the degree to which the communicative interaction achieves its intended objective.

Beyond considering the overall context of a communicative interaction, many participants shared that there were specific situational factors at play in their decision to engage with their parent or child. In particular, participants whose responses fit within the situational engagement theme provided insight into environmental factors, or aspects beyond the individual and the relational, and reasons that extended past the type of information being shared, that influenced their communication. These responses focused on circumstantial elements, including when and where, that helped determine their decision to engage with their parent or child. These findings build on Toller and McBride's (2013) work, which found that grieving families encourage open communication about information that pertains to specific situations, for instance the funeral. However, the current study takes this notion one step further by identifying

specific events, for instance weddings, graduations, funerals, and birthdays that, beyond the information being shared, foster more open communication. These findings are significant because they speak to events and environmental contexts where families may be more likely to communicate about the death, which can help bereaved families better prepare for communication.

Finally, the results of the current study confirm and extend existing research that supports the idea that it is important for bereaved families to engage in communication about the death (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Hunter & Smith, 2008; Sedney, Baker, & Gross, 1994; Shonkoff et al., 1987; Toller & McBride, 2013). Many participants talked about the significance of anniversaries and birthdays, sharing that they had intrinsic value and helped with their coping. These experiences echo work surrounding the rituals and memorializations of deceased individuals, and highlight the importance of having a way of remembering and honoring those who have passed away. For example, research suggests that families engage in formal ceremonies, ritualized observances, and even honor physical objects to remember those who have died (Barnhill, 2011; Jorgenson & Bochner, 2004; Klass, Silverman, & Nickman, 1996; Wolin & Bennett, 1984). Participants in the current study shared a similar emphasis on these customs by focusing on the importance of remembering important days, and having opportunities to celebrate the deceased family member. Similarly, participants talked about the importance of sharing memories, and not dwelling "on what we've lost, but celebrate[ing] the amazing things we shared." (Dyad 4, Parent) This is consistent with existing work that speaks to the importance of reminiscing with others about the deceased, sharing stories of them,

and keeping them alive through memories (Imber-Black, 1991; Klass et al., 1996; Riches & Dawson, 2000). Taken together, these findings continue to complicate what constitutes "open communication" by highlighting the importance of considering context, and identifying what the goals of an interaction are, and whether they are met.

Mixed Methods Findings

The mixed methods analysis was conducted with the goal of understanding how the specific lived experiences of bereaved families related to the measurable, quantitative variables they corresponded to. Despite the non-significant substantive analysis, the results were successful in creating greater definitional clarity through enhancing current conceptualizations of the variables under study by situating them within the actual experiences of participants. In particular, the findings indicated that contextual variables, such as the number of children in the family, the time since loss, attitudes towards death, and gender, significantly impacted qualitative experiences. Further, for children, the results provided insight into relationships and differences between information management strategies.

This is significant because it helps to enrich definitions of the quantitative variables by creating a more concrete and grounded operationalization. In particular, quantitative methodologies are often critiqued for problems related to measurement, with scholars criticizing the approach for lacking the culturally-specific knowledge necessary to truly understand the topic under study (Kelle, 2006). Mixed methodologies help to address these concerns by situating the variable definition within the lived experiences of participants, thereby increasing the validity of the findings through the embracing of a

more complicated description of the variable under study (Kelle, 2006). This engagement of a more complex definition is the cornerstone of the current study's mixed methods findings, and created a more inclusive understanding of relational uncertainty, interference, and information management.

Contextual Impacts.

Discriminant function analysis revealed that contextual variables significantly impacted two of the three nominal variables (interference and information management). Specifically, interference was significantly impacted by the number of children in the household for parents, and time since loss and adherence to the escape accept death attitudes profile for children. These findings are consistent with existing research on family loss, and provide more comprehensive knowledge of the experience by identifying specific factors that impact the interference bereaved individuals face. For example, literature suggests that bereaved spouse/partners struggle to keep up with daily activities and household chores following the loss (Hahn et al., 2014; McGarry & Schoeni, 2005), but the current study suggests that these hardships may be impacted by the number of children in the family. In particular, many parents centered process in their experiences with interference, focusing on difficulties related to returning to work, maintaining the household, and managing their children's schedules. However, in their reports of interference, children often shared that they had to take on more household responsibilities, running additional errands for their parent and changing their schedules to accommodate their parent. When taken together, this suggests that the number of children in a family unit can play a significant role in how a family experiences the loss

by challenging individuals to modify their roles and responsibilities within the family unit. Similarly, the finding that time since loss and adherence to the escape accept death attitudes profile significantly impacted children's reports of interference is consistent with existing work that suggests that religious affiliation and time mediate the impacts of loss (Bonanno & Field, 2001; Field, Gal-Oz, & Bonanno, 2003; Mineau et al., 1996; Murphy et al., 2003; Scott et al., 2007). Conceptually, these findings are important because the reiterate the need to consider how contextual factors impact the ongoing grief experience.

Beyond interference, analysis also indicated that gender significantly impacted children's experiences with information management. Past research on family loss has found that gender does play a significant role in the grief process, but this work has been fairly inconsistent (Kalter et al., 2003; Lawrence et al., 2006; Worden, 1996). In their work, Kalter and colleagues (2003) suggest that adolescent boys have extremely negative reactions to parental death, while Worden (1996) found that girls are more likely to experience internal struggles such as anxiety. Looking more specifically at communicative behaviors, the current study found that gender plays a significant role in how children manage their information following the loss. Considering the important role that communication plays in the coping process (Carmon et al., 2010; Sedney et al., 1994), this finding reiterate the importance of considering how individual characteristics factor into information management process of bereaved families.

Children's Information Management.

Although the substantive analysis (i.e., the MANCOVA) was not statistically significant, subsequent analysis revealed significant differences in children's experiences with information management. In particular, children reported more expressive avoidance than topical or contextual engagement, suggesting that children may center emotions, more than content or context when deciding if and how to communicate with their parent. This is consistent with existing work that suggests children avoid talking about negative feelings as a way of protecting their parent (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Johnson, 1982). In particular, children's responses often highlighted their parent, "I rarely share my concerns with my dad as it does no good to upset him." (Dyad 16, Child), centering on the perceived reaction their parent would have. However, their responses also considered the relational context, and looked beyond their parent's individual role, "I think we shared experiences we'd had with my dad and opinions about what he would think of things but, we did not really talk about concerns about the future or our feelings or that kind of thing." (Dyad 4, Child) Therefore, it is likely that children's avoidance of emotional communication is not only driven by their perception of their parent, but also by their perception of the overall relational context.

Interestingly, analysis also revealed that children who shared experiences with topical engagement reported more direct information management than children who reported experiencing contextual engagement. Although these information management strategies were reported less frequently than emotional avoidance, this finding is still important, as it provides insight into communicative contexts that may facilitate more

direct information management. In particular, this finding suggests that when an interaction is guided by content, rather than context, children will communicate more directly.

Overall Findings

While the findings of each individual analysis are meaningful in their own right, when considered together, they showcase how significant the study is as a whole. In particular, when united, the three different types of analysis are indicative of the three important contributions of this research. First, they provide greater insight into family loss, and in particular show how death is experienced relationally. Second, they further extend our knowledge of two important theoretical frames, the RTM and the TMIM. And third, they advance the field of family communication by answering calls for the use of more integrative and inclusive research methodologies.

Family Loss.

Findings in the current study extend what is known about familial loss by situating death relationally and by simultaneously embracing generalized experiences and individual variance. From this, we are able to better understand how reactions to loss are manifested within individual family units, while also understanding how these unique experiences relate to one another, and ultimately how they influence measurable outcomes. For instance, findings suggest that efficacy plays an important role in mediating the relationship between affective responses and communication, which is important because communication is vital to successful adjustment and effective coping (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005; Carmon et al., 2010; Sussillo, 2005; Sedney et al., 1994).

Beyond that however, reports of relational uncertainty reveal spaces within the parent-child relationship where perceptions of self-concept come into question. In particular, qualitative themes indicate that bereaved individuals experience uncertainty at self, partner, and relationship levels, and that within these unique experiences individuals center moments where they questioned their own abilities ("I struggled with the balance of dealing with my own deep feelings of loss while also helping my kids whom I desperately wanted to spare the pain, handle their feelings of loss." Dyad 20, Parent), and the abilities of their partner ("when someone dies decisions have to be made, and things move quickly. I wanted them to move quickly but I don't think my son fully grasped that." Dyad 19, Parent). Differences in the conceptual focus of these experiences provide greater insight into moments that are particularly important for the self-concept of bereaved parents and children, while also demonstrating the capacity these unique experiences have to influence the context and communication of the parent-child relationship.

Outside of predictive factors, the findings related to information management were also very telling of the parent-child experience with spousal/parental death. In particular, existing research suggests that sharing stories of the death, and creating a co-constructed narrative of the loss, is vital to fostering a productive parent-child relationship (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005). However, qualitative analysis in the current study found that this type of communication was largely avoided, as it often elicited negative emotional responses. Further, participants shared that they chose to center stories about the deceased, rather than about the death itself, "We are at a point where we

do not dwell on what we've lost, but celebrate the amazing things we shared." (Dyad 4, Parent) Many of these experiences were guided by specific contexts (family events, holidays, etc.), with participants relying, in part, on the situation to help guide their communication, "I tried to always share stories on dates of importance (happy dates) like their dad's birthday, or their birthdays, graduations, holidays… I share when something similar happens to them that happened to their dad." (Dyad 7, Parent) Therefore, although it may be important for families to discuss the death incident, as this type communication that has been linked to effective coping and adjustment, bereaved families should consider couching this type of communication within specific situational contexts.

Finally, in a similar vein, results related to interference provided additional context into specific behaviors that caused disruptions within the bereaved parent-child relationship. Qualitatively, two primary categories of interference were discovered: grief as process and grief as emotion, the distinction between them being that one emphasized logistical interruptions, while the other centered emotions as causing a disruption. It was revealed that although emotion-related interruptions were experienced most frequently, both parents and children reported greater interference when they experienced process related disruptions. Further, analysis also found a connection between reports of interference and orientation towards information, the variable that measured discrepancies in desired and actual information. Taken together, this suggests that process-related interferences generate a larger information discrepancy, meaning that it may be especially important for bereaved parents and children who experience practical

and logistical interruptions to be intentional about communication, as to offset their increased likelihood of having an information discrepancy.

Theoretical Extension.

Beyond the topic-specific findings, the current study extended both the RTM and the TMIM. In particular, both theories were used in new methodological and topical contexts. For instance, though the RTM has been used in a qualitative context (see Knobloch & Theiss, 2012), the current study paired qualitative themes with quantitative responses. This is significant because it strengthens the validity of both the theoretical frame, and the individual variables (i.e., relational uncertainty and interference) by providing more comprehensive knowledge of the concepts under study. In a similar vein, by gathering qualitative insight related to information management, the current study was able to create a more inclusive understanding of the TMIM. For both theories, the use of mixed methodologies helped to create a more complete picture of the framework's embedded relational practices by showcasing connections between quantitative, measurable variables, and the lived experiences of participants.

Beyond methodological considerations, the current study also extended the topical bounds of each theory. In particular, the RTM has had great success within the context of romantic relationships, but has not been used within parent-child relationships. Therefore, the success of the model and the individual variables, quantitatively, qualitatively, and in an integrated way, advance the theory by showing its applicability within a new relational context. In contrast, the TMIM has been used within the context of parent-child relationships, but has not been used to study the grieving family. Moreover, though the

theory was conceived as a dyadic framework, applications that engage dyadic data analysis techniques have been very limited (see Afifi & Afifi, 2009). Though the current study found little statistical support for the dyadic framework, the success of the orientations toward information variables, the connections between model variables for information providers, and the qualitative experiences that situate information management as being transactional help to solidify the use of the theory within a dyadic context.

Finally, though the proposed integrated model was not a good fit, the current study provides support for continued research into the connection between the RTM and the TMIM. Conceptually, the qualitative categories identified connections between relational uncertainty and efficacy, insofar that participants' lived experiences with relational uncertainty seemed to echo a basic principle of efficacy: self-concept. Given that efficacy factored significantly into many variables, it stands to reason that further insight into the relationship between efficacy and relational uncertainty could provide further clarity into how perceptions of efficacy are developed, and why they may have such a significant impact on different communicative factors.

Advancing Family Communication Studies.

The final, overall significant contribution of the current study is the degree to which it has answered calls for advancement within the field of family communication. Drawing from Droser's (2017) proposal for integrating Deetz's (2001) conceptual frameworks within family communication studies, the current research works to position knowledge as integrative by showcasing instances where qualitative and quantitative

research can be used simultaneously to create a greater knowledge of a topic under study. In particular, Droser (2017) suggests that by remaining within the traditional three-paradigm system researchers are unable to see past epistemological opposition that is rooted in methodological decisions, and are therefore incapable of seeing how different types of knowledge intersect. To this end, by incorporating mixed methodologies, the current study has answered Droser's (2017) call, and has identified distinct points of connection between qualitative and quantitative knowledge.

Beyond epistemological framework, the current study has also responded to calls for more dyadic research within the field (Stamp & Shue, 2013), as well as calls for exploring familial death from within a relational context (Bosticco & Thompson, 2005). From a practical standpoint, the decision to incorporate dyadic data analysis techniques was necessary to answer the research questions and hypotheses that guided this study. However, conceptually, this decision was also significant because it provided a way of understanding how the relational context factored into the individual experience, while simultaneously accounting for whether and how relational partners impacted one another. Ultimately, this provided more in-depth knowledge of familial loss by situating the experience within a relationship.

Finally, the current study also engaged in intersectional quantitative analysis (Few-Demo et al., 2014). This involved including of a number of contextual variables, beyond just demographics, in the analysis. In particular, the contextual variables functioned to identify within-group variance that significantly impacted quantitative variables used in the substantive analysis. As was detailed in the results chapter,

statistical analyses were run to identify the impact of these contextual variables, and any significant effects were then controlled for when running the models and testing the hypotheses. Though this complicated the preliminary analysis process, it helped to produce findings that took into consideration how outside factors such as family communication patterns, attitudes towards death, and parent-child interdependence influenced experiences with spousal/parental death.

Practical Applications.

In addition to advancing the field of family communication, the current study also provided insights that have applied value. In particular, one goal of the current study was to identity ways in which bereaved families could work within their family unit to cope with their loss, rather than being reliant on outside individuals and groups for support. This is important, as support systems and groups can offset many of the negative implications of bereavement (Mineau et al., 1996; Scott et al., 2007), while simultaneously posing a threat to family identity by situating the coping outside of the family's abilities. Furthermore, as was evidenced in the current study, support groups are not always accessible to bereaved individuals, nor are they always willing to attend them. Therefore, it is important for families to have tools that can help them help themselves. Although this study offers many insights into family loss that can help improve future research on the subject, there are three important practical implications of this work.

First, it is important for families to understand how situational factors influence their communication and coping. Many participants shared that certain situations, for instance family events, birthdays, and graduations, represented moments where

communication about the loss was more likely to take place. In these instances, participants relied on environmental factors to foster a more open communication environment. Therefore, it is important for grieving families to recognize the communicative potential of certain situations, and to be prepared to engage with one another, as they represent important communicative moments.

Second, the results indicate that communication is more than just open or closed. In particular, for grieving families, open communication is dependent on what the goals of interaction are, and what the relational context deems appropriate. A great deal of research supports the claim that open communication fosters effective coping, which is the foundation of many support groups. However, it is important to recognize that bereaved individuals can communicate openly, but their communication may not fall under traditional categories of open communication. For instance, although sharing memories of the deceased is not necessarily communicating about the loss, it can help to facilitate relational connection, which may in turn create effective coping. Therefore, grieving families should consider factors such as typical family communication patterns, the topical focus of the conversation, and the goals of the specific interaction when determining whether to communicate, rather than just situating their communication as open or closed.

Finally, it is important for bereaved families to understand how the death may interrupt their everyday lives. In particular, existing research supports the idea that families must deal with logistical consequences following the loss, for instance planning the funeral arrangements and redefining roles and responsibilities (see Shonkoff et al.,

1987). Results in the current study confirmed the existence of these types of interruptions, and found a significant relationship between interference and information discrepancy. Therefore, it may be important for bereaved families to actively recognize changes to their family structure, and to share concerns about these shifts.

Future Directions and Limitations.

Although this study is significant in a number of different ways, there are several limitations to the study that create avenues for future research. In particular, the sample population involved in the current research was highly homogenous, with nearly all participants identifying as white. Further, the sample size (29 dyads) was quite low, which may have factored into the non-significant quantitative findings. Although some research supports dyadic data analysis with small sample sizes (Tambling, Johnson, & Johnson, 2011), as well as with sample sizes of at least 28 dyads (Kenny et al., 2006), results in this study could be strengthened through the inclusion of additional dyads. Further, given that there were several statistically significant findings, it is possible that a larger sample size would help to further demonstrate these predictive relationships. Future research should take specific steps to ensure that a larger data set is acquired, which may include increased participation incentives, expanded data collection techniques (i.e., non-online collection), and partnerships with more diverse community organizations.

Future research should also continue to explore the connection between the RTM and the TMIM. The significant connection between RTM variables and TMIM variables indicated that they may be related, but the bad fit of the proposed integrated model

suggests that the fit may be more complicated than simply placing one before the other. Further, future research should continue to test the applicability of the TMIM within a dyadic context. The current research found support for an information provider role, but the lack of significant dyadic results means that additional testing of the model is needed to solidify its dyadic capacity.

Finally, future research should continue to embrace the integrated and intersectional methodological approaches used in the current study. The convergent mixed methods design helped to create more comprehensive knowledge of the three primary variables in the current study. As is evidenced by the results, this additional layer of knowledge was particularly useful in interpreting the findings because it added depth to the quantitative results and breadth to the qualitative findings. Though the mixed methods analysis was largely non-significant, it was nonetheless interesting to see how the nominal qualitative variables, the interval model variables, and the contextual variables related to one another. This type of insight provided a greater understanding of how participants experienced variables like interference beyond just providing a mean score. Further, the use of intersectional quantitative analysis techniques helped to position the results of this study in a more inclusive way. By accounting for contextual variables that may influence within-group variability, this study was able to take steps towards incorporating a more critical perspective into quantitative methods. Future research should continue to embrace these intersectional techniques in their work, and should also consider including multiple types of knowledge in their analysis, as doing so would help to create more comprehensive understandings of the phenomenon under study.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study has met its three primary goals, which were to better understand how parent-child relationships experience and communicate about spousal/parental death, to test a proposed integrated model of relational processing, and to situate the death within the parent-child relationship, thereby providing families with insight that would help increase their autonomy following death. Despite a small sample size, and a lack of statistical support for the proposed model and several of the proposed hypotheses, this study was able to create new knowledge about family loss and both theoretical frames (the RTM and the TMIM), while also improving the inclusiveness of family communication studies.

With regard to the first goal, this study identified spaces where communication intersects with individual and relational experiences with spousal/parental death. In particular, the definition of open communication was complicated, as the analysis indicated that parent-child communication following the loss may center on the deceased, but not necessarily the death itself. Further, situational factors play a large role in determining whether and how parents and children communicate, and moreover that specific environments such as family events and holidays represent moments where communication may be particularly meaningful. This study also revealed that although bereaved individuals may experience interference related to their emotions more frequently following the loss, interruptions related to changes to the family structure, for instance reassigning responsibilities and roles, may cause greater amounts of perceived disruption. This means that although it is important to recognize changes in affective

states after a family member dies, it is also important to be intentional about identifying what structural changes the family unit must undergo. Finally, the results related to relational uncertainty show that efficacy may play a large role in how bereaved parents and children relate to and communicate with one another following spousal/parental death. In particular, qualitative data revealed that how bereaved individuals perceive their own abilities and the abilities of their relational partner factor heavily into how they conceive of their relationship and their ability to cope with and communicate about the death.

With regard to the second goal, this study was unable to provide support for the proposed integrated model. However, the study did identify statistical and conceptual connections between the RTM and the TMIM, which are cause for continued investigation into the relationship between these two theoretical frames. First, the connection between relational uncertainty and uncertainty discrepancy, as well as the relationship between interference and orientation towards information suggest that these factors may help begin the information management process. Although the model did not fit when considered in its entirety, these findings do indicate that the information management process may begin with the consideration of relational factors, which is significant, as it bridges relational and communicative contexts. Second, although relational uncertainty and efficacy were considered as separate variables within this research, the qualitative uncertainty responses spoke to conceptual connections between the two characteristics. In particular, efficacy was embedded within many of the shared relational uncertainty experiences, particularly those related to self uncertainty. Taken

together, this suggests that relational uncertainty may factor into experiences of efficacy, and ultimately into one's information management decision.

Finally, with regard to the third goal, the findings shed light on several important practical implications of this research. These findings helped to situate the loss within the family and provided specific insights that can help families facilitate more effective coping. Communication was at the center of these practical implications, which pointed to defined strategies for engaging in conversation following the loss. These strategies involved recognizing that communication is contingent not only on the relational context, but also on the situational environment, and urged bereaved families to be cognizant of each of these factors when engaging in communication with their relational partners. These findings also emphasized the importance of understanding that changes to the family unit are almost unavoidable following a loss. In particular, it was suggested to families that being mindful of shifts in responsibilities and roles following the death is important for upholding the integrity of the family structure, as these changes have the potential to cause serious interruptions for both individuals, and relationships.

Ultimately, the current study was designed to explore spousal/parental death from within the parent-child relationship. Death was positioned as a moment of relational transition and an experience that had the potential to threaten the interdependence of a family unit. The parent-child relationship and the experience of spousal/parental death were selected specifically because they represented a conceptual space where grief experiences did not naturally intersect: one person is grieving the loss of a spouse, one person is grieving the loss of a parent. However, through the use of mixed methodologies

and dyadic data analysis techniques, this study began to recognize moments where these two conceptually unique losses intersect. In doing so, this study helped to create more comprehensive, meaningful, and inclusive knowledge of one of life's most difficult experiences: death.

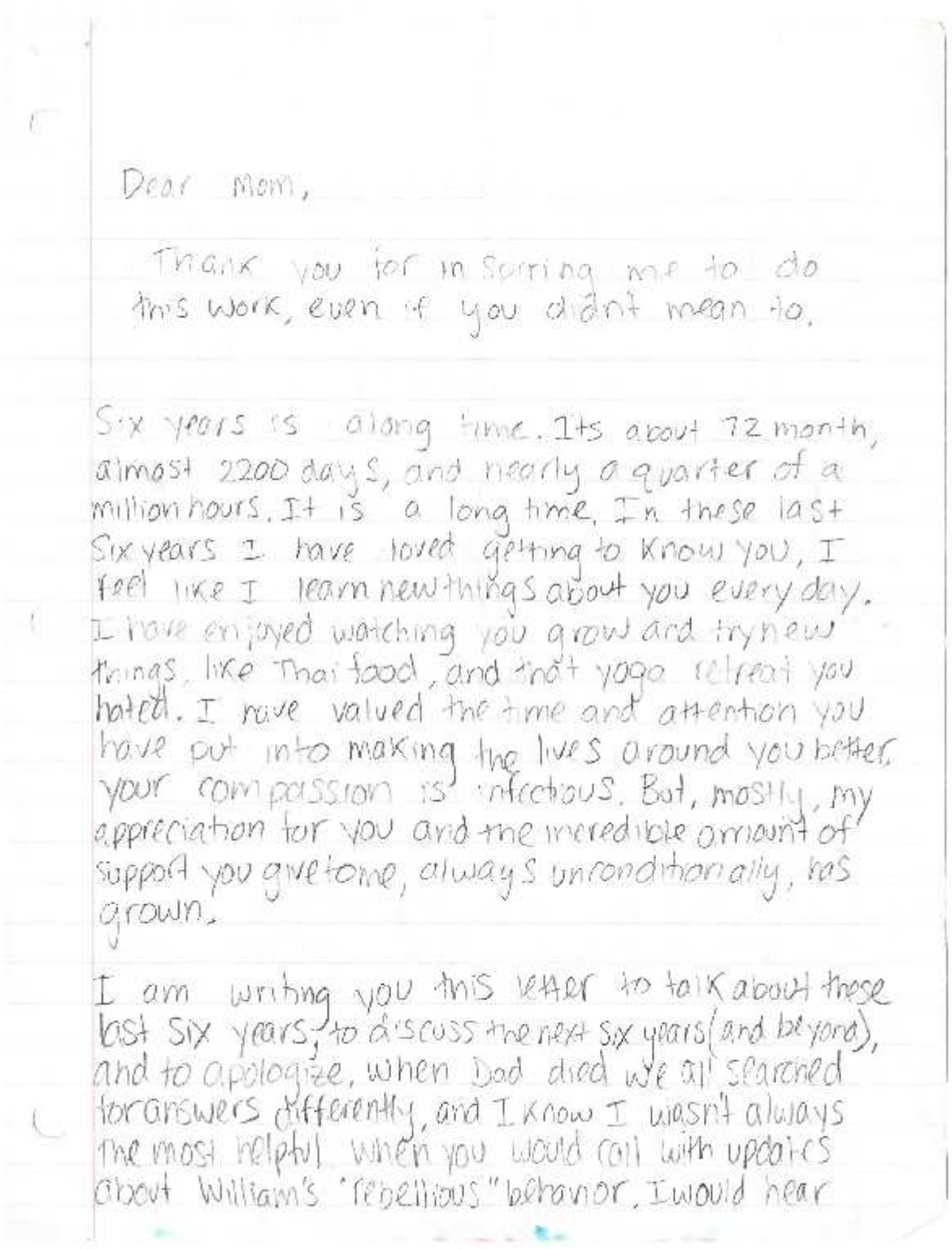
Chapter Eight: Narrative Sensemaking

I like order. I like things to unfold the way I imagine them. I say that I like surprises, and I like to think that I do, but the truth is, I don't. When I started this project I had an idea about what I would learn. I thought my findings would tell me how to talk about my dad's death. How to effectively cope, manage uncertainty, and deal with interference. In many ways, it did, but in many other ways, it did not. This project was a surprise.

To process this surprise, to shift the unexpected to the accepted, I turned to personal narrative. In particular, drawing from Abdi's (2014) notion of narrative trespass, I used my personal story to break with traditional grief expectations, both my own and those stemming from larger discourses about family loss. Like Abdi (2014) I framed my thoughts, which oscillated between wanting to cope a certain way and needing to grieve for myself, as a handwritten letter to my mom (see Figure 2). While Abdi (2014) refers to her note as 'A Letter for Someday,' I chose to call my message 'A Letter for Yesterday,' symbolizing my wish that I could have understood my mother's perspective, that I could have acted empathetically, that I could have let her grieve the way she needed, instead of wanting her to cope how I thought she should.

A Letter for Yesterday

Figure 2



Dear Mom,

Thank you for inspiring me to do this work, even if you didn't mean to.

Six years is a long time. Its about 72 month, almost 2200 days, and nearly a quarter of a million hours. It is a long time. In these last Six years I have loved getting to know you, I feel like I learn new things about you every day. I have enjoyed watching you grow and try new things, like Thai food, and that yoga retreat you hated. I have valued the time and attention you have put into making the lives around you better, your compassion is infectious. But, mostly, my appreciation for you and the incredible amount of support you give to me, always unconditionally, has grown.

I am writing you this letter to talk about these last Six years, to discuss the next Six years (and beyond), and to apologize, when Dad died we all searched for answers differently, and I know I wasn't always the most helpful when you would call with updates about William's "rebellious" behavior, I would hear

your words, but I wouldn't listen. I would tell you about different typologies of family communication, and about different forms of parental reactions – reviewing literature, when all you needed was someone to listen. I would sometimes secretly resent you, and think something was wrong with our family because we never talked about Dad's death. After all, research says we have to create a co-constructed narrative of the loss if we want any chance at effectively dealing with our grief. You made me anxious. I worried about your well being, and was concerned about your happiness. I NEVER, not even for one second wanted you to be sad and I was disappointed in myself because I wanted to make things better for you, for me, for everyone.

This anxiety, this fear, this worry, this anger
– this fueled my dissertation

I thought this project would give me the tools I needed to effectively navigate our relationship to magically make things great. That my findings would shed light on the communicative strategies I needed to use to get through to you, to allow us to start talking and grieving. And, in some ways, it did.

This project revealed my selfishness. It made me realize how concerned I was with me. It showed

me that I had been relying on research, and not experiencing real life. It exposed my need to create a solution for a problem that didn't really exist.

This project taught me about you. I learned that you are happy, but most importantly, that it is okay if you are sad sometimes. I learned that you do talk about dad, but that you chose to talk about him as he lived life, not as how he died. I realized, finally, that our lived experience can be significant while also deviating from research.

As I come to the end of my dissertation process, I want to share with you a few promises I hope to upkeep for the next six years, and beyond.

1. I promise to listen, not just hear.
2. I promise to not just talk about Dad, but to celebrate him today, tomorrow, and every day after that.
3. I promise to let you be sad, and to understand if you tell me you are.
4. I promise to let you be happy, and to believe you when you tell me you are.
5. I promise to keep being the person you, and Dad, raised me to be.

I am so thankful for the opportunity to do this work, and know how privileged I am to have been given this chance. While I am hopeful that this project can help other families, I am overjoyed with the new perspective it has given me on my experience. You have always said, "there are no problems, only solutions," and I think this dissertation is a living testament of that.

Thank you for always supporting me, and loving me, even if I "used" our family as a guinea pig.

Veronica

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Appendix A: Survey Instrument

Data Matching

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study.

In the following survey you will be asked a series of questions about your parent-child relationship following the loss of your spouse or parent. As such, before you begin it is important to identify your relationship with the deceased.

> What is your relationship to the deceased? Spouse of the deceased/Child of the deceased
>
> Do you have a 6-digit code? If you do not, or you are unsure, we will help you generate one. Yes/No
>
> Please enter your 6 digit code here

Please use the following guidelines to generate the code. Be mindful that parent-child pairs should have the same 6 digit code.

Please answer the following questions based on information about the child and the spouse participating in the study. The letters and numbers generated from responses to these questions will create your unique 6 digit code.

1. What is the first letter of your/your child's birth name?
2. What is your/your child's birth month [please write in 2 digits, for instance Jan would be 01]
3. What is your/your child's birth date[please write in 2 digits, for instance Jan 9th would be 09]
4. What is the first letter of your/your parent's birth name?

For instance, if your child's name is John and their birthday is April 28th, and your name is Steve the 6 digit code for your pair would be: J0428S

> Please enter the 6 digit code you generate below.

Narrative Question

Every death is unique, and every person experiences death in their own distinct way. I am interested in your personal experience with the death of your spouse/parent. Keeping this in mind, please take a moment to think about the death of your spouse/parent. Once you have collected your thoughts, I would like you to write out the story of this death below. When thinking about how to answer this question and organize your thoughts it may be useful to think about your story as having a beginning, a middle, and an end. You might

also think about the different characters who played a role in your story, and the different places where your story took place. I am interested in knowing how you experienced and remember the death, and therefore your story should represent the parts of the experience that are important, meaningful, and memorable to you.

Relational Uncertainty

The following questions relate to your experiences with uncertainty within your parent-child relationship. In this survey uncertainty refers to how confident you about your parent-child relationship, including how you feel about your own thoughts about and involvement in the relationship, as well as how you feel about your parent or child's thoughts about and involvement in the relationship. However, please keep that in mind that uncertainty can look and be experienced differently for each relationship.

It is normal for parents and children to have questions about their relationship. They can experience uncertainty about their own thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. For instance, a child might question whether the way they treated a parent was fair or nice. They can have questions about their parent or child's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. For example, a parent may question whether their child feels comfortable opening up to them about troubles they experience at school. They can also be unsure about the nature of the relationship itself. For instance, a child may question whether their parent truly loves them following an argument or disagreement. These experiences are a natural part of relationships, and can occur frequently following stressful events and experiences, for example the death of family member. Thinking about your own parent-child relationship, please list and briefly describe issues of uncertainty you experienced within your parent-child relationship following the death of your spouse/parent.

The following questions relate to your feelings regarding your overall parent/child relationship **since the death**. Please read each item and rate how certain you feel with each of the scenarios presented. One meaning completely or almost completely uncertain, seven meaning completely or almost completely certain.

1. Since the death, how certain are you about your parent/child relationship?
2. Since the death, how certain are you about the future of your parent/child relationship?
3. Since the death, how certain are you about your view of your parent/child relationship?
4. Since the death, how certain are you about how important your parent/child relationship is to you?
5. Since the death, how certain are you about how your child/parent feels about your parent/child relationship?
6. Since the death, how certain are you about your child/parent's goals for the future of your parent/child relationship?
7. Since the death, how certain are you about your child/parent's view of your parent/child relationship?

8. Since the death, how certain are you about how important your parent/child relationship is to your child/parent?
9. Since the death, how certain are you about the current status of your parent/child relationship?
10. Since the death, how certain are you about how you can or cannot behave around your child/parent?
11. Since the death, how certain are you about the definition of your parent/child relationship?
12. Since the death, how certain are you about the future of your parent/child relationship?

Uncertainty Discrepancy

Thinking about the set of questions you just answered, consider how much information you know about your child/parent's experience with your spouse/parent's death. One meaning completely or almost completely uncertain, seven meaning completely or almost completely certain.

1. How certain are you about child/parent's experience with your spouse/parent's death.
2. How certain do you want to be about how much you know about your child/parent's experience with your spouse/parent's death.

Emotional Responses to Uncertainty Discrepancy

Consider the size of the difference between how much you want to know about your child/parent's experience with your spouse/parent's death and how much you already know about your child/parent's experience with your spouse/parent's death. In the following questions please rate the degree to which you have experienced the following emotions as a result of the difference, with 1 referring to not at all, and 7 referring to extremely.

	Calm	Worried	Disappointed	
	Thoughtful	Sad	Distressed	
	Secure	Pensive	Frustrated	
	Encouraged	Nervous	Upset	
Partner	Inspired	Scared	Irritable	**Interference**
	Happy	Anxious	Anger	

Sometimes, relational partners get in each other's way – they make it harder for each other to accomplish goals. It's normal for relational partners, such as parents and children, to interfere in each other's everyday routines and activities once in a while. For example, a parent's work schedule might interfere with a child's ability to attend an event like a birthday party, or a

child's sickness might make it hard for a parent to complete a project around the house. These experiences are a natural part of relationships, and can be particularly challenging during stressful times such as following the death of a family member. Thinking about your own parent-child relationship, please list and briefly describe ways in which your child/parent made it harder for you to complete your everyday activities following the death of your spouse/parent.

The following questions relate to your experiences with your parent/child relationship since the death. Please read each item and rate how much you agree with each of the scenarios presented. One meaning completely or almost completely disagree, and seven being completely or almost completely agree.

1. Since the death my child/parent interferes with the plans I make.
2. Since the death my child/parent interferes with my plans to attend parties and other social events.
3. Since the death my child/parent interferes with the amount of time I spend with my friends.
4. Since the death my child/parent interferes with how much time I devote to my work.
5. Since the death my child/parent interferes with the things I need to do each day.

Information Management Strategies

Communication is a natural part of the parent-child relationship. Parents and children often share information – for instance concerns, experiences, and opinions – with one another as a way of building and maintaining their relationship. However, other times parents and children avoid sharing information with one another. Thinking about your own parent-child relationship, please list and briefly describe times in which you shared, or avoided sharing information about your concerns, experiences, and opinions about the death with your child/parent.

Think about your parent-child communication since the death, and specifically times you have, or have not talked about the loss. Please read the following questions and statements and indicate the extent to which the experience resembles your parent-child communication.

Direct

1. Since the death, you have sought ___[none/a lot of] information from your child/parent about their experience with the death.
2. How many questions have you asked your partner regarding their experience with the death?
3. How many times have you brought up the death in conversations with your child/parent?

Indirect

4. Since the death, to what extent have you been waiting, hoping that the topic of the loss comes up by itself in your conversations with your child/parent?
5. Since the death, how many times have you hinted at the loss in order to gain information about how your child/parent feels?

Active Avoidance

6. To what extent have you gone out of your way to avoid information about your child/parent's experience with the death?
7. To what extent have you ignored information about the loss that has come from your child/parent?
8. How likely are you to accept the circumstances surrounding the death rather than trying to talk to your parent/child about them?

Orientation Toward Information

Thinking about your responses above, consider how much information about your experience with your spouse/parent's death you have shared with your child/parent. Please respond by selecting a number one through seven, with one referring to very uncomfortable/comfortable, and seven referring to very comfortable/uncomfortable.

1. How comfortable do you feel about sharing how you feel about your spouse/parent's death with your child/parent?
2. How uncomfortable do you feel about sharing how you feel about your spouse/parent's death with your child/parent?

Emotional Responses to Orientation Toward Information

Consider the size of the difference between how much of your feelings about the death of your spouse/parent you have shared with your child/parent, and how much of your feelings you would like to share with them. In the following questions please rate the degree to which you have experienced the following emotions as a result of the difference, with 1 referring to not at all, and 7 referring to extremely.

Calm	Worried	Disappointed
Thoughtful	Sad	Distressed
Secure	Pensive	Frustrated
Encouraged	Nervous	Upset
Inspired	Scared	Irritable
Happy	Anxious	Anger

Outcome Expectancies

Consider a scenario wherein you are speaking to your child/parent about their experience with the death of your spouse/parent, then indicate the type of response you would get to

the three scenarios below. *Answered on a seven-point scale: a lot more negatives than positives (1), a lot more positives than negatives (7)*

1. Asking my child/parent about the death would produce ___
2. Talking to my child/parent about the death would produce___
3. Approaching my child/parent to ask about their experience with the death would produce___

Efficacy

The following questions relate to how well you believe you would be able to seek information from your child/parent about their experience with the death. After reading each statement, please indicate your level agreement with 1 referring to strongly disagree and 7 referring to strongly agree.

Communication

1. I am able to ask my child/parent what they think about the death.
2. I could approach my child/parent to ask about their beliefs about the death.
3. I am able to approach my child/parent to talk about the death.
4. I know what I need to say to successfully discuss my child/parent's experience with the death.

Target Honesty

5. My child/parent would give me truthful information about their experiences with the death.
6. My child/parent would be forthcoming about their experience with the death.

Target Ability

7. My child/parent is well informed about their experience with the death.
8. My child/parent would provide me with accurate information about their experience with the death.
9. I don't think my child/parent would be a useful source of information about their experiences with the death.
10. I don't feel my child/parent has the information necessary to answer questions about their experiences with the death.

Coping

11. I know that I would have no problem coping with my child/parent's experience with the death.
12. I am certain that I would be able to handle whatever reaction my child/parent has had to the death.
13. I feel that I would be able to fully cope with my child/parent's reaction to the death.
14. I feel confident that I can cope with whatever reaction my child/parent has when telling me about their experience with the death.

Contextual Information

The following questions relate to you, and in particular your experiences within the family. Please answer them as honestly as you can.

Demographics

1. What is your age?
2. What was your age at the time of your spouse/parent's death?
3. How long ago did they pass away?
4. What was your spouse/parent's cause of death?
5. What, if any, best describes your religious affiliation?
6. What, if any, best describes your ethnicity?
7. Were you living with this person at the time of their death?
8. If yes, how many other people were living with you?

Revised Family Communication Patterns

All families have unique ways of communicating with one another. Consider the way in which your family communicates. Read each of the following statements and indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree that they fit your family's style of communication. Please indicate your level agreement that the statement applies to your families by selecting a number between one and seven, with 1 referring to strongly disagree and 7 referring to strongly agree.

1. In our family, we often talk about topics like politics and religion where some persons disagree with others.
2. My family members often say something like "Every member of the family should have some say in family decisions."
3. My family members often ask my opinion when the family is talking about something.
4. My family members encourage me to challenge their ideas and beliefs.
5. My family members often say something like "You should always look at both sides of an issue."
6. I usually tell my family members what I am thinking about.
7. I can tell my family members almost anything.
8. In our family we often talk about our feelings and emotions.
9. My family and I often have long, relaxed conversations about nothing in particular.
10. I really enjoy talking with my family members, even when we disagree.
11. My family members like to hear my opinions, even when they don't agree with them.
12. My family members encourage me to express my feelings.
13. My family members tend to be very open about their emotions.
14. We often talk as a family about things we have done during the day.
15. In our family, we often talk about our plans and hopes for the future.

Personal Attitudes Scale

People orient to others in unique and different ways. Listed below are a number of statements about various attitudes and feelings related to relationships. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions; I am simply interested in how you think about yourself and your parent-child relationships. Please read each statement and indicate the degree to which you agree with it by selecting a number from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree).

1. My parent-child relationships is an important reflection of who I am.
2. My parent is an important part of who I am.
3. Overall, my parent-child relationship has very <u>little</u> to do with how I feel about myself.
4. I think one of the most important parts of who I am can be captured by looking at my child/parent and who they are..
5. When I think of myself, I often think of my child/parent as well.
6. I have a strong sense of identification with my child/parent.
7. If my child/parent is hurt, I feel hurt as well.
8. My parent-child relationship is <u>un</u>important to my sense of what kind of person I am.
9. My sense of pride comes from knowing who my child/parent is..
10. In general, my parent-child relationship is an important part of my self-image.
11. I usually feel a strong sense of pride when my child/parent has an important accomplishment.

Death Attitudes Profile

Death is experienced differently by different people. The following questions relate to different attitudes toward death. Read each statement carefully, and then decide the extent to which you agree or disagree by selecting a number from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree). It is important that you work through the statements and answer each one. Many of the statements will seem alike, but all are necessary to show slight differences in attitudes.

1. Death is no doubt a grim experience.
2. The prospects of my own death arouse anxiety in me.
3. I avoid death thought at all costs.
4. I believe that I will be in heaven after I die.
5. Death will bring an end to all my troubles.
6. Death should be viewed as a natural, undeniable, and unavoidable event.
7. I am disturbed by the finality of death.
8. Death is an entrance to a place of ultimate satisfaction.
9. Death provides an escape from this terrible world.
10. Whenever the thought of death enters my mind, I try to push it away.
11. Death is deliverance from pain and suffering.

12. I always try not to think about death.
13. I believe that heaven will be a much better place than this world.
14. Death is a natural aspect of life.
15. Death is a union with god and eternal bliss.
16. Death brings a promise of new and glorious life.
17. I would neither fear death nor welcome it.
18. I have an intense fear of death.
19. I avoid thinking about death altogether.
20. The subject of life after death troubles me greatly.
21. The fact that death will mean the end of everything as I know it frightens me.
22. I look forward to a reunion with my loved ones after I die.
23. I view death as relief from earthly suffering.
24. Death is simply a part of the process of life.
25. I see death as a passage to an eternal and blessed place.
26. I try to have nothing to do with the subject of death.
27. Death offers a wonderful release of the soul.
28. One thing that gives me comfort in facing death is my belief in the afterlife.
29. I see death as a relief from the burden of this life.
30. Death is neither good nor bad.
31. I look forward to a life after death.
32. The uncertainty of not knowing what happens after death worries me.

Appendix B: Parent Variable Correlations

Appendix B
Parent Variable Correlations

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
B	.90**																			
C	.90**	.94**																		
D	.35	.46*	.45*																	
E	.09	-.11	-.14	-.24																
F	.19	.25	.14	.18	-.35															
G	.08	.08	-.03	-.21	.35	.30														
H	-.23	-.26	-.37*	.36	.47**	-.21	.27													
I	.05	.11	.06	.30	.27	-.31	-.21	.41*												
J	-.13	-.06	.01	-.07	-.55**	.19	-.05	-.63**	-.61**											
K	.47**	.47*	.46*	.39*	-..22	.56*	.45*	-.43*	-.37*	.34										
L	.55**	.49**	.51**	.28	-.09	.50**	.35	-.35	-.42*	.27	.91**									
M	.53**	.55**	.51*	.32	-.16	.67**	.27	-.45*	-.52**	.27	.82**	.89**								
N	.30	.26	.31	.31	-.32	.58**	.29	-.43*	-.57**	.27	.79**	.81**	.82*							
O	.34	.23	.30	-.21	.06	.07	-.14	-.06	-.44*	.19	.05	.32	.35	.17						
P	-.00	.19	.04	-.11	.02	.50**	.69**	-.04	-.50**	.33	.31	.27	.42	.25	.21					
Q	.12	.12	.09	.15	.63**	-.30	.20	.34	.46*	-.49**	-.09	-.08	-.20	-.33	.05	.03				
R	.08	.20	.12	.37	.24	-.24	-.14	.36	.83**	-.50**	-.26	-.26	-.38*	-.46*	-.20	-.22	.70**			
S	-.09	.06	-.07	.16	-.42*	.60**	.02	-.10	-.17	.13	.15	.05	.32	.29	-.30	.09	-.47*	-.31		
T	.18	.27	.16	.18	.24	.19	.13	.05	.11	-.35	.09	.14	.20	.05	.22	.41*	.56**	.41*	-.26	
U	-.13	.06	-.03	.26	-.06	.23	.01	.19	.19	-.25	-.09	-.13	-.01	.01	-.28	.05	.30	.38*	.33	.40*

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$

a. Self Uncertainty
b. Partner Uncertainty
c. Relationship Uncertainty
d. Uncertainty Discrepancy
e. Interference
f. Outcome Expectations
g. Information Management - Direct
h. Information Management – Indirect
i. Information Management – Active Avoidance
j. Orientation towards Information
k. Efficacy – Communication
l. Efficacy – Target Honesty
m. Efficacy – Target Ability
n. Efficacy - Coping
o. RISC
p. RFCP – Conversation
q. DAP = Fear
r. DAP – Avoidance
s. DAP – Neutral
t. DAP – Approach
u. DAP - Escape

Appendix C: Child Variable Correlations

Appendix C
Child Variable Correlations

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
B	.82**																			
C	.91**	.80**																		
D	.34	.38*	.37*																	
E	.07	.01	-.12	.08																
F	.51**	.51**	.47**	.29	-.19															
G	.20	-.04	.21	.06	-.27	.44*														
H	-.25	-.29	-.31	.00	.21	-.40*	-.26													
I	-.24	.06	-.21	-.05	.20	-.19	-.53**	.13												
J	-.03	-.07	.04	.02	-.39*	.08	.14	-.15	-.33											
K	.50**	.31	.50**	.10	-.38*	.80**	.59**	-.59**	-.48**	.22										
L	.43*	.37*	.42*	-.12	-.26	.66**	.35	-.54**	-.23	.09	.80**									
M	.44*	.44*	.43*	-.04	-.41*	.73**	.36	-.62**	-.31	.11	.83**	.91**								
N	.43*	.32	.36	.19	.03	.59**	.26	-.29	-.59**	.21	.64**	.46*	.54**							
O	.44*	.39*	.42*	.00	.08	.19	-.01	.00	-.26	-.07	.19	.20	.30	.59**						
P	.38*	.30	.48**	.12	-.31	.58**	.43*	-.38*	-.27	-.01	.63**	.35	.48**	.53**	.42*					
Q	05	.11	.14	.05	-.27	.11	.14	.08	-.09	-.03	.01	-.08	.04	.02	.14	-.04				
R	-.02	.28	.07	.22	-.19	.09	-.11	-.02	.28	.22	-.15	-.18	-.03	.03	.13	.10	.42*			
S	.00	-.14	05	.22	.08	.14	.19	-.17	.16	-.07	.26	.10	.02	.20	.05	.41*	-.28	-.08		
T	.24	.15	.18	.10	.09	.29	.22	.22	-.15	.15	.26	.10	.08	.27	.09	.31	-.36	-.21	.10	
U	.15	.14	.12	.24	.11	.48**	.37	-.05	.10	.05	.21	.06	.03	.26	.07	.36	-.06	.03	.27	.59**

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$

a. Self Uncertainty
b. Partner Uncertainty
c. Relationship Uncertainty
d. Uncertainty Discrepancy
e. Interference
f. Outcome Expectations
g. Information Management - Direct
h. Information Management – Indirect
i. Information Management – Active Avoidance
j. Orientation towards Information
k. Efficacy – Communication
l. Efficacy – Target Honesty
m. Efficacy – Target Ability
n. Efficacy - Coping
o. RISC
p. RFCP – Conversation
q. DAP = Fear
r. DAP – Avoidance
s. DAP – Neutral
t. DAP – Approach
u. DAP - Escape

Appendix D: Dyadic Correlations

Appendix D
Dyadic Correlations

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
A	-.19	-.15	-.12	.02	.24	-.29	-.19	.16	.28	-.12	-.29	-.22	-.26	-.32	.21	-.08	.38*	.38*	-.32	.17	.04
B	-.28	-.14	-.16	-.05	.09	-.20	-.14	.05	.08	.14	-.26	-.18	-.17	-.24	.24	.11	.23	.27	-.09	.06	.11
C	-.12	-.02	.02	.18	.10	-.11	-.12	-.06	.21	.08	-.08	-.04	-.08	-.17	.17	.09	.35	.39*	-.28	.20	.06
D	-.10	-.05	.03	.14	-.09	-.16	-.37	-.35	.07	.15	-.26	-.29	-.21	-.23	.01	-.14	.09	.16	-.06	.13	.20
E	.14	.01	.03	.01	.10	-.27	-.36	.16	.16	-.32	-.15	-.03	-.11	-.16	.10	-.52	.04	.05	.09	-.05	.00
F	-.20	-.15	-.20	.03	-.13	.10	.10	.00	.03	.25	-.14	-.25	-.21	-.16	.03	.11	.01	.12	.12	-.06	.01
G	.26	.24	.28	.17	.19	.34	.18	-.01	.02	-.03	.19	.22	.25	.21	.22	.09	.03	-.07	-.02	.05	-.04
H	-.02	-.14	-.08	-.21	-.19	.05	-.50**	-.16	.05	-.12	-.21	-.13	-.06	-.02	.00	-.44*	-.30	-.11	.09	-.03	-.11
I	-.01	.12	.10	-.17	-.44*	.00	-.06	.07	.01	.04	-.05	-.03	-.09	.05	-.14	-.09	-.25	.11	.23	-.21	.26
J	-.19	-.16	-.15	.09	-.05	.08	.01	-.23	.01	.28	-.09	-.18	-.10	-.21	-.13	.25	-.13	-.16	-.05	-.14	-.16
K	-.05	.02	-.07	.21	.07	.13	.23	.14	.12	.08	.02	-.10	-.06	-.09	-.02	.24	.19	.17	-.02	.12	.07
L	.02	.10	-.01	.13	.05	.00	.17	.16	.11	.11	.03	-.03	-.05	-.11	.02	.14	.26	.22	.00	.12	.17
M	-.15	-.05	-.14	.04	.01	.01	.22	.10	-.05	.28	.06	-.04	-.05	-.06	.09	.26	.21	.11	-.04	.07	.07
N	-.25	-.27	-.29	.27	.05	-.13	-.24	-.05	.02	.20	-.08	-.11	-.10	-.11	.08	-.13	.05	-.01	.00	-.07	-.18
O	-.16	-.16	-.08	.01	-.10	-.31	-.47*	-.09	-.15	.36	-.10	.03	-.03	-.08	.48**	-.26	.02	-.01	-.28	-.08	-.23
P	.02	.11	.07	.19	.00	.20	.10	-.08	.04	.18	.16	.13	.14	.07	.18	.29	.21	.22	-.10	.16	-.03
Q	-.18	-.12	.01	.02	-.28	-.06	.02	-.23	-18	.37*	.18	.19	.11	.25	-.09	.02	-.31	-.22	.03	-.25	-.15
R	-.52**	-.37*	-.29	-.13	-.28	-.05	-.08	-.08	-.08	.38*	-.17	-.16	-.20	-.02	-.15	.07	-.24	-.09	.11	-.34	.12
S	.33	.33	.35	.42*	-.24	.12	-.13	-.17	.07	-.07	.20	.19	.16	.28	.02	-.09	-.01	.18	-.01	.21	.24
T	.16	.16	.04	.18	-.14	.29	-.18	-.13	.18	-.01	.02	-.06	.13	-.04	.07	-.02	-.12	.05	.27	.03	-.11
U	.16	.14	.10	.13	-.27	.16	-.15	-.02	.09	.13	-.06	-.05	-.01	-.02	.11	-.05	-.33	.03	.19	-.19	-.14

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$; Child Down, Parent Across

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Appendix E: Individual Correlations

Appendix E
Individual Correlations

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
B	.84**																			
C	.89**	.95**																		
D	-.05	-.06	-.22																	
E	.36	.26	.21	.52*																
F	.29	.24	.14	.55**	.57**															
G	-.06	-.06	-.11	.43*	.14	.30														
H	-.15	-.14	-.16	-.12	.02	-.05	-.02													
I	.55**	.56**	.57**	.27	.56**	.36	-.11	-.04												
J	.19	.41	.37	.28	.35	.38	.10	-.06	.81**											
K	.10	.33	.26	-.05	.19	.29	-.20	.13	.57**	.72**										
L	.50**	.28	.41	.12	.32	.16	.16	.08	.66**	.46**	.09									
M	.62**	.64**	.51*	.28	.43*	.50*	.04	.22	.54**	.40	.40	.27								
N	.60**	.56**	.58**	.27	.36	.20	.01	-.15	.46*	.30	-.01	.24	.62**							
O	.04	.36	.34	-.32	-.30	-.03	-.22	.07	.04	.18	.22	-.17	.08	.03						
P	.16	-.06	.02	.07	.18	.32	.20	-.20	-.17	-.18	-.39	.13	.11	.34	-.23					
Q	.30	.63**	.56**	-.05	-.02	-.01	-.06	-.05	.32	.37	.38	-.04	.29	.36	.71**	-.40				
R	.43*	.31	.30	.24	.17	.54**	.59**	-.16	.17	.26	.00	.33	.46*	.36	-.17	.56**	-.04			
S	.14	.06	.00	.22	.39	.41	.32	.10	-.05	-.11	-.22	-.10	.27	.35	-.22	.61**	-.11	.49*		
T	.20	.43*	.34	.14	.04	.07	.18	.17	.32	.38	.44*	-.11	.34	.33	.04	-.34	.41	.22	.20	
U	.43*	.47*	.52*	.15	.41	.47*	-.21	.04	.79**	.65**	.44*	.47*	.39	.40	.42*	-.02	.37	.09	.02	.17

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$

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